

Decreasing Charge Losses in Perovskite Solar Cells Through the mp-TiO₂/MAPI Interface Engineering.

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Based on our experience on controlling the recombination kinetics in Dye Sensitized Solar Cells (DSSC) through the modification of the mesoporous TiO₂ (mp-TiO₂) interface we have carried out the modification of the methyl ammonium lead iodide (MAPI) /mp-TiO₂ interface with a nanoscopic layer of insulating Al₂O₃. The effects over the device efficiency, Voc device reproducibility and the relationship between the observed increase in open-circuit voltage (Voc) and the presence of the Al₂O₃ layer is thoroughly discussed and explained. In contrast with the experimental observation in DSSC of TiO₂ conduction band edge shift for Al₂O₃ coated mp-TiO₂ films, in MAPI perovskite solar cells the charge vs voltage measurements carried out under sun-simulated irradiation conditions results in a negligible shift of the exponential charge distribution either measured using PICE (Photo Induced Charge Extraction) or PIDC (Photo Induced Differential Charging). Furthermore, an important decrease on the charge recombination lifetime is measured for the Al₂O₃ treated samples which lead to an improvement of the overall device efficiency due to the slower rate in the back-electron transfer reactions

Introduction.

The use of methyl ammonium lead iodide (MAPI) perovskite-type semiconductor material has been the focus of increase interest for the development of efficient solar cells¹⁻³. In less than 5 years solar-to-electrical conversion efficiency have been increased from $\eta=3.8\%$ ⁴efficiencies to near 20%⁵, exceeding the top best efficiencies measured for other so-called third-generation solar cells such as DSSC⁶ (Dye Sensitized Solar Cells), OSC⁷ (Organic Solar Cells) and QDSC⁸ (Quantum Dot Solar Cells). The easy-to-fabricate procedures, materials low cost and past experience on the above mentioned solar cell technologies have paved the way for MAPI solar cells to become a *hot spot* in materials science for energy conversion devices such as solar cells and light-emitting diodes⁹. Moreover, the recent discovery of the use of MAPI as semiconductor for solar cells, has also presented novel scientific challenges as for example, the explanation of the unusual large amount of measured charge on MAPI solar cells¹⁰, the

presence of hysteresis effects¹¹⁻¹⁴, the bi-exponential nature of the registered small-perturbation based Voc decays^{15, 16} and/or the presence of interfacial dipoles^{17, 18}. Whilst, the increase in solar cell efficiency has been spectacular, with a learning-curve never seen for other solar cell technologies alike CdTe and CIS, among others¹⁹, the knowledge, however, on the detailed mechanisms that allows the efficient conversion of sun-light into electrical current have been less explored with remarkable exceptions^{16, 20-23} and, moreover, there is still the scientific challenge to approach MAPI solar cells to their maximum theoretical efficiency through the reduction of non-radiate charge recombination losses²⁴, better spectral response²⁵ and, moreover, increasing operational stability²⁶.

One particular issue of MAPI perovskite solar cells is that the semiconductor thin film can be used in different device configurations as for example: (a) the use of mesoporous metal oxide scaffolds alike Al₂O₃, TiO₂ or ZnO²⁷

as contacts, (b) without the mesoporous scaffold and (c) using organic materials as selective contacts²⁸. Nonetheless, it is worthy to mention that the best certified devices have been described, to the best of our knowledge, with the archetypal device configuration⁵ of FTO/d-TiO₂/mp-TiO₂/MAPI/HTM/Au where FTO is the fluorine doped tin oxide semiconductor layer deposited on glass, d-TiO₂ is a thinner (~50nm) dense layer of TiO₂, mp-TiO₂ is a thin mesoporous layer (~450nm) and the HTM is the organic hole transport material. The choice of metal contact is usually gold (Au) on this class of device architecture too.

For the reasons given below the above described device configuration is the standard used in this work unless otherwise stated: On the one hand, our experience on the deposition of the TiO₂ metal oxide²⁹, its characterization and previous encouraging results in relation with this work using this device structure¹⁵ and, on the other hand, to clarify further the role on the mp-TiO₂ layer in the MAPI perovskite solar cell.

