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Reversible Oxidative p-Doping in 2D Tin Halide Perovskite Field-Effect Transistors

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that form acceptor levels close to the valence band maximum of $(PEA)_2SnI_4$.

etal halide perovskites (MHPs) have demonstrated their versatility in diverse optoelectronic fields such as solar photovoltaics, light-emitting devices, and photosensors.¹⁻⁴ The exceptional features of MHPs, including low effective mass, long carrier diffusion length, and high intrinsic carrier mobility, have opened up the possibility of using MHPs in various electronic device applications.⁵⁻⁹ In particular, incorporating MHPs into field-effect transistors (FETs) provides a useful platform to better understand the carrier transport dynamics and physical properties of MHP materials under various operational conditions. Thus far, numerous studies have reported remarkable electrical properties of perovskite FETs based on diverse MHP channels, such as methylammonium lead triiodide (MAPbI₃), methylammonium tin iodide (MASnI₃), and phenethylammonium tin iodide $((PEA)_2SnI_4)$.^{10–15} Among these channels, two-dimensional (2D) Sn-based perovskites have shown excellent intrinsic properties, efficient lateral charge transport, and high carrier mobility, rendering them as promising channel materials for high-performance perovskite FETs. Moreover, Sn-based perovskites are regarded as promising alternatives to Pb-based analogues, mainly due to their lower toxicity compared with Pb halide perovskites.¹⁶ Furthermore, unlike three-dimensional (3D) counterparts, the organic spacer layers

in 2D Sn halide perovskites can prevent rapid degradation in ambient conditions, enabling a progressive development of 2D Sn-based transistors.¹⁷⁻²¹

Despite the recent intensive progress in 2D Sn-based transistors, the practical applications of Sn halide perovskite channel materials are often hindered by their inherent susceptibility to various environmental factors, such as light, moisture, and oxygen (O_2) .^{2,14,22–24} In particular, atmospheric O_2 plays a pivotal role in deforming crystalline structures and forming O_2 -mediated degradation products due to the low tolerance of Sn halide perovskites to O_2 .^{17,25–27} In addition, a rapid oxidation of Sn(II) to Sn(IV) under ambient conditions which eventually results in a p-doping significantly impedes a reliable device operation and limits our understanding of the atmospheric O_2 effects on Sn halide perovskites.^{28–30} This O_2 -induced evolution upon ambient conditions has necessitated a

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systematic investigation into the impact of atmospheric O_2 on Sn-based perovskites.

To this end, there have been numerous studies on the interaction of the exposure of O_2 on the properties and selfdoping behavior of Sn halide perovskites. The O_2 exposure effect on Sn perovskites has been discussed extensively in the context of oxidation; for example, Smith et al. investigated the in situ kinetics of Sn oxidation in 3D Sn halide perovskite thin films in different environmental conditions by real-time spectroscopic measurements.³¹ Ricciarelli et al. and Lanzetta et al. provided theoretical and experimental evidence, respectively, for understanding the Sn(II)-to-Sn(IV) oxidation process and subsequent p-type self-doping effects in 3D and 2D/3D Sn perovskites upon O_2 exposure.^{32,33} However, this oxidation process is mostly irreversible, often inducing a permanent change or even some damage in the film and device characteristics,^{22,34} which is critical for developing industrially feasible Sn-based perovskite devices with high reliability.

On the other hand for 2D (PEA)₂SnI₄ perovskites, Ju et al. have reported a reversible O₂ effect on films exposed to a specific range of O₂ concentrations from photoluminescence measurements, suggesting an alternative photoactivated p-type doping pathway in Sn perovskites that can be reversible.³⁵ However, such a reversible doping process still remains elusive in many aspects, especially the degree of such doping, doping mechanism (i.e., exact doping sites and energetics), and their impact on charge transport in 2D perovskites. In addition, since 2D (PEA)₂SnI₄ perovskites have been reported as a highmobility channel for FETs, it is imperative to directly test the impact of O₂ exposure on FET characteristics and their robustness upon complex oxidative reaction pathways.

Herein, we employ 2D layered (PEA)₂SnI₄ perovskite FETs for demonstrating a reversible p-doping behavior upon successive exposure to ambient and vacuum conditions. Significant p-doping effects are observed under ambient conditions in the Sn-based perovskite FETs within a few minutes, including the gradual enhancement of on- and offcurrent, a significant shift of threshold voltage, and an increase in mobility. This enhanced p-doping can be fully restored to its initial level by being subjected to vacuum conditions. The electrical performance of the recovered transistors, along with the results of X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy and X-ray diffraction, clearly indicates a reversible nature of the doping/ dedoping effect upon atmospheric/vacuum exposure of (PEA)₂SnI₄ transistors without any severe structural or device degradation. The origin of the observed reversible p-doping behavior is further investigated by first-principles density functional theory (DFT) calculations to pinpoint the mechanism of a selective p-doping effect by O₂ molecules.

