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Deep insights into interface engineering by buffer layer for efficient perovskite solar cells: a firstprinciples study

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ABSTRACT Recent years have seen swift increase in the power conversion efficiency of perovskite solar cells (PSCs). Interface engineering is a promising route for further improving the performance of PSCs. Here we perform firstprinciples calculations to explore the effect of four candidate buffer materials (MACl, MAI, PbCl₂ and PbI₂) on the electronic structures of the interface between MAPbI₃ absorber and TiO_2 . We find that MAX (X = Cl, I) as buffer layers will introduce a high electron barrier and enhance the electronhole recombination. Additionally, MAX does not passivate the surface states well. The conduction band minimum of PbI₂ is much lower than that of MAPbI₃ absorber, which significantly limits the band bending of the absorber and open-circuit voltage of solar cells. On the other side, suitable bandedge energy level positions, small lattice mismatch with TiO₂ surfaces, and excellent surface passivation make PbCl₂ a promising buffer material for absorber/electron-transport-layer interface engineering in PSCs. Our results in this work thus provide deep understanding on the effects of interface engineering with a buffer layer, which shall be useful for improving the performance of PSCs and related optoelectronics.

Keywords: perovskite solar cells, buffer layer, interface engineering, band alignment, interfacial defect passivation

INTRODUCTION

As the leading composition and interface engineering technology, perovskite solar cells (PSCs) have advanced

to reach power conversion efficiencies (PCE) over 23% in 10 years [1–14]. To further increase the efficiency of PSCs, contact passivation could be an effective way to improve the open-circuit voltage (V_{OC}). It is known that V_{OC} of solar cells is strongly related to the band bending of the absorber in the near-interface region, which is strongly limited by the deep interfacial states [15–20]. So treatment of the interface between the absorber and carrier transport layer is of great importance to improve the performance of PSCs.

Very luckily, it has been demonstrated that lead halide perovskite (LHP) absorbers, such as MAPbI₃ and FAPbI₃, have very good defect tolerance due to their substantially ionic bonding characteristic [21]. Dangling bonds at the surface of LHP nanocrystals have similar defect property with benign surface defects [22,23]. So another major obstacle to further improvement of PCE comes from the interfacial states at the interface of LHP absorber and carrier transport layer.

In PSCs, the most common electron transport layer (ETL) materials are TiO₂ [8,24–26] and SnO₂ in rutile structures [14,27,28]. It has been found that some deep interfacial states could be introduced at LHP/TiO₂ contact. As a result, the Fermi level can be completely or partially pinned by these deep states, limiting the band bending and $V_{\rm OC}$ of PSCs [29,30]. Many efforts have been done to reduce the density of deep interfacial states by surface passivation [4,9,14,31–43]. Tan *el al.* [9] reported

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reduced interfacial recombination and improved interface binding in PSCs by TiO_2 /perovskite interface passivation with chlorine. Jiang *et al.* [14] found that non-radiative recombination can be suppressed by surface defect passivation with an organic halide salt phenethylammonium iodide. Chen *et al.* [31] demonstrated that PbI₂ phase formed at the perovskite grain boundaries and relevant interfaces can function as self-induced passivation of LHPs and improve the performance of solar cells. Busby *et al.* [43] provided experimental studies on the interface and composition effect in PSCs [41,42]. Their further work demonstrated that the stability of PSCs can be well improved by interface engineering with two-dimensional (2D) nano-materials.

Although some experimental studies have demonstrated that interface treatments with various materials can be helpful to improve the performance of PSCs, the nature of these treatments is not well understood. Taking LHP/ETL interface as an example, a good treatment material between absorber and transport layer should satisfy several requirements. i) The treatment material has good defect properties and does not introduce deep defect states. ii) It should have suitable band alignment with the LHP absorber and ETL layers to transport electrons efficiently and hinder the hole transport. iii) It should be able to passivate the pre-existing deep interfacial states. iv) The growth of the buffer material should be easy and controllable in experiments. As shown in Fig. 1a, when there is a high density of deep interfacial states, the Fermi level will be pinned by these interfacial states. Consequently, the band bending and V_{OC} are rather small without a p-to-n type inversion of the absorber. With a buffer layer being added between the absorber and ETL, the deep interfacial states are expected to be passivated, as shown in Fig. 1b. As a result, the band bending at the interface and $V_{\rm OC}$ can be significantly enhanced with an effective p-to-n type inversion. Therefore, the formation of deep interfacial states must be suppressed to make the type inversion possible at the interface, in order to overcome the $V_{\rm OC}$ deficit of PSCs.

