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Unexpected high binding energy of CO₂ on CH₃NH₃PbI₃ lead-halide organic-inorganic perovskites via bicarbonate formation

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The adsorption kinetics of CO₂ was experimentally characterized in ultra-high vacuum (UHV). Unexpectedly, large desorption temperatures (640 K, 170 kJ/mol) were seen. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations suggest the stabilization mechanism: bicarbonate formation in the defected perovskite film due to CO₂ and H₂O coadsorption.

So-called lead-halide organic-inorganic perovskites are currently a much debated new material for solar-to-electric power conversion, LASER, light emitting diodes, photodetectors, etc.¹⁻⁵ Advantages of these new materials include low-cost solution-based fabrication, high power conversion efficiencies (>20%), direct band gaps, long charge carrier diffusion lengths, low carrier effective masses, high absorption coefficients, wide range of light-absorption, and high extinction coefficients. However, problematic is the long-term materials/device stability affected by an intrinsic thermal degradation⁴ and the sensitivity to ambient gases (moisture, CO₂, etc.) of the perovskites.⁶ The stability of the material has already been studied in detail before,⁶⁻¹¹ but mostly at ambient conditions (i.e. in air) or in solution, using optical spectroscopy and chemical engineering type experimental techniques. In this project, we study the effect of adsorbed CO₂ and water using surface science techniques at UHV conditions combined with DFT calculations. CO₂ and water are present in the ambient and therefore problematic for any real-world applications. Also, CO₂ is in the focus of scientific attention due to its environmental impact and possible utilization as a feedstock for the chemical industry; both CO₂ and H₂O are standard probe molecules in surface science.¹²⁻¹⁷ Large CO₂ desorption temperatures, as high as 640 K, were seen on CH₃NH₃PbI₃ polycrystalline thin film samples, indicative of very unusual kinetics and rare CO₂ surface chemistry on the perovskite. Note that molecular physisorbed/ chemisorbed CO₂ usually desorbs well below about 300 K on basically any known planar surface (metals, metal oxides, sulphides, carbides, semiconductors, alloys, etc.);¹²⁻¹⁶ however, similarly large desorption temperatures have

been reported for a porous MgO material.¹⁸ DFT calculations, conducted directly as part of this project, revealed a subtle combination of chemical and morphological effects resulting in such stable adsorption state of CO₂. According to DFT, CO₂ and H₂O form adsorbed carbonic acid (H₂CO₃) or bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) which is trapped inside of a defected perovskite structure. CO₂ adsorption on/in the perovskite leads to much smaller binding energies. In addition, CO₂ adsorption destabilizes the perovskite to some extent. The results are scientifically interesting since carbonic acid/bicarbonate formation as a (sub)surface reaction is rather unusual for CO₂ chemistry.

We used a typical ambient pressure solution-based procedure commonly described in the literature^{3, 6} to fabricate polycrystalline perovskite thin films, namely drop casting (spin coating) of a precursor solution (which is 40 wt. % methylammonium triiodo plumbate [CH₃NH₃]⁺[PbI₃]⁻ in dimethylformamide) on indium doped tin oxide glass (ITO) in a flow of dry N₂. (This support also is often used in devices;⁷ for synthesis details see ESI, Fig. S1/S2.) The simplicity of this fabrication process is the major advantage for applications in photovoltaics. The as-prepared samples were immediately transferred to a UHV chamber and/or placed into a N₂ filled storage container. Samples transferred to UHV were degassed in UHV at temperatures up to 380 K. Higher degassing temperatures destroy the samples; ion sputtering for cleaning cannot be used on these thin film samples. Thus, sample cleaning is limited, but the UHV environment prevents further accidental adsorption of contaminations as well as allows for application of surface science measuring techniques. Data collected from numerous different films are shown since these samples easily decomposed or changed irreversibly during the course of our experiments. Only few UHV surface science studies were so far conducted on lead-halide organic-inorganic perovskites mostly concerning the characterization of the material^{4, 19} and thin film growth.^{20, 21} Gas-surface interactions have apparently not been considered in any detail at UHV with surface science techniques.

