

# Lattice strain suppresses point defect formation in halide perovskites

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Received: 30 September 2021 / Revised: 4 January 2022 / Accepted: 4 January 2022

## ABSTRACT

We computationally investigate the impact of crystal strain on the formation of native point defects likely to be formed in halide perovskites; A-site cation antisite ( $I_A$ ), Pb antisite ( $I_{Pb}$ ), A-site cation vacancy ( $V_A$ ), I vacancy ( $V_I$ ), Pb vacancy ( $V_{Pb}$ ), and I interstitial ( $I_i$ ). We systematically identify compressive and tensile strain to CsPbI<sub>3</sub>, FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, and MAPbI<sub>3</sub> perovskite structures. We observe that while each type of defect has a unique behaviour, overall, the defect formation in FAPbI<sub>3</sub> is much more sensitive to the strain. The compressive strain can enhance the formation energy of neutral  $I_{Pb}$  and  $I_i$  up to 15% for FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, depending on the growth conditions. We show that the strain not only controls the formation of defects but also their transition levels in the band gap: A deep level can be transformed into a shallow level by the strain. We anticipate that tailoring the lattice strain can be used as a defect passivation mechanism for future studies.

## KEYWORDS

perovskite solar cells, halide perovskites, defect formation, lattice strain

## 1 Introduction

Since the first generation solid-state perovskite solar cell (PSC) was launched in 2012 [1,2], hybrid organic–inorganic halide perovskites have received great interests as a low-cost and highly efficient candidate for third generation solar cells (SCs) [3–5]. The power conversion efficiency (PCE) of perovskite solar cells has keenly raised to 25.5% in the lab [6]. The highest PCEs are mostly achieved by employing the organic–inorganic hybrid metal triiodide perovskite (MTP) materials (e.g., formamidinium lead iodide (FAPbI<sub>3</sub>)) due to their high charge mobility, long charge diffusion length, high absorption coefficient, and tunable band gap [7,8]. Furthermore, their facile and cost-effective fabrication process can pave the way for large-scale commercialization (>1 cm<sup>2</sup>) with high PCE of 20% [9–11] in a decade.

While MTP-based solar cells are competitive with conventional photovoltaics, the large number of defects often present significantly damage the optoelectronic performance of MTP-based solar cells and long-term stability [12,13]. Intrinsic point defects in semiconductors can be classified into three types: (I) vacancy defects where an atom is missing from one of the lattice sites; (II) Interstitial defects where an atom of the same or of a different type occupies a normally unoccupied site in the lattice. (III) Antisite defects in an ordered alloy or compound when atoms of different type exchange positions. Another classification of the defects is based on the position of their electronic transition levels within the band gap. This position relative to the conduction band minimum (CBM) or valence band maximum (VBM)

determines the type of defect trap states as “shallow” or “deep” [14]. Since the crystal growth procedures are always fast and require high temperature, the formation of defects is not rare in MTP, and the defects generally influence the performance of solar cells. Advent of the thermodynamic PCE limit of MTP requires not only a better understanding of the defects, but also research to achieve passivation.

Since the defects have a strong impact on the opto-electronic properties and stability of MTPs, defect passivation has been widely studied [5,15,16]. Modifications of the perovskite precursor solution aids both in the growth of highly crystalline perovskite films and in passivation of the grain boundaries of the crystals [17–20]. Similarly, bottom-up defect passivation can introduce nucleation sites to the crystal, which enhances the crystallization [21,22] and suppresses the formation of the defects. In contrast to passivating the defect during the growth process, post-treatment of the top surface without affecting their morphologies or causing recrystallization can provide compact and flat perovskite films [20,23–26].

Along with these strategies, in the past few years, lattice strain is directly associated to both defect concentration [27] and carrier dynamics [28] in MTPs. Perovskites are generally vulnerable to the lattice strain due to their mechanically-soft nature [29]. A stress applied to the crystal leads to a deformation of the lattice resulting a change in lattice parameters. [30] Quantitatively, the ratio of the change in the lattice parameter originated by a stress to the strain-free lattice parameter is defined as “strain”. The strain in the lattice can be controlled by both internal and external stress.

