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Aims and Scope

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The electrical switching properties of $\text{Ge}_{10}\text{Se}_5\text{Sb}_{85}$ chalcogenide glass

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ABSTRACT

Bulk ingot material of the ternary mixture $\text{Ge}_{10}\text{Se}_5\text{Sb}_{85}$ was prepared by direct fusion of high purity constituent elements in vacuum sealed silica tube. The glassy nature of the prepared sample was confirmed by the X-ray diffraction (XRD) technique. Current -Voltage characteristics of the investigated glass have been carried out at different thicknesses and temperatures. Switching phenomenon at the turn-over point (TOP) from a high-resistance state (OFF state) to a negative-differential resistance-state (NDRS) was detected where the threshold parameters such as threshold dissipated power (P_{th}), threshold voltage (V_{th}), threshold current (I_{th}), threshold electric field (E_{th}) and threshold resistance (R_{th}) were determined at different thicknesses and ambient temperatures of the investigated samples. At the turn-over point, the activation energies (ΔE_p , ΔE_v , ΔE_i , ΔE_r and ΔE_f) caused by the threshold dissipated powers, threshold voltages, threshold currents, threshold resistances and threshold electric fields respectively, were deduced at different thicknesses of the samples. The increasing in the ambient temperature of the investigated material (ΔT_j), the temperature of the conduction path (T') and the Poole-Frenkel coefficient (β_{PF}) were determined at different ambient temperatures and thicknesses of the samples on the basis of the Joule heating effects. The activation energy of hopping (W), the activation energy of conduction ΔE_σ (eV), the hopping distance (d) of the charge carriers and the density of localized states $N(E)$ were carried out due to Poole-Frenkel effect.

Keywords : Switching, chalcogenide, glass, Poole-Frenkel effect.

PACS Nos.: 71.23An, 71.23Cq, 61.82Fk, 31.43.Fs

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the most important class of glass is the chalcogenide glass. It contains at least one of the chalcogen elements; sulfur, selenium or tellurium, and is of essential interest owing to their wide application in optoelectronics, electrical and optical memory devices, modern electronics, and solar cells. Chalcogenide glass has attracted great attention because of their interesting semiconducting properties[1,2] that can be used in various solid state-devices, such as power control and information storage devices and also because of their more recent importance in optical recording[3]. They are considered as core materials for optical fibers for light transmission, particularly when small lengths and flexibility are required. Binary and ternary chalcogenide glasses exhibit many useful properties including, particularly, the switching phenomenon. In chalcogenide glass there exists two types of switching which are threshold and memory switching based on the way the glasses respond to the removal of the electric field after the switching event[4-12]. In the first type of switching, the ON state can be observed only when a current flows down to a certain holding voltage, while in the memory type one, the ON state is permanent until a suitable reset current pulse is applied on the sample[13]. The investigated glasses are important due to their interesting optical properties for their potential use as optical fibers, and electrical memory devices. The phenomenon of electrical switching in this type of glass has attracted several technological applications including power control and information storage.

In threshold-type switching, no structural changes occur and the process could be considered as reversible, whereas in memory-type switching, the material undergoes significant structural changes after transition and the process becomes completely irreversible[14,15]. The sudden change in the electrical resistance of chalcogenide glasses from a low conducting "OFF" state to a high conducting "ON" state under the effect of an appropriate electric field is commonly referred to as the switching/threshold electric field[16]. The switching process consists of a change of several orders of magnitude in electrical resistance caused by the application of a voltage higher than a critical voltage known as the threshold or switching voltage(v_{th}), which corresponds to the threshold resistance (R_{th}), threshold current (I_{th}), threshold dissipated power (P_{th}), and threshold electric field (E_{th}). The application of a high electric field across high-resistivity materials sometimes results in either switching to a low-resistance state or entering a region of current-controlled negative resistance (CCNR)[17]. On the removal of the excitation electric field, threshold switching glasses revert to the OFF state whereas memory switches remain locked to the ON state[18]. Memory switches originate from the boundaries of the glass-forming regions, where glasses tend to crystallize when heated or cooled slowly[19-21]. There are several models proposed to understand the memory and threshold types of electrical switching, which are exhibited by the chalcogenide glasses. They have been classified into purely electronic[22], thermal and electrothermal models[23-27]. The electronic mechanism appears to govern thin films, while the electrothermal model appears to control the bulk specimens[28] and some investigators[23,29,30] have considered the threshold switching as an electronic

process. Investigations on the current-voltage characteristics and some studies on the dependence of the switching voltage and current on different material properties, such as composition, thickness, and pressure, will help investigators to understand the conduction mechanisms of the chalcogenide glasses. In the present work, the effect of thickness and temperature on the I-V characteristics and some switching parameters of $\text{Ge}_{10}\text{Se}_5\text{Sb}_{85}$ chalcogenide glasses will be investigated.

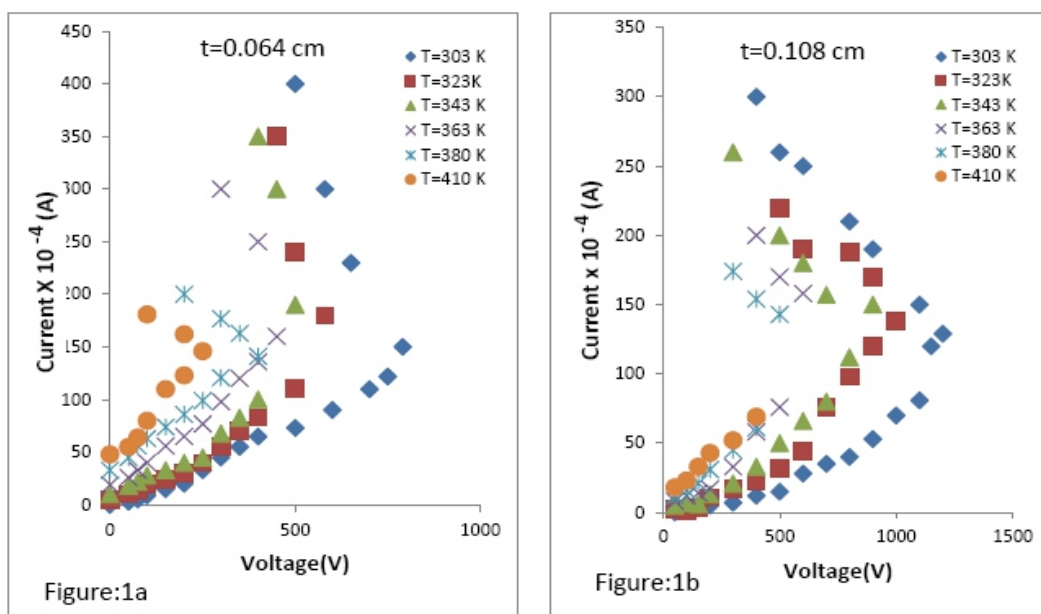
2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Bulk chalcogenide glasses of $\text{Ge}_{10}\text{Se}_5\text{Sb}_{85}$ were prepared using the conventional melt quenching technique. Elemental constituents of 5N purity were weighed according to their atomic percentages and sealed in evacuated (10^{-5} Torr) silica tubes then heated gradually to 1223 K for 15 h. The melt was continuously stirred to ensure homogeneity and then rapidly quenched in ice water. The glassy nature of the prepared samples was confirmed by the X-ray diffraction (XRD) technique using a Shimadzu XD-3 diffractometer with scanning velocity of 20 scans/min and Cu foil as the radiation source. Current-voltage characteristics were analyzed point by point using two electrometers (Keithley 617C). The glass samples were sandwiched between two electrodes, one of which was a pin electrode. The best fit for the resultant data points was made using the least-square method.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Temperature dependence of the I-V characteristics of $\text{Ge}_{10}\text{Se}_5\text{Sb}_{85}$

Current-voltage (I-V) characteristics and switching phenomena of different thicknesses of amorphous $\text{Ge}_{10}\text{Se}_5\text{Sb}_{85}$ at different ambient temperatures are given in Figs. 1a-1d.



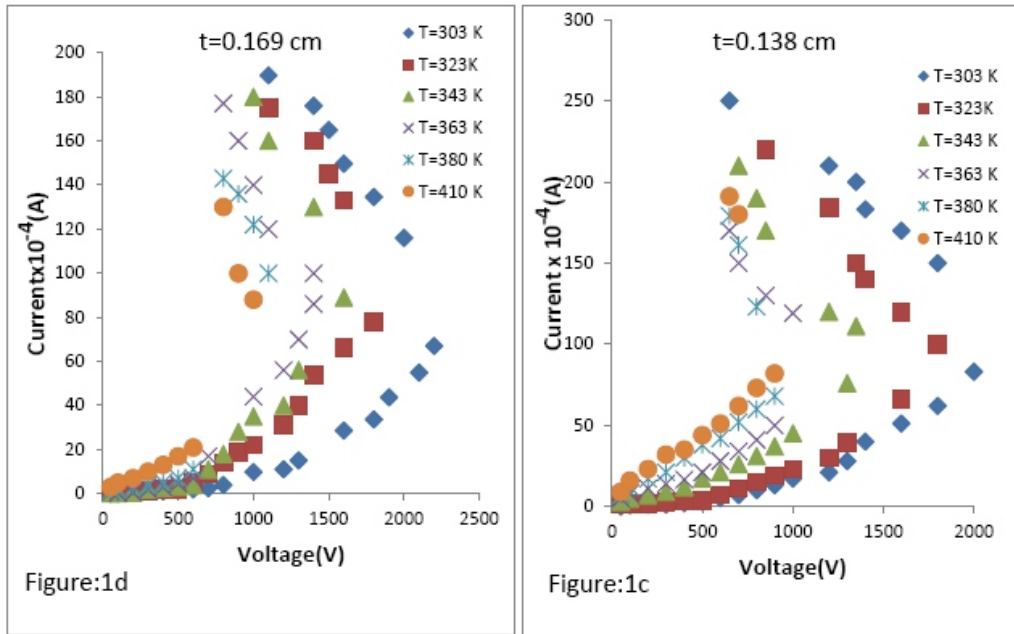
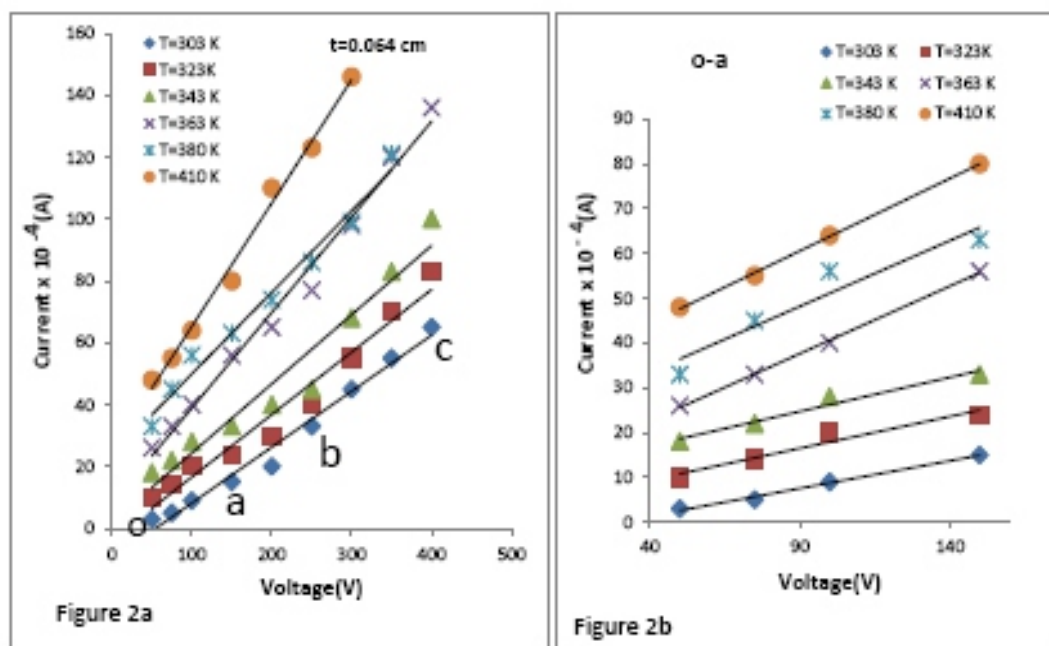


FIG. 1a -1d. The I-V characteristics of different thicknesses($t=0.064$ cm, $t=0.108$ cm, $t=0.138$ cm and $t=0.169$ cm) for the glassy sample $\text{Ge}_5\text{Se}_{15}\text{Sb}_{85}$ at different ambient temperatures.

