

Emergence and Evolution of Organometal Halide Perovskite Solar Cell

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ABSTRACT: Since the first report on long-term durable perovskite solar cell in 2012, a surge of interest in perovskite solar cell has been received due to its superb photovoltaic performance exceeding 20%. MAPbI₃ (MA = CH₃NH₃) perovskite film is able to be prepared simply by solution processes of either sequential two-step or single step procedure. Since MAPbI₃ shows balanced charge transport property with micrometer scale charge diffusion length, it can be applied to any kind of junction structures. Mostly studied structure is mesoscopic structure employing mesoporous oxide layer in perovskite film. Photovoltaic performance is primarily influenced by the quality of perovskite film but interfaces are equally important. In this mini review, emergence and evolution of perovskite solar cell are described.

Perovskite solar cell based on methylammonium lead halide, MAPbX₃ (MA = CH₃NH₃, X = Br, I) was first reported by Miyasaka group in 2009 using dye-sensitized solar cell structure [1]. A power conversion efficiency (PCE) of about 3-4% was demonstrated. An improved PCE of 6.5% was reported by Park group in 2011 [2]. Spin coating of the polar aprotic solvent such as *N,N*-dimethylformamide (DMF) or gamma-butyrolactone (GBL) solution containing MAI and PbI₂ on nanocrystalline TiO₂ film led to semi-spherical dot morphology of MAPbI₃. However, perovskite dots sitting on TiO₂ surface tends to be readily dissolved in polar solvent in electrolyte. Such instability hinders further development of perovskite solar cell. Park et al. eventually solved dissolution problem by employing solid state hole transport material (HTM), spiro-MeOTAD, which was reported in October 2012 [3]. Submicrometer-thick mesoporous TiO₂ film was decorated with perovskite dots and the pores were filled with spiro-MeOTAD, which demonstrated a PCE of 9.7%. It was found that PCE was improved as the TiO₂ film thickness decreased, which was mainly due to high absorption coefficient of more than 10⁴ cm⁻¹ [2, 3]. Transient absorption spectroscopic study showed effective charge separation occurred between perovskite and hole transport spiro-MeOTAD, which indicates that valence band of perovskite and HOMO level of spiro-MeOTAD is well matched for injection of holes from perovskite to HTM. In Figure 1, structure of MAPbI₃ and energy levels among TiO₂, MAPbI₃ and spiro-MeOTAD are schematically depicted, where methylammonium cation is located in cubo-octahedral site and Pb-I octahedra are corner shared.

Since organometal halide perovskite is ionic crystal, it can be prepared by solution process under mild condition. Since lattice energy of halide perovskite is lower than that of covalent oxides due to low Madelung constant [4], MAPbI₃ can be formed even at ambient temperature without heat treatment. MAPbI₃ is formed via either one-step or sequential two-step procedure. For one-step spin coating, polar aprotic solvent containing PbI₂ and MAI is used to form MAPbI₃. PbI₂ layer is first formed in two-step procedure, which is followed by spin-coating of MAI. This leads to MAPbI₃ according to eq 1.



Morphology of one-step coated MAPbI₃ is different from that of two-step one. Without any specific process involved in two methods, photovoltaic performance of perovskite solar cell prepared by one-step is found to be inferior to that of two-step method [5].

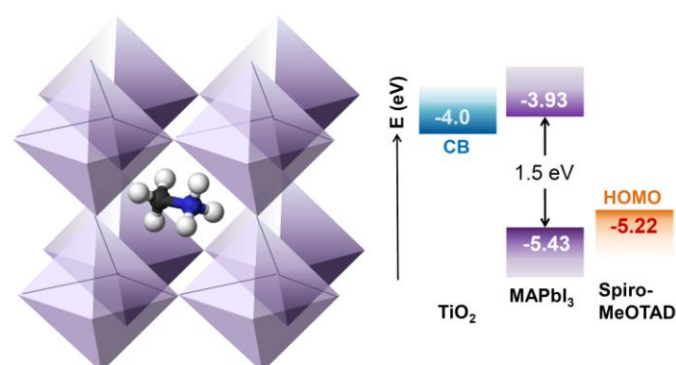


Figure 1. Local structure of MAPbI₃ perovskite showing lead-iodide octahedral and cubo-octahedral MA. Band positions of perovskite along with those for TiO₂ and spiro-MeOTAD.

However, one-step method is expected to be superior to two-step procedure if crystal growth is controlled. Regarding two-step procedure, it was found that crystal size was controlled by varying MAI concentration, where relatively large crystal formed from low concentration but small size formed from high concentration [6].

