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Metal chalcogenide electron extraction layers for *nip*-type tin-based perovskite solar cells

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Tin-based perovskite solar cells have garnered attention for their biocompatibility, narrow bandgap, and long thermal carrier lifetime. However, *nip*-type tin-based perovskite solar cells have underperformed largely due to the indiscriminate use of metal oxide electron transport layers originally designed for *nip*-type lead-based perovskite solar cells. Here, we reveal that this underperformance is caused by oxygen vacancies and deeper energy levels in metal oxide. To address these issues, we propose a metal chalcogenide electron transport layer, specifically $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$, which circumvents the oxygen molecules desorption and impedes the Sn^{2+} oxidation. As a result, tinbased perovskite solar cells with $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ demonstrate a V_{OC} increase from 0.48 – 0.73 V and a power conversion efficiency boost from 6.98 – 11.78%. Additionally, these cells exhibit improved stability, retaining over 95% of their initial efficiency after 1632 h. Our findings showcase metal chalcogenides as promising candidates for future *nip*-type tin-based perovskite solar cell applications.

Organic-inorganic metal halide perovskite solar cells (PSCs) have attracted attention as a result of the meteoric rise in their power conversion efficiencies (PCEs) over the past several years^{1–7}. In particular, lead (Pb)-based perovskites, including methylammonium lead iodide (CH₃NH₃PbI₃, MAPbI₃), formamidinium lead iodide (CH(NH₂)₂PbI₃, FAPbI₃), and their mixtures, were considered as highly attractive solar light-harvesting materials because of their high absorption coefficient, adjustable optical bandgap, high charge carrier mobility, and simple solution processing^{8–17}. However, the toxicity of Pb to human beings and the environment cannot be ignored, which significantly hinders the future commercialization of Pb-based PSCs^{18–22}. Therefore, considerable efforts have been made to explore environmentally friendly less-toxic or nontoxic perovskite materials to replace Pb, such as tin (Sn)²³⁻²⁵, germanium (Ge)^{26,27}, bismuth (Bi)^{28,29}, and antimony (Sb)^{30,31}. Among these candidates, tin-based PSCs (TPSCs) are recognized as the promising Pb alternative for several reasons. First, TPSCs possess a higher theoretical PCE than LPSCs according to the Shockley-Queisser (S-Q) limit³²⁻³⁹. Second, the most promising path toward the commercialization of PSCs involves developing all-perovskite tandem solar cells, which require narrow bandgap perovskites⁴⁰⁻⁴⁸. Tin-based and tin-lead-mixed perovskite materials. Finally, to date, TPSCs have achieved the highest PCE, exceeding 15%, among all Pb-free PSCs^{32,36,49-58}.

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Similar to the lead-based PSCs (LPSCs), TPSCs can also be classified into two architecture types. *nip* and *pin*, where the difference is defined by the order of deposition of the electron and hole transport layers relative to the transparent conductive oxide (TCO) substrate^{32-38,40}. The highest performing TPSCs are currently achieved in the pin architecture^{32,36}. However, nip-type TPSCs are also of significant interest due to their low-cost electron transport materials and high thermal operational stability³⁷⁻⁵⁸. Moreover, it is well known that nearly all record PCEs that LPSCs were certified by the National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL) were achieved in the nip architectures⁵⁹. As such, *nip* architecture should be the preferred platform for high-performing TPSCs as well although their PCEs are not satisfied so far³⁷⁻⁵⁸. A key contributing factor for the unsatisfied performance of nip-type TPSCs is the indiscriminate adoption of functional materials from nip-type LPSCs, lacking tailored design for the former. For instance, nip-type TPSCs to date all use metal oxides (TiO₂ and SnO₂) as electron transport layers (ETL), all of which were originally used in LPSCs³⁷⁻⁵⁸. However, they are no longer the optimal choice for TPSCs as the corresponding *nip*-type TPSCs show much lower performance than *pin*-type LPSCs and even most open-circuit voltages (Vocs) of reported nip-type TPSCs were <0.5 V, as shown in Table S1. Theoretically, such low Vocs can be attributed to the mismatched band structure between the metal oxide ETLs and Sn-based perovskite layers²⁵. Moreover, the presence of oxygen vacancies in metal oxides is another possible reason for the poor performance⁶⁰⁻⁶³. Therefore, it is crucial to identify the reasons of poor performance caused by metal oxides and to explore novel ETLs to enable efficient, reliable, and scalable TPSCs.

In this work, we elucidate the origin of poor photovoltaic performance in *nip*-type TPSCs and the underlying mechanism by which metal oxide ETLs influence this performance. Specifically, we demonstrate that the desorption of oxygen molecules from oxygen vacancies in TiO₂ triggers the oxidation process from Sn²⁺ to Sn⁴⁺ in Sn-based perovskites. Additionally, the deeper energy levels of TiO₂ ETLs result in a reduction in V_{OC} . To address these challenges, we introduce an ETL, a metal mixed-chalcogenide of $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$, into the *nip*-type TPSC. Unlike conventional metal oxide ETLs, the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL not only circumvents the desorption of O₂ molecules but also hinders the reaction between Sn²⁺ ions within Snbased perovskites and O₂ molecules present in air. Moreover, the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL exhibits a shallower CBM position compared to metal oxide counterparts. Additionally, it boasts several other advantageous properties, including improved morphology, heightened conductivity, and increased electron mobility. These attributes confer upon the nip-type TPSC with the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL a significantly elevated Voc, increasing from 0.48 to 0.73 V, and enhancing the PCE from 6.98 to 11.78%, representing a >65% improvement. Furthermore, our ETL substantially enhances the operational stability of the nip-type TPSC dramatically.