Herein, we performed a theoretical study on the effect of the treatment at the absorber/ETL interface on the performance of corresponding solar cells. MAPbI₃ and TiO_2 are employed here as typical LHP absorber and ETL. Four possible secondary phase including MAI, MACl, PbI₂ and PbCl₂ are employed in this work to study their effects as buffer layer materials between LHP absorber (MAPbI₃) and ETL (rutile TiO₂) on the electronic properties of interfaces. Our results of band alignments indicate that MACl and MAI can create high electron



Figure 1 The band diagram of LHP absorber/ETL interface. (a) The $TiO_2/MAPbI_3$ solar cell with a high density of deep states at the interface. The Fermi level near the interface is pinned by these deep states and small band bending in the absorber layer. (b) The $TiO_2/MAPbI_3$ solar cell with an ideal buffer layer between TiO_2 and MAPbI_3. Deep surface states are passivated and a large band bending is obtained in the absorber layer.

barriers and reduce the electron collection efficiency of ETL. The conduction band minimum (CBM) of PbI_2 is much lower than that of MAPbI₃, which significantly limits the near-interface band bending of absorber and $V_{\rm OC}$ of PSCs. PbCl₂ is demonstrated to be a good buffer material for LHP/ETL interface engineering with suitable band alignments and good interfacial defect passivation effect.

COMPUTATIONAL METHODS

All calculations were performed in the VASP code using the projector augmented plane-wave method [44–46]. In structural relaxation and total energy calculation, the general gradient approximation (GGA) of Perdew, Burke and Ernzerhof (PBE) [47,48] was adopted. The planewave cutoff energy was set as 500 eV in all the calculations. To eliminate the interaction between adjacent slabs, a vacuum larger than 15 Å was used. All the structures were fully relaxed with a force tolerance of 0.02 eV Å⁻¹. DFT-D3 method of Grimme [49] was used to correct the van der Waals (vdW) interaction in MAPbI₃ and at interfaces.

MAPbI₃ in α -phase was employed in this work. Two different MAPbI₃ (001) surfaces, MAI-terminated and PbI₂-terminated, were taken into consideration. The formation energies of these two MAPbI₃ surfaces with their thickness of three layers were calculated to evaluate their relative stability. For MAI-terminated and PbI₂terminated MAPbI₃ surfaces, the formation energies were respectively calculated as [50] $E_f(MA_4Pb_3I_{10}) = [E_{slab} - 4E_{MAI} - 3E_{PbI_2}] / 3,$ $E_f(MA_3Pb_4I_{11}) = [E_{slab} - 3E_{MAI} - 4E_{PbI_2}] / 3.$

The band alignments were calculated by using corelevel alignment, as described in Refs [51,52]. Taking TiO₂ and MAI as examples, the energy difference between the core level and the VBM in bulk TiO₂ and MAI ($\Delta E_{c,V}^{\text{TiO}_2}$) and $\Delta E_{c,V}^{\text{MAI}}$) were calculated firstly. Then we did the corelevel alignment in TiO₂/MAI superlattice and obtained the core-level difference, $\Delta E_{c,c}$. Then the valence band

offset,
$$\Delta E_V$$
, was calculated as
 $\Delta E_V = \Delta E_{c,V}^{\text{TiO}_2} - \Delta E_{c,V,V}^{\text{MAI}} + \Delta E_{c,c,V}$

The conduction band offset was calculated as

$$\Delta E_C = E_g^{\text{TiO}_2} - E_g^{\text{MAI}} + \Delta E_V.$$

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Previous studies have demonstrated that LHPs prefer to make contacts with TiO_2 (112) surface [9,53,54]. So TiO_2 slabs in this work were built by cutting TiO₂ through (112) surface. Fig. 2 shows the crystal structures of (a) TiO₂ (112) surface, (b) MAI-terminated and (c) PbI₂terminated MAPbI3 (001) surface. We calculated the formation energies of both types of MAPbI₃ slabs to discuss their thermodynamic stability. Their negative formation energies indicate that both MAI-terminated and PbI₂-terminated can be thermodynamically stable. It is also found that MAI-terminated MAPbI₃ slab has a lower formation energy (-0.70 eV) than PbI₂-terminated one (-0.54 eV), which is consistent with pervious work [49]. This is attributed to the stronger bonding between I and Pb atoms than MA-I bonding. As a result, it costs more energy to break the Pb-I bonds to form PbI2-terminated MAPbI₃ surface.

