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# Iodide Manipulation Using Zinc Additives for Efficient Perovskite Solar Minimodules

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12	
13	Abstract
14	Interstitial iodides are the most important type of defects in perovskite solar cells that
15	limits efficiency and stability. They can be generated during solution, film, and device
16	processing and further accelerate device degradation. Herein, we find that introducing a small
17	amount of an organozinc compound- zinc trifluoromethanesulfinate $(Zn(OOSCF_3)_2)$ in the
18	perovskite solution can control the iodide defects in resultant perovskites ink and films. CF3SOO
19	vigorously suppresses molecular iodine formation in the perovskites by reducing it to iodide,
20	while zinc cations can precipitate out excess iodide by forming a Zn-Amine complex so that the
21	iodide interstitials in the resultant perovskite films can be suppressed. The perovskite films using
22	these additives show improved photoluminescence quantum efficiency and reduce deep trap
23	density, despite that zinc cations reduce the perovskite grain size and iodide interstitials. The zinc

additives facilitate the formation of more uniform perovskite films on large-area substrates (78108 cm<sup>2</sup>) in the blade-coating process. Fabricated minimodules show power conversion
efficiencies of 19.60% and 19.21% with aperture areas of 84 and 108 cm<sup>2</sup>, respectively, as
certified by National Renewable Energy Laboratory (NREL), the highest efficiency certified for
minimodules of these sizes.

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#### 7 Introduction

Despite the efficiency of small perovskite solar cells already reaching over 25.7%, the 8 perovskite module efficiency is still far behind that of silicon modules.<sup>1,2</sup> To realize high 9 efficiency modules, it is important to use scalable methods to fabricate efficient solar cells, and 10 the resultant cell-to-module efficiency loss needs to be small. Minimizing the cell-to-11 minimodule efficiency loss needs to produce not only uniform perovskite films over a large area 12 in ambient conditions but also it needs good passivation uniformity and good uniformity of 13 14 charge transport materials. Nonuniformity of the photoactive layers mainly impacts module short circuit current density  $(J_{SC})$  and fill factor (FF), despite the loss of averaged open circuit voltage 15  $(V_{OC})$  of subcells from modules is sometimes observed. 16

Several efforts reported promising improvements of minimodules with small aperture areas by improving perovskite phase stability,<sup>3,4</sup> hole transporting layer (HTL)/perovskite and perovskite/electron transporting layer (ETL) interfaces and their contact,<sup>5–7</sup> and charge transport properties.<sup>6–8</sup> Even after all these efforts, relative cell-to-module efficiency loss is *ca*. 15-20% with an aperture area between 20-50 cm<sup>2,5–9</sup> None of these studies addresses other important issues, such as iodide interstitial defects to reduce the cell-to-module efficiency loss. Nonuniformity arises from oxidized perovskite inks, especially oxidation of iodide to molecular iodine when inks are exposed to ambient environment during the fabrication process in the ambient conditions. In addition, introduction of 2D-iodide salts such as phenethylammonium iodide (PEAI) and dodecyl ammonium iodide (DDAI) in the perovskite inks increases more iodide and thus introduce more iodide interstitials. Both molecular iodine generation in inks and many iodide interstitials in the perovskite films introduce nonuniformity in perovskite films and thus lead to larger cell-to-module efficiency loss apart from the dead area and ITO resistive losses in minimodule design and fabrication.<sup>10</sup>

In our study, we address these two issues by introducing organozinc salts in the perovskite 8 9 inks. In the organozinc compound, organic anions (CF<sub>3</sub>SOO<sup>-</sup> ions) vigorously reduce the molecular iodine into iodides, whereas zinc cations can take away excess iodide by forming a 10 Zn-Amine complex in the perovskite inks. Therefore, we are able to demonstrate large aperture 11 area modules (78-108 cm<sup>2</sup>) with high reproducibility by improving the perovskite film quality 12 and uniformity. Minimodules with an aperture area of 78-108 cm<sup>2</sup> show an average aperture area 13 efficiency between 19.21% and 19.55%, with NREL certified efficiency of 19.60% at a much 14 larger aperture area of  $79.67 \text{ cm}^2$ . 15