From the figures it can be noticed that the sample exhibit an Ohmic behavior at lower applied voltages which is characterized by the high resistance state(OFF state). The OFF state region ,for the investigated samples($t=0.064$ cm as a representative sample) can be redrawn, as shown in Figs. 2a-2d,

where it can be observed that, as the voltage across the sample increases , then the current increase linearly (Ohmic behavior), forming the first region (o-a) in the OFF state, which represents the high-resistance state.



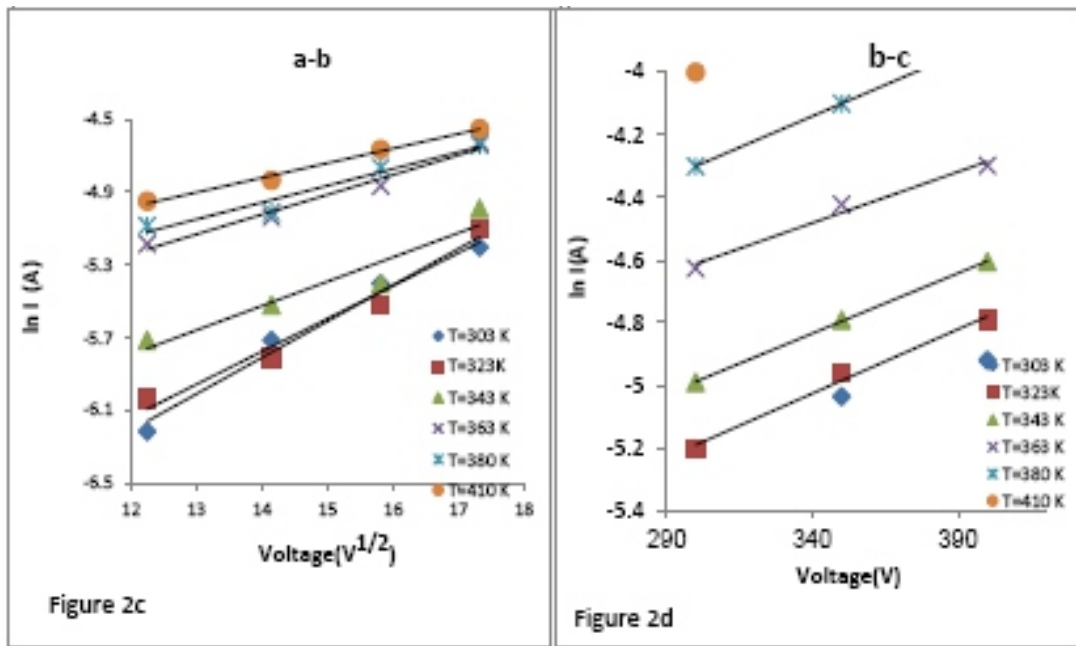


FIG. 2a -2d. The I-V Characteristics of the sample($t=0.064$ cm) at different ambient temperatures in the OFF state.

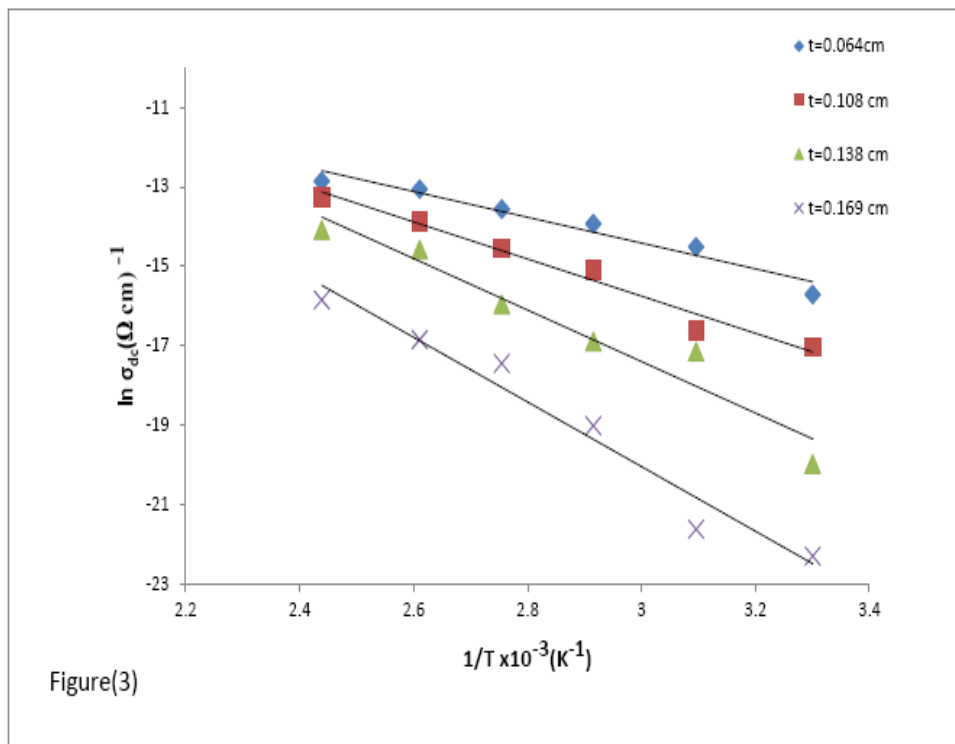


FIG. 3 . The temperature dependence of the dc conductivity of $\text{Ge}_{10}\text{Se}_5\text{Sb}_{85}$ at different ambient temperatures.

The dc conductivity of the investigated samples was plotted(as shown in Fig. 3) against the ambient temperature, at different thickness, according to the relation:

$$\sigma_{dc} = \sigma_0 \exp(-\Delta E_{\sigma} / k_B T) \quad (1)$$

Where ΔE_{σ} is the activation energy of conduction. The deduced values of ΔE_{σ} at different thickness of the investigated samples are given in Table 2 where it can be noticed that as the sample thickness increases, the conductivity decreases which may be attributed to the increase in the disorder scattering process of the charge carriers which leads to increase the activation energy of conduction with the sample thickness as given in Table 2 and Fig. 9.

Table(1): The obtained values of the rise in the ambient temperature of the material(ΔT_j), temperature of the conduction path(T^{\setminus}) and the Poole - Frenkel coefficient(β_{PF}) at different temperatures and thicknesses of $Ge_{10}Se_5Sb_{85}$

Temperature (K)	t=0.064cm			t=0.108 cm			t=0.138 cm			t=0.169 cm		
	$N(E_F)$ ($10^{15} eV^{-1} cm^{-3}$)	d ($10^4 m$)	W(eV)	$N(E_F)$ ($10^{16} eV^{-1} cm^{-3}$)	d ($10^4 cm$)	W(eV)	$N(E_F)$ ($10^{16} eV^{-1} cm^{-3}$)	d ($10^4 cm$)	W(eV)	$N(E_F)$ ($10^{16} eV^{-1} cm^{-3}$)	d ($10^4 cm$)	W(eV)
303	0.78	6.46	1.126	4.2	4.23	0.737	10.9	3.34	0.582	14.5	3.11	0.543
323	2.99	4.55	0.845	8.5	4.10	0.762	11.7	3.23	0.601	16.2	2.98	0.554
343	12.01	3.16	0.774	13.0	3.92	0.674	14.0	3.04	0.581	19.2	2.81	0.555
363	34.66	2.18	0.655	36.1	2.40	0.602	38.4	2.64	0.551	39.6	2.53	0.529
380	45.89	0.189	0.456	51.4	.016	0.429	47.5	0.002	0.390	52.87	.00013	0.34
410	90.72	0.003	0.290	78.6	0.002	0.138	88.34	0.001	0.108	92.09	0.0005	0.0163

Table(2): The obtained values of the density of states $N(E_F)$, hopping distance (d) and hopping energy W (eV) at different temperatures and thicknesses of Ge₁₀Se₅Sb₈₅

Temperature (K)	t=0.064cm			t=0.108 cm			t=0.138 cm			t=0.169 cm		
	$N(E_F)$ ($10^{16} \text{ eV}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-3}$)	d (10^6 m)	W (eV)	$N(E_F)$ ($10^{16} \text{ eV}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-3}$)	d (10^6 cm)	W (eV)	$N(E_F)$ ($10^{16} \text{ eV}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-3}$)	d (10^6 cm)	W (eV)	$N(E_F)$ ($10^{16} \text{ eV}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-3}$)	d (10^6 cm)	W (eV)
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410	90.72	0.003	0.290	78.6	0.002	0.138	88.34	0.001	0.108	92.09	0.0005	0.0163

The region o-a is followed by a second one (a-b), which exhibits exponential behavior verifying the relation [31-33]:

$$I = I_0 \exp(V/V_0)^{1/2} \quad (2)$$

where I_0 is the potential difference across the sample, $V_0 = 4k_B T^2 / \beta P F$, with k_B being the Boltzmann constant, T is the ambient temperature of the sample, t is the sample thickness, and $\beta P F$ is the Poole-Frenkel coefficient. The relationship between $\ln I$ and $V^{1/2}$ at different constant ambient temperatures for the sample $t = 0.064 \text{ cm}$ is shown in Figs.2a-2b, where $\beta P F$ is determined and given in table 1. From this table it can be observed that $\beta P F$ tends to decrease as the ambient temperature increases, while it exhibits increasing behavior as the sample thickness increases which indicates that the conduction mechanism in the (a-b) region of the OFF state follows either the Schottky emission [34] or the Poole-Frenkel-type conduction [35]. The region (b-c) in the OFF state seems to be linear as shown in Figs.2(b) and 2(c).

The samples exhibit a sudden change from a high-resistance (OFF) state to a negative-differential-resistance state (NDRS). The point at which the curves switch from the OFF state to the NDRS is called the turn-over point (TOP). The switching behavior is accompanied by the burning or heating of the conduction path which in turn may lead to the Joule heating effect during the initial stage of switching because of the high resistance of the samples that leads to an increase in the conduction path temperature (T). This temperature was calculated for different thicknesses of the

sample s at constant ambient temperatures according to the relation [36,37] :

$$T^{\lambda} = T + \Delta T_J \quad (3)$$

where T is the ambient temperature and ΔT_J is the increase in the temperature of the conduction path, which is given by :

$$\Delta T_J = kT^2 / [\Delta E_{\sigma} - kT] \quad (4)$$

where ΔE_{σ} is the activation energy of conduction and k is the Boltzmann constant. The calculated values of T^{λ} and ΔT_J are given in Table 1, where it can be observed that as the ambient temperature increases, the temperature of the conduction path T^{λ} increases consequently, ΔT_J increases, which enhances the proposed concept of the Joule heating effect and is in agreement with previously reported results [37-40]. The parameters related to the TOP, such as the threshold voltage V_{th} , threshold current I_{th} , threshold resistance R_{th} and threshold power P_{th} , are calculated and their dependence on the sample thickness and temperature are discussed below.

