

# Synthesis and characterization of $\text{TiO}_2$ : Evaluation for possible application as light trapping layer in thin film solar cells

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## Abstract

In this study, titanium dioxide ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ) nanoparticles (NPs) were synthesized using the sol–gel method for a 2 hr reaction time and thereafter modified to evaluate their effects on the performance of perovskite-based solar cells (PSCs). The synthesized NPs were then annealed at  $500^\circ\text{C}$  for 3 hr. Structural, morphological, compositional, and optical characterization was carried out using X-ray diffraction (XRD), Raman spectroscopy, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and UV–Vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy. The XRD patterns confirmed the crystalline nature and tetragonal structure of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs while the average crystallite size and dislocation line density were estimated using the Debye–Scherrer relation. The average crystallite size decreased from 4.75 nm before annealing to 3.69 nm after annealing while the dislocation density increased from  $0.01 \times 10^{15}$  to  $0.245 \times 10^{15}$  lines/m<sup>2</sup>. Raman spectroscopy further validated the presence of the anatase phase through peak analysis. The presence of sharp and intense Raman peaks indicates improved crystallinity and reduced structural disorder after annealing. SEM analysis revealed increased grain size and improved particle uniformity. UV–Vis analysis showed absorption in the range of 390–450 nm. After annealing, the band gap values slightly decreased from 2.85 to 2.73 eV. The SCAPS-1D software was further used to simulate the possible power conversion efficiency (PCE) of the proposed PSC device. The simulated device achieved higher PCE values of 25.71% and 24.42% from unannealed and annealed  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs, respectively.

## 1. Introduction

Perovskite solar cells (PSCs) have drawn a lot of interest because of their superior optoelectronic characteristics, which include low recombination losses, high absorption coefficients and effective charge transport. The most promising of these are organic–inorganic lead halide perovskites, which have excellent charge carrier mobility, strong light absorption and efficient exciton mobility. All of these parameters contribute significantly to the high power conversion efficiencies (PCEs) achieved by PSCs [1]. Since their introduction by Kojima et al. in 2009, PSCs have rapidly advanced, with methyl ammonium lead iodide ( $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ )-based devices now achieving PCEs exceeding 25%, making them competitive with conventional silicon-based solar cells[2] Ongoing research has focused on improving the performance, stability, and scalability of PSCs by modifying the perovskite layer and other device components. The electron transport layer (ETL) is one of the layers that is most important for charge extraction and overall device efficiency. The superior optical and electrical properties, good energy level alignment, and chemical stability of titanium dioxide ( $\text{TiO}_2$ ) make it one of the most used ETL materials in PSCs. Particularly  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles (NPs) have a large surface area, which makes them perfect for solar applications[3]. In this work the characteristics of  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs have been evaluated experimentally. Additionally, a modified planar n–i–p architecture (ITO/ $\text{TiO}_2$ / $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ /Spiro-OMeTAD/Au) is investigated using SCAPS-1D simulation to determine the impact of  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs optimization on device performance.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1 Sol-gel synthesis of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs

Titanium tetrakisopropoxide (TTIP, 97%), isopropanol (70% in aqueous solution), nitric acid (70%) and deionized water were utilized to synthesize (TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs) by the sol-gel method. 5 mL of TTIP was slowly added to 6 mL of isopropanol under continuous stirring at room temperature and the mixture was stirred for 15 min. 75 mL of deionized water was gradually introduced, forming a white precipitate that quickly transformed into a white solution. The mixture was heated and stirred at 80–85°C for 1 h. Subsequently, 2.5 mL of nitric acid was added dropwise with constant stirring, followed by continued heating for 2 more hr to induce peptization. After cooling to room temperature the solution was oven-dried at 60–65°C for 6 hr and 30 min. The dried NPs were ground into a fine powder and annealed at 500°C for 3 hr to improve crystallinity. Figure 1(a) and (b) illustrate the preparation method and the proposed PSC device configuration.