It is well known that reducing the charge losses due to inconvenient interfacial charge recombination reactions under operation is paramount to increase the solar cell efficiency³⁰. Learning from past studies in DSSC, we have observed that direct back-electron transfer from the photo-injected electrons at the mp-TiO₂ to the oxidized electrolyte was a major issue to overcome to increase the solar cell efficiency. Indeed, reducing this particular charge recombination reaction through better dye design and rational interface engineering lead to better and more reproducible DSSC³¹.

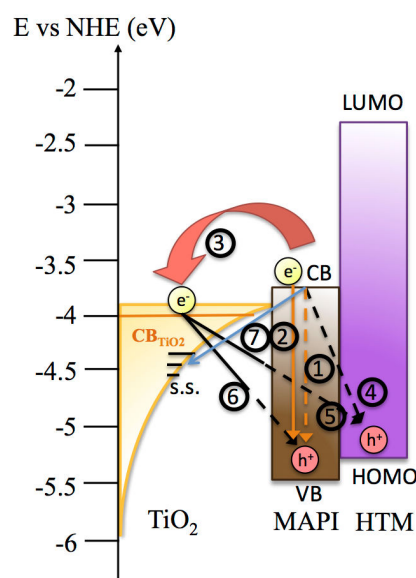
In our first communication using the MAPI perovskite semiconductor in solar cells¹⁵, we hypothesized that several interfacial and band to band recombination pathways can be found in MAPI/mp-TiO₂/HTM sample as illustrated in Scheme 1. For one, after electron injection from the MAPI to the TiO₂ conduction band (reaction 3, Scheme 1) subsequent interfacial back electron transfer may take place (reaction 6, Scheme 1). For another, the photo-injected electrons at the TiO₂ can also recombine with holes at the oxidized HTM (analogously to the reaction occurring in solid-state DSSC but in this case cannot be a direct recombination as there is a thin layer of MAPI perovskite between the TiO₂ and the HTM) and as measured by Moser and co-workers using laser transient absorption spectroscopy²⁰, (reaction 5, Scheme 1). Moreover, electrons at the MAPI perovskite can also recombine with the holes at the oxidized HTM (reaction 4, Scheme 1). Last but not least, band to band non-radiate and radiate charge recombination reactions at the MAPI perovskite (reaction 2 and 1, Scheme 1) have to be also considered as well as possible charge recombination reactions between electrons at the MAPI and surface states at the TiO₂ (reaction 7, Scheme 1).

Hence, the modification of the mp-TiO₂/MAPI perovskite interface may affect at least one of the recombination pathways that limit the solar cell performance.

The use of conformally deposited insulating overlayers onto the TiO₂ nanocrystals surface have been previously explored by our group and others in DSSC³²⁻³⁴. Indeed, it has been demonstrated that the interfacial engineering onto the semiconductor nanocrystals, either TiO₂ or ZnO, leads to a substantial decrease of the charge losses due to interfacial recombination processes. In fact, a recent publication³⁵ by Jung and co-workers describes the use of

MgO onto mp-TiO₂ in MAPI solar cells, however, the device electronic characterization to understand the changes in solar cell Voc remained unclear.

In the present work we have fabricated MAPI perovskite solar cells with the archetypal structure mentioned above as well as MAPI perovskite solar cells with an Al₂O₃ insulating thin layer onto the nanocrystalline TiO₂ particles that conform the mp-TiO₂ layer. The former will be described along this work as MAPI perovskite solar cells, while the latter will be designed as Al₂O₃-coated perovskite solar cells. Moreover, we have used advanced photo-induced characterisation techniques, namely photo-induced transient photo-voltage (PIT-PV), photo-induced differential charging (PIDC) and photo-induced transient photo-current (PIT-PC) to thoroughly analyse the differences in charge density (defined as the total accumulated charge in the device at a given bias), the charge recombination lifetime and the relationship between both mentioned parameters. The findings described below are key to (a) understand further the device charge recombination processes that hamper the solar-to-electrical conversion efficiency and (b) to increase the device fabrication reproducibility through interface engineering.