3.2. Temperature dependence of the threshold voltage of Ge₁₀Se₅Sb₈₅

The temperature dependence of the threshold voltage (V_{th}) at different thicknesses for the sample Ge₁₀Se₅Sb₈₅ is shown in Fig.4 where an increase in V_{th} as the ambient temperature increases is observed, verifying the relation [38] :

$$V_{th} = V_0 \exp(\Delta E_v / kT), \quad (5)$$

where V_0 is a temperature-independent parameter and ΔE_v is the threshold voltage activation energy related to the temperature of the conduction path. The linear plots between $\ln(V_{th})$ and $(1/T)$ can be understood [37,39] in terms of the electrothermal model for the pre-switching region as follows : The temperature dependence of the threshold voltage is an important factor that characterizes the robustness of the material against thermal degradation and hence the stability of the material for device applications [41]. The memory switching in chalcogenide glasses involves the formation of a conducting crystalline filament in the material, and hence a decrease in threshold voltage is expected [42]. Most amorphous materials contain dipoles dispersed randomly through the amorphous matrix. As an electric field is applied, these dipoles tend to orient in the direction of this field. The orientation process depends on the viscosity of the amorphous matrix as well as on the applied electric field. As the temperature of the conduction path increases, its viscosity decreases, enhancing the orientation process, up to the TOP. At this point, the resultant force of the resistance for dipole orientation in a viscous amorphous medium diminishes therefore, the switching process takes place. Thus, as the ambient temperature

increases, the viscosity of the conduction path decreases, therefore the field's ability to cause a maximum dipole orientation should decrease [37,39].

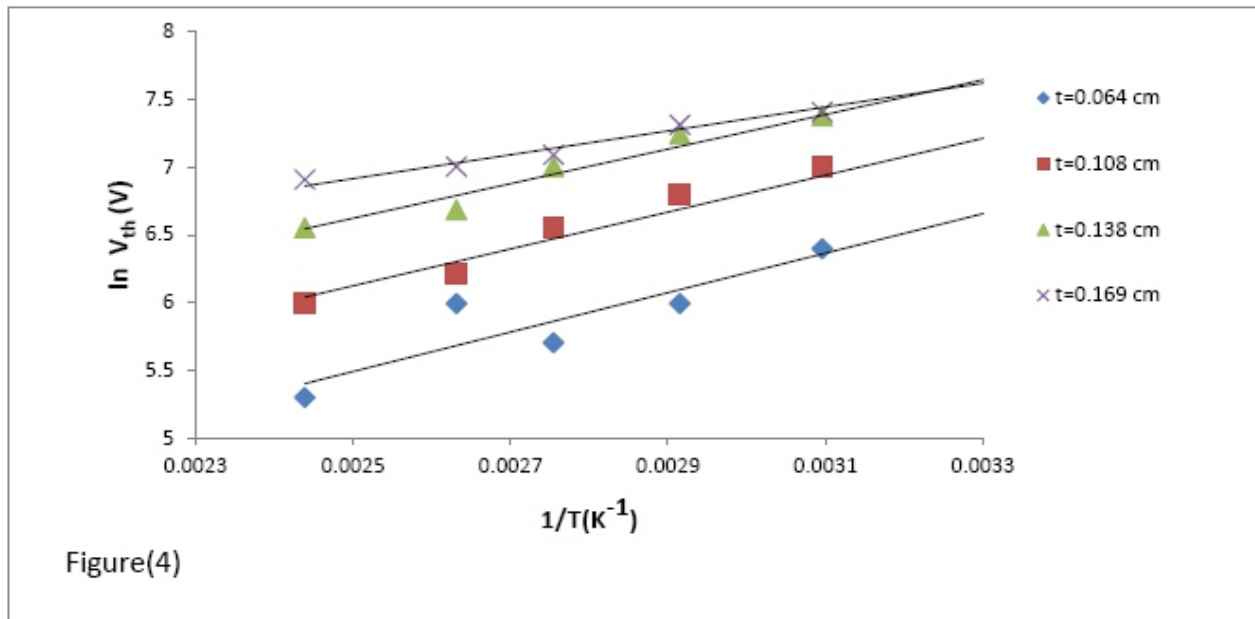


FIG. 4. The temperature dependence of the threshold voltage at constant thickness of the sample.

The thickness dependence of the threshold voltage for the investigated sample can be observed in Fig.4, where an increase in V_{th} with the sample thickness is obtained. It has been suggested earlier [43] that V_{th} varies with t , $t^{1/2}$, or t^2 depending on whether the mechanism responsible for switching is electronic, purely thermal, or electrothermal respectively. The results indicate the presence of electrothermal processes operating during the progress of the crystallization mechanism in the conduction path. It has been considered that as the sample thickness increases, the dissipated power inside the conduction path increases, which leads to an increase in the required field, consequently the threshold voltage increases, which is in agreement with previously reported results [44-46]. The values of ΔE_V at different thicknesses were deduced using the least-square fitting method and are given in Fig.9. From this figure it can be observed that ΔE_V decreases as the thickness increases. The decrease in ΔE_V may be interpreted in terms of the localized state concept, which is calculated according to the relation [47]:

$$\beta PF = \left[\frac{64\alpha^4}{()} \right]^{1/4} \quad (6)$$

where α^{-1} is the radius of the electron wave function, t is the sample thickness, and $N(E_F)$ is the density of localized states at the Fermi level. The calculated values of $N(E_F)$ are given in Table 2, where it can be observed that $N(E_F)$ tends to increase as the sample thickness increases, which results in a decrease in the hopping distance of

the charge carriers between the filled and empty states. The calculated values of the hopping distance (d), according to the relation [48-50]:

$d = [9 / (8 N(E_F) \pi \alpha k T)]^{1/4}$; are given in Table 2 where it can be noted that a decrease in d consequently results in a decrease in the required average hopping energy W (eV) between the filled and empty states. The calculated values of W (eV) according to the relation [50]: W (eV) = $[3 / (4\pi d^3 N(E_F))]$ are given in Table 2.

3.3. Temperature dependence of the threshold current of Ge₁₀Se₅Sb₈₅

Fig.5 shows the temperature dependence of the threshold current I_{th} for the investigated sample, which yields straight lines obeying the equation [38]:

$$I_{th} = I_0 \exp(-\Delta E_i / kT), \quad (7)$$

where I_0 is an independent term and ΔE_i is the activation energy term related to the conduction mechanism. From this figure, it can be noticed that as the ambient temperature increases the threshold current increases, which may be attributed to an increase in the area of the conduction path where the crystallization process is enhanced. The deduced values of ΔE_i at different thicknesses are given in Fig.9. It can be observed that as the sample thickness increases, ΔE_i tends to decrease. The decreasing behavior may be attributed to the increased area of the conduction path.

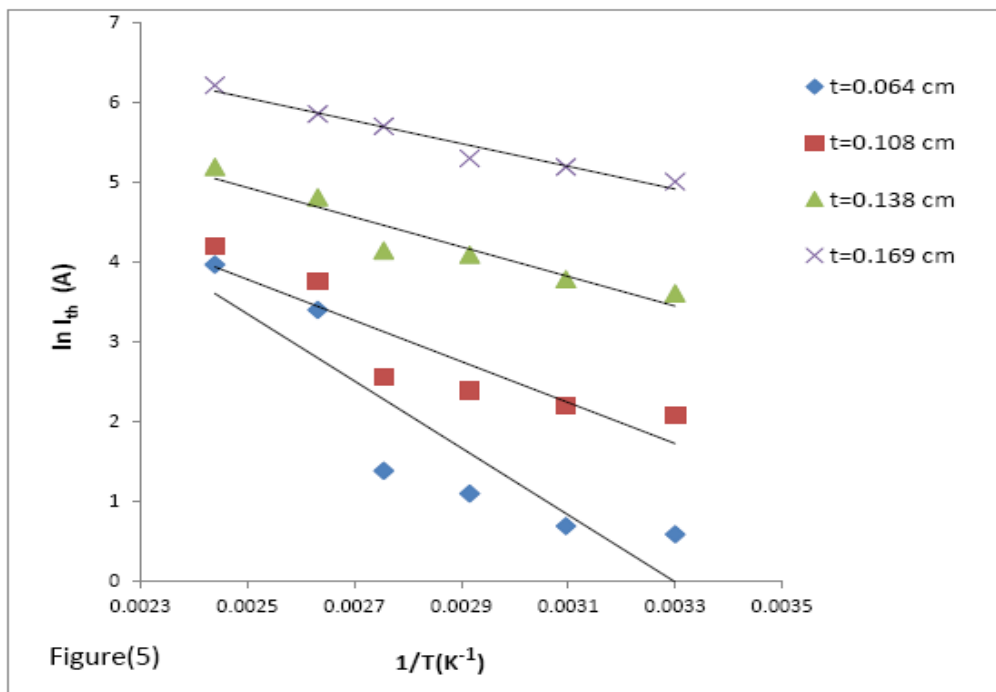


FIG. 5. The temperature dependence of the threshold current at constant thickness of the sample.

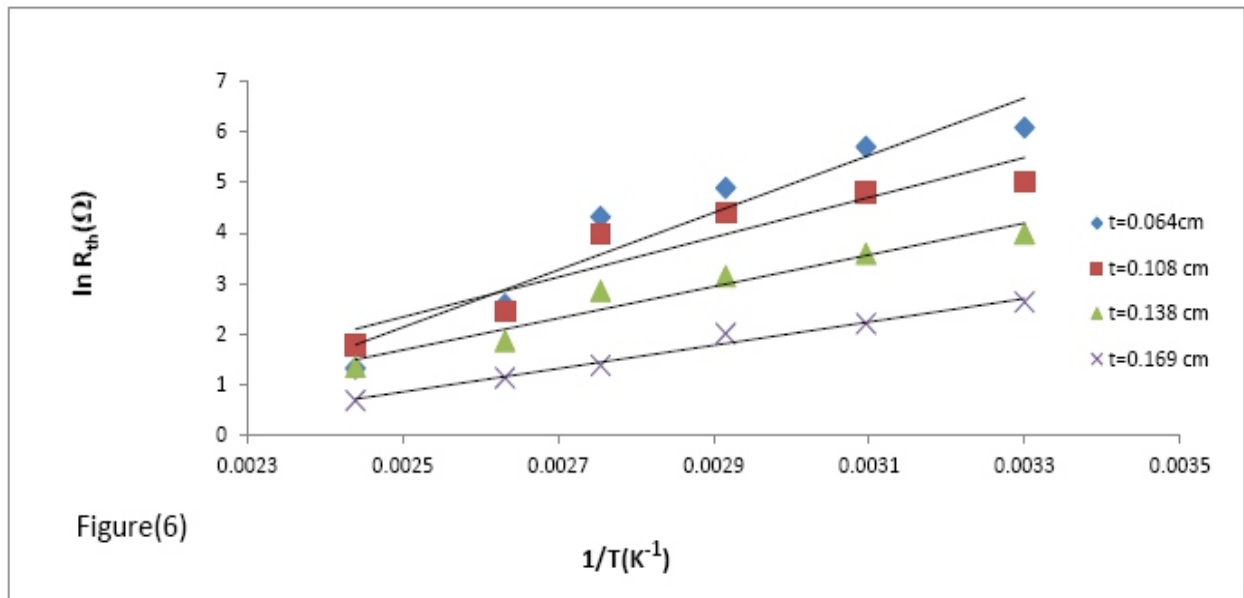


FIG. 6. The temperature dependence of the threshold resistance at constant thickness of the sample.