Results

To explore the impact of metal oxide ETLs on *nip*-type TPSCs, our study focused on the widely used FTO/TiO₂/Sn-based perovskite/ PTAA/Ag configuration. The TiO₂ ETL was deposited onto the FTO substrate using a titanium butoxide solution and subsequently annealed at 450 °C. The Sn-based perovskite PEA_{0.15}FA_{0.85}Snl_{2.85}Br_{0.15} was then deposited on the TiO₂ ETL utilizing a one-step deposition approach. Supplementary Table 1 provides a summary of representative photovoltaic performance for this specific structure^{37–58}. Remarkably, Supplementary Fig. 1 highlights a significant disparity between the experimental and theoretical values of the PCE and *V_{OC}* in *nip*-type TPSCs. We speculate that the primary reasons to such significant discrepancy can be ascribed to the presence of oxygen vacancies and deeper band positions within the TiO₂ ETLs in *nip*-type TPSCs. TiO₂ is known to contain numerous oxygen vacancies (OVs) and trivalent titanium ions (Ti³⁺), particularly at its surface⁵⁸⁻⁶¹. These OVs have the propensity to absorb molecular oxygen from the atmosphere, forming a charge transfer complex ($O_2^- - Ti^{4+}$). Under the external stimuli, such as light or electrons, electron-hole pairs are generated, and the resulting holes in the valence band tend to recombine with O_2^- , leading to the desorption of oxygen. For the Sn-based perovskite, as the two 5 s electrons of the Sn elements without lanthanide shrinkage are highly active and easy to lose, it is very sensitive to the oxygen³³. The desorbed oxygen accelerates the oxidation of Sn²⁺ to Sn⁴⁺ within the Sn-based perovskite. Therefore, this process can be expressed by two sequential steps, the desorption of oxygen from OVs in TiO₂, followed by the oxidation of Sn-based perovskites by the released oxygen, as schematically illustrated in Fig. 1a^{64,65}.

To validate this hyprothesis, the electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) measurement was conducted on TiO₂ films (Fig. 1b), which is able to evidence the OVs directly. An intense unpaired electron signal at g = 2.004 was recorded, suggesting the existence of OVs in TiO₂ films^{61,66}. Further analysis of the chemical valence states of Ti and O elements in TiO₂ films was performed using the high-resolution X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). Fig. 1c shows the O 1s core-level specturm of the TiO₂ film, revealing three distinct peaks. Peaks at 530.5 and 532.1 eV are attributed to lattice oxygen and non-lattice oxygen, respectively, while the peak at 531.3 eV is indexed to OVs, corroborating the presence of OVs in TiO₂ films. Concurrently, the formation of Ti³⁺ ions was also observed (Supplementary Fig. 2). Peaks located at binding energies of 458.9 and 464.7 eV can be attributed to Ti⁴⁺ $2p_{3/2}$ and Ti⁴⁺ $2p_{1/2}$, respectively, consistent with rutile TiO₂. In addition, Ti³⁺ $2p_{3/2}$ and Ti³⁺ $2p_{1/2}$ XPS peaks at binding energies of 457.7 and 463.8 eV can be detected as well, which is the by-product of the OVs.

To confirm the negative effects of OVs in TiO₂ films on Sn-based perovskite films, XPS spectra were conducted for the Sn-based perovskite films deposited on both FTO substrates and FTO/TiO₂ films, respectively. Since the XPS measurement is surface sensitive, a low concentration (0.1 M) of precursor solution of Sn-based perovskite was used to detect the chemical state of the buried interface between the TiO₂ film and the Sn-based perovskite film. The presence of Ti 2p XPS peaks (Supplementary Fig. 3) confirms the validity of the XPS measurement for the buried interface. Supplementary Fig. 4 displays XPS spectra of fresh Sn-based perovskite films on FTO and FTO/TiO2 substrates, which suggests a similar Sn⁴⁺/Sn²⁺ ratio in both samples. To eliminate effects of other factors on Sn-based perovskite films, both samples were aged in the glovebox under low light conditions. Fig. 1d, e reveal XPS spectra of Sn-based perovskite films on FTO and FTO/TiO₂ substrates after aging for 14 days, respectively. Notably, the Sn⁴⁺/Sn²⁺ ratio in Sn-based perovskite films on FTO substrates remained largely unchanged, while the Sn⁴⁺/Sn²⁺ ratio in Sn-based perovskite films on FTO/TiO₂ films show a significant alternation. This distinct difference suggests that desorbed oxygen from TiO₂ films result in severe oxidation in Sn-based perovskites, consequently compromising the stability of nip-type TPSCs over time.

