

RESEARCH ARTICLE SUMMARY

HYBRID PEROVSKITES

Atomic-scale microstructure of metal halide perovskite

Mathias Uller Rothmann, Judy S. Kim, Juliane Borchert, Kilian B. Lohmann, Colum M. O'Leary, Alex A. Shearer, Laura Clark, Henry J. Snaith, Michael B. Johnston, Peter D. Nellist*, Laura M. Herz*

INTRODUCTION: Hybrid metal halide perovskites are highly favorable materials for efficient photovoltaic and optoelectronic applications. The mechanisms behind their impressive performance have yet to be fully understood, but they likely depend on atomic-level properties that may be unique to these perovskites. Atomic-resolution transmission electron microscopy is well suited to provide new insights but is challenging because of the highly beam-sensitive nature of hybrid perovskites.

RATIONALE: We used low-dose scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) imaging to determine the microstructure of thin hybrid perovskite films. Thermally evaporated thin films of formamidinium and methylammonium lead triiodide (FAPbI₃ and MAPbI₃, respectively) were examined on ultrathin carbon-coated copper TEM grids to reveal the nature of boundaries, defects, and decomposition pathways.

RESULTS: Using low-dose low-angle annular dark field (LAADF) STEM imaging, we obtained atomic-resolution micrographs of FAPbI₃ films in the cubic phase. We found that prolonged electron irradiation leads to a loss of FA⁺ ions, which initially causes the perovskite structure to change to a partially FA⁺-depleted

but ordered perovskite lattice, apparent as light-and-dark checkered patterns in STEM images. Further electron beam exposure leads to the expected deterioration to PbI₂ as the final decomposition product. We propose that the observed intermediate checkered pattern is triggered by an initially random, beam-induced loss of FA⁺, followed by subsequent reordering of FA⁺ ions. The discovery of this intermediate structure explains why the perovskite structure can sustain significant deviations from stoichiometry and recovers remarkably well from damage.

We further revealed the atomic arrangement at interfaces within the hybrid perovskite films. We found that PbI₂ precursor remnants commonly encountered in hybrid perovskite films readily and seamlessly intergrow with the FAPbI₃ and MAPbI₃ lattice and can distort from their bulk hexagonal structure to form a surprisingly coherent transition boundary, exhibiting low lattice misfit and strain. We observed PbI₂ domains that nearly perfectly follow the surrounding perovskite structure and orientation, which suggests that PbI₂ may seed perovskite growth. These observations help to explain why the presence of excess PbI₂ tends not to impede solar cell performance.

Images of FAPbI₃ grain boundaries further revealed that the long-range perovskite struc-

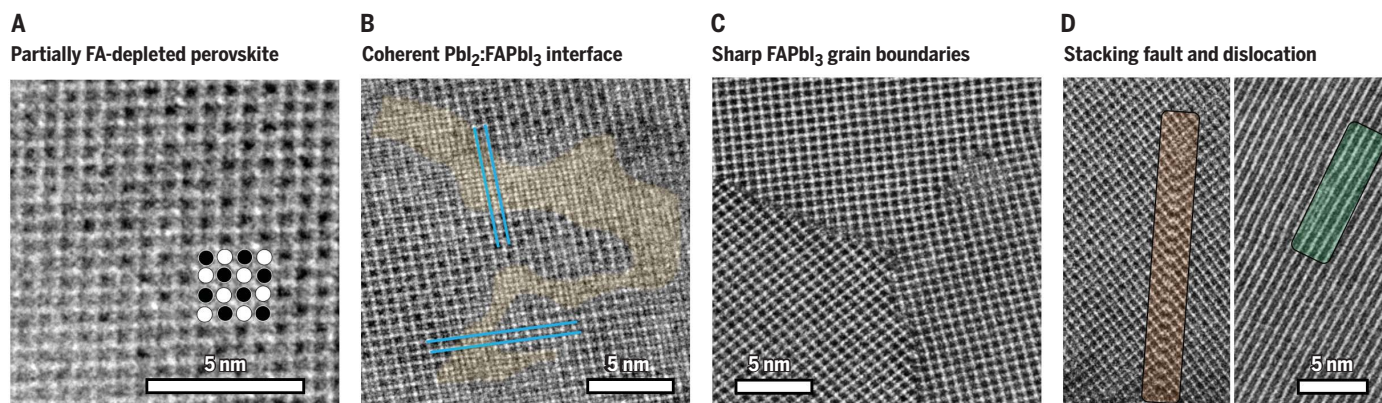
ture is preserved up to the grain boundaries, where sharp interfaces are generally present, without any obvious preferred orientation. Near-120° triple boundaries are most commonly observed at the intersection of three grains, which we generally found to be crystallographically continuous and associated with minimal lattice distortion.

Finally, we identified the nature of defects, dislocations, and stacking faults in the FAPbI₃ lattice. We discovered dislocations that are dissociated in a direction perpendicular to their glide plane (climb-dissociated), aligned point defects in the form of vacancies on the Pb-I sublattice, and stacking faults corresponding to a shift of half a unit cell, connecting Pb-I columns with I⁻ columns rather than with FA⁺ columns.

CONCLUSION: Our findings provide an atomic-level understanding of the technologically important class of hybrid lead halide perovskites, revealing several mechanisms that underpin their remarkable performance. The highly adaptive nature of the perovskite structure upon organic cation loss yields exceptional regenerative properties of partly degraded material. The observation of coherent perovskite interfaces with PbI₂ explains the barely diminished optoelectronic performance upon such precursor inclusions, while sharp interfaces between perovskite grains grant a benign nature. Such atomically localized information enables the targeted design of methods to eliminate defects and optimize interfaces in these materials. ■

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Atomic-resolution STEM images of FAPbI₃. (A) Checkered intensity pattern formed upon electron beam exposure with $\sim 200 \text{ e} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$. (B) Native intergrowth between PbI₂ (shaded yellow) and FAPbI₃ within the vapor-deposited film. (C) Abrupt grain boundaries meeting at a near-120° triple junction, showing no amorphous or intergranular phase. (D) Intrinsic stacking fault (orange rectangle, left) and climb-dissociated dislocation (green rectangle, right). Scale bars, 5 nm.