3.4. Temperature dependence of the threshold resistance of Ge₁₀Se₅Sb₈₅

Fig. 6 shows the temperature dependence of the threshold resistance R_{th} for the investigated sample, which yields straight lines obeying the equation[38]:

$$R_{th}=R_o \exp (\Delta E_r /kT), \quad (8)$$

where R_o is an independent term and ΔE_r is the activation energy term related to the conduction mechanism. It is observed that as the ambient temperature increases, the threshold resistance decreases. The threshold resistance increase as as the thickness of the sample increases. This may be attributed to an increase in the conduction path area. The values of ΔE_r were deduced for different thicknesses of the investigated sample using the least- squares fitting method and are given in Fig.9. From this figure it can be observed that ΔE_r tends to decreases gradually with the sample thickness, which is in agreement with previously reported results[37-46].

3.5. Temperature dependence of the threshold dissipated power of Ge₁₀Se₅Sb₈₅

The threshold dissipated power P_{th} ($P_{th}=V_{th} I_{th}$) in the conduction path of the sample at the threshold voltage was calculated at different thicknesses of the investigated sample and is plotted (as shown in Fig.7 as $\ln P_{th}$ against $1/T$ according to the relation[38]:

$$P_{th}=P_o \exp (-\Delta E_p /kT) \quad (9)$$

where ΔE_p is the activation energy at the threshold power. From Fig.7 it can be observed that P_{th} decreases as the temperature increases. This may be due to the

decrease in the number of collisions between the charge carriers in the samples. The values of ΔE_p were deduced and plotted as given in Fig.9 at different thicknesses of the investigated samples. It can be observed that ΔE_p decreases as the sample thickness increases which may be attributed to the deterioration of the scattering process between the charge carriers as a result of the enhanced process in the crystallization mechanism at the threshold point.

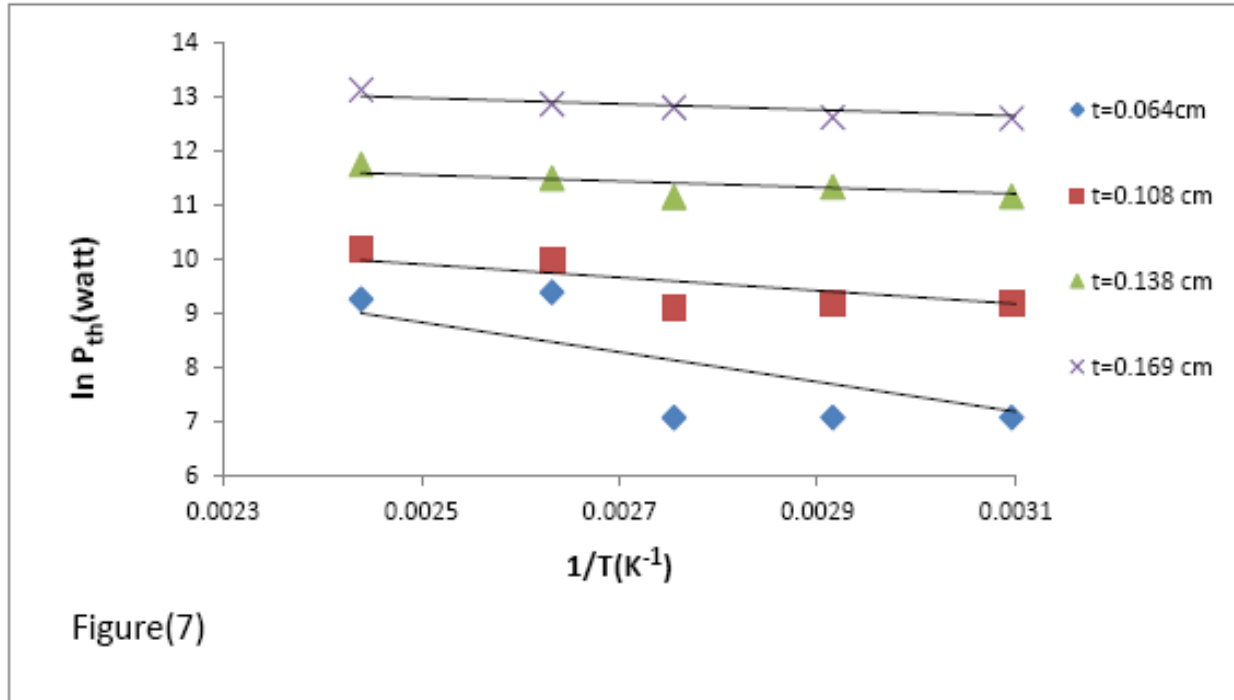


FIG. 7. The temperature dependence of the threshold power at constant thickness of the sample.

3.6. Temperature dependence of the threshold Electric field of Ge₁₀ Se₅ Sb₈₅

The threshold Electric field E_{th} ($V_{th}=t$) in the conduction path of the sample at the (TOP) was calculated at different thicknesses of the investigated sample and is plotted (as shown in Fig.8) as $\ln E_{th}$ against $1/T$ obeying the relation,

$$E_{th}=E_o \exp (\Delta E_f /kT) \quad (10)$$

where ΔE_f is the activation energy at the (TOP). From Fig.8 it can be noticed that as the temperature of the sample increases ,the threshold electric field decrease .The deduced values of ΔE_f are plotted against the sample thickness as given in Fig.9. It can be noticed that as the sample thickness increases, ΔE_f decrease which may be attributed to the increasing in the orientation process of the dipoles in the direction of the applied electric field.

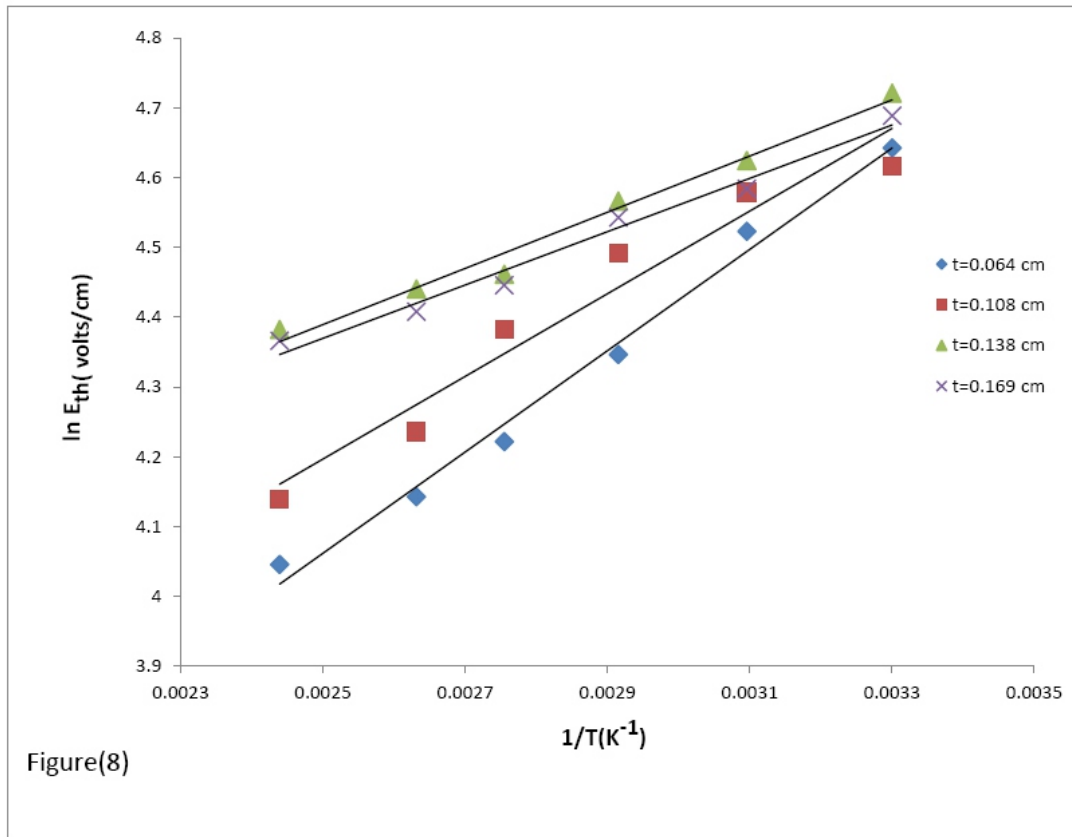


FIG. 8. The Temperature dependence of the threshold Electric field (E_{th}) of $Ge_{10}Se_5Sb_{85}$

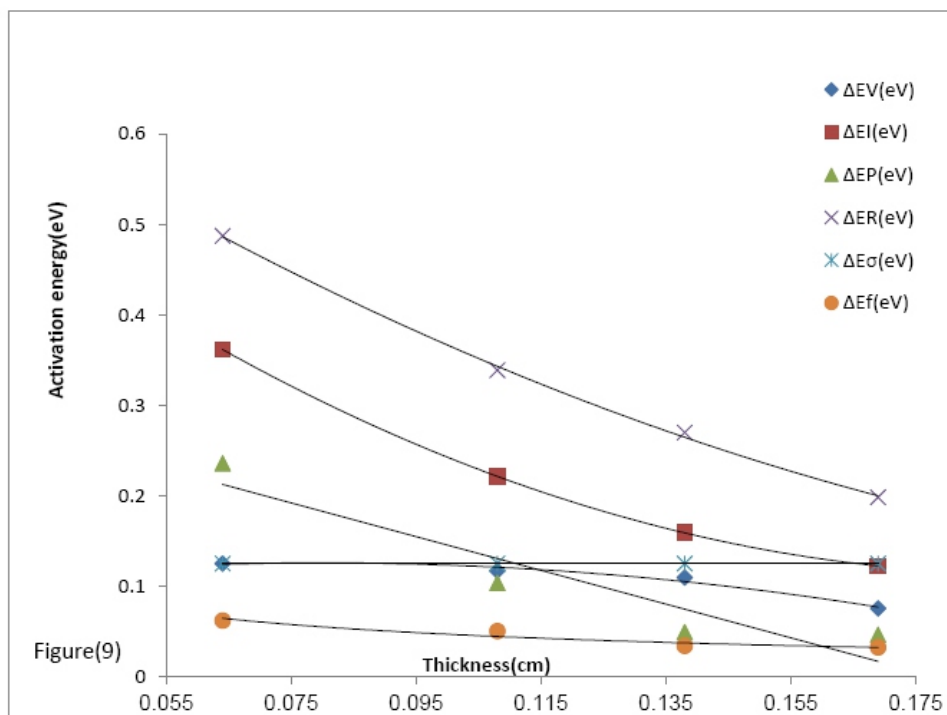


FIG. 9. The thickness dependence of the activation energy of $Ge_{10}Se_5Sb_{85}$

4. CONCLUSION

Bulk chalcogenide glasses of $\text{Ge}_{10}\text{Se}_5\text{Sb}_{85}$ were prepared using the conventional melt quenching technique. The glassy nature of the prepared samples was confirmed by the X-ray diffraction technique. Switching phenomenon at the turn-over point (TOP) from a high-resistance state (OFF state) to a negative-differential resistance-state (NDRS) was detected where the threshold parameters such as threshold dissipated power (P_{th}), threshold voltage (V_{th}), threshold current (I_{th}), threshold electric field (E_{th}) and threshold resistance (R_{th}) were determined at different thicknesses and ambient temperatures of the investigated samples. The activation energies of the investigated samples (ΔE_p , ΔE_v , ΔE_i , ΔE_r and ΔE_f), at the turn-over point, indicate a decreasing behavior with the sample thickness. The obtained values of the rise in the ambient temperature of the material (ΔT_J), temperature of the conduction path (T') and the Poole - Frenkel coefficient (β_{PF}) at different temperatures and thicknesses were explained in terms of Poole-Frenkel effect.