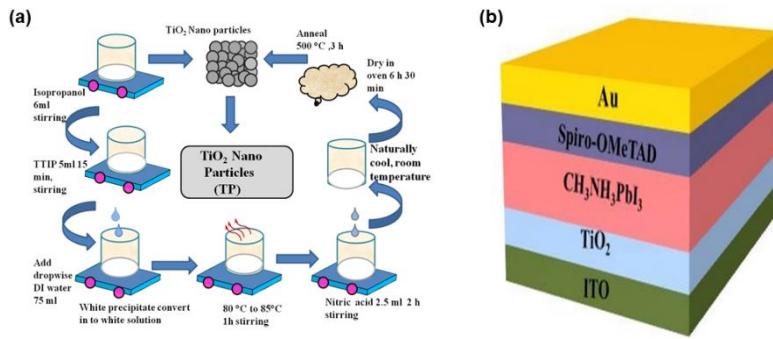


Figure 1. (a) A schematic representation of the sol-gel synthesis for TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles and (b) the proposed device configuration under AM1.5G illumination (1000 W/m<sup>2</sup>)

### 2.2 PSC Device Simulation using SCAPS-1D

The continuity and Poisson's equations were used to simulate the PSC device using SCAPS-1D software. The continuity equations explain how electrons and holes behave in the device, while Poisson's equation explains the electric potential caused by the distribution of charges. These are shown by equations 1 to 3[4]

$$\nabla^2\psi = q/\epsilon(n - p + N_A - N_D) \quad (1)$$

$$\nabla J_n - q \frac{\partial n}{\partial t} = +qR \quad (2)$$

$$\nabla J_p + q \frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = -qR \quad (3)$$

where  $\psi$  represents the electric potential,  $n$  and  $p$  denote the densities of electrons and holes respectively, while  $N_A$  and  $N_D$  correspond to the concentrations of acceptors and donors. The symbol  $q$  signifies the charge of an electron, and  $\epsilon$  indicates the dielectric constant of the materials involved.  $J_n$  and  $J_p$  represent the current densities of electrons and holes and  $R$  denotes the rate of recombination. Figure 1(b) shows the proposed architecture of the (PSC), which has been simulated using SCAPS with a lead-based perovskite absorber, specifically (CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub>), acknowledged for its advantageous properties and enhanced efficiency, with Spiro-OMeTAD functioning as the hole transport layer. The device configuration is as follows: ITO/TiO<sub>2</sub>/CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub>/Spiro-OMeTAD/Au. Incident light is transmitted through the indium tin oxide (ITO) front contact, with TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs serve as the light trapping and electron transport layer (ETL), CH<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> functioning as the light absorber, Spiro-OMeTAD designated as the hole transport layer (HTL), and gold (Au) designated as the rear contact. Simulations were run at 300 K with AM 1.5 G illumination (1000 W/m<sup>2</sup>). TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs having band gap values of 2.85 eV and 2.73 eV, respectively, were used to compare two models before and after annealing at 500°C [5].

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1 X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis

The XRD patterns of  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs in the  $2\theta$  range of (20–70°) are shown in Figure 2(a), confirming good crystallinity, phase purity and structural information. XRD peaks of  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs the diffraction peaks match well with anatase phases of  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs. The main peaks at 25.21°, 37.80°, 48.04°, 53.89°, 55.05°, 62.69°, and 68.77° match with the (101), (004), (200), (105), (211), (204), and (116) planes, respectively, consistent with JCPDS card no. 21-1272. The tetragonal structure was observed and it belongs to the space group I41/amd (#141). Diffraction peaks for  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs before annealing (black line) are sharper and more intense, especially at (101) plane, indicating better crystallinity. After annealing (red line), the peak intensity decreases slightly and becomes broader, or particle agglomeration during annealing as the heat treatment allows nanoparticles to merge, increasing crystallite size but sometimes reducing diffraction intensity[6]. No rutile phase or impurity peaks were observed before or after annealing confirming the stability of the anatase phase. Using the Debye-Scherrer equation, the average crystallite size and dislocation line density were also calculated[7].

$$D = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cos \theta} \quad (4)$$

where  $D$  is the average crystallite size,  $k$  denotes the shape factor (generally accepted as 0.9),  $\lambda$  signifies the wavelength of the X-ray (1.5406 Å),  $\beta$  indicates the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the most prominent diffraction peak, and  $\theta$  refers to the Bragg angle. The dislocation line density ( $\delta$ ) of  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs was calculated as

$$\delta = \frac{1}{D^2} \quad (5)$$

The average crystallite size decreased from 4.75 nm before annealing to 3.69 nm after annealing, while the dislocation density increased from  $0.01 \times 10^{15}$  to  $0.245 \times 10^{15}$  lines/m<sup>2</sup>. The increase in dislocation density suggests that defects were generated during annealing, which could impact their optoelectronic properties.

