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Interfacial stabilization for inverted perovskite solar cells with long-term stability

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Abstract

Perovskite solar cells (PSCs) commonly exhibit significant performance degradation due to ion migration through the top charge transport layer and ultimately metal electrode corrosion. Here, we demonstrate an interfacial management strategy using a boron chloride subphthalocyanine (Cl₆SubPc)/fullerene electron-transport layer, which not only passivates the interfacial defects in the perovskite, but also suppresses halide diffusion as evidenced by multiple techniques, including visual element mapping by electron energy loss spectroscopy. As a result, we obtain inverted PSCs with an efficiency of 22.0% (21.3% certified), shelf life of 7000 h, T_{80} of 816 h under damp heat stress (compared to less than 20 h without Cl₆SubPc), and initial performance retention of 98% after 2000 h at 80 °C in inert environment, 90% after 2034 h of illumination and maximum power point tracking in ambient for encapsulated devices and 95% after 1272 h outdoor testing ISOS-O-1. Our strategy and results pave a new way to move PSCs forward to their potential commercialization solidly.

1. Introduction

Metal halide perovskite solar cells (PSCs) have exhibited significant progress in terms of both conversion efficiency and stability in recent years [1–4]. However, the device stability is not sufficient for the commercialization, and, hence, is more crucial than conversion efficiency at present [1]. Whether conventional *n-i-p* or inverted *p-i-n* devices are used, PSCs commonly exhibit degradation when exposed to moisture, ambient atmosphere, heat, and electric bias [5,6]. The degradation initiates from defect sites near the surfaces upon exposure to light, moisture, oxygen, and heat, and these defects also initiate ion migration, resulting in reactions

of the perovskite (PVK) at the charge transporting interfaces and the electrodes [5,7].

Among the different device architectures, inverted PSCs are of particular interest since the absence of doped organic charge transport layer on top of the perovskite enables superior thermal stability in comparison to conventional devices [6,8–10], and high stability under combined light and heat stressing [6] and thermal cycling. In addition, they also exhibit improved stability under reverse bias compared to conventional devices [11–16]. It is well known that the PVK/charge transport layer, namely hole transport layer (HTL) or electron transport layer (ETL) dominates conversion efficiency and stability of devices mainly by affecting interfacial defect density and ions diffusion [17–19]. In an inverted device structure, the top PVK/ETL interface is expected to significantly influence the device stability due to its effect on moisture and oxygen penetration into the perovskite and halide ion diffusion to the electrode. It is well recognized that inverted PSCs with commonly

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used fullerene-based ETLs not only exhibit significant interfacial recombination losses [17–20], but also have susceptibility to the oxygen and moisture ingress into the devices [18,21–24]. In addition, their thermal stability is limited by the aggregation of fullerene acceptor, which leads to the deterioration of contact between PVK and ETL [21]. More importantly, volatile perovskite decomposition products readily diffuse through the fullerene-based layer, exacerbating PVK and electrode degradation, since almost all metals react with PVK decomposition products, leading to shunting at low reverse bias voltages [25–27].

Therefore, interfacial stabilization at the interface of PVK/ETL is crucial for achieving both high efficiencies and long-term stabilities in inverted *p-i-n* PSCs. While the performance improvements have been demonstrated by various approaches [18,28–30], including the use of different inorganic [17,31] or organic [21,32] interfacial layers between PVK and C₆₀, further performance improvements are still needed to bring these devices closer to commercialization. Here we use a boron chloride subphthalocyanine (Cl₆SubPc)/fullerene ETL to simultaneously reduce the interfacial defect density and hinder ion migration, resulting in power conversion efficiencies of 22.0% (certified 21.3%), a shelf life of 7000 h, *T*₈₀ of 816 h under damp heat stress, and performance retention of 98% after 2000 h at 80 °C in inert environment, and 95% after 1200 h outdoor testing (first outdoor performance test for inverted devices). Dramatic inhibition of the iodide diffusion, as evidenced by multiple experimental techniques, can be attributed to the unique properties of Cl₆SubPc by forming strong Pb–Cl bonds. That molecule contributes to defect passivation and has strong interactions with iodine. It therefore effectively suppresses ion migration and electrode corrosion even under extreme conditions of reverse bias under illumination.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF), dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), chlorobenzene (CB), and Cesium iodide (CsI) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Shanghai, China). Lead (II) iodide (PbI₂) and lead (II) bromide (PbBr₂) were purchased from TCI (Shanghai, China). Methylammonium bromide (MABr), formamidinium iodide (FAI) and phenethylammonium iodide (PEAI) were purchased from GreatCell Solar (Yingkou, China). Cl₆SubPc and C₆₀ were obtained from Daeyeon Chemicals (Shanghai, China). All materials above were used as received.

2.2. Device fabrication

Perovskite solar cells (PVSCs) with *p-i-n* structure were fabricated following a configuration of ITO/HTL/perovskite/ETLs/BCP/electrodes. ITO glass was cleaned by sequentially washing with detergent, deionized water, acetone, and isopropanol. The substrates were dried with N₂ and cleaned by UV ozone for 15 min. Cu:NiO_x HTLs were spin-coated on the clean ITO substrates according to our previous reports [33–35]. The CsFAMA-mixed perovskite layers were fabricated according to the one-step antisolvent method we reported previously [35]. In details, the perovskite precursor solution was prepared by mixing PbI₂, PbBr₂, FAI and MABr in DMF/DMSO (V/V: 4/1) where the mole concentration of PbI₂ was kept at 1.1 mol L^{−1}, and the mole ratio of I/Br and FA/MA were maintained at 0.85/0.15. After stirring for 1 h at 60 °C, 35 μL

CsI (2 mol L^{−1} in DMSO) was added and then stirred for another 1 h.

