

# Ultrafast Carrier Drift Transport Dynamics in CsPbI<sub>3</sub> Perovskite Nanocrystalline Thin Films

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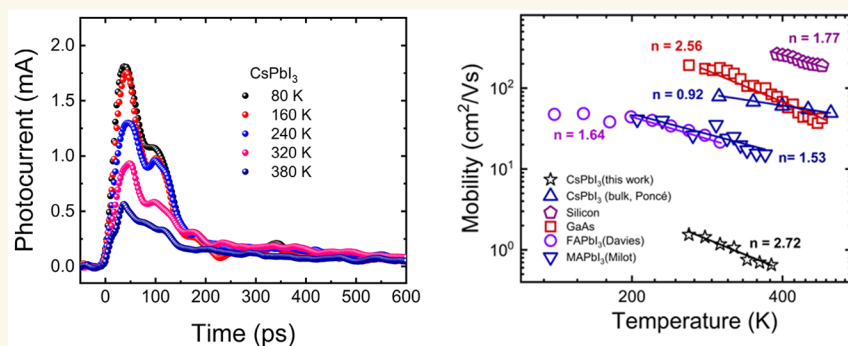
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**ABSTRACT:** We study the early time carrier drift dynamics in CsPbI<sub>3</sub> nanocrystal thin films with a sub 25 ps time resolution. Prior to trapping, carriers exhibit band-like transport characteristics, which is similar to those of traditional semiconductor solar absorbers including Si and GaAs due to optical phonon and carrier scattering at high temperatures. In contrast to the popular polaron scattering mechanism, the CsPbI<sub>3</sub> nanocrystal thin film demonstrates the strongest optical phonon scattering mechanism among other inorganic–organic hybrid perovskites, Si, and GaAs. This ultrafast dynamics study establishes a foundation for understanding the fundamental carrier drift properties that drive perovskite nanocrystal optoelectronics.

**KEYWORDS:** phonons, polarons, mobility, photocurrent, scattering

## INTRODUCTION

It remains a challenge to identify the drift dynamics of carrier transport in the ultrafast temporal region (early time) of optoelectronic materials and devices. However, the understanding of carrier drift dynamics in early time is important as it influences the subsequent dynamics such as carrier scattering, recombination, and trapping, which are the foundations of device efficiency and performance. For decades, the research community has relied on the traditional time-resolved optical spectroscopic techniques including pump–probe and fluorescence approaches to investigate ultrafast dynamics, but they are limited to carrier diffusion dynamics. Particularly, this is urgent for emergent nanostructured organic/inorganic perovskite nanocrystals (NCs) such as cesium lead halide (CsPbX<sub>3</sub>, X = Cl, Br, I) and methylammonium (MA) or formamidinium (FA) lead halide, which are typically solution-processed at low temperatures and demonstrate superior device performance in optoelectronic applications such as solar cells,<sup>1</sup> X-ray detectors,<sup>2</sup> light-emitting diodes (LEDs),<sup>3</sup> etc. However, due

to the low-dimensional nanostructure and low-temperature processing, researchers have to deal with large defect densities, which prevent the evaluation of critical phonon scattering mechanisms. Thus, there is an open question in the field of nanocrystals in terms of carrier transport properties on whether these solution-processed nanostructured semiconductors are either similar to or different from their counterpart, crystalline semiconductors, particularly when used as solar cell absorbers.

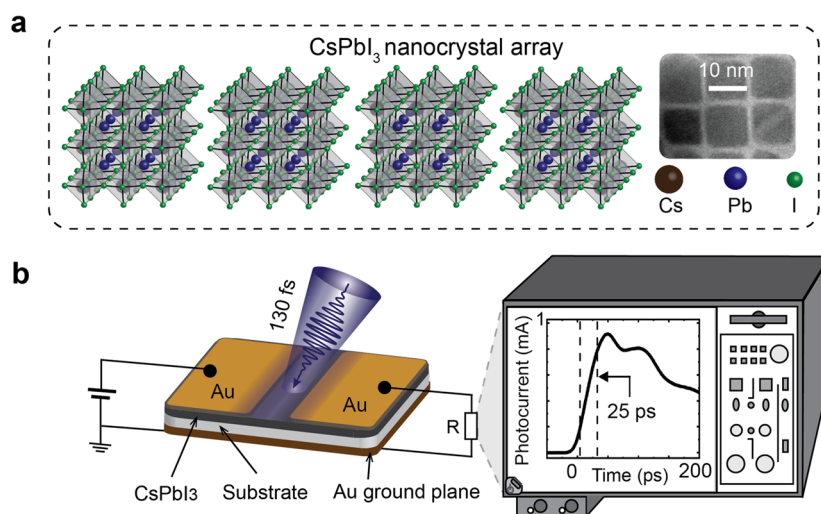
In this work, we address this open question using ultrafast photocurrent spectroscopy (UPCS) by investigating the carrier drift dynamics in perovskite NC thin films and traditional solar cell absorbers such as silicon (Si) and GaAs. In contrast to