Though MAI-terminated MAPbI₃ surface is more energetically favorable than PbI_2 -terminated one, the contact surface of MAPbI₃ to TiO_2 can be controlled by varying the chemical potentials of related elements in experiments. Actually, it has been demonstrated that TiO_2 (112) makes better contact to PbI_2 -terminated MAPbI₃ (001) surface [9,50].

Before discussing the band alignments between buffer layer and MAPbI₃ absorber, we explored the layer-dependent bandedge positions of MAPbI₃ slabs in Fig. 3. Since GGA-PBE functional gives correct description on the variation of bandedges, spin-orbital coupling (SOC) and hybrid functional corrections were not considered





Figure 2 The crystal structures of (a) TiO_2 (112) surface, (b) MAIterminated and (c) PbI_2 -terminated MAPbI₃ (001) surfaces from side view. The number of layers of MAPbI₃ slabs is labeled.



Figure 3 Layer-dependent bandedge positions of (a) MAI-terminated and (b) PbI₂-terminated MAPbI₃ slabs. The vacuum level is taken as reference.

here. The vacuum level was taken as reference in calculations of the bandedges of MAPbI₃ slabs. It is found from Fig. 3 that bandedges of both MAI-terminated and PbI₂terminated MAPbI₃ slabs show significant dependence on the thickness of slabs. Specifically, in the case of MAIterminated MAPbI₃ slab, its CBM decreases and its valence band maximum (VBM) increases with the number of layers, resulting in reduced band gap when its thickness increases. While both the CBM and VBM of PbI₂terminated MAPbI₃ slab increase with the number of layers, which is accompanied by its decreasing band gap. This band gap variation shows similar trend to the 2D LHPs in Ruddlesden-Poper phases and low-dimensional LHPs [55,56].

We then discuss the influence of interfacial buffer layer on the carrier transport properties. Considering the feasibility in experiments and device designing, four semiconducting materials, MAI, MACl, PbCl₂ and PbI₂, were employed as the buffer layer. The band alignments between TiO₂ and MAPbI₃ were corrected by referring to the experimental value of conduction band offset (0.40 eV). Here the bandedge positions of these buffer materials were calculated on GGA-PBE level, and the bandedges of TiO₂ are adopted as references.

Band alignments in Fig. 4 show that all these four buffer materials will introduce hole barriers between TiO_2



Figure 4 Schematic bandedge energy level positions of TiO_2 , MAPbI₃ and four buffer materials (MAI, MACl, PbCl₂ and PbI₂). The conduction band offset between TiO_2 and MAPbI₃ is taken as experimental value. Band alignments here are calculated by using the core-level alignment approach.

and MAPbI₃, suggesting that holes in MAPbI₃ absorber will be reflected by the buffer layer. At the absorber/ETL interface, the conduction band offset is of much more importance. The CBM energy position of a suitable buffer material should between the CBM energy positions of the absorber and ETL to facilitate electron transportation. Our results in Fig. 4 indicate that MAI and MACl will introduce electron barriers between MAPbI₃ and TiO₂, which is detrimental for electron transportation from MAPbI₃ absorber to TiO₂. This means electron-hole recombination in MAPbI₃ will be enhanced and PCE of corresponding PSCs will be reduced. Our results suggest that MAI and MACl are not suitable buffer materials.

In the case of PbI_2 , its much lower CBM than that of MAPbI₃ makes it unsuitable buffer material in lead iodides PSCs, even though this could be helpful for electron collection. The Fermi level of $PbI_2/MAPbI_3$ interface can not be higher than the CBM of PbI_2 . As a result, the band bending of MAPbI₃ in the near-interface region and V_{OC} are severely limited. On the other hand, holes from MAPbI₃ absorber can be trapped by the CBM states of PbI₂, improving the electron-hole recombination at the interface.

In the view of band alignments, $PbCl_2$ is a good buffer layer with its CBM between the CBMs of TiO₂ and MAPbI₃ and much lower VBM than MAPbI₃. These results suggest that a buffer layer $PbCl_2$ can facilitate the electron transport and reflect holes from the MAPbI₃ absorber. So the LHP absorber should be grown under a PbX_2 -rich (X = Cl, Br, I) condition to form a $PbCl_2$ buffer layer at the LHP/ETL interface. What's more, it is demonstrated that the formation energy of MAPbI₃ slab depends on the chemical potentials of PbI_2 and MAI [21]. Under PbI_2 -rich condition, which means Pb and I have high chemical potentials, PbI₂-terminated MAPbI₃ surface has a lower formation energy than the case of MAIrich condition. So PbX₂-rich condition also promotes the formation of PbX₂-terminated LHP surfaces.

