

Switchable Color Semiconductors: Methylamine Intercalation, Deintercalation, and Retention in Two-Dimensional Halide Perovskites

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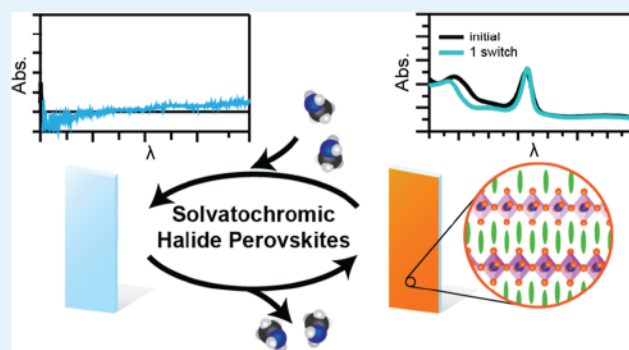
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ABSTRACT: The low formation energy of metal halide perovskites (MHPs) and their high performance in optoelectronic applications make them rather interesting semiconductor materials. In this work, we take advantage of the tunability of two-dimensional (2D) halide perovskites of the type A_2PbI_4 to explore a chromogenic mechanism in these materials where methylamine is allowed to intercalate into and deintercalate from the halide perovskite films. Methylamine intercalation results in a change in color from the initial yellow/orange color of the A_2PbI_4 films to visibly transparent films, while deintercalation leads to a return of a colored film. The reversibility of this solvatochromic mechanism was found to be highly dependent on the nature of the A-site cation used. We observe the formation of iodoplumbate phases, mixed 2D/three-dimensional (3D) perovskites, and/or 3D perovskites as secondary phases formed in some systems and, by exploring a wide array of A_2PbI_4 materials, we identify key design rules for the A-site cation to limit secondary phase formation and structural changes associated with methylamine intercalation/deintercalation. Specifically, the effects of changing cation–cation, cation “head”–inorganic, and cation “tail”–inorganic interactions in this system are demonstrated. By carefully controlling these interactions, more robust solvatochromic systems are realized. These initial explorations of metal halide solvatochromism improve the understanding of A-site cation design in A_2PbI_4 MHPs and show that these are a promising class of solvatochromic semiconductors.

KEYWORDS: chromogen, halide perovskites, two-dimensional, methylamine, semiconductors, color change



INTRODUCTION

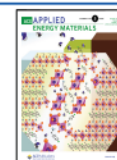
Metal halide perovskites (MHPs) and an even wider array of perovskite-inspired materials have been explored in recent years for their interesting properties and suitability to a wide range of devices and applications.^{1–8} MHPs are a class of semiconductors with AMX_3 stoichiometry, which structurally consist of corner-sharing $[MX_6]^{2-}$ octahedra ($M = Pb^{2+}, Sn^{2+}$, etc.; $X = I^-, Br^-, Cl^-$) with an A-site cation supporting this M–X framework; however, within this general structural motif, MHPs exhibit considerable flexibility.^{9,10} For example, the A-site cation can be an alkali metal or small organic cation ($A = Cs^+$, methylammonium, or formamidinium) and form an extended three-dimensional (3D) network of corner-sharing $[MX_6]^{2-}$ octahedra, or two-dimensional (2D) networks of $[MX_6]^{2-}$ octahedra can be formed, separated by a layer of the A-site cation, as in Ruddlesden–Popper and Dion–Jacobson phases.^{10,11} In Ruddlesden–Popper MHPs, the materials have the general formula $A'_2A_{n-1}M_nX_{3n+1}$, where A and A' are 1+ cations, and n ($n = 1, 2, 3, \dots, \infty$) indicates the number of connected $[MX_6]^{2-}$ octahedral sheets within each metal halide

The rather unique combination of low-temperature processing, long charge carrier diffusion lengths, tunable optical absorption, and defect tolerance has enabled MHP solar cells with power conversion efficiencies >25% and¹² light-emitting diodes (LEDs) with quantum efficiencies >20%⁸ and spurred interest for a range of other optoelectronic applications, such as gas sensing,³ radiation detection,⁶ neuromorphic computing,⁴ and spin-polarized LEDs.⁵ While most inorganic semiconductors are unable to change their optical properties on demand, MHPs can be chromogenic. Chromogenic materials are materials that change color state under the action of external stimuli (e.g., temperature, light, electric potential, and solvent/vapor). In MHPs, chromogenic behavior can be achieved through gas intercalation^{3,7,13,14} or

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crystal phase transformations,¹⁵ with some MHPs showing multicolor chromism.¹⁶ When combined with the excellent optoelectronic properties of MHPs, chromogenic behavior has the potential to unlock exciting new functionalities. For example, an initial demonstration by Wheeler *et al.* has shown a high power conversion efficiency (>11%) photovoltaic window, which could dynamically switch its visible light transmittance between a power-producing dark state, and a highly transparent state, which performed well as a window.⁷ In photovoltaic windows, a controllable color change could allow the device to avoid the tradeoffs between power production and visible transmittance¹⁷ but, more generally, dynamic control of semiconductor properties could enable new applications.

One interesting chromogenic mechanism is the intercalation of solvent molecules, termed solvatochromism. Intercalation of solvent molecules into the MHP structure can readily occur. Early work by Saparov and Mitzi demonstrated that pentafluorophenethylammonium-based $(\text{C}_6\text{F}_5\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{NH}_3)_2\text{SnI}_4$ 2D perovskites could effectively intercalate aryl compounds into the organic cation bilayers, forming new crystalline materials.⁹ Later, the intercalation–deintercalation of water molecules was found to cause methylammonium lead iodide (MAPbI_3) to change from dark to clear.^{13,14,18} The switchable photovoltaic window reported by Wheeler *et al.* utilized the intercalation–deintercalation of methylamine (MA) in MAPbI_3 to control the color state.⁷ For solvatochromic systems, a key challenge is the development of solvents to reversibly intercalate and deintercalate without degrading the MHP. This represents a key challenge for applications of these systems. For example, while water can reversibly hydrate dark brown/black MAPbI_3 and form the colorless hydrate $\text{MAPbI}_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$,¹⁴ significant recrystallization occurs and exposure to light results in the irreversible degradation to PbI_2 .¹³ Similarly, intercalation of methylamine gas into MAPbI_3 generates the colorless material $\text{MAPbI}_3 \cdot x\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_2$ but leaves significant structural changes upon deintercalation.^{7,19}