The perovskite films were deposited on HTLs with 4000 r min^{−1}

for 35 s, during spinning, 300 μ L CB was used as antisolvent 25 s prior to the end of the spinning process. Then the perovskite films were annealed at 100 $^{\circ}$ C for 60 min. After cooling down to room temperature, 100 μ L PEAI solutions (2 mg mL⁻¹ in isopropanol (IPA)) were quickly dropped on CsFAMA-mixed perovskite and spin-coated with 5000 r min⁻¹ for 45 s and annealed at 110 $^{\circ}$ C for 10 min. The substrates were then transferred into high vacuum thermal evaporator where the ETLs Cl₆SubPc (8 nm) and C₆₀ (20 nm), BCP (8 nm) and metal electrode (Ag (120 nm) or Cu (120 nm) or Au (80 nm)) were subsequently evaporated. The active area was defined with a shadow mask.

2.3. Device and film characterization

J-V measurements were carried out using a Keithley 2400 source meter in ambient environment at $\sim$ 23 $^{\circ}$ C and $\sim$ 45% relative humidity (RH). The devices were measured both in reverse scan (1.2 V $\rightarrow$ 0.2 V, step 0.01 V) and forward scan (0.2 V $\rightarrow$ 1.2 V, step 0.01 V) with 10 ms delay time. Illumination was provided by an Oriel Sol3A solar simulator with AM1.5G spectrum and light intensity of 100 mW cm⁻², which was calibrated by a standard KG-5Si diode. During *I-V* measurement, optical aperture mask (8.939 mm²) was used to verify the accurate the cell area. External quantum efficiency (EQE) measurements were conducted with an Enli-Tech (Taiwan, China) EQE measurement system. Atomic Force Microscope (AFM)-based experiments were done under ambient condition (25 $^{\circ}$ C and 38% RH) with MFP-3D-BIO (Asylum Research, USA). Top-view morphology was analyzed by MIRA3 (TESCAN, Czech). An FEI Helios Nanolab 600i dual beam, focus ion beam/field emission gun-scanning electron microscope (FIB/FEGSEM) (FEI, Netherland), was used to prepare the device cross-section for scanning transmission electronic microscopy (STEM) imaging and analysis (FEI, Netherland). FEI Talos transmission electron microscope (TEM) with Super-X energy dispersive X-ray EDX was employed to acquire the STEM-EDX data with STEM-high-angle annular dark field (STEM-HAADF) mode. Element energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) was carried out on a double Cs-corrected TEM (Titan Themis 60–300 kV) performed by a Gatan cooling holder at the liquid nitrogen temperature. For high resolution (HR)-TEM image, the prepared FIB lamina was then immediately dropped in liquid nitrogen and transferred by a Cryo-transfer loader into cryogenic chamber of Titan Krios cryo-TEM (Thermo Fisher Scientific Ltd.). The cryo-TEM images were acquired using a low electron dose detector (Falcon, Thermo Fisher Scientific Ltd.). The dose rate for each Cryo-TEM image is controlled to below $\sim$ 50 e $\text{\AA}^{-2}\text{S}^{-1}$ for high resolution images and 1.5 e $\text{\AA}^{-2}\text{S}^{-1}$ for the low magnification images, correspondingly. To decrease the dose rate, continuous 79 frames were acquired in 2 s and were integrated into one image with drift-correction aligned. The operation voltage of electron beam is 300 kV. Depth profiling data were obtained with time-of-flight secondary ions mass spectroscopy (ToF-SIMS) 5 system from ION-TOF (Germany). The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were obtained using a BRUKER ECO D8 series (Germany). Time resolved photoluminescence (PL) spectra were measured using a Spectrofluorometer (FS5, Edinburgh instruments, British) and 405 nm pulsed laser was used as excitation source for the measurement. Ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements were performed on an ESCALAB

250Xi, Thermo Fisher (USA) by using Al K α X-ray source under high vacuum (10⁻⁹ mbar). The XPS spectra were calibrated by the binding energy of C 1s. Mott-Schottky and density of states characteristics were analyzed with a Zahner IM6e electrochemical station (Zahner, Germany) in ambient environment of 25 $^{\circ}$ C and 38% RH.

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2.4. Grazing-incidence wide-angle X-ray scattering (GIWAXS)

GIWAXS experiments were performed at beamline 7.3.3 of the Advanced Light Source (ALS), Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory (LBNL). The X-ray energy was 10 keV, and the two-dimensional (2D) scattering patterns were acquired with a Dectris

Pilatus 2 M CCD detector (172 μm $\times$ 172 μm pixel size). Grazing incidence angles of 0.5° were collected to explore the crystal structure. All the perovskite films were deposited on Si/Cu:NiO_x substrates, while the Cl₆SubPc and C₆₀ films were deposited on Si substrates. All the samples were imaged at ambient temperature in an enclosed Helium box to ensure minimize background scattering. Data analysis was performed using IGOR Pro software with the Nika package.