Plane waves DFT calculations were performed with the Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (VASP)²²⁻²⁵ using projected augmented wave potentials and generalized gradient approximation with Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof exchange-correlation functional including semiempirical pairwise corrections and spin-orbit coupling. The atomic models were represented by a cross-section of the orthorhombic perovskite with the (001) surface on top.²⁶ The supercell consisted of 96 atoms composed of alternating

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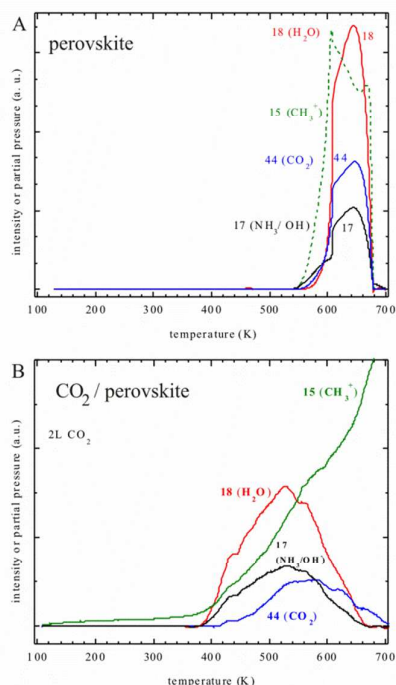


Fig. 1: **A)** Multi-mass thermal desorption spectroscopy (TDS) of an as-prepared perovskite thin film sample; **B)** TDS after a 2L dose of CO₂ on a 2nd sample.

stoichiometric sublayers of lead iodide and methylammonium iodide: $4 * (\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3)_2\text{Pb}_2\text{I}_6 = 4 * (2 (\text{PbI}_2) + 2 (\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3) \text{I})$ with periodic boundary conditions imposed in each direction and a 15 Å vacuum spacing layer normal to the surface (described as $(\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3)_8\text{Pb}_8\text{I}_{24}$). In addition, a defect structure was constructed by removing a surface CH_3NH_3^+ cation and I⁻ in the second PbI_2 layer (described as $(\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3)_7\text{Pb}_8\text{I}_{23}$ see ESI for further details as well as the image of atomic model below).

Numerous experimental techniques were used to characterize the samples. UV-vis and surface thickness experiments were conducted at ambient pressure. In addition, XRD (X-ray diffraction), EDX (energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy), AES (Auger electron spectroscopy), and SEM (Scanning Electron Microscopy) data were collected in vacuum to characterize the samples prior to the UHV kinetics experiments; see Fig. S3-S8 in ESI. The obtained results are consistent with the literature. Experimental binding energies, E_d , were determined from the thermal desorption spectroscopy (TDS) peak positions, (with uncertainty of ± 0.5 kJ/mol) using the Redhead equation. (See ESI for details.) TDS is a standard kinetics technique used in surface science where the sample temperature is increased with time and simultaneously desorbing species are detected with a mass spectrometer inside of a UHV chamber. As-prepared samples were analysed or samples that were at low temperatures pre-dosed with gases.

Fig. 1A shows the result of such a TDS experiment, i.e., depicted are the species desorbing from an as-prepared perovskite sample into UHV as a function of temperature. We recorded several different species $m/e = 17, 15, 18$ and 44 corresponding to NH_3 (or OH from water), CH_3 , H_2O and CO_2 in the multi-mass TDS experiment. According to Fig. 1A, gas desorption and sample decomposition of a pristine sample in UHV starts above 540 K with

	System	E_d	Fig.
DFT	surface-CO ₂	12	S11A
	surface-H ₂ O	40	S12A
	surface-H ₂ CO ₃ ^a	53	S12B
	surface-(H ₂ O + H ₂ CO ₃) ^b	121	2A
	vacancy-(H ₃ O ⁺ + HCO ₃ ⁻) ^c	166	2B
Exp.	as-received surface	170	1
	2L CO ₂ on surface	153	1

$$^a E_d = E_{\text{surface}} + E_{\text{CO}_2} + E_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} - E_{\text{surface-H}_2\text{CO}_3}$$

$$^b E_d = E_{\text{surface}} + E_{\text{CO}_2} + 2E_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} - E_{\text{surface-(H}_2\text{O+H}_2\text{CO}_3)}$$

$$^c E_d = E_{\text{vacancy}} + E_{\text{CO}_2} + 2E_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} - E_{\text{vacancy-(H}_3\text{O}^+ + \text{HCO}_3^-)}$$

Tab. 1: Theoretical (most stable configurations) and experimental (from TDS) binding energies, E_d , in kJ/mol.

