1 Modulating crystal growth of formamidinium-cesium perovskites for

2 over 200-cm² photovoltaic sub-modules

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- 20 Abstract

21 Upscalable fabrication of efficient and stable perovskite solar modules is urgently needed for 22 commercialization. Herein, we introduce methylammonium chloride (MACl) additives in the co-23 solvent system of N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) / N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF) to control the 24 formation of intermediate phases during the growth of formamidinium (FA)-cesium (Cs) lead 25 triiodide perovskite films. We achieve high quality films upon drying without the use of antisolvent. 26 By implementing bulk and surface passivation, the champion efficiencies of 24.02% for a smallsized solar cell and 20.5% for a 5 cm \times 5 cm solar mini-module on an aperture area of 22.4 cm² 27 28 (geometrical fill factor is ~96%) are achieved by spin-coating. The fully blade-coated perovskite solar sub-module demonstrates a champion efficiency of 15.3% on an aperture area of 205 cm². The

30 solar mini-module exhibits impressive operational stability with a T80 lifetime over 1000 hours at

31 maximum power point tracking (MPPT) under continuous light illumination.

32 Introduction

33 Owing to the outstanding optoelectronic properties of hybrid organic-inorganic metal halide 34 perovskite materials such as high absorption coefficient, long carrier diffusion length, and low trap 35 density, over 25% power conversion efficiencies (PCEs) have been achieved for small-sized 36 perovskite solar cells (PSCs)¹⁻³. However, the realization of large-scale, high-efficiency and stable 37 perovskite solar modules (PSMs) still faces a number of technological hurdles for the widespread commercial application at present⁴⁻⁷. It has been proposed that the major issues are due to a lack of 38 39 control when upscaling the manufacturing process, such as the homogeneity of perovskite composition and morphology which affect the reproducibility and long-term stability of the PSMs^{7,8}. 40 41 Recently, an increasing number of research works have been devoted to improving both the PCE and stability of perovskite solar mini-modules from the viewpoints of scalable deposition 42 engineering^{4,9}, perovskite compositions¹⁰⁻¹², electron/hole transport materials as well as the 43 44 corresponding interfaces¹³⁻¹⁷. Undoubtedly, the scalable fabrication of a large-area high-quality 45 perovskite light absorber layer remains elusive. To achieve highly efficient and stable PSMs, typical three-dimensional (3D) formamidinium (FA, NH₂CH=NH₂⁺)-based lead triiodide perovskite has 46 become the widely studied composition due to its narrower bandgap (Eg) and better thermal stability 47 compared to the methylammonium (MA, CH₃NH₃⁺)-based counterparts¹⁸⁻²⁰. A lot of strategies, such 48 as solid-reaction by chemical vapor deposition²¹, one-step and two-step solution processes such as 49 slot-die coating, inkjet printing, and spray coating²²⁻²⁶, have also been employed to upscale large-50 51 area high-quality FA-based perovskite films. Among them, one-step solution printing techniques 52 such as blade coating and slot-die coating are promising methods with low cost and convenience in scalable fabrication²⁷, which also demonstrated impressive efficiencies for perovskite solar mini-53 modules by combining with proper additive engineering^{9,10,23}. For example, Huang and coworkers 54 55 reported a blade coated FA-based perovskite solar mini-module with PCE over 19% on an aperture 56 area of 50 cm² by introducing a solid-state lead coordinating additive of carbohydrazide (CBH) to modify the interfacial properties between the perovskite and substrate²⁸. Seok and coworkers also 57 58 reported a bar coated FA-based perovskite solar mini-module with an efficiency of 20.4% on an

aperture area of 31 cm² via additive engineering of n-cyclohexyl-2-pyrrolidone (CHP) for 59 improving the morphology of the perovskite layer²⁹. However, the investigation on printing 60 61 perovskite solar sub-modules with an area larger than 200 cm² is still lacking. How to upscale high-62 quality large-scale perovskite films and assemble them into sub-modules with a minimum PCE 63 penalty are still challenging at present, which is also an essential step towards panel-scale solar cells. 64 If the compact perovskite film can be formed just from the self-drying condition (Self-drying 65 herein means that the solvent of the perovskite precursor ink volatilizes naturally at room 66 temperature without assistance of any other process such as heating, spinning, blowing, etc), the 67 upscaling printing process will be easier and more efficient (i.e., more convenient, lower cost, and higher reproducibility). Based on this rationale, it is essential to develop a suitable perovskite 68 69 precursor ink for growing high-quality perovskite films for large-scale sub-modules. In our previous 70 study, we provided a lead halide-templated crystallization process for printing large-area FA-based 71 perovskite films, to minimize the formation of undesirable perovskite-DMF complex intermediates that could induce dendritic crystals^{24,30}. The competition between the lead halide-NMP adducts and 72 73 the perovskite-DMF complex intermediates dominates the morphology and crystallinity of the final 74 FA-based perovskite films. The presence of an ample amount of CsI (17%) and lead chloride (PbCl₂) 75 helps to improve the morphology, suppress the δ -phase formation and stabilize the final α -phase perovskite film³¹⁻³³, however, it enlarges the bandgap and thus lowers the efficiency of eventual 76 77 solar modules. The introduction of a proper amount of MACl additives is another widely used strategy for improving the morphology and stabilizing the α -phase of FA-based perovskite within 78 the one-step or two-step methods³⁴⁻³⁶. However, the effect of MACl additives on nucleation and 79 80 growth of self-drying perovskite films is not fully understood, which is essential information to 81 overcome the challenges in improving the quality of large-area films.

