

Supplementary Information

Deep Levels, Charge Transport and Mixed Conductivity in Organometallic Halide Perovskites

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Methods

Single crystal growth

Lead bromide ($\geq 98\%$) and methylammonium bromide (MABr) were purchased from Alfa Aesar, Dimethylformamide (DMF) (anhydrous, 99.8%) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. All precursors and solvents were used as received. In the first method, single crystals of MAPbBr₃ were grown via an inverse temperature crystallization (ITC) method^[92] with a slightly modified temperature gradient (Samples No. 1 and No. 2). In this method, MABr and PbBr₂ were mixed with 1:0.8 molar ratio in 1 mL DMF solvent. The solution was stirred for 1 h and then filtered using a 0.2 μm PTFE filter. The solution was then placed in an oil bath on a hot plate and MAPbBr₃ single crystals were grown by slow temperature increase during overnight to 75 °C. After growth, the crystals were

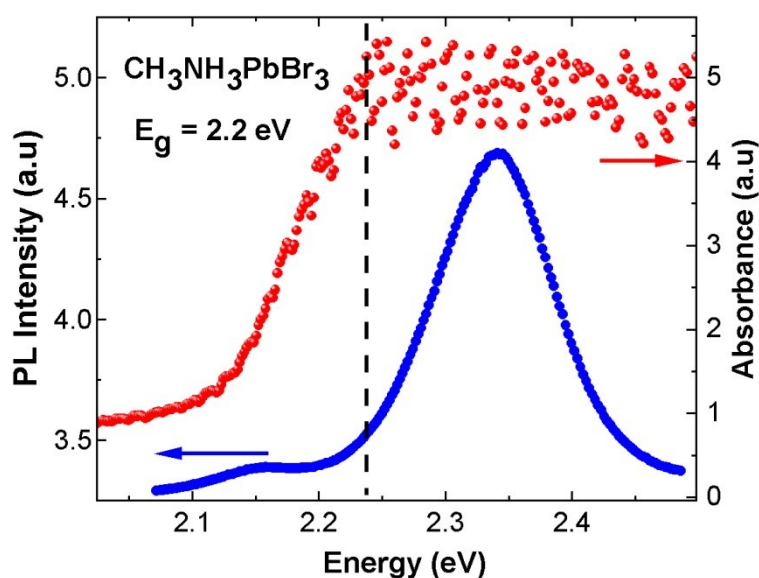
32 washed using dichloromethane (DCM). Samples typical resistivity of $3 \times 10^8 \Omega\text{cm}$ was found from
33 four-point resistivity measurements.

34 In the second method (sample No. 3), MAPbBr_3 single crystals were grown by dissolving PbBr_2 and
35 MABr in 2.5 ml DMF at 55°C for 1-1.5 hr. Then, $75 \mu\text{l}$ of HCOOH was added to the solution, and
36 after the dissolution of the formed precipitate, the solution was filtered through a syringe filter with
37 a pore size of $0.2 \mu\text{m}$. The solution was heated to 70°C for 15 minutes and then to 73°C for 40
38 minutes. During this time, many small crystals formed in solution as seed crystals. Next, the seed
39 crystals were placed in a fresh preheated solution, where they could grow larger at 55°C for 19 h.
40 This cycle was repeated 2 more times for growing larger crystals. The grown crystals were then dried
41 with Kimwipe. The whole crystallization was performed in the glovebox. Samples typical resistivity
42 of $5 \times 10^7 \Omega\text{cm}$ was found from four-point resistivity measurements.

43

44 UV-Visible and Photoluminescence spectroscopy

45 UV-visible and Photoluminescence spectroscopy was performed to confirm MAPbBr_3 band gap
46 energy (**Figure S1**). From UV-Visible absorption spectrum a sharp edge is observed at 540 nm with
47 the extrapolated bandgap energy of around 2.2 eV, in agreement with literature^[92]. The primary
48 photoluminescence emission peak is centered at 530 nm, and a secondary peak is centered at 575 nm
49 due to strong self-absorption, which are consistent with published results^[93].



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51 **Figure S1.** UV-Visible absorption (red circles) and PL spectra (blue circles) of MAPbBr_3 single
52 crystals.