The templating effects of the A-site cation have been explored in MHPs for 30 years,^{11,20} proving to be a useful tool for controlling the structure and tuning properties.⁹ In this work, we utilize A_2PbI_4 MHPs and explore the solvatochromism of these materials with MA. This A_2PbI_4 stoichiometry is typical of Ruddlesden–Popper phase halide perovskites, but the exact structure is dependent on the A-site cation used.²¹ We find that the reversibility of solvatochromism in these MHPs is highly dependent on the A-site material used, with the primary irreversibility being incomplete MA deintercalation and also the volatility of the deprotonated A-site cations. When MA is retained in the films and does not fully deintercalate, we observe a variety of secondary phases that form depending on the amount of MA that remains within the A_2PbI_4 films. The wide tunability of 2D MHPs offers an interesting materials design aspect for tuning solvatochromic semiconductor properties and improving the reversibility of this color change mechanism. We explore a selected subset of this material space to begin to understand design rules for solvatochromic MHPs. Modulating the intermolecular forces occurring in the organic A-site interlayer, the $\text{NH}_3 \cdots \text{I}$ hydrogen bonding interactions between the interlayer and inorganic perovskite sheets, and the organic “tail” and perovskite sheets allow for the control and reduction of secondary phase

■ EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

Materials. Ammonium halide salts and fluorine-doped tin oxide glass substrates were purchased from Greatcell Solar Materials and used as received. Lead (II) iodide (99.9985% metals basis) was purchased from Alfa Aesar. All other chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used as received.

Synthesis of Phenbutylammonium Iodide. Phenbutylammonium iodide was synthesized by adapting a previously demonstrated procedure for phenethylammonium iodide synthesis.²² First, 12 mmol 4-phenbutylamine was combined with 2 mL of ethanol and cooled with a salted ice bath. Concentrated HI (57 wt.% in water) was slowly added dropwise in slight excess (~13 mmol), and a precipitate was formed. The precipitate was washed with cold diethyl ether and filtered using vacuum filtration to remove excess iodide. The remaining white solid was then dissolved in the minimum amount of hot (60 °C) isopropanol and then cooled to –10 °C in order to recrystallize. The crystals were washed again with vacuum filtration and cold isopropanol and allowed to dry completely before use.

Synthesis of 4-Iodophenethylammonium Iodide. 4-Iodophenethylammonium iodide was synthesized similar to phenbutylammonium iodide. First, 4 mmol 4-iodo-phenethylamine was combined with 667 μL of ethanol and cooled with a salted ice bath. Concentrated HI (57 wt.% in water) was slowly added dropwise in slight excess (~4.5 mmol), and a precipitate was formed. The precipitate was washed with cold diethyl ether and filtered using vacuum filtration to remove excess iodide. The remaining yellow solid was then dissolved in the minimum amount of hot (~60 °C) isopropanol and then cooled to ~0 °C. Cold diethyl ether was added to precipitate the compound fully, and then the white solid was isolated by vacuum filtration.

Preparation of A_2PbX_4 Films. To fabricate halide perovskites with the general formula A_2PbX_4 , a similar method was used for each A site: ethylammonium ($\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{NH}_3^+$, EA), phenethylammonium ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{NH}_3^+$, PEA), 4-fluorophenethylammonium ($\text{FC}_6\text{H}_4\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{NH}_3^+$, F-PEA), 4-chlorophenethylammonium ($\text{ClC}_6\text{H}_4\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{NH}_3^+$, Cl-PEA), 4-iodophenethylammonium ($\text{IC}_6\text{H}_4\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{NH}_3^+$, I-PEA), 4-methoxyphenethylammonium ($\text{CH}_3\text{OC}_6\text{H}_4\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{NH}_3^+$, MeO-PEA), 4-hydroxyphenethylammonium ($\text{HOC}_6\text{H}_4\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{NH}_3^+$, HO-PEA), phenbutylammonium ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{C}_4\text{H}_8\text{NH}_3^+$, PBA), *n*-pentylammonium ($(\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_4\text{NH}_3^+$, *n*-PA), 4-methoxyphenylammonium ($\text{CH}_3\text{OC}_6\text{H}_4\text{NH}_3^+$, MeO-PhA), and phenylammonium ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NH}_3^+$, PhA).

Precursor solutions were prepared in a mixed solvent of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and dimethylformamide (DMF). A ratio of 2 mmol AI (where AI is one of the iodide salts of the ammonium cations listed above), 1 mmol PbI_2 , and 1 mmol DMSO were added to 600 mg of DMF and mixed vigorously until the solids were completely dissolved. These precursor solutions were then diluted by the addition of DMF to fabricate thinner films, depending on the desired optical density for a specific experiment (e.g., 1:10 v/v for some absorption experiments, 1:3 v/v for SEM imaging of morphology). Fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) glass substrates (2.5 × 2.5 cm, TEC7) were cleaned by sonication in a soap solution for 10 min and then in isopropanol for an additional 10 min. Just before film deposition, the substrates were cleaned using a UV–ozone cleaner for 10 min. Perovskite film deposition was carried out in a nitrogen purge box with a relative humidity of less than 10%. Approximately 40 μL of the precursor solution was spread onto the FTO substrate and then coated by spin coating at 4000 rpm for 25 s. With 15 s remaining, 200 μL of toluene antisolvent was dripped onto the center of the substrate.²³ For some AI salts and thicker films, the precise timing and volume of antisolvent were changed slightly to achieve more specular films; toluene volume ranged from 200 to 500 μL , and drip time ranged from 15 to 17 s remaining. Films that were not diluted at all with DMF exhibited significant scattering. Following spin coating, the films were annealed on a hotplate at 110 °C for 10 min.

In Situ Absorption Measurements. Absorption kinetics measurements were taken using an Ocean Insight Flame-T spectrophotometer and a tungsten halogen light source (HL-2000-

LL). Films were measured in a sealed cuvette. To expose the film to MA vapor, N_2 was slowly bubbled through an MA solution and introduced into the cuvette atmosphere. Using a 3-way valve, the cuvette atmosphere could be rapidly changed to pure N_2 .

MA Vapor Switching. To switch the perovskite films using MA, the film was placed at the bottom of a gas wash chamber. To expose the film to MA vapor, N_2 was slowly bubbled through a solution of MA in ethanol and introduced into the gas wash chamber until the sample turned completely colorless. The flow was then switched to pure N_2 using a 3-way valve, and the chamber was purged with N_2 until the film changed back to a dark shade. We define one cycle of this color change process (*viz.*, exposure of the film to MA gas to turn the film clear and then removal of the MA gas) as a switch.

