Bright and stable perovskite light-emitting diodes in the near-infrared
range
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- 28 Abstract
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Perovskite light-emitting diodes (LEDs) have attracted broad attention due to their rapidly 30 increasing external quantum efficiencies (EQEs)¹⁻¹⁵. However, most high EQEs of perovskite 31 LEDs are reported at low current densities (< 1 mA cm⁻²) and low brightness. Decrease in 32 efficiency and rapid degradation at high brightness inhibit their practical applications. Here, 33 34 we demonstrate perovskite LEDs with exceptional performance at high brightness, achieved 35 by the introduction of a multifunctional molecule that simultaneously removes non-radiative regions in the perovskite films and suppresses luminescence quenching of perovskites at the 36 interface with charge-transport layers. The resulting LEDs emit near-infrared light at 800 37 nanometres, exhibit a peak EQE of 23.8 % at 33 mA cm⁻² and retain EQEs over 10 % at high 38 current densities of up to 1,000 mA cm⁻². In pulsed operation, they retain EQE of 16 % at an 39 ultra-high current density of 4,000 mA cm⁻², along with a high radiance of over 3,200 W s⁻¹ m⁻². 40 Notably, an operational half-lifetime of 32 hours at an initial radiance of 107 W s⁻¹ m⁻² has been 41 achieved, representing the best stability for perovskite LEDs having EQEs exceeding 20% at 42 high brightness levels. The demonstration of efficient and stable perovskite LEDs at high 43 44 brightness is an important step toward commercialisation and opens up new opportunities beyond conventional LED technologies, such as perovskite electrically pumped lasers. 45 46

- 47 Main
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49 Solution-processable metal halide perovskites exhibit luminescence with high colour purity, 50 tuneable emission wavelengths and excellent charge-transport properties. They have been 51 considered as potential candidates for high-performance light-emitting diodes (LEDs) $^{1-15}$ with 52 low cost, flexibility and light weight. In the past decade, perovskite LEDs have been 53 extensively optimised, often by incorporation of molecular additives⁵⁻⁹, and external quantum 54 efficiencies (EQEs) of over 20 % have been achieved⁵⁻⁹. The emergence of more efficient 55 perovskite LEDs continues, along with improved stability at low brightness. However, high 56 EQEs and improved stability were mostly reported at low current densities and brightness. 57 Retaining EQE and stability at high brightness is already the key challenge for 58 commercialisation of perovskite LEDs.

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60 In this work, we design a multifunctional molecule 2-[4-(methylsulfonyl)phenyl]ethylamine 61 (MSPE, Fig. 1a) to manipulate the optoelectronic, crystal and morphological properties of 3D 62 cubic phase (α -phase) formamidinium (FA) lead triiodide (FAPbI₃) perovskites and 63 demonstrate efficient and operationally stable near-infrared (NIR) perovskite LEDs at high 64 brightness. MSPE improves crystallinity and photoluminescence efficiency and induces 65 homogenous emission by removing non-radiative dark regions in the perovskite films. As a 66 multifunctional additive, MSPE also provides a barrier to quenching of perovskite 67 luminescence at the interface with charge-transport layers. In addition, MSPE devices show 68 reduced Joule heating, which allows high EQE to be maintained at ultra-high current densities 69 and reduces thermal degradation.