Scheme 1. The photo-induced interfacial charge transfer recombination reactions in MAPI perovskite solar cells; (1) band to band radiate recombination, (2) band to band non radiate recombination, (3) interfacial electron transfer from MAPI conduction band (CB) to TiO₂ and (4) interfacial electron transfer from the MAPI CB to the HTM, (5) interfacial electron transfer from TiO₂ CB to the HTM, (6) interfacial electron transfer from the TiO₂ CB to the MAPI and (7) interfacial electron transfer from the MAPI CB to TiO₂ surface states (s.s.).

Experimental Section.

Device preparation.

The FTO (Fluorine doped Tin Oxide) coated glasses (resistance= 8Ω/cm²) were etched using Zn powder (Alfa Aesar 98%) and a 2 M solution of HCl according to the desired pattern. Afterwards, the substrates were cleaned for 15 minutes in an ultrasound bath with de-ionized water with Hellmax soap, with de-ionized water and

finally with ethanol. The substrates were dried and an UV/Ozone treatment was performed for 20 minutes.

A solution of 0.65 mL of Ti (IV) isopropoxide (Sigma Aldrich 97%) and 0.38 mL of acetylacetone (Sigma Aldrich) were mixed in 5 mL of ethanol. This solution was spun-casted at 3000 rpm for 60s over the FTO. The substrates were calcined at 500°C for 30 min to obtain the titanium oxide dense layer. Afterwards, titanium oxide-coated substrates were immersed in a 40 mM TiCl_4 solution at 70°C for 30 minutes. Then, substrates were cleaned with water and ethanol and heated at 390°C for 20 minutes.

A mixture of TiO_2 paste (Ti Nanoxide HT/SP Solaronix) and ethanol 2:5 (w:w) was spin-coated at 5000 rpm for 30 seconds. The substrates were heated at 325°C for 30 min, 375°C for 5 min, 450°C for 15 min and 500°C for 30 min. The substrates were heated at 500 °C for 20-30 minutes prior to their use for further steps.

The alumina coating step was followed as previously reported by Palomares et al., in brief 3 mL of 3 M $\text{Al}(\text{secbut})_3$ (Sigma Aldrich©) and 17 mL of dry iPrOH (Sigma Aldrich ©) were mixed in order to get a 0.15 M solution in a glove box, and it was stirred and heated in the glove box at 70°C for 20 minutes. Then, the mp- TiO_2 coated substrates were immersed in the solution at 70°C for 20 minutes and the substrates were rinsed with iPrOH. Afterwards, substrates were heated up at 435°C for 30 minutes.

The methylammonium iodide was synthesized as described previously.³⁶

For the perovskite deposition, a 3:1 molar ratio solution of methylammonium iodide and PbCl_2 (Sigma Aldrich © 98%) in DMF (dimethyl formamide) was prepared. The perovskite precursor was deposited by spin-coating over the mp- TiO_2 layer at 2000 rpm for 1 min. The as-deposited substrates were heated at 120°C for 30 minutes, and their colour changed from yellow to black.

The spiro-OMeTAD (1-Material ©), the HTM, was dissolved in chlorobenzene (CBZ) to reach a 70 mg/mL. Also, 28.8 μL of tBuPyr (tert-butylpyridine) and 17.5 μL of a 520 mg/mL of a LiTFSI solution in acetonitrile were added to the OMeTAD solution as additives. The HTM layer was deposited by spin-coating the solution onto the perovskite at 2000 rpm for 1 minute.

Finally, 80 nm of gold metal was evaporated as the anode by thermal evaporation at a pressure not higher than 1×10^{-6} mbar.

All the steps for the alumina coating and the perovskite and HTM deposition were carried out inside the glove box to avoid humidity ($[\text{O}_2] < 100$ ppm and $[\text{H}_2\text{O}] < 0.1$ ppm).

Current vs voltage (JV) measurements.