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Atomic-scale microstructure of metal halide perovskite

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Hybrid organic-inorganic perovskites have high potential as materials for solar energy applications, but their microscopic properties are still not well understood. Atomic-resolution scanning transmission electron microscopy has provided invaluable insights for many crystalline solar cell materials, and we used this method to successfully image formamidinium lead triiodide [CH(NH₂)₂PbI₃] thin films with a low dose of electron irradiation. Such images reveal a highly ordered atomic arrangement of sharp grain boundaries and coherent perovskite/PbI₂ interfaces, with a striking absence of long-range disorder in the crystal. We found that beam-induced degradation of the perovskite leads to an initial loss of formamidinium [CH(NH₂)₂⁺] ions, leaving behind a partially unoccupied perovskite lattice, which explains the unusual regenerative properties of these materials. We further observed aligned point defects and climb-dissociated dislocations. Our findings thus provide an atomic-level understanding of technologically important lead halide perovskites.

Many of the advances in the performance of hybrid metal halide perovskite (MHP) solar cells have resulted from improvements in device architecture and material composition studied on a mesoscopic to macroscopic scale (1–7), and changes in material properties have usually been inferred from relatively “large area” probes (8–11). Although these probes can resolve properties on the scale of a few hundred nanometers to a few millimeters, the mechanisms behind the impressive performance of hybrid perovskites have yet to be fully understood. However, the atomic-level nature of their properties can be inferred from the gradual rather than abrupt decrease in photovoltaic performance of MHPs over time (12), their ability to readily regenerate when exposed to gaseous iodo-organic precursors (13), and the counterintuitively beneficial effects of adding a small excess of PbI₂ [2% (14, 15) to 7.5% (16)] to the MHP precursor solution. Similarly, substantial efforts have been made to describe the properties of grain boundaries in MHP thin films by means of light and scanning probes (17–19), with highly inconsistent results (11, 17). Recent work has shown that a smaller spread of grain boundary orientations increases the photoluminescence intensity locally (20), but the exact atomic nature of grain boundaries has still not been described. Even the crystal phase

of the technologically important CH(NH₂)₂PbI₃ (formamidinium lead triiodide, FAPbI₃) MHP is still uncertain (21). Therefore, truly atomic-resolution imaging of MHPs has great potential to provide urgently needed understanding for a plethora of puzzling observations already established for perovskite devices, which in turn would lead to a further increase in their efficiency. In addition, grain boundaries have been postulated to have a substantial impact on the long-term stability of MHPs (22, 23), yet their exact nature is still mostly unknown.

Atomic-resolution transmission electron microscopy (TEM) may be of use in clarifying some of these aspects of MHPs, as it has for other crystalline solar cell materials (24, 25), but the highly beam-sensitive nature of hybrid perovskites makes high-resolution electron microscopy extremely challenging. Although fully inorganic photoactive perovskites have been successfully imaged (26), the few studies observing the pristine hybrid perovskite phase are based on nanostructures (27, 28), and no studies of pristine, native hybrid perovskite thin films have been published to date. Unstable under electron beams, MHPs rapidly change into a more stable PbI₂ phase under even mild electron irradiation (29, 30), which has resulted in striking differences in the crystallography reported by electron microscope and x-ray studies (11).

Imaging the perovskite structure

We used low-dose scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) to obtain images of pristine FAPbI₃, because it has been shown for other materials to produce less damage with the same total electron fluence (dose)

(31). To resolve both “near-stoichiometric” polycrystalline FAPbI₃ films and those formed with substantial excess PbI₂ precursor (“PbI₂-rich”), we prepared two different types of thermally evaporated materials on ultrathin carbon-coated copper TEM grids: thinner 30-nm FAPbI₃ films close to stoichiometry [FA:Pb:I ratios close to 1:1:3, containing a small excess of PbI₂ (as used to optimize for solar cell applications) (32)] and thicker 90-nm films containing substantial excess PbI₂. To examine whether similar atomic-scale microstructures were also observable for methylammonium lead triiodide (MAPbI₃), we also deposited 30-nm MAPbI₃ films containing substantial excess PbI₂. Full details of the sample preparation procedures and characterization are provided in the supplementary materials and fig. S1. We have reported thin films of FAPbI₃ and MAPbI₃ deposited by us from such dual-source vapor-deposition protocols to achieve photovoltaic power conversion efficiencies of 14.2 to 18.2% when incorporated into suitable device architectures (32, 33). STEM samples were annealed according to protocols previously developed to optimize photovoltaic performance.

In Fig. 1, we show a low-angle annular dark field (LAADF, inner radius of 33 mrad; see materials and methods for full low-dose image acquisition conditions) STEM micrograph of a 90-nm FAPbI₃ film containing excess PbI₂. LAADF STEM is similar to high-angle annular dark field (HAADF) STEM in that it detects scattered electrons, making it sensitive to atomic number (Z) variations, but has the advantage of collecting a higher fraction of the scattered electrons, leading to a higher atomic detection efficiency. In addition, LAADF STEM allows efficient imaging of lower-Z elements, which scatter at lower angles (34). To improve the contrast of this image of a pristine crystal, we applied a Bragg filter, as described in detail in materials and methods and in fig. S2.

The lower-magnification image in Fig. 1A reveals an atomic lattice pattern consistent with a cubic structure observed along the (001) orientation. The magnified image in Fig. 1B clearly shows the atomic-level crystal structure corresponding to the cubic structure of room-temperature FAPbI₃, displayed schematically in Fig. 1C (21). We note that the preferred alignment of growth along the [100] axis (“face-up”) is generally observed by us in these dual-source vapor-deposited films and is common for lead halide perovskite deposited across a variety of alternative processing techniques (35). We also note that an important advantage of LAADF imaging in this case is that, similar to HAADF imaging, the column intensities retain a monotonic dependence on atomic number. For completeness, a comparison with a HAADF image, acquired as described in materials and methods, is shown in fig. S3.