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71 We fabricated FAPbI3-based perovskite LEDs with the device architecture as follows: glass/ 72 indium tin oxide (ITO, 150 nm)/ zinc oxide (ZnO, 35 nm)/ ethoxylated polyethylenimine (PEIE, 73 ~ 0.5 nm)/ perovskite (FAPbI₃, 30 nm)/ poly(4-butylphenyl-diphenylamine) (poly-TPD, 74 40 nm)/ molybdenum oxide (MoO_x, 7 nm)/ gold (Au, 60 nm) (**Fig. 1b**). ITO and Au function 75 as electrodes. ZnO and poly-TPD serve as electron- and hole-transport layers, respectively. A 76 thin PEIE layer is used to improve the wettability of ZnO. MoO_x acts as the hole-injection layer. 77 The FAPbI₃ perovskites were prepared via spin-coating from FAI, PbI₂ and MSPE precursors 78 at a molar ratio of 2.7: 1: x (x = 0 - 0.9). The device performance is dependent on the molar 79 fraction of MSPE relative to PbI₂ (Fig. 1d, Supplementary Fig. 1). As a 0.5 molar fraction of 80 MSPE/PbI₂ exhibits the best device performance, the films and devices with this composition 81 are hereafter referred to as "MSPE". The samples without MSPE are referred to as "control". The angle-dependent electroluminescence (EL) intensity of MSPE-based LEDs follows a 82 Lambertian profile (Fig. 1c). The current density-voltage-radiance (J-V-R) characteristic of a 83 champion MSPE LED is shown in Fig. 1e. The current density and radiance of MSPE LEDs 84 rise rapidly after 1.3 V, which is lower than the bandgap voltage of FAPbI₃ (1.55 eV) and 85 indicates efficient charge transport and injection^{16,17}. Their EL peaks at 800 nm with a narrow 86 full-width at half-maximum of 39 nm and has a stable shape under bias (Fig. 1f). The champion 87 MSPE-based devices have a peak EQE of 23.8 % at a high radiance of 39 W sr⁻¹ m⁻² (Fig. 1e, 88 **f**). The brightness rises quickly with voltage and vields 497 W sr⁻¹ m⁻² (photon flux of 6.3 \times 89 10²¹ m⁻² s⁻¹) at 4.4 V. It is noteworthy that an EQE of over 10 % is retained at high current 90 densities of up to 1,000 mA cm⁻². The maximum radiance achieved is 663 W sr⁻¹ m⁻² in another 91 device with a peak EQE of 22.2 %. Note that radiance is used to evaluate brightness of NIR 92 LEDs, as luminance only applies to visible light (Supplementary Note 1)¹⁸. These NIR emitters 93 are attractive for a wide variety of applications such as imaging¹⁹, optogenetics²⁰, night-vision²¹, 94 communication²² and lasing^{23,24}. To the best of our knowledge, in the NIR regime, this 95 combination of high EQE and high radiance found in MSPE-based LEDs is superior to 96 previously reported perovskite, organic, and quantum-dot LEDs (Fig. 1g). 97

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99 MSPE devices exhibit high energy conversion efficiency (ECE) of up to 16 % (Supplementary 100 Fig. 2). This implies reduction of the electrical power and Joule heating to drive the devices, 101 allowing EQE to be maintained at high brightness and prolonging the device lifetime. MSPE-102 based LEDs show a rapid increase in radiance and a smaller increase in device temperature 103 during the voltage scan compared to control ones (Supplementary Fig. 3). To relieve Joule 104 heating, pulsed voltages have been applied to devices, which enables sufficient time for heat 105 dissipation. As a result, MSPE devices achieve EQE of 16 % at an ultrahigh current density of 106 4,000 mA cm⁻², along with a high radiance of over 3.200 W sr⁻¹ m⁻².

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Furthermore, MSPE-based LEDs show reasonable reproducibility. We fabricated 42 devices with the same procedures and their peak EQE and radiance histograms are shown in **Fig. 1h**. The histograms show a mean EQE of 20 % with a standard deviation of 1.6 % and a mean peak radiance of nearly 500 W sr⁻¹ m⁻². MSPE LEDs with a simple glass-epoxy encapsulation exhibit a half-lifetime (T_{50} , the time to reach 50 % of the initial brightness) of 32 hours for a very high initial radiance of 107 W sr⁻¹ m⁻² at a constant current density of 100 mA cm⁻² (**Fig.**

1i). EL spectra and voltages were stable during lifetime measurement (Supplementary Fig. 4-114 5). The control devices show poor T_{50} of 5 hours for an initial radiance of ~ 10 W sr⁻¹ m⁻² 115 (Supplementary Fig. 6). MSPE LEDs represent the best stability for perovskite LEDs having 116 EQE exceeding 20 % at high brightness levels (Supplementary Fig. 4; Supplementary Table. 117 1-2). To predict lifetimes at lower radiance, we fitted measured lifetimes at various initial 118 radiances with an empirical formula 15,25 . For an initial radiance of 5 W sr⁻¹ m⁻², T_{50} of MSPE 119 devices is estimated to be 5×10^4 hours (Supplementary Fig. 4), comparable to the state-of-120 the-art organic and quantum-dot LEDs (Supplementary Table. 3). 121

