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# A comprehensive analysis of structural, electronic, optical, mechanical, thermodynamic, and thermoelectric properties of direct band gap $Sr_3BF_3$ (B = As, Sb) photovoltaic compounds: DFT-GGA and mBJ approach

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# ABSTRACT

This study evaluates the physical properties of lead-free  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb) photovoltaic compounds including structural, electronic, mechanical, optical, thermodynamic, and thermoelectric behavior using calculations based on DFT approach. Born stability criteria and formation enthalpy estimates show that the compounds under study are mechanically and thermodynamically stable. The initial lattice constants for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> were determined to be 5.71 Å and 5.97 Å, respectively. While simulating the compounds under pressure, lattice constants, cell volumes, and bond lengths decrease. The band structure investigation shows that these compounds are semiconducting with an adjustable direct bandgap. The electronic band gap contracts by pressure, shifting the material from ultraviolet to the visible spectrum. This modification enhances electron transition from valence band maxima to conduction band minima, enhancing optical efficiency. The shift and rise in ductility and machinability index under pressure ensures good lubrication, low friction, and significant plastic deformation suitable for many industrial applications. Simultaneously, the static dielectric constant increases, increasing absorption and conductivity and red-shifting the optical spectrum, and reducing reflectivity in the visible spectrum. The thermodynamic behavior of the compounds was affected by both pressure and temperature variation. The thermoelectric figure of merit becomes closer to unity with a shorter band gap, indicating increased efficiency. Our findings suggest that  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb) photovoltaic compounds could be used for the invention of next-generation solar cells and thermoelectric devices.

#### 1. Introduction

There is a growing energy demand in modern times, driven by rapid population growth and rapid technological advancement. Finding renewable energy sources is essential to provide energy that meets demand and guarantees a steady supply. Among the most plentiful and reasonably priced sources of renewable energy available today is solar energy. However, conventional Materials for solar cells, such as Silicon (Si), GaAs, CdTe, CIGS, Sb<sub>2</sub>Se<sub>3</sub>, CMTS, and FeSi<sub>2</sub> have been showing little to none advancements in the field of photovoltaics [1–3]. Materials like Si have little potential for improvement because of their indirect and inefficient bandgaps, as well as their highly costly manufacturing processes [4]. Perovskite-derived materials have great promise in solar cell technology due to their wide variety of advantageous features, which makes them highly appealing [5]. When the thickness of the layer of perovskite-derived materials is less than 1  $\mu$ m exceeds other semiconductor materials in terms of photon capture capabilities [6]. Perovskite-derived inorganic materials exhibit remarkable optical and

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Received 16 September 2024; Received in revised form 15 November 2024; Accepted 18 November 2024 Available online 22 November 2024 1387-7003/© 2024 Elsevier B.V. All rights are reserved, including those for text and data mining, AI training, and similar technologies. electrical qualities, which make them extremely appealing for the making of next-generation PV cells [7]. Inorganic perovskite-based materials are frequently synthesized for diverse applications in the realms of photoelectricity and other energy-related disciplines [8]. Efficiency of power conversion (PCE) of perovskite-derived materials in solar cells which were 3.8 % in 2009, have greatly increased [9] to the current global record of 25.7 % as of 2022 [10]. Also, Perovskite-derived materials have made substantial advancements in their properties during the past decade, which has driven their growth [11]. Regrettably, these materials' long-term durability in actual environments will be greatly affected by their high sensitivity to moisture, wind, sunshine, and temperature [12]. The hysteresis effect, which causes instability and erratic findings when measuring conditions change, is another drawback to using these devices [8]. The sustainability of solar cells based on perovskite-like materials is additionally hindered by the existence of lead, which poses serious concerns for human health and the environment during both production and disposal [12]. Hence, it is important to research IHP materials that are both highly efficient as well as economically feasible to accelerate the growth of the solar cell industry.

Perovskite derived materials of the A<sub>3</sub>BX<sub>3</sub> type are inorganic and feature a particular crystal structure in which X is an anion, A is a large cation, and B is a smaller cation. By altering the cation or halide atom (A, B, or X-site), perovskite-like A<sub>3</sub>BX<sub>3</sub> structure features like performance characteristics [13] can be modified in response to hydrostatic pressure [14-16]. The exceptional properties of perovskite-derived materials with an A<sub>3</sub>BX<sub>3</sub> structural arrangement such as their direct bandgap material, high electrical qualities, mechanical stability, and lack of lead make them highly sought-after [16-18]. The structural advantages allow A3BX3 compounds to attain desirable physical properties by undergoing externally applied hydrostatic pressure. DFT-based simulations give us a glimpse of their projected change due to pressure. Recent studies by S. Joifullah et al. [19] of Sr<sub>3</sub>PX<sub>3</sub> (X = Cl, Br) and Md. Adil et al. [20] of  $Ca_3MF_3$  (M = As, Sb) and  $Sr_3ZBr_3$  (Z = As, Sb) [21] compounds showed the pressure-dependent changes of perovskite-derived A3BX3 structure which were both intriguing and thought-provoking. They found that under high pressure, the perovskite undergoes a transition to a metallic state. This discovery highlights its potential application scenario in solar energy systems, as it exhibits both mechanical resilience and improved optoelectronic properties.

According to our knowledge, there is no previous pressure-induced investigation of  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb) photovoltaic compounds. Previously, studies conducted by Ali Algahtani et al. [22] and Ghosh et al. [23] show the possibility of Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> for application to solar cells. Hence, conducting a thorough investigation of  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb) compounds is essential for the development of devices that both use electrical and optoelectronic technologies. This research aims to apply first-principles density functional theory. (FP-DFT) computations to look into the structural, mechanical, optical, and electronic properties of Sr<sub>3</sub>BF<sub>3</sub> under situations of stress between 0 and 30 GPa. Additionally, the thermodynamic and thermoelectric behaviors of these compounds as a function of temperature were revealed in this work to identify any favorable characteristics. Hence, conducting this study will yield advantages in identifying the particular traits of  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb) photovoltaic compounds and their usefulness in advanced solar cells and photovoltaic systems.

#### 2. Computational details

The computations were implemented using the plane-wave basis set of the Quantum ESPRESSO approach, which is reliant upon the Density Functional Theory (DFT) [24,25]. We have employed the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (GGA-PBE) approach [26], which is a generalized gradient approximation (GGA) that incorporates exchange–correlation functional, used in our computations. The interaction between electrons and ions was simulated using ultrasoft pseudopotentials [27,28] of the PBE type for the elements Sr, As, Sb, and F. At first, the structures were optimized by adjusting their volume and geometry to achieve the most advantageous lattice constants and atomic positions. The BFGS (Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno) quasi-Newton methodology was implemented to execute a comprehensive structural relaxation, leading to the complete optimization of atom locations [29]. The wave function was defined by the threshold energy. established at 40 Rydberg, whereas the charge density's threshold energy was established at 440 Rydberg. The Brillouin Zone was sampled utilizing a Monkhorst-Pack grid consisting of a 7  $\times$  7  $\times$  7 arrangement of the K-point meshes. The calculations were performed with a force convergence threshold of  $10^{-3}$  eV/Å and an energy convergence threshold of  $10^{-6}$  eV. GGA is recognized for its tendency to underestimate the band gap, particularly in materials with d or f-electron. In the Wien2k code [30], the Tran-Blaha modified Becke-Johnson (TB-mBJ) approximation [31] is also employed to evaluate electronic characteristics as it provides more accurate band gap estimations in semiconductors and insulators. To accomplish charge and energy convergence, we used a linearized augmented plane-wave basis set with  $l_{max}=10$  and  $R_{\text{MT}}K_{max}=7$  (K\_max is the maximum K-value). VESTA program was utilized to present the optimized structure of both materials [32]. The elastic constants for the present experiment were determined by employing the formula of the Thermo-PW package, which is employed to ascertain the mechanical properties. The ELATE code [33] was employed to depict Young's modulus, bulk modulus, and shear modulus in a three-dimensional format. We have employed firstorder time-dependent perturbation theory in investigating the optical properties of material formation and analyzing its dynamic stability [34,35]. Optical absorption coefficients are primarily correlated with the complex dielectric function. The equation can be expressed as  $\varepsilon(\omega)$  $=\varepsilon_1(\omega) + j\varepsilon_2(\omega)$ . Additionally, we estimated thermodynamic parameters using a quasi-harmonic Debye model with the Gibbs2 package [36] and used the semi-classical Boltzmann-based BoltzTrap package [37] to study thermoelectric characteristics.