In this work, we report a modulation strategy of self-drying FA-Cs perovskite precursor ink for scalable fabrication of large-scale perovskite solar sub-modules. **Fig. 1a** presents the configuration of the perovskite solar sub-module with the scalable deposition strategy of each functional layer. A proper amount of MACl additives is introduced into a narrower bandgap (~1.55 eV) FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI₃ perovskite-NMP/DMF precursor ink to realize the scalable printing of high-quality perovskite layers. In our initial exploration, we found that the lower formation energy of FA-Cs-alloyed perovskites would contribute to the growth of high-quality α-phase films (**Supplementary Fig. 1 and**

89 Supplementary Note 1). Due to the lower formation energy through the incorporation of MACl in the FAPbI₃ perovskite crystal structure³⁴, we propose that the undesirable FA-based perovskite-90 91 DMF complex intermediates, which originally transform into δ -phase perovskites, can be directly 92 converted to a-phase perovskite intermediates with the addition of MACl. From the *in situ* XRD 93 studies, we inferred the corresponding nucleation and growth behaviors with the further introduction 94 of MACl as illustrated in Fig.1b. In addition, the MACl can also induce higher orientation growth 95 of perovskite crystals, resulting in high-quality perovskite films. By further passivating defects 96 around the crystals by excess PbI₂ and forming two-dimensional (2D) perovskite with the long-97 chain ligands on the three-dimensional (3D) perovskite surface, a champion efficiency of 24.02% 98 is achieved on small-sized PSCs. With precise control of geometrical fill factor (~96%) for solar 99 modules, the corresponding 5 cm \times 5 cm solar mini-module demonstrates high efficiency of 20.5% on an aperture area of 22.4 cm², corresponding to an active area efficiency of 21.4% and a total area 100 101 efficiency of 18.4% on a 25.0 cm² substrate. More importantly, this strategy can be also translated 102 to even larger scales by scalable printing, enabling a fully blade coated 15 cm \times 15 cm solar sub-103 module with high efficiency of 15.3% on an aperture area of 205 cm^2 .

104 Self-drying FA-Cs perovskite ink modulation

105 We firstly optimized the nucleation and growth processes of the narrower bandgap perovskite material, FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI₃, for satisfying the commercial scaling-up printing process. However, at 106 107 low concentrations of Cs, the intrinsic properties such as formation energy, morphology, and especially the crystallization process would be significantly changed as presented in 108 Supplementary Fig 1. Even by further introduction of 10% molar ratio PbCl₂ into the perovskite 109 precursor as described in our previous work 24 , it is still not enough to eliminate the pinholes in the 110 111 FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI₃ perovskite film even after anti-solvent-free spin-coating (Supplementary Fig. 2). 112 To gain further knowledge, the pure FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI₃ perovskite film was self-dried on the FTO 113 substrate from the NMP/DMF co-solvent system at room temperature. We observed a poor 114 morphology with a lot of rectangular bulk clusters stacking on top of one another (Fig. 2a, 115 Supplementary Fig. 3), which was induced by the formation of stronger $FA_2Pb_3I_8$ 4DMF 116 intermediates than the PbI₂•NMP adducts, as demonstrated in the *in situ* XRD results (Fig. 2b). Therefore, the strong competitiveness of the DMF solvent-coordinated perovskite complex 117 intermediates during the nucleation process contributes to the poor morphology of the final 118

119 perovskite films.

120 To further suppress the perovskite-DMF complex intermediates, instead of introducing excessive 121 PbCl₂ (Supplementary Fig. 2), we find that they can be completely suppressed by the introduction 122 of MACl, and most of which leaves the perovskite film eventually and does not substantially enlarge the optical bandgap of perovskite³⁴. By introducing the MACl with a molar ratio of 0.3 to the 123 124 stoichiometric perovskite precursor, more nuclei form with smaller cluster size as shown in Fig. 2c. 125 The FA₂Pb₃I₈•4DMF intermediates that would originally transform to δ -phase are completely suppressed based on the *in situ* XRD study (Fig. 2d). More interestingly, the α -phase perovskite 126 127 directly forms and becomes predominant at the expense of the δ -phase during solvent evaporation. Even without the assistance of NMP, which helps lower the free energy^{24,37}, the α -phase perovskite 128 129 also forms in the pure DMF system with the addition of MACl additives (Supplementary Fig. 4). This fast formation of a-phase perovskite can be ascribed to the lower formation energy by the 130 131 incorporation of MACl as demonstrated from the theoretical calculation results (Fig. 2e, 132 Supplementary Fig. 5), which confirms that MACl has been preferentially incorporated into the FAPbI3 perovskite crystal structure than the majority of CsI during the initial crystallization process 133 134 and thus stabilizes the formation of α -phase (black phase) firstly. Therefore, the undesirable growth 135 of FA₂Pb₃I₈•4DMF intermediates from the pristine precursor ink can be directly converted into the α-phase perovskite intermediates with the addition of MACl, as depicted in the schematic Fig. 1b, 136 137 which improves the competitiveness of $PbI_2 \cdot NMP$ adducts and suppresses the undesirable δ -phase 138 formation, contributing to a denser morphology. As a result, a much denser film can be obtained 139 after self-drying at room temperature as shown in the SEM images (Fig. 2f).