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Synthesis and Characterization of Methyl ammonium Lead Tri-Chloride: An active layer in Perovskite Solar Cell

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ABSTRACT

In this work, the preparation of $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_{3-x}\text{Cl}_x$ using Dimethylformamide as solvent by a Magnetic stirrer & hydrothermal method was done. The favorably smooth and dense surface morphology of the $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_{3-x}\text{Cl}_x$ layers are obtained & investigated in by UV- Visible spectroscopy. The results indicate that the $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_{3-x}\text{Cl}_x$ thin film possesses appropriate morphological, optical and electronic properties to be suitable for perovskite solar cell applications. The photovoltaic devices have been investigated and optimized in detail by tuning layer thickness, processing temperature and time, annealing conditions of interfacial layers.

Keywords: Perovskite Solar cell, Active layer, Magnetic stirrer, Hydrothermal synthesis

1. INTRODUCTION

A perovskite solar cell includes a perovskite structured compound, most commonly a hybrid organic-inorganic lead or tin halide-based material, as the light-harvesting

active layer. Perovskite materials such as methyl ammonium are cheap to buy and simple to manufacture, the rapid improvement of perovskite solar cells has made them the rising star of the photovoltaic's world and of huge interest to the academic community. Since their operational methods are still relatively new, there is great opportunity for further research into the basic physics and chemistry around perovskites. Furthermore, as has been shown over the past two years the engineering improvements of perovskite formulations and fabrication routine to significant increases in power conversion efficiency.

The perovskite lattice arrangement is demonstrated below. As with many structures in crystallography, it can be represented in multiple ways. The simplest way to think about a perovskite is as a large atomic or molecular cation (positively-charged) of type A in the centre of a cube. The corners of the cube are then occupied by atoms B (also positively-charged cations) and the faces of the cube are occupied by a smaller atom X with negative charge (anion).

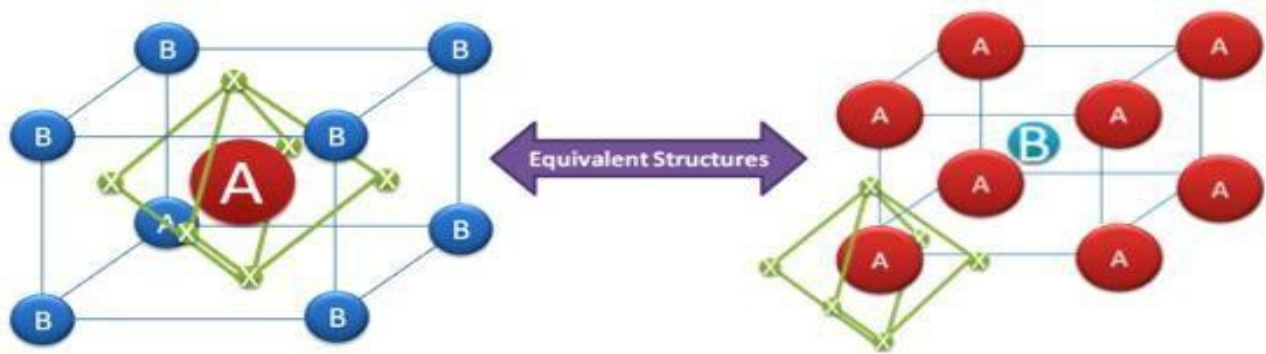


Figure no 1: Crystal structure of $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbX}_3$ Perovskite (X=I,Br, andCl).

In the case of perovskite solar cells, the most efficient devices so far have been produced with the following combination of materials in the usual perovskite form ABX_3 :

A=An organic cation-methylammonium(CH_3NH_3)⁺

B =A big inorganiccation-usually lead (II) (Pb^{2+})

X_3 =A slightly smaller halogenanion– usually chloride (Cl^-) or iodide(I^-)

Since this is a relatively general structure, these perovskite-based devices can also be given a number of different names, which can either refer to a more general class of materials or aspecific combination. As an example of this, we've created the below table to highlight how many names can be formed from one basic structure.

A	B	X
ORGANO	METAL	TRI-HALIDE
METHYL AMMONIUM	LEAD	TRI IODIDE
	PLUMBATE	TRI-CHLORIDE

3. RESULT & DISCUSSION:

3.1 Optical property of Perovskite solution

The UV-VISIBLE measurement was carried on the Perovskite solution ($\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_{3-x}\text{Cl}_x$), results by both the method were concluded, in case of magnetic stirrer method it was found that the λ_{max} is 390nm, and in case of Hydrothermal synthesis, found the diffraction peak at 380nm and 420nm, which indicates different shape & size of material (morphology difference) which is relatively good for Perovskite solar cell.

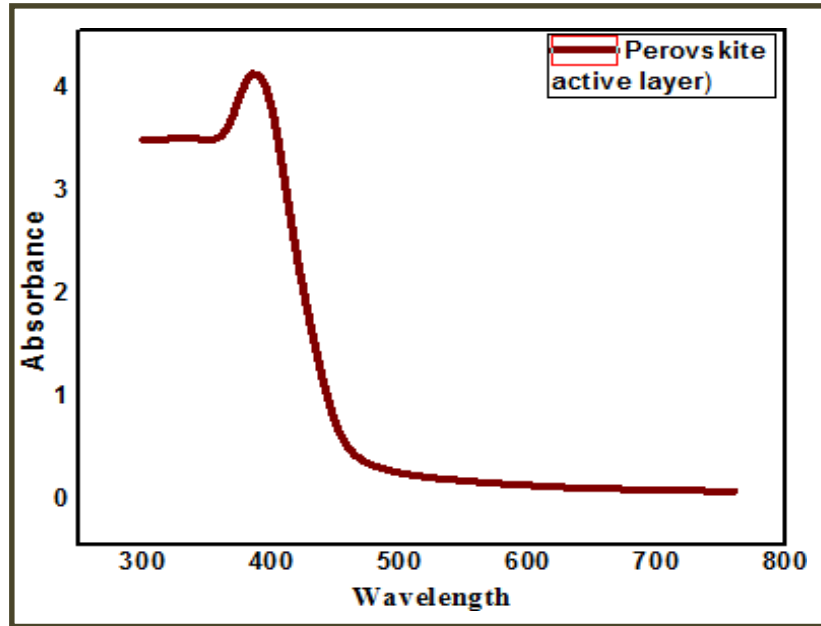


Figure 2: Absorption spectra of Active layer via Magnetic stirrer.

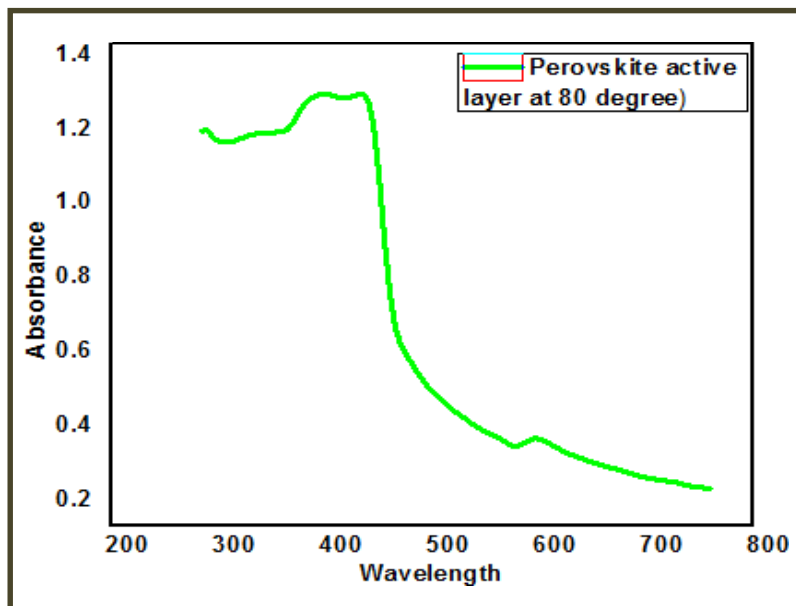
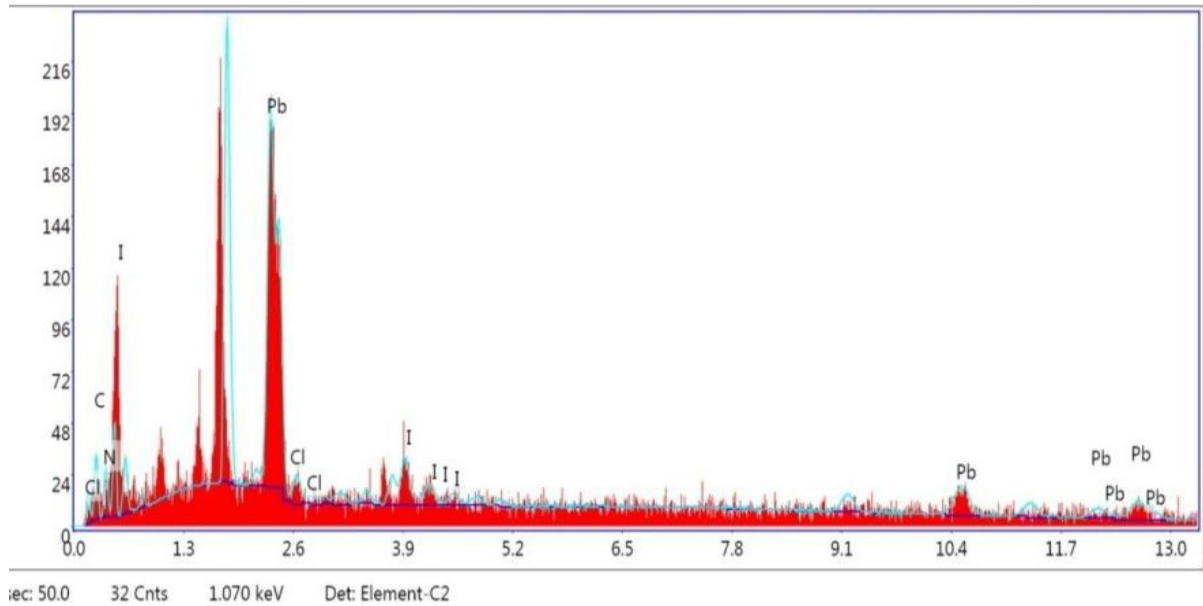


Figure 3: Absorption spectra of Active layer via Hydrothermal treatment.

