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ARTICLE

Low-temperature SnO₂-based electron selective contact for efficient and stable perovskite solar cells

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We demonstrated compact SnO₂ thin films prepared by sinter-less spin-coating processes as an electron selective contact for CH₃NH₃PbI₃-based planar-heterojunction perovskite solar cells (PSCs). A modified sequential deposition method, in which the grain size of PbI₂ precursors was controlled by an equivalent solvent vapor annealing (SVA) process, was used to prepare the perovskite layer on SnO₂. With this SVA process, the remnant PbI₂ nanocrystals can stably occur at the interface of CH₃NH₃PbI₃/SnO₂ to carry out a passivation effect. The photovoltaic performance of SnO₂-based PSCs is dependent on both the SVA time and thickness of perovskite layer. The optimized PSC device achieves the best power conversion efficiency of up to 13% under the AM 1.5 simulated sunlight illumination, which is highly durable over 30 days of storage time with exposure to the ambient air environment.

1. Introduction

Amongst the next-generation photovoltaic technologies being developed nowadays, CH₃NH₃PbX₃ (X = Cl, Br, I)-based perovskite solar cells (PSCs) are the most shining star because of their rapidly boosted power conversion efficiency (PCE), their cost-effectiveness, and their scalable processability.¹⁻⁶ The investigations focused on the perovskite materials have revealed their superior opto-electrical properties including suitable band-gap, high absorption coefficient, and extremely long and balanced ambipolar carrier transport.⁷⁻¹¹ In spite of the large potential of perovskite materials, the photovoltaic performance of PSCs was always sensitive to many factors, e.g., the device configurations, the producing method of perovskite layer, the materials employed as the charge extraction contacts, and even the moisture level during the PSCs preparation.¹²⁻²⁰ Before a consensus in PSC devices could be reached, explorations toward all the aspects of PSCs will help in the knowledge accumulation.

The exploration of the materials used as the electron selective contact (ESC) for PSCs remains one of the most challenging scientific issues. Although many inorganic semiconductors may be feasible as ESC materials for PSCs, to the best of our knowledge, a majority of researches into PSCs so far focuses mainly on TiO₂ and ZnO.²¹⁻²⁸ The opto-electrical properties between these two semiconductors are too similar to

differentiate the electron transport mechanisms at the perovskite/ESC interface.

Compared to those TiO₂ and ZnO, Tin oxide (SnO₂) is similar with the wide band-gap, high transparency, and large electron mobility, but exhibit lower energy for the conduction-band edge (CBE).²⁹⁻³² The fact that the SnO₂ thin films could give sufficient conductivity without higher temperature sintering process will benefit a future fabrication of the photovoltaic device on plastic substrates. Importantly, it was found in the previous investigation that SnO₂ is much effective in collecting electrons with low energy than TiO₂ resulting in substantially improved photocurrent in electrochemical cells.³³ Similarly, some low-energy charge carriers of narrow band-gap perovskite absorbers consisting tin metal or formamidium in their structure may not efficiently be collected by TiO₂ or ZnO, but be collected by SnO₂. Thus, the study of SnO₂ as ESC for PSCs will provide an important piece of information in further development of this photovoltaic device to efficiently utilize long wavelength photons.

A general concern with the use of SnO₂ as ESC, however, is that the voltage of PSCs may be decreased accordingly as the low CBE of SnO₂ may reduce a built-in potential of Schottky barrier between the perovskite and ESC layers. This problem could be solved through surface passivation, as suggested by many previous investigations on TiO₂-based PSCs.³⁴⁻³⁵ It was found that the presence of PbI₂ species in the grain boundaries upon thermal annealing can lead to a successful passivation of

CH₃NH₃PbI₃ films, resulting in improved carrier electric property and thus device performance.³⁵⁻³⁶ The mechanism of this passivation effect by PbI₂ was further revealed by the femtosecond time-resolved transient absorption spectroscopy.³⁷ Nevertheless, the fact that PbI₂ passivation was achieved by decomposition of CH₃NH₃PbI₃ in these investigations may be accompanied by improvement of PSC's durability.

In this investigation, we employed SnO₂ thin films prepared by spin-coating of nanoparticles as ESCs to fabricate low-temperature-processed PSCs. We modified the typical two-step deposition technique by introducing slow growth of the PbI₂ precursor with solvent vapors to control the crystal growth of perovskite. Intriguingly, we observed the variation in absorbance and grain size of PbI₂ with different solvent vapor annealing times. The varied PbI₂ precursor results in a clear variation in the surface morphology, grain size, and absorbance of corresponding perovskite layer. Importantly, the constantly occurred PbI₂ layer on the interface of perovskite/SnO₂ shows no negative effect to the photovoltaic performance of the resulting PSCs. Optimization of the CH₃NH₃PbI₃ film thickness has delivered a maximum PCE of 13.0% under the standard air mass AM 1.5G light illumination. Most importantly, the SnO₂-based PSCs exhibited high stability against ambient air without encapsulation. This study will contribute to both a deeper understanding of the mechanism and the real-world applications of the PSC technology.