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123 To understand the underlying reasons for the improved performance of MSPE-based devices, we performed film characterisations as follows. Grazing-incidence wide-angle X-ray 124 scattering (GIWAXS) measurements show that both films exhibit typical α -phase scattering 125 characteristics at around 1 Å⁻¹ (**Fig. 2a**). The scattering characteristics of the control film are 126 isotropic, indicating that perovskite crystallites are randomly oriented²⁶. MSPE induces an 127 oriented crystallization as GIWAXS shows a preferential orientation of perovskites along the 128 surface normal direction^{27,28}. X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis shows the sharp and strong 129 peaks of α -phase FAPbI₃ in the MSPE film, indicating vastly improved crystallinity 130 compared to the control film (Fig. 2d)²⁹. Hyperspectral microscopy further unveils the 131 132 heterogeneities of PL peak wavelength across the control films (Fig. 2b), indicating disorder of local energetic structure. MSPE significantly mitigates this disorder, leading to uniform 133 134 peak wavelength in the films (Fig. 2b). Crystallographic and energetic disorder provides nonradiative recombination centres undermining device performance^{26,30}, which are mitigated by 135 136 MSPE. Consequently, MSPE films show improved PLQEs over a wide range of excitation intensity (Fig. 2e). Their PLQEs remain over 40 % even at a low excitation intensity of 0.02 137 138 mW cm⁻², indicating reduced defect-mediated non-radiative recombination in MSPE films. Reduction of defect-mediated recombination is also confirmed by time-resolved PL 139 spectroscopy as MSPE shows slower PL decay (Supplementary Fig. 7). 140 141 142 Nanoscopic morphology and emission properties of these films are further investigated. From scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Fig. 2c), irregular and discontinuous perovskite 143 144 polycrystalline grains are distributed on top of ZnO substrate in the control samples. Perovskite

146 (AFM, Supplementary Fig. 8) shows similar morphology to SEM. From AFM, the root mean

grains in MSPE films are denser and adopt a regular island shape. Atomic force microscopy

square surface roughness reduces from 13.7 nm to 3.6 nm with the addition of MSPE, which 147 148 could be attributed to a thin organic layer filling in the gaps between perovskite grains⁵. Then cathodoluminescence (CL) signals from SEM visualise the emission profile of these grains 149 (Fig. 2c). MSPE films have mean CL intensity of 11.7 counts, more than twice stronger than 150 that of the control ones (4.8 counts) under the same acquisition conditions. Strong CL intensity 151 152 indicates that luminescence efficiency is promoted with MSPE (Supplementary Note 2). MSPE 153 also slows down the degradation of perovskites under electron beam exposure (Supplementary Fig. 9). These observations confirm that MSPE reduces non-radiative recombination in the 154 perovskite grains, consistent with the PL measurements. 155

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The improved quality of perovskite films is attributed to MSPE, the roles of which are further 157 unveiled by Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), X-ray photoelectron 158 159 spectroscopy (XPS), nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) and density functional theory (DFT) 160 simulations. FTIR reveals that the amino group scissoring vibration δ (NH₂) of MSPE at around 1646 cm⁻¹ is significantly broadened and nearly invisible in the MSPE + FAI sample 161 (Fig. 2f), indicating that the N-H chemical bond is greatly weakened by the addition of FAI. 162 Consistent with this, ¹²⁷I NMR spectrum of FAI is significantly broadened with the addition 163 of MSPE (Fig. 2g). Strong interaction with FAI could slow down the growth of perovskites 164 165 during film formation, contributing to high crystallinity and regular shape of grains (Supplementary Note 3; Supplementary Fig. 16-18). The sulfonyl group can interact with FAI 166 167 or PbI₂ as the stretching vibration v(S=O) is broadened and shifts to lower wavenumbers in both mixture samples (Fig. 2f). XPS further unveils that the Pb 4f signals of PbI₂ shift to 168 169 lower binding energies with MSPE (Fig. 2h), while the O 1s signal of MSPE shifts to higher 170 binding energy (Supplementary Fig. 10), indicating that the oxygen atoms in the sulforyl group can donate their lone electron pairs to the empty 6p orbital of Pb atoms⁸. This suggests 171 that unsaturated Pb dangling bonds due to halide vacancy can be passivated by MSPE. DFT 172 simulations reveal trap-free bandgap of perovskites with MSPE passivation and further show 173 that both amino group and sulfonyl group can bind with perovskites (Supplementary Fig. 11). 174 175 MSPE can also interact with other MSPE molecules through hydrogen bonding. FTIR 176

177 measurements of MSPE molecules with different concentrations were performed. Both

- 178 δ (NH₂) and v(S=O) signals are broadened as the concentration of MSPE increases (**Fig. 2i**),
- suggesting hydrogen bonding interactions between the amino group and the sulfonyl group of

MSPE (N-H···O=S). Hydrogen bonding between two functional groups is further examined by using methyl phenyl sulfone (MPS, with a sulfonyl group) and phenethylamine (PEA, with an amino group) (Supplementary Fig. 12). The addition of MPS causes upfield-shifting of ¹H NMR signals of the amino group in PEA, indicating increasing electron density due to hydrogen bonding (N-H···O=S). Consistent with this, FTIR also suggests that both the sulfonyl group of MPS and the amino group of PEA are broadened in the mixture sample (Supplementary Fig. 12).