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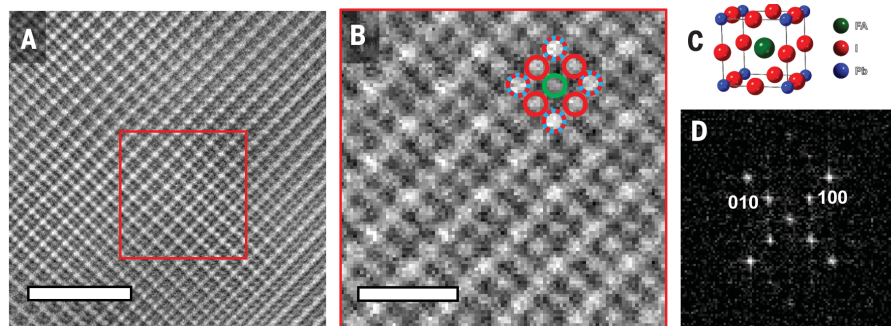


Fig. 1. Atomic-resolution imaging of the metal halide perovskite structure. (A) Bragg-filtered atomic-resolution LAADF STEM micrograph of a pristine 90-nm-thick, (001)-oriented FAPbI₃ film fabricated with excess PbI₂. A distinct pattern in the contrast of the individual atomic columns is clearly visible. (B) Magnification of the area within the red square in (A). Here, the variations in composition appear as differences in contrast; the dashed blue and red circles show the Pb/I columns, the red circles show the pure I columns, and the green circle shows the FA⁺ columns. (C) The atomic unit cell represented by the circles in (B). (D) The Fourier transformation (FT) confirms the presence of the {010} and {100} planes, which are often missing from atomic-resolution studies of beam-damaged FAPbI₃. Scale bars, 5 nm (A), 1 nm (B). The total dose used for image acquisition in (A) and (B) is $\sim 100 \text{ e} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$. See fig. S2 for a comparison of the full image for raw (unfiltered), Butterworth-filtered, and Bragg-filtered data.

Three levels of intensity are observable in the LAADF images. The brightest corresponds to the corners of the cubic unit cell (dashed blue and red circles in Fig. 1B), containing alternating lead and iodine, which are both strongly scattering elements. The second brightest intensity corresponds to the edges of the unit cell containing only iodine, illustrated by the red circles in Fig. 1B. In the z viewing direction, the corners make up a total of one lead atom and one iodine per unit cell, whereas the edge position only contains one iodine, resulting in less scattering and a less bright image intensity. The central, lowest-intensity position corresponds to the FA⁺ ions, which scatter the least because of their organic nature and singular presence in the center of the unit cell (34). Intensity line profiles and a multislice simulation verifying the differences in contrast are provided in fig. S4.

To support structure identification, we performed a Fourier transformation (FT; Fig. 1D) on the area marked in Fig. 1A, which clearly identifies the presence of the (100) and (010) planes along with the (200) and (020) planes. Of the three proposed room-temperature crystal phases of FAPbI₃ [cubic, trigonal, and hexagonal (21)], the spots corresponding to the (100) and (010) planes are unique to the cubic perovskite structure and cannot correspond to either of the other two. This strongly indicates that the room-temperature phase of FAPbI₃ is cubic in the $Pm\bar{3}m$ space group.

We note that the (100) and (010) FT spots evident in Fig. 1D have been absent in previous atomic-resolution STEM studies of both FAPbI₃ and MAPbI₃, with only the supposed (200) and (020) or other higher-index spots still visible (36–39). Broad-beam diffraction

studies carried out on MAPbI₃ have explained this apparent absence of lower-order diffraction signatures as the result of structural damage caused by high electron irradiation dosage (29, 30). Thus, the spots attributed to the second-order diffraction off the perovskite lattice may instead derive from the PbI₂ formed as a decomposition product under intense electron irradiation (40, 41).

Electron-induced decomposition

Using a suitably chosen irradiation dosage, we were able to observe the gradual decomposition of FAPbI₃ with electron beam exposure. Figure 2A shows a lower-magnification Butterworth-filtered LAADF image of a pristine grain boundary in a 30-nm-thick FAPbI₃ film close to stoichiometry on a carbon-coated TEM grid after a single scan of the electron beam, with a total dose of $\sim 66 \text{ e} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$. The subsequent scans were also recorded (Fig. 2, B to D). After three scans ($\sim 200 \text{ e} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$), the contrast within the perovskite structure has visibly changed, and after nine scans ($\sim 600 \text{ e} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$), the perovskite structure is completely depleted and replaced by a crystal structure with uniform column intensities (Fig. 2C). Further extensive exposure ($\sim 1333 \text{ e} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$) slightly alters this phase so that it is very similar to 2H-hexagonal PbI₂ (Fig. 2D). This final structure is highly stable, does not change substantially after further exposure, and corresponds well to the PbI₂ phase observed by diffraction in broad-beam TEM studies (29). A full crystallographic determination of the phase seen in Fig. 2C is beyond the scope of this study, but fig. S10 shows how a small distortion of hexagonal PbI₂ can form a structure that projects as a square lattice and forms a coherent epitaxial

interface with FAPbI₃ as observed in the image data. The FTs in Fig. 2, E to H, show the degradation process on a crystallographic level: For the pristine perovskite, diffraction spots corresponding to the {100} plane family are initially clearly visible (Fig. 2E). Additional spots appear after brief exposure (Fig. 2F, orange circles), likely corresponding to the ordered loss of formamidinium ions discussed below. Continued exposure fully destroys the perovskite structure, transforming it into electron irradiation-stable PbI₂ concomitant with the disappearance of the {100} plane family of the original perovskite (Fig. 2G) and finally into a structure similar to that of 2H-hexagonal PbI₂ (Fig. 2H).