2. Experimental

2.1 Materials

The SnO₂ nanoparticles (ca. 22 ~ 43 nm) were purchased from Wako Chemicals. The lead iodide (beads, -10 mesh, 99.999% trace metals basis) and lithium salts (>99.0%) were purchased from Aldrich. The CH₃NH₃I (>99.0%) was purchased from Xi'an Polymer Light Technology Corp. (PLT). The Spiro-OMeTAD (2,2',7,7'-tetrakis-(N,N-di-4-methoxyphenylamino)-9,9'-spirobifluorene, >99.0%) was purchased from Merck. Ultradry solvent of N, N-dimethyl formamide (DMF, >99.9%) and isopropanol (> 99.9%) were obtained from J&K and Acros, respectively. All the chemicals and solvents keep in the glove-box before starting our experiment.

2.2 Device fabrication

The pre-patterned ITO substrates were cleaned with detergent, deionized water, acetone, and 2-propanol in sequence. The SnO₂ nanoparticles were dispersed in butanol with a concentration of 6 mg/ml and stirred for 3 hours before use. The solution was filtered with a PVDF hydrophobic 0.45μm filter and spin-coated on ITO substrates at 3000 rpm for 30s to form a relatively compact SnO₂ thin layer, and followed by short baking at 150°C for 5 min. This procedure was repeated for three times before finally baking at 200°C for 1 hour. A 460 mg/mL solution of PbI₂ in DMF was then spin-coated on the top of the SnO₂ layer at 3000 rpm for 30s in the glovebox. The PbI₂-coated SnO₂ thin films was kept in a petri dish for x minutes (x = 1, 10, 20, 35, and 50) allowing a slow growth of

PbI₂ nanoparticles, and was followed by annealing at 70°C for 30 min. After cooling to room temperature, the films was dipped into a CH₃NH₃I 2-propanol solution (10 mg/mL) for 50 s, and was followed by annealing at 70°C for 20 min to give a desired crystallite formation. As the hole-transporting material (HTM), 80 mg/mL solution of Spiro-OMeTAD in chlorobenzene was spin-coated at 4000 rpm on the CH₃NH₃PbI₃ containing 46.5μL Li-TFSI and 10.5 μL tert-butylpyridine per milliliter. The substrates with HTM were left overnight in the dry air in dark at room temperature. Finally, 100 nm thick Ag was thermally evaporated on the top of HTM to produce a completed PSC device.

2.3 Device characterization

The current–voltage characteristics of solar cells were measured by a computer-controlled Keithley 2400 source meter measurement system with an AM1.5G filter at a calibrated intensity 100mWcm⁻² illumination, as determined by a standard silicon reference cell (91150V Oriel Instruments). The effective area of the cell was defined to be 0.04 cm² using a non-reflective metal mask. IPCE spectra was measured in air under short-circuit conditions using a commercial IPCE setup (Crowntech QTest Station 1000AD), which was equipped with a 100W Xe arc lamp, filter wheel, and monochromator. Monochromated light was chopped at a frequency of 80 Hz and photocurrents measured using a lock-in amplifier. The setup was calibrated against a certified silicon reference diode.

2.4 Thin film characterization

Film thicknesses were measured using a Veeco Dektak 150 surface profilometer. UV-Vis-NIR spectra were measured on a Shimadzu UV-2550 spectrophotometer. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded on Rigaku SmartLab X-ray diffractometer with Cu Kα radiation (λ = 1.5418 Å) at 25°C. The data were collected with a 0.01° step size (2θ). A field emission scanning electron microscope (Hitachi SU8020) was used to acquire SEM images.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Sequential deposition of CH₃NH₃PbI₃ on SnO₂ ESCs

Fig. 1a shows the X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of the SnO₂ nanoparticles used in this investigation. Each of these diffraction lines are commonly assigned to the tetragonal rutile crystalline phases of SnO₂.³⁸ Fig. 1b shows the high magnification scanning electron microscope (SEM) image of the SnO₂ thin films prepared by spin-coating of the SnO₂ nanoparticles. The SnO₂ film is very thin and does not have typical porous structure so that the following study of PSCs is likely based on a planar-heterojunction configuration. Both the lower and higher magnification SEM images of SnO₂ film are also shown in Fig. S1.