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188 The above investigations reveal the roles of the multifunctional molecule MSPE. MSPE

induces high crystallinity and reduces various defects in perovskite films, leading to

improved PLQE and reduced crystallographic and energetic disorder (Fig. 2a-e). Charge-

191 carrier kinetics further confirm the reduction of defects and disorder in MSPE films (**Fig. 3**).

192 In addition, MSPE can assemble in between perovskite grains through hydrogen bonding and

193 form a physical spacer between charge-transport layers, removing interfacial quenching

- 194 pathways (**Fig. 4**).
- 195

196 Confocal PL microscopy shows that the control films have significant spatial variation in PL 197 intensity on the lengthscale of micrometres (Fig. 3a). The dark regions in the control samples 198 correlate with reduced PL lifetime, indicating that these dark regions contain a higher 199 concentration of defects serving as non-radiative centres^{31,32}. In contrast, the MSPE films show 200 much more homogenous intensity and a uniformly long lifetime on the same lengthscale (Fig. 201 **3c**). The absence of defect-containing dark regions in MSPE films is consistent with the 202 improved overall PLQE and carrier lifetime relative to the control films. Quantitative analysis 203 of the recombination process by transient absorption measurements was performed to evaluate 204 the defect concentration of perovskite films (Supplementary Fig. 13). The defect-mediated non-205 radiative recombination (k_1) , bimolecular recombination (k_2) , and Auger recombination (k_3) 206 rate constants are extracted from the rate equation for charge carrier population (Supplementary 207 Note 4). As shown in **Fig. 3b** and **d**, k_1 of MSPE films $(6.2 \times 10^6 \text{ s}^{-1})$ is nearly an order of 208 magnitude lower than that of the control films $(4.2 \times 10^7 \text{ s}^{-1})$, indicating a significant decrease 209 of defect density with the introduction of MSPE molecules. Photothermal deflection 210 spectroscopy (PDS) also reveals reduced defect concentrations in MSPE films (Supplementary 211 Fig. 14)³³.

212 Another function of the MSPE additive is to prevent luminescence quenching of perovskites at 213 the charge-transport interfaces. In the control devices, since perovskite grains are discontinuous 214 on ZnO (Fig. 2c, Supplementary Fig. 1), poly-TPD on top of perovskites can directly contact 215 with ZnO as demonstrated in **Fig. 4a**. PDS shows that the ZnO + poly-TPD mixture sample 216 forms interfacial states with energies lower than the bandgap of FAPbI₃ (Supplementary Fig. 217 15), which can quench the emission of perovskites and serve as non-radiative loss channels 218 undermining device performance. To investigate interfacial quenching, the PL decay kinetics 219 of perovskites in multilayer systems were measured by selectively exciting the perovskites with 220 a 560 nm laser where charge-transport materials have negligible absorption. As shown in Fig. 221 **4b**, the PL decays faster when poly-TPD or TFB is present on top of perovskite samples. We 222 propose that the luminescence quenching is caused by energy transfer from the perovskite to 223 low-energy states with charge-transfer character at the ZnO/poly-TPD (or TFB) interface. With 224 PVK or TPBi, no quenching is observed since their deeper highest occupied molecular orbital 225 levels raise the energy of the interfacial states above the perovskite bandgap (**Fig. 4c**). MSPE 226 can assemble between discontinuous perovskite grains as discussed above and provide a 227 physical spacer between ZnO and the hole-transport materials (Fig. 4d). As a result, none of 228 the hole-transport layers causes observable quenching of MSPE perovskites (Fig. 4e, f). The 229 existence of the spacer is further characterised as follows. SEM images of high magnification 230 (Supplementary Fig. 1) show that ZnO between perovskite grains in MSPE-based film is 231 covered by dark regions composed of organics with lower atomic numbers (Supplementary 232 Note 5). Increasing molar ratio of MSPE leads to increasing areal density of dark regions and 233 decreasing areal density of the perovskite grains, suggesting that the dark regions are MSPE. 234 The existence of the organic spacer in MSPE films is also consistent with AFM measurements 235 (Supplementary Fig. 8) as discussed before. A cross-section STEM-HAADF image of a half 236 device sample with a structure of ZnO/PEIE/MSPE-based perovskite/Au and associated 237 energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (Supplementary Fig. 19) show that an organic layer of 238 MSPE fills the gaps between perovskite grains.