TDS peak maxima within 600-640 K. No desorption was detected below 500 K. In contrast, for experiments in ambient, a decomposition temperature of 334 K was reported.²⁷ The greater thermal stability in UHV is plausible since the decomposition is not only caused by thermal degradation, but also by interaction with adsorbates. That the perovskite film and decomposition products mostly desorbed during the >700 K ramp is evident from AES data collected after the TDS experiment (Fig. S8). Various decomposition mechanisms are described in the literature including^{6, 10} (1) $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3 \rightarrow \text{PbI}_2 + \text{CH}_3\text{I} + \text{NH}_3$ and (2) $\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3\text{PbI}_3 \rightarrow \text{PbI}_2 + \text{CH}_3\text{NH}_2 + \text{HI}$. Indeed, NH_3 (ammonia) is detected in favour of the first mechanism (Fig. 1). In addition, CH_3 (methyl) which is one of the mass fragments²⁸ in CH_3I (methyl iodide) and CH_3NH_2 (methylamine) is evident in our experiment (Fig. 1). More importantly, CO_2 and water, originally adsorbed during the ambient pressure synthesis, desorbed. AES data consistent with adsorbed PbI_2 were detected on surfaces (Fig. S8) flashed to 600 K, beyond that also lead iodide desorbs leaving a clean ITO substrate behind. Therefore, our data would be consistent with mechanism (1).

Fig. 1B depicts multi-mass TDS data from a 2nd sample after adsorption of 2 L CO₂ in UHV at ~ 100 K. The TDS traces are very similar to the prior case. The lower desorption temperatures reflect a greater CO₂ surface concentration after the additional CO₂ dose e.g. due to repulsive lateral interactions. Variations in the shape of the scans may reflect variations in sample morphology. Note that CO₂ seems to also destabilize thermally the perovskite film, judged by the CH_3 desorption temperatures. On the bare perovskite film the onset of CH_3 desorption is at 560 K (Fig. 1A) whereas for the CO₂ dosed perovskite desorption starts already at 400 K (Fig. 1B).

New and unexpected are the great desorption temperatures for CO₂ and water. What causes the unusual CO₂ and H₂O desorption in huge amounts above 600 K?

Regarding what is known from the literature, the CO₂ and H₂O desorption temperatures are too large for physisorbed gases. For example, physisorbed water desorbs usually below 200 K;^{17, 29-32} similarly typical CO₂ physisorption binding energies are within (20-40) kJ/mol with desorption temperatures below 300 K (see e.g. Tab. 5 in ref.¹³). Assuming molecular adsorption/desorption, the TDS peak temperatures of ~ 640 K (Fig. 1) would correspond to a binding energy of 170 kJ/mol (using a pre-exponential of 1×10^{13} /s, see ESI). Nearly the same binding energy is obtained for a 2nd order desorption process (using a pre-exponential of $1 \times 10^{21} \text{cm}^2/(\text{mol s})$, ref.³³). These are unusually high binding energies and desorption temperatures. It is impossible, that water will adsorb/desorb molecularly at such high temperatures. The formation of hydroxyls or OH-H₂O clusters and recombinative desorption of these could explain greater desorption temperatures for water.¹⁷ Molecular CO₂ binding even on metal oxides is much weaker.¹³ Formation of