The solar cells performances were measured with a Sun 200 solar simulator (150 W, ABET Technologies) with the appropriate filters to simulate the AM 1.5G solar spectrum. A silicon diode was used to set the illumination intensity to 100 mW m^{-2} . The applied potential and cell current were measured with a Keithley © 2400 digital source meter.

Time Resolved Photo-induced measurements.

All photo-induced measurement techniques such as PICE (Photo-induced charge extraction, PIT-PV (photo-

to-induced transient Photovoltage), PIT-PC (photo-induced transient photocurrent) and PIDC (photo-induced differential charging) are described with system diagrams at the Supplementary Information.

Results and Discussion.

Device characterization.

Figure 1 illustrates the current density vs voltage measurements (IV curves) for archetypal MAPI perovskite solar cells and the Al_2O_3 coated ones under standard sun-simulated irradiation condition (100 mW/cm^2 @1.5 AM G).

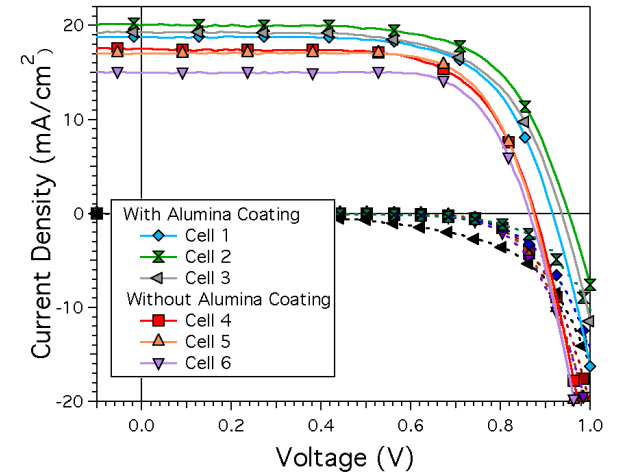


Figure 1. Several MAPI perovskite solar cells with and without the Al_2O_3 modified mp- TiO_2 /MAPI interface under 1 sun illumination and the corresponding dark curves (dashed lines).

As can be seen in Figure 1, solar cells using Al_2O_3 mp- TiO_2 coated MAPI perovskite solar cells show an increase in V_{oc} and photocurrent leading to an average efficiency of $\eta_{\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3} = 12\%$ in contrast to standard MAPI perovskite solar cell that show a standard average efficiency of $\eta = 10.2\%$. Table 1 lists all the relevant parameters for the measured cells in this work.

Table 1. Most relevant parameters obtained from the IV curves illustrated in Figure 1.

Device number	V_{oc} (mV)	J_{sc} (mA/cm^2)	$FF(\%)^1$	η	Al_2O_3 coated
Cell 1	920	18.6	67.8	11.6	yes
Cell 2	960	20.1	66.1	12.7	yes
Cell 3	939	19.3	65.1	11.8	yes
Cell 4	870	17.6	67.9	10.4	no
Cell 5	870	17.0	72.3	10.7	no
Cell 6	860	15.0	73.6	9.5	no

¹device fill factor. Solar cell area of 0.25 cm^2 . All solar cells were fabricated and measured under the same conditions at forward bias.

Further measurements of solar cells (Figure 2) fabricated in different days and conditions, as the devices depicted and listed in Figure 1 and Table 1 respectively, but always keeping identical measurement and fabrication conditions within each set of samples of Al_2O_3 coated mp-TiO₂ and the corresponding MAPI perovskite solar cells as control show identical trend with the Al_2O_3 modified mp-TiO₂/MAPI interface having higher V_{oc} and, in average, higher solar-to-energy conversion efficiency.