2.5. Device stability

For the maximum power point (MPP) tracking test, the encapsulated device was fixed at the V_{mpp} and the current density variation under ambient environment (~23.5 °C, 34% RH) was recorded without controlling the device temperature. For thermal stability evaluation, the devices were stored in an inert environment (O₂ < 0.1 ppm, H₂O < 0.1 ppm) at room temperature and/or 80 °C. The devices were kept under dark except during the I - V measurement, and the I - V curves were recorded in certain time intervals. For damp heat tests, the devices were stored at environmental chamber with fixed temperature and humidity (85 °C and 85% RH) except during the I - V measurement. For outdoor tests, the devices were mounted on sample holder at 22° angle with the front side oriented towards the equator, located on the rooftop without any blocking or shading of the sunshine. The devices for damp heat, outdoor and MPP tracking in ambient environment under illumination tests were carefully encapsulated with desiccant coverage in the cell area and epoxy edge sealing following our previous encapsulation recipe [36].

2.6. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations

In order to investigate how the molecules interact with perovskite layer and improve its stability, molecular dynamics simulations were performed by Vienna *Ab initio* Simulation Package 5.4 (VASP), which has been implemented with projector augmented wave (PAW) method. The exchange-correlation of generalized gradient approximation (GGA) was described by the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) functional revised for solid, which gives lattice constant close to experiments [37]. The final adsorption configurations were relaxed from structures obtained from an *ab initio* molecular dynamics (NVT ensemble, with C point) with a time step of 1 fs at 500 K for 3 ps. An energy cutoff of 450 eV was employed. At least two possible adsorption configurations were achieved. In both cases, two Cl ions of the molecules are bonded with Pb ions in perovskite, indicating strong interaction between the perovskite and Cl₆SubPc. The binding energies are calculated to be 1.24 eV for the configurations. Compared to the binding energy (0.11 eV) of C₆₀, the bond between Pb ions and Cl₆SubPc is much stronger. For the calculation of the binding energy between the 2D PEA⁺ cation (PEA-PEA) and the PEA⁺ with Cl₆SubPc molecule (PEA-Cl₆SubPc-PEA), structure optimization and energy calculations were performed by VASP 5.4.4 [38,39], which is imple-

mented with the projector-augmented wave potentials. PBE functional was used to describe the exchange correlation. A cut off energy of Plane-wave basis sets is set as 550 eV. Due to the big size of molecules, the used surface is very large (19.08 $\times$ 19.14 Å²). Therefore only Γ -point was used to relax the structure and a Γ -point centered 3 $\times$ 3 $\times$ 1 k-mesh was used for static energy calculations.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Device performance of the inverted PSCs with different ETLs

Phthalocyanine and porphyrin have excellent thermal and photochemical stability and have been used in different types of solar cells, including PSCs [40] and organic photovoltaics OPVs [41]. Phthalocyanine- and porphyrin-related molecules exhibit one intriguing aspect, namely their high iodine adsorption capacity and general capability of adsorption of various guest molecules owing to their cloud of π electrons [42]. This aspect of phthalocyanine-related molecules has been little explored in PSCs,

but potentially offers a route to inhibit ion migration and/or diffusion of perovskite decomposition products through the ETL, protecting the electrode from corrosion. Thus, we investigated the use of a chlorinated macrocyclic molecule, Cl_6SubPc , which has been previously used as an acceptor in OPVs [40]. The chemical structure of Cl_6SubPc and the device architecture of *p-i-n* planar PSCs are shown in Fig. 1a and b. We use inorganic Cu-doped NiO_x nanoparticles as the HTL, C_{60} as the ETL [34], and a Cs^+ , formamidium (FA^+) and methylammonium (MA^+) (CsFAMA) cations-mixed perovskite [25,43] as the active layer. We investigated both CsFAMA perovskites, labeled as 3D PVK, and CsFAMA perovskites with the surface treated PEAI solution, labeled as 3D/2D PVK (see Section 2 for details). Use of a PEAI solution treatment to form a 2D capping layer on top of the perovskite has been widely investigated, since a low dimensional perovskite capping layers passivates surface defects and the longer organic spaces in the 2D perovskites are able to reduce the water penetration and therefore improve the perovskite stability [13,14,44–48]. The Cl_6SubPc and C_{60} bilayer ETL was then thermally evaporated on top of the perovskites.

The performances of different devices are shown in Fig. 1c–h,

Figs. S1 and S2 (online), and summarized in Tables S1 and S2 (online). The performance of 3D PVK devices for both ETLs is inferior to that of 3D/2D devices, in agreement with Ref. [14]. The 2D perovskite modification mainly contributed to the decrease in the trap density while maintain the electron mobility of the pure 3D perovskite, as demonstrated by the dark J - V characteristics of the electron only devices (see Fig. S3 online) [14]. We also observe that CsFAMA 3D PVK devices with thin Cl_6SubPc (20 nm) ETLs exhibited a relatively low efficiency of 19.3%, due to the low current density (J_{sc}) and open-circuit voltage (V_{oc}). This may arise from the mismatch of the energy levels at the interface which hinders electron transfer, due to the relatively high lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) level (~ 3.8 eV) of Cl_6SubPc [41]. The up-shift of the conduction band of 3D/2D PVK in comparison to 3D PVK (from ~ 4.0 to ~ 3.8 eV) [44] could enable improved electron collection for the 3D/2D PVK/ Cl_6SubPc devices and thus increase the power conversion efficiency (PCE) to 20.5%. Similar improvements are seen for the 3D/2D PVK/ C_{60} devices, where the efficiency increases from 20.2% to 20.8% (Table S1 online).