(PEA)₂Snl₄ PEROVSKITE FIELD-EFFECT TRANSISTORS AND FILM CHARACTERIZATION

To study the p-doping behavior in 2D layered Sn-based perovskites, we fabricated (PEA)₂SnI₄ transistors with a conventional back-gate bottom-contact structure on a 270 nm SiO₂/p⁺⁺-Si substrate using the spin-coating method, as presented in Figure 1a. The representative optical image of our (PEA)₂SnI₄ transistors is shown in Figure S1. The fabricated (PEA)₂SnI₄ perovskite transistors were transferred from a nitrogen (N₂)-filled glovebox to parameter-characterizing equipment using metal containers designed to minimize unintended Sn(II) oxidation by maintaining internal vacuum conditions and to protect against possible external degradation



Figure 1. Device structure and film characterization. (a) Device schematic of a 2D layered $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ perovskite FET. (b) FE-SEM image, (c) UV-vis absorption spectrum, and (d) XRD pattern of $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ perovskite films.

factors, such as humidity, the surrounding gaseous environment, and light exposure. The transferred perovskite devices were placed in a vacuum chamber (~ 10^{-4} Torr) for one day before the electrical characterization to eliminate as much as possible any undesired surface adsorbates on the top surface of the $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ films. The detailed device fabrication procedure is described in the Methods section. The high polycrystalline film quality with large grain sizes (average exceeding 2 μ m) of our perovskite films was confirmed by a field-emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM) image (Figure 1b). Figure 1c shows the ultraviolet-visible (UV-vis) absorption spectrum of a (PEA)₂SnI₄ film. The observed prominent absorption peaks at 434, 525, and 612 nm represent the 2D layered (PEA)₂SnI₄ perovskite film, which is consistent with previous reports.^{36–38} In addition, the crystallinity of spincoated perovskite films was further investigated by using X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis (Figure 1d). The dominant $(0 \ 0 \ l)$ diffraction peaks from pristine perovskite thin film illustrate clearly the periodic stacking structure of the 2D layered $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ perovskite in which inorganic SnI_6 octahedral units sandwiched between PEA organic slabs with preferential *c*-axis orientation.^{36,39-41} These sharp (0 0 *l*) peaks in XRD spectrum also imply the formation of a highly crystalline film structure with large grains in our perovskite transistors, facilitating efficient carrier transport along the perovskite channels.⁴

ELECTRICAL CHARACTERIZATION UNDER AMBIENT AND VACUUM CONDITIONS

We first examined the influence of ambient air exposure on our Sn-based perovskite transistors. To quantitatively investigate the air-induced changes in conduction properties of (PEA)₂SnI₄ FETs, the ambient exposure time evolution of the drain current versus gate voltage (I_D - V_{BG}) transfer characteristic curves are shown in Figure 2a. The increase in



Figure 2. Effect of successive ambient air and vacuum exposure on device performance. Semilogarithmic scale I_D-V_{BG} curves at $V_D = -40$ V upon (a) ambient air and (b) vacuum exposure. (a, b) The insets show the variation of I_{D_on} and I_{D_off} with varying ambient air and vacuum exposure time, respectively. I_D-V_D curves at $V_{BG} = -40$ V upon (c) ambient air and (d) vacuum conditions.

 $I_{\rm D}$ with a decreasing $V_{\rm BG}$ indicates the dominant p-type conduction behavior of our (PEA)₂SnI₄ transistors. A remarkable increase in both on-current $(I_{D on})$ and off-current $(I_{\rm D off})$ with an increasing ambient air exposure time clearly shows the enhanced p-type conduction in (PEA)₂SnI₄ perovskite channels upon air exposure (Figure 2a inset). The drain current versus drain voltage $(I_{\rm D}-V_{\rm D})$ output characteristic curves at $V_{BG} = -40$ V measured with an increasing ambient air exposure time ranging from 0 s (pristine) to 450 s are displayed in Figure 2c. The gradually rising I_D with increased atmospheric air exposure time indicates enhanced p-type conduction in the perovskite channel. Furthermore, continuous enhancement in measured I_D in output characteristic curves under ambient conditions manifests negligible adsorbate permeation effects in the metal-perovskite interfaces responsible for deteriorated contact quality. The $I_{\rm D}$ - $V_{\rm BG}$ characteristic curves with a more prolonged air exposure time are shown in Figure S2a. As air exposure time increased, the on- and off-current ratio exhibited a saturated trend at approximately 800 s of air exposure, suggesting (PEA)₂SnI₄ became fully p-doped due to air exposure (Figure S2b). After air exposure for 450 s, the perovskite devices were stored immediately in vacuum ($\sim 10^{-4}$ Torr) at room temperature.