Nanoscale properties of metal halide perovskites

The implementation of a low electron dose, $< 200 \text{ e} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$, inevitably results in a low signal-to-noise ratio when images are recorded. We find that combining low-dose LAADF imaging with simple Butterworth and Bragg filters allows us to investigate pristine and slightly damaged FAPbI₃ thin films with atomic resolution, observing phenomena invisible to other techniques. The details of each filtering technique are provided in materials and methods and in fig. S5. Our findings are based on hundreds of STEM images taken across seven or eight thin-film samples prepared for each stoichiometry; the images we present were carefully chosen to be representative of each material's microstructural features.

In Fig. 3, A to C, we show LAADF images of polycrystalline perovskite films fabricated with excess PbI₂. We observe a surprisingly coherent transition boundary between remnant precursor PbI₂ (highlighted in light orange) and the FAPbI₃ grains, with undetectable lattice misfit. In addition, a light and dark checkered pattern becomes clearly visible in images of FAPbI₃ after mild radiation damage, as highlighted schematically in the lower right of Fig. 3A through white and black circles and seen surrounding the PbI₂ region in Fig. 3D. We propose that the observed checkered pattern in the central position of the FAPbI₃ unit cell is triggered by an initially random, beam-induced loss of FA⁺, likely due to dissociation of the FA⁺ by radiolysis (42, 43), potentially complemented by loss of I⁻ through knock-on (displacement) effects (41). We postulate that the remaining FA⁺ ions then migrate to form an ordered structure with an associated energy reduction that helps to stabilize the FA⁺-deficient structure. Such migration of FA⁺ ions within the perovskite structure after electron irradiation then results in the observed checkered pattern as an intermediate equilibrium (29). A degradation mechanism assuming solely the ordered loss of I⁻ was previously proposed on the basis of analysis of diffraction

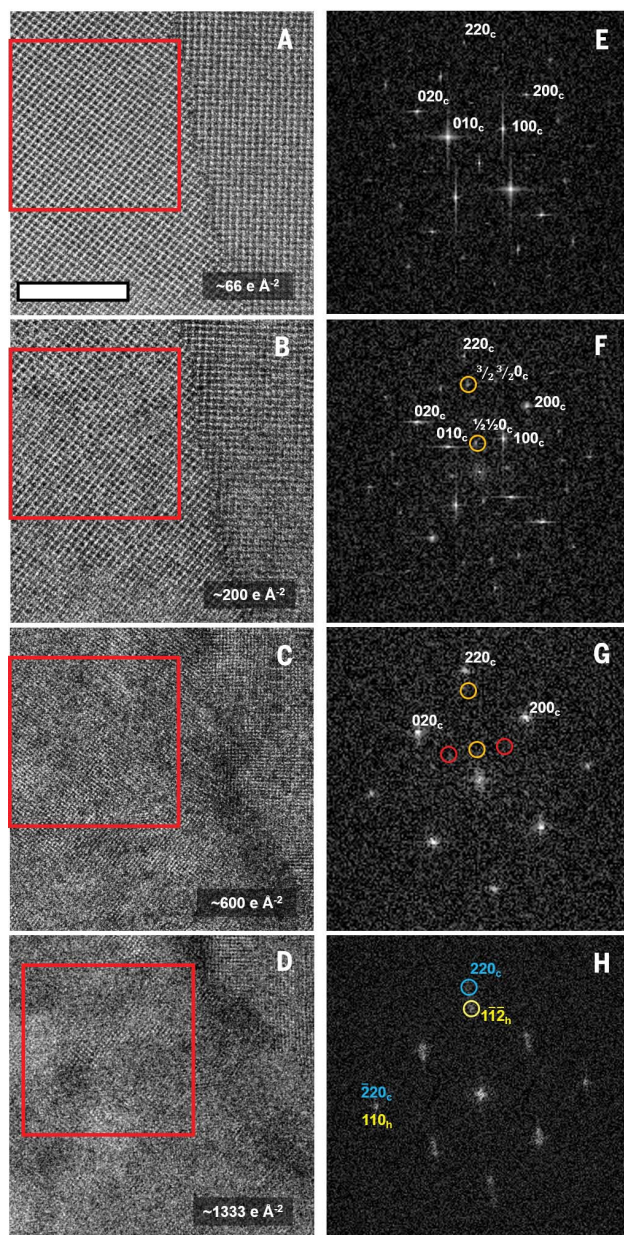


Fig. 2. Damage mechanism of FAPbI₃ under a scanning electron beam observed in a 30-nm-thick film prepared near the correct stoichiometry. (A) The first scan ($\sim 66 \text{ e} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$) shows the pristine perovskite structure and a grain boundary. (B) After three scans ($\sim 200 \text{ e} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$), changes in the crystal structure are apparent in the LAADF image but the grain boundary is still distinguishable. (C) After nine scans ($\sim 600 \text{ e} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$), the perovskite structure has fully disappeared and a new crystalline phase has replaced it. Different crystal orientations are visible, but there is no clear grain boundary. (D) After 20 scans ($\sim 1333 \text{ e} \text{ \AA}^{-2}$), the angles of the crystal planes change slightly, indicating the complete transformation into 2H-PbI₂. (E to H) The Fourier transformations corresponding to the areas in the red squares in (A) to (D), respectively, confirm the dynamic radiation-induced transformation. Initially, the FT in (E) reveals a pristine cubic structure, but additional spots appear after brief exposure, circled in orange in (F). After further exposure, the additional spots disappear again, along with the $\{100\}$ spots, whose expected location is marked by red circles in (G). Finally, after extended exposure, the FT contains two sets of spots: one set that can be indexed with the degraded cubic phase and another corresponding to the hexagonal PbI₂ phase, marked with a blue and a yellow circle in (H), respectively. The $\bar{2}20_c$ (2.2493 \AA) and 110_h (2.2775 \AA) spots overlap, indicating an intergrowth of the two phases. Indices marked with a subscript “c” are from the epitaxial FAPbI₃ phase; those marked with a subscript “h” are from the hexagonal PbI₂ phase. Note that the material is no longer in its pristine perovskite phase after the initial scan and the “c” subscript only serves to illustrate the corresponding plane in the pristine phase. Scale bar, 10 nm [(A) to (D)].

patterns alone (30); however, we note that this approach struggles to distinguish between ordered loss of FA⁺ and I⁻. Although vacancy ordering is clearly apparent on the FA⁺ sublattice, there is no equivalent effect evident for the I or Pb/I columns (see fig. S8A for intensity line profiles corresponding to Fig. 3D). Our direct interpretation of real-space images is thus able to reveal that the degradation is strongly driven by the loss, and likely subsequent reordering, of FA⁺ ions.