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The internal engineering of the strain in MTPs can be performed by varying the effective radius of A-cations [31, 32] and X-anions [33], quantum dot inclusion [34], and surface reconstruction [35] while the external strain engineering can be achieved by lattice mismatches [36, 37], temperature gradients [28], annealing [38], and bending after film formation [39–41]. While the amount of applied strain by these methods is varied, the typical strain range is  $\pm 2\%$ . Macroscopic parameters such as power conversion efficiency and stability are strongly influenced by this amount of strain [33, 37, 42]. Given that MTPs can have 12 native point defects (three vacancies, three interstitials, and six antisite occupations), each defect may behave distinctively against the crystal strain, depending on the A-site cation in APbI<sub>3</sub> type MTPs.

We have investigated the influence of lattice strain on the formation energy of commonly-studied 6 native point defects: A-site cation antisite ( $I_A$ ), Pb antisite ( $I_{Pb}$ ), A-site cation vacancy ( $V_A$ ), I vacancy ( $V_I$ ), Pb vacancy ( $V_{Pb}$ ), and I interstitial ( $I_I$ ) in APbI<sub>3</sub> perovskites; CsPbI<sub>3</sub>, FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, and MAPbI<sub>3</sub>. In addition, we investigated the influence of lattice strain and electrochemical potential on the formation of the selected point defects. The impact of the strain on the transition levels of the defects is also revealed. Our study suggests that lattice strain can be used as an alternative defect passivation method in metal-halide perovskites.

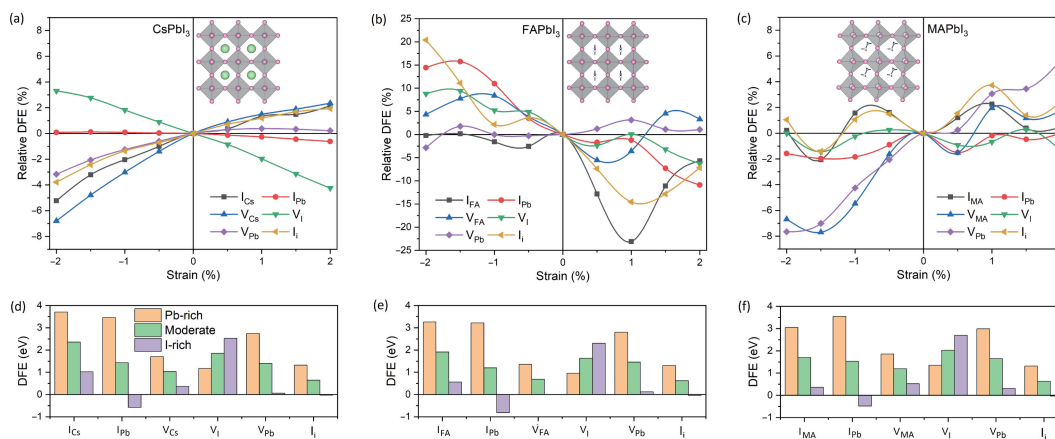
## 2 Methods

Defect formation energy calculations were performed based on the density functional theory (DFT)-implemented Vienna *ab initio* simulation package (VASP) [43–45]. Generalized gradient approximation (GGA) of Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) type functional for electron–electron interactions and projector augmented wave (PAW) method for electron–ion interactions [46] were employed for the calculations with the cut-off energies for the plane-wave basis sets of 400 eV. PBE is a cost-effective functional when compared to hybrid functionals (such as Heyd–Scuseria–Ernzerhof, (HSE)) giving reasonably consistent results in defect formation energies determined through total energy differences [47, 48]. A supercell with a  $3 \times 3 \times 3$  periodicity was used in all cases. A structural relaxation for both ionic positions and cell dimensions was performed to obtain most stable geometry until the residual forces became smaller than 0.05 eV/Å. Following the geometry optimization, the lattice strain was implemented by changing the lattice parameter along out-of-plane direction: The contraction and expansion of the lattice will be called as compressive and tensile strain, respectively. This uniaxial strain approach allows us to figure out the effect of the

ratio between out-of-plane and in-plane lattice constants ( $c/a$ ) on the defect formation. Most studies on crystal strain focus on this  $c/a$  ratio since the lattice-originated phenomena are generally proportional to the  $c/a$  ratio [49, 50]. The computations of the defect formation energies are detailed in the Electronic Supplementary Material (ESM).