# 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Structural properties

Inorganic compounds without lead like  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb) crystallize in space group *Pm-3m* (221) [38]. Seven atoms make up the unit cell: 3Sr, 1B (B = As, Sb), and 3F atoms. Here, the B atoms are located at the coordinates (0, 0, 0) and occupy the 1a Wyckoff position., F atoms are arranged evenly throughout (0, 0.5, 0.5) fractional coordinates featuring a 3c Wyckoff position within a unit cell and Sr atoms are positioned at fractional coordinates of (0.5, 0, 0) within the Wyckoff site 3d. This optimized crystal structure is depicted in Fig. 1. The optimized lattice parameter, along with other ground state properties, is displayed in Table 1. The structural stability of the compounds is verified using the Goldschmidt tolerance factor. It is represented as [39]:

$$t = \frac{r_A + r_X}{\sqrt{2}(r_B + r_X)} \tag{1}$$

From Table 1, the tolerance factor values that have been calculated fall within the range of 0.813–1.059 demonstrating stability [40]. Fig. 2 displays the changes in total energy concerning volume. It is seen that the minimum energy values are -378.018 and -377.333 Ry, corresponding to the ground state volumes of 185.76 and 213.08 Å<sup>3</sup> for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub>, respectively. Therefore, the computed lattice parameters for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> was found to be 5.71 Å which closely aligns with the previous research 5.77 [21], and 5.62 [22], and computed lattice parameter for Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> was found 5.97 Å. Regrettably, the compounds Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> (B = As, Sb) have not been synthesized through experimentation. Consequently, we are unable to contrast the results of our calculations with any existing experimental reports. Fig. 3 illustrates the impact of hydrostatic pressure (which varied from 0 to 30 GPa) on the volume and lattice constant of the unit cell. Both compounds exhibit a reduction in unit cell volume and lattice constant as the hydrostatic

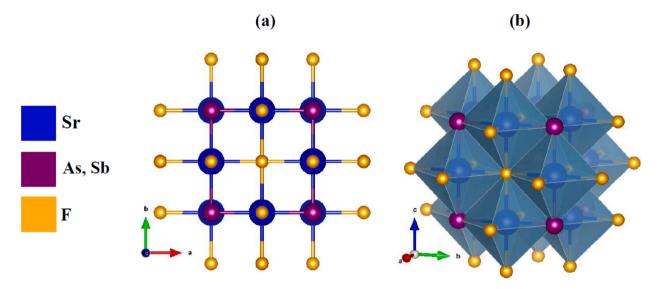


Fig. 1. (a) 2D and (b) 3D optimized crystal structure of  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb).

#### Table 1

Ground state parameters of the unit cell and band gap for cubic compounds  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb).

Optimized Structural Parameters	$Sr_3AsF_3$	Other Cal.	$Sr_3SbF_3$
Lattice constant ( $a_0$ ) in Å	5.71	5.77 [22] 5.62 [23]	5.97
Optimum volume $V_0$ in Å <sup>3</sup>	185.76		213.08
Bulk modulus (B) in GPa	30.04		35.59
Pressure derivative of bulk modulus ( <i>B</i> ')	4.17		3.71
Ground state energy $(E_0)$ in Ry	-378.018		-377.333
Tolerance factor (t <sub>0</sub> )	0.932		0.851
Band Gap $(E_g)$ in eV	3.26 <sup>TB-mBJ</sup>	$1.60^{\text{PBE}}$	2.95 <sup>TB-mBJ</sup>
	1.60 <sup>GGA-</sup> PBE	[22] 1.68 <sup>PBE</sup> [23]	1.69 <sup>GGA-</sup> PBE

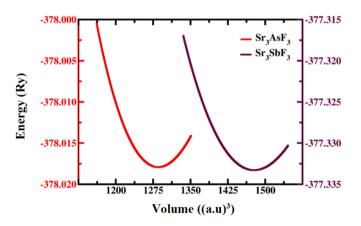


Fig. 2. Total energy with respect to volume curve for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub>.

pressure is raised (Table 2). Conversely, when the volume decreases, the density increases in correlation given the increase in pressure (Table 6). This phenomenon can be attributed to the shortening of the bond, as outlined in (Table 3), indicating a reduction in the atomic distance. This can contribute to a reduction in the energy difference between the valence and conduction bands (band gap) and the occurrence of atomic orbital overlapping.

The energy of formation  $\Delta E_f$  of both the compounds has been determined to evaluate their chemical and thermodynamic stability,

employing the given equation:

$$\Delta E_f(Sr_3BF_3) = \frac{[E_{tot.}(Sr_3BF_3) - 3E(Sr) - E(B) - 3E(F)]}{N}$$
(2)

According to Table 2, the formation energy of the  $Sr_3SbF_3$  (B = As, Sb) compounds is consistently negative at all applied pressures. This implies that the compounds are chemically and thermodynamically stable under all applied pressures [41,42]. Therefore, it may be deduced that they can be achieved through experimental means in both normal and pressured environments.

# 3.2. Phonon stability

The phonon dispersion analysis of a material gives us an idea about the stability of crystal structures, thermal, mechanical, vibrational, and electronic properties. For phonon dispersion analysis of  $Sr_3SbF_3$  (B = As, Sb) compounds we have constructed a  $3 \times 3 \times 3$  supercell to encompass a wider range of vibrational modes and atomic interactions and using a q-vector grid of 4  $\times$  4  $\times$  4 for reciprocal space sampling. Phonon dispersion graphs at 0 GPa of both compounds are mapped out in Fig. 4 which shows no negative frequencies. This conforms to the criteria of dynamic stability of the materials [43,44]. The previous study carried out by Ghosh et al. [23] also validated the dynamic stability of Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub>. There are some similarities for both Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> compounds in the phonon dispersion graphs along the X-R-M-F-R high symmetry points with notable dips at  $\Gamma$  high symmetry point for both compounds. As we increase the given pressure to 30 GPa, we can see that negative frequencies in the phonon curve emerge. From this point of view our compounds become dynamically unstable. However, the elastic properties calculated from mechanical stability analysis show the compounds are mechanically stable. So, a general perception is that a metastable state exists if the compound is dynamically unstable but mechanically stable [45].

#### 3.3. Electronic properties

The phrase "electronic properties" refers to distinct qualities also the behavior of a compound which are connected to the concept of motion and arrangement in its crystalline or molecular structure due to the presence of electrons. Analyzing electronic features, such as the structure of the bands and the density of the states, is vital for having a deeper understanding of optical properties. Band structures of Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> compounds were assessed under varying hydrostatic pressures. employing the GGA-PBE and TB-mBJ functionals within the Brillouin

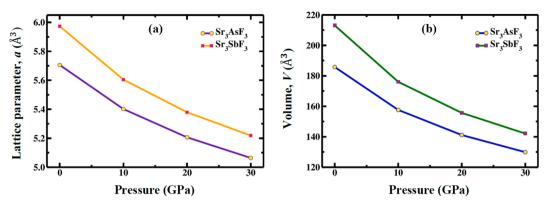


Fig. 3. Effect of pressure on (a) lattice constant and (b) unit cell volume of  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb) compounds.

## Table 2

Calculated values of unit cell volume (V), lattice constant (a), formation energy ( $E_f$ ) and band gap ( $E_g$ ) of Sr<sub>3</sub>BF<sub>3</sub> (B = As, Sb) compounds from 0 to 30 GPa pressure.

Phase	Compound	Calculated data		Pressure (GPa)				
				0	10	20	30	
Cubic	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub>	a (Å)		5.71	5.40	5.21	5.06	
(Pm3m)		V (Å <sup>3</sup> )		185.76	157.60	141.12	129.87	
		$E_{\rm f}$ (eV)		-4.93	-3.39	-2.07	-0.86	
		$E_g$ (eV)	TB-mBJ	3.26	2.59	1.98	1.36	
		0	GGA-PBE	1.60	1.34	0.76	0.23	
	Sr <sub>3</sub> SbF <sub>3</sub>	a (Å)		5.97	5.60	5.38	5.22	
		$V(Å^3)$		213.08	176.06	155.65	142.11	
		$E_{\rm f}$ (eV)		-4.55	-2.82	-1.35	-0.03	
		$E_g$ (eV)	TB-mBJ	2.95	2.21	1.62	0.99	
		5	GGA-PBE	1.69	1.28	0.64	0.05	

#### Table 3

Calculated bond length of  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb) cubic compounds under various applied pressures.

Pressure (GPa)	Bond ler	ngth (Å)					
	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub>			Sr <sub>3</sub> SbF <sub>3</sub>			
	Sr-As	As-F	Sr-F	Sr-Sb	Sb-F	Sr-F	
0	2.85	4.03	2.85	2.98	4.22	2.99	
10	2.70	3.82	2.70	2.80	3.96	2.80	
20	2.60	3.68	2.60	2.69	3.80	2.69	
30	2.53	3.58	2.53	2.61	3.69	2.61	

zone range X-R-M-Γ-R and demonstrated in Figs. 5-8 respectively. In this study, the TB-mBJ approximation [31] is employed in addition to GGA-PBE [26] so as to acquire a more accurate calculation of the spacing between the electronic band gaps of the photovoltaic materials as GGA-PBE tends to underestimate it. TB-mBJ is an altered variation of the exchange-correlation potential that Becke and Johnson proposed. The degeneracy of some states is eliminated by TB-mBJ approximation from GGA-PBE approximation. TB-mBJ is a semi-local exchange potential that closely resembles the behavior of orbital-dependent potentials, resulting in calculations that are only marginally more expensive than GGA calculations. Consequently, it can be implemented in an effective manner on larger systems [46]. In the band structure plot, the Fermi level  $(E_F)$  is denoted by a horizontal dashed line located along 0 eV. The two bands: the valence band (VB) and the conduction band (CB), are represented by line segments that are colored and are positioned below and above the  $E_{\rm F}$ , accordingly. According to semiconductor theory, understanding the material's band structure surrounding the Fermi level  $(E_{\rm F})$  is crucial for knowing its physical characteristics. Thus, we have demonstrated the band structure within the -6 to 6 eV energy range surrounding the Fermi level. Both compounds display the maximum of the valence band (VBM) and the lowest of the conduction