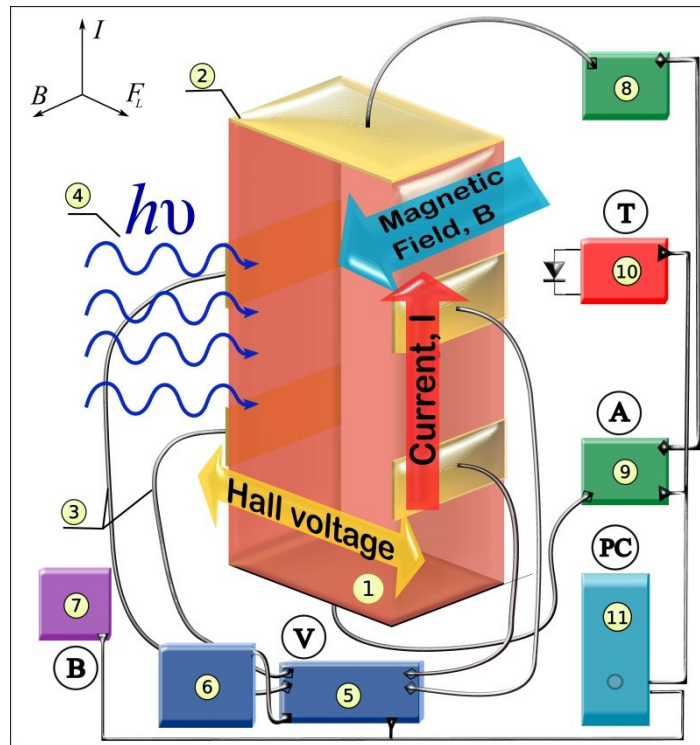
53 **Sample preparation for Photo Hall effect spectroscopy measurements**

54 Prior to contacts deposition, MAPbBr₃ samples were initially rinsed in pure toluene and then dried
55 using compressed dry air. The MAPbBr₃ single crystals were prepared in two different ways. The
56 first sample was glued on a silicone support with a commercially available acrylate lacquer (30 wt.
57 % in toluene). The front crystal face was mechanically covered by a mask made of aluminum foil.
58 The second sample was masked using only acrylate lacquer. The latter was dried by keeping crystals
59 in the open air for 10 minutes. Afterward, gold contacts were evaporated in 10⁻⁵ mbar vacuum; the
60 resulting samples were taken off the supports in pure toluene, additionally rinsed in the same solution
61 and dried in air flow. To prevent material degradation between measurements single crystals were
62 kept in dark condition in a sealed container over both moisture and oxygen absorbents.

63

64 **Photo Hall effect spectroscopy setup**

65 The principle of classical Hall-effect measurements and photo-Hall effect spectroscopy are depicted
66 in Figure S2. Bar-like samples were used in the classical six-contact Hall-bar shape convenient for
67 galvanomagnetic measurements. Samples with typical dimensions of 1×2.5×9 mm³ were used for
68 galvanomagnetic measurements. Hall-bar shape approximates the ideal geometry for for measuring
69 the Hall effect, in which the constant current density flows along the long axis of a rectangular solid,
70 perpendicular to an applied external magnetic field \mathbf{B} . The ideal six-contact Hall-bar geometry is
71 symmetrical. Side contact pairs are placed symmetrically about the midpoint of the sample's long
72 axis and located oppositely to each other. This geometry allows us two equivalent sets of
73 measurements of resistivity and Hall effect to eliminate possible sample non-homogeneity. Hall
74 voltage contacts must be located far enough from the sample's ends to avoid short circuit in the Hall
75 voltage that could lead to an underestimated actual Hall coefficient. The longitudinal voltage V ,
76 current I , and the transverse Hall voltage V_H were measured directly from the experiment. To calculate
77 the resistivity and Hall mobility we used the average values including different orientations of the
78 applied current and magnetic field. Measurements were performed at room temperature with a
79 constant magnetic field B of 1 T.