As further elaborated below, these microstructural features help to explain important phenomena pertinent to perovskite solar cells. Specifically, small amounts of PbI₂ are not detrimental to the solar cell performance (14–16) because perfect crystallographic alignment between the PbI₂ and FAPbI₃ perovskite occurs at the material interface, and no crystal defects are apparent in this region. The observation of the checkered pattern further explains why the perovskite structure can sustain substantial deviations from stoichiometry and recover remarkably well from damage.

We note that at cryogenic temperatures, MAPbI₃ has been shown to amorphize under electron irradiation rather than inducing the gradual, ordered restructuring of the crystal observed at room temperature (29). Rothmann *et al.* argued that such amorphization at low temperatures is the result of impeded ion mobility (29), further supporting our notion here that ion migration is a key factor in mitigating the beam-induced damage through atomic rearrangement.

We further examined the nature of the native interfaces formed between FAPbI₃ and its precursor PbI₂ (Fig. 3). Small amounts of PbI₂ surprisingly do not impede solar cell performance (14–16), but the reasons for such benign influence are still a matter of debate. We were able to reveal the presence of a low-misfit, low-lattice strain interface between FAPbI₃ and PbI₂ by examining the intergrowth between FAPbI₃ and PbI₂ in a film grown specifically under PbI₂-rich conditions (see materials and methods). In Fig. 3B, a nanoscopic domain of PbI₂ with a continuous transition into FAPbI₃ can be seen in the upper right corner, with the continuous transition likely arising because of the inclination of the interface to the beam direction. The PbI₂ domain perfectly follows the surrounding perovskite structure and orientation. The lack of evidence for misfit dislocations (see fig. S9 for more examples) shows that the interface is highly coherent and epitaxial. We note that the known 2H hexagonal phase of PbI₂ could not be coherent with the cubic FAPbI₃ in all directions in the interface, but that a modified 2H structure described in fig. S10 can be coherent with the perovskite and is possibly stabilized by its interface with FAPbI₃ (see fig. S10 for an atomic model), as evidenced by the

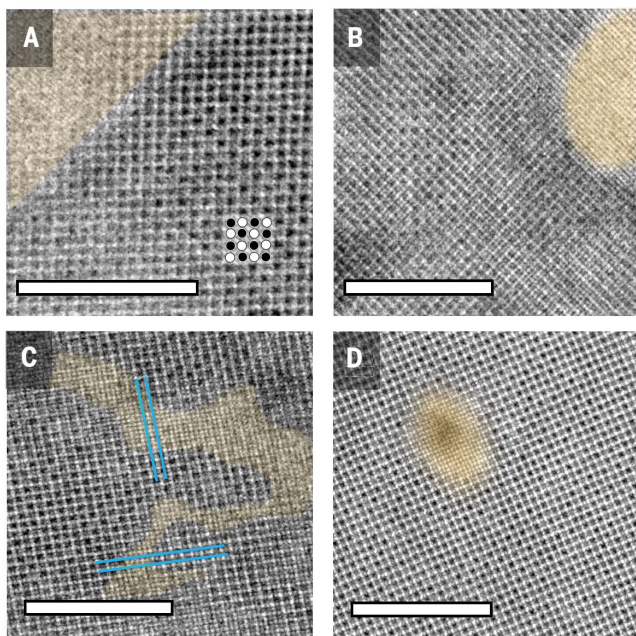


Fig. 3. Atomic-resolution LAADF micrographs of FAPbI₃ thin films showing undistorted transitions between PbI₂ and FAPbI₃, as well as a checked intensity after mild radiation damage. PbI₂ is highlighted in light orange. (A to C) Native intergrowth between PbI₂ and FAPbI₃ formed during the deposition process in 90-nm-thick FAPbI₃ films fabricated with excess PbI₂. (D) A local area of PbI₂ formation induced by focusing an electron beam on a near-stoichiometric FAPbI₃ thin film. The highlighted area in (D) corresponds to the damage phase displayed in Fig. 2C; the surrounding area corresponds to that shown in Fig. 2B. The transitions do not induce any measurable phase boundary misfit distortions in the crystal lattice. The nanoscopic PbI₂ domain surrounded by FAPbI₃ in (C) indicates that PbI₂ can act as a seed for growth of FAPbI₃ crystals. The parallel blue lines in (C) begin in a Pb/I lattice site and end in an FA⁺ lattice site after crossing a PbI₂ domain, indicating that areas on either side of the PbI₂ are crystallographically separated and that the presence of PbI₂ is not beam-induced. A checked pattern in the intensity of the FA⁺ lattice site is visible in (A), (C), and (D), schematically shown as black and white circles in (A). This pattern is indicative of a highly ordered restructuring of the moieties in the crystal after mild electron radiation damage. The Fourier transform of (A) is shown in fig. S6. All micrographs were Butterworth-filtered. Scale bars, 10 nm. The same figure is shown without the overlaid color graphics and with Fourier transforms in fig. S7.

square nature of the observed lattice. The weak van der Waals binding between the strongly ionically bound PbI₂ sheets enables the existence of many different PbI₂ polytypes (44), and a small shift between the layers of the 2H structure does allow coherent interfaces to form with FAPbI₃ (fig. S10) (44). This coherence also indicates that the PbI₂ has either acted as a seed for the surrounding perovskite or has grown out of the perovskite because of a local lack of FAI.