band (CBM) occurring at the  $\Gamma$ -point of the Brillouin zone when the pressure is 0 GPa. Therefore,  $Sr_3AsF_3$  and  $Sr_3SbF_3$  have a band gap ( $E_g$ ) of 1.60 and 1.69 eV respectively, which are direct in nature, as determined using GGA-PBE functional. The band gap of Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> using GGA-PBE scheme is comparable to what found in previous studies 1.60 [21] and 1.68 [22]. The band gap values obtained using TB-mBJ approximation are around 3.26 eV and 2.95 eV, respectively. As the applied pressures increase, CBM of both compounds moves closer to the Fermi level  $(E_F)$ , causing a decrease in value of the valance band and conduction band gap ( $E_g$ ) as illustrated in Figs. 5–8. Fig. 9 illustrates a graphical demonstration of the decrease in  $E_g$  for both compounds when subjected to external pressure. All the values found for  $E_{g}$  for different pressures are tabulated in Table 2. At ambient pressure, both compounds possess a higher band gap value than the pressure-induced system. When the pressure from external forces rises, the band gap of both compounds decreases linearly. Applying a hydrostatic pressure of 30 GPa caused the bandgap of Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> to decrease from 1.60 to 0.23 eV for GGA-PBE as well as from 3.26 eV to 1.36 eV, when TB-mBJ functional was utilized, while for Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub>, the bandgap decreased from 1.69 to 0.05 eV for GGA-PBE also from 2.95 eV to 0.99 eV when TB-mBJ functional was employed. It has been demonstrated in previous studies that the band gap is negatively correlated with external pressure [47,48]. Throughout the entire pressure-induced process, both Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> maintained their direct bandgap electronic structure. The decrease in  $E_{g}$  for both compounds facilitate the quicker and more rapid transfer of electrons to the conduction band of electrons moving from the valence band, which may enhance the optical properties by allowing the compounds to respond to a photon energy across a wider spectrum. These aforementioned features enable the materials to be particularly attractive for optoelectronic device applications [49,50].

Fig. 10(a) and (b) illustrate the total density of states (TDOS) of  $Sr_3AsF_3$  as well as  $Sr_3SbF_3$ , respectively, at varying hydrostatic pressures up to 30 GPa utilizing the TB-mBJ and GGA-PBE approximations. Both compounds demonstrate a significant pressure-induced impact on the

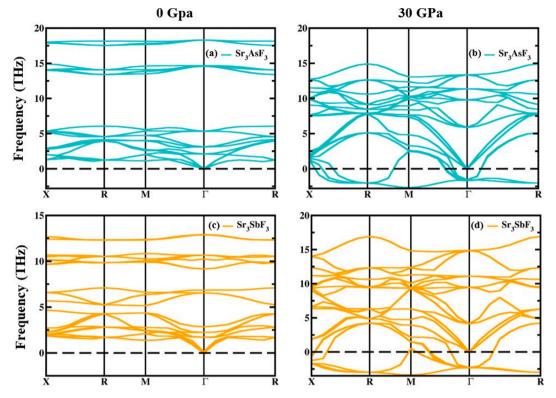


Fig. 4. Phonon dispersion spectrum of (a) Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and (b) Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> under 0 GPa and 30 GPa pressure.

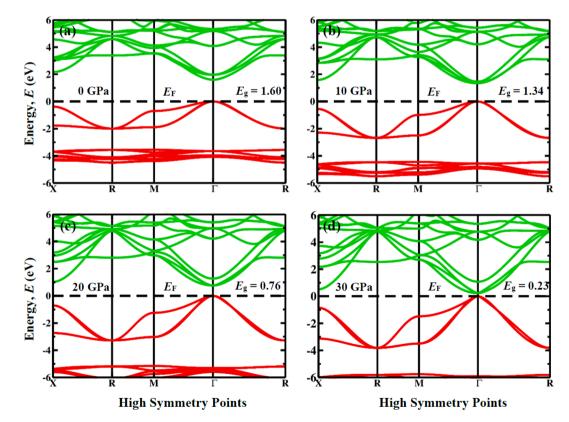


Fig. 5. Influence of pressure on band structure of Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> at (a) 0 GPa, (b) 10 GPa, (c) 20 GPa, and (d) 30 GPa via GGA-PBE approximation.

total density of states (TDOS) within the band of conduction. The total density of states (TDOS) peaks of both compounds approach the Fermi energy level ( $E_F$ ) with rising pressure. Peak shifting, when exposed to

pressure, results in a narrower band. This occurrence can also be seen in the band structures of the compounds.

The computation of Partial Density of States (PDOS) is essential to

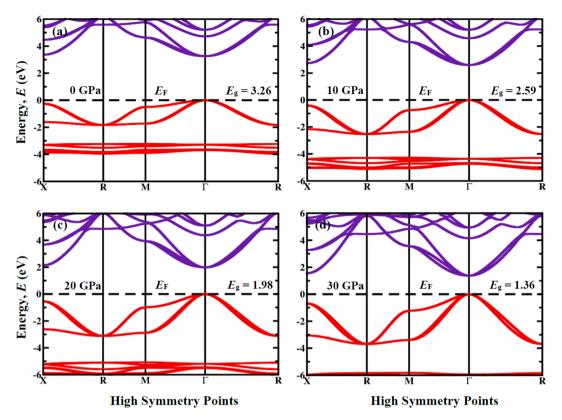


Fig. 6. Influence of pressure on band structure of Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> at (a) 0 GPa, (b) 10 GPa, (c) 20 GPa, and (d) 30 GPa via TB-mBJ approximation.

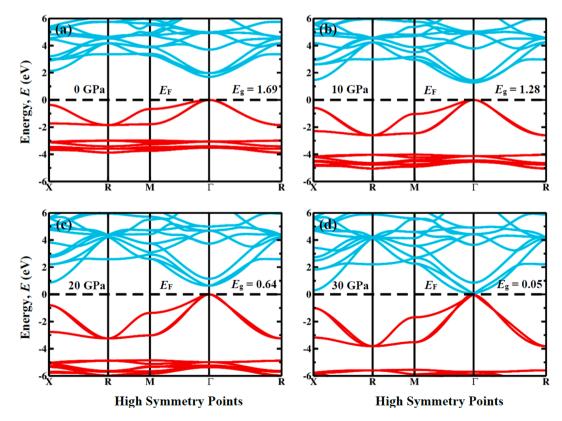


Fig. 7. Influence of pressure on band structure of Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> at (a) 0 GPa, (b) 10 GPa, (c) 20 GPa, and (d) 30 GPa via GGA-PBE approximation.

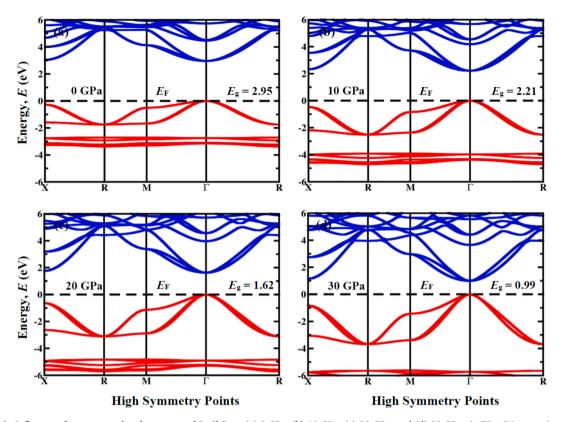


Fig. 8. Influence of pressure on band structure of Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> at (a) 0 GPa, (b) 10 GPa, (c) 20 GPa, and (d) 30 GPa via TB-mBJ approximation.

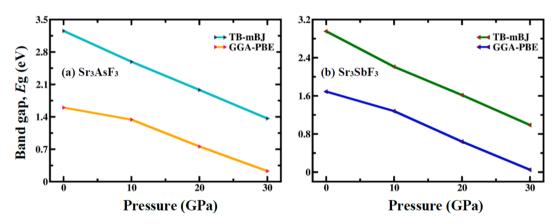


Fig. 9. Narrowing of bandgap energy of (a) Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and (b) Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> with increasing pressure from 0 to 30 GPa.

discern the precise atomic contributions on the band structure of a material. Figs. 11 and 12 illustrate the Partial Density of States (PDOS) for  $Sr_3AsF_3$  and  $Sr_3SbF_3$  photovoltaic compounds, respectively. The PDOS is shown at different hydrostatic pressures, covering an energy range of -6 eV to 6 eV. The majority of the valence band at the Fermi level primarily originates from As-4p (Sb-5p) and F-2p orbitals. There is also little contribution from the Sr-4p and Sr-5s orbitals for both compounds. At a pressure of 30 GPa, the contribution of the As-4p orbital becomes prominent in  $Sr_3AsF_3$ , whereas the contribution of the Sb-5p orbital in Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub>. In contrast, the conduction band of both compounds predominantly results from the Sr-4p and Sr-5s orbitals, either under different hydrostatic pressures or at zero hydrostatic pressure. In addition to the Sr-4p and Sr-5s orbitals, we have found small contributions from the F-2s and F-2p orbitals in both Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> compounds. The narrowing of the  $E_g$  can be attributed mostly to the Sr-4p and Sr-5s orbitals in both compounds in CB as the orbitals move towards  $E_{\rm F}$  upon the use of hydrostatic pressure. This phenomenon can be

credited to the increased hybridization happening between the As-4p (Sb-5p) and Sr-4p orbitals. Furthermore, the decrease in bond length caused by pressure (as seen in Table 3) could promote the merging of As-4p (Sb-5p) and Sr-4p electronic orbitals located within the conduction band (CB).