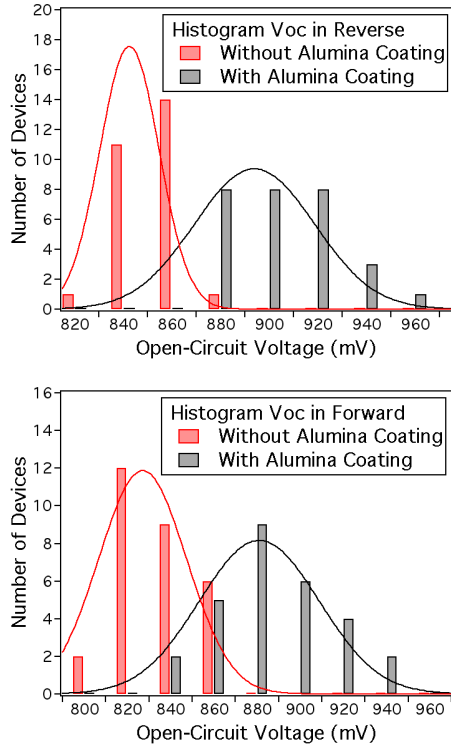


Figure 2. Solar cell open-circuit voltage (V_{oc}) distribution for 28 Al_2O_3 coated mp-TiO₂ devices (grey) and 27 MAPI perovskite solar cells (red). Top, devices measured under reverse bias. Bottom, devices measured under forward bias.

In order to understand the effect of the Al_2O_3 onto the mp-TiO₂ and the overall solar cell performance and compare to what has been observed in DSSC we have carried out different experiments detailed below. The use of photo-induced differential charging (PIDC) has been very useful to analyse the accumulated charge at the solar cell under different light-bias (solar cell voltage induced by different illumination intensities) in DSSC³⁷, QDSC³⁸, OSC³⁹ and more recently in MAPI solar cells¹⁶. Moreover, it allows comparing the photo-generated charge density, at the same V_{oc} , for different solar cells and, furthermore, is a key measurement in order to fairly compare charge recombination lifetime between different types of solar cells.

Photo-Induced Differential Charging (PIDC).

The details for the PIDC technique can be found at the Supplementary information of this manuscript. In brief, the charge is measured using PIT-PV and PIT-PC (photo-induced transient photo-current) as our group and others

have previously demonstrated⁴⁰. The use of PIDC is particularly necessary when the PICE decay has a longer lifetime than the measured PIT-PV decay at 1 sun (as for MAPI perovskite solar cells in Figure 3).

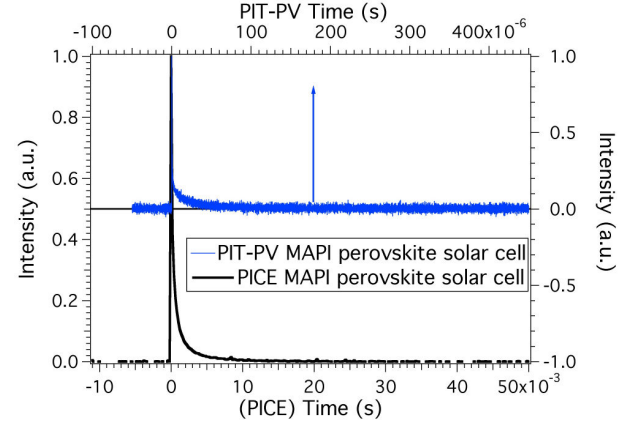


Figure 3. PICE decay (black line) for a MAPI perovskite solar cell and the PIT-PV transient (blue line) upon sun-simulated illumination equivalent to 1 sun. Notice the different time scales for the PICE (bottom axis) and the PIT-PV (top axis).

To estimate the photo-generated charge stored at the MAPI perovskite solar cell we must assume that (a) the solar cell has not charge losses at short circuit and (b) the PIT-PC under 1 sun and in the dark are similar. In other words, the charge generation efficiency is similar at short-circuit and at open circuit solar cell conditions. Figure 4 shows the PIT-PC measurements for both types of MAPI perovskite solar cells.