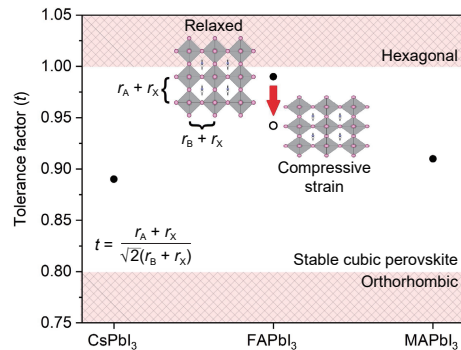
## 3 Results and discussion

We varied the crystal strain from  $-2\%$  (compressive) to  $2\%$  (tensile) for CsPbI<sub>3</sub>, FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, and MAPbI<sub>3</sub> with point defects of  $I_{A\text{-site}}$ ,  $I_{Pb}$ ,  $V_{A\text{-site}}$ ,  $V_I$ ,  $V_{Pb}$ , and  $I_I$ . This  $2\%$  strain, for instance, amounts to as much as roughly  $0.1 \text{ \AA}$  variation in a Pb–I bond along the out-of-plane direction. The relative formation energies of neutral defects in strained perovskites with respect to freestanding defective perovskites are given in Figs. 1(a)–1(c). While the given neutral defect formation energies (DFEs) are calculated in moderate growth conditions, DFEs for Pb-rich and I-rich conditions are also presented in Figs. 1(d)–1(f) for comparison. Also, the formation energies of investigated defects for I-rich and Pb-rich conditions can be found in the ESM. In Fig. 1(a), we show that a compressive strain in CsPbI<sub>3</sub> can further stabilize the DFE of  $V_{Cs}$  up to  $7\%$ . Considering that the DFE of  $V_{Cs}$  is relatively small (Fig. 1(d)), i.e., the defect formation is quite possible under certain conditions, and the control of the lattice strain becomes crucial. On the other hand, the DFE of  $V_I$  is increased as much as  $4\%$ , which can reduce the formation of  $V_I$ . The unique behavior of  $V_I$  in Fig. 1(a) can be associated with its charge-state as it is the sole electron–donor defect we studied. Indeed, the center of defected unit cell undergoes a significant contraction along the  $x$ -direction due to electron donation, resulting an enhancement in defect formation energy by the compressive strain. Furthermore,  $V_{Cs}$ ,  $I_{Cs}$ ,  $V_{Pb}$ , and  $I_I$  cause an expansion along the  $x$ -direction and their DFEs are reduced for compressive strain. Lastly,  $I_{Pb}$  has no effect on the crystal structure and prognostically the DFE is insensitive to the lattice strain. Thus, we can admit that the distortion in which the defect is located can be restored by the lattice strain. Among the A-site cations and defects under study, FA-type forms the most strain-sensitive halide perovskite (see Fig. 1(b)) in which the DFEs can increase up to  $\sim 20\%$  relatively by the lattice strain. Even if MAPbI<sub>3</sub> is also sensitive to the strain for  $V_{Pb}$  and  $V_{MA}$  (see Fig. 1(c)), the maximum relative DFE is around  $8\%$ , which is still far below the relative DFEs calculated for FAPbI<sub>3</sub>. In general, defects were stabilized (destabilized) by increasing compressive (tensile)



**Figure 1** The dependence of the defect formation energies (in eV) on the lattice strain and defect formation energy of the perovskites for different growth conditions. The relative DFE with respect to the strain for selected neutral intrinsic defects ( $I_A$ ,  $I_{Pb}$ ,  $V_A$ ,  $V_I$ ,  $V_{Pb}$ , and  $I_I$ ) in (a) CsPbI<sub>3</sub>, (b) FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, and (c) MAPbI<sub>3</sub> perovskites under moderate conditions. The negative value of % indicates compressive strain while positive % values correspond to tensile strain along the out-of-plane direction throughout the study. The formation energies of intrinsic point defects under Pb-rich, moderate, and I-rich conditions in (d) CsPbI<sub>3</sub>, (e) FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, and (f) MAPbI<sub>3</sub> perovskites.