To monitor the changes in the electrical properties of the perovskite transistors in vacuum, the transfer characteristic curves with the vacuum storage time are shown in Figure 2b. As the vacuum storage time increases, both $I_{D_{on}}$ and $I_{D_{off}}$ in I_{D} - V_{BG} transfer characteristic curves are gradually reduced and almost reverted to their initial values after 7 h of vacuum exposure, indicating a nearly complete dedoping of the Sn-based perovskite transistors. In addition, the gradual recovery observed in the output curves also suggests the removal of the cause of p-doping in the perovskite channel by exposure to

vacuum conditions (Figure 2d). Besides, the almost identical I_D values, as well as the high similarity in both output and transfer characteristic curves before (pristine) and after successive exposure to atmospheric air/vacuum (recovered), demonstrate the high reversibility of the p-doping effects without significant structural and operational degradation in our Sn-based perovskite transistors (Figure S3). Although I_D of our perovskite transistors almost saturates at negative V_{BG} and devices are not turned off until large positive V_{BG} , these are not uncommon phenomena in perovskite transistors (see Section 4 in the Supporting Information); thus, our results can serve as a reasonable reference for other studies on perovskite transistors.

To comprehend the observed reversibility of p-doping in Snbased perovskite, we compared the electrical performances among the pristine, air-exposed, and recovered perovskite transistors, as shown in Figure 3a,b. In general, p-doping under



Figure 3. Restoration of electrical and PL properties in $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ perovskites upon exposure to ambient air and vacuum conditions. Comparison of (a) V_T and (b) μ_s among pristine, air-exposed, and recovered perovskite transistors. (c) Cycles of I_{D_on} and I_{D_off} at the saturation regime ($V_D = -40$ V) during successive ambient and vacuum exposure evolutions. Comparison of (d) the PL peak intensity normalized by maximum intensity under the pristine conditions and (e) the peak position of the PL spectra among pristine, air-exposed, and recovered perovskite films.

ambient conditions in Sn halide perovskites results from two major factors: (1) the facile oxidation of Sn(II) to Sn(IV) and (2) the substitution of O₂ molecules into native halide defects or interstitial sites within the perovskite structure. Tin vacancies (V_{Sn}) generated by oxidation of Sn(II) to Sn(IV) often cause p-doping by forming shallow acceptor levels of V_{Sn}.^{5,12,32,44–46} This can disrupt the uniformity of the perovskite crystal structure and create defects that capture charge carriers in localized energy states, ultimately hindering complete reversibility and leading to significant degradation.⁴⁷ Given that the aforementioned microstructural defects arising from the Sn(II) oxidation directly influence carrier transport in perovskite channels, the negligible difference in typical transistor performance indicators, such as threshold voltage (V_T) , saturation mobility ($\mu_{\rm S} = (2L/WC_{\rm OX}) \times (\partial \sqrt{I_{\rm D}} / \partial V_{\rm BG})^2$,