3.2 Energy Dispersive X-ray spectroscopy:



ELEMENT	WT. %	ATOMIC WEIGHT%
CK	5.83	31.50
NK	8.36	38.71
PbM	71.28	22.32
ClK	0.02	0.04
IL	14.51	7.42

Figure. 4 : EDX graph representing the various compounds present in the perovskite Solution with weight percentage also shown in figure.

3.3 Dual thermal annealing engineering technique

Fabrication of most-promising $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_{3-x}\text{Cl}_x$ based perovskite solar cell in ambient condition is excessively essential to industrialize this revolutionary development. In this research work, an efficient, facile and economical technique has been developed to fabricate $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_{3-x}\text{Cl}_x$ perovskite solar cell in ambient condition which is termed as dual-step thermal engineering technique .In this dual-step thermal engineering technique, the perovskite precursor solution has been spin coated over a mildly hot substrate which was heated at 60°C for 10min followed by

annealing at 80°C for 30 min immediately after spin Coating.

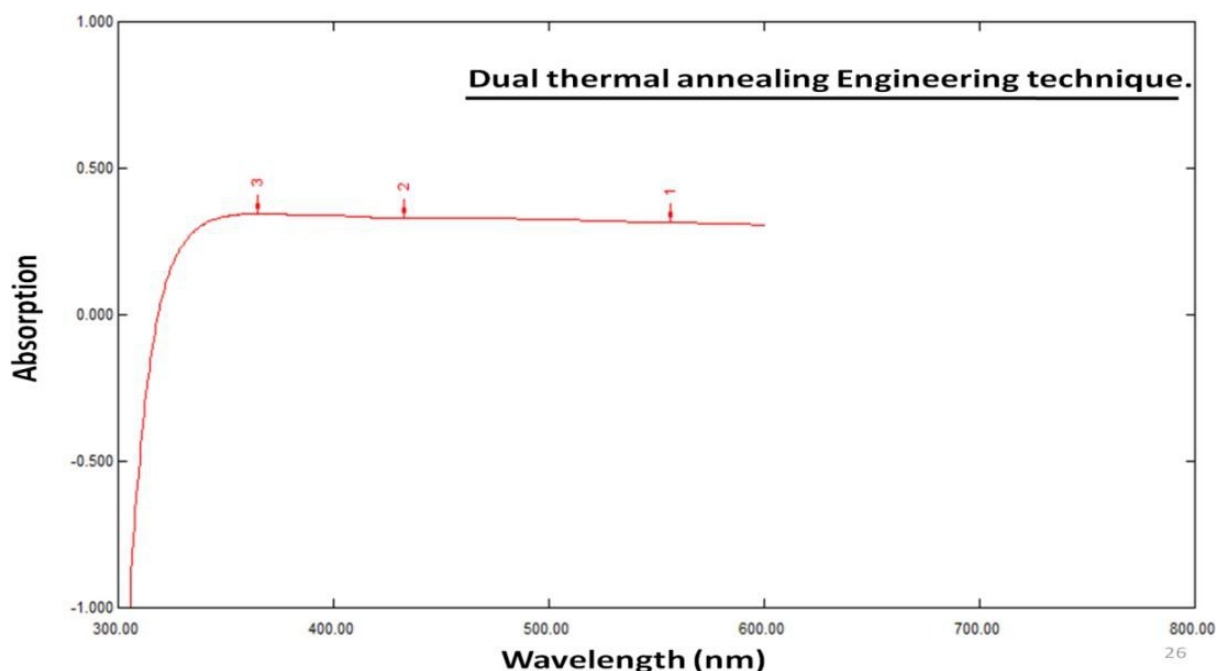


Figure 5: Absorption spectra of $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_{3-x}\text{Cl}_x$ Perovskite Film

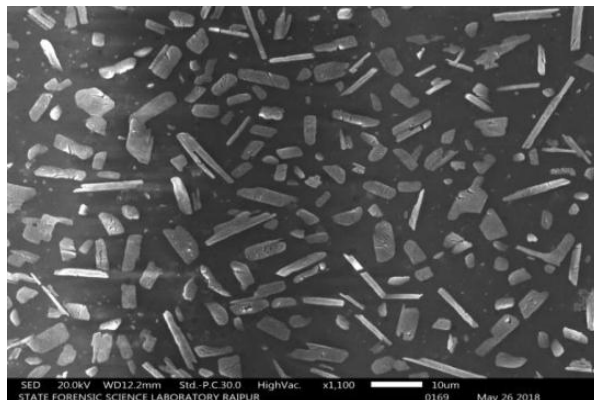


Figure 6: SEM morphology image of $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_{3-x}\text{Cl}_x$.

CONCLUSION

The Perovskite solution using Methyl ammonium iodide, Lead chloride & dimethyl formamide is synthesized by using magnetic stirrer & hydrothermal process. The characterization of the prepared perovskite solution was done from spectroscopic measurement. It is found that enhanced absorption Spectrum of $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_{3-x}\text{Cl}_x$ via hydrothermal synthesis are obtained at 80°C with good optical properties & it was also found that two diffraction peaks were obtained at 380 nm & 400 nm because of heating effects which indicates difference in morphology & its relatively good for Perovskite solar cell which will enhanced absorption spectra of Perovskite layer & it

also enhance the power conversion efficiency of Perovskite solar cell. Overall, the simple & stable perovskite solution that is developed is a viable candidate of active layer in Perovskite solar cell.

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CMOS Nonmagnetic Circulator and Band-Selection Balun-Low Noise Amplifier with RF Self-Interference Cancellation for Advanced In-Band Full-Duplex Transceiver

Seokwon Lee, Yonghwan Lee, Chanhee Cho, and Kuduck Kwon

ABSTRACT

In this paper, a CMOS nonmagnetic circulator and band-selection balun-low noise amplifier (LNA) with RF time-domain self-interference cancellation (SIC) are presented to realize an advanced In-band full-duplex (IBFD) transceiver. The capacitor (C)-inductor (L)-C nonmagnetic circulator based on an N-path filter and time-domain RF SIC with multi delay tap are employed to achieve low receiver (RX) and transmitter (TX) insertion losses and high SIC. Because the circulator does not possess out-of-band (OB) blocker rejection capability, the band-selection N-path balun-LNA is proposed to replace the functionality of the OB blocker rejection of the conventional SAW filters. Simulated in a 65 nm CMOS process, the circulator and balun-LNA with RF canceller achieved a noise figure of 6.6 dB, voltage gain of 17 dB, and SIC of 58 dB. It has an active die area of 1.61 mm², and consumed 14 mA for a nominal supply voltage of 1 V.

Index Terms—*N-path filter, circulator, isolation, delay, low noise amplifier, low-loss, self-interference, self-interference cancellation, out-of-blocker*

1. Introduction

Recently, in-band full-duplex (IBFD) wireless communication technology has garnered significant attention as a key technology for 6G and beyond 5G cellular applications [1, 2]. In particular, considering that 5G new radio (NR) networks will continue to operate alongside 6G, research on the IBFD technology, which can efficiently utilize the existing limited frequency resources, is crucial. Unlike the traditional half-duplex (HD) approach, which divides the transmission into separate time or frequency slots, the IBFD technology enables simultaneous uplink and downlink transmissions in the same time and frequency band, ideally doubling the frequency utilization efficiency and data rates compared with HD. Additionally, it can reduce the latency compared with time-division duplexing (TDD).

However, in IBFD transceivers, the output signal from a transmitter (TX) can cause a strong self-interference (SI) at the receiver (RX), degrading its signal-to

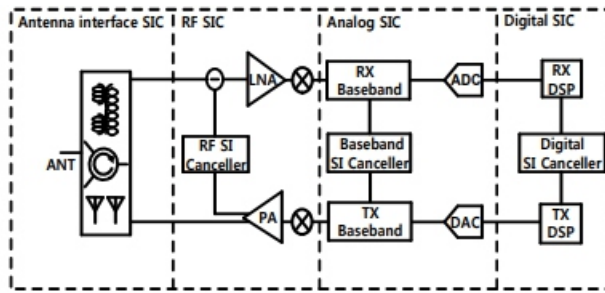


Fig. 1. Block diagram of the conventional IBFD transceiver.

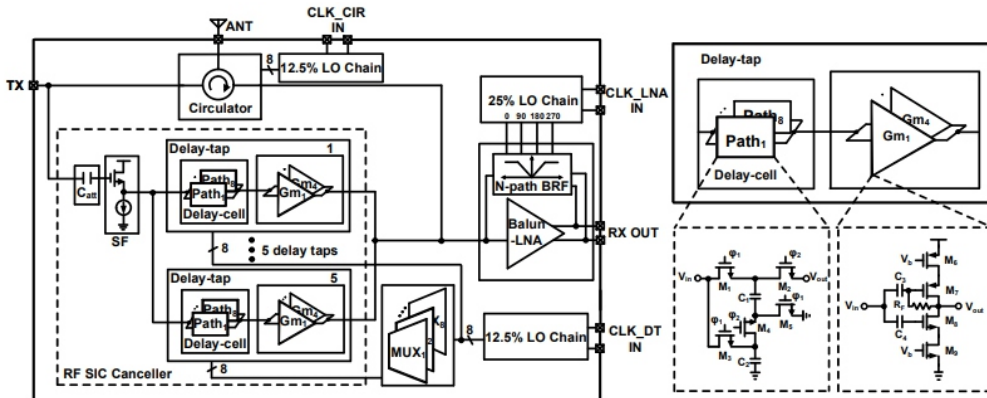


Fig. 2. Proposed CMOS circulator and band-selection LNA with RF SIC

noise/distortion ratio (SNDR). Therefore, achieving a sufficient self-interference cancellation (SIC) is essential for implementing IBFD transceivers. Fig. 1 shows a block diagram of a conventional IBFD transceiver. SIC techniques in IBFD transceivers can be categorized into antenna interface SIC [3-7], RF SIC [8-10], analog SIC [11, 12], and digital SIC [13], with active research ongoing in each domain. To prevent SNDR performance degradation caused by the strong SI signal on the RX side, it is crucial to achieve high SIC performance in the antenna interface and RF domains.

This alleviates the linearity requirements of the lownoise amplifier (LNA) and the following blocks. Representative antenna interface SIC techniques include an electrical-balanced duplexer (EBD) based on hybrid transformers and nonmagnetic circulators. While the EBD offers excellent TX-RX isolation of over 50 dB, it has the drawback of more than 3 dB insertion loss (IL) in both the TX and RX paths, impacting the power amplifier (PA) efficiency and RX noise figure (NF). On the other hand, nonmagnetic circulators exhibit TX and RX ILs of approximately 1-2 dB, but their TX-RX isolation is relatively poor at approximately 20-30 dB.

However, compared with the SAW/FBAR duplexers used in FDD systems, both EBD and nonmagnetic circulators lack a strong out-of-band (OB) blocker rejection capability at the antenna, making them unable to mitigate the SNR degradation caused by strong OB blockers. Conventional IBFD research primarily focuses on enhancing the SIC performance, neglecting the degradation of the RX SNDR due to strong OB blockers. For the successful commercialization of IBFD transceivers without using additional SAW filters at the RF front end, these aspects should also be carefully considered.