While in most of the experiments presented, moisture was present (at some level) during the described experiments, in specific experiments, as discussed in the article, we took additional care to ensure that the system was moisture-free throughout the process by using fresh, anhydrous methylamine solution and purging the entire system with nitrogen for an extended period before beginning.

Additionally, the perovskite films were switched by placing them briefly over the top of a vial of MA solution and then removing them. This method led to larger variation in MA exposure (not all portions of the films changed color, or some portions were exposed to too much MA) and so was only used for the multiple switch experiments presented in the [Supporting Information](#).

Characterization. UV–visible absorption spectroscopy (steady-state) measurements were conducted using a Cary 50 UV-VIS spectrophotometer. X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements of the samples were performed with a Rigaku MiniFlex powder X-ray diffractometer using a $Cu K\alpha$ source and a step size of 0.03° . 1H NMR spectra were obtained on a Bruker Avance III 400 MHz spectrometer using standard acquisition parameters. Scanning electron micrographs were obtained using a JEOL JSM-IT700HR FESEM imaging using a 5 kV accelerating voltage and a secondary electron detector.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Exploring the Solvatochromism of PEA_2PbI_4 and Methylamine. Initial investigations were centered on the 2D halide perovskite PEA lead iodide, PEA_2PbI_4 .²² PEA_2PbI_4 readily forms layered two-dimensional perovskite structures, referred to as a 2D perovskite.^{10,11} To study the interactions between 2D perovskites and MA vapor, PEA_2PbI_4 films were exposed to MA gas by slowly bubbling nitrogen through a solution of MA in ethanol and then exposing the film to this gas stream, as described in the [Experimental Details](#). As has been shown for $MAPbI_3$,⁷ MA intercalates into the perovskite material and causes the film to become visibly transparent. Then, to deintercalate MA, the gas sweeping the system was changed from the MA/ N_2 mixture to pure N_2 . This leads to deintercalation of MA from the film and a change from visibly transparent to a visibly colored film. Herein, we refer to this intercalation/deintercalation process as a “switch” because the color switches from colored to clear and back to colored. A schematic of this process is shown in [Figure 1](#), and in some cases, we perform multiple cycles of intercalation/deintercalation as indicated [*e.g.*, m switch(es), $m = 1, 2, 3...$]. [Figure 2](#) shows *in situ* absorption measurements that were taken during MA intercalation/deintercalation of PEA_2PbI_4 . [Figure 2A](#) shows XRD measurements of the films initially and after a color switch compared to other materials.

PEA_2PbI_4 films were seen to bleach rapidly upon MA exposure, with the kinetics of this bleaching convoluted with the kinetics of gas exposure ([Figure 2B](#), inset). Removing MA from the gas stream, there is a fast (~ 5 – 15 s) recovery of the

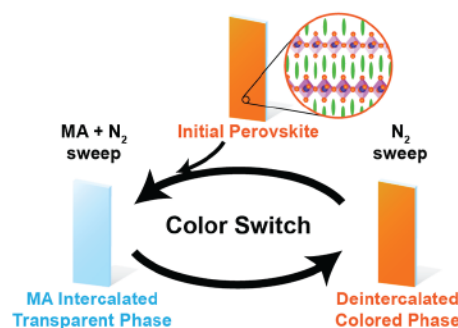
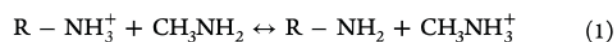


Figure 1. Color switch scheme. Basic schematic showing the process for MA intercalation/deintercalation used in this study. Throughout this article, this process is called a “switch” for shorthand.

of PEA_2PbI_4 . In addition, there is the appearance of a new peak at ~ 545 nm, indicating the formation of $(PEA)_2MAPb_2I_7$ [$(A)_2A'_{n-1}B_nX_{3n+1}$ with $n = 2$]. This provides evidence that a rather significant amount of MA remains incorporated into the perovskite structure. The formation of this $n = 2$ phase requires that the following generic proton exchange reaction between the ammonium cation ($R-NH_3^+$) and methylamine, shown in [eq 1](#), takes place in the films.



As the film is swept with N_2 gas, MA continues to deintercalate, and some of $(PEA)_2MAPb_2I_7$ converts back into PEA_2PbI_4 , as seen by the decrease in absorption at 545 nm ($n = 2$ phase) and continued growth of the absorption at 510 nm ($n = 1$) ([Figure 2C](#) and inset), with the reaction in [eq 1](#) proceeding in reverse. This interpretation is supported by XRD analysis ([Figure 2A](#)). In the switched film, the primary XRD peaks are associated with the (00 l) peaks of $n = 1$ PEA_2PbI_4 [*viz.*, (001) peak at 5.47° , (002) peak at 10.90° , *etc.*], but there are also new XRD peaks that correspond to the $n = 2$ phase $(PEA)_2MAPb_2I_7$, for example the peaks at 7.96° and 11.95° correspond to the (002) and (003) reflections of this phase.²⁴ However, the decay kinetics of $(PEA)_2MAPb_2I_7$ absorption are not identical to the growth kinetics of PEA_2PbI_4 . Interestingly, we do not see any evidence of $n \geq 3$ perovskite formation (including $MAPbI_3$) as secondary phases. We attribute this lack of $n \geq 3$ formation to the favorable molecular interactions between neighboring cations in the organic layer, which lowers the formation energy of $n = 1$ and $n = 2$ phases relative to these higher n phases.²⁵ The MA retained in the film exists as crystalline $(PEA)_2MAPb_2I_7$ and likely also as an amorphous phase. Further deintercalation of MA out of PEA-based films can be accomplished by heating. Heating a PEA_2PbI_4 film at $100^\circ C$ after a color switch results in an initial (first 5 min) increase and redshift of the $n = 1$ and $n = 2$ absorption peaks, reflecting the recrystallization taking place. With further heating, there is a decrease in the $n = 2$ absorption peak, indicating MA off-gassing ([Figure S1](#)), but this peak remains clearly visible after 1 h at $100^\circ C$, demonstrating the difficulty of complete MA deintercalation. The existence of $n = 2$ phase with $CH_3NH_3^+$ requires, by [eq 1](#), that some neutral amine species also remain. It is possible that this neutral amine, phenethylamine, in this case, volatilizes from the film during this heating, leading to a permanent irreversibility.