## 3.4. Mechanical properties

The evaluation of the structural integrity of a material and its mechanical qualities relies significantly on the elastic constants ( $C_{ij}$ ) [51]. Elastic characteristics refer to the capability of a material to undergo plastic deformation under tensile stress and thereafter recover its initial shape upon stress removal. These properties offer significant information regarding the bonding that occurs between adjoining atomic planes, the degree of anisotropy, and the stability of the structure [52]. Cubic materials possess three independent elastic constants:  $C_{11}$ ,  $C_{12}$ , and  $C_{44}$ . Table 4 shows the computed values of  $C_{11}$ ,  $C_{12}$ , and  $C_{44}$  of Sr<sub>3</sub>BF<sub>3</sub> (B =

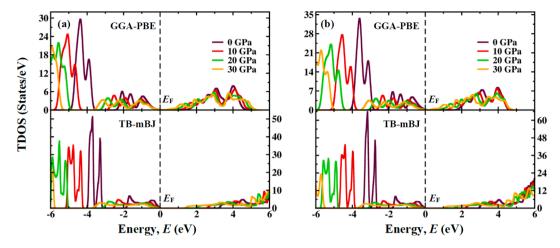


Fig. 10. The determined total density of states (TDOS) via TB-mBJ and GGA-PBE scheme of (a) Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and (b) Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> under hydrostatic pressure 0 to 30 GPa.

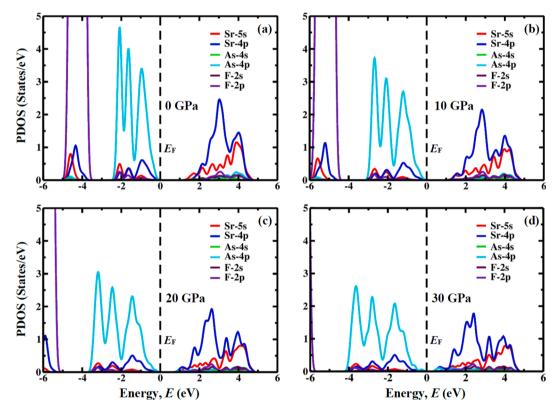


Fig. 11. Calculated partial density of states (PDOS) of Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> under different applied pressures.

As, Sb) photovoltaic compounds under hydrostatic pressure. The calculated values of  $C_{11}$ ,  $C_{12}$ , and  $C_{44}$  of Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> at 0 GPa pressure are 82.71, 12.03, 19.70 respectively. This aligns with the findings in previous works:  $C_{11} = 81.81$ ,  $C_{12} = 12.24$ , and  $C_{44} = 19.05$  [21] and  $C_{11} = 86.05$ ,  $C_{12} = 15.08$ , and  $C_{44} = 19.83$  [22]. The constants comply with the Born stability conditions, which require that  $C_{11}$  exceeds 0,  $C_{44}$  exceeds 0,  $C_{11} - C_{12}$  exceeds 0 and  $C_{11} + 2C_{12}$  exceeds 0. This confirms that both materials are mechanically stable at the imposed pressure [53].

The Cauchy pressure  $(C_p)$  is an essential mechanical parameter that significantly influences the comprehension of the ductile/brittle characteristics of a material. The mathematical representation is:

$$C_p = C_{12} - C_{44} \tag{3}$$

Both  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb) photovoltaic compounds initially have a

brittle nature, as evidenced by their negative Cauchy pressure  $(C_p)$ . As pressure rises, there occurs a shift from a brittle to a ductile condition [20], resulting in greater positive values that indicate improved ductility.

The crystal stiffness ( $C_s$ ) of a material quantifies its ability to resist the effect of shear stress when exerted on both in the [1 1 0] direction and the [1 1 0] plane, denoting its resilience against deformation caused by shear stress. The formula is defined as:

$$C_{\rm s} = \frac{C_{11} - C_{12}}{2} \tag{4}$$

Table 4 presents the increase in crystal stiffness ( $C_s$ ) in Sr<sub>3</sub>BF<sub>3</sub> (B = As, Sb) materials when pressure is applied. This information emphasizes that the materials' capability to withstand plastic deformation is increased when pressure is exerted.

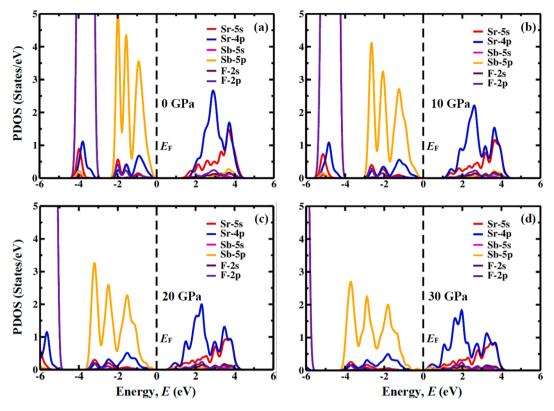


Fig. 12. Calculated partial density of states (PDOS) of Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> under different applied pressures.

#### Table 4

Calculated values of elastic constants  $C_{ij}$  (GPa), Crystal stiffness  $C_s$  (GPa), Cauchy pressure  $C_p$  (GPa), and Kleinman parameter  $\zeta$  of Sr<sub>3</sub>BF<sub>3</sub> (B = As, Sb) compounds under various applied pressures.

Pressure (GPa)	Compound	C11	$C_{12}$	C <sub>44</sub>	$C_{\rm p}$	Cs	ζ
0	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub>	82.71	12.03	19.70	-7.67	35.34	0.297
	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub> [22]	81.81	12.24	19.05	-	-	_
	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub> [23]	86.05	15.08	19.83	-	-	_
	Sr <sub>3</sub> SbF <sub>3</sub>	69.71	10.20	15.05	-4.84	29.75	0.298
10	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub>	175.63	22.54	17.19	5.35	76.55	0.279
	Sr <sub>3</sub> SbF <sub>3</sub>	158.91	19.51	12.42	7.09	69.70	0.274
20	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub>	255.95	31.50	12.78	18.73	112.22	0.274
	Sr <sub>3</sub> SbF <sub>3</sub>	235.71	27.27	7.93	19.34	104.22	0.266
30	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub>	325.01	38.38	6.88	31.50	143.31	0.269
	Sr <sub>3</sub> SbF <sub>3</sub>	302.22	35.06	2.04	33.02	133.58	0.267

The Kleinman parameter, represented by the Greek character  $\zeta$  and is dimensionless, typically ranges from zero to one. This parameter evaluates the degree to which bonds can be stretched relative to other forms of deformation. It measures the capability of the material to endure tensile forces and compressive forces. To compute the Kleinman

parameter ( $\zeta$ ) for a given compound, we utilize the following formula:

$$\zeta = \frac{C_{11} + 8C_{12}}{7C_{11} + 2C_{12}} \tag{5}$$

As  $\zeta$  approaches zero, the amount of bond bending is minimized,

#### Table 5

Calculated values of shear modulus *G* (GPa), bulk modulus *B* (GPa), Young's modulus *Y* (GPa), Pugh's ratio ( $B/G_H$ ), hardness factor (H), machinability index ( $\mu_M$ ), and Poisson ratio ( $\nu$ ) of Sr<sub>3</sub>BF<sub>3</sub> (B = As, Sb) under various applied pressures.

Pressure (GPa)	Compound	В	Y	G	$\mu_{ m M}$	Н	$B/G_{\rm H}$	ν	А
0	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub>	35.59	60.67	24.95	1.81	5.67	1.427	0.216	0.56
	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub> [22]	35.44	28.22	9.49	_	_	_	_	0.56
	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub> [23]	38.74	61.90	25.09	_	_	1.544	0.234	0.418
	$Sr_3SbF_3$	30.04	48.78	19.84	2.00	4.07	1.514	0.229	0.51
10	$Sr_3AsF_3$	73.57	85.96	32.93	4.28	3.03	2.234	0.305	0.22
	$Sr_3SbF_3$	65.98	71.08	26.91	5.31	1.81	2.451	0.320	0.18
20	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub>	106.32	97.47	36.18	8.32	1.62	2.939	0.347	0.11
	Sr <sub>3</sub> SbF <sub>3</sub>	96.75	80.36	29.51	12.20	0.61	3.279	0.362	0.08
30	$Sr_3AsF_3$	133.92	99.84	36.29	19.46	0.55	3.691	0.376	0.05
	Sr <sub>3</sub> SbF <sub>3</sub>	124.11	80.74	29.01	60.81	-0.38	4.278	0.392	0.02

whereas when  $\zeta$  approaches one, the amount of bond stretching is minimized. Table 4 illustrates the impact of pressure regarding the Kleinman parameter, specifically up to 30 GPa. The calculated  $\zeta$  value suggests this material demonstrates characteristics of flexural bonding.