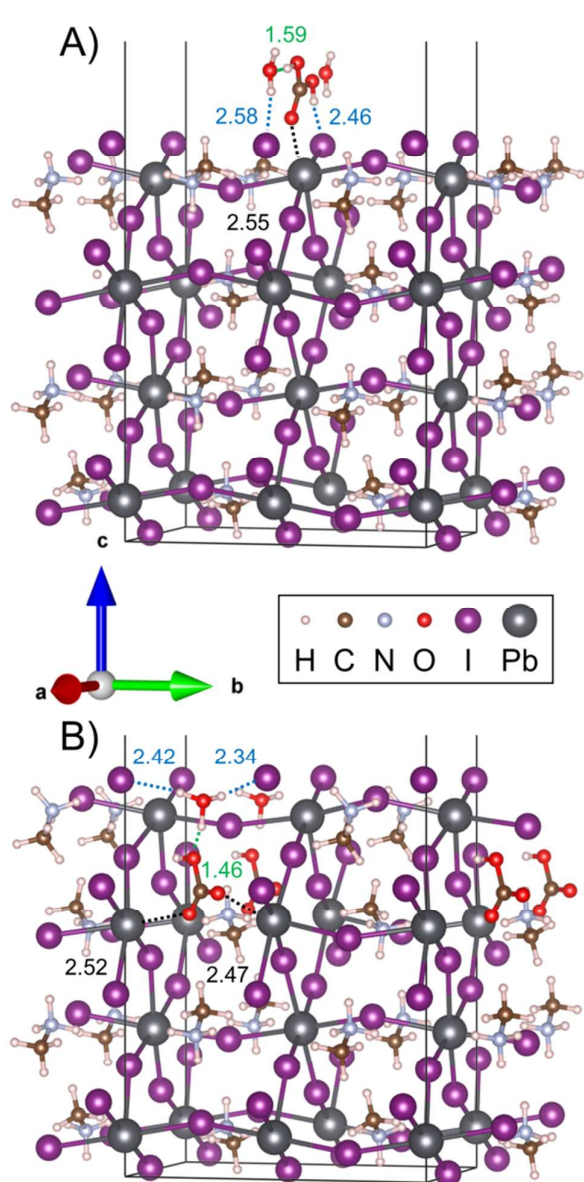


Fig. 2: Perovskite model **A)** $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3$ complex and **B)** defect structure with embedded H_3O^+ and HCO_3^- . The box represents the simulation cell. Each cell contains a $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3$ complex or $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+-\text{HCO}_3^-$ ion pair. Additional species observed in panels A) and B) are due to visualization with periodic boundary conditions. The vacuum layers are not explicitly shown. For selected atoms, interatomic distances in Å are indicated.

carbonate-like species^{13, 34} and strong (polydentate) chemisorption would be the only adsorption/reaction pathway known from the literature that could lead to similarly large desorption temperatures. For example, on CaO carbon dioxide desorption up to 500 K was seen due to formation of carbonates.³⁵ Carbonates are usually formed in O_2-CO_2 coadsorption phases or on O-sites of metal oxides. The perovskite film does not directly provide oxygen adsorption sites nor dissociates CO_2 for carbonate formation, but water is clearly coadsorbed (Fig. 1). CO_2 stabilization by water is known to occur in rare cases,^{36, 37} however, not to the extent seen here (CO_2 desorbs at 200 K in coadsorption with water on a Pd

surface via carboxylate (bent CO_2^-) formation).³⁶ Bicarbonates form if at all, usually in tiny amounts on surface defect sites.³⁴ (One of the few known examples is $\text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ coadsorption on a defected $\text{TiO}_2(110)$ surface, producing adsorbed HCO_3^- that desorbs as CO_2 at 213 K).³⁴ Carbonate binding in a polydentate chemisorption geometry, where the adsorbate interacts simultaneously with multiple surface sites would enhance binding strength and has been proposed for powder samples. (Indeed on ZrO_2 powders decomposition temperatures of ~ 500 K for polydentate carbonates were reported).³⁸ This geometry becomes more likely on inhomogeneous surfaces, consistent with the perovskite. Importantly, the perovskites do possess internal adsorption sites which also could result in larger desorption temperatures due to adsorption/desorption kinetics inside of the pores (Knudsen diffusion) or polydentate adsorption geometries. Diffusion is usually much faster than TDS temperature ramps, i.e., it unlikely affects the kinetics. Note that we did conduct various blind experiments which rule out CO_2 desorption at high temperatures from the sample holder (see Fig. S9). Given the huge binding energies, the hypothesis that several stabilization mechanisms are active simultaneously appears plausible which is quite unusual for CO_2 surface chemistry. The porous structure makes surface/subsurface reactions plausible. DFT calculations conducted directly as part of this project allowed to identify a possible mechanism.