Additionally, as with $CH_3NH_3PbI_3$, the bleached $PEA_2PbI_4 \cdot xCH_3NH_2$ films appear to remain solid only at lower x values (estimated to be $x \approx 1$ or 2 for $CH_3NH_3PbI_3 \cdot xCH_3NH_2$).⁷

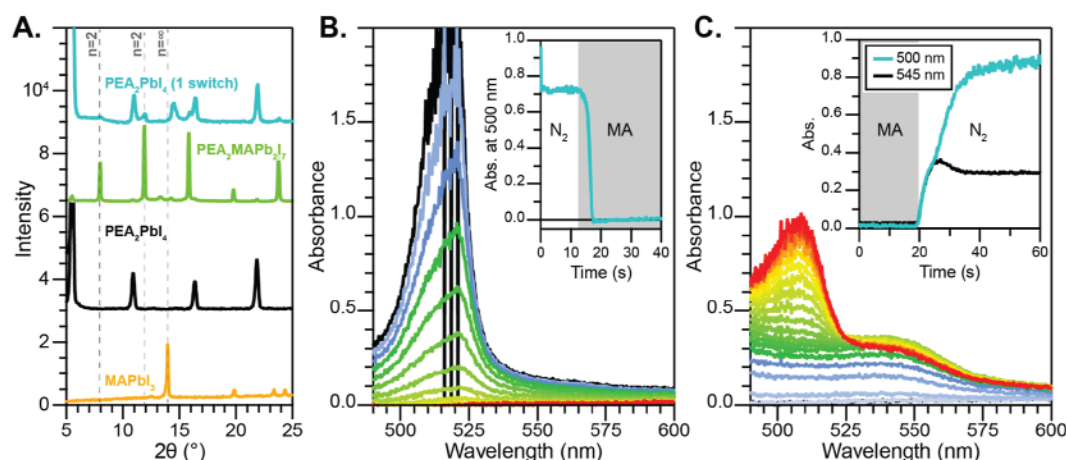


Figure 2. Methylamine intercalation–deintercalation in PEA₂PbI₄. (A) XRD patterns of (from bottom to top) MAPbI₃ and the as-synthesized PEA₂PbI₄ film (*n* = 1) compared to the as-synthesized (PEA)₂MAPb₂I₇ film and the PEA₂PbI₄ film following one color switch. Dashed vertical lines highlight the position of key scattering peaks for *n* = 2 and *n* = ∞ phases. (B) UV–visible absorbance traces taken over the course of approximately 2.3 s (6 traces/s) showing the bleaching of the PEA₂PbI₄ film. (C) Similar kinetic data showing the fast absorption recovery (6 traces/s) of the PEA₂PbI₄ film absorbance upon exposure to pure N₂. The insets shown the kinetics of the bleach/recovery, with shaded regions showing approximately when MA vapor was introduced.

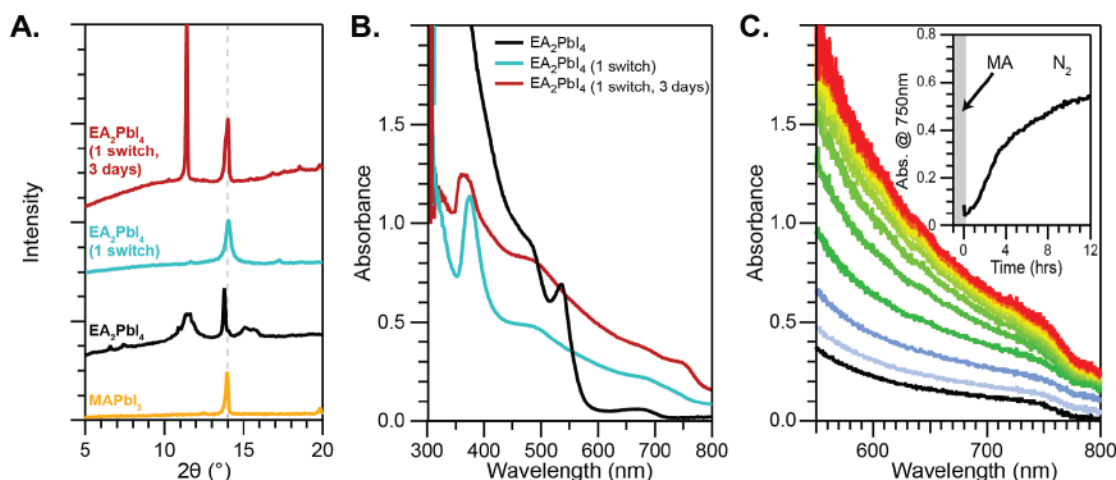


Figure 3. Methylamine intercalation–deintercalation in EA₂PbI₄. (A) XRD patterns of (from bottom to top) MAPbI₃ and EA₂PbI₄ films initially, immediately following 1 switch and approximately 3 days later. The dashed vertical line highlights the peak position of MAPbI₃ (110 peak). (B) UV–visible absorbance traces showing the absorbance of these materials shown in (A). (C) Absorption data showing the slow increase in film absorption following exposure to MA. Spectra shown were taken each hour with the kinetics at 750 nm, as shown in the inset.

Similar to what has been seen with CH₃NH₃PbI₃,^{19,26} extended exposure to the high partial pressure of MA leads to condensation of MA and liquefaction of the film. This was achieved by placing PEA₂PbI₄ films immediately overtop a solution of MA in ethanol for various times. Short (~1 s) exposure led to qualitatively the same behavior discussed above. On the other hand, visible liquid drops were seen to form on the film surface after approximately 10 s in the solution headspace. Removal of the film from the MA gas resulted in the same behavior in cases of long and short exposure to high vapor pressure MA, but the liquefaction led to film dissolution (see photographs in Figure S2).

Solvatochromism of EA₂PbI₄ and Methylamine. To demonstrate the breadth of effects and processes with different A-site cations, a detailed discussion of the behavior of ethylammonium lead iodide films is instructive. When crystallized, films made with 2:1 EAI:PbI₂ stoichiometry (films) appear to form a

previously identified one-dimensional (1D) crystalline phase with face-sharing octahedral chains, as evidenced by the broad diffraction peaks at 11.4 and 15.1°²⁵ as well as one or more other crystalline phases with peaks at 7.43, 10.88, and 13.79° (this last peak is possibly attributable to some 3D EAPbI₃ formation), and not *n* = 1 2D perovskite phase (Figure 3A). When exposed to MA vapor, EA₂PbI₄ films bleach similar to PEA₂PbI₄ but at lower MA exposure (Figure S3). Despite the similarity in the intercalation between EA₂PbI₄ and PEA₂PbI₄, significant differences are found for MA deintercalation. On short timescales, deintercalation of MA results in the formation of an absorption peak at 375 nm, significantly blueshifted from the absorption of EA₂PbI₄ (Figure 3B). This material is difficult to characterize because of its transience, but it contains a significant amount of trapped MA that, we hypothesize, could be a 1D iodoplumbate phase akin to hydrated MAPbI₃.^{14,27} Over a timescale of hours, MA continues to deintercalate, and a 3D perovskite material is formed, as

evidenced by the growth of a new absorption peak at 750 nm (Figure 3C) and an XRD peak at 14.0° ; however, the presence of the sharp XRD peak at 11.39° and the absorption peak at 365 nm show that not all of the material converts to 3D perovskite.²⁸ Comparing the XRD patterns of this material with that of MAPbI_3 , this newly formed 3D perovskite has an asymmetric XRD peak, with a shoulder at a lower angle, indicating that there is some $\text{MA}_x\text{EA}_{1-x}\text{PbI}_3$ formed (Figure S4).