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#### 17 **Results and Discussion:**

#### 18 Organozinc additive and Device Performance

Metal salts and their complexes have been frequently used to tune the composition or modify the surface of perovskites to enhance the solar cell performance, especially  $V_{OC}$  and FF.<sup>11–15</sup> Previously, zinc halide salts (ZnX<sub>2</sub>, X = Cl, Br, or I) were reported to improve the small device performance.<sup>13</sup> Here we modified the organozinc additives with different organic an ions including -COO<sup>-</sup>, -SOO<sup>-</sup>, and -SO<sub>2</sub>O<sup>-</sup> anions having the strong affinity to the Pb<sup>2+</sup> ion.<sup>16</sup> We

thus added different organozinc salts, including zinc formate [Zn(OOCH)<sub>2</sub>], zinc acetate 1  $[Zn(OOCCH_3)_2]$ , zinc trifluoroacetate  $[Zn(OOCCF_3)_2]$ , zinc trifluoromethane sulfinate 2  $[Zn(OOSCF_3)_2]$ , and zinc trifluoromethane sulfonate  $[Zn(OO_2SCF_3)_2]$  as listed in **Fig.1a** into the 3 perovskite ink and evaluated their impacts on the device performances. To verify the effects of 4 organozinc compounds, we first fabricated small area devices with a mixed cation composition 5 6 of methylammonium (30%)-formamidinium (70%) lead iodide ( $FA_{0.3}MA_{0.7}PbI_3$ ) as an active layer with varying the concentration of each organozinc additive by following our established 7 blading procedure.<sup>17,18</sup> 8

9 Fig.1b summarizes the performance statistics of the devices with optimized concentration (Fig. S1 for other concentrations) of different organozinc additives. The control devices deliver 10 an average efficiency of 22.22±0.69%, agreeing with previous study.<sup>5,17</sup> Devices with organozinc 11 additives of Zn(OOCH)<sub>2</sub>, Zn(OOCCH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, Zn(OOCCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, and Zn(OO<sub>2</sub>SCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> 12 deliver the average efficiency of 22.59±0.44%, 22.03±0.48%, 22.28±0.86%, 23.61±0.30%, and 13 14  $22.83\pm0.40\%$  at specific molar concentrations (compared to the Pb-concentration) of 0.42%, 0.28%, 0.42%, 0.28%, and 0.42%, respectively. Among all the additives, Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> delivers 15 the highest efficiency at almost all the additive concentrations. At the optimized concentration of 16 17 0.28% for Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, small devices are highly reproducible with all-around best device parameters as shown by the J-V characteristics from seven devices shown in Fig.S2. All the 18 19 device performance parameters from 30 devices from different batches are summarized in **Table** 20 S1, which again confirms the excellent reproducibility for these high-performance small area devices. 21



Fig.1. Photovoltaic performance of small area cells. (a) molecular structures of organozinc compounds as additives, (b) the performance statistics of the small devices with optimized concentration of different organozinc additives, (c) solar cell performance for small devices with varied Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentrations, (d) *J-V* curves small devices with varied Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentrations, (d) *J-V* curves small devices with varied Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentrations, (d) *J-V* curves small devices with varied Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentrations, (d) *J-V* curves small devices with varied Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentrations, (d) *J-V* curves small devices with varied Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentrations, (d) *J-V* curves small devices with varied Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentrations, (d) *J-V* curves small devices with varied Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentrations, (d) *J-V* curves small devices with varied Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentrations, (d) *J-V* curves small devices with varied Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentrations, (d) *J-V* curves small devices with varied Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentrations, (d) *J-V* curves small devices with varied Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentrations, (d) *J-V* curves small devices with varied Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentrations, (d) *J-V* curves small devices with varied Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> at *V<sub>oc</sub>* condition under 1 sun of LED light at 50±5 °C and 50±10% RH. There were 9 devices tested for each type of devices. The devices have an active area of 0.08 cm<sup>2</sup>.