Band structure

In additon to OVs, the mismatched band structure between TiO₂ and the Sn-based perovskite is another contributing factor to the low performance of *nip*-type TPSCs, especially with regard to low V_{OC} . Supplementary Fig. 5 presents the ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS) data, illustrating the valence band maximum (VBM) onset and the secondary electron cutoff energy boundary of TiO₂ and Snbased perovksite films. Combining their optical bandgaps derived from adsorption spectra (Supplementary Fig. 6a–d), the VBM and conduction band minimum (CBM) energies of TiO₂ and Sn-based perovksite films were calculated, as listed in Supplementary Table 2. Notably, owing to the shallow CBM of the Sn-based perovksite, the



Fig. 1 | **Oxygen vacancies in TiO₂ ETLs. a** Schematic diagram of the buried interface between the TiO₂ ETL and Sn-based perovskite layer. Oxygen desorption from OVs in the TiO₂ ETL accelerates the oxidation of Sn²⁺ to Sn⁴⁺ within the Sn-based perovskite. **b** EPR spectra of the TiO₂ ETL, confirming the existence of OVs. **c** High-resolution XPS spectra in the O 1*s* region of the TiO₂ ETL, further supporting the

existence of OVs. High-resolution XPS spectra of Sn-based perovskite films on (**d**) FTO and (**e**) FTO/TiO₂ substrates after aging for 14 days, respectively. This distinct difference observed suggests that desorbed oxygen from TiO_2 films leads to severe oxidation in Sn-based perovskites.

conventional TiO₂ ETL shows a substantial energy level offset due to its significantly deeper CBM position. This disparity in energy levels is crucial, as the maximum attainable V_{OC} is determined by the quasi-Fermi level splitting (Supplementary Fig. 6e). Consequently, the deeper energy level of the TiO₂ ETL results in a diminished V_{OC} value in *nip*-type TPSCs, aligning with previously reported findings (Supplementary Table 1), thus rendering it disadvantageous for *nip*-type TPSCs.

Metal mixed-chalcogenide ETL

Having identified that the root cause of the low performance of niptype TPSCs lies in the presence of OVs and deeper band positions within TiO₂ ETLs, we recognize two potential strategies to address this issue. Firstly, we can aim to reduce the OVs in TiO₂ by interface engineering and simultaneously adjust the band positions of TiO₂ through composition engineering. Alternatively, we can explore the substitution of TiO₂ with other n-type semiconductors. However, despite attempts to employ individual engineering approaches in nip-type TPSCs, notable performance enhancements have not been consistently achieved^{44,52}. Moreover, the simultaneous application of both engineering strategies to TiO₂ ETLs may yield opposite effects. Therefore, the pursuit of alternative ETLs for *nip*-type TPSCs to replace TiO₂ becomes imperative. The ideal ETL for nip-type TPSCs should feature several key attributes, including a favorable band structure that aligns well with Sn-based perovskites, optical transparency, a compact morphology without pinholes, and high conductivity and mobility⁶⁷⁻⁷⁰. Following this line of thought, we have synthesized a metal mixedchalcogenide, $Sn(S_xSe_y)_2$, as a promising candidate for ETLs in *nip*-type TPSCs. This material was synthesized by a hydrothermal method, as depicted in Supplementary Fig. 7, with detailed synthesis procedures provided in Methods. The composition distribution and crystallization of the typical metal mixed-chalcogenide, $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$, used in this study were verified through XPS, transmission electron microscopy

(TEM), and X-ray diffraction (XRD) techniques, as shown in Supplementary Figs. 8–9.

Figure 2a, b present UPS data of the VBM onset and the secondary electron cutoff energy boundary of SnS2 and Sn(S0.92Se0.08)2 ETLs, respectively. Similar to TiO₂ ETLs, their VBM and CBM energies were computed by incorporating their optical bandgaps (Supplementary Fig. 10), as listed in Supplementary Table 2. Evidently, both SnS₂ and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs reveal shallower CBM positions than TiO₂ ETLs, indicating a smaller energy level offset with Sn-based perovskites and a higher V_{OC} in the corresponding *nip*-type TPSCs. Furthermore, the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL demonstrates the shallowest CBM position, suggesting its potential as the preferred candidate for nip-type TPSCs as the ETL. This is the main reason that we introduced the metal mixedchalcogenide to act as the ETL in the nip-type TPSC in this study. To further validate the favorable band alignment of the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL, the Kelvin probe force microscopy (KPFM) was employed to provide reliable local surface potentials, as shown in Fig. 2c. Obviously, the surface potentials of TiO₂, SnS_2 and $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETLs exhibit a consistent trend with the UPS measurements, reaffirming the suitability of the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ film as the optimal candidate for *nip*-type TPSCs as the ETL.