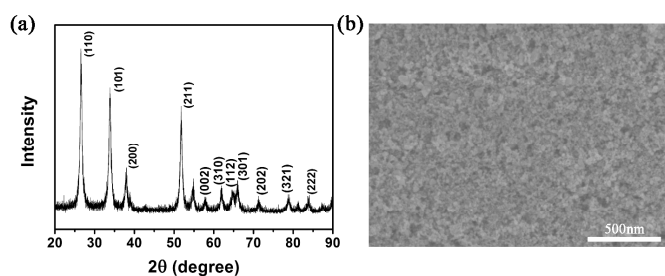


Figure 1. (a) The XRD pattern of the SnO₂ nanoparticles, and (b) the high magnification SEM image of SnO₂ film on ITO.

A two-step sequential deposition method was employed to produce the CH₃NH₃PbI₃ perovskite layer on this SnO₂ film, as schematically shown in Fig. 2. To maintain PbI₂ layer with good crystallinity for effective passivation of the SnO₂/CH₃NH₃PbI₃ interface, a modified method to prepare the PbI₂ films was introduced as detailed in the Experimental section.³⁴ As shown in Fig. 3a, with different aging time of wet PbI₂ films in N₂ atmosphere in covered petri dish, the appearance of PbI₂ films gradually changes from transparentred-yellow with 1 min to opaque dark-yellow with 50 min. This process could be regarded as an equivalent process of solvent vapor annealing (SVA) as suggested by previous investigation on organic solar cells.³⁹ In order to clarify the difference in the film appearances, the XRD patterns of the PbI₂ films were measured and are shown in Fig. 4. With elongated SVA time, the density of the most representative XRD peak of the PbI₂ nanocrystals at $2\theta = 12.56^\circ$ gradually increases together with the narrowing of the full-width-at-half-maximum (FWHM). The enlarged XRD peak of the PbI₂ nanocrystals at $2\theta = 12.56^\circ$ is shown in Fig. S2. We employed Scherrer formula, i.e., $D = K\lambda / (\beta \cos\theta)$, to calculate the grain size of the PbI₂ nanocrystals. Here, the Scherrer constant, K , is 0.943, and the X-ray wavelength, λ , is 0.15406 nm. The FWHM of this diffraction peaks in digits is 0.39671, 0.25951, 0.22059, 0.20612, and 0.19980, which corresponds to the PbI₂ crystalline size of 21.1, 32.3, 38.0, 40.6, and 41.9 nm for SVA times of 1, 10, 20, 35, and 50 min, respectively. The PbI₂ crystallite size increases with increased SVA time of the PbI₂ films, and the growth of the crystallite size is especially severe in the first 20 min. The SEM images of PbI₂ film surfaces with different SVA time are also depicted in Fig. 5, and in Fig. S3 of the supporting information with low magnification. Generally speaking, it is difficult to identify the crystallite size of each PbI₂ crystal from the SEM image, because these PbI₂ nanocrystallite aggregate along the surface forming large domains. Interestingly, the domain size of PbI₂ multi-crystals gradually increases with increased the SVA time. Noticeably, there is no distinguishable cavities for the PbI₂ film with 1 min SVA time, whereas numbers and sizes of the cavity on the surface of the PbI₂ film increases with further increasing SVA time until 50 min. It is expected that PbI₂ films with more cavities must be more capable for the CH₃NH₃I solution penetration during the dipping process of the sequential method. Therefore, PbI₂ films with longer SVA times will be more reactive with CH₃NH₃I to

produce perovskite layer than those with shorter SVA times during a certain period of time.

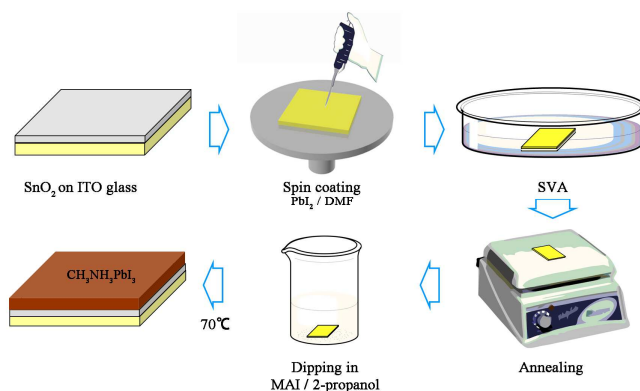


Figure 2. Schematic illustration of the modified two-step sequential deposition method for preparing perovskite films.

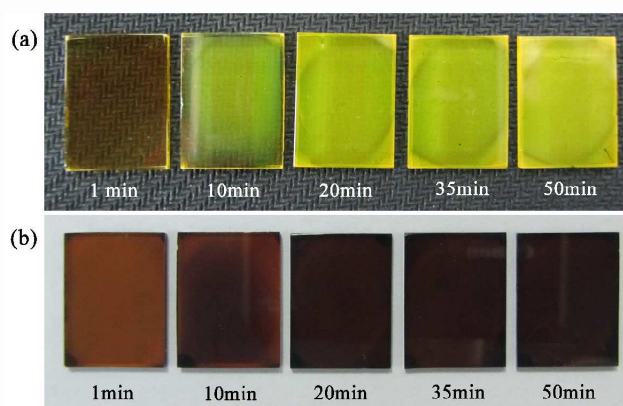


Figure 3. Photographs of ITO/SnO₂/PbI₂ films (a), and corresponding ITO/SnO₂/CH₃NH₃PbI₃ films (b) with different SVA times for PbI₂ layers.