140 Self-driven compact FA-Cs perovskite during ripening

141 Thermal annealing at different temperatures is employed to observe the crystal growth and 142 corresponding morphology changes. Fig. 2f shows the SEM images of the self-dried films with 143 MACl additives after thermal annealing at different temperatures. As the temperature increases, 144 smaller grains fuse into one larger grain and the holes disappear, while simultaneously the solvent 145 and MACl (or their byproducts) are volatilized, as confirmed by the mass spectroscopy analysis 146 (Supplementary Fig. 6), which suggest that the overall mechanism is consistent with a typical Ostwald ripening process, as depicted in Fig. 3a. A pinhole-free compact perovskite film with 147 micro-sized grains and high crystallinity is readily obtained after thermal annealing at 150 °C, 148

however, a further increase in temperature would lead to the rapid decomposition of perovskite into
PbI₂ due to the volatilization of FA (Supplementary Fig. 7a-b). In sharp contrast, without MACI
additives, the perovskite film shows small size grains and conspicuous pinholes (Supplementary
Fig. 3b). This indicates that the introduction of MACI can induce the formation of a compact film
easily from the self-drying precursor ink after ripening.

154 To reduce the surface roughness caused by the non-uniform solvent evaporation under self-drying, 155 we find that a simple spin-coating process is suitable to deposit a smoother and denser film with 156 much smaller nuclei. Furthermore, a highly orientated perovskite film with compact morphology 157 and smooth surface is easily achieved by this MACl induced Ostwald ripening process, while the 158 pristine counterpart (without MACl) from the anti-solvent free spin-coating still presents poor 159 crystallinity and obvious pinholes even after thermal annealing (Fig. 3b-c, Supplementary Fig. 11). 160 To further understand the crystal growth behavior during the Ostwald ripening process with MACl 161 additives, the XRD characterization was conducted for the spin-coated films after thermal annealing 162 at different temperatures as shown in Supplementary Fig. 7. A new diffraction peak appeared at 9.3° under low-temperature annealing, which is possibly a mixed MACl and Cs-based new phase 163 164 perovskite as demonstrated by the XRD results (Supplementary Fig. 8). Then, this peak disappeared when the temperature was over 75 °C due to the volatilization of MACl as confirmed 165 by the mass spectroscopy results (Supplementary Fig. 6), leading to a blend structure of Cs and 166 167 FA-based perovskite after the removal of MACl, and subsequently generating the FA-Cs-mixed 168 cations-based perovskite films. Therefore, the crystallization process can be described by the two 169 paths as shown in Supplementary Fig. 9. One path forms the stable PbI₂-NMP adducts, and the 170 other path which would originally form the perovskite-DMF complex intermediates is directly 171 converted into α -phase (MAFACs)Pb(ICl)₃ perovskite intermediates with the insertion of MACl. 172 With the further volatilization of NMP during the ripening process, some of the released PbI_2 can 173 react with the residual FAI, CsI and MACl to form this new intermediate phase and α -phase 174 (MAFACs)Pb(ICl)₃ perovskite intermediates under low temperature. Finally, the mixed cations-175 based perovskite (FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI₃) structure forms due to the release of MACl under higher 176 temperature ripening, which suppresses the δ -phase formation during the whole growth process. More importantly, this MACl induced cation and anion exchange during the crystallization 177

process not only improves the morphology but also stabilizes the α -phase FA-Cs perovskite films.

Even without thermal annealing, the nuclei formed in the MACl-added films continue to grow into larger size polygonal grains with micron size (**Supplementary Fig. 10**). The results also demonstrated the formation of a stable α -phase and no δ -phase even after 60 min in the ambient environment (temperature ~25 °C, relative humidity ~50%), while the films without MACl still remain small crystals and are converted to δ -phase directly (**Supplementary Fig. 10**). Therefore, this growth strategy is potentially suitable for the scalable fabrication of large-size perovskite films in an ambient environment.

186 **Defect modulation**

187 To further improve the quality of perovskite films, we employ a simple passivation strategy for the grain boundaries, by introducing proper excess PbI_2 (5% molar ratio) in the precursor ink 188 according to previous reports³⁸, and post-treatment with organic salts (dodecylamine hydrobromide, 189 190 DABr) to passivate both the boundaries and surface of the grains, respectively. The corresponding 191 crystallinity and morphology changes are shown in Fig. 3b-f and Supplementary Fig. 11. The 192 solubility of MACl in the stoichiometric perovskite (FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI₃) precursor solution can be also 193 improved by the reaction with the introduced excess PbI₂, which avoids the formation of flocculent 194 precipitates with Cs precursors (Supplementary Fig. 12). The post-treatment of DABr will form a 195 2D layer perovskite by the reaction with the introduced excess PbI₂ or cations exchange due to the 196 isopropanol (IPA) solvent that can slightly dissolve some of the FA molecules and thus enlarge the 197 bandgap of the perovskite films (Supplementary Figures 13 and 14). The resulting 2D layer serves 198 as a superhydrophobic protective layer with a large water contact angle over 90° due to the long 199 carbon chain (Supplementary Fig. 13j), and thus it would greatly improve the stability of the 200 corresponding devices.