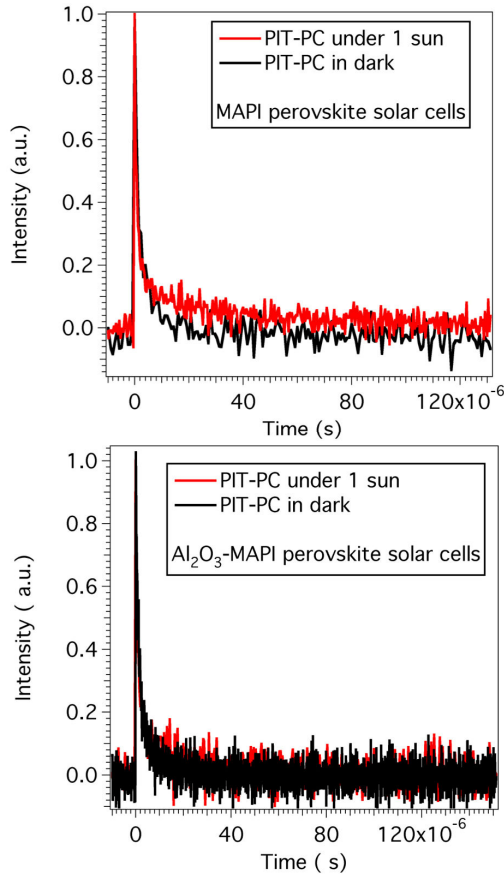


Figure 4. PIT-PC decays measured for (top) mpTiO₂/MAPI perovskite and (bottom) Al₂O₃/mpTiO₂/ MAPI perovskite solar cells.

As can be seen in Figure 4, either the PIT-PC under 1 sun or under dark for both type of solar cells are quite close. Hence, we carried out the PIDC for both type of solar cell devices. Figure 5 illustrates the charge measured from the PIDC vs solar cell voltage.

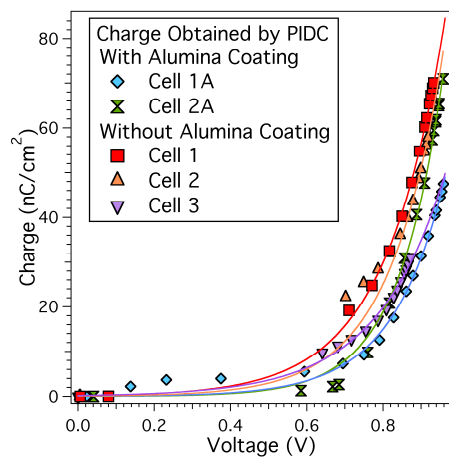


Figure 5. Measured charge using PIDC at different solar cell voltage from MAPI perovskite solar cells and Al₂O₃-coated perovskite solar cells. The Cell 3A has been removed for clarity read-out of the data in the figure.

In contrast to previous measurements on DSSC with the Al₂O₃ coating, there is no sensible and reproducible shift between the measured exponential curves⁴¹. In DSSC with the mp-TiO₂ conformally coated with Al₂O₃ a shift of the measured charge vs voltage exponential curve is observed and assigned to a shift of the TiO₂ conduction band edge with concomitant shift of the quasi-Fermi level for the electrons at the mp-TiO₂. The mp-TiO₂ conduction band shift plus the measured slower interfacial recombination kinetics between the electrons at the mp-TiO₂ and the oxidized electrolyte, in DSSC, lead to a measured increase in the open circuit voltage of the DSSC. Thus, next is to measure the PIT-PV in the MAPI perovskite solar cells and see if there is correlation with the measured higher open circuit voltage.

Photo-Induced Transient Photovoltage (PIT-PV).

The PIT-PV technique has been widely used to correlate the measured charge, at a given voltage, with the charge recombination lifetime. In a seminal paper⁴², Bisquert and Zaban defined the Voc decay technique for DSSC and later our group and others used a modified version of the technique (see Supplementary Information), which is based in small perturbation of the open-circuit cell voltage using a fast light pulse. The fast pulse disrupts the equilibrium raising the quasi-Fermi level for the electrons at the mp-TiO₂, which is restored after the pulse finishes to the original energy level and, thus, restoring the initial open-circuit voltage. In DSSC, the voltage decay promoted by the fast light pulse results in a mono-exponential decay with an amplitude always smaller than 10mV to ensure a minor perturbation of the cell open-circuit voltage.

Figure 6 illustrates the PIT-PV decays for our MAPI perovskite solar cells.