It seems that the values given in Fig. 4 are different from the experimentally measured ones, which mainly comes from the underestimation in bandgaps in GGA-PBE functional calculation. While the general features of band alignments in Fig. 4 are well predicted, further support to the rationality of results in Fig. 4 can be obtained from orbital coupling analysis. For example, CBMs of MACl and MAI are mainly composed by s orbital of MA molecule. So they should have similar CBM positions with small conduction band offset. On the other side, the large difference in the VBMs of MACl and MAI is caused by the large energy difference between Cl p and I p orbitals. Similar trends also are observed in PbCl₂/PbI₂. Because the VBMs of PbCl₂ and PbI₂ mainly consist of the antibonding states of Pb s and X p (X = Cl, I) orbitals, the valence band offset in PbCl₂/PbI₂ is much smaller than that of MACl/MAI. The antibonding coupling in PbX₂ is also responsible for the higher conduction band positions than MAX. According to the analysis above, Fig. 4 gives correct description on the band alignments of materials employed in this work, even though the absolute values of bandgap are underestimated.

Further insights into the band alignments can be obtained from the interfacial charge density difference of TiO₂/buffer-layer (Fig. 5). The yellow and blue areas indicate electron accumulation and depletion, respectively. All the isosurface levels are set as 0.003 e $Å^{-3}$. It is found in Fig. 5a and b that electrons tend to transfer from the MAX (X = Cl, I) buffer layer to TiO_2 at MAX/TiO₂ interfaces, suggesting a lower CBM of TiO₂. In the case of PbCl₂/TiO₂ interface (Fig. 5c), the net exchange carrier between PbCl₂ and TiO₂ is too small to identify from the interfacial charge density difference, which means a small difference in their CBM positions. For PbI2/TiO2 interface, the charge exchange between PbI₂ and TiO₂ is much weaker compared with the other three interfaces. This is attributed to the layered structure and vdW interlayer coupling of PbI₂.

As illustrated in Fig. 1, a good buffer layer at the LHPabsorber/ETL interface not only has suitable band alignments with the absorber and ETL materials, but also passivates the pre-existing deep interfacial states. Before discussing the passivation effect of the buffer layer, we explored the electronic structures of TiO_2 (112) surface in Fig. 6 and MAPbI₃ (001) surfaces in Fig. 7. Projected density of states (PDOS) of TiO_2 and MAPbI₃ surfaces are



Figure 5 Charge density difference at interfaces between TiO₂ and (a) MACl, (b) MAI, (c) PbCl₂, and (d) PbI₂. The yellow and blue areas indicate electron accumulation and depletion, respectively. All the isosurface levels are set as 0.003 e Å⁻³.

calculated in Figs 6 and 7, respectively, with resolved contribution of each type of ion to PDOS. It can be seen from Fig. 6a and b that the VBM and CBM of TiO_2 mainly consist of O p orbitals and Ti d orbitals, respectively [53]. When bulk TiO_2 is cut through (112) surface, defect states are generated near its VBM due to the broken Ti–O bonds at the surface.

Many previous studies have demonstrated that the CBMs of LHPs are mainly contributed by non-bonding Pb p states and their VBMs mainly consist of the antibonding states between p orbitals of halide atoms and Pb s orbtial [21, 53]. In MAPbI₃, MA⁺ contributes little to the bandedges of MAPbI₃. As a result, there are nearly no deep surface states in the MAI-terminated MAPbI₃ surface. While in the case of PbI2-terminated MAPbI3 surface, which is usually the case in experiments, MA⁺ does not introduce gap states because its orbitals are distributed in high conduction bands and low valence bands, as shown in Fig. 7c. Compared with PDOS of MAI-terminated MAPbI₃ surface, the broken Pb-I bonds at PbI₂terminated MAPbI₃ surface create a high density of gap states near the CBM and VBM of MAPbI₃, as shown in Fig. 7a and b. Since MAPbI₃ is intrinsically a p-type semiconductor, shallow defects near the VBM can be helpful to increase the density of holes. The shallow defects near the CBM, however, are detrimental to the concentration and life-time of holes, which further reduces the PCEs of solar cells.