201 To visualize the defect passivation effect through the above strategies, the time-resolved confocal 202 PL microscopy measurement was performed to characterize the charge carrier lifetime of these 203 perovskite films in microdomain (10 μ m \times 10 μ m) as shown in Fig. 3g-j. There was no obvious 204 difference in the lifetime of perovskite films with or without MACl additives, both of which show 205 a uniform green region. But it can be seen that the brighter grains and darker boundaries are clear 206 for the film with MACl additives. After the introduction of excess PbI2, the dark boundaries transit 207 to a light red color with a longer PL lifetime, indicating that the excess PbI₂ could passivate the grain boundaries effectively. Moreover, the post-treatment of the perovskite film with DABr turns 208

a relatively large fraction of the film into a red and yellow-colored region, which means that the PL lifetime is greatly enhanced. These results indicate that this series of processes can effectively passivate the perovskite grains and/or surface to reduce the trap-induced or non-radiative recombination in the films, which would be beneficial to improve the performance of the corresponding devices.

214 Antisolvent-free spin-coated solar cells

215 To evaluate the photovoltaic performance of these perovskite films through the above strategies, a 216 standard structure of FTO/SnO₂/perovskite/spiro-OMeTAD/Au is employed as shown in the energy level diagram (Supplementary Fig. 15), which exhibits a more preferable energy level alignment 217 218 for charge transport with the bulk and surface passivation. The champion J-V curves of the 219 corresponding devices based on these different spin-coated perovskite films without the use of anti-220 solvent are shown in Fig. 4a. The pristine device with the $FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI_3$ perovskite as the light 221 absorber layer exhibits a relatively low efficiency of 18.99% with large hysteresis. With the 222 modulation induced by MACl, a significantly improved efficiency of over 22% is achieved. The 223 efficiency can be further improved to over 23% by the introduction of excess PbI₂. Finally, after the 224 post-treatment with DABr, much higher efficiency of close to 24% was achieved, mainly because $V_{\rm oc}$ was dramatically improved by passivating the defects and subsequently reducing the charge 225 226 recombination. All the detailed parameters derived from the J-V curves are summarized in 227 Supplementary Table 1. The corresponding statistic distribution of photovoltaic parameters for 228 these different perovskite-based devices shows a clear improvement tendency by this series of 229 processing strategies (Supplementary Fig. 16). The typical steady-state output efficiencies for the 230 different devices are shown in Supplementary Fig. 17. However, the devices still show an obvious 231 hysteresis.

To further suppress the hysteresis, we introduced the KPF₆ additives in the precursor ink according to our previous report²⁴. A champion efficiency of 24.02% is obtained for the optimized device with negligible hysteresis (**Fig. 4b**). The corresponding integrated J_{sc} of 24.0 mA·cm⁻² from external quantum efficiency (EQE) spectra matches well with the measured J_{sc} from the *J-V* characterization (**Fig. 4c**). The typical devices also exhibit good light soaking stability and thermal stability, which delivered an expectant T₈₀ lifetime over 1000 hours at MPP under one-sun irradiation and an average ~90% efficiency retention after 20 days at 65 °C (**Supplementary Fig.** 18). We also demonstrate high-efficiency perovskite solar mini-modules on 5 cm \times 5 cm substrates with a high geometrical fill factor (~96%) by the precise control of the P1-P2-P3 process (Supplementary Fig. 19). The corresponding 5 cm \times 5 cm solar mini-module demonstrates a high efficiency of 20.5% on an aperture area of 22.4 cm², which corresponds to an active area efficiency of 21.4% and a total area efficiency of 18.4% on a 25.0 cm² substrate, respectively (Fig. 4d).

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Scalable printed solar sub-modules

245 Scalability and stability are currently the two major obstacles to realizing the commercial application of perovskite solar cells. By the modulation of self-drying FA-Cs perovskite ink through 246 247 this series of strategies, a large-area high-quality and stable perovskite film can be blade coated in a simple glovebox with a rough control of the local atmosphere (temperature = 15 ± 5 °C; relative 248 249 humidity = $15 \pm 5\%$, where a lower temperature is helpful to initiate the crystallization process after formation of uniform nuclei³⁹ and lower humidity is helpful to facilitate the nucleation process, and 250 251 thus contributes to a denser and smoother morphology as shown in supplementary Fig. S20 and 252 Supplementary Note 2). Fig. 5a illustrates the printing of large-size perovskite films by a blade 253 coating setup with an additional gas-assisted drying system, which enables fast and homogenous 254 volatilization of the host solvent and results in a uniform and dark black large-area perovskite film. Characterization results performed on 5 different locations on the large-area 15 cm \times 15 cm 255 256 perovskite film indicate that the scalable printed film is of a high level of uniformity 257 (Supplementary Fig. 21). By contrast, without the modulation of the precursor ink, the large-area film shows a porous feature (Supplementary Fig. 22). 258