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In this work, a multifunctional molecule MSPE was designed to control the optoelectronic, crystal and morphological properties of perovskite films. MSPE improves crystallinity and removes non-radiative dark regions in the perovskite films. Simultaneously, self-assembly of MSPE between discontinuous perovskite grains removes interfacial quenching pathways in the devices. Comprehensive suppression of non-radiative pathways in the films and devices allows us to achieve efficient and bright perovskite LEDs with the best operating stability among

- ²⁴⁶ perovskite LEDs having EQE exceeding 20 % at high brightness. Our results suggest that low-
- temperature solution-processable perovskite LEDs have the potential to achieve high efficiency
- ²⁴⁸ at high brightness and to surpass conventional LED technologies.

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- Elucidate the Nanostructure of Hybrid Halide Perovskite Materials. *Microsc. Microanal.* 28,
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321 Fig. 1: Perovskite LED structure and performance.

322 **a**, Molecular structure of MSPE. **b**, STEM- HAADF image of a full MSPE LED. Scale bar: 200 nm. c, Ideal Lambertian profile and experimental angle-dependent emission data. d, Peak 323 EQE distribution of devices fabricated from precursors with different molar fractions of 324 MSPE/PbI₂. e, Current density versus voltage (black) and radiance versus voltage (red) 325 326 characteristics of the champion MSPE LED. f, EQE versus current density characteristics of 327 the champion device. Inset shows their EL spectra at different bias. g, Reported peak EQE and peak radiance of various NIR LEDs according to the data provided in Supplementary Table 1, 328 3. h, Peak EQE (left) and peak radiance (right) histograms of 42 MSPE LEDs. i, Operational 329 330 stability measurement.

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Fig. 2: Characteristics of perovskite films and molecular interactions.

a, GIWAXS patterns of perovskite films. **b**, Hyperspectral image of perovskite films. Scale

bar: 10 μ m. c, SEM image at 5 kV (left) and the corresponding CL intensity map (right) of

the control and MSPE films. Scale bar: 400 nm. © Cambridge University Press; Reproduced

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337 University Press. d, XRD patterns of perovskite films. e, PLQE of perovskite films. f, FTIR

spectra of MSPE and perovskite precursors. \mathbf{g} , ¹²⁷I NMR spectra. \mathbf{h} , XPS spectra of Pb 4*f*. \mathbf{i} ,

339 FTIR spectra of MSPE molecules of different concentrations.

340

341 Fig. 3: Charge-carrier kinetics of perovskite films.

a, Confocal PL intensity (left) and lifetime (right) of the control films and \mathbf{c} of MSPE films.

343 Scale bar: 5 µm. **b**, Recombination rate dn(t)/dt against charge carrier density n(t) of control

344 films and **d** of MSPE films.

345

Fig. 4: Time-resolved photoluminescence decay kinetics of perovskites with charge-

347 **transport layers.**

a, Schematic illustration of the control perovskite grains with charge-transport layers in a full

device and **d** of the MSPE-based perovskite grains. **b-c**, Time-resolved photoluminescence

350 decay kinetics of ZnO/PEIE/Control samples coated with different hole-transport materials

and **e-f** of MSPE samples.

352

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379 Author contributions

- 380 Y. S., L. C., and N. C. G. conceived the work. Y. S. developed efficient perovskite LEDs
- under the supervision of L.C. and N. C. G. L. G. performed chemical synthesis, FTIR and
- 382 XPS under the supervision of L. C. L. D. performed TA measurements. Y. S. and L. D.
- performed time-resolved PL measurements. C. C. performed confocal TCSPC measurements.
- 384 J. F. O and M. L. performed STEM-HAADF and EDS measurements under the supervision
- of C. D. J. F. O performed SEM-CL measurements. K. J. performed hyperspectral imaging
- measurements. S. J. Z. performed PDS measurements. A. J. M. performed GIWAXS
- measurements. Y. L. performed DFT simulations. Y. Z. performed SEM measurements. L.
- 388 G., Y. W., K. G., and D. Y. performed NMR measurements. L. Z. performed AFM
- measurements. J. H., J. L., E. M. T and S. D. S. assisted in interpreting results. Y. S. wrote
- the manuscript, which was revised by L. C. and N. C. G. All authors contributed to the work
- and commented on the paper.