We studied the impact of  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  concentration on solar cell performance by 2 analyzing how the photovoltaic parameters changes. Fig.1c-d shows performance statistics and 3 J-V curves of the solar cells with  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  of different concentration. With increased 4  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  concentration, the average  $V_{OC}$  increased from 1.16±0.01 V for the control devices 5 6 to  $1.18\pm0.00$  V for the devices with 0.28% Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, and the average FF increased from 0.80±0.02 for the control device to 0.82±0.01 for the devices with 0.28% Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>. There 7 was no clear trend for the variation of  $J_{SC}$  with increased Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> concentration, despite 8 9 that the devices with optimal 0.28% Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> also improved slightly compared to the control devices. The results indicate that  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  improves the device efficiency through 10 the defect passivation as both  $V_{OC}$  and FF are significantly improved.<sup>19–22</sup> 11

We also tested the light-soaking stability of the small control devices and devices with 12 Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> under 1 sun light at open circuit condition, following ISOS-L-1. The devices were 13 14 encapsulated using epoxy and tested in air with  $50\pm20\%$  relative humidity, where the LED solar simulator light heated up the devices to 55±5 °C. The evolution of the efficiency with statistics is 15 shown in **Fig.1e and S3**. The devices with  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  retained 81.2% of its initial efficiency 16 17 after light soaking for 1078 hours, while the control devices retain 72.8% of their initial efficiency after 1039 hours of light soaking, showing that organozinc additives improved the 18 19 light stability of perovskite solar cells.

After verifying the small device performance with the optimized concentration of Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, we blade coated large area (>78 cm2) perovskite films and fand fabricated minimodules with an aperture area of 78-108 cm<sup>2</sup>. The resultant perovskite films appear smooth and uniform (**Fig.2a and S4**). Minimodules have the same structure and fabrication procedures

as previously reported,<sup>17,18</sup> and a photograph of several fabricated minimodules is shown in 1 Fig.2b. J-V characteristic curves of the minimodules with different aperture area are shown in 2 Fig.2c. Minimodules with aperture area of 78 cm<sup>2</sup>, 84 cm<sup>2</sup> and 108 cm<sup>2</sup> delivered champion 3 efficiencies of 20.18% ( $V_{OC} = 1.17 \text{ V}$ ;  $J_{SC} = 21.45 \text{ mA} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$ ; and FF = 0.801), 20.18% ( $V_{OC} = 1.17 \text{ V}$ ;  $J_{SC} = 21.45 \text{ mA} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$ ; 4 1.18 V;  $J_{SC} = 21.99 \text{ mA} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$ ; FF = 0.796), and 20.23% ( $V_{OC} = 1.19 \text{ V}$ ;  $J_{SC} = 22.04 \text{ mA} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$ ; 5 and FF = 0.772), respectively. It is also found that all the minimodules fabricated with 0.14-6 0.28% Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> showed very reproducible performance among 67 fabricated minimodules. 7 Average efficiencies of minimodules with aperture areas of 78, 84, and 108 cm<sup>2</sup> are 8 9 19.47±0.50%, 19.55±0.47%, and 19.21±0.51%, respectively, as shown in Fig.2d. The detailed photovoltaic parameters of all the minimodules with different aperture area are summarized in 10 Table S2. Similar minimodule performance regardless of the aperture area variation indicates 11 uniform and high-quality perovskite films facilitated by the introduction of Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>-12 organozinc compound. To verify their efficiency, we sent several minimodules to NREL for 13 certification, and it showed a stabilized efficiency of 19.60% with an aperture area of ~80 cm<sup>2</sup>, as 14 shown in **Fig.2e**. 15



Fig.2. Perovskite minimodule performance. (a) a photograph of a bladed FA<sub>0.3</sub>MA<sub>0.7</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> perovskite film on a ITO substrate with an area of ~130 cm<sup>2</sup>, (b) a photograph of encapsulated minimodules with aperture areas of ~78 cm<sup>2</sup>, (c) J-V curves of the minimodule with aperture areas of 78, 84, and 108 cm<sup>2</sup>, respectively; (d) performance statistics of the minimodules with an aperture areas of 78, 84, and 108 cm<sup>2</sup>, respectively; and (e) the stabilized power output of the champion minimodules fixed at a bias of maximum power point for 360 s tested by NREL.