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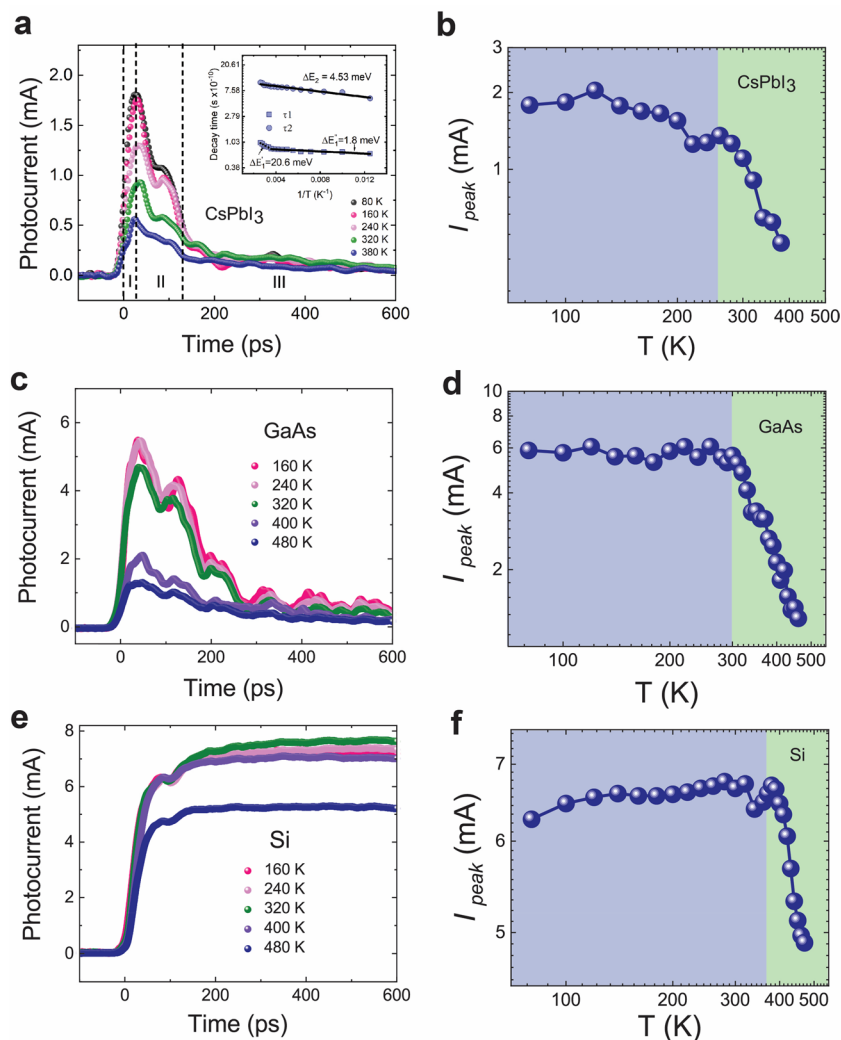
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**Figure 1.** Schematic of the UPCS. (a) Lattice structure and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image of a CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC array (scale bar  $\sim$ 10 nm). (b) UPCS with sub 25 ps time resolution comprised of a coplanar transmission line as a high-speed photocurrent waveguide and a NC thin film that is illuminated by an ultrafast laser pulse to generate photocurrent that is collected by a sampling oscilloscope. The laser beam covers the entire device including the NC film and a section of the Au electrodes.