259 Then we used the blade coated high-quality large-area perovskite films to fabricate 15 cm \times 15 260 cm perovskite solar sub-modules, which is only limited by the processing scale of our laser machine 261 and evaporation system. A uniform purple color spiro-OMeTAD film is achieved on the top of this 262 uniform perovskite substrate by blade coating (Supplementary Fig. 23a-b). The cross-sectional 263 SEM image of the perovskite solar module shows a uniform perovskite layer with micro-size grains 264 sandwiched by a uniform spiro-OMeTAD layer and a thin SnO₂ layer (Fig. 5b and Supplementary 265 Fig. 23c). The photographs and design of the P1-P2-P3 pattern of a 15 cm \times 15 cm perovskite solar 266 sub-module are shown in Supplementary Fig. 24. By these strategies, a champion efficiency of 15.3% is obtained for a 15 cm × 15 cm perovskite solar sub-module containing 21 sub-cells with an 267 aperture area of 205 cm² as shown in Fig. 5c. Supplementary Fig. 25a and b show the typical 268

269 reverse scan (RS) and forward scan (FS) of a large 15 cm \times 15 cm perovskite solar sub-module, as 270 well as the output current density under maximum power point. Supplementary Fig. 25c shows the 271 efficiency distribution of 15 cm \times 15 cm perovskite solar sub-modules that were fabricated on 272 different days. The module efficiencies from different upscaling methods with different aperture 273 areas over 150 cm² are summarized in Supplementary Fig. 25d and Supplementary Table 2. The 274 photovoltaic conversion efficiency of the high-quality perovskite films obtained in this work using 275 intermediate phase-modulated strategies is relatively higher than all other reported works, within 276 comparable size and printing technology, indicating the great promise for scalable printing of large-277 size perovskite solar panels. To further understand the PCE difference between the small area cells 278 and sub-modules and their origins, we measured the J-V curves of the small cells (Supplementary 279 Fig. 25 e-f, Supplementary Table 4), which were cut at 5 different locations from a 15 cm × 15 cm sub-module. The relatively small difference in PCE between the separately prepared small cells 280 281 (PCE ~ 24%) and the small cells cut from the 15 cm \times 15 cm sub-module (PCE ~ 21%) indicates 282 that the relatively large PCE difference between the separately prepared small cells (PCE $\sim 24\%$) 283 and the 15 cm \times 15 cm sub-modules (PCE \sim 15%) is due to not only film uniformity issues when 284 upscaling solar cells from small areas to large areas and fabrication environmental condition 285 differences between small cell fabrication and large area sub-module fabrication, but also other factors (such as sheet resistance of FTO substrates, issues related to laser scribing, etc.). 286

287 In addition, we also characterized the operational stability of the solar mini-module as shown 288 in Fig. 5d and Supplementary Fig. 26, which exhibited a T_{80} lifetime over 1000 hours at MPPT under one-sun irradiation. The initial output PCE of 19.2% is consistent with the efficiency (19.5%) 289 290 derived from the J-V curve (Fig. 5e, Supplementary table 3). Interestingly, although the efficiency 291 of the mini-module dropped to 15.3% after exposure to light for over 1000 hours, it almost reversibly 292 recovered to 19.1% after storage in dark. Therefore, this modulation strategy of the FA-Cs 293 perovskite precursor ink provides a promising technology for scalable manufacturing of efficient 294 and relatively stable large-scale perovskite solar modules.

295 Conclusion

In summary, we report an efficient upscaling fabrication strategy of high-quality and stable FA-Cs perovskite films by modulating crystal growth from the self-drying precursor ink without the use of anti-solvent. The obstacles in the formation of high-quality $FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI_3$ perovskite films have 299 been overcome via this strategy through the addition of MACl in the co-solvent system of N,N-300 dimethylformamide (DMF)/ N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP), which dramatically lower down the 301 formation energy and enlarge the crystal size of the perovskite films, contributing to scalable 302 deposition of large-area high-quality stable perovskite films successfully. For small-sized solar cells, a high efficiency of 24.02% is achieved by further passivation of both the grain boundaries and 303 304 surface via an in situ formed excess PbI_2 and the corresponding formed 2D capping layer, as well 305 as the KPF_6 additives. For solar mini-modules, a relatively high efficiency of 20.5% on an aperture 306 area of 22.4 cm² with a high geometrical fill factor of 96% is demonstrated for a 5 cm \times 5 cm solar 307 mini-module. For large-scale solar sub-modules fabricated by a blade coating technique, a champion 308 efficiency of 15.3% with an aperture area of 205 cm² is demonstrated. In addition, the solar mini-309 modules exhibit impressive stability with a T_{80} lifetime over 1000 hours at MPPT under one-sun 310 illumination. We expect that our modulation strategy of the precursor ink will pave the way towards 311 the commercial production of high-performance and stable perovskite solar modules in the near 312 future.

313 Methods

314 Materials. All reagents were used as received without any further purification, including CsI (99.999% trace metals basis, Sigma Aldrich), PbI2 (99.99%, TCI), formamidinium iodide (FAI, 315 Xi'an Polymer Light Technology Corp.), methylammonium chloride (MACl, Xi'an Polymer Light 316 317 Technology Corp.), 2,2',7,7'-tetrakis[N,N-bis(p-methoxyphenyl) amino]-9,9'-spirobifluorene 318 (spiro-OMeTAD, 99.8%, Xi'an Polymer Light Technology Corp.), 4-tert-butylpyridine (99.9%, 319 Sigma-Aldrich), bis(trifluoromethane)sulfonimide lithium salt (Li-TFSI, Sigma-Aldrich), FK209 320 Co(III) TFSI salt (Sigma-Aldrich), acetonitrile (99.9%, Sigma-Aldrich), chlorobenzene (99.8%, 321 Wako), potassium hexafluorophosphate (KPF₆, Sigma-Aldrich), SnCl₂•2H₂O (99.99%, Sigma-322 Aldrich), urea (Sigma-Aldrich), thioglycolic acid (Sigma-Aldrich), HCl (Wako), N,N-323 dimethylformamide (DMF, Wako), 1-methyl-2-pyrrolidinone (NMP, Sigma-Aldrich), 324 dodecylamine hydrobromide (DABr, TCI), isopropanol (IPA, Wako).