#### 3.2. Raman analysis

Raman spectra were recorded to analyze structural changes, as shown in Figure 2(b). Raman analysis showed a prominent  $E_g(1)$  mode at 144 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which is indicative of the anatase phase and corresponds to the symmetric stretching vibrations of oxygen atoms in the O–Ti–O bonds, while the  $A_{1g}$  mode, arising from anti-symmetric bending is also present. Additional Raman peak, corresponding to overlapping ( $A_{1g} + B_{1g}$ ) modes around 515 cm<sup>-1</sup> and an  $E_g(3)$  mode near 640 cm<sup>-1</sup> was observed, further confirming the presence of anatase phase[8]. These vibrational features are consistent with the tetragonal crystal structure (space group I41/amd) and align well with the XRD results. Before annealing, the Raman peaks most notably  $E_g(1)$  around 144 cm<sup>-1</sup> are sharp and intense, indicating well-developed anatase phase. After annealing, these peaks become weaker and slightly broadened, suggesting grain growth and reduced phonon confinement, which can cause decreased vibrational intensity and band broadening [9]. Figure 2(a) and (b) show the XRD and Raman results of 2 h  $\text{TiO}_2$  before and after annealing, respectively

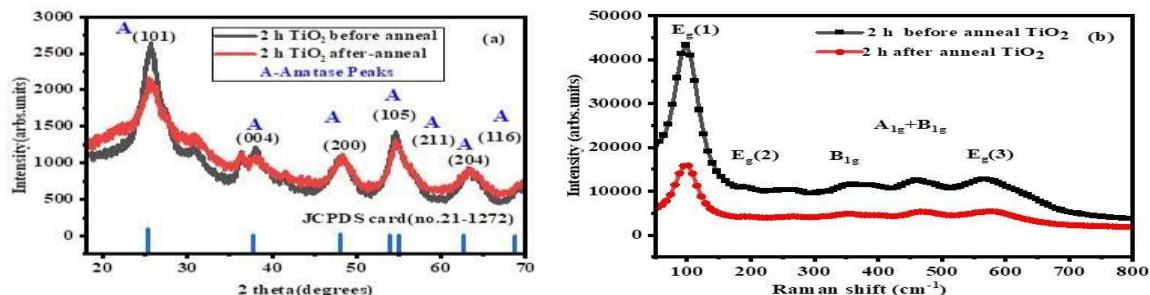


Figure 2: (a) XRD patterns and (b) Raman spectra of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles.

### 3.3 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) Analysis

SEM images of  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs before and after annealing are shown in the Figure 3 (a and b). The unannealed sample exhibits irregular, loosely packed particles with noticeable agglomeration and porosity. After annealing, the particles become more defined and densely packed, suggesting improved crystallinity and slight grain growth due to thermal treatment [10]. The limited stirring time leads to moderate uniformity, but annealing helps enhance the particle structure.

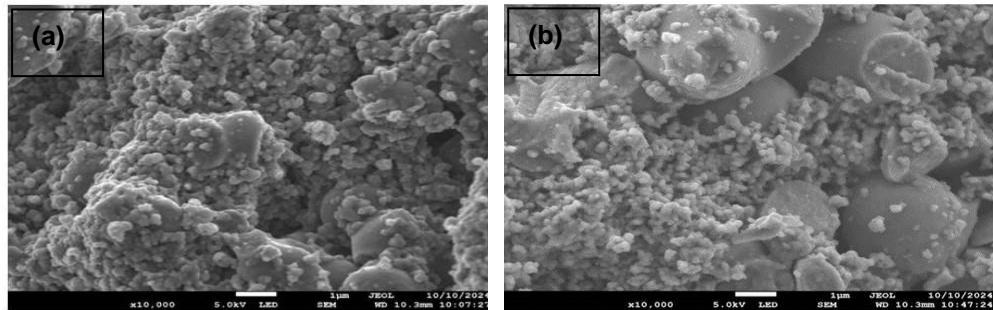


Figure 3: SEM images of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles (a) Unannealed and (b) annealed for 2 hr.