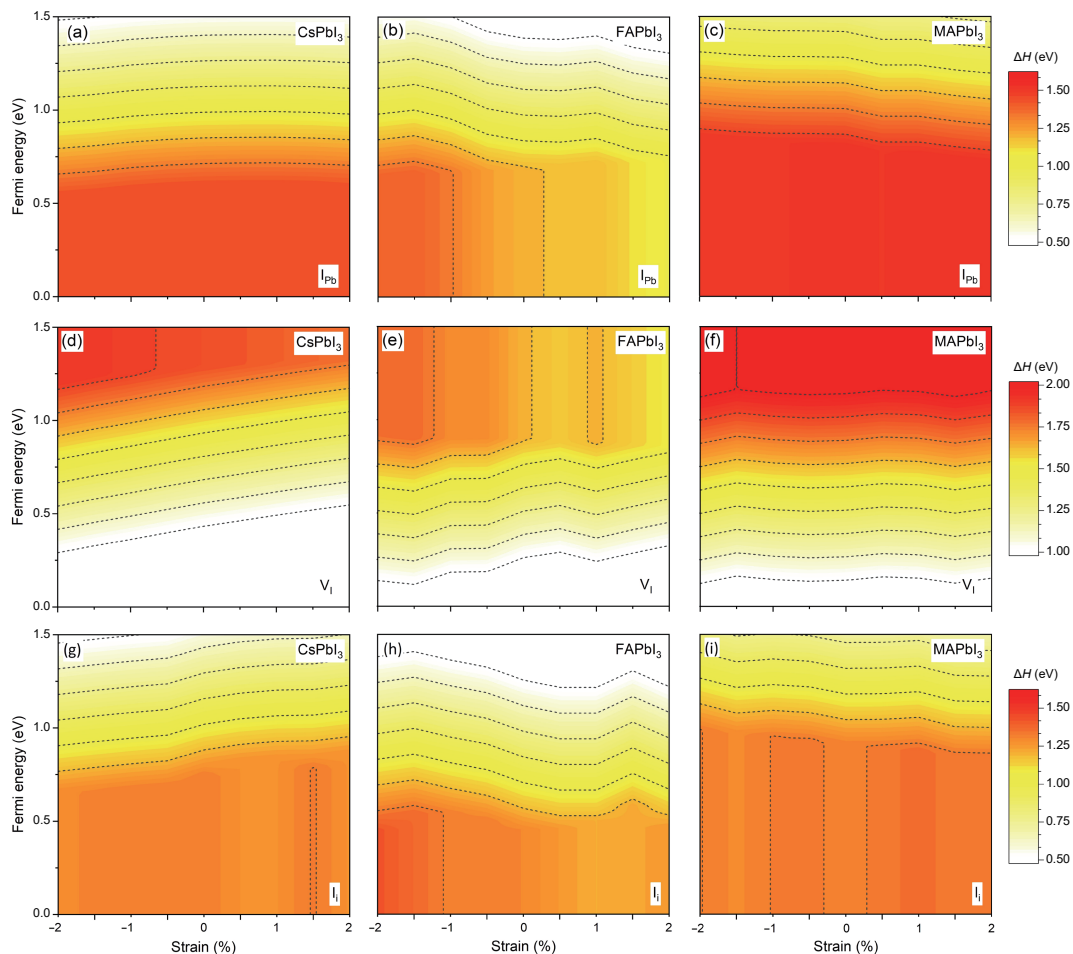
strain in CsPbI<sub>3</sub> and MAPbI<sub>3</sub>. However, the trend is reversed in FAPbI<sub>3</sub> as shown in Figs. 1(a)–1(c). We attribute this behaviour to the large size of the FA molecule relative to Cs and MA, which makes the lattice structure vulnerable to the contractive point defects. In a deterministic manner, the Goldschmidt tolerance factor ( $t$ ) of FAPbI<sub>3</sub> ( $t_{\text{FAPbI}_3} = 0.99$ ) [51] is higher than that of MAPbI<sub>3</sub> ( $t_{\text{MAPbI}_3} = 0.91$ ) [51] and CsPbI<sub>3</sub> ( $t_{\text{CsPbI}_3} = 0.89$ ) [52]. Since the tolerance factor of FAPbI<sub>3</sub> is on the upper border of the cubic perovskite formation zone,  $0.8 < t < 1$  [53–55], the defect formation in FAPbI<sub>3</sub> is more sensitive to the crystal distortions. The schematic representation of the effect of the strain of the tolerance factor is given in Fig. 2. The tolerance factor of CsPbI<sub>3</sub>