Precursor solution preparation. The different perovskite precursor solutions were prepared based on a stoichiometric composition of $FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI_3$ -NMP perovskite materials dissolved in DMF solvent with further addition of the different amounts of MACl, PbI₂, and KPF₆ (with molar ratio to perovskite as mentioned in the main text file. If we wake the FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI_3-0.3MACl-NMP/DMF solution as the example, 151.4 mg FAI, 31.2 mg CsI, 461 mg PbI₂, 20.3 mg MACl and 96 uL NMP are dissolved in 500 uL DMF to form the precursor solution). The spiro-OMeTAD solution was prepared by dissolving 90 mg spiro-OMeTAD in 1 mL chlorobenzene, adding 21 μ L Li-TFSI (from 520 mg mL⁻¹ stock acetonitrile solution) and 11 μ L FK209 (300 mg mL⁻¹ stock acetonitrile solution) and 35 μ L 4-tert-butylpyridine.

334 Small-size perovskite solar cell fabrication. The FTO glass was firstly etched using a laser scribe 335 machine. Then it was cleaned through ultrasonic cleaning by detergent, pure water, and ethyl alcohol 336 for 20 min, respectively. After drying by dry-air blowing, it was treated by UVO for 15 min before 337 use. The SnO₂ layer was deposited onto a clean FTO substrate of different sizes by a chemical bath deposition (CBD) method²⁴. Then a 2 M FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI₃-NMP/DMF perovskite precursor solution 338 339 with further addition of different additives was simply spin-coated onto SnO₂/FTO substrates in an 340 N₂-filled glovebox (temperature \sim 15 °C; relative humidity <5%) at 5000 rpm for 60 s, respectively. 341 Then the films were annealed at 70 °C for 1 min and taken out for further annealing at 150 °C for 342 10 min in an ambient environment with a relative humidity of 20~30%. All the achieved perovskite 343 films were treated with 15 mM DABr/IPA solution at 4000 rpm for 20 s, and then annealed at 100 °C 344 for 5 min. The spiro-OMeTAD solution was spin-coated on the perovskite films at 4000 rpm for 20 345 s. Finally, 80-nm thick of gold was deposited using thermal evaporation to complete the whole device. 346

347 5 cm × 5 cm perovskite solar mini-module fabrication. The designated P1 pattern of FTO glass 348 is customized from the Yingkou OPV Tech New Energy Co., Ltd as depicted in Supplementary Fig. 349 19. Then it was cleaned and deposited with the SnO_2 layer as described above. The perovskite films 350 were spin-coated onto the 5 cm \times 5 cm substrates and annealed according to the above procedures. 351 It should be noted that it is better to use a gas-assisted method to remove large amounts of volatile 352 DMF gas immediately. Otherwise, it will react with the dry film and affect the nucleation process. 353 After the treatment with DABr and spin-coating of spiro-OMeTAD films, the samples were etched 354 by a picosecond laser (Picosecond Laser Processing System, LPS-R002A, Spectronix Corporation. 355 The laser wavelength is 532 nm and the pulse duration is 12 ± 3 ps to form a P2 pattern (the used 356 power is 3.0 W and the average fluence per pulse is ~ 0.23 J cm⁻² pulse⁻¹) and to subsequently form a P3 pattern (the used power is 3.8 W and the average fluence per pulse is ~ 0.29 J cm⁻² pulse⁻¹) 357 358 according to Supplementary Fig. 19 after evaporation of gold electrodes.

359 15 cm × 15 cm perovskite solar sub-module fabrication. The designated P1 pattern of FTO glass 360 is depicted in Supplementary Fig. 24. Then it was cleaned and deposited with the SnO₂ layer as 361 described above. The 1.25 M perovskite precursor ink were blade coated onto the 15 cm \times 15 cm 362 substrates in a simple glovebox with a rough control of the local atmosphere (temperature = $15 \pm$ 5 °C; relative humidity = $15 \pm 5\%$) and then Then the films were taken out for annealing at 70 °C 363 364 for 1 min and further annealing at 150 °C for 10 min in an ambient environment with relative 365 humidity 20~30%. The perovskite precursor ink was manually supplied to the coater head during 366 the coating process. The distance between the blade coater head and the substrate was 0.35 mm (Z 367 =0.35 mm). The motor rotation frequency for the blade coating process was set as 500 Hz, corresponding to a coating speed of \sim 3 mm/s. The angle between the air knife and substrate was 368 369 about 60° . The N₂-gas pressure was set at ~0.3 MPa. Then a 5 mM DABr/IPA solution was blade 370 coated onto the perovskite substrates accordingly, which was followed by thermal annealing at 100 °C 371 for 5 min. The spiro-OMeTAD solution was also blade coated onto the substrates accordingly. The 372 samples were etched by a picosecond laser to form a P2 pattern and etched again to form a P3 pattern 373 according to Supplementary Fig. 24 after evaporation of the gold electrode. 374 Photovoltaic performance characterization. The I-V characteristics of the perovskite solar cells