9 This demonstration of larger area minimodules (80-110 cm<sup>2</sup>) with a stabilized aperture 10 efficiency of 19.60% (active area efficiency of 20.66%) and champion efficiency of 20.20% 11 (active area efficiency of 21.24%), which is the record stabilized efficiency on ~100 cm<sup>2</sup> larger 12 aperture area as summarized in the following **Table S3**.

#### Optoelectronic and morphologic property change by Zn(OOSCF3)2

To understand how  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  enhances the perovskite solar cell efficiency, we 2 investigated the quality of FA0.3MA0.7PbI3 perovskite thin films bladed on ITO/PTAA and 3 carried out the optical and morphological characterization as shown in Fig.3. As shown in 4 **Fig.3a**, among all the Zn additives,  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  improves the photoluminescence the most: it 5 6 showed *ca.* 1.6 folds higher stead-state photoluminescence (PL) intensity than that of the control samples, indicating that Zn-additives reduce non-radiative recombination processes. PL quantum 7 yield ( $\Phi_{PL}$ ) and PL lifetime measurements were conducted on the control and the perovskite 8 9 films with  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  with a structure of ITO/PTAA/Perovskite, and  $\Phi_{PL}$  of the film with Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> is 1.4 folds of the control film (0.46% vs. 0.66%). FA<sub>0.3</sub>MA<sub>0.7</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> films with 10 Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> also showed ~6 nm blue shift of PL peak as shown in Fig.3b, indicating that 11  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  additives reduced the band-tail states.<sup>23,24</sup> The perovskite films with  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$ 12 also showed almost 3-times longer PL lifetime (0.7 µs for control film vs 2.0 µs for 0.28% 13  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  added film), as shown in **Fig.3c**. These studies conclude that  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  can 14 passivate defects in the polycrystalline perovskites. 15

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Fig.3. Optical property of Perovskite Thin Films: (a) integrated PL intensity of control and
perovskite films with different types of Zn-additives, (b) PL intensity of perovskite films without
and with Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, (c) PL decay curves of perovskite films with and without Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>,
and (d) electroluminescence (EL) spectra perovskite devices with and without Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>.

1

7 We further collected electroluminescence (EL) spectra of the control device and the 8 devices with  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  added in the perovskites at an injection current of 24 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> (close 9 to the *Jsc* of device measured at 1 sun illumination). As shown in **Fig.3d**, EL intensity for the 10 devices with  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  added films is *ca*. 2.5-folds higher than that of the control devices, 11 indicating low non-radiative recombination losses that lead to the enhancement of *Voc*. Estimated *Voc* increase from the enhancement of EL intensity compared to the control device is
found to be ~23.8 mV. Increase in *FF* can be explained by the change in the series resistance
(R<sub>s</sub>) and larger shunt resistance (R<sub>sh</sub>) of the devices. As shown in Fig.S5 and Table S4, the
champion devices with 0.28% Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> added perovskite films showed *ca*.1.4-fold higher
R<sub>sh</sub> and *ca*.1.1-fold lower R<sub>s</sub>.

6 We also checked the morphology of MA<sub>0.7</sub>FA<sub>0.3</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> perovskite films without/with Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> under scanning electron microscopy (SEM), to further find out whether 7  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  additive change grain growth behaviors. Fig.4a, b shows that the surface 8 9 morphology of the perovskite films with Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> is much different than that of the control thin films. In addition, slightly smaller grain sizes were observed from the SEM cross-section 10 images shown in Fig.4c, d, suggesting small metal ions such as  $Zn^{2+}$  likely increase the 11 nucleation rate during the crystallization. X-ray diffraction patten in Fig.4e-f shows that the 12 crystallinity of the film with  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  is not changed. Generally, a smaller grain size would 13 likely create more grain boundaries and thus induce more non-radiative charge recombination, 14 which contrasts with the observed PL and EL enhancement, and device performance 15 improvement. This indicates that the cations and anions have additional functions to passivate 16 17 the introduced defects.