80

81 **Figure S2** Experimental set-up for conventional Hall effect, photo-Hall and photoconductivity
 82 measurements: 1 sample, 2 gold contacts, 3 silver wires, 4 monochromatic light, 5 switch system with
 83 Hall effect card (Keithley 7001), 6 system multimeter (Keithley 2000), 7 source for the electromagnet
 84 (15 A), 8 current source (Keithley 220), 9 picoammeter (Keithley 485), 10 GaAlAs diode for the
 85 temperature detection, 11 PC.

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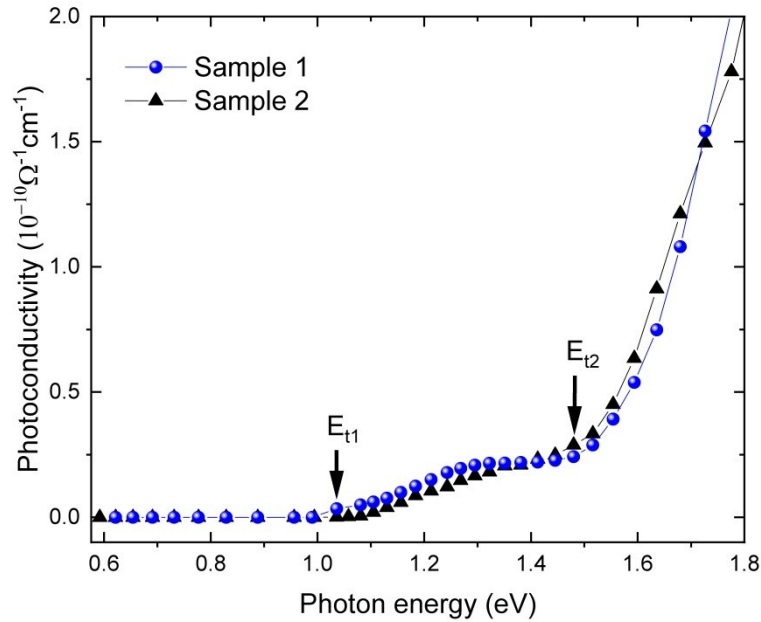
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98 MAPbBr₃ samples were studied by PHES in the energy range of 0.6-2.4 eV. The PhC spectra are
 99 shown in **Figure S3** in a linear scale. As can be seen, the initial photon energies started from 0.6 eV
 100 when the first increase was detected at 1.05 eV. The second threshold is detected at 1.48 eV.
 101



102
 103 **Figure S3** Photoconductivity spectra of two single crystals of MAPbBr₃ as a function of photon
 104 energy. Vertical arrows show the deep level threshold energy. Spectra are plotted in linear scale to
 105 show low photon energy data where no photoconductivity response was detected.

106

107 **Hall effect in material with mixed electronic and ionic conductivity:**

108 The increase of Hall coefficient and Hall signal enhancement can be explained by ions contribution
 109 as was qualitatively explained in Eq. (7) and Eq. (8). Here we have derived the ion contribution in
 110 detail:

111 The Hall signal in a semiconductor material without mixed conductivity follows below equation:

$$R_{H1} = \frac{V_{H1}d}{IB} = \frac{1}{q_e p} \quad (14)$$

112 The Hall voltage V_{H1} is defined by the hole concentration p . If now we consider a semiconductor with
 113 mixed conductivity, Eq. (14) is modified to:

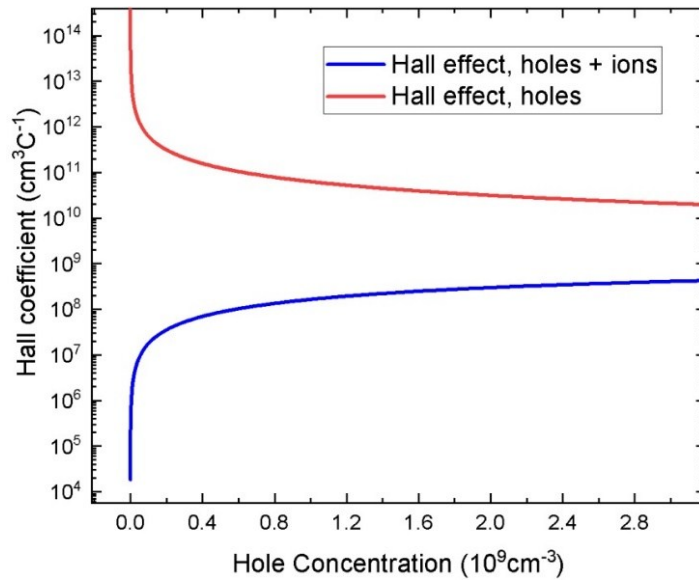
$$R_{H2} = \frac{V_{H2}d}{I \cdot B} = \frac{1}{q_e p \left(1 + \frac{\mu_i N_i}{\mu_p p}\right)^2} \quad (15)$$