Since non-fullerene ETLs offer a compromise between efficiency

and stability when employed as interlayer between the perovskite and fullerene, we also investigated the performance of devices with $\text{Cl}_6\text{SubPc}/\text{C}_{60}$ bilayer ETL for different Cl_6SubPc thicknesses, as shown in Fig. S2 (online). For optimal Cl_6SubPc thickness of 8 nm, the PCE can be further improved to 22.0% (with a V_{oc} of

1.16 V, a J_{sc} of 23.31 mA cm^{-2} and a high fill factor (FF) of 81.2%) by using the 3D/2D PVK/ $\text{Cl}_6\text{SubPc}/\text{C}_{60}$ (8 nm/20 nm) structure, as shown in Fig. 1c and Table S1 (online). Both devices with C_{60} and $\text{Cl}_6\text{SubPc}/\text{C}_{60}$ ETLs show negligible I - V hysteresis (Fig. 1d and e). Significant improvements in the performance when using Cl_6SubPc are evident from the steady power output (Fig. 1g) and EQE curves (Fig. 1f), and the integrated J_{sc} values from EQE spectra are

Fig. 1. (Color online) (a) Device architecture of the inverted planar perovskite solar cells (PSCs); (b) Molecular structures of the C_{60} and Cl_6SubPc ETLs; (c) J - V curves of the PSCs with various ETLs (reverse scan) under 1 sun illumination; (d-e) J - V curves of the optimal 3D/2D/ C_{60} (d) and 3D/2D/ Cl_6SubPc/C_{60} (e) devices under reverse and forward scan directions; (f) Device performance statistics for 3D/2D/ C_{60} and 3D/2D/ Cl_6SubPc/C_{60} devices; (g) Steady power output (SPO) of the optimal 3D/2D/ C_{60} and 3D/2D/ Cl_6SubPc/C_{60} devices test at the bias of maximum power point; (h) EQE spectra for the optimal 3D/2D/ C_{60} and 3D/2D/ Cl_6SubPc/C_{60} devices.

consistent with the I - V results. The statistical distribution of device performances is shown in Fig. 1f, and summarized in Table S2 (online). The performance improvement after inserting thin layer of Cl_6SubPc may arise from the significant reduction in interfacial recombination losses due to the strong bonding effect of Cl_6SubPc molecule with perovskite and better interfacial energetic alignment, which will be discussed in more details later. To further verify the reliability of the device performance, a non-encapsulated device in air at 63% ambient humidity was certified at a PCE of 21.3% (the National Institute of Metrology (NIM), Fig. S4 online). This efficiency is among the best reported for p - i - n PSCs (Table S3 online), and is the highest certified efficiency for planar inverted PSCs with inorganic HTLs. Furthermore, the devices with Cl_6SubPc/C_{60} ETL exhibited similar high performance with different electrodes, as shown in (Fig. S5 and Table S4 online), indi-

cating the broad process window for our interfacial modification strategy.

3.2. Morphological, compositional and structural characterizations

To understand the observed performance improvements, we performed comprehensive morphological, compositional and structural characterizations of the devices. From the SEM images and XRD patterns (Fig. S6 online), we observe an increase in grain size and a decrease of diffraction peak intensity of PbX_2 ($\text{PbI}_2/\text{PbBr}_2$) ($\sim 12.7^\circ$) in 3D/2D PVK samples. The impact of 2D capping layers and the additional Cl_6SubPc ETL on the perovskite morphology and crystallinity were investigated using GIWAXS. As shown in Fig. S7 (online), an isotropic scattering profile (azimuthally uniform diffraction rings) at high q values ($q > 1 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$), indicates a random orientation of the crystal grains in 3D PVK films. After passivation with PEAL, we observe sharp Bragg diffraction spots in the out-of-plane (OOP) direction at low q values ($q < 0.9 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$), indicating the formation of 2D PVK oriented parallel to the surface of the 3D PVK surface (Fig. S7b, c online) [49,50]. Fig. S8a, b (online)