Fig.4. Morphological Characterization of Perovskite Thin Films: (a-d) comparison of top
surface cross-section SEM images of control and Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> added perovskite films, (e, d)
XRD patterns of control film and Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> added films showing the differences in peak
intensity and broadness, respectively.

#### 8 Function of cations and anions of Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>

9 To verify if only Zn<sup>2+</sup> ions, or only organic anions, or both contribute device performance 10 enhancement, we fabricated small devices with zinc halides as additive. As shown in **Fig.S6**, 11 devices with ZnCl<sub>2</sub>, ZnBr<sub>2</sub>, and ZnI<sub>2</sub> showed comparable average efficiencies of 22.61±0.39%, 12 22.10±0.36%, and 22.45±0.40% after optimization, respectively. These efficiencies of the 13 devices with ZnX<sub>2</sub> additives are comparable to that of the control devices, but much lower than 14 that of the devices with Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> as an additive, indicating that the organic anions played 15 the critical role in enhancing the device efficiency.

1	It is known that $CF_3SOO^-$ ions can generate	$SO_2$ and
2	$CF_3^-$ in presence of heat, acids, or bases, <sup>25,</sup> where SO <sub>2</sub> is a good reducing agent for the	e iodine and
3	triiodide reduction. <sup>25,26</sup> Previous studies have shown that molecular iodine ge	neration in
4	perovskites under illumination is a common phenomenon and can accelerate the deg	gradation of
5	perovskites <sup>17</sup> We thus hypothesize that $CF_3SOO^-$ ions can reduce $I_2$ into $I_3^-$ in the	e perovskite
6	solutions. <sup>17</sup> To verify it, we added $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$ into the iodine solution with a mo	olar ratio of
7	1:1, and observed that iodine color started to shifting from dark brown to transpare	nt ( <b>Fig.5a</b> ).
8	When the solution mixture of $I_2$ and $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$ was put under the constant heat a	t 120 °C for
9	over 15 minutes in presence of water or in a mixture MAI and FAI (7:3), iodine color	disappears,
10	as supported by the absorption spectra in Fig.5b. Therefore, the added CF3SOC	) <sup>−</sup> ions can
11	suppress $I_2$ formation in the perovskite solution, which is critical in the fabrication of	f perovskite
12	solar cells in open air environment.	

Since iodide interstitials form deep trapping states, and its concentration goes up with 13 more iodide in precursor solution, we examined the iodide related deep trap density by the drive-14 level capacitance profiling (DLCP), and trap density of states (tDOS) by thermal admittance 15 spectroscopy (TAS). The presence of  $I_i^-$  in the perovskites in the devices can be readily 16 identified by the TAS and DLCP measurements.<sup>27</sup> As shown in **Fig.5c**, the *tDOS* results reveals 17 18 the trap density related to iodide interstitials actually slightly reduced in the FA0.3MA0.7PbI3 polycrystalline thin film solar cells with the Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>.<sup>28</sup> DCLP study reveals the deep trap 19 density was reduced through the whole perovskite films as shown in Fig.5d. The reduction of the 20 21 deep traps in the perovskite thin films explains the passivation effect and the resultant increase in  $V_{OC}$ .<sup>28</sup> However, it cannot be explained by CF<sub>3</sub>SOO<sup>-</sup> ions, because CF<sub>3</sub>SOO<sup>-</sup> ions cannot 22 decrease the iodide interstitial concentration in the precursor concentration. 23