By using the elastic constants, we computed a number of mechanical variables of  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb), including the bulk modulus (B), shear modulus (G), Young's modulus (Y), Poisson's ratio ( $\nu$ ), Pugh's ratio (B/ G) and Zener anisotropy index (A) as listed in Table 5. The Voigt-Reuss method is utilized to determine bulk and shear moduli (B and G), which establishes maximum and minimum values for the effective modulus in cubic lattices [54,55]. Hill's approach [56] posits that B and G represent the Voigt and Reuss values' arithmetic means, respectively. Additionally, the Poisson's ratio (v) and Young's modulus (Y) values can be determined using established equations. The data from previous studies for mechanical properties at 0 GPa pressure are agreeable with our study for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> compound. Our findings for *B*, *Y*, *G*, *B/G*, *v*, and *A* for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> are 35.59, 60.67, 24.95, 1.427, 0.216, 0.56 respectively. In comparison, for simulation under 0 GPa pressure in previous studies by Ali Algahtani et al. [22] shows values of *B*, *Y*, *G*, and *A* for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> of 35.44, 28.22, 9.49, 0.56 respectively and Ghosh et al. [23] shows B, Y, G, B/G, v, and A for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> of 38.74, 61.90, 25.09, 1.544, 0.234, 0.418 respectively which are comparable to our results. A material's bulk modulus (B) indicates its capacity to withstand fracturing, conversely, the shear modulus (G) represents its ability to resist plastic deformation. When the values of both B and G are raised, Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> exhibits greater fracture resistance and resistance to plastic deformation in comparison to Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub>. The comparison of Young's modulus (Y), a stiffness measure, indicates that Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> exhibits more stiffness than Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub>. Applying pressure enhances the resistance of the material to fracture and plastic deformation, while also enhancing its stiffness.

The machinability index is an important metric that indicates the efficiency of a machine for potential engineering applications. A greater value of  $\mu_M$  indicates better lubrication, decreased friction during feeding, and increased plastic strain of the material. The hardness factor (*H*) determines how resistant a material is to deformation. The values of these parameters are determined by applying the formula provided below [55]:

$$\mu_M = \frac{B}{C_{44}} \tag{6}$$

$$H_{\nu} = 2(K^2 G)^{0.585} - 3; \quad K = G/B \tag{7}$$

Table 5 reveals the relationship between pressure, machinability index, and hardness. The machinability index increases proportionally with the pressure.  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb) photovoltaic compounds exhibit enhanced malleability under high-pressure conditions. Moreover, improved machinability allows for the use of more sophisticated and precise machining techniques, hence enabling the production of intricate device structures with higher performance and reliability. The hardness values of both compounds drop as pressure is increased. A reduction in the hardness factor shows an increase in the machinability index of  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb). The material's lower hardness and greater Machinability index facilitate its malleability, allowing for easy bending, curving, and shaping into precise forms. Consequently, the production of various electronic and optoelectronic devices is comparatively effortless.

The value of Poisson's ratio (v) at 0.26 [57] is a crucial parameter for differentiating between ductile and brittle materials. Material possessing Poisson's ratio that exceeds 0.26 is categorized as ductile material. Thus, both  $Sr_3AsF_3$  and  $Sr_3SbF_3$  exhibit ductility under certain pressures but are otherwise brittle (Table 5). Pugh's ratio (*B/G*) is an additional indicator of ductility, with 1.75 as the critical threshold [58]. Our calculated *B/G* values suggest that both compounds become slightly ductile under pressure. Fig. 13 shows the brittle to ductile transition curve upon application of hydrostatic pressure. However, the ductility of  $Sr_3SbF_3$  slightly exceeds that of  $Sr_3AsF_3$ . Notably, the trends in *v* and *B/G* [58–60] closely resemble the data of crystal stiffness (*C*<sub>s</sub>) that quantifies the capacity of a material to endure shear stress as presented in Tables 4 and 5. Both *v* and *B/G* increase with pressure, indicating greater ductility.

Having a thorough comprehension of the significance of elastic anisotropy is essential in the domain of applied engineering. The measurement of directional dependence of characteristics is called anisotropy, which is quantified using the anisotropic index [61]. *A* is equal to 1 representing the isotropic nature of single crystals while any other value implies the anisotropy nature of crystals [62]. The Zener anisotropy factor is expressed as:

$$A = \frac{2C_{44}}{C_{11} - C_{12}} \tag{8}$$

The calculated anisotropic factors for  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb) deviate from unity justifying their anisotropic nature. To further examine the anisotropic feature, The ELATE tool [33] was employed for modeling the changes in the Poisson ratio, shear modulus, and Young's modulus, as depicted in Fig. 14. The three-dimensional spherical graph demonstrates the existence of isotropic behavior, but material anisotropy is shown by the deviation from a spherical shape. The graph clearly demonstrates that the deviation from spherical patterns becomes more prominent with pressure. This suggests that applying pressure may enhance the anisotropy in  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb).

The Debye temperature ( $\theta_D$ ) is essential for comprehending material phenomena, such as specific heat capacity and thermal expansion. Additionally, it provides valuable information regarding the alterations in a material's characteristics when exposed to different temperatures and pressures. Table 6 shows the Debye temperature's variation with temperature and pressure, calculated using the following formula [63,64]:

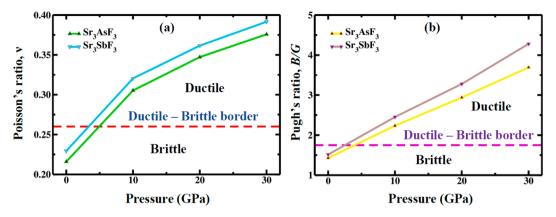
$$\Theta_D = \frac{h}{k_B} \left[ \frac{3n}{4\pi} \left( \frac{N_A \rho}{M} \right) \right]^{\frac{1}{3}} \nu_m \tag{9}$$

The variables in the given equation consist of Planck's constant (h), Avogadro's number ( $N_A$ ), Boltzmann's constant ( $k_B$ ), density ( $\rho$ ), molecular mass (M), and the velocity of sound ( $\nu_m$ ). The Navier equation is used to determine the sound speed [64].

Table 6

Determined values of density  $\rho$  (g cm<sup>-3</sup>), transverse sound velocity  $v_t$  (m s<sup>-1</sup>), longitudinal sound velocity  $v_l$  (m s<sup>-1</sup>), mean sound velocity  $v_m$  (m s<sup>-1</sup>), Debye temperature  $\theta_D(K)$  and melting temperature  $T_m(K)$  of Sr<sub>3</sub>BF<sub>3</sub> (B = As, Sb) from 0 to 30 GPa pressure.

Pressure (GPa)	Compound	ρ	$\nu_{\mathrm{t}}$	$\nu_{l}$	$ u_{ m m}$	$\theta_D$	$T_m$
0	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub>	3.53	2658.86	4417.13	2940.41	293.63	1041.83
	Sr <sub>3</sub> SbF <sub>3</sub>	3.44	2401.06	4051.48	2659.30	253.68	964.96
10	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub>	4.16	2813.53	5314.37	3144.76	331.72	1590.99
	Sr <sub>3</sub> SbF <sub>3</sub>	4.17	2542.00	4945.24	2846.82	289.41	1492.14
20	Sr <sub>3</sub> AsF <sub>3</sub>	4.65	2790.67	5768.17	3136.40	343.25	2065.68
	Sr <sub>3</sub> SbF <sub>3</sub>	4.71	2502.74	5374.68	2818.27	298.52	1946.04
30	$Sr_3AsF_3$	5.05	2681.13	6009.67	3025.01	340.35	2473.80
	Sr <sub>3</sub> SbF <sub>3</sub>	5.16	2371.07	5616.69	2680.99	292.73	2339.11



**Fig. 13.** (a) Poisson's ratio ( $\nu$ ) and (b) Pugh's ratio (B/G) of Sr<sub>3</sub>BF<sub>3</sub> (B = As, Sb) with respect to applied pressures.