show that Cl₆SubPc is amorphous with no obvious diffraction features of Cl₆SubPc for the 3D/2D PVK/Cl₆SubPc sample. We note that the arc shape at $q \sim 0.9 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ suggests a PbX₂ (PbI₂ and/or PbBr₂) residue. 1D azimuthal integrated scattering profiles are shown in Fig. S9 (online). We can observe a decrease in PbX₂ content (peak ratios of signature peaks at $q \sim 0.91 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ and $q \sim 1.0 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ are assigned to the (001) plane of PbX₂ crystal and (110) plane of 3D PVK) in 2D/3D PVK compared to 3D PVK. The improvement in crystallinity after PEAL treatment is in agreement with the surface induced secondary grain growth observed upon treating halide perovskite surfaces with organic ammonium solution [51]. Surprisingly, the deposition of Cl₆SubPc also induced further changes in the crystal structure. We observe reduced full width at half maximum (FWHMs) of the reflection at $q \sim 0.28 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ and $q \sim 0.38 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ (OOP) of the 2D perovskites Cl₆SubPc, increased ratio of the areas of the reflection at $q \sim 0.77 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ for 2D PVSK to the reflection at $q \sim 1.0 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ for CsFAMA PVK, as well as reduced peaks of the hexagonal non-PVK phase (d phase) at $q \sim 0.85 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ (OOP) and PbX₂ at $q \sim 0.91 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$, indicating improved crystallinity. One possible mechanism behind the observed phenomenon is that Cl₆SubPc caused surface-induced secondary grain growth after the deposition of organic molecules on the surface of the perovskite to minimize the interfacial energy, facilitated by the low activation energies for ion diffusion, low elastic modulus and consequent liquid-like behavior of the soft perovskite lattice [51]. Even though the reasons for the observed changes after Cl₆SubPc deposition are not fully clear. However, it should be noted that recrystallization of the perovskite can not only be induced by organic ammonium molecule surface treatment, but also over time in the presence of strong chemical interactions with the electrode in HTL-free PSCs [31,52]. To gain further insight into the structure of the films and possible effects of Cl₆SubPc, we performed cross-sectional cryo-TEM, as well as theoretical calculations of interactions between Cl₆SubPc and the perovskite. Cryo-TEM images and the EELS mapping images are shown in Fig. 2a-g. As shown in Fig. 2b, the higher magnification image of perovskites at the interface of ETL/PVK shows the surface layer of perovskite is composed of both 3D and 2D perovskites. The Fourier transformed electron diffraction (FTED) pattern from the high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) image shows 3D CsFAMA PVK is a typical cubic phase with lattice parameters ($a = b$) of $3.2 \text{ \AA}$ (Fig. 2c), which is in agreement with the result of XRD patterns (Fig. S6 online) and similar to the previous reports of 3D PVK [48,53]. Enlarged lattice of the (110)_c plane can clearly distinguish the identical position of [PbI₆]⁴⁻ octahedra and cations (Fig. 2e), which is also shown schematically for clear understanding. For 2D PVK shown in Fig. 2d, the lattice and FTED are different from that 3D PVK. Observed lattice distance of $7.1 \text{ \AA}$ corresponding to $n = 1$ is consistent with the $0.88 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ peak in both in-plane and out-of-plane patterns of the GIWAXS result discussed above and the previously reported value of PEA based 2D PVK [47-49]. The magnified lattice of 2D PVK also exhibits the obvious chains of [PbI₆]⁴⁻ octahedra and PEA⁺ included cations. Moreover, we found 2D PVK grains were dotted in the interfacial layer of PVK, which is out of our imagination that a 2D PVK thin layer with high orientation covers the surface of 3D PVK film. To the best knowledge of us, our work is the first time to discover the real microstructure of the device's cross-section via near atomic-scale HRTEM images, although that kind of HRTEM images of isolate PVK films were reported [53]. Fig. 2g shows the EELS element mapping of each key element involved in the ETL/PVK interface of a fresh Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ bilayer ETL

based 2D/3D PVK device. We can also observe that while there are clear boundaries between other layers in the device, Cl₆SubPc and C₆₀ appear to be intermixed. The images obtained are consistent with STEM images and EDX mapping (Figs. S10 and S11 online).

3.3. Theoretical calculation and analysis

The interactions between Cl₆SubPc and perovskite could be expected from findings in a previous report on the strong chemical interactions between the copper phthalocyanine and the perovskite [54], and are consistent with observed solar cell performance improvements and improved crystallinity. Possible mechanisms of defect passivation include the formation of Pb-Cl bonds [52], and the interaction between the perovskite and the pyrrole ring [54]. We investigated these possibilities using DFT and molecular dynamics simulations, as described in Section 2. We found that two Cl ions bond to Pb in the PbI₂-terminated perovskite (001) in both possible adsorption configurations (Fig. S12 online) with a binding energy of 1.24 eV, which is much higher than the binding energy obtained for C₆₀ (0.11 eV). The experimentally observed downward shift in the energies of the XPS peaks of Pb after Cl₆SubPc deposition (Fig. S13 online) confirms the binding between the perovskite and Cl₆SubPc, in agreement with a previous report on the formation of Pb-Cl bond [52]. In addition, we calculated the H-bonding energies for PEA-PEA cations and Cl₆-SubPc-PEA-Cl₆SubPc (see Section 2) to be 0.013 eV and

0.035 eV, respectively. Thus, use of Cl₆SubPc is expected to significantly increase the strength of interaction between the perovskite and ETL, due to hydrogen bonding (2.7 times stronger bonding with Cl₆SubPc compared to hydrogen bonding between PEA molecules), Pb-Cl interactions, and the strong bonding of iodine to Cl₆-SubPc (more than 20 times stronger bonding with iodine compared to C₆₀). The formations of strong bonds between the perovskite and charge transport layer are beneficial for device performance because they inhibit ion migration [55], and increase resistance to degradation due to oxygen and moisture [56]. In addition, the existence of strong interactions between the perovskite and interfacial layer on one side, and interfacial layer and fullerene derivative on the other side was found to result in defect passivation and substantial improvement in stability [57]. Interfacial bonding was confirmed to play a role in stability improvements for different molecules [55,57], including copper phthalocyanine [55]. Thus, the stronger bonding achieved by using Cl₆SubPc interfacial layer can contribute to defect passivation [58] and to increase the device stability [55,57].

3.4. Charge recombination dynamics and interfacial properties

Therefore, we performed comprehensive investigation of the effects of the incorporation of Cl₆SubPc on the charge recombination dynamics, and the PL decay dynamics were measured to probe the interfacial recombination at the 3D/2D PVK/ETLs interfaces, followed by comprehensive stability testing. As shown in Fig. 3a-c, the average lifetime (samples illuminated from perovskite side) of the PVK/Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ (626.3 ns) is similar to pure perovskites (723.5 ns), whereas the lifetime is dramatically reduced (105.9 ns) for perovskite/C₆₀ films (Table S5 online). No obvious differences in S₂ lifetime are found when the samples are illuminated from the glass side. Hence, the decrease of carrier lifetime when the sample is illuminated through the ETL surface arises from the interfacial recombination at the PVK/ETL interface that can be suppressed by the incorporation of Cl₆SubPc ETL between 3D/2D PVK and C₆₀ [17]. Admittance spectroscopy was performed to determine the trap density of states (t-DOS) for the control and Cl₆SubPc devices [59]. The distribution is

given as $DOS(E) \propto \frac{1}{4} V_{bi}^{-1/4} \exp(-\frac{q}{4kT} V_{bi})$, where V_{bi} , W , C , X , K , q and T are built-in

potential, depletion width, capacitance, angular frequency, Boltzmann constant, elementary charge and temperature, respectively [60,61]. V_{bi} can be obtained from the $1/C^2$ - V Mott-Schottky plots shown in Fig. S14 (online), where V_{bi} is given by the intersection