114 As can be seen, the Hall signal is suppressed by the ionic impact $\mu_i N_i$:

$$\frac{1}{q_e p} > \frac{1}{q_e p \left(1 + \frac{\mu_i N_i}{\mu_p p}\right)^2} \quad (16)$$

115 The Hall signal in a semiconductor with pure electronic conductivity is higher ($V_{H1} > V_{H2}$) however,
 116 the Hall signal can be enhanced by the light illumination by increasing hole concentration as it was
 117 shown in the manuscript.

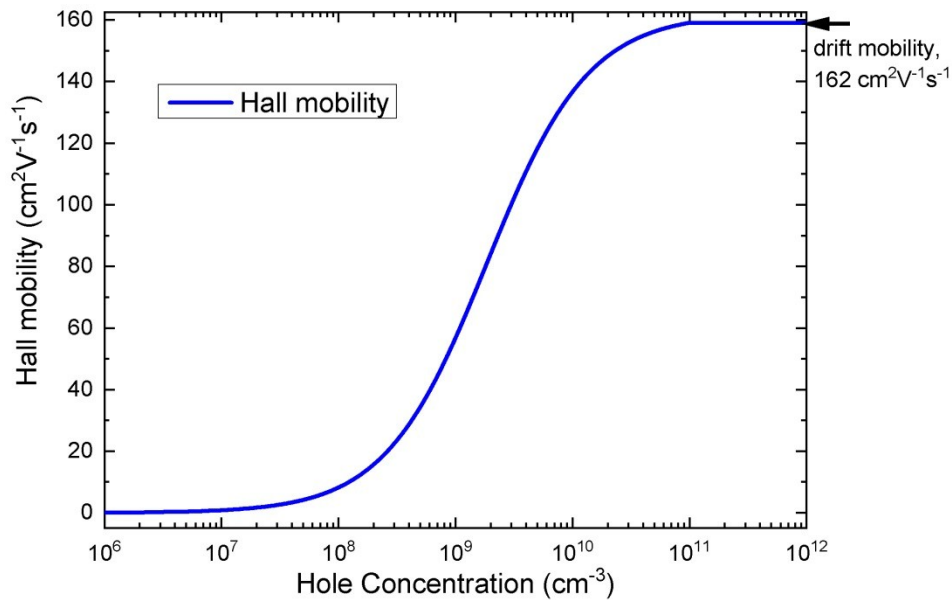
118 Here, R_{H1} and R_{H2} were plotted as a function of hole concentration in **Figure S4**. The value of $\mu_i N_i$
 119 product is fixed to $10^{11} \text{ cm}^{-1}\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ for simplicity. As it can be seen, the generation of free holes leads
 120 to an increase in Hall coefficient while ion free Hall coefficient decreases.



121

122 **Figure S4:** Plot of Hall coefficient as a function of holes concentration.

123 Consequently during photoexcitation when the hole concentration dominant the ion concentration,
 124 the Hall mobility is increased by free hole generation as seen in **Figure S4**. Note that Hall mobility
 125 does not directly represent drift mobility as derived in Eq. (4). To explicitly show this we have plotted
 126 μ_H as a function of hole concentration (according to Eq. (4)).



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128 **Figure S5:** Hall mobility as a function of hole concentration in semiconductor with mixed
 129 conductivity type.