At least a portion of the observed irreversibility in EA_2PbI_4 films is attributed to off-gassing of the neutral ethylamine formed by proton exchange of ethylammonium with the MA gas (eq 1). Ethylamine has a boiling point below room temperature (b.p. = 16.7°C), making it quite volatile under the experimental conditions (room temperature). This is observed experimentally by flowing MA/N_2 gas over ethylammonium iodide powder. After continued exposure to MA (several minutes), the ethylammonium iodide powder is seen to liquefy. Upon removal of the gas flow, this liquid returns to a solid that was then analyzed by ^1H NMR (Figure S5). From this data, it is clear that the MA undergoes a proton exchange with ethylammonium to form methylammonium iodide and that no detectable ethylamine remains present in the remaining solid as a result of ethylamine off-gassing.

To summarize these initial experiments, the A-site cation has a marked effect on the intercalation/deintercalation of MA in A_2PbI_4 films, especially on the deintercalation process. Figure 4 attempts to show the range of materials formed, depending on

the degree to which MA deintercalates from the film. Exposure of the as-synthesized films to MA gas causes the films to form a transparent, MA-intercalated phase. This is conceivably similar to what was shown by Wheeler *et al.* for MAPbI_3 .⁷ Then, when MA is removed from the film headspace, the films become colored and can reform the initial material or form an array of secondary phases (Figure 4B). The relative proportions of these secondary phases, or how reversible the MA intercalation/deintercalation process is, can be controlled by the specific A-site cation used. Based on this insight, additional work was done to investigate design criteria for the A-site cation that could enable reversible solvatochromic MHPs.

Changing the A-Site Cation Length. From the previously discussed results, it is clear that more MA is retained in the EA_2PbI_4 films than in the PEA_2PbI_4 films. An area of difference in these two materials is the difference in the A-site cation size and, therefore, the strength of the molecular interactions. As mentioned previously, stronger interactions in the organic interlayer should favor $n = 1$ formation.^{25,29} The strength of these interactions in the organic interlayer was therefore explored through a series of phenalkylammonium A-site cations $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5(\text{C}_m\text{H}_{2m})\text{NH}_3^+$ with varying chain length, m : phenylammonium (PhA, $m = 0$), phenethylammonium (PEA, $m = 2$), and phenbutylammonium (PBA, $m = 4$). Intermolecular interactions should be the weakest with PhA because the lack of a flexible carbon chain could lead to a more disordered organic layer.¹⁰ In fact, PhA is the only one of these three cations that does not form a typical oriented $n = 1$ perovskite (Figure S6).

PhA_2PbI_4 , PEA_2PbI_4 , and PBA_2PbI_4 were synthesized and characterized. Each material has an absorption peak of around 515 nm (Figure 5). When PhA_2PbI_4 films go through a color switch, we see a blueshift in the absorbance spectra similar to that seen in Figure 3 with EA_2PbI_4 . We attribute this to a large amount of MA being retained in the switched PhA_2PbI_4 films. As described previously, when PEA_2PbI_4 films go through a color switch, we see the reformation of the $n = 1$ phase with $n = 2$ material also present, indicating PEA leads to decreased MA retention relative to PhA. Extending the chain length and increasing intermolecular interactions further, PBA_2PbI_4 films also went through a color switch and, like PEA films, afterward show an absorption peak from an $n = 2$ phase at approximately 550 nm; however, this $n = 2$ absorbance peak decreases with time and eventually disappears. Films that were allowed to rest after switching to dry air at room temperature for 72 h no longer show an $n = 2$ phase absorbance peak and have fully reverted to the $n = 1$ phase. That said, the exciton peak is significantly decreased in intensity following this process, which is a sign of increased defect concentrations³⁰ arising from irreversible morphological changes in the films (Figure S7).

Tuning A-Site/Iodide Interactions in R- PEA_2PbI_4 Materials. Interactions between the organic cation and the halide perovskite sheets can also be tuned through careful selection of the A-site cations. In another set of experiments, a series of PEA cations were substituted at the 4-position on the phenyl ring to subtly control the interactions between the organic layer and the Pb–I sheet. These materials are abbreviated as R-PEA, where R = F, Cl, I, H, MeO, or HO. As shown by Knutson *et al.* with tin MHPs, and more recently seen in lead MHPs,^{31,32} subtle changes in the R-group of R-PEA can introduce small changes in cation penetration and distort the Pb–I–Pb bond angle (Figure 6A). Greater cation

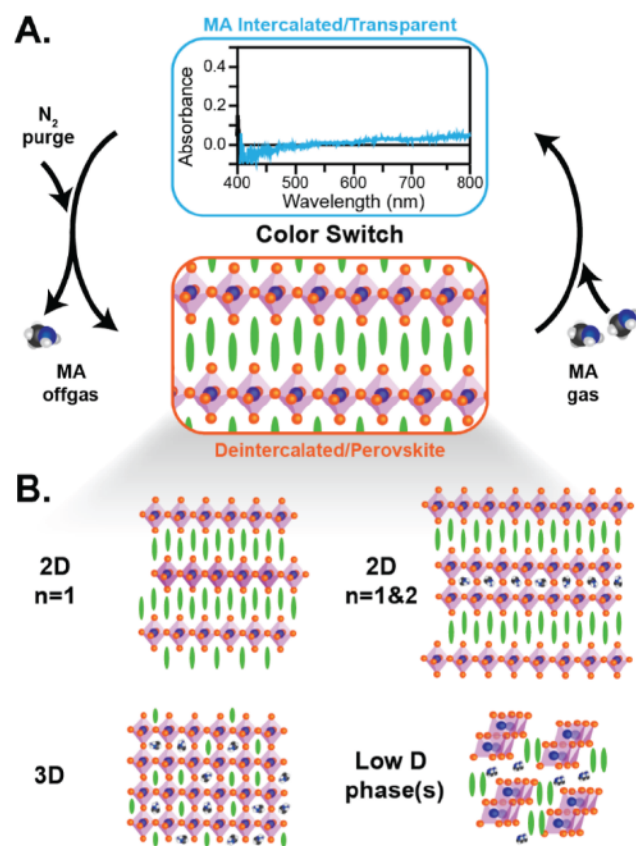


Figure 4. MA intercalation/deintercalation summary. (A) Schematic showing MA intercalation/deintercalation and the absorbance of intercalated PEA_2PbI_4 and (B) structures of some of the identified