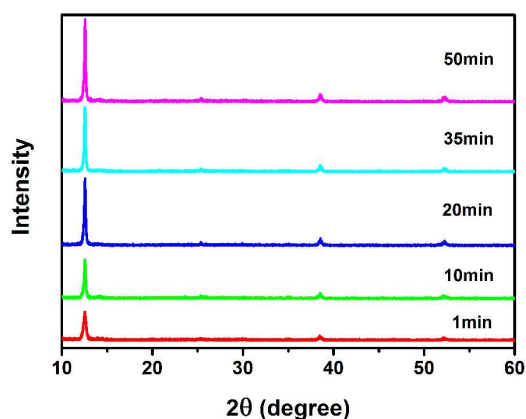


Figure 4. X-ray diffraction patterns of ITO/SnO₂/PbI₂ films with different SVA time for PbI₂ layers.

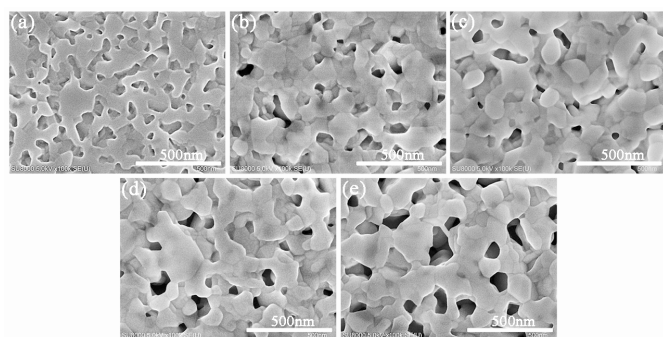


Figure 5. SEM micrographs of ITO/SnO₂/PbI₂ thin films for different SVA times (a) 1 min, (b) 10 min, (c) 20 min, (d) 35 min, and (e) 50 min.

The variation of crystallite size and compactibility of the PbI₂ films must influence on the perovskite film formation. Fig. 2b shows the photo images of perovskite films prepared by dipping these SVA treated PbI₂ films into CH₃NH₃I solution for 50 s. The perovskite films gradually changes from light-brown to dark-black in color with increased SVA time. Fig. 4 shows the electronic absorption spectra of the corresponding CH₃NH₃PbI₃ films. The absorption of the perovskite films increases throughout the long wavelength region with increased SVA time, except for that of the perovskite film obtained from 1 min SVA time, in which the absorption of PbI₂ is still predominant. The absorption spectra of these perovskite films are consistent with their photo images indicating that more PbI₂ is converted into CH₃NH₃PbI₃ with increased SVA time. The absorption spectra is consistent with the observation of the increased porosity in the PbI₂ films with increased SVA time, because CH₃NH₃I is more conducive to infiltrate into the inner of PbI₂ layer in the case of PbI₂ films with more cavities.

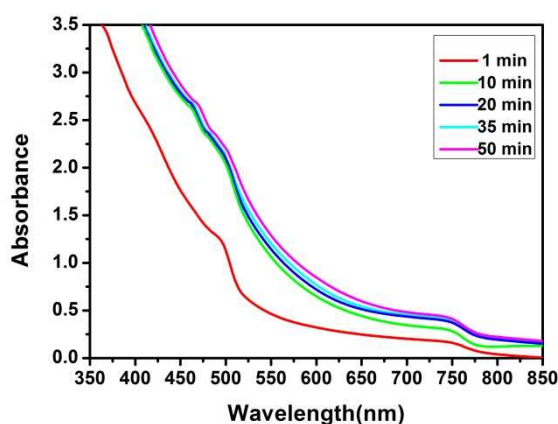


Figure 6. UV-vis-NIR absorption spectra of CH₃NH₃PbI₃ thin films obtained from the PbI₂ layers with different SVA time.

The significant difference in the absorption spectra of perovskite films might be an implication of different film morphology. The SEM images of the perovskite films obtained from PbI₂ layers with different SVA time are depicted in Fig. 7. The average grain diameter of the perovskite crystals increases as the SVA time of PbI₂ films increases; The change in the