**Figure 2.** Ultrafast photocurrent dependence on temperature. (a, c, e) Temperature-dependent ultrafast photocurrents for CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC films, doped GaAs, and lightly doped Si, respectively. The corresponding temperature-dependent photocurrent peak on a log–log scale is shown in (b), (d), and (f). The inset of (a) shows the Arrhenius plot for photocurrent decay.

traditional Carrier drift dynamics is generally found through traditional time-resolved laser spectroscopies, which include (i) time-resolved photoluminescence (TRPL)<sup>4</sup> and (ii) pump–probe techniques such as transient absorption,<sup>5</sup> terahertz-time domain spectroscopy (THz-TDS),<sup>6–9</sup> and many others,<sup>10–12</sup> the fundamental underlying disadvantage of these techniques is that the focus is limited to the carrier diffusion dynamics, where carriers are confined in nanometer short-range diffusion behavior. In contrast, UPCS investigates carrier drift dynamics, where carriers can conduct a range of transports in a couple hundred nanometers. As a result, we characterize the figure of merit of carrier drift property including carrier mobility, lifetime, and defect property with a sub 25 ps time resolution. However, a TA or THz pump–probe may stand out due to their subpicosecond time resolution. Although time-resolved photoconductivity techniques such as the time-of-flight photocurrent (TOF)<sup>13</sup> and photo-CELIV (charge extraction by linearly increasing voltage) can characterize those critical drift parameters in photoconductive devices,<sup>14</sup> they are limited to defect property characterization since the time resolution is approximately tens of nanoseconds (ns),<sup>15</sup> which is much longer than the trapping events in most solution-processed perovskites.

Our aims are 2-fold: (1) investigate the carrier drift dynamics prior to carrier trapping events and (2) identify the carrier scattering mechanism in perovskite NCs and compare it with well-known semiconductor solar absorbers including Si and GaAs. To this end, an inorganic CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC array is used as a model system. The lattice structure as well as SEM images of perovskite NCs are shown in Figure 1a. Unlike bulk perovskites, these have wider tunability in terms of NC size, structure (quantum dots, layered materials, and nanotube), surface chemistry, and composition. In the ultrafast temporal region of sub 25 ps, carriers in CsPbI<sub>3</sub> demonstrate band-like transport due to interactions with optical phonons that dominate in a higher temperature regime (HT) (>240 K). In the lower temperature regime (LT) (<240 K), defect scattering balances out the electron–phonon scattering dominated by low-energy acoustic phonons. As determined through the mapping of a temperature (transport) index, the CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC thin films exhibited the strongest optical phonon interaction compared to other inorganic–organic hybrid perovskites, Si, and GaAs. Thus, optical phonon scattering is the dominant scattering mechanism in contrast to the popular polaron carrier interaction.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As shown in Figure 1b, by integrating a CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC thin-film photoconductor into a transmission line architecture as a high-speed photocurrent waveguide, the carrier drift dynamics can be investigated in photoconductors *in operando* with a sub 25 ps time resolution by UPCS.<sup>16–18</sup> A detailed NC film morphology and experimental configuration can be found in Supplementary Methods and Figure S1. To facilitate carrier transport and enable wave function coupling among nanocrystals, the NCs are treated with MeOAc (methyl acetate) and the long-chain ligands are replaced with short-chain acetate ligands. Figure 2a shows the various temperature-dependent photocurrent decays for the CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC film. The photocurrent is proportional to the photogenerated charge carrier density, as the majority of the photogenerated charge carriers are extracted as photocurrent. A typical photocurrent can be characterized by a fast rise to ~25 ps followed by a

rapid decay up to 125 ps and then a slow tail extending beyond 600 ps (zero time is at 10% of the peak photocurrent). These three temporal regions are denoted by dashed vertical lines in Figure 2a. In the first temporal region I, during the initial rise to ~25 ps, the peak photocurrent ( $I_{\text{peak}}$ ) decreases with increasing temperature from 240 to 400 K, as shown in Figure 2b, and can be described by

$$I_{\text{peak}} \approx T^{-n} \quad (1)$$

where  $n$  is an index (temperature or transport index) and  $T$  is the temperature. This classic power-law relation is the signature of band-like transport due to carrier–phonon scattering. To highlight the phonon scattering mechanism, rather than the defect scattering, here we adopt the classic and general band-like term in semiconductors.