were measured using a Keithley 2420 source meter in the dry room (temperature = 15 ± 5 °C, relative 375 humidity = 25 ± 5 %). The light source is a solar simulator (Newport Oriel Sol 1A, xenon lamp, 376 USHIO, UXL-150SO) to match AM 1.5 G. The intensity of the light is 100 mW cm⁻² calibrated by 377 378 using a KG3 reference silicon cell (Enlitech). The EQE spectra were measured by using Oriel IQE 379 200. All the devices were tested using a black metal mask with an aperture area of 0.16 cm^2 for the small devices and 22.4 cm² for the 5 cm \times 5 cm mini-modules and 205 cm² for the 15 cm \times 15 cm 380 381 sub-modules, respectively. The I-V scan range was from -0.1 to 1.2 V for the small-size solar cells 382 and from -0.1 to 8.5 V for the mini-modules and from -0.5 to 25 V for the sub-modules. The corresponding I-V (or J-V) curves were measured at scan rates of ~0.2 V s⁻¹ for the small-area solar 383 cells, ~ 0.8 V s⁻¹ for the 5 cm \times 5 cm mini-modules and ~ 2.0 V s⁻¹ for the 15 cm \times 15 cm sub-modules 384 385 respectively without preconditioning.

386 **Light stability testing.** The perovskite solar cells under maximum power point (MPP) and mini-387 modules under maximum power point tracking (MPPT) were tested in our home-designed 388 environmental enclosure box under a flow of dry N_2 to keep the relative humidity below 5% (Supplementary Fig. 26). The devices were illuminated by a solar simulator (PEC-L01, Peccel) and the power output was measured continuously using a source meter (Keithley 2401) controlled by a program written in Labview. The algorithm used for MPPT is based on perturbation-observation. It starts by applying the maximum voltage derived from the first *I-V* curve (Fig. 5d), then the applied voltage is perturbed every minute with a small voltage variation to search for maximum power point, and the corresponding maximum voltage, maximum current and maximum power are recorded.

395 Characterization. The surface morphologies of the perovskite films and the cross-sectional 396 structure of the PSCs were investigated using scanning electron microscopy (FEI Quanta 250 FEG 397 FEI Quanta 250 FEG). The UPS and XPS measurements were conducted by using an X-ray 398 photoelectron spectrometer (AXIS Ultra HAS, Kratos) equipped with monochromatic Al Ka (1,486.6 eV) and non-monochromatic HeI (21.22 eV) sources. X-ray diffractometer (XRD, Bruker 399 400 D8 Discover), UV-vis spectrometer (V-670, JASCO), Time-resolved confocal PL microscopy 401 (Micro Time 200, PicoQuant GmbH), Mass spectrometry (HAL 3F-510, Hiden Analytical), were 402 used for the characterization of perovskite films, respectively. The atomic force microscopy 403 topography images in Supplementary Fig. 11b were acquired by an atomic force microscope (Model: 404 Park NX10) in the non-contact mode using a Si cantilever with a nominal spring constant of 42 N m⁻¹ (Model: PPP-NCHR). The atomic force microscopy topography images in Supplementary Fig. 405 406 20e, Supplementary Fig. 21d and Supplementary Fig. 22d were acquired by an atomic force 407 microscope (Model: Asylum Research MFP-3D) in the tapping mode using a Si cantilever with a nominal spring constant of 48 N m⁻¹ (Model: Budget Sensors Tap190Al-G). 408

409 Computational methods. All calculations were carried on the basis of projector-augmented wave method as implemented in the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) code⁴¹⁻⁴³. Perdew-410 Burke-Ernzerhof (PBE) functional within the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) was 411 412 employed to describe the exchange-correlation interaction⁴⁴. Van der Waals correction proposed by the Grimme potential (D2) was considered⁴⁵. The plane-wave basis cutoff energy was set to be 400 413 eV. The Monkhorst-Pack k-point mesh was sampled with a separation of about 0.015 Å⁻¹ in the 414 415 Brillouin zone. All structures were relaxed until the residual force on each atom was less than 0.01 416 eV/Å. The self-consistent convergence accuracy was set at 10⁻⁵ eV/atom in the structural calculation. The numerical calculations in this paper have been done on the HPC system of Xidian University. 417 All the crystallographic information files (CIFs) of the structure models including a-418

- 419 FAPbI₃(CCDC#1532918), δ-FAPbI₃(CCDC#968115), PbI₂(CCDC#77324), α-
- 420 CsPbI₃(CCDC#161481), δ-CsPbI₃(CCDC#161480), PbI₂·DMF (CCDC#1505389) and PbI₂·NMP
- 421 (CCDC#1915704) were obtained from the public database Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre
- 422 (CCDC) via the website <u>http://www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/data_request/cif</u> and references⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹.
- 423 Data availability
- 424 All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in the published article and its
- 425 Supplementary Information. Source Data and Supplementary Data are provided with this paper.
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432 Author contributions

- 433 Y.B.O. supervised the project. Y.B.O. and T.B. conceived the ideas. T.B. designed the experiments 434 and conducted the corresponding device and module fabrication and characterization. L.K.O. 435 contributed to part of the characterization and analyses. J.L. helped with the XRD and TRPL 436 mapping characterization. J.S. conducted the DFT calculations. G.T. helped with the stability test. 437 Y.B.Q. contributed to part of the AFM measurements in this study. J.Z. contributed to part of the 438 perovskite solar cell measurements in this study. Y.L., S.K., W.Z., J.C., F.H. and Y.-B.C. provided valuable suggestions for the manuscript. Y.B.Q. and T.B. participated in all of the data analyses. 439 440 Y.B.Q. and T.B. wrote the paper, and all authors revised the paper.
- 441 **Competing interests**
- 442 The authors declare no competing interests.