morphology is particularly significant between the SVA times of 1 min and 10 min. Obviously, the grain size of perovskite crystals is dependent on that of the PbI₂ crystals, i.e., the smallest 21.1 nm PbI₂ crystal obtained from 1 min SVA time produces the smallest CH₃NH₃PbI₃ crystal, whereas the largest 41.9 nm PbI₂ crystal obtained from 50 min SVA time produces the largest CH₃NH₃PbI₃ crystal. It is naturally expected, therefore, that the formation of CH₃NH₃PbI₃ crystal must be accompanied by the consumption of PbI₂ crystals. This process is usually seeable from the XRD patterns of the perovskite films as studied by many previously investigations.^{21,25,34} The XRD pattern of the perovskite films were also measured and shown in Fig. 8. In the XRD patterns, the newly generated 2θ peaks appearing at each 14.0°, 24.3°, 28.4°, 31.7° and 50.3° correspond to the (110), (202), (220), (310) and (404) planes of the tetragonal phase of CH₃NH₃PbI₃, respectively.⁴⁰ Interestingly, the XRD peak of the PbI₂ nanocrystals at 12.56° has negligible changes after the generation of the CH₃NH₃PbI₃ crystals. Given that there have been definitive evidences (absorption spectra and SEM images) directing to a large yield of perovskite from raw PbI₂ during the dipping process, the only interpretation to the strong PbI₂ signals in the XRD pattern of the perovskite films is that the remaining PbI₂ in the perovskite films has kept with high crystallinity; From this point of view, the 001 plane (12.56°) of the PbI₂ crystal must be less reactive with CH₃NH₃I. The remaining PbI₂ crystals are likely occurring at the interface of CH₃NH₃PbI₃ and SnO₂ ESC, because the reaction of PbI₂ film with CH₃NH₃I in solution is a diffusion limited process. Compared to previously reports that their PbI₂ phase were presented in all perovskite grain boundaries and at the relevant interfaces,³⁶⁻³⁷ the occurrence of PbI₂ crystals in our perovskite layers is more specifically acting as a passivation layer for charge transportation/recombination at the perovskite/SnO₂ interface.

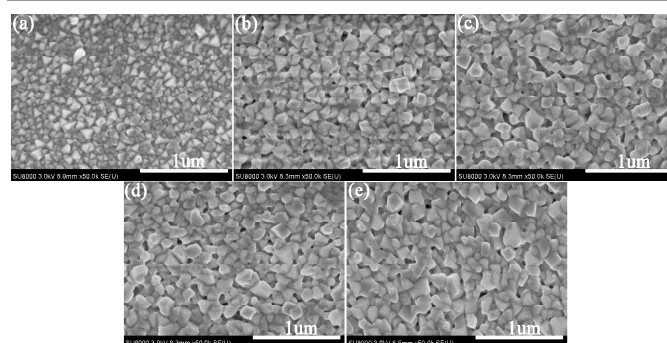


Figure 7. SEM micrographs of ITO/SnO₂/CH₃NH₃PbI₃ thin films obtained from PbI₂ layers with different SVA times (a) 1 min, (b) 10 min, (c) 20 min, (d) 35 min, and (e) 50 min.

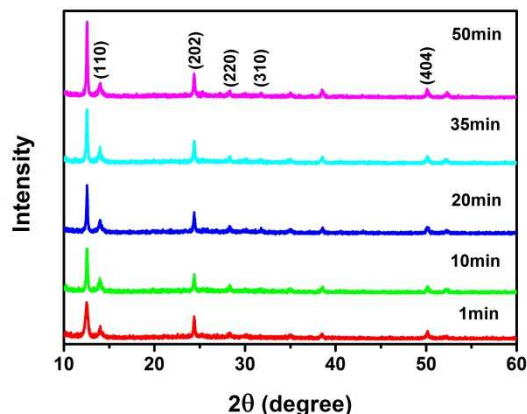


Figure 8. X-ray diffraction patterns of ITO/SnO₂/CH₃NH₃PbI₃ thin films obtained from the PbI₂ layers with different SVA time.

3.2 Photovoltaic performance and durability of SnO₂-based perovskite solar cells

Although above detailed characterization of the perovskite layer on SnO₂ has concluded that high crystalline PbI₂ remains constantly at the interface throughout different SVA times, this rare situation is not ever seen in any high efficiency PSCs reported so far. In fact, some investigations suggested the presence of PbI₂ would lead to poor photovoltaic performance.⁴¹⁻⁴² To know whether this design is feasible for the device performance, PSCs were fabricated with SnO₂/perovskites examined in the previous section. For the convenience of comparison, the perovskite layer was fixed at 190 nm for all PSCs. Fig. 9a shows the PSC device configuration based on the SnO₂ ESC. As the hole-transporter, the typical Spiro-OMeTAD was employed. Fig. 9b shows the energy alignment of each component in the PSC devices.^{32,34,43} Here, the energy level of PbI₂ is nicely aligned between that of both SnO₂ and CH₃NH₃PbI₃ indicating that PbI₂ may be not only retarding the reversed electron leakage but also mediating the electron transportation from perovskite to SnO₂. Fig. 10 shows a typical cross-sectional SEM image of perovskite solar cell device obtained from PbI₂ film with 10 min SVA time. Although the presence of pure PbI₂ crystals in the perovskite layer is proven by the XRD patterns, the occurrence of either the pure PbI₂ or the boundary of perovskite/SnO₂ interface is quite misty.