In addition to favorable band structure alignment with Sn-based perovskites, as an ideal ETL, the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL should also possess optical transparency and a pinhole-free compact morphology. Figure 2d displays the UV-vis optical transmission spectra of the TiO₂, SnS₂ and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs, revealing the similar optical transparency of the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL in the whole region. Supplementary Fig. 11a–c show top-view scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of TiO₂, SnS₂ and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs. Similar to the commonly used TiO₂ ETL, SnS₂ and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs exhibit conformal and entire coverage on the FTO substrate, devoid of apparent pinholes. This observation is further corroborated by atomic force microscopy (AFM)



Fig. 2 | **Metal chalcogenide ETLs.** UPS spectra of VBM onset and photoemission cutoff energy boundary of (**a**) SnS_2 and (**b**) $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETLs. The $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL shows the shallowest CBM position, highlighting its potential as the preferred ETL candidate for *nip*-type TPSCs. **c** KPFM curves and images of the TiO₂, SnS_2 and $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETLs. The scalebars are 1 um. **d** UV-vis optical transmission spectra of TiO₂, SnS_2 and $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETLs, revealing similar

optical transparency between the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL and the TiO₂ ETL throughout the spectrum. **e** *J*-*V* curves at the trap-free SCLC regime of TiO₂, SnS₂ and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs, fitted with the Mott-Gurney law. The results suggest that the mobility of the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL is an order of magnitude higher than that of the TiO₂ ETL.

images of TiO₂, SnS₂, and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ films, as show in Supplementary Fig. 11d–f. Moreover, TiO₂, SnS₂, and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ films reveal consecutive decreases in root-mean-square roughness (RMS) from 20.7 to12.8–8.37 nm, suggesting that the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ film possesses the most compact morphology, enhancing its applicability in *nip*-type TPSCs.

Finally, the conductivity and electron mobility of the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ film were investigated. Supplementary Fig. 12 illustrates the current-voltage (I-V) curves of the devices with the FTO/ETL/ Ag structure, where the ETLs are TiO₂, SnS₂, and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ films respectively. Corresponding conductivities were listed in Supplementary Table 3. Clearly, the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL reveals a higher conductivity of 13.8×10^{-3} S cm⁻¹ than the TiO₂ ETL (8.4×10^{-3} S cm⁻¹) and the SnS₂ ETL (12.7×10^{-3} S cm⁻¹). To quantitatively assess electron mobility, the space-charge-limited current (SCLC) measurements were performed on devices with the FTO/Ag/ETL/Ag architecture. Supplementary Fig. S13 shows the current density-voltage (J-V) curves of the device, which generally exhibit three regions, including an Ohmic region, a trap-filling limited region, and a trap-free SCLC regime. Figure 2e zooms in on the J-V curves at the trap-free SCLC regime, which represents the Mott-Gurney law and the current density (J) can be written by Eq. (1)35:

$$J = \frac{9\varepsilon\varepsilon_0 V_{app}^2 \cdot \mu}{8L^3} \tag{1}$$

where V_{app} and μ denote the voltage and mobility at the trap-free region. Accordingly, the μ for the TiO₂, SnS₂, and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs were listed in Supplementary Table 3. It is evident that mobilities of SnS₂ and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs are an order of magnitude higher than

that of the TiO₂ ETL, with the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL exhibiting the highest mobility. In short, it is demonstrated that the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL is indeed a promising candidate for the ETL in *nip*-type TPSCs, boasting a shallow CBM position, good optical transparency, compact morphology, and superior conductivity and mobility.

Interactions between metal mixed-chalcogenide ETLs and Snbased perovskites

After establishing the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ film as a promising ETL in TPSCs, it is essential to elucidate the interaction between the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL and the Sn-based perovskite. First-principles calculations were utilized to understand this interaction. As discussed above, oxygen (O₂) molecules desorb from the OV sites in TiO₂ ETLs under external stimuli. Supplementary Figure 14a shows that the adsorption energy (E_{ads}) of O₂ molecules on the surface of Sn-based perovskite is -0.28 eV. In contrast, the Eads values of SnS2 and Sn(S0.92Se0.08)2 ETLs are -0.30 and -0.35 eV, respectively (Supplementary Fig. 14b, c). This result indicates that SnS_2 and $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETLs not only do not involve O2 molecules desorption, but also hinder the reaction between Sn²⁺ ions in Sn-based perovskites and O₂ molecules present in air. Fig. 3a shows the calculated electron density distribution to describe the interaction between the O₂ molecule and the Sn-based perovskite. Upon O₂ adsorption on the Sn-based perovskite, the electron cloud density around Sn^{2+} noticeably transfers to the O₂ molecules, facilitating the oxidation of Sn^{2+} by O₂. However, for SnS_2 and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs, the electron density around Sn²⁺ was significantly increased, effectively suppressing the oxidation of Sn²⁺ (Fig. 3b, c). To quantify this interaction, the Bader charge values of O₂, SnS₂, and $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ adsorbed on Sn-based perovskites were computed, as shown in Fig. 3a-c. The Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL on the Sn-based perovskite



Fig. 3 | **Strong interaction between metal chalcogenide ETLs and Sn-based perovskite layers.** The electron density distribution of Sn-based perovskites interacting with (**a**) O_2 , (**b**) SnS_2 and (**c**) $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ molecules, indicating that the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL not only circumvents O_2 molecules desorption, but also inhibits the reaction between Sn^{2+} ions in Sn-based perovskites and O_2 molecules present in air. GIWAXS patterns of the Sn-based perovskite films grown on (**d**) TiO₂, (**e**) SnS_2 , and (**f**) $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETLs respectively. These results indicate that the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL induces the highest crystalline phase purity at the buried

interface due to the strong interaction. **g** The Sn⁴⁺/Sn²⁺ ratios in the Sn $3d_{5/2}$ and Sn $3d_{3/2}$ regions of the Sn-based perovskite films deposited on different ETLs, including TiO₂, SnS₂ and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs. The Sn-based perovskite with the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL shows the lowest values, indicative of the strongest interaction between the two. **h** PL and (**i**) TRPL spectra of Sn-based perovskite films deposited on TiO₂, SnS₂, and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs, respectively. Both results suggest the fastest electron transfer in the structure of Sn-based perovskite films deposited on Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ films.

reveals the highest Bader charge value, suggesting the strongest interaction between them.