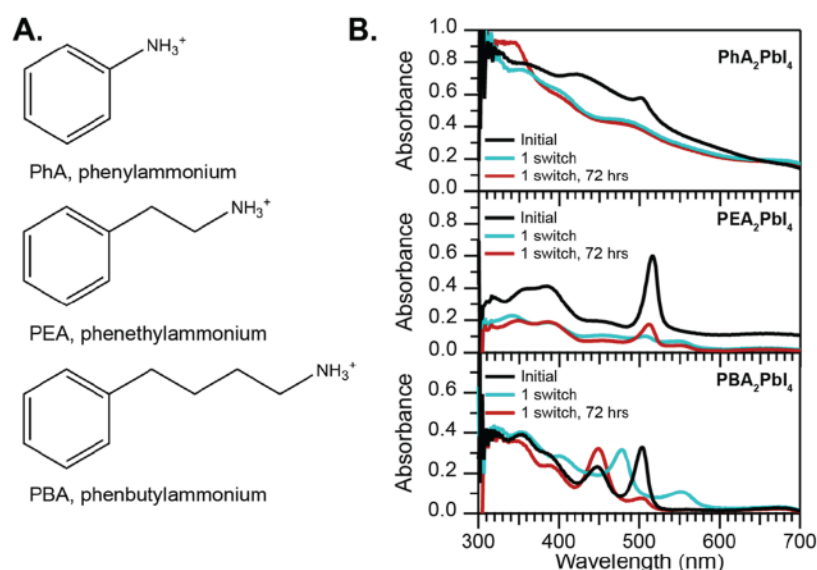


Figure 5. Intercalation with the chain length. (A) Structure of A-site cations used in A_2PbI_4 perovskites. (B) Absorbance traces of A_2PbI_4 films on FTO substrates before, immediately after, and 3 days after one switch.

penetration, caused by increased hydrogen bonding strength between the NH_3 and the axial iodides, leads to larger Pb–I–Pb bond angle distortions from 180° and causes a widening of the material's band gap.³² Changing this interaction can also lead to octahedral distortions in the PbI_6 octahedra, but previous work has found no clear relationship between these octahedral distortions and band gap. Thus, examining the band gap of the R-PEA series can provide insights into this interaction strength with stronger interactions leading to a blueshift in the exciton absorbance peak (Figure 6B). The observed data shows very similar binding strength for F-PEA, Cl-PEA, and PEA with slightly stronger interactions for MeO-PEA and HO-PEA. This is consistent with previous structural characterization of some of these R-PEA 2D perovskites, which has found that the average Pb–I–Pb bond angles of F-PEA, Cl-PEA, and PEA were $151.405(10)$, $152.479(16)$, and $152.198(15)^\circ$, respectively.²¹

Three specific R- PEA_2PbI_4 materials were selected, F-PEA, PEA, and HO-PEA, for a more detailed study. From the exciton peak position, the interaction strength differs only slightly between these three materials and follows the trend F-PEA < PEA < HO-PEA, consistent with bond angle measurements in structural studies.^{21,33} Because these differences are small along this series, we do not anticipate differences in behavior to be a result of differing cation “head”-inorganic interaction strength. As shown in Figure 6C–E, the materials underwent a color switch with MA, observed by UV-visible absorbance. Additionally, SEM images were collected for films of the same composition before and after switching. In both F-PEA and PEA, after switching, there is a significant decrease in the intensity of the $n = 1$ absorption peak and a new peak corresponding to the formation of the $n = 2$ phase. There are also readily apparent changes in the film morphology before and after switching. On the other hand, for HO-PEA, we see no formation of an $n = 2$ phase after switching along with reduced absorbance and morphological changes although these still occur.

As stated before, the absorption spectra and structural information indicate little difference in the $NH_3 \cdots I$ hydrogen

inorganic layer. Therefore, a different effect is likely to be responsible for this differing behavior. In addition to the “head”-inorganic interaction, there can also be “tail-inorganic” interactions between the cation and the next inorganic sheet. For the halogenated R-PEA cations, this has previously been investigated where it was shown that halogen bonding can occur, where the halogen on the organic cation acts as the halogen-bond donor (Lewis acid) and the iodine on the inorganic layer acts as halogen-bond acceptor (Lewis base).²¹ Similar halogen bonding interactions have also been used in the charge transport layer design.³⁴ For the cation series studied, we anticipate weak interactions between the cation “tail” and the neighboring inorganic lattice for PEA, F-PEA, and Cl-PEA because these cations lack an appropriate electron donor. The position of the cations between the inorganic sheets, as determined from the crystal structures of these, and similar materials,^{21,33} supports this idea. On the other hand, we anticipate hydrogen-bonding “tail-inorganic” interactions in HO-PEA because of the hydroxyl group. We propose that this “tail-inorganic” interaction in HO- PEA_2PbI_4 is thus largely responsible for the improved intercalation–deintercalation reversibility.