In region II, two competing transport mechanisms govern the photocurrent response between ~25 and ~125 ps. On one hand, the photocurrent dependence continues to decrease with increasing temperature, indicating the presence of phonon scattering. On the other hand, the time decay (Figure S3) shows an opposite trend; it increases with increasing temperature, which is a signature of hopping transport due to defect scattering. An Arrhenius relation for decay time with temperature can be written as

$$\tau \approx e^{-\Delta E/k_{\text{B}}T} \quad (2)$$

where  $\Delta E$  is the activation energy or defect energy level in this case,  $k_{\text{B}}$  is the Boltzmann constant, and  $\tau$  is the decay time constant. The thermal activation energy of ~1.8 meV is derived as described in a Supplementary Note. Transport dynamics post 25 ps are shown in the inset of Figure 2a. In region III, i.e., beyond ~125 ps, the slow decay tail can be attributed to a hopping transport mechanism with an activation energy of ~4.5 meV. As reported by our previous work,<sup>18</sup> the increasing thermal activation with time indicates that carriers follow a multiple trapping and release transport mechanism. Figure S2 depicts a complete photocurrent decay with an average carrier lifetime in the temperature range from 80 to 400 K (see Table S1). Thus, we can conclude that in the early time prior to 25 ps, the carrier transport is dominated by the carrier–phonon scattering mechanism, rather than the trapping or defect scattering mechanism.

To highlight the significance of drift dynamics before trapping (based on our data, we consider initial trapping occurs in region I as depicted in Figure 2a), we compare the ultrafast photocurrents of CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC films, with the traditional semiconductor solar absorbers under the same electrical field and the photon density in the range of  $10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$  (Figures 2c,e). For doped GaAs with a defect density  $>10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , the temperature-dependent photocurrent decay trend is similar to that of the CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC films, i.e., a fast rise followed by a rapid decay. Similarly, the photocurrent peak decreases with increasing temperature in the range from 300 to 500 K, as illustrated in Figure 2d, which can be attributed to carrier–phonon scattering. Moreover, the decay constant also increases because of defect scattering. In contrast, the photocurrent exhibits a fast rise for n-type Si with a defect density  $<10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ , followed by a plateau up to a couple of nanoseconds, as shown in Figure 2e. This is mainly due to the low defect density, which primarily lowers the rate of carrier recombination (trap-assisted recombination) and increases the carrier lifetime. In contrast, materials with defects such as GaAs and CsPbI<sub>3</sub> show a sharp decay in photocurrent as excited carriers

recombine within defect states, thus reducing the carrier lifetime. Similar to the CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC films and GaAs, the photocurrent peak is attributed to optical phonon scattering, since its amplitude decreases with increasing temperature (from 400 to 500 K), as illustrated in Figure 2f. In addition to the temporal evolution of the photocurrent, as seen in Figure 2a,c,e, the evolution of the peak photocurrent with temperature (Figure 2b,d,f) also indicates the carrier transport mechanism. All three semiconductors exhibit a similar transition of the transport mechanism in the low- and high-temperature regimes. The transition temperatures are 300 and 380 K for doped GaAs and slightly doped Si, respectively. For GaAs, below 300 K this is due to the combination of defect scattering and phonon scattering mechanisms, which demonstrate an opposite temperature dependence. As a result, the photocurrent peak remains constant. For Si, the defect scattering mechanism dominates below 380 K and the photocurrent decreases with decreasing temperature. For the CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC film and below 240 K, we note that the photocurrent peak of CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC films exhibits a weak temperature dependence. We attribute this weak temperature dependence to a change in scattering mechanism, from piezoelectric scattering due to acoustic phonons and space-charge scattering due to impurities at low temperatures, to optical phonon scattering at higher temperatures based on previous work.<sup>19</sup>

The sum of the mobility, which is a critical parameter to evaluate the carrier transport property, can be derived from the peak photocurrent as described<sup>20</sup>