Further evidence for PbI₂ seeding is revealed in Fig. 3C, where irregularly shaped domains of PbI₂ can be seen to interweave with the perovskite lattice. Here, we observe a shift of half a unit cell in the perovskite crystal across the PbI₂ domain, as evidenced by the two sets of parallel blue lines. These lines, oriented in the (100) direction, begin in an FA⁺ lattice site on one side of the PbI₂ domain and end in a Pb/I lattice site on the other side. These columns are not found together on the same {100} plane in a perfect

crystal, so there must be a relative shift of half a unit cell on either side of the PbI₂ region. The LAADF signal intensity line profile displayed in fig. S8B further illustrates this shift across the PbI₂ region. It is unlikely for degradation of FAPbI₃ to have resulted in the growth of such an epitaxial PbI₂ phase that exhibits a half-unit cell distortion of the FAPbI₃ matrix, because the low misfit of the interface would not give a driving force for such a distortion of the FAPbI₃ structure. We can therefore conclude that the perovskite has grown out of the PbI₂ and not vice versa. Despite this shift, geometric phase analysis strain mapping (fig. S11) shows an absence of substantial strain associated with this perovskite/PbI₂ interface. Shown in fig. S12, A and B, are examples of the half-unit cell shift and the PbI₂ intergrowth, respectively, similarly occurring in pristine perovskite that has not suffered electron beam damage. These observations provide further evidence that the presence of perovskite/PbI₂ intergrowth is not caused by radiation-

induced damage, but is an intrinsic property of the material, present from the point of crystal growth. To verify that this approach is also applicable to other hybrid perovskites, we also imaged PbI₂-rich MAPbI₃ and found similar crystallographic properties (fig. S13).

Grain boundaries and crystal defects

We further revealed the nature of the boundaries between individual FAPbI₃ grains through high-resolution LAADF imaging. Such grain boundaries are of particular interest for perovskite solar cells because they have been proposed to act both as charge recombination centers (18, 45, 46) and as conduction pathways (16). In addition, grain boundaries have been shown to be intimately linked with the long-term stability of MHPs such as FAPbI₃ (22) and the photostability of mixed-halide perovskites toward halide segregation (23). Therefore, much effort has been devoted to passivating their negative impact and promoting their positive influence through appropriate treatments and film growth (11, 16, 19, 47–50). Although many techniques have been used to infer properties of the grain boundaries in photoactive perovskites (11, 17), reliable imaging with atomic resolution has remained elusive, which has led to some uncertainty about the inherent nature of the boundaries (17, 50). A full understanding of the crystallographic nature of grain boundaries is likely to explain a plethora of observations already well established in the field of perovskite solar cell devices, leading to further improvements in performance.

Butterworth-filtered LAADF images (Fig. 4, A to C) illustrate a representative set of grain boundaries in an evaporated thin film of FAPbI₃, with several striking features. First, the grains are highly crystalline adjacent to the boundaries, showing that the presence of the boundaries does not disrupt the long-range crystal quality of the surrounding perovskite. Second, the grain boundaries themselves are clearly defined, with the perovskite structure remaining unchanged to the interface, with no obvious preferred interfacial orientation and typically no amorphous material visible. These two points are illustrated by the strain maps displayed in fig. S16. Although an exhaustive description of the strain associated with all the potential boundaries is beyond the scope of this study, we have mapped the strain associated with the low-angle grain boundary seen in the lower left of Fig. 4B. We find that the strain is negligible to within one or two unit cells away from the boundary. Along the boundary itself, the strain exhibits a periodic behavior with alternating sign, which arises from the periodic array of edge dislocations forming the grain boundary. The *yy* strain (lying close to perpendicular to the dislocation Burgers vectors) is much lower at the boundary.