HO- PEA_2PbI_4 films display additional unique behaviors to be noted, likely also a result of the hydroxyl group. When synthesized using a mixture of DMF/DMSO as the solvent, the HO- PEA_2PbI_4 films retain a 2D perovskite structure with negligible absorbance changes but have an expanded lattice. There is a shift in the (001) reflection from 5.20 to 4.42° , corresponding to an increase in d -spacing of 1.5 \AA (Figure S8), which we attribute to DMSO intercalation. This behavior has been shown in the pentafluorophenethylammonium compounds explored by Mitzi and co-workers.³⁵ The formation of this intercalated 2D perovskite structure appears to arise due to the hydrogen bonding of the hydroxyl hydrogen with DMSO. It is also worth noting that the films shown in Figure 6C–E are quite thin (stock solutions are diluted 1:10 v/v with DMF for these absorption measurements and 1:3 v/v for SEM imaging). F- PEA_2PbI_4 and PEA- $2PbI_4$ films show qualitatively similar behavior in thick and thin films although the formation of high-quality thick films is more challenging with all compositions

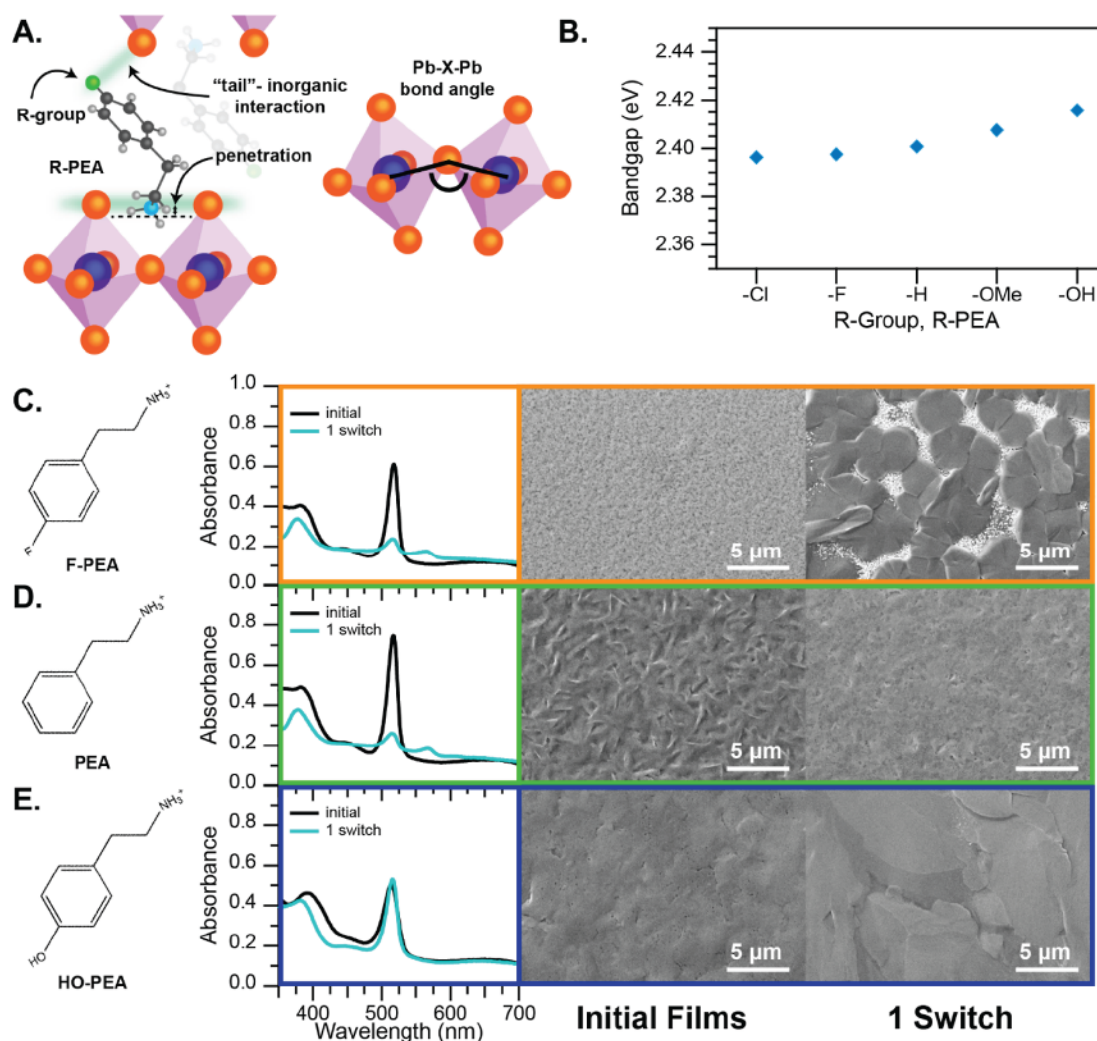


Figure 6. Intercalation/deintercalation in R-PEA₂PbI₄ materials. (A) Diagram showing how organic cation penetration into the perovskite layer can lead to Pb–I–Pb bond distortions and interactions with cation “tail” and adjacent axial halide. (B) Band gap energy calculated from the absorption excitonic peak plotted for various R-groups in R-PEA₂PbI₄ films. (C–E) Results of MA intercalation/deintercalation across three select R-PEA₂PbI₄ materials. From left to right is shown, the structure of the A-site cation, UV–visible absorbance spectra of the R-PEA₂PbI₄ film before and after one switch, and SEM images of film morphology for these materials before and after one switch.

(Figure S9). For both F-PEA₂PbI₄ and PEA₂PbI₄, as well as other materials described subsequently, switching multiple times results in a dramatic reduction of the $n = 1$ absorption peak. When HO-PEA₂PbI₄ films are switched repeatedly, there is dramatically less change in absorption and morphology (Figure S10).

To provide additional evidence for the organic “tail-inorganic” interactions proposed to be important for HO-PEA₂PbI₄, we synthesized 4-iodophenethylammonium iodide (I-PEAI) and fabricated I-PEA₂PbI₄ films. The polarizability of iodine makes it a suitable halogen-bond donor and thus able to form halogen bonds with the neighboring inorganic layer iodide.^{21,34} Before synthesizing this compound, we hypothesized that the halogen-bonding of I-PEA₂PbI₄ films would lead to more reversible MA intercalation–deintercalation than F-PEA₂PbI₄ or PEA₂PbI₄ but would be less reversible than HO-PEA₂PbI₄ and its hydrogen-bonding interactions. In fact, this is what is observed (Figure S11). I-PEA₂PbI₄ films show the formation of a small amount of $n = 2$ perovskite, but this largely disappears after a few days of storage in dry air. The reversibility of this effect is seen

from the behavior of Cl-PEA₂PbI₄ and MeO-PEA₂PbI₄, which both show improved reversibility compared to F-PEA₂PbI₄ or PEA₂PbI₄ but are not as reversible as I-PEA₂PbI₄ or HO-PEA₂PbI₄ (Figure S12). This trend follows the expected trend in interaction strength between the cation “tail” and the axial iodide of the neighboring inorganic layer, moving from no interaction for PEA and F-PEA to a stronger interaction with the MeO hydrogens, halogen bonding with I-PEA, and then finally the likely hydrogen-bonding interaction with HO-PEA.