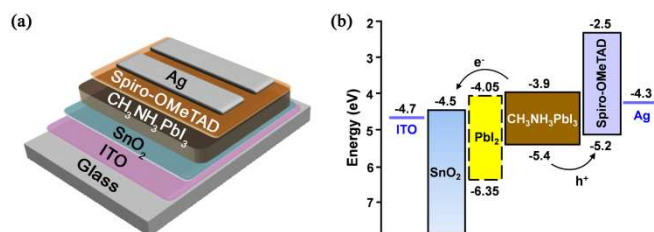


Figure 9. Device architecture (a) and energy diagram (b) of the ITO/SnO₂/CH₃NH₃PbI₃/spiro-OMeTAD/Ag cells tested in this study.

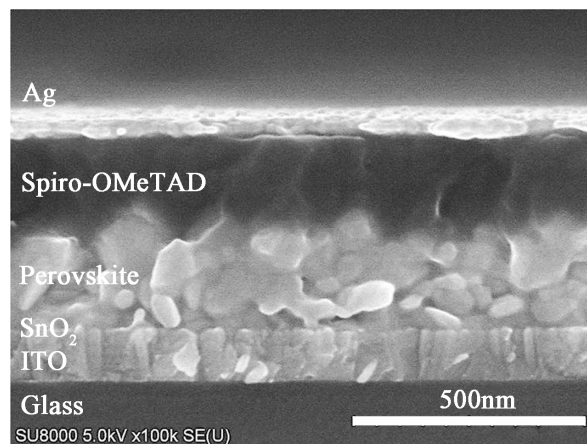


Figure 10. Cross-sectional SEM image of a PSC device based on SnO₂ ESC.

Fig. 11a shows the current-voltage ($J-V$) characteristics (sweeping from the open-circuit to the forward bias) of PSCs with different perovskite layers. Table 1 lists the parameters directly obtained from the $J-V$ curves. As can be seen from the data, all the performance-related parameters including the short-circuit current (J_{sc}), the open-circuit voltage (V_{oc}), the fill factor (FF), and PCE are all poor for the device corresponding to the PbI₂ with 1 min SVA time. As the SVA time increases, the J_{sc} , V_{oc} , and FF reached their maximum value at 20, 10, and 10 min, respectively. The gradually decreased V_{oc} and FF with increased SVA time of PbI₂ films from 10 min to 50 min may be due to the decrease of the amount of remnant PbI₂ in perovskite films. We suppose that remnant PbI₂ suppresses detrimental electron-transfer processes to cause charge recombination/interception, and acts as a passivation effect for surface defects and charge carrier trapping so as to enhance V_{oc} and shunt resistance, as also suggested by previous investigation.³⁶ Moreover, the perovskite film quality seems the highest with 10 min SVA time suggesting the film quality may play a role in determining the photovoltaic performance. The highest PCE of 12.3%, determined with a J_{sc} = 18.8 mA cm⁻², a V_{oc} = 1.08 V, and a FF = 0.60, was achieved for perovskite layer obtained from 10 min SVA time of PbI₂. Fig. 11b shows the incident photon-to-current efficiency (IPCE) spectra of the corresponding devices in Fig. 8a. The photocurrent as integrated area under the IPCE spectra is in good agreement with the J_{sc} values obtained from the $J-V$ characteristics. For the PSC based on PbI₂ with 1 min SVA time, the IPCE values are low over the whole spectrum. In particular, the IPCE response signal was not from the absorption of CH₃NH₃PbI₃ but from that of PbI₂. In this case, PbI₂ layer must function as an insulation layer for the perovskite free-carriers, whereas it seems that some free-carriers generated in the PbI₂ layer can somehow be extracted by the electrodes. For the other PSCs with longer SVA times in PbI₂ preparation, the charge carriers of perovskite layer were efficiently extracted by the electrodes, indicating the PbI₂

crystallite at the interface of $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3/\text{SnO}_2$ does not disturb the electron extraction by SnO_2 . Besides, the IPCE values of the optimal device reach more than 70% across a broad range of wavelength proving excellent light-harvesting and quantum conversion by the device. In order to evaluate the composition of PbI_2 in perovskite layer in the best performing solar cells, the EDX (Energy Dispersive X-Ray Spectroscopy) analysis was also carried out for the perovskite layer obtained from the PbI_2 with 10 min SVA time (the EDX patterns are shown in Fig. S4). The resultant atom% of the Pb and I element is 25.7 and 74.3, respectively, and the atom ratio of Pb and I is approximately 1:2.9. We thus roughly calculated the fraction of PbI_2 is $\sim 10\%$ in the perovskite layer, which indicates the $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ is still predominantly more than the remnant PbI_2 .