To experimentally demonstrate the strong interaction between the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL and the Sn-based perovskite, the interfacial effect of the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL on the Sn-based perovskite was characterized using the grazing incidence wide-angle X-ray scattering (GIWAXS) technique. To collect buried interface information without any transfer and damage, the X-ray beam was illuminated from the back side of the Sn-based perovskite films deposited on PEN/ITO/ETL substrates, where ETLs are TiO₂, SnS₂, and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ films, as shown in Supplementary Fig. 15. Figure 3d-f exhibit the interface GIWAXS patterns of the Sn-based perovskite films grown on TiO₂, SnS₂, and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs respectively. The Sn-based perovskite films grown on SnS_2 and $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETLs reveal sharper and stronger Bragg spots compared to those grown on the TiO₂ ETL, suggesting the incomplete structural transition of the Sn-based perovskite at the buried interface with the TiO₂ ETL. Moreover, the Sn-based perovskite film grown on the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL shows sharper and stronger Bragg spots compared to those grown on the SnS₂ ETL, indicative of a higher crystalline phase purity at the corresponding buried interface. Therefore, the use of the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL enhances its interaction with the Sn-based perovskite, inhibits degradation of the Sn-based perovskites, and promotes the formation of a significant amount of crystallized perovskite.

The strong interaction suppresses the oxidation of Sn^{2+} in Snbased perovskites, as demonstrated by XPS spectra after aging 14 days under low light illumination, as shown in Supplementary Fig. 16 and Fig. 3g. Compared to the Sn-based perovskite with the TiO₂ ETL, Snbased perovskites with metal chalcogenides show significantly reduced $\text{Sn}^{4+}/\text{Sn}^{2+}$ ratios for both Sn $3d_{5/2}$ and $3d_{3/2}$, with the Sn-based perovskite with the $\text{Sn}(\text{S}_{0.92}\text{Se}_{0.08})_2$ ETL reveals the lowest value, indicative of the strongest interaction between the two. Furthermore, the strong interaction not only suppresses the oxidation of Sn-based perovskites, but also facilitates fast electron transfer dynamics from the $\text{Sn}(\text{S}_{0.92}\text{Se}_{0.08})_2$ ETL to the Sn-based perovskite layer. Fig. 3h presents the photoluminescence (PL) spectra of the Sn-based perovskite films deposited on the TiO₂, SnS₂, and $\text{Sn}(\text{S}_{0.92}\text{Se}_{0.08})_2$ ETLs



Fig. 4 | **Photovoltaic performance of TPSCs with metal chalcogenide ETLs. a** Schematic diagram of *nip*-type TPSCs with the structure of FTO/ETL/Sn-based perovskite/PTAA/Ag, utilizing TiO₂, SnS₂, and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ films as ETLs. **b** *J*-*V* curves of *nip*-type TPSCs with TiO₂, SnS₂ and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs, respectively. **c** A comparison of PCE between this work and other reported PCEs (over 6.5%) of *nip*type TPSCs. The impressive PCE of the *nip*-type TPSC with the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ film significantly surpasses those of previously reported *nip*-type TPSCs with TiO₂ films. **d** EQE spectra and integrated *J*sc values of the *nip*-type TPSCs with TiO₂, SnS₂ and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs, respectively. **e** Nyquist plots. **f** dark *J*-*V* curves, and (**g**)

resepctively. Both the Sn-based perovskites deposited on the SnS2 and $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ films display lower intensities than that deposited on the TiO₂ films, indicating more efficient electron transfer from the Snbased perovskite film to the metal chalcogenide. Meanwhile, the Snbased perovskite film deposited on the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ film exhibits the lowest intensity among the three samples, which is consistent with the result that the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ film possesses the strongest interaction with the Sn-based perovskite. To gain more insights into effective electron transfer dynamics, time-resolved PL (TRPL) measurements were also performed to test the decay lifetime for the three samples (Fig. 3i). The corresponding TRPL lifetime was calculated by single-exponential fits to the TRPL decays, as listed in Supplementary Table 4. Clearly, the Sn-based perovskite film deposited on the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ film shows the shortest PL decay lifetime among the three samples. Such a short lifetime further indicates the fastest electron transfer in the structure of Sn-based perovskite films deposited on Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ films.

Device performance

and stability of nip-type TPSCs.