Using DFT calculations, first, numerous surface adsorption sites for molecular CO_2 adsorption were tested; none of which resulted in binding energies even close to the experimental value (Tab. 1 and Fig. S11, S12). Next, adsorption of carbonic acid (H_2CO_3) and its coadsorption with water were considered. An increase in binding strength became evident due to multi-site interactions (polydentate adsorption) and $\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3-\text{H}_2\text{O}$ complex formation, but still the binding energy was much lower than the experimental value. Finally, H_3O^+ and HCO_3^- embedded in a defected perovskite structure resulted in good qualitative agreement of experiment and theory (Tab. 1). Indeed, DFT confirms that unusually large binding energies for CO_2 are possible.

Quantitatively, E_d for molecular CO_2 adsorption amounts to only 12 kJ/mol, a value consistent with CO_2 physisorption,¹³ but it is much smaller than the experimental value measured here. The binding energy increases to 53 kJ/mol for H_2CO_3 adsorbed on the surface. Adsorbed carbonic acid³⁴ could form from water and CO_2 co-adsorbed on the surface via $\text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{CO}_3$. Water is clearly present on our perovskite sample made at ambient (Fig. 1) and is typical for any real-world application.

The binding energy approximately doubles and reaches 121 kJ/mol when water is co-adsorbed along with H_2CO_3 , see Fig. 2A. Thus, water would assist forming carbonic acid in the first place that then further interacts with adsorbed water. That interaction gives rise to a van der Waals $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3$ complex, which provides more binding sites to the surface, increasing E_d . As a result, $E_d(\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{CO}_3)$ is greater than $E_d(\text{H}_2\text{O}) + E_d(\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3)$, see Tab. 1. However, the binding energy of carbonic acid and its complex with water are still distinctly smaller than the experimental values.

Therefore, we considered a defected perovskite structure consisting of a CH_3NH_3^+ cation vacancy, as shown in Fig. 2B. Instead of forming a molecular carbonic acid – water complex adsorbed on the surface, bicarbonate and hydronium could form according to $\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{HCO}_3^- + \text{H}_3\text{O}^+$. Here H_3O^+ and HCO_3^- are replacing the corresponding natural cation and anion of the intrinsic perovskite structure. H_3O^+ taking place of CH_3NH_3^+ and HCO_3^- replaces I^- , conserving the crystal structure (Fig. 2B). Similar mechanisms are known in colloidal chemistry.³⁹⁻⁴¹ In our calculations, this

configuration gives the largest binding energy of 166 kJ/mol which is actually quite close to the experimental value of 170 kJ/mol (Tab. 1). (The calculated E_d is the low coverage limit. Therefore, it should be compared with the as-prepared samples.)

This CO₂ stabilization is caused by several factors. Because the perovskite crystal structure remains intact, the intrinsic ion attraction that forms the crystal in the first place also is conserved. The bicarbonate anion replaces iodine and coordinates with divalent lead in the same way as the iodine anion was originally coordinated. Such complexation has similarity to a stable compound namely dicarboxyoxylead or Pb(HCO₃)₂. Also, the hydronium cation substitutes the methylammonium cation. Therefore, it becomes stabilized by neighbouring iodine anions. In addition, hydronium cation and bicarbonate anion experience electrostatic attraction to each other. The embedding of H₃O⁺ and HCO₃⁻ in the crystal may be considered a morphological stabilization, whereas the formation of HCO₃⁻ would be a chemical stabilization of CO₂, as mentioned in the introduction. The entire process may be considered as a subsurface-surface reaction. (Note, however, that the active site for bicarbonate formation is just 4.5 Å below the outer surface layer formed by the I-atoms, see image in ESI. Indeed, we describe a subsurface reaction and not a bulk or solid state type process.) All of this is quite unusual for CO₂ chemistry.