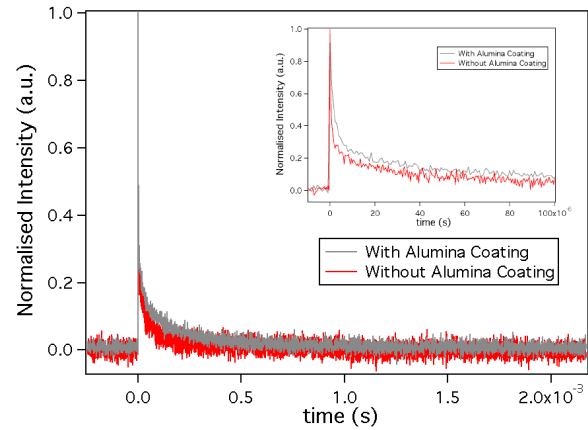


Figure 6. Measured PIT-PV for a MAPI perovskite solar cell (black) and an Al₂O₃-coated MAPI perovskite solar cell (red) at 100mW/cm² light irradiation. The inset shows the fastest component of the PIT-PV.

The first difference observed in comparison to the PIT-PV decays in DSSC is the bi-exponential nature of the decays measured either with the Al₂O₃ coating or the MAPI perovskite as control. As shown in Figure 6 both samples show bi-exponential decays with $\tau_1 = 175 \mu\text{s}$ (20%) and $\tau_2 = 3 \mu\text{s}$ (80%) for Al₂O₃ coated solar cells and $\tau_1 = 73 \mu\text{s}$ (20%) and $\tau_2 = 0.8 \mu\text{s}$ (80%) for MAPI perovskite solar cells

under similar charge density $\sim 35 \text{ nC/cm}^2$. This result is in good agreement with previous data^{16,23}.

In MAPI perovskite solar cells, there is still far from clear the origin of the large photo-voltage measured that in some cases is overpassing 1V. Moreover, the large differences in charge density measured using PICE (see Supplementary Information) and PIDC and the different chemical nature that both types of charges may have, taking into account the differences in the kinetics from the bi-exponential PIT-PV decay, makes even more challenging to assign the processes that gives rise to the accumulated charges measured. Thus, it may well be that the measured transient photo-voltage does not correspond to a charge recombination process (charge losses) but to, for example, a reorganization of dipoles at the MAPI that leads to a change in voltage or to a combination of both processes. Nevertheless, we have studied in detail the PIT-PV and we have proposed that the fast component of the PIT-PV decay is the product of the electron-hole recombination process and hence the photo-induced charge recombination lifetime¹⁶. Hence, based in our past experience we have also used for comparison purposes between MAPI solar cells the charge measured by PIDC and the fastest component of the PIT-PV decay.

Charge recombination lifetime vs charge density.

It is important to notice that, for the comparison, we use the measured charge from PIDC, instead of the measured cell Voc at different light intensities (so called light bias) because it is well established for other solar cells such as DSSC, OPV and QDSC that it may well be that at the same Voc different solar cells have very different amount of stored charge and thus, the compared charge recombination lifetime will not be meaningful and appropriate. Figure 7 illustrates the carrier recombination lifetime vs electrical charge for both type of solar cells.

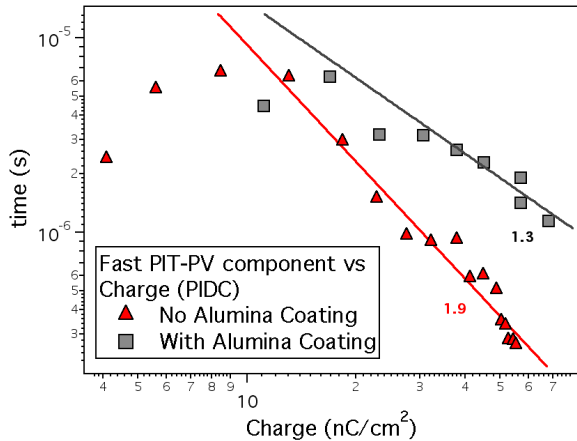


Figure 7. Non-radiate carrier recombination lifetime (fast component PIT-PV decay) vs solar cell electrical charge measured by PIDC. The numbers correspond to the recombination order factor (OF)

As illustrated in Figure 7 the use of Al_2O_3 conformal coating leads to slower interfacial charge recombination lifetimes when compared to the standard mpTiO_2 film.