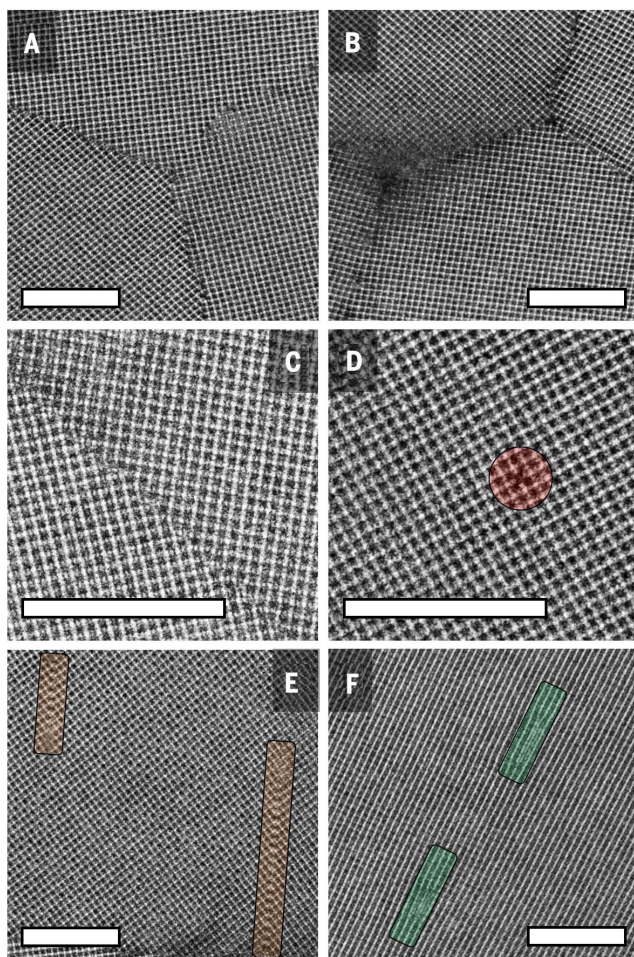


Fig. 4. Butterworth-filtered atomic-resolution LAADF micrographs of representative FAPbI₃ grain boundaries and crystal defects as seen in a 30-nm-thick film prepared close to the correct stoichiometry. (A) Abrupt grain boundaries meeting at a triple junction showing no amorphous or intergranular phase. (B) A triple junction showing signs of amorphization in the intersection at left and a line of vacancies at the intersection at right. The boundaries appear randomly oriented, with the presence of a curved boundary visible in the upper right corner. The low-angle grain boundary at the lower left is formed by a series of $\langle 100 \rangle$ edge dislocations. (C) A straight section of a grain boundary with virtually no empty lattice sites and very little distortion across the boundary. (D) Aligned vacancy defects on the I/Pb lattice site are seen in the red circle. (E) Intrinsic stacking faults are seen in the orange rectangles with a stacking fault vector of $\frac{1}{2}\langle 110 \rangle$. (F) Edge dislocations are seen in the green rectangles with a Burgers vector of $\langle 100 \rangle$. The dislocations can be seen to have dissociated in the climb direction, forming two partial dislocations with Burgers vector $\frac{1}{2}\langle 100 \rangle$ when projected into the image plane, resulting in a fault lying perpendicular to the glide plane. Scale bars, 10 nm. The figure is shown without the colored highlights in fig. S15.

Near-120° triple boundaries are commonly observed at the intersection of three grains. Figure 4A shows a typical image of a triple boundary in a FAPbI₃ film, which we generally found to be crystallographically continuous, with minimal lattice distortion and no defects extending away from the grain boundary plane associated with them. Across the STEM micrographs examined, we found this type of “clean” triple boundary to be the most common in FAPbI₃, with fig. S14 providing further examples as well as an illustration of the wide range of grain boundary angles found within the films.

Although most grain boundaries in these evaporated FAPbI₃ films appear to be highly ordered and sharp, some exceptions also occur. For example, the triple boundary displayed in Fig. 4B contains amorphous material and aligned point defects, as seen at the left and right, respectively. Such variation in the nature of grain boundaries observed here for FAPbI₃ may thus also explain the disparity in the grain boundary properties reported in MAPbI₃, ranging from detrimental (18, 45, 46) to beneficial (16), or even both (11, 17). If a particular preparation method favors a particu-

larly beneficial or detrimental type of grain boundary, it can improve or decrease solar cell performance, respectively.

Finally, we uncovered the presence of aligned point defects and stacking faults in FAPbI₃. The nature and distribution of crystal defects in photoactive perovskites is a topic that has received much attention, but the exact nature of these defects is still unclear (41). Most studies and simulations have focused on point defects and their influence on charge-carrier properties (51). As revealed in Fig. 4D, aligned point defects in the form of vacancies on the Pb-I sublattice are indeed present in the FAPbI₃ crystal. We find here that stacking faults (Fig. 4E) and edge dislocations (Fig. 4F) are also very common in FAPbI₃.

Interestingly, the stacking faults shown in Fig. 4E correspond to a shift of half a unit cell, connecting Pb-I columns with I⁻ columns rather than with Pb-I columns. Edge dislocations are also present, as highlighted in the green rectangles in Fig. 4F. The dislocations are dissociated in a direction perpendicular to their glide plane, and are thus referred to as climb-dissociated, with an apparent region of PbI₂ forming the planar fault that joins the dislocations.

Discussion

Resolving the atomic structure of FAPbI₃ thin films allows us to explain many of the intriguing properties of MHPs that had already been well established in the literature but had remained mysterious. The observed loss of FA⁺ through an intermediate perovskite structure displaying a checkered FA⁺ vacancy pattern provides direct clues to the ability of MHPs to sustain deviations in stoichiometry, and to the regenerative capacity of hybrid organic-inorganic MHPs. This mechanism is likely to be general, given that gradual changes have also been observed in photoluminescence and cathodoluminescence spectra when MHPs are exposed to photon (52) and electron (53) irradiation, respectively; such changes do not occur in all-inorganic photoactive perovskites (53). It can also be presumed to underpin the readily regenerative properties of photobleached MAPbI₃ solar cells when they are exposed to gaseous MAI (13); such a mechanism would be consistent with the lead iodide perovskite framework remaining even after substantial loss of the organic A-cation. This highly adaptable and resilient structure can thus accommodate large stoichiometry changes without collapsing, which, along with its potential for regeneration, is a clear advantage for applications. Such resilience of structure, induced by ion migration, may well be unique to MHPs, as compared to other more covalent crystalline solids, and is likely to be the origin of the “radiation hardness” of MHPs, which

makes them useful in space applications and as gamma and x-ray detectors.

In addition, the observed atomically coherent nature of perovskite/PbI₂ interfaces explains how the presence of PbI₂ can enhance the crystal quality of MHP films (16) by acting as seeds for crystal growth while not adversely affecting the local optoelectronic properties of the material. Higher-energy charge carriers generated in PbI₂ can easily transfer to the lower-energy perovskite, thereby contributing to the overall photogenerated current (54), which is relatively unaffected by the perovskite/PbI₂ boundaries. The highly ordered nature of the perovskite/PbI₂ boundary is therefore a core mechanism underpinning the facile fabrication of high-performance solar cells. In essence, this feature forms the MHP analog of the native SiO₂-Si interface, which is benign and is probably the main reason why our electronics industry is primarily based on silicon.

The presence of predominantly sharp, strain-free boundaries between individual FAPbI₃ grains is a vital clue to the reasons for the high performance of perovskite solar cells based on polycrystalline films. Grain boundaries in other polycrystalline semiconductor solar cells are generally detrimental to performance, decreasing the short-circuit current density and introducing trap states (55, 56). The revelation of such sharp boundaries in evaporated FAPbI₃ films, with some amorphous exceptions, therefore presents a first step toward understanding the exact nature of grain boundaries in perovskite solar cells, through which improved control can ensure the highest possible solar cell performance and stability. In addition, our acquisition of truly atomic-resolution images, enabled through careful choices of image acquisition and filtering approaches, will form the basis of investigations into the microstructure of MHPs across a wide range of different stoichiometries. For example, the addition of small fractions of Cs to replace some of the FA cations in FAPbI₃ has been shown to enhance material stability and crystallinity (57), which may link with the nature of grain boundaries.