The embedded HCO₃⁻ could indeed thermally decompose and desorb as gas phase CO₂ according to HCO₃⁻ (embedded) → CO₂ (gas) + OH(adsorbed) which is indeed first order kinetics in the HCO₃⁻ (or CO₂) concentration. Even a UHV chamber has a significant hydrogen gas residual background. Therefore, adsorbed or embedded hydroxyl could form again water according to OH(ads) + H(ads) → H₂O (ads) → H₂O (gas). Assuming that this reaction step is fast, water and CO₂ would indeed desorb simultaneously, as detected experimentally. As a parallel reaction pathway, bicarbonates could form as H₂CO₃ → HCO₃⁻ + H⁺. The CO₂ / water induced defect structure that replaces CH₃NH₃⁺ and I⁻ is consistent with the thermal destabilization of the perovskite by CO₂ adsorption mentioned above.

Conclusions

CO₂ desorption at temperatures as high as 640 K was seen on CH₃NH₃PbI₃ thin films. This may be compared with granular MgO based mesoporous materials¹⁸ where desorption is seen at comparable large temperatures or with highly reactive CaO surfaces where CO₂ desorbs only within 100-450 K³⁵ DFT calculations suggest formation of a defect structure were H₃O⁺ replaces CH₃NH₃⁺ and HCO₃⁻ replaces I⁻ of the perovskite. As part of the mechanism, bicarbonates and carbonic acid are formed as surface/subsurface reactions of CO₂ with water. Although this is unusual CO₂ surface chemistry, the effect of water and CO₂ will regularly be encountered in technological applications of these perovskites.

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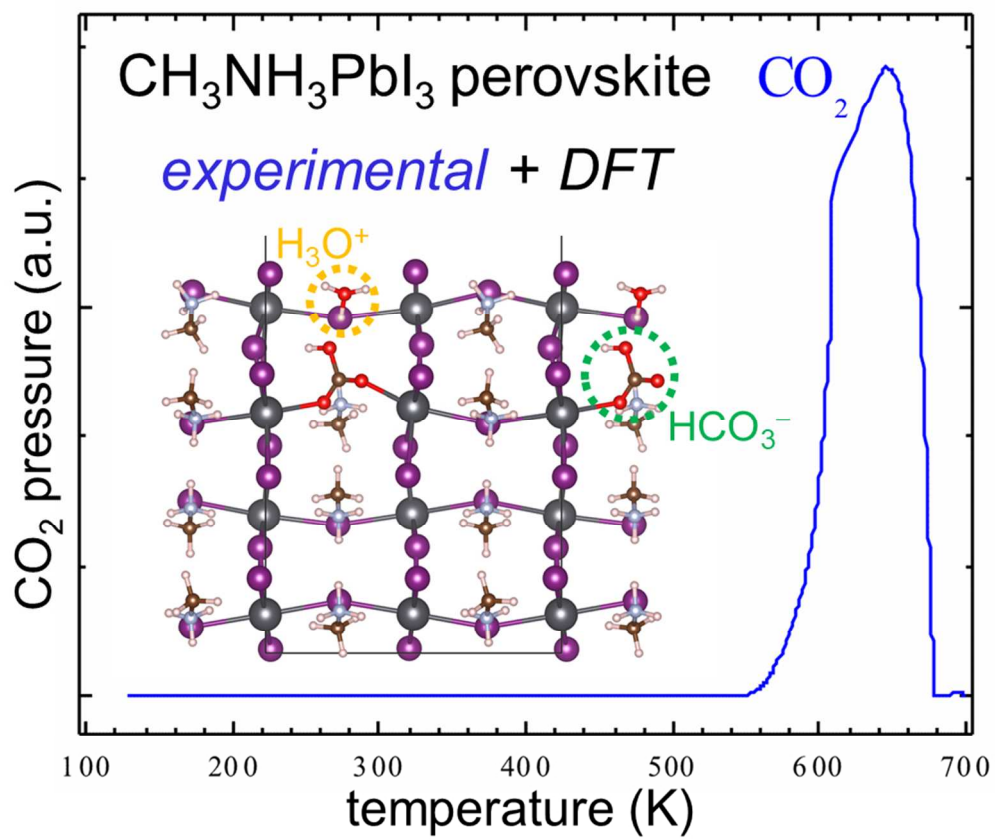
Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare

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abstract figure

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