Design Rules and Additional A-Site Cation Experiments. Taken together, we hypothesize that the design of halide perovskites with reversible MA solvatochromism and less significant morphological changes can be enabled or supported by the careful selection of organic spacers. We show that this requires balancing several interactions: (i) cation–cation intermolecular interactions within the organic interlayer (and the related volatility of the neutral amine), (ii) hydrogen-bonding between the organic cation “head” and the metal halide layer, and (iii) interactions between the cation “tail” and the adjacent axial halides.

Building from these three design rules, we performed MA intercalation–deintercalation experiments on 2D perovskites with a number of additional A-site cations. Further evidence for the importance of cation–cation interactions is seen with *n*-pentylammonium (*n*-PA) and 4-methoxy-phenylammonium (MeO-PhA), as shown in Figures S13 and S14. Comparing *n*-PA with EA, we expect to see stronger intermolecular interactions and improved reversibility with *n*-PA because of the longer carbon chain (5 carbons *vs* 2 carbons). Indeed, *n*-PA shows an initial redshift in absorption, followed by a blueshift (low-dimensional structure, high MA-uptake) only with repeated MA exposure. EA films show this same blueshift or high MA-uptake, with only minimal MA exposure. Likewise, comparing MeO-PhA with MeO-PEA, MeO-PEA has two additional carbons and is expected to show a similar trend, as is shown in Figure 5 between PhA and PEA. This is what is observed, as shown in Figure S14. There is evidence of high MA-retention in MeO-PhA films with the formation of a low-dimensional phase, and only moderate MA-retention in MeO-PEA films with the formation of a small *n* = 2 phase absorption peak. It is important to note, in this context, as described for EA₂PbI₄, that the proton exchange reaction (eq 1) that can occur in these systems means the potential presence of neutral amines in the film. One of the reasons A-site cations with stronger intermolecular interactions lead to improved reversibility is that these same interactions lead to reduced amine volatility.

Finally, the hydrogen bonding between the cation “head” and metal halide layer can also be tuned by substituting Br for I because Br will lead to stronger hydrogen bonding with the cation ammonium. To test this, we compare reversibility between PEA₂PbI₄ and PEA₂PbBr₄. We anticipate improved reversibility with Br because of the stronger hydrogen bonding, which is what is observed (Figure S15). Switching the PEA₂PbI₄ films with MA results in the formation of an *n* = 2 absorption peak following the initial switch; however, PEA₂PbBr₄ films only show the growth of a very small *n* = 2 absorption peak after they have been switched multiple times.

The experiments discussed to this point took minimal care to reduce moisture exposure. However, to begin to uncover the role that water plays in the process, we performed additional experiments with HO-PEA₂PbI₄ and I-PEA₂PbI₄ films where moisture exposure was reduced as much as possible. In both of these cases, we see evidence for the formation of higher-dimensionality phases when moisture is excluded. HO-PEA₂PbI₄ then shows the formation of an *n* = 2 perovskite phase, and I-PEA₂PbI₄ shows an increased *n* = 2 phase and also *n* = 3+ phases (Figure S16). These films also took longer to return to a colored phase once the MA vapor was removed than they did when some moisture was present. This shows that water plays a significant role in the deintercalation process and shifts the equilibrium of eq 1. Fully understanding the role that water can play in this process is an important future challenge. As another effect worth describing, thick HO-PEA₂PbI₄ films show the formation of a significant amount of MAPbI₃ when exposed to MA gas (Figure S17), which we believe to be a result of the poor initial film quality. Additionally, it should be noted that thin HO-PEA₂PbI₄ films appear to be sensitive to the MA gas concentration and storage time/conditions after fabrication. These, and perhaps other variables as well, lead to variations in reversibility (Figure S18) and will require careful analysis and control in a future study based on this mechanism.

CONCLUSIONS

Methylamine demonstrates a rich interaction with 2D halide perovskites, and the nature of the A-site cation plays the main role in dictating the interactions. After intercalation into the structure, methylamine can become incorporated and form a variety of new impurity phases with either higher dimensionality (*e.g.*, *n* = 2 or 3D perovskites) or lower dimensionality. These secondary phases dramatically alter the material properties of the film and are therefore unwanted in a solvatochromic semiconductor system. Additionally, the long-chain ammonium cations can undergo a proton exchange reaction with MA that can, in at least some cases, lead to off-gassing of the now neutral long-chain amine. Secondary phase formation can be reduced dramatically by manipulating interlayer interactions in the organic layer and the interactions between the organic cations and lead halide sheets.

In the experiments performed in this work, morphological changes were significantly reduced but not wholly suppressed. While there is likely still significant room for further improvement, device designs centered on this chromogenic mechanism may need to accommodate both the material expansion/compression with MA intercalation/deintercalation and perhaps some morphological changes resulting from this process. Nevertheless, these initial explorations provide a roadmap for future A-site cation development to template MHPs for chromogenic applications while also providing insights into the rich interactions in 2D halide perovskites. Given this improved understanding of organic cation design rules, 2D perovskites or mixed 2D/3D perovskites are shown to be a promising material system for MHP chromogenics although significant questions remain, and much more work is required to explore this approach. Moreover, careful manipulation of cation–cation, cation “head”-inorganic, and cation “tail”-inorganic interactions will likely all prove to be important considerations for the design and stability of 2D and 2D/3D halide perovskites for a wide array of optoelectronic applications.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsaem.2c01352>.

UV–Visible absorption experiments heating PEA₂PbI₄; photographs showing long MA exposure on films; photographs comparing PEA₂PbI₄ and EA₂PbI₄ switching; XRD pattern of EA₂PbI₄ after 1 color switch; 1H NMR spectra of the reaction between EAI and MA; XRD patterns of PhA₂PbI₄ and PBA₂PbI₄; SEM morphology of PBA₂PbI₄; XRD patterns of HO-PEA₂PbI₄ films fabricated with and without DMSO; UV–visible absorption experiments showing 10 color switches for PEA₂PbI₄, F-PEA₂PbI₄, HO-PEA₂PbI₄, I-PEA₂PbI₄, EA₂PbI₄, *n*-PA₂PbI₄, MeO-PhA₂PbI₄, and PEA₂PbBr₄; comparison of UV–visible absorption experiments for R-PEA₂PbI₄ films; water-free UV–visible absorption experiments with HO-PEA₂PbI₄ and I-PEA₂PbI₄; additional UV–visible absorption experiments with HO-PEA₂PbI₄ films (PDF)

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J.L.S. and E.V.C. contributed equally to this paper. J.A.C. led the project and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. J.A.C., J.L.S., E.V.C., and J.R.M. contributed to materials synthesis, data collection, and analysis. All authors edited the manuscript and have given approval for the final version.

Notes

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