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Fig.5. (a) optical images showing the roles of CF<sub>3</sub>SOO<sup>-</sup> ions in the iodine reduction and the 4 5 proposed reaction of the iodine reduction, (b) the absorption spectra collected at different 6 conditions showing the iodine reduction of CF<sub>3</sub>SOO<sup>-</sup>ions. In the experiment, 1.9 M I<sub>2</sub> solution in 2-ME, 60 mol% Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> in 2-ME w.r.t the I<sub>2</sub> solution, and 100 mol% a mixture of FAI and 7 MAI (3:7) w.r.t the I<sub>2</sub> solution were used. For the absorption measurement, respective diluted 8 9 solutions were used. (c) tDOS spectra of a FA<sub>0.3</sub>MA<sub>0.7</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> polycrystalline thin film solar cells 10 without and with  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$ . (d) spatial distributions of II with the trap depth of 0.35 eV in the FA<sub>0.3</sub>MA<sub>0.7</sub>PbI<sub>3</sub> solar cells without/with the addition of Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> under a forward bias of 11

+1.2 V measured by DLCP (note that C<sub>60</sub> or PTAA in the inset indicates the location that is close
to the C<sub>60</sub> or PTAA layer of the device). (e) an optical photograph showing Zn-amine complex
formation in the perovskite precursor solution when Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> is added in the perovskite
precursor solution in an excess amount (e.g., 2.5 mol% to Pb). (f) XRD patterns of control film,
films added with Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> at different molar concentration with respect to the PbI<sub>2</sub>
concentration, and synthesized Zn-amine complex from a mixture of MAI, FAI, and
Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>.

We then examined the function of zinc cations. It is reported that Zn<sup>2+</sup> can form Zn-8 9 amine complex,  $Zn(FA_xMA_{1-x})_4I_2$  [x has the maximum value of 1], in presence of primary amines or primary ammonium salts.<sup>29-31</sup> Zn-amine complex can easily be observed as it 10 precipitates out for a while in the perovskite precursor solution when  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$  was added in 11 the perovskite precursor solution in an excess amount (e.g., 2.5 mol% to Pb). Fig.5e shows the 12 difference between the control perovskite precursor and precursor added with 2.5 mol% 13 14  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$ , where the white precipitate is the Zn-amine complex. To verify if Zn-amine complex can be formed from MAI and FAI from a mixture of FA0.3MA0.7I, we synthesized this 15 complex by mixing FAI, MAI, and Zn(OOSCF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> in 2-ME at room temperature. Formed 16 17 complex (the inset image of Fig.5e) is rod-shaped and very crystalline as this complex is reported previously.<sup>31</sup> XRD pattern of this complex shown in **Fig.5f** gives very strong peak 18 19 around 26°, which corresponds to the XRD peaks in the target perovskite films and further 20 verifies the formation of Zn-amine complex.

We thus conclude that the reduction in trap density is caused by the I<sup>-</sup> precipitation by zinc salts. The formation of  $Zn(FA_xMA_{1-x})_4I_2$  complex to takes excess I<sup>-</sup> ions from perovskite solution has important implications. In many perovskite solutions, iodide salts such as PEAI and DDAI are introduced to form 2D perovskites for passivation, but they inevitably introduce more
iodide and thus introduce more iodide interstitials. This provides an approach to modulate the
iodide concentration in perovskite solution.

4

#### 5 Conclusion

In conclusion, we discovered a family of zinc additives which could improve the 6 efficiency and stability of perovskite solar cells. Among all the zinc additives,  $Zn(OOSCF_3)_2$ 7 showed the best performance in passivating the defects of the perovskites despite its addition 8 9 reduced grain sizes. The CF<sub>3</sub>SOO<sup>-</sup> anions can reduce the generated iodine during perovskite solution or device aging, while the zinc cations can precipitate the excess iodide so that the 10 iodide interstitial concentration reduced throughout the films, resulting in improved device 11 efficiency and stability. These additives also improve the uniformity and reproducibility of 12 perovskite films, which facilitated the demonstration of minimodules with larger aperture areas 13 of 80-100  $\text{cm}^2$  with certified efficiency of 19.60%. 14

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#### 16 **Conflicts of Interest**

17 The authors declare the following competing financial interest: Benjia Dak Dou is 18 employed by CubicPV Inc., a manufacturer of solar photovoltaic equipment and 19 materials.

20

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