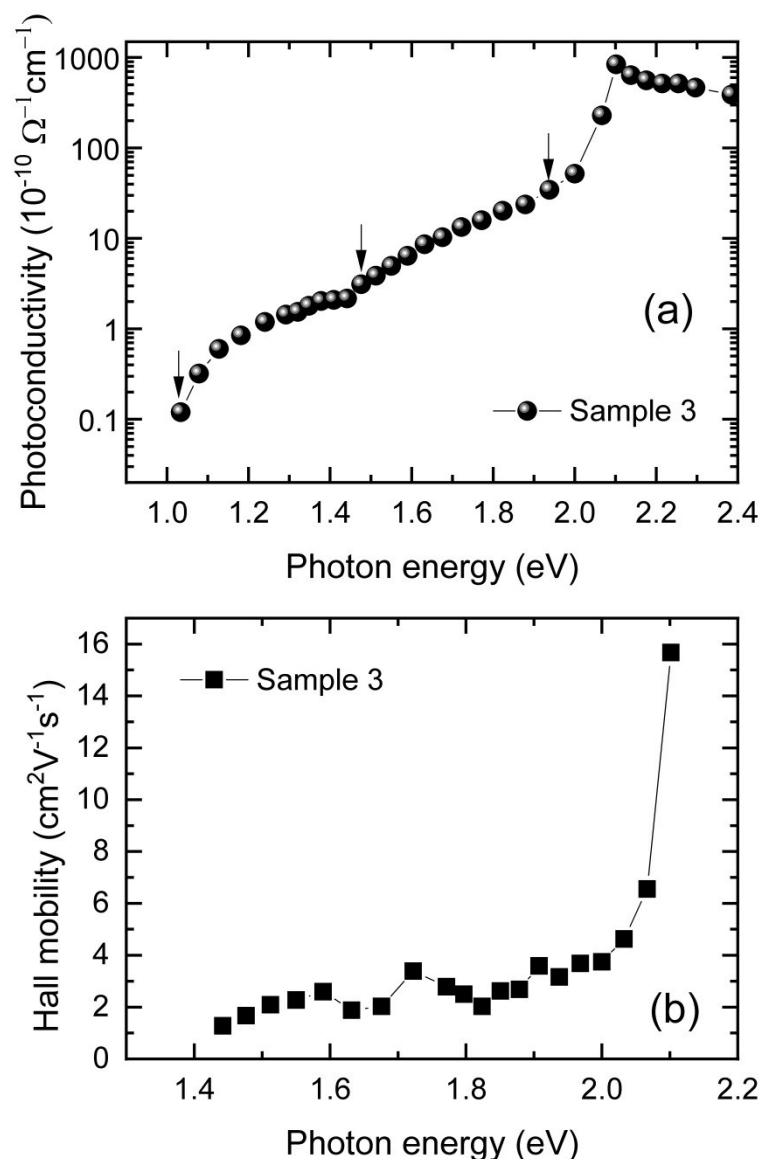
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131 As can be seen in **Figure S5**, Hall mobility starts from very low values $<1 \text{ cm}^2\text{V}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$ and then
 132 converges to hole drift mobility at higher hole concentration. Note that it is well established that ion
 133 concentration N_i can also enhance under illumination in OMHPs⁶⁶, but as it was shown in the
 134 manuscript this change is two orders of magnitude lower than the impact of free holes in the
 135 photoconductivity. Therefore, a slight increase in the ion concentration does not influence PHES deep
 136 level detection.

137 **Photo-Hall in MAPbBr₃ single crystals grown with the second method:**

138 Deep levels with activation energies $E_V + 1.05 \text{ eV}$, $E_V + 1.5 \text{ eV}$, and $E_V + 1.9 \text{ eV}$ ($E_C - 1.9 \text{ eV}$) were
 139 detected by PHES in MAPbBr₃ as shown in **Figure S6**. This sample was grown with a slightly
 140 different method in the lab of Czech Technical University in Prague (Details can be found in materials
 141 section).

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143

144 **Figure S6:** (a) Photoconductivity and (b) Hall mobility spectra of MAPbBr₃ single crystals grown in
 145 another laboratory as a function of photon energy. Vertical arrows show the deep level threshold
 146 energy.