- 392 Methods
- 393

394 Materials

All chemicals were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, unless otherwise stated. The perovskite 395 precursor solution was prepared by dissolving FAI (Greatcell Solar Materials), PbI₂ (Alfa 396 Aesar) and MSPE at a molar ratio of 2.7: 1: x (x = 0 - 0.9) in N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF) 397 to give an overall concentration of 7 wt%. Poly-TPD was purchased from 1-Materials. ZnO 398 nanoparticles were synthesised according to previously reported procedures³⁵. MSPE was 399 purchased from Fluorochem or synthesized and purified according to the method in previous 400 literature³⁶ with modifications described as follows. In a two-neck flask, 4-401 (methylsulfonyl)phenylacetonitrile (3.9 g, 20 mmol, J&K Chemical) was dissolved in 30 mL 402 dehydrated THF under nitrogen atmosphere. The mixture was cooled to 0 °C for 10 minutes. 403 Then lithium aluminium hydride solution in THF (2.4 M, 8.3 mL, 20 mmol) was added drop 404 by drop in 10 minutes. After stirring under nitrogen for an hour, the reaction mixture was 405 carefully quenched by excess sodium sulfate decahydrate. The product was extracted with ethyl 406 407 acetate, and the combined organic layer was dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate. After 408 filtration and evaporation, the crude product was purified by column chromatography on silica gel (eluent: hexane/ ethyl acetate = 7:3, v/v) and recrystallization from chloroform/methanol to 409 afford MSPE as solid (1.52 g, yield: 38%, purity: 99.5%). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, DMF-d7): δ 410 8.08 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 2H), 7.73 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 2H), 3.42 (s, 3H), 3.10 (m, 2H), 2.93 (m, 2H). 411

412

413 **PeLED fabrication and characterisations**

Pre-patterned ITO-coated glass substrates (10-15 Ω sq⁻¹, Kintec) were cleaned by ultrasonic 414 bath in detergent, water, acetone and isopropanol for 5 min, consecutively. Then the ITO 415 substrates were dried and treated by oxygen plasma etching (forward power 200 W, reflected 416 power 0 W, 10 min). ZnO nanoparticles were spin-coated on ITO substrates at 3000 RPM and 417 418 then annealed at 150 °C for 10 min. Subsequently, 0.45 wt% PEIE in 2-methoxyethanol solution was spin-coated at 5000 RPM and annealed 100 °C for 15 min. The substrates were 419 420 transferred into a nitrogen-filled glovebox. The perovskite layer was deposited by spin-coating 421 precursor solution on ZnO/PEIE substrates at 3000 RPM for 60 s and then annealing at 100°C for 10 min. On top of the perovskite layer, poly-TPD (14 mg ml⁻¹ in chlorobenzene) was spin-422 423 coated at 3000 RPM for 40 s. Finally, 7 nm of MoO_x and 60 nm of gold were sequentially 424 evaporated as top electrodes through a shadow mask (active device area 4.5 mm²) at a pressure of 5×10^{-6} mbar. All devices were encapsulated by epoxy with a glass cover for further 425

426 measurements. J-V-R characteristics were measured using a Keithley 2400 source-measure 427 unit and a calibrated silicon photodetector. The detailed methods have been published in a previous article¹⁸. In short, an LED was connected with a Keithley 2400 source-measure unit 428 and the photodetector was placed on-axis in front of the LED. The current that flowed through 429 430 the LED was measured at a given voltage from zero bias to forward bias. Simultaneously, the 431 signal generated in the photodetector by the photons emitted by the LED was measured. The 432 LED metrics were calculated taking into account the responsivity of the photodetector, the 433 geometry of the setup and the EL spectrum. This measurement setup was previously crosschecked independently with a third-party industrial laboratory and other research groups^{5,37-38}. 434 EL spectra were measured by an Andor iDus spectrograph with a Si array detector. Device 435 temperature and infrared images were recorded by Hti HT-H8 thermal imaging camera. 436 437 For operational lifetime measurement, an LED with glass-epoxy encapsulation was connected with a Keithley 2400 source-measure unit, which provided a constant current, in 438 ambient environment at room temperature. A photodetector was used to collect the emitted 439 440 photons from the LED. At the beginning and the end of the measurement, the emission 441 spectra were measured by a spectrometer (Ocean Insight). 442

443 STEM-HAADF

444 Cross-sectional lamellae were cut and thinned to electron transparency (200 nm) using a FEI
445 Helios Nanolab Dualbeam FIB/SEM following a standard protocol. The lamellae were

directly transferred to a FEI Osiris TEM operated at 200 kV, minimising air exposure to less

than 2 min. To minimise beam damage, high-angle annular dark field images (STEM-

HAADF) were acquired using at a beam current of around 140 pA, dwell time of 30 ms /

449 pixel, camera length of 115 mm, and spatial sampling of 5 nm / pixel.