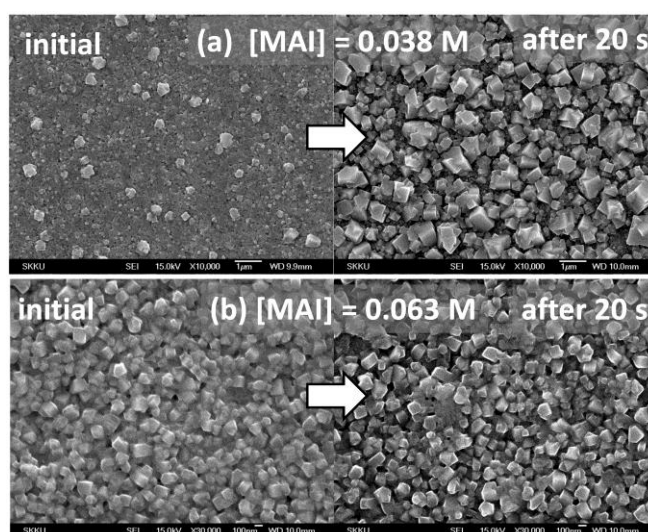


Figure 2. SEM images showing dependence of crystal growth on MAI concentration of (a) 0.038 M and (b) 0.063 M.

Figure 2 shows evolution of crystal growth with time. At low

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concentration of 0.038 M, small seed crystals are sparsely formed initially, which grows bigger with time. On the other hands, seed crystals are closely packed initially at high concentration of 0.063 M without further growth with time. Photovoltaic performance was found to significantly depend on MAPbI₃ size. Large grain MAPbI₃ grown from low concentration showed higher photocurrent and fill factor than small one from high concentration. However, lower voltage was observed for large grain than for medium and small grains. Large crystal with gaps between crystals was found to be beneficial to light harvesting, resulting in high photocurrent. High fill factor could be related to ferroelectric property of MAPbI₃ [7]. Change in voltage with crystal size can be explained by difference in charge mobility and extraction ability. As can be seen in Figure 3, amount of the extracted charges increase with increasing size. However, 800 nm-size shows slower hole mobility than 200 nm- and 100 nm-size, which is responsible for lower voltage because of increased chance of recombination.

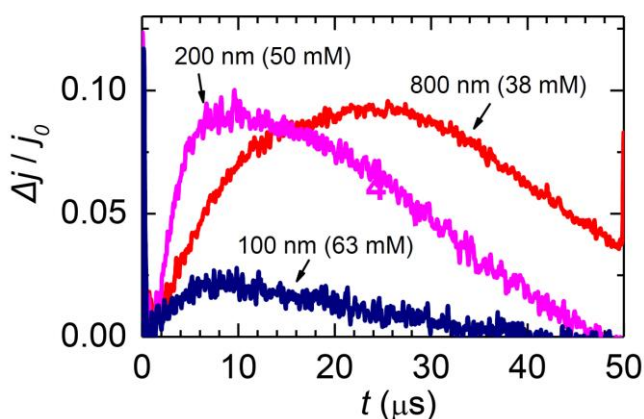


Figure 3. Photo-CELIV results for MAPbI₃ with size of 100 nm, 200 nm and 800 nm grown from SEM images showing dependence of crystal growth on MAI concentration of (a) 0.038 M and (b) 0.063 M.

Except for MAPbI₃, formamidinium (FA) cation can be stabilized in A-site of ABX₃ perovskite because of similar cationic size. Two-step deposited FAPbI₃ showing a PCE of 16% was found to be better in photostability than MAPbI₃ [8]. This might be related to phase transition issue. In the mesoscopic structure using mesoporous TiO₂ layer, it has been issued whether or not electrons generated in perovskite are injected to TiO₂. From the anatase and rutile TiO₂ layers and the nanohelix structure, electron injection was evident but injection happened in part [9,10]. As an oxide scaffold, 1-dimensional nanorods are expected to be good candidates because they provide suitable structure for better charge separation and transport as well. ZnO nanorod was applied to perovskite solar cell and confirmed to be good material for electron transport [11,12]. Solution processed and vacuum processed perovskites were reported to be 3-dimensional morphology. We recently prepared 1-dimensional MAPbI₃ by two-step solution process, where 1-dimensional growth of MAPbI₃ could be explained by liquid catalyst cluster model [13]. 1-D perovskite exhibited faster charge separation, higher conductivity, longer life time against radiative recombination than 3-D cuboid one.

In summary, organometal halide perovskite is very promising photovoltaic material owing to its superb opto-electronic property. In addition, facile fabrication process renders perovskite solar cell possible for low-cost mass production. Nevertheless, there are some critical issues to be solved such as moisture and thermal instability and lead toxicity. Progress in perovskite solar cell along with physico-chemical property of perovskite material is found from the review articles [14-16].

KEYWORDS: perovskite, solar cell, organometal halide, emergence

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