In this paper, a band-selection balun-LNA employing a feedback network of a differential-to-single-ended N path notch filter is presented to provide OB blocker rejection and enhance the blocker tolerance of the RX. A capacitor(C)-inductor (L)-C nonmagnetic circulator based on an N-path filter and a time-domain RF SIC with five delay taps is also introduced. This paper is structured as follows. Section II presents detailed circuit designs. Section III shows the simulation results. Finally, Section IV concludes the study.

II. PROPOSED CMOS CIRCULATOR AND BAND-SELECTION LNA WITH RF SIC

Fig. 2 depicts the proposed CMOS circulator and band-selection LNA with RF SIC. The circulator performs the first SIC, where the time-domain RF SIC with delay taps performs the second SIC at the LNA input. This two-stage SIC process prevents saturation of the LNA and subsequent circuits owing to strong SI signals or degradation of the SNDR owing to the nonlinearity of the LNA and subsequent blocks. The band-selection balun-LNA that uses the D2S N-path notch filter feedback rejects the OB blocker and enhances the blocker tolerance of the RX.

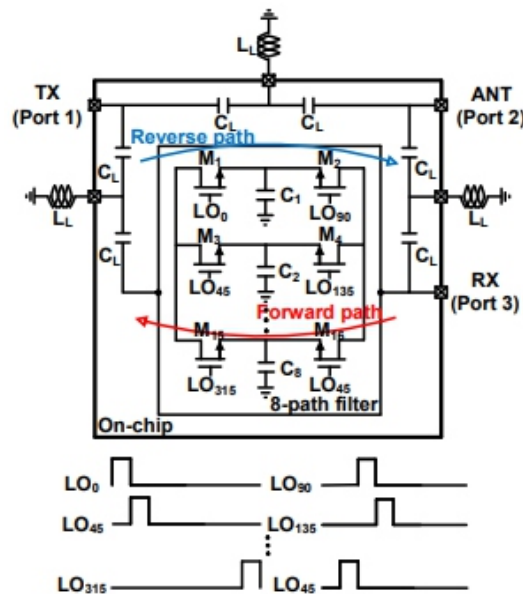


Fig. 3. Schematic of the C-L-C nonmagnetic circulator based on N-path filter

A. C-L-C Nonmagnetic Circulator based on N-path Filter

Fig. 3 shows a schematic of the circulator used for the antenna interface SIC. The circulator employs the topology of an integrated nonmagnetic N-path filter based C-L-C circulator [14]. In the 3-port circulator, each $\lambda/4$ transmission line is replaced by a lumped C-L-C section. External inductors are used to achieve a high Q factor. This structure enables CMOS integration and unidirectional propagation with minimal losses. Two-port N-path filters can introduce phase nonreciprocity by offsetting the timing of the two sets of switches. This leads to nonreciprocal phase responses ($+90^\circ$ / -90° in the forward and reverse directions) and enables the creation of a CMOS gyrator. Subsequently, a $3\lambda/4$ transmission line can be wound around this gyrator to facilitate signal propagation in a single direction. By connecting the three ports on this transmission line with a spacing of $\lambda/4$, a three-port circulator can be realized [15].

Fig. 4 shows the simulated frequency response of the two-port N-path filter in two directions. Fig. 5 shows the simulated TX IL, RX IL, and TX-RX isolation (i.e., the antenna interface SIC). At 700 MHz, the TX IL and RX IL are 2.2 dB and 2.3 dB, respectively. The TX-RX isolation is greater than 37 dB for a channel bandwidth (CHBW) of 20 Mhz.

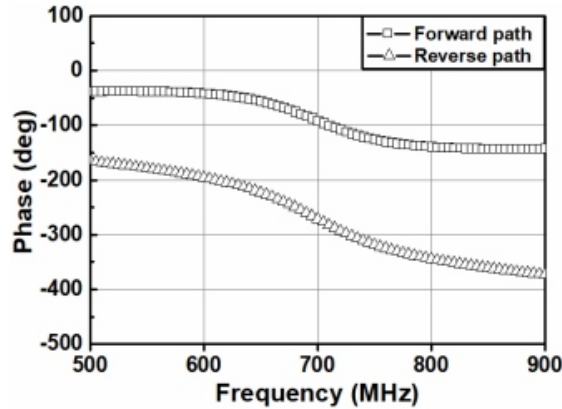


Fig. 4. Simulated phase response of the two-port N -path filter with two sets of switching time.

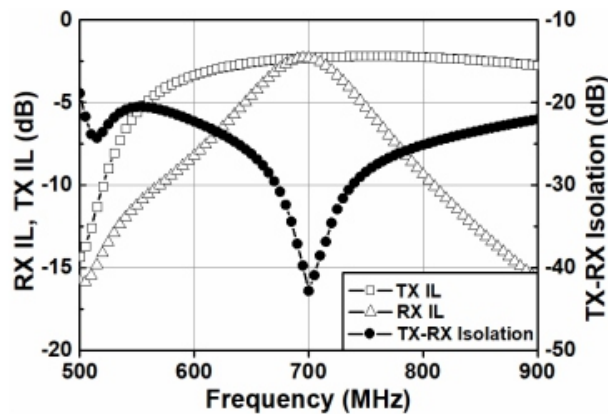


Fig. 5. Simulated TX IL, RX IL and TX-RX isolation.

B. N-path Balun-LNA

The proposed band-selection balun-LNA employs D2S N-path band rejection filter (BRF) feedback to eliminate OB blockers and improve blocker tolerance [16]. As shown in Fig. 6, it is based on a gain-boostered N-path filter LNA structure. It consists of two common-source (CS) amplifiers, a differential current balancer (DCB), and an LC tank. Two CS amplifiers ($M_{1,2}$) perform single-to-differential conversion. The DCB comprises cascade transistors ($M_{3,4}$) and cross-coupled capacitors ($CC_{1,2}$). It makes the output currents become $I_{OUTP} = -I_{OUTN}$ [16]. The voltage gain of the N-path balun-LNA from the voltage source V_S with a source resistance R_S to the output V_{OUT} can be expressed as [16]

$$A_{V,NpathBalun} = \frac{V_{OUT}}{V_S} = \frac{(1 - g_m Z_{FB}(s))Z_L(s)}{R_S(1 + g_m Z_L(s)) + Z_{FB}(s) + Z_L(s)} \quad (1)$$

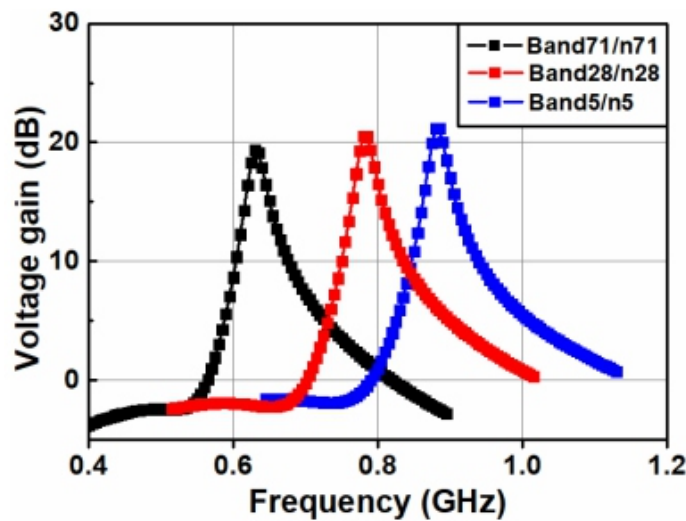


Fig. 7. Simulated voltage gain of the *N*-path balun-LNA.

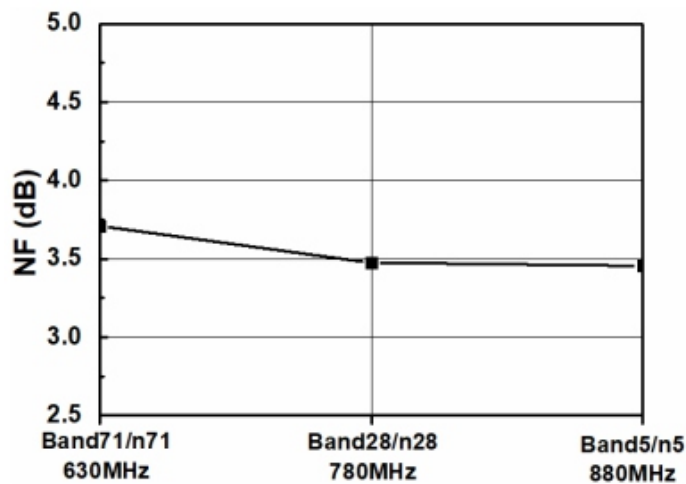


Fig. 8. Simulated NF of the *N*-path balun-LNA.

saturation of the RF SIC circuits. The amount of attenuation is determined by the ratio of C_{att} to C_{gs} of the source follower. Each delay tap can independently provide individual delays. Each delay tap consists of a delay cell and 2-bit controlled inverter-type gm cell. The delay cell comprises eight delay paths. The delay path employs a time-interleaved switched-capacitor topology, as shown in Fig. 2. This delay cell can provide seven distinct delay options ranging from 250 ps to 1.75 ns with a resolution of 250 ps [17]. Using four delay taps, different predefined values were used to implement distinct fixed group delay settings. The final delay tap was controlled using a multiplexer, providing flexibility in adjusting the group delay and allowing for seven different group delay settings with the use of five delay taps. Fig. 9 shows the simulated group delays. The proposed delay taps could control the group delay from 250 ps to 1.75 ns with a resolution of 250 ps

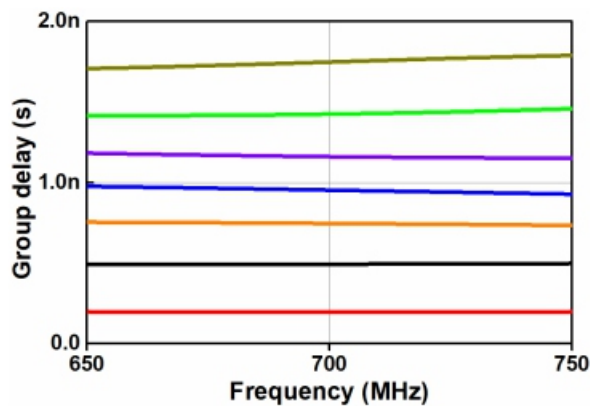


Fig. 9. Simulated group delays.

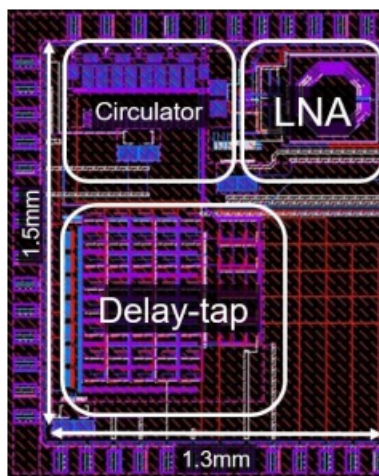


Fig. 10. Layout of the CMOS circulator and band-selection balun-LNA with RF SIC.

Furthermore, 2-bit controlled inverter-type gm cells were employed to adjust the magnitude of the RF SIC signal with the SI signal from the CMOS circulator.