450

451 **Film characterisations**

A combination of 520 nm continuous-wave laser, an integrating sphere and an Andor iDus Si detector was used to measure the steady-state PL and PLQEs³⁹. The excitation intensity was tuned by a filter with a focused beam spot of $\sim 0.3 \text{ mm}^2$. XRD data was collected by X-Ray Bruker D8 under an ambient environment. Hyperspectral images of photoluminescence were measured using a wide-field hyperspectral microscope (IMA VISTM, Photon Etc.) with a

457 calibrated low-noise silicon CCD camera. A 405 nm continuous-wave (CW) laser was used

458 as a photoexcitation source, and the emission image was re-focused using broadband PL

459 emission from the sample. The spectral measurements are performed by scanning the angle of

the grating relative to the emitted light from the sample to form images at each wavelength
which are stacked to form a 3D data cube with x and y as navigation axis and c as wavelength
axis.

463 SEM-CL maps were acquired in an Attolight Allalin 4027 Chronos SEM-CL at room

temperature under high vacuum. Beam focusing before each data acquisition was performed

away from the sample areas used for the measurements to prevent specimen damage. CL

466 maps were acquired using 5 kV acceleration voltage, 625 pA beam current, and 100 ms/pixel

acquisition time. These conditions were found to be the optimum to minimise detrimental

beam damage-related effects in the perovskite emission. CL maps were processed and

analysed in LumiSpy v. $0.1.2^{40}$. The artefacts caused by cosmic rays saturating the

spectrometer were removed, and the edges of each map were cropped out as they tend to

471 show edge effects and higher CL intensities.

The maps of PL intensity and lifetime were obtained using a confocal time-correlated single-

473 photon counting (TCSPC) setup (PicoQuant, MicroTime 200). A 509 nm pulsed laser (2.5

MHz, ~ 30 fJ) was focused onto the sample with a 100x objective. The emission signal was

475 collected by a TCSPC detector through the same objective. A 20 μ m \times 20 μ m domain was

476 spatially scanned using a Galvano mirror system and confocal pinhole. The lifetime was

477 calculated from the slopes of the initial decay of the transient signal at each pixel.

478 GIWAXS data was collected at the I07 Surface and Interface Diffraction beamline at the

Diamond Light Source (Didcot, UK). The beam energy was 15 keV (0.82656 Å). The

480 scattered beam was collected by a Pilatus 2M large area detector, at a sample-detector

distance of 550 mm and calibrated with a lanthanum hexaboride (LaB₆) sample. The

incidence angle was kept at 0.3° to achieve bulk-preferential probing with a frame exposure

483 of 1 s. The sample chamber was continuously purged with a 1.5 L min⁻¹ He flow. Data was

484 processed with the DAWN software package.

485 Time-resolved photoluminescence spectroscopy was measured with an electrically gated

486 iCCD camera system (Andor iStar DH740 CCI-010) connected to a grating spectrometer

487 (Andor SR303i). The excitation fluence was estimated as $6 \,\mu J \,cm^{-2}$.

SEM imaging was carried out at high vacuum ($< 4 \times 10^{-6}$ mbar) by a LEO GEMINI 1530VP

FEG-SEM system using 20 kV acceleration voltage. The surface morphology was collected

490 by a MFP-3D AFM System (Asylum/Oxford Instruments) in the ambient environment.

491

492

493 Chemical interaction characterisations

- 494 FTIR measurements were conducted by using a Fourier transform spectrometer (Nicolet
- 495 6700). The system was kept in a nitrogen atmosphere. Samples were prepared by potassium
- 496 bromide tableting method with background subtraction. XPS spectra were measured by a
- 497 monochromatic Al Kα₁ X-ray source using a SPECS PHOIBOS 150 electron energy
- 498 analyser. ¹²⁷I NMR measurement was performed on Bruker AVANCE
- 499 NEO 400 MHz instrument. N, N-Dimethylformamide-d7 was used as solvent to prepare
- samples for NMR measurement.
- 501

502 **Transient Absorption Spectroscopy**

All samples were given glass-lid encapsulation. The output of a Ti:sapphire amplifier system

