

# Compositional engineering for lead halide perovskite solar cells

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Since metal halide perovskites were utilized as visible-light-harvesting materials for solar cells in 2009, power conversion efficiencies (PCEs) for metal halide perovskite solar cells (PSCs) have already reached to a certified value of 25.7%, making PSCs to be a promising next-generation photovoltaic technology<sup>[1–5]</sup>. Compositional engineering of perovskite materials is an effective approach for achieving highly efficient and stable PSCs<sup>[6–8]</sup>. Typical perovskite materials have a general formula  $ABX_3$ , where A is a monovalent cation, B a divalent metal cation and X a halogen anion. The radii of each component in perovskite material *via* Goldschmidt tolerance factor ( $t$ ) determine the crystallographic stability and the formation of the 3D crystal structure<sup>[9]</sup>. Therefore, cation and anion with different size like Cs, methylammonium (MA), formamidinium (FA), I, Br, and Cl can be adopted to construct perovskite crystals, resulting in bandgap variation. In 2009, MA-based perovskites were first used as sensitizers in liquid-state solar cells, producing a PCE of 3.81% with extremely poor stability (Table 1)<sup>[11]</sup>. Kim *et al.* used  $\text{MAPbI}_3$  in solid-state mesoporous solar cells, achieving dramatically improved performance (Table 1)<sup>[10, 11]</sup>. Since then, composition engineering based on  $\text{MAPbI}_3$  has sprung up. In 2013, Seok *et al.* produced bandgap tunable  $\text{MAPbX}_3$  solar cells *via* substituting I with Br<sup>[6]</sup>. Combined with solvent engineering, a substitution of 10–15 mol% I with Br in  $\text{MAPbI}_3$  greatly improved the device stability in ambient atmosphere and a certified PCE of 16.2% was achieved for  $\text{MAPb}(\text{I}_{1-x}\text{Br}_x)_3$  ( $x = 0.1–0.15$ ) PSCs<sup>[12]</sup>.  $\text{MAPbI}_{3-x}\text{Cl}_x$  perovskites exhibit much longer carrier diffusion length and the related PSCs gave PCEs >12% and >14% for mesoporous and planar structure, respectively<sup>[13, 14]</sup>. Cl can aid film crystallization to improve device performance and stability<sup>[15–17]</sup>.

In order to further improve PCE and stability, FA and Cs were successively applied in composition engineering. The bandgap of  $\text{MAPbI}_3$  is about 1.5 eV, which is far from Shockley-Queisser (S-Q) optimum<sup>[18, 19]</sup>. Substituting MA with a slightly larger monovalent cation FA could reduce the bandgap of perovskite to S-Q optimum. What's more, FA exhibits better thermal stability than the volatile MA cation<sup>[20]</sup>. However, the degradation of black-phase  $\text{FAPbI}_3$  to yellow non-perovskite phase under ambient conditions restricts the development of  $\text{FAPbI}_3$  PSCs. It was found that the incorporation of MA and Br ions into  $\text{FAPbI}_3$  can effectively stabilize black-

phase perovskite and enhance the crystallinity<sup>[21]</sup>. As a result,  $\text{FA}_{1-x}\text{MA}_x\text{Pb}(\text{I}_{1-y}\text{Br}_y)_3$  composition drew attention and dominated for a long time<sup>[22–24]</sup>. PCEs exceeding 22% was achieved in  $\text{FA}_{1-x}\text{MA}_x\text{Pb}(\text{I}_{1-y}\text{Br}_y)_3$  PSCs (Table 1), together with a long-term stability, especially the thermal stability<sup>[25]</sup>. In 2016, Saliba *et al.* introduced Cs into  $\text{FA}_{1-x}\text{MA}_x\text{Pb}(\text{I}_{1-y}\text{Br}_y)_3$  to further improve crystallinity of the perovskite film and the thermal stability of PSCs<sup>[26]</sup>. They found that Cs-containing PSCs could steadily work over hundreds of hours under continuous illumination. Since then,  $\text{FA}_{0.95-x}\text{MA}_x\text{Cs}_{0.05}\text{Pb}(\text{I}_{1-y}\text{Br}_y)_3$  composition has become one of the dominant recipes (Table 1)<sup>[27, 28]</sup>. Besides Cs, other alkali metals are used in composition engineering<sup>[29]</sup>.

Though the introduction of MA and Br is beneficial for producing high-quality perovskite films, it induces a blue shift of absorption, limiting the further enhancement of  $J_{sc}$  and PCE. And Br can cause phase segregation under long-term illumination<sup>[30]</sup>. With the volatile nature of MA, introducing Br and MA into FA-based perovskite decreases the stability of PSCs<sup>[31]</sup>. Therefore, scientists continued focusing on  $\text{FAPbI}_3$  and devoted great efforts to obtain MA- and Br-free pure  $\alpha$ -phase  $\text{FAPbI}_3$ <sup>[32]</sup>. Adding methylammonium chloride (MACl) into  $\text{FAPbI}_3$  precursor solution could overcome phase transformation of  $\alpha$ - $\text{FAPbI}_3$ <sup>[33]</sup>. MACl induces the growth of (001) plane of  $\alpha$ - $\text{FAPbI}_3$  and increases the crystallinity. Seok *et al.* added methylenediammonium dichloride ( $\text{MDACL}_2$ ) into  $\text{FAPbI}_3$  to stabilize  $\alpha$ - $\text{FAPbI}_3$  and achieved a  $J_{sc}$  of 26.7  $\text{mA}/\text{cm}^2$ <sup>[31]</sup>. More than 90% of the initial PCE was maintained after 600-h operation. Besides the phase transformation, anion-vacancy defects at grain boundaries and at  $\text{FAPbI}_3$  film surface inhibit PCE improvement. Jeong *et al.* used pseudo-halide anion formate ( $\text{HCOO}^-$ ) to suppress anion-vacancy defects and to increase film crystallinity<sup>[34]</sup>. The resulting solar cells gave a PCE of 25.6% (certified 25.2%) (Table 1).