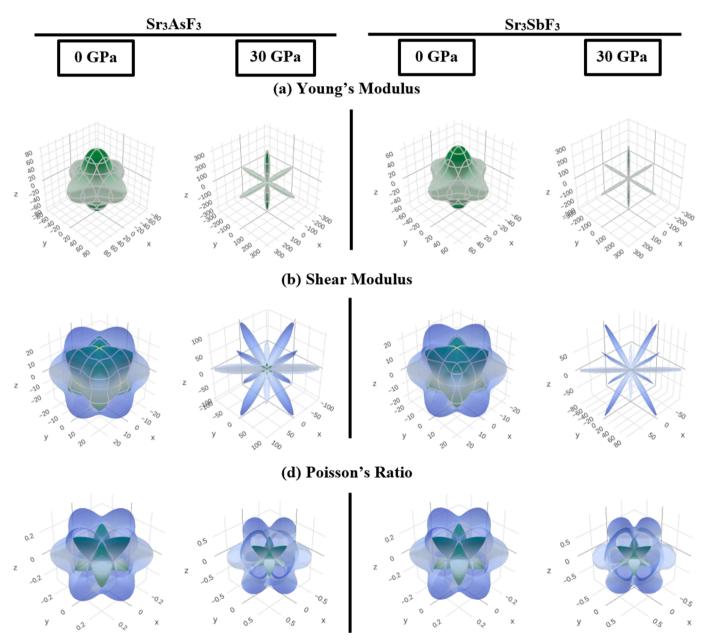


Fig. 14. 3D illustrations of (a) Young's Modulus, (b) Shear modulus, and (c) Poisson's ratio of  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb) at 0 and 30 GPa.

$$\nu_m = \left[\frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{2}{\nu_s^3} + \frac{1}{\nu_l^3}\right)\right]^{-1/3} \tag{10}$$

To compute the sound velocity's longitudinal and transverse components, we can use the following formulas:

$$\nu_t = \sqrt{\frac{G}{\rho}} \tag{11}$$

$$\nu_l = \sqrt{\frac{3B + 4G}{3\rho}} \tag{12}$$

The Debye temperatures ( $\Theta_D$ ) of Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> photovoltaic compounds were studied under different pressures. The findings show that the Debye temperature rises with pressure for both materials. For Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub>,  $\Theta_D$  increases from 293.63 K under 0 GPa to 343.25 K under 20 GPa, while for Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub>, it increases from 253.68 K at 0 GPa to 298.52 K at 20 GPa. This rise indicates that the lattice stiffness of these materials improves with pressure up to 20 GPa, enhancing their vibrational properties and potentially improving their performance in mechanical applications under high pressure. However, at 30 GPa, the  $\Theta_D$  values for both materials decrease, suggesting that further pressure increases may reduce performance.

Another important parameter that we can obtain using elastic constants is the melting temperature  $(T_m)$  which is expressed as [65]:

$$T_m = (554 + 5.911C_{11}) \tag{13}$$

The melting temperatures  $(T_m)$  of Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> photovoltaic compounds were investigated under various pressures, as shown in Table 6. The data reveals that the melting temperature increases with pressure for both compounds. For Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub>,  $T_m$  ranges from 1041.83 K under 0 GPa to 2473.80 K under 30 GPa, while for Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub>,  $T_m$  ranges from 964.96 K under 0 GPa to 2339.11 K under 30 GPa. This pattern indicates that both materials demonstrate improved thermal stability under higher pressures, which is crucial for their potential applications in high-temperature environments.

# 3.5. Optical properties

A thorough investigation of the optical characteristics of Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> photovoltaic compounds is crucial to determine their viability for usage in solar applications. The analysis involves the examination of several parameters, such as the absorption coefficient  $\alpha(\omega)$ , conductivity  $\sigma(\omega)$ , refractive index  $n(\omega)$ , complex dielectric function  $\varepsilon(\omega)$ , extinction coefficient  $k(\omega)$ , reflectivity  $R(\omega)$  and loss function  $L(\omega)$ . Complex dielectric constant  $\varepsilon(\omega)$  comprises two components: The real part is represented by  $\varepsilon_1(\omega)$ , and the imaginary part is indicated by  $\varepsilon_2(\omega)$ . The definition of the dielectric function is expressed as,

$$\varepsilon(\omega) = \varepsilon_1(\omega) + j\varepsilon_2(\omega) \tag{14}$$

The real component,  $\varepsilon_1(\omega)$ , symbolizes the response of the material to light transmission, while the amount of light absorbed is represented by the imaginary component  $\varepsilon_2(\omega)$ . The initial static value of the dielectric constant,  $\varepsilon_1(0)$ , is 3.60 found for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and 3.62 for Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> at 0 GPa. These values grow to 8.7 and 10.6 at 30 GPa, respectively, as depicted in Fig. 15(a). The first maximum energy levels detected for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> are 2 eV, along with 0.50 eV and 0.35 eV at a pressure of 30 GPa, respectively. Bandgap energy and the static dielectric constant  $\varepsilon_1(0)$ calculated values are consistent with Penn's model [66]. A negative dielectric function  $(\varepsilon_1)$  was observed within the range of energy of 8.30-8.50 eV for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub>, 7.40-7.90 eV for Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> at 0 GPa which shifts towards 12.30–12.50 eV for  $Sr_3AsF_3$  and 10.80–11.30 eV for  $Sr_3SbF_3$  at 30 GPa, According to Fig. 15(b),  $\varepsilon_2(\omega)$  is associated with the inter-band transition that occurs when light energy is absorbed, and it is directly related to the band structure [67]. Significantly, at 30 GPa pressure Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> show notable peaks in the area that is visible. Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> is prioritized due to its small band gap, which facilitates transitions with lower-energy photons.

In order to ascertain the optical characteristics of  $Sr_3BF_3$ , in this study we may compute its optical absorption coefficient  $\alpha(\omega)$  along with

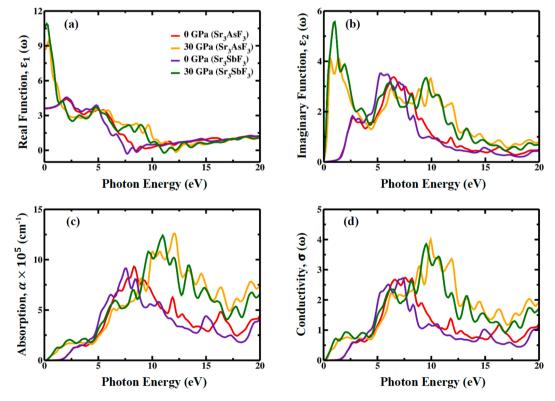


Fig. 15. Impact of pressure on (a) real function, (b) imaginary function, (c) absorption, and (d) optical conductivity of Sr<sub>3</sub>BF<sub>3</sub> (B = As, Sb) materials.

its optical conductivity  $\sigma(\omega)$  using the following formulas [68]:

$$\alpha(\omega) = \frac{\sqrt{2}\omega \left[ \left\{ \epsilon_1^2(\omega) + \epsilon_2^2(\omega) \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} - \epsilon_1(\omega) \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}}{c}$$
(15)

$$\sigma(\omega) = \frac{\alpha(\omega)n(\omega)c}{4\pi}$$
(16)

One useful parameter for determining a material's nature is the optical absorption coefficient, such as in case it exhibits characteristics that are metallic, semiconducting or insulating. This coefficient also aids in determining the optimal solar energy conversion efficiency (OSECE). Under zero pressure, in both compounds, the spectra of optical absorption come from their respective band gap energy, as illustrated in Fig. 15(c), demonstrating their semiconducting nature. However, a transition towards lower photon energy (redshift) is observed under high pressure for both systems, as evidenced by the EBS calculations. Additionally, a high absorption spectrum is found across a broad electromagnetic range (6.80–15.00 eV) within the spectrum of ultraviolet light, reaching its peak under high pressure.

One further essential aspect of optical properties is optical conductivity  $\sigma(\omega)$ , which estimates a material's ability to conduct electricity when illuminated by light [69]. This characteristic is contingent upon the mobility and concentration of unbound charge carriers. Fig. 15(d) displays spectra with a noticeable peak with low photon energies and sharp peaks at high energies. Furthermore, the impact of pressure is observable, since the maximum heights of the  $\sigma(\omega)$  spectra escalate with increasing pressure for both substances. Both materials show modest peaks under extreme pressure, in the low-energy photon range, as illustrated in Fig. 15(d). This suggests that these materials have the possibility of utilization in optoelectronic devices and solar panels that function in the range of low-energy photons. Moreover, the following formulas [68] were used to calculate the refractive index  $n(\omega)$ , extinction coefficient  $k(\omega)$ , reflectivity  $R(\omega)$ , and energy loss function  $L(\omega)$ :

$$\boldsymbol{n}(\omega) = \frac{\left[\left(\varepsilon_1^2(\omega) + \varepsilon_2^2(\omega)\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \varepsilon_1(\omega)\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\sqrt{2}}$$
(17)

$$k(\omega) = \frac{\left[\left(\epsilon_1^2(\omega) + \epsilon_2^2(\omega)\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} - \epsilon_1(\omega)\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\sqrt{2}}$$
(18)

$$R(\omega) = \frac{[n(\omega) - 1]^2 + k(\omega)^2}{[n(\omega) + 1]^2 + k(\omega)^2}$$
(19)

$$L(\omega) = \frac{\varepsilon_2(\omega)}{\varepsilon_1^2(\omega) + \varepsilon_2^2(\omega)}$$
(20)

The amounts of electromagnetic waves that are reflected and blocked from flowing through the material are represented by the refractive index  $n(\omega)$ , as depicted in Fig. 16(a). Finding the right optical material for use in a wide range of optoelectronic devices like optical waveguides, solar panels, light emitting diodes (LEDs), and detectors, requires a thorough understanding of the real component of the refractive index n(x) [20,70]. According to Fig. 16(a), the static refractive index values at zero frequency, or n(0), are approximately 1.90 for both compounds at 0 GPa and rise to approximately 2.94 and 3.25 at 30 GPa for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub>, respectively. A significant amount of the illuminated light can be absorbed by both systems because their static refractive indices [n (0)] are high at 30 GPa (Fig. 16a). Most notably, compared to certain possible cubic compounds for optoelectronic and solar device applications, very high values of  $n(\omega)$  are observed at zero photon energy [71]. Particularly, values of  $n(\omega)$  and peak maximum position are shown to be closely related in comparison to  $\varepsilon_1(\omega)$ . The relationship between real part of the dielectric function  $\varepsilon_1(\omega)$  and refractive indices  $n(\omega)$ , which can be expressed in the formula:  $n^2(\omega) - k^2(\omega) = \varepsilon_1(\omega)$ , is highlighted by this correlation.