We also would like to emphasize that although the slowest component of the PIT-PV decay, either with the charge

measured using PICE or the charge measured using PIDC, cannot reproduce fairly the J_{rec} (data shown in the Supplementary Information, Table S1) and, thus, seems that is not related to the “electrical charge” (understanding as *electrical charge* electrons and holes) at the MAPI perovskite still accounts for at least 20% of the PIT-PV decay and, interestingly the PIT-PV slow component of the decay is slower for Al_2O_3 . A comparison of both types of solar cells, the Al_2O_3 coated and the MAPI perovskite device, is illustrated in Figure 8.

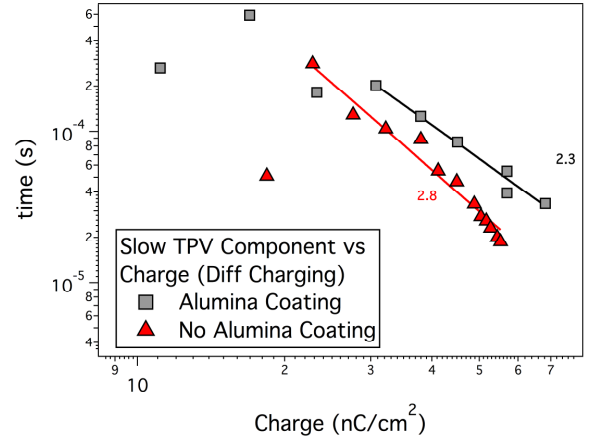


Figure 8. The slow component for the PIT-PV decays vs solar cell measured charge by PIDC at different light bias. The numbers correspond to the recombination order factor (OF)

Conclusions

We have used Al_2O_3 conformal coating from solution-processed methods onto mesoporous TiO_2 electrodes (mpTiO_2) used in the preparation of efficient MAPI perovskite solar cells. The use of Al_2O_3 coating leads to an improvement in the solar cell efficiency mainly due to a higher open circuit voltage (Voc). The increase in Voc is systematic and reproducible. Moreover, we have studied the interfacial charge recombination processes using photo-induced time resolved methods in complete devices under sun-simulated irradiation conditions. Using PIDC we have not observed a clear shift on the exponential charge distribution as it was demonstrated for $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{mpTiO}_2$ coated DSSC.

The analysis of the PIT-PV decays shows two different time components, in good agreement with previous measurements with other MAPI perovskite solar cells. In fact, for Al_2O_3 coated solar cells both time components present at the PIT-PV decay are slower in comparison with the standard MAPI perovskite solar cell. A careful comparison of both charge recombination lifetime components at the same charge density further confirms that the recombination lifetime for Al_2O_3 treated solar cells is significantly slower.

Hence, it seems clear that the slower charge recombination kinetics in the Al_2O_3 coated MAPI perovskite solar cells can be directly correlated with the solar cell Voc improvement. However, unlike the case of DSSC, it was unclear why both PIT-PV time components are affected by

the presence of the Al₂O₃ coating onto the mesoporous TiO₂. A feasible hypothesis in the light of the results obtained in this work is that both PIT-PV components can be assigned to two different charge recombination processes; one process related to the charge transfer of electrons from the TiO₂, upon electron transfer from the MAPI perovskite under illumination, with the holes at the HTM and a second, and faster charge recombination process, between electrons at the TiO₂ and holes at the MAPI perovskite. In both cases the Al₂O₃ will act as a physical barrier (alike in the case of DSSC) decreasing the rate of the back electron transfer reaction upon photo-induced electron injection from the MAPI perovskite to the TiO₂ CB.

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ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting information contains PICE, voltage stability and PIT-PV measurement. A detailed description of the PICE and PIT-PV systems and, moreover, a HRTEM image of the coated and uncoated Al₂O₃ nanoparticles. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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Author Contributions

The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

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