Fig. 2. (Color online) (a) Cross sectional cryo-transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image of a device with PEAL treated perovskite and $\text{Cl}_6\text{SubPc}/\text{C}_{60}$ ETLs; (b) Cryo-TEM image of the enlarged area marked by blue frame in (a); (c) Cryo-HRTEM image of the 3D region marked in (b); (d) Cryo-HRTEM image of the 2D region marked in (b). Inserts in (c) and (d) are the corresponding fast Fourier transform (FFT) patterns; (e) Atomic-resolution TEM image of the marked area in (c), showing 3D crystal structure of the perovskite. The inserted structural model of typical cubic lattice well matches with the TEM image; (f) Atomic-resolution TEM image of the marked area in (d), showing clearly the layered structure of the 2D perovskite with interlayer distance of 7.1 Å, which is consistent with the values from the single crystal structure; (g) EELS mapping of the fresh devices with 3D/2D perovskite and $\text{Cl}_6\text{SubPc}/\text{C}_{60}$ ETLs. The Cl and N signal demonstrate that the Cl_6SubPc is mixed with the C_{60} film.

on the bias axis [60]. The trap density (Fig. 3e) obtained is in the range expected for a polycrystalline halide perovskite film [61]. We observe a reduction in the trap state density for both trap states with depths $\sim 0.30\text{--}0.42$ eV and $0.50\text{--}0.60$ eV in the $\text{Cl}_6\text{-SubPc}/\text{C}_{60}$ device in comparison to the C_{60} control one by approximately one order of magnitude (for example, from 1.53×10^{17} to $3.43 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{ eV}^{-1}$ for the trap state $\sim 0.30\text{--}0.42$ eV). We attribute these to the decrease of traps in grain boundaries and n -type interfaces, respectively, indicating that the PVK/ETL interface quality has a significant influence on the formation of defects in the planar PSCs. The dependence of the V_{oc} on light intensity is shown in Fig. 3f. The diode ideality factor (N_d) can be calculated from the V_{oc} dependence on illumination intensity [62]. N_d is reduced from $1.33kT/q$ for the C_{60} ETLs device to $1.12kT/q$ for the $\text{Cl}_6\text{SubPc}/\text{C}_{60}$ device. A lower ideality factor indicates lower trap-assisted Shockley-Read-Hall monomolecular

recombination [35,63], which is consistent with the increased V_{oc} [3], resulting from lower trap densities and the suppression of interfacial recom-

bination for devices with Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ ETLs. From the energy levels of different materials in the devices, shown from the UPS profiles in Fig. 3d-e, we can observe that the electron collection would be more favorable when using Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ ETLs, which likely accounts for observed higher efficiency of the devices containing Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ ETL compared to only C₆₀ and Cl₆SubPc ETL. This has been further confirmed by the UPS depth profile of the 3D and 3D/2D perovskite films (Fig. S15 online).

3.5. Comprehensive device stability characteristics

After examining the charge recombination dynamics in detail, we performed comprehensive stability tests since interface degradation is a major contributor to the short and long-term PSC stability [64]. We performed stability tests in an inert environment to obtain information on the intrinsic stability independent of the encapsulant used. During continuous one-sun illumination, 95% of the initial PCE is retained after 1200 h, as shown in Fig. 4a

Fig. 3. (Color online) (a-c) PL decay dynamics for the 3D/2D perovskites with different interlayers as noted in the Figures. The excitation from glass and perovskites sides were recorded for comparison. “PVK side” indicates the excitation is from perovskite side and “Glass side” means the excitation is from glass side. (d) UPS spectra for the 3D and 3D/2D perovskites as well as C₆₀ and Cl₆SubPc ETLs prepared on Si substrates; (e) Energy level alignments of the various layers, the valence band maximum (VBM), conduction band minimum (CBM) and Fermi level (E_{F}) values were calculated from the UPS results, data for BCP/Ag were cited from literature; (f) $t\text{-DOS}$ characteristics for C₆₀ control and Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ ETLs based PSCs; (g) Open circuit voltage (V_{oc}) as function of illumination intensity for the C₆₀ control and Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ ETLs based PSCs.

(corresponding time dependences of V_{oc} , J_{sc} and FF are shown in Fig. S16 online). During storage in an inert atmosphere for over 7000 h, devices with 3D/2D perovskite passivation and Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ ETLs maintained 99% of the initial performance, a significant improvement over devices with pure C₆₀ ETLs, as shown in Fig. S17 (online). The devices with Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ ETLs also showed superior thermal stability with only a ~5% degradation after 2000 h at 80 °C in a N₂ filled glove box, compared to ~25% obtained for devices without Cl₆SubPc, as shown in Fig. S4b (online; corresponding time dependences of V_{oc} , J_{sc} and FF are shown in Fig. S18 online). In addition to the stability testing in inert environment, additional tests were conducted at ambient and a high temperature, high humidity (85 °C, 85% RH) environment, using encapsulated devices (schematic diagrams are shown in Figs. S19 and 20 online). We also observe a superior performance in damp heat test, where devices with Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ ETLs exhibit T_{80} of 816 h (34 d), while devices with C₆₀ ETLs drop below 80% of initial efficiency within the first day of testing, as shown in Fig. 4c. We also performed outdoor testing since outdoor stability studies of PSCs in general are scarce [65], and there have no outdoor tests of inverted devices to date. Superior stability of the devices with Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ ETLs compared to C₆₀ ETLs is also confirmed in outdoor stability tests following ISOS-O1 protocol, where T_{95} of 1272 h for device with Cl₆SubPc is obtained, as shown

in Fig. 4d. The encapsulated cell with Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ ETL exhibited excellent

stability in ambient under simulated solar illumination and MPP tracking, as shown in [Fig. 4e](#).