III. SIMULATION RESULTS

The proposed C-L-C nonmagnetic circulator based on an N-path filter and time-domain RF SIC with five delay taps were designed using a 65 nm CMOS process. Fig. 10 illustrates the layout of the CMOS circulator and band-selection balun-LNA with RF SIC circuits. The active area without bond pads was 1.61 mm^2 . A DC bias current of 14 mA was applied at a supply voltage of 1 V. Fig. 11 shows the simulated S11 of the circulator. The S11 is less than -10 dB. Fig. 12 shows the simulated voltage gain from the antenna port to the LNA output of the circulator and N-path balun-LNA. This shows that the voltage gains from the antenna port to the LNA output

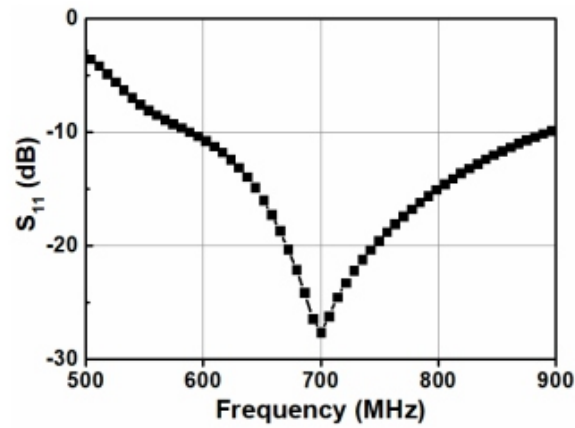


Fig. 11. Simulated S_{11} of the circulator.

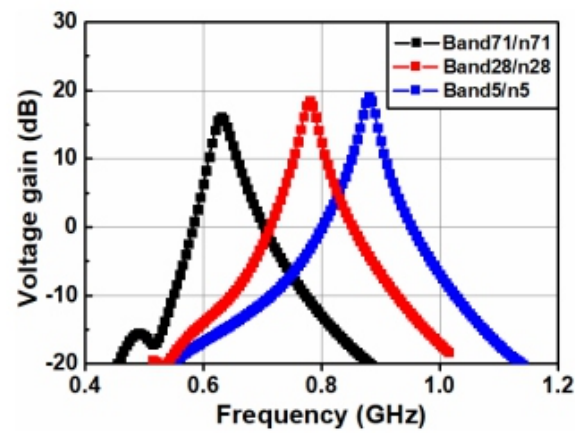


Fig. 12. Simulated voltage gain from antenna port to LNA output.

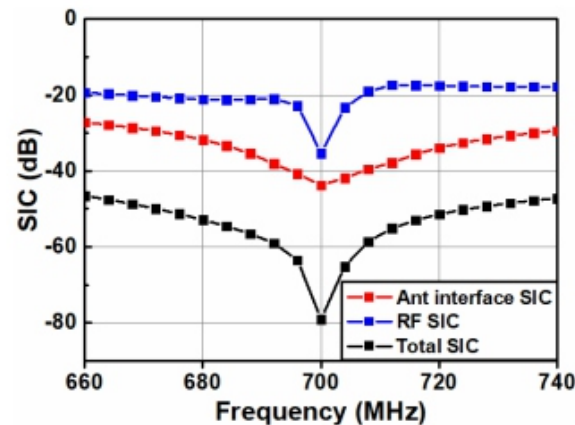


Fig. 13. Simulated SIC.

are greater than 17 dB in Band 71/n71, Band 28/n28, and Band 5/n5. The OB blocker rejection exceeded 30 dB at the frequency offset of 100 MHz. The simulated SIC performance are illustrated in Fig. 13. The simulated antenna interface SIC and RF SIC are greater than 38 dB and 20 dB at 700 MHz with the CHBW of 20 Mhz,

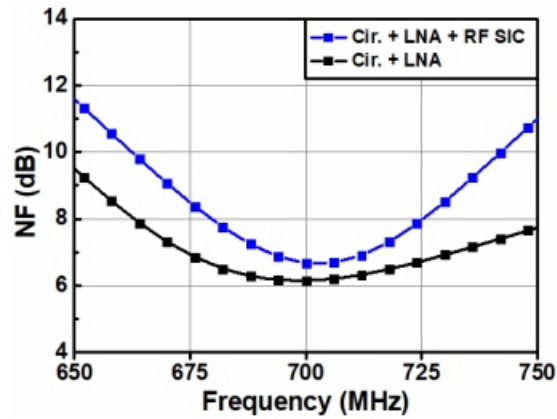


Fig. 14. Simulated NF.

respectively. The total SIC exceeded 58 dB for the CHBW of 20 MHz. Fig. 14 shows the simulated NF of the circulator and N-path balun-LNA with RF SIC. RF SIC circuits degrade the NF by 0.5 dB. The IIP3s of the circulator and N-path balun-LNA with RF SIC were also characterized in terms of the presence of in-band (IB) and OB blockers, as shown in Fig. 15 and 16. The two-tone test conditions for the IB IIP3 were $f_1 = f_{LO} + 1$ MHz, $f_2 = f_{LO} + 1.1$ MHz, and $pf_1 = pf_2 = -44$ dBm. The simulated IB IIP3 with the N-path bandpass filtering was -3.9 dBm to -3.6 dBm. The two-tone test conditions for the OB IIP3 were $f_1 = f_{LO} + 40$ MHz, $f_2 = f_{LO} + 81$ MHz, $pf_1 = pf_2 = -44$ dBm. The simulated OB IIP3 with the Npath bandpass filtering was 4 dBm to 5 dBm. Compared to the configuration without the N-path filtering, there is around a 2 dB improvement in the IB IIP3 and a notable enhancement of 7-8 dB in the OB IIP3. Table 1 lists the performance summary of the proposed circulator and Npath balun-LNA with RF SIC circuits and a comparison with previous state-of-the-art works. In this study, we implemented RF band selection capabilities in the LNA, taking into account the performance degradation caused by the OB blockers in the IBFD transceiver. Compared to other works, this work exhibits high RF SIC performance. However, it has relatively higher NF characteristics. For fair performance comparison, the following figure of merit (FOM) was used, which is the product of the SIC and fractional bandwidth [23]:

$$FOM = 10\text{Log}(SIC[\text{Mag}] \times \frac{CHBW[\text{MHz}]}{f_c[\text{MHz}]}) \quad (6)$$

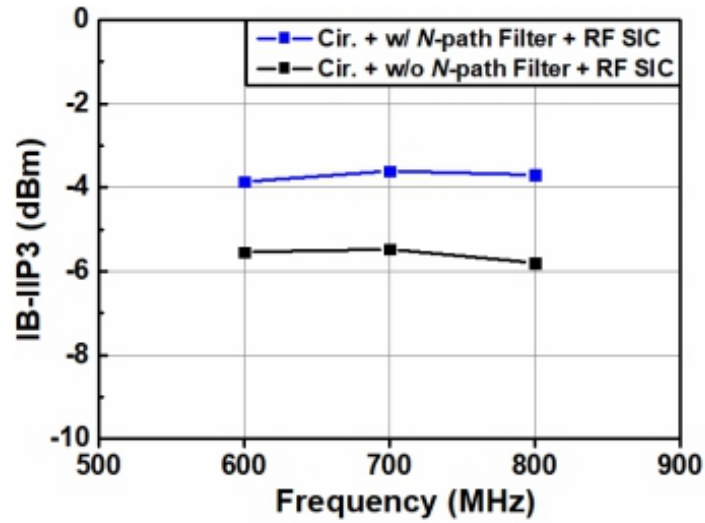


Fig. 15. Simulated IB-IIP3.

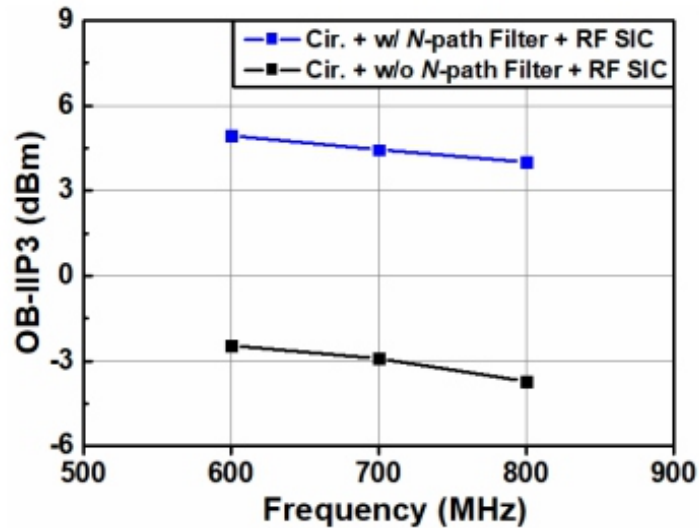


Fig. 16. Simulated OB-IIP3.

where f_c is a center frequency. As shown in Table 1, the proposed work achieves an excellent FOM.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

In this study, a CMOS circulator and band-selection N path balun-LNA with RF SIC circuits were proposed and designed using a 65 nm CMOS technology. The designed CMOS circulator achieved an RX IL of 2.2 dB and a TX IL of 2.3 dB. The circulator and N-path balun-LNA with RF SIC circuits can achieve a total NF of 6.6 dB, an OB blocker rejection of more than 30 dB, and a total SIC of 58 dB for the CHBW of 20 MHz at 700 MHz. The proposed CMOS circulator and N-path balun-LNA with RF SIC circuits can provide antenna interface SIC and RF SIC, and enhance the blocker tolerance of the RX for advanced IBFD transceivers.

Table 1. Performance summaries and comparison with previous state-of-the-art works

References	RFIC'20 [17]	JSSC'17 [18]	JSSC'15 [19]	ISSCC'17 [20]	ISSCC'19 [21]	RFIC'23 [22]	This Work*
Configuration	LNTA + RF/BB SIC + Mixer + TIA	Cir. + LNTA + Mixer + TIA + BB SIC	LNTA + RF SIC + Mixer + TIA	LNA + RF/BB SIC + Mixer + TIA	Cir. + Mixer + BB SIC + TIA	LNTA + RF/BB SIC + Mixer + TIA	Cir+ <i>N</i> -path balun-LNA+RF SIC
SIC Topology	Time-domain	Amp.&phase-based	Freq-domain	Time-domain	Time-domain	Time-domain	Time-domain
Process	65nm CMOS	40nm CMOS	65nm CMOS	40nm CMOS	65nm CMOS	65nm CMOS	65nm CMOS
Frequency[GHz]	0.1-1	0.6-0.8	0.8-1.4	1.7-2.2	2.2	0.1-1	0.6-1
#of Taps(domain)	7(RF)+7(BB)	1(BB)	2(RF)	5(RF)+14(BB)	5(BB)	8(RF)+8(BB)	5(RF)
SIC/Bandwidth @Frequency	30dB/20MHz @738MHz	22dB/12MHz @750MHz	20dB/25MHz @1.37GHz	50dB/42MHz @1.9GHz	30dB/20MHz @2.2GHz	27dB/160MHz @720MHz	58dB/20MHz @700MHz
Gain [dB]	15-38 (RFXE)	42 (Cir. + RFXE)	27-42 (RFXE)	20-36 (RFXE)	30 (Cir. + RFXE)	15-40 (RFXE)	17 (Cir. + LNA)
OB Blocker Rejection (dB)	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	YES(30**)
NF [dB]	5.3	5.0	4.8	4.0	11.2	4.1	6.6
Pdc [mW]	32	30	44-91 per tap*	11.5	46	22	14
Area [mm]	5.15	1.4	4.8	3.5	5.6	10.9	1.61
FOM [dB]	14.3	4	2.6	33.4	9.5	20.4	42.5*

* Simulation result.

** at 100 MHz offset

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