Though PCE has been greatly improved, the long-term stability of organic/inorganic hybrid perovskites cannot satisfy commercial requirements. To tackle this issue, all-inorganic  $\text{CsPbX}_3$  and low-dimensional (LD) materials are tried. Without volatile organic components, all-inorganic  $\text{CsPbX}_3$  cells exhibit excellent thermal stability and desired bandgaps for tandem solar cells<sup>[35]</sup>. Because of more easily formed defects and poor surface morphology, the PCE for all-inorganic PSCs is still inferior to inorganic–organic hybrid counterparts<sup>[36]</sup>. Similar to  $\text{FAPbI}_3$ , how to stabilize the black phase and passivate the defects of  $\text{CsPbX}_3$  is very important for achieving high PCE<sup>[37]</sup>. By using a sequential dripping method and octylammonium iodide post-treatment, Seok *et al.* made uniform and pinhole-free  $\text{CsPbI}_3$  film, and the cells gave a PCE of

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Table 1. Advances in composition engineering of lead halide perovskite solar cells.

Year	Composition of perovskites	Device structure	PCE (%)	Ref.
2009	MAPbI <sub>3</sub>	FTO/TiO <sub>2</sub> /perovskite/liquid electrolyte/Pt	3.81	[1]
2012	MAPbI <sub>3</sub>	FTO/c-TiO <sub>2</sub> /m-TiO <sub>2</sub> /perovskite/Spiro-OMeTAD/Au	9.7	[10]
2012	MAPbI <sub>2</sub> Cl	FTO/c-TiO <sub>2</sub> /m-Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> /perovskite/Spiro-OMeTAD/Au	10.9	[11]
2017	MA <sub>0.05</sub> FA <sub>0.95</sub> Pb(I <sub>0.95</sub> Br <sub>0.05</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	FTO/c-TiO <sub>2</sub> /m-TiO <sub>2</sub> /perovskite/PTAA/Au	22.1	[25]
2020	Cs <sub>0.05</sub> (MA <sub>0.05</sub> FA <sub>0.95</sub> ) <sub>0.95</sub> Pb(I <sub>0.95</sub> Br <sub>0.05</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	ITO/PTAA/perovskite/PI/C <sub>60</sub> /BCP/Ag	23.37	[27]
2021	FAPbI <sub>3</sub>	FTO/c-TiO <sub>2</sub> /m-TiO <sub>2</sub> /perovskite/OAI/Spiro-OMeTAD/Au	25.6	[34]
2022	CsPbI <sub>3</sub>	FTO/c-TiO <sub>2</sub> /perovskite/PTAI/Spiro-OMeTAD/Au	21.0	[39]
2022	(4F-PEA) <sub>2</sub> FA <sub>4</sub> Pb <sub>5</sub> I <sub>16</sub>	ITO/PTAA/perovskite/PC <sub>61</sub> BM/BCP/Ag	21.07	[43]

Note: c-TiO<sub>2</sub>, compact TiO<sub>2</sub>; m-TiO<sub>2</sub>, mesoporous TiO<sub>2</sub>; m-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, mesoporous Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>; PTAA, poly(triarylamine); OAI, octylammonium iodide; PI, piperazinium iodide; BCP, bathocuproine; PTAI, phenyltrimethylammonium iodide.

20.37%<sup>[38]</sup>. Most recently, Meng *et al.* reported a facile and effective defect passivation method for high-quality CsPbI<sub>3</sub> films and efficient devices<sup>[39]</sup>. They found that the in-situ grown phenyltrimethylammonium iodide (PTAI)-based LD perovskites (1D PTAPbI<sub>3</sub> and 2D PTA<sub>2</sub>PbI<sub>4</sub>) located at CsPbI<sub>3</sub> grain boundaries and the film surface, which can not only suppress non-radiative recombination but also stabilize black-phase CsPbI<sub>3</sub> to prevent moisture intrusion. As a result, the CsPbI<sub>3</sub> cells exhibited a record efficiency of 21.0% with high stability (Table 1). Owing to excellent stability in ambient environment and under operating conditions, 2D Ruddlesden–Popper (RP) perovskites with a formula of A<sub>2</sub>B<sub>n-1</sub>Pb<sub>n</sub>I<sub>3n+1</sub> are recognized as another promising candidate for PSCs<sup>[40, 41]</sup>. Their performances are still lower than 3D counterparts. The lower PCE is mainly ascribed to quantum confinement effect, the enlarged bandgap and in-plane orientation of 2D RP perovskite with respect to the substrate<sup>[42]</sup>. Various approaches, including solvent, additives, and cations engineering have been proposed to make vertically directed 2D RP perovskite to improve device performance. Zhang *et al.* reported pure FA-based 2D PSCs with the assistance of MAI and PbCl<sub>2</sub> additives, which gave a record PCE of 21.07% (Table 1)<sup>[43]</sup>.

In short, improving device stability while maintaining high PCE stays a hot topic in PSC field. Adjusting cations to enhance the performance of 2D or quasi-2D perovskite solar cells will be an interesting approach.

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