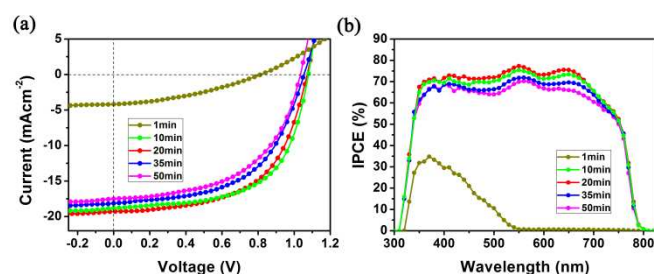


Figure 11. *J*-*V* curves (a) and IPCE spectra (b) of the ITO/ SnO_2 / $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ /spiro-OMeTAD/Ag devices based on the PbI_2 layers with different SVA time.

Table 1. The corresponding photovoltaic performance parameters for PSCs in Figure 8a.

SVA Time (min)	V_{oc} (V)	J_{sc} (mA cm^{-2})	FF (%)	PCE (%)
1	0.81	4.0	36.6	1.2
10	1.08	18.8	60.3	12.3
20	1.07	19.3	57.6	11.9
35	1.05	18.1	55.1	10.8
50	1.03	17.5	54.0	9.7

Given that with the same SVA time for PbI_2 , the $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ thickness is a constant value after a certain dipping time for PbI_2 in $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{I}$ solution, the amount of PbI_2 left on the $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3/\text{SnO}_2$ interface will depend on the amount of initial PbI_2 reactant. We thus prepared the initial PbI_2 layer with different thickness, and followed by a 10 min SVA time to fabricate PSCs. In Fig. 9, we plotted the V_{oc} , J_{sc} , FF and PCE values as a function of total perovskite film thickness. Generally speaking, the J_{sc} value increases with increased perovskite thickness, whereas in our experiments optimal V_{oc} and FF values were found at the perovskite thickness of ca.190 nm. The averaged PCE reaches the maximum level at ca.240 nm thick perovskite layer with a value of $12.0 \pm 0.6\%$. These results indicate that adjusting the thickness of the crystallite PbI_2 layer will balance a series of processes including free carrier generation and carrier transportation/extraction.

As shown in Fig. 13, a champion PCE of 13.0% was achieved with a V_{oc} of 1.08 V, a J_{sc} of 19.5 mA cm^{-2} , and a FF of 0.62, upon the optimization of the SVA time and the thickness of PbI_2 . This result is comparable with PSCs studied for TiO_2 and ZnO having a planar-heterojunction configuration.

Given that SnO_2 has a much deeper CBE than those TiO_2 and ZnO ESCs, this study provides a unique model system for studying those PSCs with narrow band-gap perovskite materials.

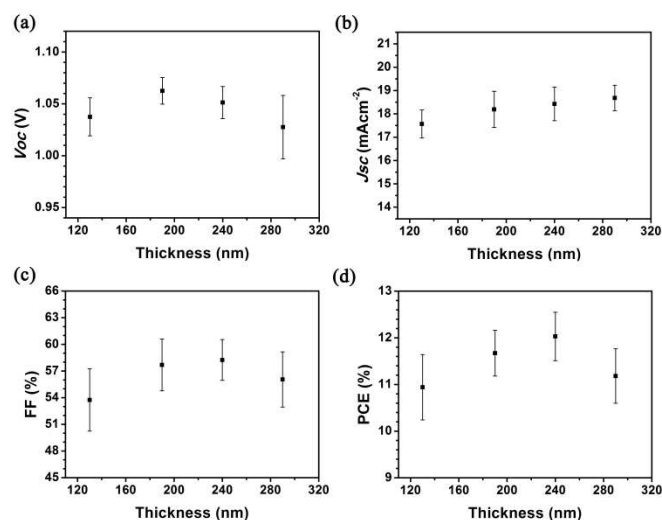


Figure 12. (a) V_{oc} , (b) J_{sc} , (c) FF and (d) PCE as a function of perovskite film thickness (ca.130, 190, 240 and 290nm). Data are derived from measurements on 10 separate devices.

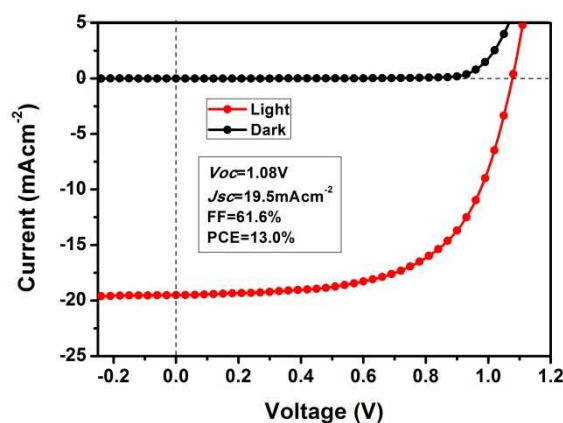


Figure 13. (a) *J*-*V* characteristic for the highest-performing ITO/ SnO_2 / $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3$ /spiro-OMeTAD/Ag device measured under 100 mW cm^{-2} AM 1.5G illumination and in the dark.