$$I_{\text{peak}} = e\eta(\mu_h + \mu_e) \frac{NE}{L} \quad (3)$$

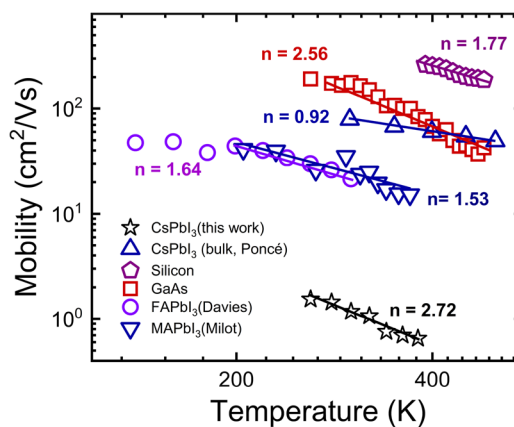
where  $\mu_h$  and  $\mu_e$  are the hole and electron mobilities, respectively,  $\mu = \mu_h + \mu_e$  is the total carrier mobility,  $e$  is the electron charge,  $\eta$  is the quantum yield which is the product of quantum efficiency of carrier photogeneration and carrier collection,  $N$  is the effective photon number,  $E$  is the electric field, and  $L$  is the electrode spacing. For CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC thin films, the calculated sum of the carrier mobility at room temperature is  $\sim 2.5 \text{ cm}^2/(\text{V s})$ . (here we assume the quantum yield  $\eta$  is 100%)<sup>21</sup> (see Supplementary Note, carrier mobility calculations, and Figure S4 for calculations). Similarly, for GaAs and doped Si, the calculated carrier mobilities at room temperature are  $\sim 303$  and  $\sim 177 \text{ cm}^2/(\text{V s})$ , respectively. We note that these values are lower than previously reported mobility values for GaAs and Si with comparable dopant concentrations and defect densities. For instance, the electron mobility is  $\sim 3000 \text{ cm}^2/(\text{V s})$  for GaAs<sup>22</sup> and  $\sim 1500 \text{ cm}^2/(\text{V s})$  for Si.<sup>23</sup> The calculated carrier mobilities are lower due to the assumed high quantum yield value of 100%. It is worth noting that, assuming 10% quantum yield, the mobility increases from  $2.5 \text{ cm}^2/(\text{V s})$  to  $\sim 25 \text{ cm}^2/(\text{V s})$ , and it is in the same range as that characterized by the THz TDS.<sup>8</sup> Moreover, this high mobility value ( $>2.5 \text{ cm}^2/(\text{V s})$ ) at room temperature is consistent with the phonon scattering mechanism in CsPbI<sub>3</sub> films, which is a signature of band-like transport. The linear dependence on electric field and laser intensity at 80 K for CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC thin films (Figures S5–S7), as well as for GaAs and Si (Figure S8), suggests that all three semiconductors exhibit the same photogeneration mechanism resulting from the free carrier generation. At room temperature, from the sub ps to sub 25 ps region, the calculated minimum drift length of the carriers under a moderate electrical field of  $2 \times 10^4 \text{ V/cm}$  with

minimum mobility of  $\sim 2.5 \text{ cm}^2/(\text{V s})$  is  $\sim 12 \text{ nm}$ , which is equivalent to around more than one NC width, well beyond the couple nanometer diffusion length previously reported using ultrafast optical spectroscopy.<sup>24</sup>

Because the hopping transport mechanism has been well studied through the carrier trapping model in perovskite bulk films<sup>18,25,26</sup> and NCs,<sup>27,28</sup> here, we highlight the pretrapping dynamics to gain insights into the carrier–phonon interactions. Indeed, the early-time phonon scattering in CsPbI<sub>3</sub> has been reported by Wong and Bonn et al. using transient absorption and THz pump–probe approaches, respectively.<sup>8,29</sup> The strength of the carrier–phonon interaction is related to the temperature-dependent carrier mobility  $\mu$  as

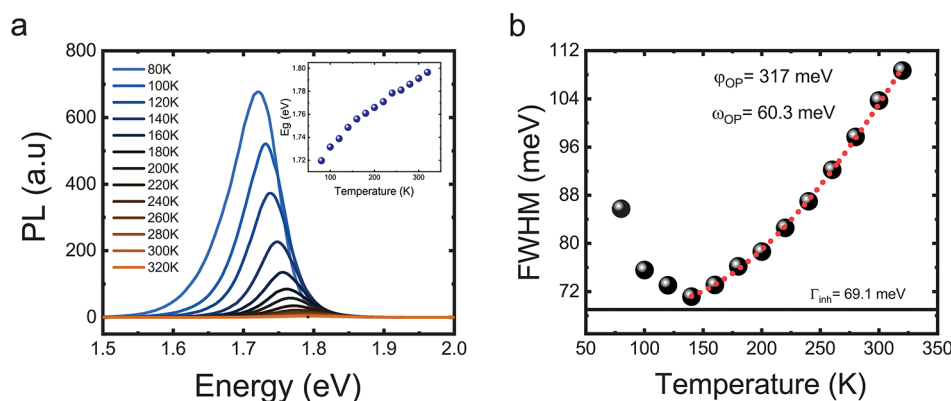
$$\mu \approx T^{-n} \quad (4)$$

The  $n$  value is a “normalization” parameter despite the fact that different measurement techniques have different mobility characterization systematic errors. Also, the  $n$  value is an indication of various phonon modes. For instance, the stronger the phonon–carrier interaction, the larger the  $n$  value. In classic crystalline semiconductors, the  $n$  value of 1.5 is an indication of an acoustic phonon, and larger than 1.5 is an indication of an optical phonon.<sup>30</sup> However, the  $n$  index value is also dependent on nanostructure, temperature, etc. as discussed in the following section. As shown in Figure 3, for



**Figure 3.** Carrier mobility dependence on temperature. Carrier mobility dependence on temperature in two types of semiconductors: a typical crystalline polar semiconductor such as GaAs and Si and bulk CsPbI<sub>3</sub> (Ponce) and solution-processed MAPbI<sub>3</sub> (Milot), FAPbI<sub>3</sub> (Davies), and CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC perovskites.

CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NCs, in the temperature range of 240 to 380 K, the  $n$  value is  $\sim 2.7$  in contrast to the same bulk material ( $n = 0.92$ ).<sup>31</sup> While at low temperatures ( $<240 \text{ K}$ ), it decreases to  $n = 0.1$ , which we attribute to a combination of defect scattering and acoustic phonon scattering (see Figure S9). In contrast, the high-temperature  $n$  value of the CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC is larger in comparison to that of (1) traditional semiconductor solar absorbers,  $n = 1.77$  and  $n = 2.56$  for Si and GaAs, respectively, and (2) low-temperature solution-processed organic lead halide perovskites such as MAPbI<sub>3</sub> ( $n = 1.53$ )<sup>32</sup> and FAPbI<sub>3</sub> ( $n = 1.64$ ).<sup>33</sup> Particularly, for MAPbI<sub>3</sub> and FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, there is a phase transition from an orthorhombic to a tetragonal phase at approximately 150 K. Therefore, we extract the  $n$  value above the phase transition temperature.<sup>34</sup> Although the mobility dependence on temperature of those semiconductor materials has been characterized by various techniques,<sup>35</sup> the “normal-



**Figure 4.** Steady-state PL emission. (a) PL emission spectrum of CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NCs from 80 to 320 K. There is a clear blue shift and decrease in PL intensity in the spectrum with increasing temperature, and the inset shows the change in the peak which corresponds to lowering of the band gap. (b) The corresponding full width at half-maximum (fwhm)  $\Gamma$  values. The dotted line is a fitting corresponding to  $\Gamma(T) = \Gamma_{\text{inh}} + \frac{\varphi_{\text{OP}}}{e^{(E_{\text{op}}/k_{\text{B}}T)} - 1}$ , where the second term represents optical phonon scattering.

ized"  $n$  index value is weakly dependent on characterization approaches.

In the perovskite community, the origin of carrier scattering mechanisms is under debate.<sup>36</sup> First, we exclude the acoustic phonon scattering mechanism. This is because the  $n = 1.5$  temperature dependence is generally expected due to acoustic phonon scattering, although the converse may not necessarily hold. We also exclude the popular polaron scattering mechanism. A polaron is a cloud of phonon modes, and due to the large organic molecules, such as MA and FA, it is plausible that MA or FA molecules distort the lattice structure along with the phonon modes. As a result, this will reduce the interaction among the phonon interaction with carrier, leading to smaller  $n$  index value, as reported by Motta and Sanvito in CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>,<sup>37</sup> which mainly resulted from the polaron scattering mechanism, while the polaron prohibits carrier transport. Furthermore, first-principles calculation without assumption of the temperature dependence shows a smaller  $n$  index value.<sup>38</sup> Here, the larger  $n$  index value in CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> indicates that the optical phonon–carrier interaction is the dominant mechanism. Below we focus on the underlying mechanism for the varying  $n$  values in the high-temperature regime and their relationship to the carrier–optical phonon scattering process.

In solution-processed perovskites, the carrier–phonon coupling is aligned with the bond characteristics of the halide anion (in this case, I<sup>−</sup>) and the central organic (MA<sup>+</sup>, FA<sup>+</sup>) or inorganic (Cs<sup>+</sup>) cation. The carrier–phonon coupling constant is determined by the bond length  $d$  of the cation (A)–halogen (X) bond (MA–I, FA–I, Cs–I) and the coordination number  $a$  defining the number of bonds that connect X to A, both of which are large ( $d \approx 4.5$  Å;  $a = 12$ ), leading to strong theoretical optical phonon coupling in CsPbI<sub>3</sub>. In comparison to MA or FAPbI<sub>3</sub>, which have  $d \approx 2.75$  Å and  $a = 3$ ,<sup>39</sup> both  $d$  and  $a$  values are large for CsPbI<sub>3</sub>, as depicted in Figure S10 and the Supplementary Note (carrier–phonon coupling). Although carrier–phonon interactions can also be enhanced in NCs due to quantum confinement,<sup>40</sup> the CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NCs in this work are much larger (12 nm). Thus, the effect of quantum confinement on the phonon interactions is negligible. Unlike CsPbI<sub>3</sub>, both GaAs and Si are single crystalline, and the strong carrier–phonon coupling (as seen in the large  $n$  values shown in Figure 3) is mainly due to structural symmetry.