147 **Single crystal degradation test**

148 Indeed, it is well established that the optoelectrical properties of OMHP can be highly influenced by
 149 the environmental atmosphere^[5,94,95]. In addition, degradation of OMHPs can be further enhanced
 150 under photoexcitation and external electric field. While single crystals of MAPbBr₃ maintain an
 151 impressive stability and the original orange color after exposure in ambient air for several months. In
 152 any study performed under ambient condition, it is almost impossible to prevent surface degradation
 153 or contamination. However, we expect that the possible degradation occurs only on the top few nm
 154 surface of the single crystals during the time frame of these measurements^[76]. In principle, water

155 intercalating to the bulk of single crystals could change the device conductivity/resistivity as was
 156 shown in previous studies^[96-98]. In this study, single crystal resistivity was measured by four probe
 157 resistivity and the single crystals showed an average resistivity of $(1.90 \pm 0.04) \times 10^8 \Omega\text{cm}$ before and
 158 $(1.96 \pm 0.03) \times 10^8 \Omega\text{cm}$ after PHES. The negligible changes in resistivity before and after the
 159 measurements suggest that within the time frame of our measurements, in terms of apparent resistivity
 160 the water has not infiltrated in the bulk of single crystals upon exposure to the ambient condition and
 161 hasn't influenced on the resulting DLs.

162 **Time of flight measurements**

163 MAPbBr₃ single crystals with a typical thickness of 1.8 mm are studied by laser-induced transient
 164 current measurements. For this experiment, two opposite gold contacts were deposited on single
 165 crystal MAPbBr₃ by thermal evaporation. A DC bias, varying between 6 V and 12 V, was applied to
 166 the sample. Anode side of the sample was illuminated by the above-bandgap pulse laser, that was
 167 powered by the amplified output of the arbitrary waveform generator. Both hole and electron signals
 168 were separately collected. Incident probe pulses had the wavelength of 450 nm, pulse width of 100
 169 ns, and the repetition rate was set to 100 Hz. We applied neutral density optical filter to attenuate the
 170 light pulse peak power to ~ 5 mW. So that, the used probe pulse intensity is weak enough not to affect
 171 the properties of the studied material. We use an in-house designed wide bandwidth high frequency
 172 voltage amplifier to record CWF by the digital sampling oscilloscope (4 GHz, 11 bit resolution). The
 173 detailed scheme of the ToF apparatus was shown in our previous works^[25,99].

174

175 **Shockley-Read-Hall recombination theory**

176 The Shockley-Read-Hall hole recombination-generation rate^[100] complemented by illumination-
 177 mediated deep level - band transitions is given by relations

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t} = - \sum_i U_i^h + \sum_i I_{vi} \quad (17)$$

$$U_i^h = \sigma_{hi} v_h [n_{ti} p - (N_{ti} - n_{ti}) p_{1i}], \quad (18)$$

$$I_{vi} = \tilde{I} \tilde{\alpha}_{hi} (N_{ti} - n_{ti}). \quad (19)$$

178 where n , p , $n_{ti}(p_{ti})$, U_i^h , are the densities of free electrons, free holes, electrons(holes) trapped in the
 179 i -th level, and hole net recombination rate at the i -th level. The quantities defining recombination
 180 rates n_{ti} , N_{ti} , σ_{hi} , and v_h in Eqs. (17-18) are intrinsic carrier density, i -th DL density, hole thermal
 181 capture cross section, and hole thermal velocity. Symbol p_{1i} stands for electron and hole densities in

182 case of Fermi level E_F being set equal to the DL ionization energy $E_{it}^{[100]}$. The effect of illumination
 183 on the i -th DL occupancy is defined by I_{ci} (I_{vi}) generation rate from i -th level to the conduction
 184 (valence) band where I , $\tilde{\alpha}_{ei}$, and $\tilde{\alpha}_{hi}$ are the photon flux and photon capture cross sections relevant to
 185 the conduction and valence band transition respectively. The simplified version of Eq. (17) in the case
 186 of single DL is used to find the hole capture cross section in this paper. The hole lifetimes τ can be
 187 found by relation

$$\tau = \frac{1}{\sum_i v_h \sigma_{hi} n_{ti}} \quad (20)$$

188 The inter-band light-induced generation rate and bimolecular recombination rate are neglected in the
 189 case of sub-bandgap illumination.

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 191