An object's extinction coefficient or  $k(\omega)$  is a measure of how much light it can absorb. It is similar to  $\varepsilon_2$  ( $\omega$ ) and may be seen in Fig. 16(b).

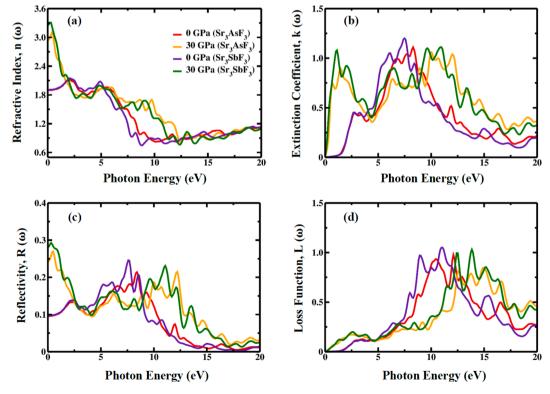


Fig. 16. Influences of applied pressure on (a) refractive index, (b) extinction coefficient, (c) reflectivity, and (d) loss function of Sr<sub>3</sub>BF<sub>3</sub> (B = As, Sb) materials.

Eq. (21) [72] expresses the Kramer-Kronig relationship, which establishes this relationship between  $k(\omega)$  and  $\varepsilon_2$  ( $\omega$ ).

$$\varepsilon_2(\omega) = \frac{e^2 h}{\pi m^2 \omega^2} \sum_{\nu,c} \int |M_{e\nu}(k)|^2 \delta[\omega_{e\nu}(k) - \omega] d^3k$$
(21)

The reflectivity  $R(\omega)$  of Sr<sub>3</sub>BF<sub>3</sub>, as shown in Fig. 16(c), gives a formal picture of how much electromagnetic radiation a material reflects when light hits its surface. The constant values of R(0) that we have obtained are 10 %, 10 %, 24.5 %, and 28 % for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> (under 0 GPa), Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> (under 0 GPa), Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> (under 30 GPa), and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> (under 30 GPa). The scientific community is well aware of the relationship between a material's low reflectivity and strong light absorption/transmission. As can be observed from Fig. 16(c), the  $R(\omega)$  displays relatively low values (>44 %) in the IR-visible (low energy) area [19,20]. Moreover, throughout the whole photon energy range, the  $R(\omega)$  spectra of the two photovoltaic compounds under study exhibit a slightly higher peak at high pressure. It is possible to deduce a low  $R(\omega)$  from critical value (44 %), which indicates that the incident light has a strong absorptivity/ transitivity, The optimum photon absorption capacity of these compounds makes them good candidates for utilization in optoelectronic devices.

Fig. 16(d) shows the energy loss function  $L(\omega)$ . The amount of energy reflected or scattered by the material can be due to different factors. Under pressured conditions, the value of  $L(\omega)$  within the visible and ultraviolet energy ranges is less than 0.20 and 1.05, respectively, indicating minor emissions within these wavelength ranges. Using a low value for this in a material facilitates faster movement of holes and electrons through it. Lastly, due to their important qualities, the materials under high pressure that have been investigated may spark a great deal of curiosity among researchers.

#### 3.6. Thermodynamic properties

To verify the thermodynamic stability of  $Sr_3AsF_3$  and  $Sr_3SbF_3$ , the thermal properties were examined using the Gibbs2 algorithm [36],

which is based on the Debye model's quasi-harmonic approximation [73]. Similar to this, we have studied thermal properties such as entropy (*S*), thermal expansion ( $\alpha$ ), specific heat ( $C_V$ ) and Grüneisen parameter ( $\gamma$ ), which are plotted against temperature as shown in Figs. 17 and 18.

The specific heat ( $C_V$ ), which measures the temperature change of a material in response to energy input, establishes a causal relationship between the material's dynamics. The specific heat profiles for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> are demonstrated in Figs. 17(a) and 18(a) respectively. With temperature, the specific heat ( $C_V$ ) rises and becomes closer to the Dulong–Petit limit. The figures make it abundantly evident that at decreasing pressures, the value of ( $C_V$ ) increases. This suggests that, as the temperature rises, the material's heat capacity increases until it reaches a point where it stabilizes according to the Dulong–Petit law [74]. This value for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> are same at 172 J/molK. Further evidence that pressure significantly affects a material's thermal properties comes from the statistics, which show that the material exhibits a greater specific heat at lower pressures. As the pressure increases, the system is compressed, which increases the system's internal energy. Higher pressures cause a decrease in the specific heat ( $C_V$ ) [75].

To explain the anharmonic effects seen in a material when it undergoes variations in pressure and volume, Eduard Gruneisen proposed the idea of "thermal pressure," which defines how pressure rises with heat and temperature. Figs. 17(b) and 18(b) show the variation of the Grüneisen parameter ( $\gamma$ ) for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub>, respectively. These graph shows the value of  $\gamma$  slightly increases with temperature for material under low pressure but for material under high hydrostatic pressure, this value slightly decreases with temperature. Increased pressure also results in an overall greater value of  $\gamma$  which can be attributed to phase transition due to pressure.

A material's configuration, including its length, area, and volume, changes as its temperature rises. In thermophysical nomenclature, the symbol " $\alpha$ " stands for this phenomenon, which is also referred to as thermal expansion. Figs. 17(c) and 18(c) show the thermal expansion alternation Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> and Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub>, respectively. The graphs show that as the temperature rises, the coefficient of thermal expansion, or  $\alpha$ , finally approaches a constant value. Furthermore, as pressure rises,  $\alpha$  falls. This

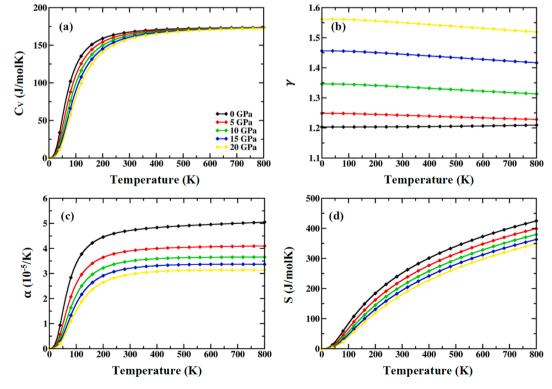


Fig. 17. Changes of (a) Specific heat, (b) Grüneisen parameter, (c) Thermal expansion, and (d) Entropy of Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> as a function of temperature.

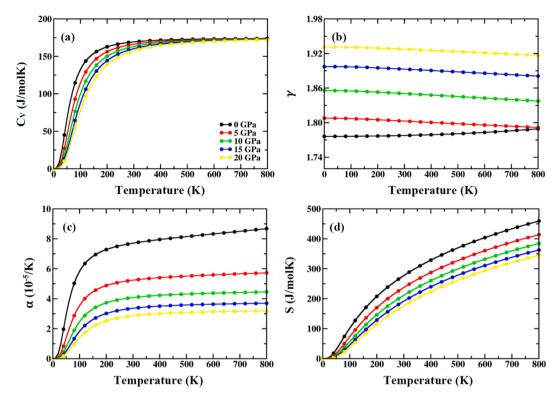


Fig. 18. Changes of (a) Specific heat, (b) Grüneisen parameter, (c) Thermal expansion, and (d) Entropy of Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> as a function of temperature.

happens because atoms and molecules move harmonically when they are at their positions of equilibrium. They acquire more kinetic energy as the temperature rises, leading to increased vibrations and movements. This results in greater interatomic distances and thus, material expansion. On the other hand, applying pressure limits the lengthening of the bonds, which lessens the material's expansion.

Entropy (*S*) quantifies the level of chaos and unpredictability in a system, making it a dependable tool for forecasting the system's physical

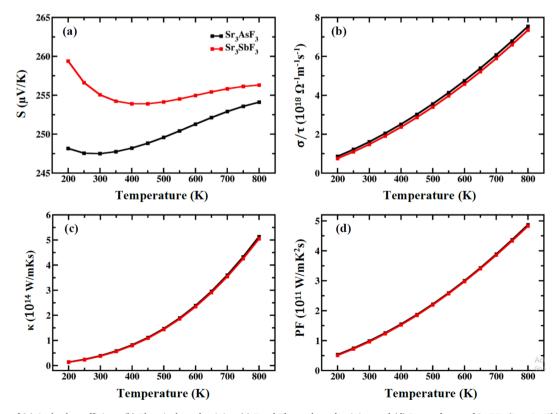


Fig. 19. Changes of (a) Seebeck coefficient, (b) Electrical conductivity, (c) Total Thermal conductivity, and (d) Power factor of  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb) as a function of temperature.

condition. As shown in Figs. 17(d) and 18(d) for  $Sr_3AsF_3$  and  $Sr_3AsF_3$  respectively, the entropy value starts at zero for all pressure at 0 K temperature. Entropy (*S*) rises exponentially with temperature but diminishes as pressure increases. Increased pressure results in a decline in volume, causing the system's components to become more concentrated in a smaller area, leading to a reduction in entropy. The entropy of  $Sr_3AsF_3$  is determined to be 424.85 J mol<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup> at 800 K temperature and 0 GPa pressure. Additionally, the entropy of  $Sr_3AsF_3$  is found to be 459.26 J mol<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup>. The increase in entropy is a result of the heightened vibrational movement of atoms due to the temperature increase, causing the system's internal energy to increase. Notably, the entropy curve maintains a seamless and uninterrupted pattern, suggesting that the material stays in the same phase over the whole temperature range.