To quantify the relationship between the above phonon coupling mode and the  $n$  values, we turn to the following

equations defined by Fivaz and Mooser<sup>41</sup> to gauge the type of optical phonon involved in the scattering process

$$n = \frac{\left(\frac{\hbar\omega}{k_{\text{B}}T}\right) e^{\hbar\omega/k_{\text{B}}T}}{e^{\hbar\omega/k_{\text{B}}T} - 1} - 1 \quad (5)$$

where  $\hbar$  is the reduced Planck's constant and  $\omega$  is the optical frequency, respectively. Using an  $n$  value of 2.7 for the photocurrent peak (from Figure 3) in eq 5, we obtain  $E_{\text{op}} = \hbar\omega \approx 64$  meV at 300 K and an average energy of  $\sim 62$  meV (in the range of 20–100 ps) at 300 K (Figure S11). In comparison, the derived optical phonon energy is  $\sim 66$  meV for Si and  $\sim 85$  meV for GaAs, respectively, and these values are consistent with previous reports.<sup>42,43</sup>

To validate the optical phonon mode generated, we use temperature-dependent steady-state photoluminescence (PL) as shown in Figure 4a. A similar approach such as Raman spectroscopy can be used; the temperature-dependent photoluminescence stands out due to its signal to noise ratio. The full width at half-maximum (fwhm) can be described as  $\Gamma(T) = \Gamma_{\text{inh}} + \frac{\varphi_{\text{OP}}}{e^{(E_{\text{op}}/k_{\text{B}}T)} - 1}$  (Figure 4b), where  $\Gamma_{\text{inh}}$  is a temperature-independent inhomogeneous constant arising from scattering due to crystalline imperfections and exciton–exciton interactions,<sup>44</sup>  $\varphi_{\text{OP}}$  is the amplitude, and  $E_{\text{op}}$  is the optical phonon. From our analysis, we obtain a phonon energy  $E_{\text{op}} \approx 60$  meV. Thus, the energy of the optical phonons is similar to the steady-state phonon energy calculated from Figure 4b. The value extracted above for phonon energy  $E_{\text{op}}$  is far larger than what was observed in CsPbI<sub>3</sub>.<sup>45,46</sup> Most likely, the extra energy is attributed to high-energy phonon modes from the surface ligands.

## CONCLUSIONS

By elucidating the nature of carrier drift dynamics and carrier scattering mechanisms, particularly in the ultrafast temporal region, we highlight the optical phonon scattering mechanism similarity of CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC films with those of traditional solar absorbers. In contrast to the popular polaron–carrier scattering, the CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC film demonstrates the strongest optical phonon and carrier interaction among other inorganic–organic hybrid perovskites and traditional solar absorbers. Our study has profound implications for emergent organic/inorganic perovskite photonic, optoelectronic, and electronic

devices because we establish a foundation for describing the intrinsic electrical transport properties.

## EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

**Materials.** Methyl acetate (MeOAc; anhydrous, 99.5%), oleic acid (OA; technical grade, 90%), cesium carbonate ( $\text{Cs}_2\text{CO}_3$ ; 99.9%), octane (anhydrous,  $\geq 99\%$ ), oleylamine (OAm; technical grade, 70%), 1-octadecene (ODE; technical grade, 90%), hexane (reagent grade,  $\geq 95\%$ ), lead nitrate ( $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ ; 99.999%), ethyl acetate (EtOAc; anhydrous, 99.8%), and formamidinium iodide (FAI;  $\geq 98\%$ ) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Lead(II) iodide ( $\text{PbI}_2$ ; 99.9985%) was obtained from Alfa Aesar.

**CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC Synthesis and Purification.** The synthesis process follows a method reported by Hazarika et al.<sup>1</sup> with slight modification. First, to synthesize the Cs-oleate precursor, 0.407 g of  $\text{Cs}_2\text{CO}_3$  and 1.25 mL of OA were added to 20 mL of ODE. Then the mixture was degassed at 150 °C for 20 min under a vacuum. The fully dissolved Cs-oleate precursor was kept at 150 °C under a  $\text{N}_2$  atmosphere until needed. Subsequently, 0.5 g of  $\text{PbI}_2$  was added to 25 mL of ODE and heated at 120 °C for 10 min under vacuum. A solution of 2.5 mL of OA was mixed with 2.5 mL of OAm (heated at 130 °C) and was then injected into the  $\text{PbI}_2$  solution. The reaction flask was kept at 120 °C until  $\text{PbI}_2$  was fully dissolved. Afterward, the solution was heated to 180 °C under flowing  $\text{N}_2$ . Once the solution reached 180 °C, 2 mL of the Cs-oleate precursor was immediately injected into the reaction flask, and the mixture was quenched in an ice bath. The resulting colloidal solution was left to cool to 20 °C and then mixed with 70–80 mL of MeOAc before centrifuging at 7500 rpm for 5 min. Then the precipitated CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NCs were dispersed in 5 mL of hexane, reprecipitated by adding  $\sim 5$  mL of MeOAc, and centrifuged again at 7500 rpm for 5 min. The obtained precipitate was then redispersed in 15 mL of hexane and stored in a refrigerator at 4 °C. This CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC solution was centrifuged again at 7500 rpm for 5 min after 24 h post storage in the refrigerator to remove excess Cs-oleate and Pb-oleate. The supernatant was filtered through a 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  nylon filter before use. The synthesized NCs can be seen in Figure S1a,b.

**Ligand Exchange.** This synthesis procedure replaces the traditional long-chain oleate ligand from oleic acid (2.5 nm) with short-chain OAc ions by way of MeOAc. The oleate ligand consists of an 18-carbon chain; thus, the ligand exchange procedure reduces to a two-carbon chain, with the OAc ligand being  $\sim 0.28$  nm. Thus, the average distance between the two NCs is  $\sim 0.6$  nm.

**Fabrication of NC Films.** The CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC films were deposited according to the method by Zhao et al.<sup>1</sup> with slight modifications and within a humidity-controlled box (relative humidity,  $\sim 20$ – $25\%$ ). First, the CsPbI<sub>3</sub> NC was prepared according to the wet synthesis method above. The films were deposited on a 10 mm  $\times$  10 mm quartz substrate. Each layer of CsPbI<sub>3</sub> QD was deposited by spin-coating at 1000 rpm for 20 s and then 2000 rpm for 5 s. Subsequently, the film was dipped into a solution of  $\text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2$  saturated in MeOAc and then rinsed in a pure MeOAc solution. A thin film with  $\sim 250$  nm thickness was produced by repeating the process of spin-coating QDs and soaking them in the solution three times. Finally, the film was soaked in FAI-saturated EtOAc solution for 10 s and rinsed in the neat MeOAc solution. The cross-section of the films is shown in the TEM images (Figure S1c,d) captured via an FEI Tecnai F20 electron microscope with 200 kV accelerating voltage.

## ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Data Availability Statement

All data are available in the main text or Supporting Information.

### Supporting Information

The Supporting Information includes The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsnano.3c03989>.

Detailed experimental setup engineering design, carrier transport property value calculations including mobility, lifetime, drift length, and quantum efficiency, photo-current dependence on temperature, electrical field, and laser intensity of Si, GaAs, and CsPbI<sub>3</sub> (PDF)

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K.K., E.L., and Q.Z. performed the experiments. K.K., E.L., and Q.Z. contributed equally to this work. J.S.B., J.Z., Y.S., H.Z., D.L., T.C., O.C., A.M.R., M.C.B., and J.M.L. were involved in the technical discussion. J.G. supervised and designed the project. All authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

## Notes

This manuscript was previously uploaded to a preprint server, and we have accessed the preprint on July 06, 2023. Kanishka Kobbekaduwa, Exian Liu, Qian Zhao, Pan Adhikari, Chendi Xie, Jianbing Zhang, Ying Shi, Haimei Zheng, Dawen Li, Hugo Sanabria, Ming Hu, Tong Cai, Ou Chen, Apparao M. Rao, Matthew C. Beard, Joseph M. Luther, and Jianbo Gao. Are solution processed CsPbI<sub>3</sub> perovskite nanocrystalline films similar to traditional crystalline semiconductors? 2021, Research Square, URL: [10.21203/rs.3.rs-912920/v1](https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-912920/v1)  
The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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