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444 Figure Legends/Captions

Fig. 1. Solar sub-module configuration and intermediate phase-modulated growth strategy for scalable deposition of the perovskite layer. (a) Classifications of perovskite solar modules defined by the area⁴⁰, and schematic illustration of the scalable fabrication of the perovskite solar submodule (The legend on the left hand side describes each functional layer, and the corresponding scalable fabrication methods of each layer are described on the right hand side. P1-P2-P3: three parting lines in a module). (b) Schematic illustration of the phase transition during the insertion and removal of MAC1. The initial competition between the perovskite-DMF complex intermediates and PbI₂-NMP adducts is suppressed by the conversion of perovskite-DMF complex intermediates to MAC1 incorporated α -phase perovskite intermediates during crystallization, followed by the final conversion to the α -phase perovskite with the release of MAC1 after the ripening process. Adapted with permission.²⁴ Copyright 2021, AAAS.

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457 Fig. 2. Nucleation and growth process characterization of self-drying perovskite films. (a, c) 458 Optical microscopy images and (b, d) in situ XRD patterns of the different perovskite inks self-dried 459 on the FTO substrates: (a, b) FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI₃-NMP/DMF and (c, d) FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI₃-0.3MACl-460 NMP/DMF (purple circle, FA₂Pb₃I₈•4DMF; solid green diamond, PbI₂•NMP; open diamond, $PbX_2 \cdot 0.5NMP \cdot 0.5DMF^{24}$). (e) Schematic diagram of the formation energy changes of the 461 462 $(FA_{26/27}Cs_{1/27})PbI_3$ perovskite with the incorporation of MA and MACl, respectively (x $\leq 1/3$). The 463 horizontal grey dash line represents the baseline of energy (viz. the formation energy of pure 464 FAPbI₃), and the top sketches show the corresponding perovskite crystal structures, which are viewed along the c-axis. (f) SEM images of the self-dried films from FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI₃-0.3MACl-465 NMP/DMF precursor ink and the annealed films at different temperatures for 10 min. 466

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468 Fig. 3. Morphology and defect modulation. (a) Schematic diagram of the Ostwald ripening, which 469 involves a phase transition of the MACl-induced perovskite intermediate (grey shape) and NMP-470 induced PbI₂•NMP solvate intermediate (yellow shape) to the final α -phase perovskite. (b) XRD 471 patterns of the spin-coated perovskite films with different additives after thermal annealing. (i) 472 FA0.88Cs0.12PbI3-NMP/DMF, (ii) FA0.88Cs0.12PbI3-0.3MACI-NMP/DMF, (iii) FA0.88Cs0.12PbI3-473 0.05PbI₂-0.3MACl-NMP/DMF, (iv) FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI₃-0.05PbI₂-0.3MACl-NMP/DMF with DABr 474 post-treatment. (c, d, e and f) SEM images and (g, h, i and j) time-resolved confocal PL mappings 475 of the corresponding perovskite films (i, ii, iii, and iv, respectively) after thermal annealing. Note 476 that the average carrier lifetime data (color scale bars) and the event count data (grey scale bars) 477 have been merged together in these images (g-j).

Fig. 4. Photovoltaic performance characterization. (a) Typical *J-V* curves of the devices based on different perovskite films: (i) $FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI_3$ -NMP/DMF, (ii) $FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI_3$ -0.3MACl-NMP/DMF, (iii) $FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI_3$ -0.05PbI_2-0.3MACl-NMP/DMF, (iv) $FA_{0.88}Cs_{0.12}PbI_3$ -0.05PbI_2-0.3MACl-NMP/DMF with DABr post-treatment. (b) *J-V* curves and (c) EQE spectrum of the champion device with the KPF₆ additive. (d) *I-V* curves of the champion 5 cm × 5 cm perovskite solar mini-module with a series connection of 7-sub cells (PCE_{ap} is the aperture area efficiency and PCE_{ac} is the active area efficiency.)

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487 Fig. 5. Scalable printing and stability characterization. (a) Schematic illustration for the scalable 488 blade coating of large-area perovskite films. (b) Cross-section SEM image of the fully blade coated 489 perovskite solar sub-module. (c) *I-V* curve of the champion 15 cm \times 15 cm perovskite solar sub-490 module (PCE_{ap} is the aperture area efficiency). Inset shows a photograph of the corresponding sub-491 module with a series connection of 21-sub cells. (d) Operational stability test of a 5 cm \times 5 cm perovskite solar mini-module (aperture area = 22.4 cm^2) under maximum power point tracking 492 493 (unencapsulated device, in nitrogen atmosphere, at ~30 °C) and (e) the corresponding *I-V* curves 494 before and after MPPT test and after dark storage.

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