Next, we fabricated nip-type TPSCs with the structure of FTO/ETL/Snbased perovskite/PTAA/Ag using TiO₂, SnS₂, and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ films as ETLs (Fig. 4a). Detailed information on the synthesis procedure can be found in the Method Section. Fig. 4b shows the current densityvoltage (J-V) curves of the best-performing *nip*-type TPSCs with TiO₂, ${\rm SnS}_{2}\text{,}$ and ${\rm Sn}({\rm S}_{0.92}{\rm Se}_{0.08})_2$ ETLs. The corresponding photovoltaic parameters were listed in Supplementary Table 5. The nip-type TPSC with the TiO₂ ETL exhibits a PCE of 6.98%, with a V_{OC} of 0.48 V, a short circuit current density (I_{SC}) of 20.47 mA/cm², and a fill factor (FF) of 71.11%, comparable with previous reports. As anticipated, using metal chalcogenide as ETLs, all the photovoltaic parameters of *nip*-type TPSCs were significant increased. Specifically, the nip-type TPSC with the SnS₂ ETL shows a PCE of 9.03%, with $V_{OC} = 0.57$ V, $J_{SC} = 21.89$ mA/ cm², and FF = 72.88%, and the *nip*-type TPSC with the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL shows a PCE 11.78%, with $V_{OC} = 0.73 \text{ V}$, $J_{SC} = 22.28 \text{ mA/cm}^2$, and FF = 72.68%. An enhancement of over 65% in PCE was achieved when

respectively. These result indicate that the nip-type TPSC with the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂

ETL showcases the reduced charge transfer resistance, fastest electron transport,

1600 h in an N₂ glovebox. These findings collectively support the potential of metal

chalcogenide ETLs, particularly $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$, for advancing the performance

and lowest defect density among the three types ETLs. **h** Normalized PCE of unencapsulated *nip*-type TPSCs with TiO₂, SnS₂ and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs for over

the commonly used TiO₂ ETL was substituted by the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL in *nip*-type TPSCs. Notably, we also obtained a certified PCE of 10.57% for the nip-type TPSC first time from Shanghai Institute of Microsystem and Information Technology (Supplementary Fig. 17). As shown in Fig. 4b, c, this substantial enhancement can primarily be ascribed to the improved V_{OC} , a consequence of the shallow CBM position in the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL (Supplementary Table 2). Moreover, Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL also facilitates the growth of highly crystalline, vertically oriented and grain-through structures in the Sn-based perovskite film, as shown in Supplementary Figs. 18-19, which leads to a higher Isc for the corresponding *nip*-type TPSC. Fig. 4c further demonstrates that the impressive PCE of the nip-type TPSC with the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ film, which significantly surpasses those of previously reported nip-type TPSCs with TiO₂ films. Despite this significant advance, it is imperative to further enhance the photovoltaic performance of nip-type TPSCs by several strategies in the future. For instance, introducing additives into the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL could furture elevate its CBM. Additionally, applying an ultratin layer on the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL surface may help to suppress the recombination and improve the morphology of the Sn-based perovskite layer. These approaches are crucial for further optimizing the performance of niptype TPSCs.

The other ratios of Se/S in the metal chalcogenide of $Sn(S_xSe_y)_2$ ETLs were also investigated in nip-type TPSCs, as shown in Supplementary Fig. 20 and Supplementary Table 5. Increasing the Se ratio results in a higher V_{OC} due to the shallower CBM of the corresponding ETL, as show in Supplementary Fig. 21. However, this increase in Se ratio also leads to more severe nonradiative interfacial recombination within certain limits (Supplementary Fig. 22), Consequently, the TPSC with the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL shows the highest PCE. Fig. 4d presents the incident photo-to-electric current conversion efficiency (IPCE) spectra and integrated J_{SC}s of nip-type TPSCs with TiO₂, SnS₂, and $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETLs. The margin of error for $J_{SC}s$ is around 5%, consistent with previous literature⁷¹. Such minor discrepancy can be ascribed to differences in measurement conditions (such as, the solar simulator and IPCE setup), preconditioning of samples for IPCE measurements, and variations in ion migration dynamics⁷². To verify reproducibility, 24 individual nip-type TPSCs with TiO2, SnS2, and $Sn(S_xSe_y)_2$ ETLs for each were fabricated, as shown in Supplementary Fig. 23. This result demonstrates that the PCEs of *nip*-type TPSCs with metal chalcogenide ETLs distribute over narrower ranges than that of nip-type TPSCs with TiO₂ ETLs, indicating high reproducibility of formers.

To delve deeper into the superior performance of the *nip*-type TPSC with the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL, we conducted futher analysis of photovoltaic parameters. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) spectra were employed to probe the interface properties of niptype TPSCs with TiO₂, SnS₂, and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs, as shown in Fig. 4e. Comparatively, the nip-type TPSCs with SnS2 and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs reveal reduced series resistances and charge transfer resistances compared to those with TiO₂ ETLs, implying significantly enhanced electron transport between the metal chalcogenide layer and the Sn-based perovskite layer. This observation is consistent with Fig. 3h, i and the nip-type TPSC with the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL reveal the lowest resistance and charge transfer resistance, and thus the fastest electron transport. Additionally, the *nip*-type TPSC with the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL reveals the highest carrier recombination resistance, suggesting effective suppression of carrier recombination at the interface between the Sn-based perovskite layer and the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL. This suppression can be attributed to the reduced defect density in the Sn-based perovskite film and at the interface with the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL. To explore these defects further, we analyzed the dark J-V curves, as shown in Fig. 4f. Clearly, the dark J_{SC} of the *nip*-type TPSC with the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL is one order of magnitude lower than that of the *nip*-type TPSC with the TiO₂ ETL,

indicating a reduced defect density upon substituting TiO₂ with Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ in *nip*-type TPSCs. Additionally, the plots of the *V*_{OC} versus incident light intensity further supported these findings (Supplementary Fig. 24). The ideality factor (n = 1.28 kT/q) for the *nip*-type TPSC with the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL is closer to 1 kT/q and much smaller than those of *nip*-type TPSCs with the c-TiO₂ ETL (n = 1.64 kT/q) and the SnS₂ ETL (n = 1.51 kT/q), signifying improved device characteristics.