It was reported by some research groups that PSCs based on the planar-heterojunction architectures are unstable over time even without constant light soaking.^{19,43} It was a mystery that devices based on either TiO_2 or ZnO degraded significantly to 10%-30% of the initial value after only dozens of hours storage, no matter what atmosphere the devices are stored in.^{19,43} We also wonder if the planar-heterojunction PSCs studied in the present research are stable in the ambient air. Fig.14 shows stability result of the SnO_2 -based device stored in ambient air environment. The PCE of the SnO_2 -based PSC keeps almost constant over 700 hours; In comparison, a PSC device based on compact TiO_2 ¹² (see Fig. S5 in the supporting information for its photovoltaic performance) with planar-heterojunction

prepared with same sequential deposition method degrades apparently faster than the SnO₂-based devices. This excellent durability of SnO₂-based PSC may be partially originated from the remnant PbI₂ that prevent direct contact of SnO₂ and CH₃NH₃PbI₃ to reduce the possible degradation of CH₃NH₃PbI₃ through charge injection (as the TiO₂-based PSC also shows improved durability compared to the reference results¹⁹). We speculate that the lower hygroscopicity of the SnO₂ compared with TiO₂ also contributes to the durability of the PSC device. In addition, both oxygen vacancies and UV light induced degradation in TiO₂ are well-known problems to reduce the stability of TiO₂-based photovoltaic devices.⁴⁴ In the present investigation, the hole selective contact is the commonly used material, i.e., spiro-OMeTAD. Thus, the durability of devices will be severely affected by the spiro-OMeTAD layer. In fact, our PSC devices, no matter with what kind of electron selective contact, degrade significantly after 1-2 months after the preparation being mainly attributable to the degradation of spiro-OMeTAD. Fortunately, some inorganic hole selective contact materials, such as CuSCN and CuI,⁴⁵⁻⁴⁷ gives improved stability than the spiro-OMeTAD, indicating our SnO₂-based PSCs have larger potential in the real-world applications.

Finally, one of the reviewers suggested to preliminary examine the photo-stability of the SnO₂-based PSCs. Fig. S6 in the supporting information shows the durability result of the device under simulated sunlight illumination. The PCEs of PSC devices based on both SnO₂ and TiO₂ decrease significant under the simulated sunlight illumination within merely 8h, in spite that the SnO₂-based device is slightly more stable than the TiO₂-based device. Interestingly, the photovoltaic performance of these PSC devices is recoverable after a storage of the devices in dark for 18 hours, indicating that the reduction of photovoltaic performance upon light illumination of the PSC devices is not due to the degradation of materials, but may be due to the ferroelectric nature of perovskite materials that accumulate charge carriers at the interface to interfere the electricity flow at the working condition.

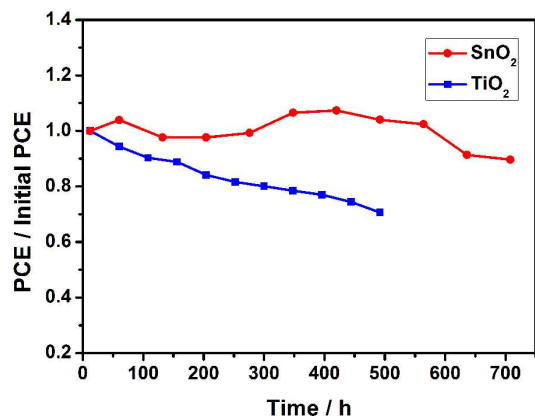


Figure 14. Durability of the SnO₂-based and TiO₂-based PSC device exposed to ambient air. The test was on the devices without encapsulation.

Conclusions

In summary, we have developed SnO₂ thin films as electron selective contacts for CH₃NH₃PbI₃-based perovskite solar cells. During the process of perovskite preparation, we observed the variation of grain size of PbI₂ layer that is dependent on the solvent vapor annealing time resulting in morphological and absorbance changes in the corresponding perovskite films. The remnant PbI₂ crystallites at the SnO₂/CH₃NH₃PbI₃ interface carry out a passivation effect, which is supposed to improve the photovoltaic performance of perovskite solar cells. By optimization of the solvent vapor annealing time and the thickness of perovskite layer, the SnO₂-based devices achieved a highest power conversion efficiency of 13.0%, which is highly durable with exposure to the ambient air environment for 30 days. This combination of ease-of-fabrication, low-temperature processing, efficient performance and excellent durability are all expected to help promote the development of the novel photovoltaic technology for perovskite.

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