### 3.4. Diffuse Reflectance Spectroscopy (DRS) UV–Vis Analysis

Figure 4(a) and (b): UV–Vis DRS results and band gap energy of  $\text{TiO}_2$  before and after annealing. The optical characteristics of  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs were analyzed using DRS UV–Vis in the 200–700 nm range, as shown in Figure 4(a). The spectra exhibited an absorption edge shift from around 390 nm before annealing to approximately 450 nm after annealing, indicating the photon absorption of  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs in the UV range. This shift suggests enhanced crystallinity and reduced surface defects. The band gap values were estimated from Tauc plots using the Kubelka–Munk function  $F(R)$ , revealing a slight band gap narrowing after annealing, as shown in Figure 4(b).

$$F(R) = \frac{(1 - R)^{1/2}}{2(R)} \quad (6)$$

where the Kubelka–Munk function is denoted by  $F(R)$ . Tauc plots were used to measure the optical band gap of  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs [ $(F(R)hv)^{1/2}$  vs.  $hv$ ], which showed an indirect transition [11]. The band gap decreased from 2.85 eV before annealing to 2.73 eV after annealing. The decrease in band gap after annealing is attributed to increased particle size, reduced surface defects, and the formation of oxygen vacancies that introduce deep-level states within the band gap [12].

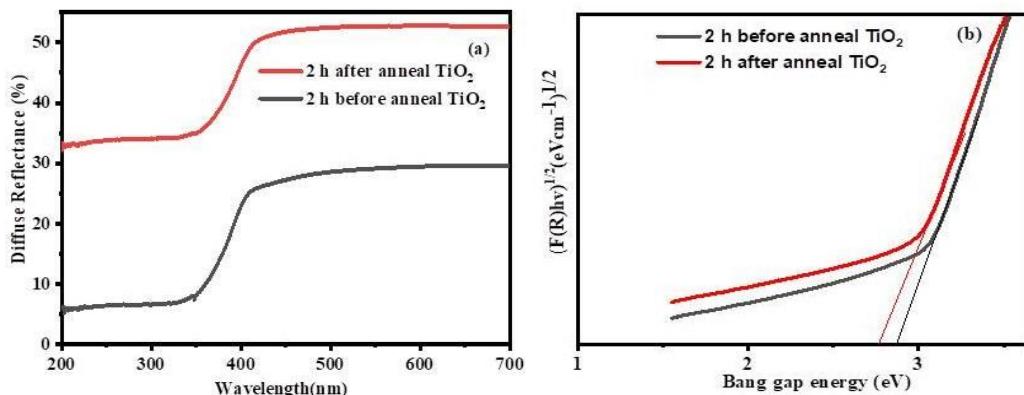


Figure 4: (a): UV–Vis spectra and (b) estimated band gap energy of  $\text{TiO}_2$  nanoparticles, unannealed and annealed at 2 hr.

### 3.5 SCAPS-1D Simulation

The photovoltaic performance of the  $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ -based PSC was assessed using SCAPS-1D simulation, with the electron transport layer (ETL) being experimentally set as  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs. The simulated device structure (ITO/ $\text{TiO}_2$ / $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ /SpiroOMeTAD/Au) showed PCE of 25.71% for  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs before annealing and 24.42% after annealing. This slight decrease after annealing correlates with the experimental data, where annealing improved crystallinity and purity but may have introduced slight agglomeration, affecting charge transport. The current–voltage (J–V) curves further support this trend by showing reduced current density after annealing, indicating changes in charge collection as shown in Figure 5[13]. Overall, the simulation confirms that  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs in the anatase phase offer a highly effective ETL, balancing structural and optical properties for efficient solar cell operation. Table 1 shows the input parameters for SCAPS-1D and Table 2 gives the simulation results[14].