- 504 (Spectra Physics Solstice Ace) operating at 1 kHz and generating ~100 fs pulses was used as
- the fundamental laser. The 400-nm pump pulses were created by sending the 800-nm
- ⁵⁰⁶ fundamental beam of the Solstice Ace through a second harmonic generating (SHG) beta
- barium borate (BBO) crystal (Eksma Optics). The broadband white probe was provided by
- the Disco (Leukos Laser, STM-2-UV) and the pump-probe decay was controlled
- so9 electronically. The white light was split into two identical beams (probe and reference) by a
- 510 50/50 beamsplitter. The reference beam passing through the sample did not interact with the
- 511 pump, which allows for correcting for any shot-to-shot fluctuations in the probe that would
- otherwise greatly increase the structured noise in the experiments. Based on this arrangement,
- small signals with $\Delta T/T \sim 10^{-5}$ could be measured. The transmitted probe and reference pulses

were collected with a silicon dual-line array detector (Hamamatsu S8381-1024Q,

- spectrograph: Andor Shamrock SR-303i-B) driven and read out by a custom-built board
- 516 (Stresing Entwicklungsbüro).
- 517

518 LED measurement at pulsed mode

519 Short square voltage pulses were generated by a HP8116A function generator and applied to

- 520 the device. A 5 Ω resistor was placed in series with the device. Transient voltages were
- 521 measured using a dual-channel oscilloscope (Agilent Technologies DSO6032A) and the
- transient current was calculated from the voltage across the resistor in series with the
- ⁵²³ device⁴¹. A grating spectrometer (Andor SR303i) was used to collect electroluminescence
- response of the device. Current and light output were averaged over 1500 pulses at each

voltage. The EQE was calibrated by comparing a DC response with that from the standardEQE characterization setup.

527

528 **DFT simulations**

All DFT calculations were done using the Quantum Espresso suite (v7.0). The exchange

- correlation was approximated by the PBE functional and the core-valence interactions were
- treated using the ultrasoft pseudopotentials from the GBRV library. The electronic
- wavefunctions were expanded in a plane wave basis with a cutoff of 40 Ry and charge-
- density cutoff of 200 Ry, and the dispersion correction was included empirically using the
- 534 DFT-D3 method. The Brillouin zone of the bulk FAPbI₃ perovskite was sampled with a 6×6
- 535 \times 6 Γ -centered Monkhorst-Pack **k**-point grid, the atoms are relaxed until the Hellman-
- Feynman force converges below 0.01 eV $Å^{-1}$, and the volume until all components of the
- stress tensor are below 10^{-2} GPa. The passivated and unpassivated perovskite surfaces
- without defects were created five atomic layers in the z-direction, and a vacuum spacing of 20
- Å was added to remove any spurious interactions. A commensurate $6 \times 6 \times 1$ k-point grid
- 540 was used to sample the Brillouin zone. For isolated ligands, a vacuum spacing of 20 Å was
- added in all 3 spatial directions and only the Γ point was sampled.
- The binding affinity (E_{bind}) of the ligands to the perovskite surface was computed as
- 543 $E_{\text{bind}} = E_{\text{tot}} E_{\text{slab}} E_{\text{ligand}}$
- where E_{tot} and E_{slab} are the total energies of the passivated and unpassivated perovskite
- supercell, respectively, and E_{ligand} is the energy of the isolated ligand.
- 546

547 Photothermal deflection spectroscopy

- 548 Photothermal deflection spectroscopy measurements were performed in the transverse
- configuration, utilising a probe beam from a 670 nm diode laser and a pump beam from a
- tuneable light source consisting of a 250 W quartz tungsten halogen lamp and a 250 mm focal
- length grating monochromator. The pump beam was mechanically chopped at 10 Hz and
- passed to a vibration-isolated optical table through a fibre. The light-induced local heating of
- the sample changing periodically the optical path of the probe beam was quantitatively
- analysed with a quadrant Si photodiode, with the generated signal proportional to the material
- absorbance demodulated with a lock-in amplifier (Stanford Research Systems SR830). The
- perovskite samples, spin-coated on fused silica substrates (Spectrosil 2000), were immersed
- in 3M Fluorinert FC-72 as the thermooptic medium. For ZnO nanoparticles dispersed in

- isopropyl alcohol, the measurement was done *in situ* by passing the probe beam through a
- solution-filled quartz cuvette, with isopropyl alcohol serving as the medium.

561 Method References

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577 Data Availability

- 578 The data underlying this paper are available at the University of Cambridge repository
- 579 (https://doi.org/10.17863/CAM.92711).

580

581 Code Availability

582 Not applicable.

583

584 **Competing interests**

585 The authors declare no competing interests.