Finally, the long-term stability of nip-type TPSCs with TiO₂, SnS₂, and Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs was examined under ambient conditions. Fig. 4g shows the stable power outputs at the maximum power point for the nip-type TPSC with the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETL, indicating its robust stability under constant illumination. Fig. 4h reveals the normalized PCE of encapsulated nip-type TPSCs with TiO₂, SnS₂, and $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETLs as a function of aging time under ambient atmosphere. Obviously, the degradation of the three devices is significantly different. The PCE of the nip-type TPSCs with the TiO₂ ETL shows a rapid degradation after 912 h, which retains only 40% of its initial efficiency after 1080 h. The nip-type TPSCs with the SnS₂ ETL still retains >80% of its initial efficiency after 1632 h. Notably, the *nip*-type TPSC with the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL still retains over 95% of its initial efficiency after 1632 h, which is of particular interest for practical applications. This underscores the potential of metal chalcogenide ETLs, particularly Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂, as a top candidate for achieving long-term stability in nip-type TPSCs, as summarized in recent stability studies (Supplementary Table 1). To comprehend this excellent stability, XRD patterns for nip-type TPSCs with TiO₂, SnS₂, and $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETLs were tested at different aging time, as shown in Supplementary Fig. 25. The XRD patterns of Sn-based perovskites on TiO₂ ETLs exhibit an additional peak indexing to SnI₄ (PDF#06-0232) after aging for 24 days^{64,65,73}. In contrast, the XRD patterns of Sn-based perovksites on the metal chalcogenide ETLs (SnS_2 and $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$) reveal the same peak even aging for 24 days. This result strongly verified that the Sn-based perovskites on TiO₂ ETLs did react with the oxygen molecules desorbed from the OV sites in TiO₂ ETL, as discussed in Fig. 3, suggesting that metal chalcogenides, especially the Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂, are promising ETL candidates for *nip-type* TPSCs with high PCE and stability.

Discussion

In conclusion, our investigation has unveiled the fundamental causes and underlying mechanisms behind the detrimental impact of metal oxide ETLs on the performance of nip-type TPSCs. This is primarily due to two factors: the oxygen molecules desorption from oxygen vacancies, which oxidizes Sn²⁺ to Sn⁴⁺ in Sn-based perovskites, and the mismatched energy levels of TiO₂ ETLs, which reduce the Voc. To address these issues, we introduced an ETL, a metal mixedchalcogenide of Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂, into the *nip*-type TPSC. Both experimental and theoretical findings demonstrate that the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL circumvents O₂ desorption, hinders the reaction between Sn²⁺ ions and O₂ present in air, and offers a shallower CBM position, improved morphology, heightened conductivity, and increased electron mobility. Consequently, nip-type TPSCs with Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})₂ ETLs achieve a significantly elevated V_{OC} , increasing from 0.48 to 0.73 V, and an enhanced PCE, rising from 6.98 - 11.78%, representing a >65% improvement. Furthermore, the $Sn(S_{0.92}Se_{0.08})_2$ ETL substantially enhances the operational stability of nip-type TPSCs, retaining over 95% of their initial efficiency after 1632 h, compared to repid degradation after 912 h with TiO₂ ETLs. This study highlights the substantial potential of metal chalcogenide ETLs in advancing nip-type TPSC performance.

Methods

Materials

Tin (IV) chloride pentahydrate (SnCl₄·5H₂O, 98%), Selenourea (CH₄N₂Se, 98%), Thioacetamide (ACS, \geq 99.0%) and 2-(2-Aminoethyl)

isothiourea dihydrobromide (AET, 99%) were purchased from Aladdin. Formamidinium Iodide (FAI) was purchased from TCI. Phenethylammonium bromide (PEABr, 97%), Tin iodide (Snl₂, AnhydroBeads, 99.99%), tin fluoride (SnF₂, 99%), N, N-dimethylformamide (DMF, anhydrous, 99.8%), dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, anhydrous, 99.9%) and chlorobenzene (CB, anhydrous, 99.8%), were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich and used as received with no further purification. a poly (triaryl amine) semiconductor (PTAA) was purchased from Xi'an Baolaite Optoelectronics Technology Co.