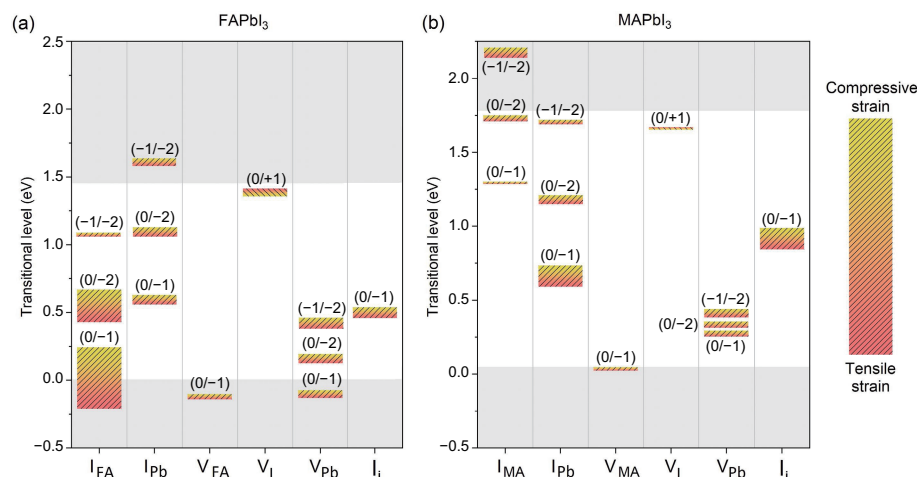
**Figure 2** Schematic representation of strain-induced tolerance factor adjustment of FAPbI<sub>3</sub>. Herein,  $r_A$ ,  $r_B$ , and  $r_X$  represent the radii of A-site molecule, B-site metal, and X-site halide in ABX<sub>3</sub> perovskites, respectively. In addition,  $r_A + r_X$  shown here is a space-diagonal length. The change in the tolerance factor of FAPbI<sub>3</sub> is enlarged to show the influence of the strain.

and MAPbI<sub>3</sub> is around the middle of the stable cubic perovskite formation zone. However, FAPbI<sub>3</sub> is very close to the hexagonal phase transition area. Applying a compressive strain drifts the tolerance factor down to the stable cubic region, which enhances the formation energy of defects. Moreover, a tensile strain applied to the crystal shifts the tolerance factor to the less-stable phase transition area, which makes it vulnerable to the defect formations.

In addition to the effect of lattice strain, the electrochemical potential has an impact on the formation energy of defects [56]. A concurrent investigation of the influences of lattice strain and electrochemical potential on the formation of the selected point defects is summarized in Fig. 3. The upper heat-maps (Figs. 3(a)–3(c)) present the formation energy of  $I_{\text{pb}}$  while middle ones (Figs. 3(d)–3(f)) show those of  $V_I$  and lower ones (Figs. 3(g)–3(i)) show those of  $I_I$  in CsPbI<sub>3</sub>, FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, and MAPbI<sub>3</sub>, respectively. For  $I_{\text{pb}}$ , the formation energy is lower for higher Fermi energies, i.e.,  $I_{\text{pb}}$  is more stable in an electron-rich environment. On the other hand,  $V_I$  is dominant when the host material is p-type ( $E_F \sim 0.5$ ) in Figs. 3(d)–3(f). However, lattice strain plays a crucial role on the heat-maps. For FAPbI<sub>3</sub>,  $I_{\text{pb}}$  is more stable under tensile strain in Fig. 3(b). Similarly, the tensile strain linearly shifts the stable region of  $V_I$  towards higher fermi energies in Fig. 3(d). As a result, the lattice strain more or less influences the formation probability of the selected defects in the host material. Aside from the defect formation energies, the photovoltaic performance of perovskites is also associated with the charge-state transition levels. The Fermi level where the defect state can accept/donate electrons is called as the transition level of a defect, which can be “shallow” or “deep” according to its position in the band gap. The calculated transition