Interfacial defect passivation through adding a buffer layer is an useful route for further increasing the PCE and the V_{OC} of the PSCs. In Fig. 8, we discuss the interfacial passivation effect of the above four buffer materials by calculating the PDOS on Ti and O atoms of TiO₂/MACl (Fig. 8a), TiO₂/MAI (Fig. 8b), TiO₂/PbCl₂ (Fig. 8c) and TiO₂/PbI₂ (Fig. 8d). It is found that defect states at the TiO₂ (112) surface can not be fully passivated by MAX (X = Cl, I). There is still a high density of surface states above



Figure 6 PDOS of TiO_2 (112) surface. (a) and (b) are the PDOS contributed by O and Ti atoms, respectively.

the VBM of TiO₂. Especially at the MAI/TiO₂ interface, some extra deep interfacial states are introduced due to large lattice mismatch between MAI and TiO₂. PbI₂ has a weak influence on the electronic structure of TiO₂ surface due to the weak vdW interfacial coupling.

Fortunately, PbCl₂, which has suitable band alignments with TiO₂ and MAPbI₃, exhibits the best surface passivation effect. Two main reasons are responsible for this. Firstly, the lattice mismatch between PbCl₂ and TiO₂ is very small so that the concentration of dangling bonds is low. Secondly, the interfacial coupling between PbCl₂ and TiO₂ is strong so that the dangling bonds at the TiO₂ surface are well passivated. Theoretically, the strength of coupling between two states is proportional to the overlap of their wavefunctions. And the wavefunction overlap depends on the atomic distance between the involved two



Figure 7 PDOS of MAI-terminated (left side) and PbI_2 -terminated (right side) MAPbI₃ (001) surfaces. (a), (b) and (c) are PDOS contributed by I, Pb and MA ions, respectively.



Figure 8 PDOS on Ti (left side) and O (right side) atoms in interfaces of (a) TiO₂/MACl, (b) TiO₂/PbCl₂ and (d) TiO₂/PbI₂.

atoms. Due to the shorter bond length of Ti–Cl than Ti–I, PbCl₂ can couple with TiO₂ stronger than PbI₂. Strong interfacial coupling usually means large energy gain upon two materials binding together. So in some (Cl, I) alloyed LHPs, PbCl₂-terminated surface may be energetically more favorable than PbI₂-terminated one. Fig. 5c provides clear insights into the interfacial coupling of TiO₂/ PbCl₂. Obvious charge exchange is observed. Surface states caused by dangling bonds of Ti and O atoms coupled well with Cl and Pb atoms of PbCl₂, respectively. It is concluded that PbCl₂ is a good buffer layer material for interface engineering between the LHP absorber and ETL.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, first-principles calculations were performed to explore the effect of four candidate buffer materials (MACl, MAI, PbCl₂ and PbI₂) on the electronic structures of interface between the MAPbI₃ absorber and TiO₂. Our results of band alignments indicate that MAX (X = Cl, I) as buffer layers will introduce a high electron barrier which reduces the electron collection efficiency of ETL. Electron-hole recombination will be enhanced and the PCEs of solar cells will be reduced. Additionally, MAX are not able to well passivate the surface states. The CBM of PbI₂ is much lower than that of MAPbI₃ absorber, which significantly limits the band bending of the absorber and V_{OC} of PSCs. Furthermore, its layered crystal structure and weak vdW interfacial coupling reduce its surface passivation effect on the TiO₂ surface. Most importantly, suitable bandedge energy level positions, small lattice mismatch with TiO_2 (112) surface, and excellent surface passivation effect make PbCl₂ a promising buffer material for LHPs/ETL interface engineering in PSCs.

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Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.



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高效钙钛矿太阳能电池中缓冲层界面工程的深入 理解:第一性原理研究

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摘要 近年来钙钛矿太阳能电池的能量转换效率迅速提高.界面工 程是进一步改善钙钛矿太阳能电池性能的有前途的途径.本文中, 我们进行第一性原理计算,以探索四种候选缓冲材料(MACl, MAI, PbCl₂与PbI₂)对MAPbI₃吸收层与TiO₂之间界面电子结构的影响.我 们发现MAX (X = Cl, I)作为缓冲层将引入高电子势垒并增强电子-空穴复合.此外,MAX不能很好地钝化表面状态.PbI₂的导带最小 值远低于MAPbI₃吸收层的导带最小值,这极大地限制了吸收层的 能带弯曲和太阳能电池的开路电压.另一方面,合适的带边能级位 置,与TiO₂表面的小的晶格失配以及出色的表面钝化性能使得 PbCl₂成为钙钛矿太阳能电池吸收层/电子传输层界面工程的有希 望的缓冲材料.因此,我们在这项工作中获得的结果可以使人们对 具有缓冲层的界面工程的效果有更深入的理解,这有利于改善钙 钛矿太阳能电池和相关光电器件的性能.