Finally, stacking faults have been shown to act as recombination sites in dislocation-free silicon (58), and edge dislocations decrease the photoluminescence intensity in multicrystalline silicon (59). Our identification of aligned point defects in the form of vacancies on the FA⁺ sublattice and climb-dissociated dislocations in FAPbI₃ provides first insights into the specific forms taken by such defects in MHPs. Such information will pave the way for future modeling of defects based on first principles, which can reveal the impact such defects have on the optoelectronic properties of MHPs, and the subsequent performance of perovskite solar cells.

Materials and methods

Sample preparation

FAPbI₃ and MAPbI₃ thin films were deposited on the carbon-coated side of 300-mesh copper TEM grids. Immediately before deposition, the grids were cleaned with O₂ plasma for 0.3 min. CH(NH₂)₂I (FAI) and PbI₂ were co-evaporated in a customized thermal evaporation chamber described previously (60). Heating of the sources started when the chamber pressure fell below 5×10^{-6} mbar. The PbI₂ rate was kept constant at 0.23 \AA s^{-1} , measured using a gold-plated quartz microbalance (QMB). For the “PbI₂-rich” FAPbI₃ films with substantial excess of PbI₂, the FAI rate was set to 40% of the rate used for the “near-stoichiometric” FAPbI₃ films. This resulted in FAI crucible temperatures of $\sim 150^\circ\text{C}$ during the deposition of the PbI₂-rich FAPbI₃ films and 180°C during the deposition of the near-stoichiometric FAPbI₃ films. During deposition, the pressure increased to 1×10^{-5} to 2×10^{-5} mbar for the PbI₂-rich FAPbI₃ films, and to 5×10^{-5} to 9×10^{-5} mbar for the near-stoichiometric FAPbI₃ films. The duration of the overall perovskite deposition was controlled such that the film thickness was 90 nm for the PbI₂-rich FAPbI₃ films and 30 nm for the near-stoichiometric FAPbI₃ films. After deposition, all films were annealed at 170°C for 1 min. The films were stored in a nitrogen-filled glove box after preparation and transported to the microscope in a triple-sealed nitrogen atmosphere to prevent exposure to moisture.

CH₃NH₃PbI₃ (MAPbI₃) thin films were prepared using a recently published method (32). CH₃NH₃I (MAI, Greatcell) and PbI₂ (99.999% metal base, Sigma-Aldrich) were co-evaporated in the same custom Lesker thermal evaporator chamber. Heating of the sources started when the chamber pressure fell below 5×10^{-6} mbar. During the subsequent evaporation, the pressure increased to 1×10^{-5} to 2×10^{-5} mbar. The PbI₂ rate was kept constant at 0.30 \AA s^{-1} using a gold-plated QMB; the MAI temperature was controlled to aim for an overall MAPbI₃ deposition rate of 0.45 \AA s^{-1} , as measured by a QMB located next to the substrate. For the depositions used in this work, this involved ramping the MAI crucible from 175.1°C to 175.6°C over 1070 s, for 1.1 g of MAI initially in the crucible. The substrate was cooled to 0°C during the deposition; the sensors were cooled to 17°C .

All samples were loaded rapidly into the microscope, being in contact with air for less than 1 min. Perovskite film thicknesses were determined from calibration of material deposition rates of the two sources according to QMB readings inside the vacuum chamber, supported by film depositions on hard transparent quartz substrates for which film thickness readings were determined from a combination of Dektak profilometer readings and optical transmission measurements.

Image acquisition

Microscopy for imaging and condition development was performed on two microscopes. LAADF and HAADF imaging was performed on a JEOL ARM-200F cold FEG, Cs probe-corrected STEM, using 200 kV acceleration voltage and 20 to 21 mrad convergence angle. An annular dark field detector at 8 cm camera length was used for signal acquisition, with inner and outer collection angles of 33 and 120.77 mrad for LAADF imaging, and 72.80 and 235.75 mrad for HAADF imaging, respectively. A JEOL ARM-300F Cs probe-corrected STEM at 300 kV was used for imaging condition development. Both room-temperature and cryogenic conditions were examined, and the cryogenic conditions did not noticeably reduce the beam sensitivity of the FAPbI₃ thin films, so all imaging was done at room temperature. Similarly, no noticeable difference in beam sensitivity was found between 200 and 300 kV acceleration voltage, but the material was found to damage faster at 80 kV. All imaging presented in the manuscript was at 200 kV. All alignments and focusing were done away from the areas imaged to reduce electron beam-induced damage to the material. All micrographs were obtained without tilting the sample to reduce the beam damage. The specific image acquisition conditions for all images are listed in table S1.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

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Atomic-scale microstructure of metal halide perovskite

Mathias Uller Rothmann, Judy S. Kim, Juliane Borchert, Kilian B. Lohmann, Colum M. O'Leary, Alex A. Sheader, Laura Clark, Henry J. Snaith, Michael B. Johnston, Peter D. Nellist and Laura M. Herz

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Structural secrets of hybrid perovskites

The optoelectronic and photovoltaic applications of polycrystalline hybrid metal halide perovskite films are notable because grain boundaries in most materials cause scattering of charge carriers that decreases performance. Electron microscopy studies of these materials have been hindered by their rapid structural degradation under intense electron beams. Rothmann *et al.* now present an atomic crystallographic structure of formamidinium lead triiodide (FAPbI₃) polycrystalline thin films obtained by low-electron-dose scanning transmission electron microscopy with advanced image processing. The crystal structure sustains substoichiometry in the A-site cation, has a nearly perfect crystallographic alignment between PbI₂ impurity phases and the FAPbI₃ perovskite, and has atomically clean grain boundaries between polycrystalline domains. These features help to explain the films' surprising regenerative ability, their benign grain boundaries where strain and dislocations appear mostly absent, and why excess lead-iodide precursor can be counterintuitively beneficial.

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