**Figure 3** The dependence of the defect formation energies on the Fermi energy and lattice strain, concurrently. The formation energy of  $I_{\text{pb}}$  is given in (a) CsPbI<sub>3</sub>, (b) FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, and (c) MAPbI<sub>3</sub> while that of  $V_I$  is shown in (d) CsPbI<sub>3</sub>, (e) FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, and (f) MAPbI<sub>3</sub> and that of  $I_I$  is shown in (g) CsPbI<sub>3</sub>, (h) FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, and (i) MAPbI<sub>3</sub> perovskites.



**Figure 4** The charge transition energy levels of selected intrinsic defects in (a) FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, and (b) MAPbI<sub>3</sub>. The influence of lattice strain on the transition levels is shown by the color gradient. The strain is varied from -2% (compressive) to 2% (tensile)

levels for the point defects of I<sub>A-site</sub>, I<sub>Pb</sub>, V<sub>A-site</sub>, V<sub>I</sub>, V<sub>Pb</sub>, and I<sub>i</sub> in FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, and MAPbI<sub>3</sub> are respectively shown in Figs. 4(a) and 4(b). The transition levels of all investigated defects are affected by the lattice strain in a certain degree. The strain controls the transition level of a defect in the band gap and even a deep defect can be transformed into a shallow defect by the strain: A tensile strain applied to the FAPbI<sub>3</sub> transforms the deep defect of I<sub>FA</sub> into a shallow one in Fig. 4(a). The crystal strain influences not only the formation energy of defects but also the electronic band structure of the crystal and finally the transitional level of the defects. Moreover, some alterations in the bandgap have been recently reported by Ghosh et al. [57] and Qiao et al. [58]. Considering that some halide perovskites naturally become strained as-grown or after annealing, the defects that are considered harmful in the freestanding lattice case may actually be benign under strain, vice versa. Also, tailoring the lattice strain by proper substrates and/or buffer layers can play a role in the formation and alteration of transition level of defects as well as other defect passivation methods.

## 4 Summary

In summary, the impact of lattice strain on the defect properties of CsPbI<sub>3</sub>, FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, and MAPbI<sub>3</sub> perovskite solar cells has been systematically studied via first-principles calculations. It is found that defect formation in FAPbI<sub>3</sub> is very sensitive to the strain, and the defect formation energy can be enhanced up to ~ 20% by a compressive strain. We attribute this behavior to the tolerance factor drifted down to the stable cubic perovskite region. According to the concurrent investigation of the influences of lattice strain and electrochemical potential on the defect formation, we found that the lattice strain more or less influences the formation probability of defects in the host material. Moreover, the strain manipulates the transition level of the defects in the band gap and even can transform a deep defect into a shallow defect. We suggest the usage of lattice strain as a defect passivation method.

## Acknowledgments

The numerical calculations reported in this paper were performed at TUBITAK ULAKBIM, High Performance and Grid Computing Center (TRUBA resources) and Hoffman2 cluster at the University of California, Los Angeles. Computational analysis was performed at the Simulations and Modelling Research Lab (Simulab), Physics Department of MU. C. D. would like to thank

the Fulbright Turkey Commission for providing a valuable scholarship for his post-doctoral study at the United States. K. N. H. was supported by the National Science Foundation (CHE-1764328). S. T. and Y. Y. were supported by the U.S. Department of Energy's Office of Energy Efficiency and Renewable Energy (EERE) under the Solar Energy Technologies Office under award DE-EE0008751.

**Electronic Supplementary Material:** Supplementary material (formation energies of I<sub>A</sub>, I<sub>Pb</sub>, V<sub>A</sub>, V<sub>I</sub>, V<sub>Pb</sub>, and I<sub>i</sub> in APbI<sub>3</sub> perovskites; CsPbI<sub>3</sub>, FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, and MAPbI<sub>3</sub> with respect to the strain for moderate, I-rich, and Pb-rich growth conditions, computational details related to the calculation of defect formation energy, chemical potential calculations, and energy corrections) is available in the online version of this article at <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12274-022-4141-9>.

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