Device fabrication

Synthesis of metal chalcogenide nanocrystalline $(Sn(S_xSe_y)_2)$. In a typical synthesis, $SnCl_4 \cdot 5H_2O$ (1 mmol) and thioacetamide (4 mmol) were dissolved in deionized water (50 mL) under vigorously magnetic stirring. The mixed solution was stirred for 1 h until a transparent solution was formed. The as-obtained transparent solution was transferred to a Teflon-lined stainless-steel autoclave and a quartz vessel was put into Teflon-lined autoclave to contain the HCl aqueous solution (0.5 ml HCl 37 wt% aqueous solution in 5 ml Dl). Then heated in an electric oven at 160 °C for 6 h. After the hydrothermal synthesis, the obtained SnS₂ powder was cleaned with distilled water and ethanol, twice. Eventually, the SnS₂ precipitation was collected and redispersed in ethanol. For the synthesis of $Sn(S_xSe_y)_2$ (x+y=1), Selenourea (CH₄N₂Se) was added to the mixing solution of SnCl₄·5H₂O and thioacetamide under vigorously magnetic stirring, and the reaction steps were the same as before.

Fabrication of ETL layers. The patterned ITO glass substrates were cleaned in an ultrasonic bath for 15 min with detergent, deionized water three times, and anhydrous ethanol, sequentially. Then, the ITO glass substrates were dried and cleaned with UV-Ozone for 20 min. After that, the synthesized SnS_2 or $Sn(S_xSe_y)_2$ were spin-coated on the ITO at 2000 rpm for 30 s. The substrates heated in a tube furnace under the protection of a nitrogen atmosphere at 150°C for 30 min.

Fabrication of perovskite layers. The deposition of the Sn perovskite layers prepared in a glove box with oxygen content of 0.1 ppm nitrogen. For the perovskite precursor solution, a 0.8 M perovskite precursor comprised of PEABr, FAI, Snl₂, SnF₂ and AET with the molar ratio of 0.15:0.85:1:0.075:0.05 was added in a mixed solvent (DMSO: DMF = 1:4 v/v) heated at 70 °C for 1 h. The perovskite precursors were spin-coated on the surfaces of the ETL films at 1000 and 5000 rpm for 10 s and 30 s respectively. During the second stage, 320 µL Chlorobenzene was dropped onto the substrates. Finally, the substrates were annealed at temperature of 60 °C for 5 min and 80 °C for 10 min.

Fabrication of HTL layers. The PTAA solution (20 mg PTAA and 2.25 mg DPI-TPFB dissolved in 1 ml chlorobenzene) was spin coated on the surfaces of the perovskite layers at 2000 rpm for 30 s and then annealed at 70 °C for 10 min. Finally, a 120 nm Ag layer was deposited using the thermal evaporation system.

Characterizations

The morphologies of the films (Morphologies of ETLs) and devices were characterized by a field-emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM) (SU8010, Hitachi). X-ray diffraction pattern data for 2 θ values were collected using a Bruker AXD8 Advance diffractometer with nickel filtered Cu K α radiation (λ = 1.5406 Å). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) was collected using an Escalab 250Xi XPS system (Thermo Scientific). The ex(in)-situ GIWAXS experiments were carried out at beamline BL14B1 in Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility (SSRF). Time-resolved photoluminescence (TRPL) spectra were achieved by a streak camera (Hamamatsu, C6860). The laser source is an amplified titanium/sapphire laser providing 800 nm 35 fs pulses at 2 kHz which is then frequency doubled for 400 nm excitation. Steady-state Photo-Luminescence (PL)

The *J*–*V* curves were performed using a Keithley 2400 sourcemeter unit under AM 1.5 G light illumination at 100 mW cm⁻² (1 sun). (ENLITECH SS-X100R) with forward/reverse scanning modes (rate $0.01 V s^{-1}$). Before testing, the light intensity was calibrated using a standard Si reference cell (ENLITECH SRC-2020-KG1-RTD). The active area is 0.04-1 cm². The IPCE measurement was carried out by the QE-R system (Enlitech). Impedance spectroscopic measurements were recorded by an alternating bias of 50 mV by Zennium-pro (Zahner). The corresponding spectra were fitted by Z-View software.

spectra were measured by a FLS920 transient optical spectrometer

Computational details

Spin-polarized electronic structure calculations were performed using the plane-wave basis set approach as implemented in the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP)⁷⁴. The projector augmented wave (PAW) method was used to represent the ion–core electron interactions⁷⁵. The valence electrons were represented with a plane wave basis set with an energy cutoff of 450 eV. Electronic exchange and correlation were described with the Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof (PBE) functional⁷⁶. DFT-D3 method was used to avoid interactions between surface slabs. A $2 \times 2 \times 1$ Monkhorst–Pack scheme was used to generate the k-point grid for the modeled Pt materials⁷⁸. The convergence criteria for the self-consistent electronic structure and geometry were set to 10^{-5} eV and 0.05 eV/Å, respectively.

Reporting summary

Further information on research design is available in the Nature Portfolio Reporting Summary linked to this article.

Data availability

The data supporting the findings of this study are provided in the main text and the Supplementary Information. Source data are provided with this paper.

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Author contributions

T.L. and B.L. contributed equally to this work. J.L. conceived the idea, designed the experiments, and supervised the research. T.L. fabricated and characterized the devices. B.L. carried out the synthesis experiment. Y.Y. contributed to the GIWAXS test. Z.Z. contributed to the EPR spectra. P.W. and Z.J. contributed to IPCE spectra. L.D. carried out the EIS experiment. Y.Z. and Q.Z. supported this work. All authors analyzed and discussed the results. T.L. wrote the draft and J.L. reviewed and edited the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

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