It should be noted that all the stability tests were performed on devices with 3D/2D PVK layers. Since it has been reported that bulky organic cations in the 2D PVK structure of the 3D/2D PVK capping layers improves device stability by inhibiting ion migration [\[5,8,46,47\]](#), we also compared the stability of devices with 3D and 3D/2D PVK and C_{60} ETL, as shown in [Fig. S21](#) (online). Thus, we can observe that while 3D/2D PVK results in improved stability compared to 3D PVK active layer, as expected [\[8,46,47\]](#), it is not sufficient to enable significant performance improvement under realistic operating conditions. The comparison of the stability of the devices with 3D PVK active layer and Cl_6SubPc/C_{60} and C_{60} -only ETLs is shown in [Fig. S22](#) (online). We see that the stability of the devices with 3D PVK and Cl_6SubPc/C_{60} is clearly better than that of 3D PVK and C_{60} -only. Thus, we focus on the effect of the PVK/ETL interface on device stability in devices with 3D/2D perovskite and Cl_6SubPc/C_{60} bilayer ETL.

In addition to stability tests at elevated temperature, humidity and/or illumination, we performed stability testing under reverse bias, since this type of test is a strong indicator of susceptibility to ion migration and electrode corrosion [\[31,66\]](#). To further enhance susceptibility to ion migration, the devices were illuminated during testing, since illumination and electrical bias both promote ion and defect migration, and accelerate harmful

Fig. 4. (Color online) (a) Light stability tests of the control C_{60} devices (6 cells) and $\text{Cl}_6\text{SubPc/C}_{60}$ devices (6 cells) in inert atmosphere. The devices were unencapsulated, and the I - V curves were recorded at certain time intervals; (b) Thermal stability tests of the control C_{60} devices (6 cells) and $\text{Cl}_6\text{SubPc/C}_{60}$ devices (8 cells) at 80 °C under inert and dark environment; (c) Damp heat stability tests of the encapsulated control C_{60} devices (5 cells) and $\text{Cl}_6\text{SubPc/C}_{60}$ devices (5 cells); (d) Outdoor stability tests of the encapsulated control C_{60} devices (5 cells) and $\text{Cl}_6\text{SubPc/C}_{60}$ devices (9 cells) following the ISOS-O-1 protocol standard; (e) Light stability of encapsulated $\text{Cl}_6\text{SubPc/C}_{60}$ cell in ambient under continuous 1 sun illumination and maximum power point tracking (MPPT).

chemical reactions [65]. In the device without Cl_6SubPc (Fig. S23 online), we can see clear damage to the Ag electrode, and also Ag deposition on the ITO side, in agreement with Ref. [66], while in the devices with $\text{Cl}_6\text{SubPc/C}_{60}$ (Fig. S24 online) no obvious electrode damage can be seen, confirming further that Cl_6SubPc is capable of blocking ion migration.

3.6. Analysis of the possible mechanisms of improved device stability

To investigate the mechanism behind the effect of Cl_6SubPc in device stability tested above, we performed ToF-SIMS, EELS mapping, and XPS measurements on devices with different ETLs. From obtained SIMS profiles (Fig. 5a and b, and Fig. S25 online) of the C_{60} -only and $\text{Cl}_6\text{SubPc/C}_{60}$ devices before and after aging, we observe the iodine at the initial sputtering atmosphere of the aged C_{60} -only device in contrast to the fresh one, along with the variation of silver information. In contrast, the $\text{Cl}_6\text{SubPc/C}_{60}$ device shows negligible change in those profiles. Information on other key elements or species involved in the devices before and after aging is also shown in Fig. S25 (online). To verify the profiles obtained from SIMS and provide direct visual

evidence of ion migration, we have applied our successful experience of sample preparation and HRTEM-characterization of the intact device

cross-section, and obtained visual EELS mappings of involved key elements of fresh and aged devices. Fig. 5c, d show the EELS mappings of the aged device cross-sections of the C₆₀-only and Cl₆-SubPc/C₆₀ device, compared with those of the corresponding fresh one (Fig. 2g and Fig. S26 online). The iodine mapping in the aged C₆₀-only device proves unambiguously the existence of iodide inside the silver electrode, while the counterpart iodine mapping in the aged Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ device shows negligible existence of iodine in the corresponding silver electrode layer. This contrast reveals in a direct view the effect of Cl₆SubPc to block the migration of iodine ions although that is well known already.