Table 1: Simulation parameters for the proposed perovskite device configuration.

Device Parameters	ITO (Indium Tin Oxide) [14]	Before annealing 2 hr $\text{TiO}_2$ (ETL) [Own work]	After annealing 2 hr $\text{TiO}_2$ (HTL) (ETL) [Own work]	$\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ (Perovskite) [14]	Spiro-OMeTAD [14]
T(nm)	5	30	30	700	200
$E_g$ (eV)	3.5	2.85	2.73	1.6	3.0
$\chi$ (eV)	4	4	4	4	2.45
$\epsilon_r$	9	9	9	9	3
$N_c$ ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )	$2.2 \times 10^{18}$	$2 \times 10^{18}$	$2.2 \times 10^{18}$	$2.2 \times 10^{18}$	$2.2 \times 10^{18}$
$N_v$ ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )	$1.8 \times 10^{18}$	$1.8 \times 10^{19}$	$1.8 \times 10^{19}$	$2.2 \times 10^{19}$	$1.9 \times 10^{19}$
$\mu_n$ ( $\text{cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ )	30	20	20	2.0	$2 \times 10^{-4}$
$\mu_p$ ( $\text{cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ )	5	10	10	2.0	$2 \times 10^{-4}$
$E_v$ ( $\text{cm/s}$ )	$1 \times 10^7$	$1 \times 10^7$	$1 \times 10^7$	$1 \times 10^7$	$1 \times 10^7$
$h\nu$ ( $\text{cm/s}$ )	$1 \times 10^7$	$1 \times 10^7$	$1 \times 10^7$	$1 \times 10^7$	$1 \times 10^7$
$N_A$ ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )	0	0	0	$1 \times 10^{13}$	$1 \times 10^{18}$
$N_D$ ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )	$2 \times 10^{20}$	$1 \times 10^{16}$	$1 \times 10^{16}$	0	0

Table 2: SCAPS-1D simulated results of the proposed proposed perovskite device configuration.

Sample	$V_0$ (V)	$(J_{sc})$ $\text{mA/cm}^2$	(FF)%	(PCE) %
$\text{TiO}_2$ Unannealed	1.3400	23.606397	81.28	25.71
$\text{TiO}_2$ Annealed	1.3348	23.582969	77.58	24.42

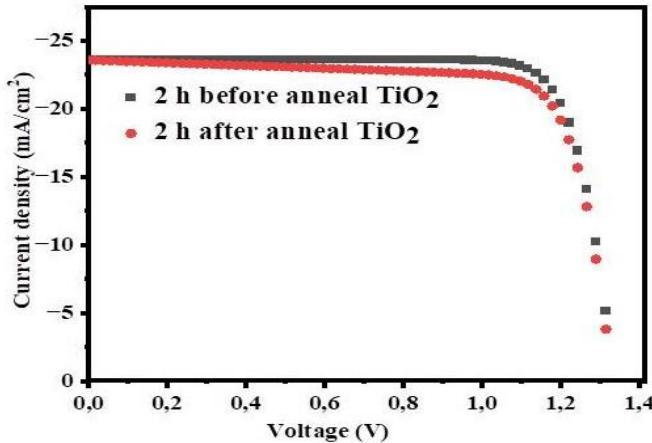


Figure 5: Simulated current density vs voltage spectra for the proposed perovskite device configuration.

#### 4. Conclusion

In this work,  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs synthesized via the sol–gel method and annealed at 500 °C for 3 h showed significant structural and optical improvements. XRD and Raman analysis confirmed the anatase phase with enhanced crystallinity after annealing. SEM revealed better particle uniformity, while UV–Vis results indicated a slight band gap reduction due to increased particle size. SCAPS-1D simulations have shown that these improvements can possibly have a positive impact on the performance of  $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ -based perovskite solar cells. These results demonstrate that  $\text{TiO}_2$  NPs are suitable material as a light trapping and an ETL for improving the performance and stability of  $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ -based perovskite solar cells.

#### 5. Acknowledgements

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