#### 3.7. Thermoelectric properties

The thermoelectric coefficients are used for finding the potential of wasted heat energy recovery of a material. The BoltzTraP [37] is a software package designed for the computation of thermoelectric properties, such as the Seebeck coefficient (*S*), electrical conductivity ( $\sigma$ ), Total Thermal conductivity ( $\kappa$ ), Power factor (*PF*) and figure of merit (*ZT*). These coefficients are illustrated in a range of 0 K up to 800 K temperature in Figs. 19(**a**-**d**) **and** 20 accordingly. The dimensionless figure of merit (*ZT*) is the main figure used to evaluate the effectiveness of thermoelectric materials, which is given in a condensed format:

$$ZT = S^2 \sigma T / \kappa \tag{22}$$

The terms in the equation described above have precise definitions, as emphasized in fundamental investigations carried out in other significant research [76–78]. An examination of the thermoelectric properties provides valuable insights into the suitability of a material for commercial thermoelectric applications can be ascertained via the numerical value of (ZT). A material is considered a good thermoelectric material when its thermoelectric figure of merit (*ZT*) is equal to 1. We have investigated these compounds to assess their thermoelectric behavior across several temperature ranges and to identify their potential suitability for thermoelectric applications.

The Seebeck coefficient (*S*) describes what amount of thermoelectric voltage produced in response to a thermal gradient across it. A high Seebeck coefficient typically corresponds to a high figure of merit value which means a higher efficiency when thermal energy to electrical energy and vice-versa. As we can see in Fig. 19(a), materials with narrower band gaps show a substantially better value of the Seebeck coefficient as  $Sr_3SbF_3$  is more efficient than  $Sr_3AsF_3$ . The upper limit of the Seebeck coefficient for  $Sr_3SbF_3$  is similarly found at 259  $\mu$ V/K under 200 K temperature and for  $Sr_3AsF_3$  this value is 254  $\mu$ V/K under 800 K temperature. Additionally, we see the fact that both compounds behave differently while increasing temperature.

Electrical conductivity per relaxation time against these compounds is illustrated in Fig. 19(b), which corresponds to the electron transport behavior with a temperature gradient. Both materials have a consistent behavior, as their conductivity demonstrates an approximately linear growth with increasing temperature. The maximum conductivity observed for Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> is 7.539 × 1018  $\Omega^{-1}m^{-1}s^{-1}$  at a temperature of 800 K, while for Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> it is 8.929 × 1018  $\Omega^{-1}m^{-1}s^{-1}$  at the same temperature. The increased conductivity at higher temperatures can be due to the favorable effect of thermal energy on the concentration of charge carriers, which in turn facilitates electron transfer between the valence band (VB) and the conduction band (CB).

Thermal conductivity ( $\kappa$ ), consists of both electronic and lattice constituents. The electrical component is generated through the conduction of heat energy by electrons, whereas the lattice component is a result of the lattice structure's vibrations. The total thermal conductivity against temperature is depicted in Fig. 19(c), which shows an increasing trend for both compounds. Both show similar values at similar

temperatures with the lowest at 200 K with  $0.14 \times 10^{14}$  W/mKs for  $Sr_3AsF_3$  and  $0.13 \times 10^{14}$  W/mKs for  $Sr_3SbF_3$ . The maximum value is similarly found at the highest temperature of 800 K with  $5.13 \times 10^{14}$  W/mKs for  $Sr_3AsF_3$  and  $6.86 \times 10^{14}$  W/mKs for  $Sr_3SbF_3$ . Thermal conductivity, like electrical conductivity, is affected by the charge carrier concentration. Therefore, a rise in temperature causes an increment in the value of this parameter. Nevertheless, thermal conductivity exhibits a significant increase as temperature rises, in contrast to electrical conductivity. The findings are in good agreement with the Wiedemann-Franz law, which demonstrates their clear relationship, represented as [76]:

$$\kappa = \sigma LT$$
 (23)

Fig. 19(d) displays the Power Factor (*PF*) curve with respect to temperature. The graph shows a nearly linear increase in this parameter as the temperature increases. The power factor is a parameter that takes into account both the Seebeck coefficient and electrical conductivity, which explains its behavior being similar to them. At 200 K temperature,  $Sr_3AsF_3$  and  $Sr_3SbF_3$  show *PF* values at  $0.53 \times 10^{11}$  W/mK<sup>2</sup>s and  $0.51 \times 10^{11}$  W/mK<sup>2</sup>s respectively. Similarly, at 800 K temperature, the highest value is found which are for  $Sr_3AsF_3$  and  $Sr_3SbF_3$ ,  $4.87 \times 10^{11}$  W/mK<sup>2</sup>s and  $5.86 \times 10^{11}$  W/mK<sup>2</sup>s respectively.

Fig. 20 illustrates the correlation between chemical potential and the thermoelectric figure of merit (*ZT*) at various temperatures for the listed compounds. The relationship shown by (*ZT*) demonstrates that reduces with increasing thermal conductivity while it increases with higher electrical conductivity and Seebeck coefficient. We can see the effect of a narrower band gap here which leads the value closer to unity as is the case with Sr<sub>3</sub>SbF<sub>3</sub> which has a value for (*ZT*) of 0.78 at 200 K temperature but Sr<sub>3</sub>AsF<sub>3</sub> has a value of 0.76 in a similar temperature range. The effect of increased temperature is not ideal as for both materials the value of *ZT* strays further from unity.

# 4. Conclusion

The DFT approach was employed in this study to explore the structural, electronic, mechanical, optical, thermodynamic, and thermoelectrical properties of the photovoltaic compounds  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb). We have utilized TB-mBJ functional addition to GGA-PBE functional for more accurately calculating electronic parameters in ground state condition. Our study found that the band gaps of  $Sr_3AsF_3$  and  $Sr_3SbF_3$  drop from 3.26 and 2.95 eV to 1.36 and 0.99 eV respectively due to pressure. The compounds exhibit mechanical stability owing to the crystal's elastic constant meeting the Born stability criteria under pressure. Additionally, the compound's negative formational enthalpy provides

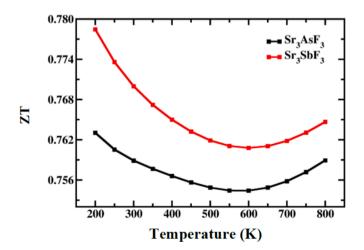


Fig. 20. Changes in figure of merit as a function temperature of  $Sr_3BF_3$  (B = As, Sb).

chemical and thermodynamic stability and phonon stability was also verified. The mechanical properties, including elastic constants, bulk modulus, shear modulus, and Young's modulus, exhibit significant improvement under increased pressure. An analysis of Poisson's ratio, Pugh's ratio, and Cauchy pressure indicate that Sr<sub>3</sub>BF<sub>3</sub> compounds possess a ductile characteristic in pressurized conditions and ductility further increases with pressure. Under hydrostatic pressure, Sr<sub>3</sub>BF<sub>3</sub> photovoltaic compounds showed a noticeable red shift and increased absorption and optical conductivity peaks. This shows that pressure can improve the efficiency of Sr<sub>3</sub>BF<sub>3</sub> photovoltaic compounds, which makes them optimal for application in solar cells and other kinds of optoelectronic devices. Thermodynamic properties evaluated at various temperatures satisfy Dulong-Petit law for varied pressured circumstances and are high-temperature stable. Thermal efficiency is generally improved by a narrower band gap and decreased by temperature. The thermoelectric qualities of the compounds suggest they could be used in thermoelectric devices.

# CRediT authorship contribution statement

Muneef Hasan: Writing - review & editing, Writing - original draft, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. Adil Hossain: Writing - review & editing, Writing - original draft, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. Heider A. Abdulhussein: Writing - review & editing, Writing - original draft, Software, Methodology, Investigation. Abdullah Al Shadi: Writing - review & editing, Writing - original draft, Methodology. Bijoy Sorker: Writing - review & editing, Writing original draft, Investigation. Ahmed Adnan Al-Khafagi: Writing - review & editing, Validation, Formal analysis. Redi Kristian Pingak: Writing - review & editing, Validation, Investigation. Diana Dahliah: Writing - review & editing, Software, Methodology, Investigation. Mohammed S. Abu-Jafar: Writing - review & editing, Validation, Methodology, Investigation. Asif Hosen: Writing - review & editing, Writing - original draft, Supervision, Software, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization.

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

## Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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