Moreover, in agreement with the SIMS and EELS mapping results, XPS spectra of the devices with Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ ETL do not show significant changes in the I and Ag spectra after aging, different from devices with C₆₀ ETLs, as shown in Fig. S27 (online). Surface potential scans probed by scanning Kelvin probe microscopy (SKPM) further highlight the differences in the stability of the PVK/ETL interface with and without Cl₆SubPc (Figs. S28 and S29 online). The surface potential for the perovskite with Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ ETLs, showed no obvious changes as function of illumination (continuous light soaking with a white LED lamp, ~40 mW cm⁻², Fig. S29 online), while perceptible changes have been observed in the C₆₀-only sample (Fig. S28 online). The demonstrated improve-

Fig. 5. (Color online) (a, b) SIMS profiles of I⁻ and Ag⁺ ions for the C₆₀ control device (a) and Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ device (b) before and after aging; (c, d) Lateral EELS mapping of the aged C₆₀ control device (c) and Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ (d) device.

ment in the device stability and the stability of the Cl₆SubPc/PVK interface that hinders the ion migration is in agreement with the calculated binding energy for iodine ions (0.43 eV for Cl₆SubPc and 0.019 eV for C₆₀), since the binding energy increase would stabilize the PVK/ETL interface.

To further investigate the reason of the blocking effect of Cl₆-SubPc, XPS spectra of Cl₆SubPc film treated with iodide vapor were measured, as shown in Fig. S30 (online). The I signal can be detected in the treated film and the binding energy of N 1s core was shifted to a lower energy, indicating a strong interaction between N and I [67]. The N in the Cl₆SubPc contributes to I adsorption, which suppresses ion migration in the PVK/ETL interface. This is in agreement with the known capability of macrocyclic molecules (porphyrins, phthalocyanines) to effectively adsorb iodine [68], as well as the high iodide ion binding energy of the Cl₆-SubPc. In addition to interactions between N and I, boron atom can also contribute to the interactions with the perovskite, since we observed an obvious red shift of the binding energy of B 1s from 191 to 186 eV, as shown in Fig. S31b (online). This shift is consistent with electron transfer, which likely occurs due to high electron affinity of boron, similar to a previous report of electron transfer between SubPc and C₆₀, which also resulted in a similar shift of the B 1s peak [69]. Consequently, Cl₆SubPc strongly interacts with both perovskite, as evidenced by XPS results shown in Fig. S31 (online), and C₆₀ based on Ref. [69], and this can contribute to the stabilization of the interface [55,57] as well as improved charge collection [70]. It should be noted that this electron transfer can result in the possible loss of axial chlorine, which could then diffuse into the perovskite layer

and hence be detected in the perovskite layer after aging, as shown in EELS mapping images,

Fig. 5d. That may also correlate to a small shift in Cl profile in the SIMS profiles (Fig. S25 online). As discussed above, the synergistic effect of N, B and Cl elements of Cl₆SubPc accounts for the correlated chemical bonding with both PVK and C₆₀, leading to the effective suppression of ions migration at the interface.

Finally, to examine the validity and general applicability of phthalocyanine molecule structure in enhancing device stability, a typical electron-transport molecule, F₁₆CuPc whose structure is shown in Fig. S32a (online), was tested as a replacement for Cl₆-SubPc in device structure. The devices with F₁₆CuPc/C₆₀ ETLs exhibit much lower efficiency of 16.39%, as shown in Fig. S32b (online). The inferior performance compared to Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ devices can be attributed to unfavorable energy level alignment, as shown in Fig. S33 (online), and consistent with the observed lower FF (due to the increase of series resistance), which indicates less efficient charge collection. In contrast to the control C₆₀-only device, the devices with F₁₆CuPc/C₆₀ still exhibit superior stability in light soaking with the MPP tracking mode (Fig. S34 online). The appearances between the fresh and aged devices show negligible difference in a view of both Ag and glass sides after that light soaking test, (Fig. S35 online), similar as the devices with Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ ETL. This result further demonstrates that the phthalocyanines can effectively interact with iodine and the perovskite and thus inhibit the ion migration.

4. Conclusion

In summary, we have shown that the Cl₆SubPc/C₆₀ combined ETL can dramatically boost the device stability, as well as improve the conversion efficiency owing to the unique properties of

Cl₆SubPc. Based on comprehensive experimental characterizations and theoretical simulations, N and B atoms of Cl₆SubPc could have obvious chemical bonding with migrated halide ions from perovskites, which accounts for strong interactions between the ETL and perovskite in addition to the Pb-Cl bonds. That results in effective inhibition of the halide ion migration at the ETL/PVK interface and the suppression of electrode corrosion, as evidenced by EELS mapping, TOF-SIMS, and XPS. As a result of effective interfacial management strategy, we obtained inverted planar PSCs with high conversion efficiency of 22% (21.3% certified) and unprecedented long-term stability (95% of PCE retained over 1200 h of outdoor testing and 90% of PCE retained under illumination and MPPT for over 2000 h). This strategy can be extended to extensive phthalocyanines with suitable electronic structures for interfacial stabilization of PSCs. Our results highlight multilayer ETLs incorporating halogenated macrocyclic molecules as a promising route for both high performance and stable perovskite solar cells.

Supplementary materials to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scib.2021.02.029>.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Author contributions

Zhubing He conceived and supervised the project. Wei Chen, Qin Hu, Rui Zhu, Thomas P. Russell, Aleksandra B. Djurišić and Zhubing He wrote the paper. Wei Chen fabricated and characterized the perovskite solar cells. Bin Han, Yudong Zhu, Wei Chen and Meng Gu finished the FIB, STEM, EELS and HRTEM characterizations and analysis. Qin Hu and Wenqiang Yang performed GIWAXS measurements and analyzed the GIWAXS data. Rui Cheng and Shien-Ping Feng helped perform damp heat stability tests. Yecheng Zhou performed the theoretical calculation and analyzed the results. Deying Luo and Fangzhou Liu helped perform all other related characterizations and measurements. All authors discussed and analyzed the results.

Appendix A. Supplementary materials

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engineering for full low-temperature-processed, high-performance, and

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