where L, W, and C_{OX} denote channel length, width, and oxide planar capacitance per unit area, respectively), and subthreshold swing (SS) between the pristine and the recovered transistor, implies a complete p-doping reversibility without severe structural degradation nor the formation of Sn-related defects in the (PEA)₂SnI₄ channel (Figure 3a,b and Figure S6). To assess the quantitative extent of the p-doping, we estimated the change of charge concentration (ΔN_A) due to the p-doping can be obtained from $\Delta N_{\rm A} = C_{\rm OX} \Delta V_{\rm T}/qt_{\rm ch}$, where $\Delta V_{\rm T}$ is the shift of $V_{\rm T}$ of the device in the doped state from the pristine state (~15.8 V, from Figure 3a), q is the electric charge, and t_{ch} is the thickness of the perovskite channel (\sim 30 nm), assuming bulk doping (discussed later). The estimated value of ΔN_A of 4.2×10^{17} cm⁻³ is consistent with the doping concentration reported previously in 2D Sn halide perovskites ($\approx 10^{14}$ to 10^{17} cm^{-3} , ^{48,49} closer to the high-doping range among the reported values. It is worth noting that the effective charge concentration (Δp_{eff}) can be higher by considering the insulating nature of the organic spacers of the 2D perovskites. Therefore, $\Delta p_{\rm eff}$ evaluated from $\Delta N_{\rm A}$ can be estimated by assuming that the doped carriers are confined within the inorganic layers (i.e., [SnI₆]⁴⁻ octahedral sheet in the case of $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ perovskite). The obtained value of Δp_{eff} is 1.1 × 10¹⁸ cm⁻³ which corresponds to the approximate number of carriers generated through oxidative doping per $[SnI_6]^{4-}$ octahedron to be 2.7 carriers doped per 10,000 $[SnI_6]^{4-1}$ in our (PEA)₂SnI₄ perovskites. This discussion, although of little direct practical relevance, nevertheless provides a valuable reference for assessing the degree of the oxidative doping with various MHPs and other systems⁴⁸⁻⁵¹ (detailed discussion in the Supporting Information). In addition, we demonstrate the repeatability of the successful transition cycles between pdoping and dedoping in the $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ channel in Figure 3c. Each cycle of doping and dedoping involves exposing the $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ transistor to air for 300 s (represented by "air" labels in Figure 3c) followed by exposure to vacuum for 7 h (represented by "vac" labels). During the sequential exposures of the ambient air and vacuum conditions (i.e., air1, vac1, air2, vac2, etc.), the current levels changed between $\sim 10^{-4}$ and $\sim 10^{-5}$ A for $I_{\rm D}$ on and between $\sim 10^{-6}$ and $\sim 10^{-10}$ A for $I_{\rm D}$ off demonstrating the repetitive nature of p-doping and dedoping processes in the perovskite transistors. Note that a slight reduction in I_{D on} of the recovered transistor may be attributed to some inevitable air-induced degradation as the cycle progresses. We note that we fabricated other (PEA)₂SnI₄ transistors on different batches and confirmed the consistent electrical performance of the transistors (Figure S7). In addition, we confirmed the doping effect from measuring the photoluminescence (PL) spectra over a successive exposure to air and vacuum environments, which exhibits a similar trend to the observed reversibility in the electrical characteristics (Figure S8).³⁵ The PL peak intensity values among different conditions are directly compared in Figure 3d. The reduction in the PL peak intensity upon air exposure can reflect the nature of the p-doping. Figure 3e displays the PL peak position among the pristine, air-exposed, and recovered (PEA)₂SnI₄ films. Nearly identical PL peak positions among them indicate the absence of significant oxidative decomposition or segregation within the (PEA)₂SnI₄ perovskite during air exposure, which will be discussed in detail in the next section.

AIR-INDUCED DEGRADATION IN (PEA)₂Snl₄ PEROVSKITE

We further investigated ambient-air-dependent degradation to better understand the unavoidable influence of device degradation on the observed reversible p-doping effect. First, oxidation products such as Sn(IV) in the $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ perovskite film were investigated using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), as displayed in Figure S9. The relatively small difference before and after successive exposure to air and vacuum conditions in terms of the two peak positions corresponding to Sn 3d and I 3d implies the negligible generation of Sn(IV) inside the (PEA)₂SnI₄ perovskite film during ambient air exposure. Additionally, the nearly identical XPS spectra observed before and after electrical measurements suggest that the contribution of electrochemically induced Sn oxidation is minimal in our experiments (Figure S10). The related discussion of XPS analysis is provided in the Supporting Information. We also examined the XRD patterns of the (PEA)₂SnI₄ film under three different conditions to verify the absence of any significant decomposition products during air exposure (Figure S11). The absence of undefined peaks in the XRD spectrum of the (PEA)₂SnI₄ film under air conditions, compared to films under nitrogen (N_2) and vacuum conditions, indicates reaction pathways without any air-mediated phase segregation in the (PEA)₂SnI₄ film. The surface roughness of the (PEA)₂SnI₄ film showed minimal changes in the atomic force microscope images, and the timeof-flight secondary ion mass spectroscopy results revealed comparable levels of oxygen atoms between the pristine and the recovered film after air exposure (see Figures S12 and S13 in the Supporting Information). These findings suggest that storing the film under vacuum conditions facilitates the desorbing of the O2 molecules in the air-exposed film and the successful recovery of the $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ film quality without deterioration. Consequently, the irreversible degradation features originating from air incorporation into the Sn-based perovskite are insignificant in our (PEA)₂SnI₄ transistors, allowing us to observe the repeatable reversibility of p-doping.

UNDERSTANDING THE REVERSIBLE p-Doping MECHANISM IN (PEA)₂Snl₄ TRANSISTORS

Now to understand the origin of reversible p-doping in our (PEA)₂SnI₄ transistors under ambient conditions, the fabricated transistors were exposed separately under N₂ and O₂ atmospheres. Here, the partial pressure of N₂ and O₂ was controlled at approximately 0.8 and 0.2 atm, respectively. The pristine (PEA)₂SnI₄ transistor was successively exposed in sequence to N_{21} vacuum, O_{21} and vacuum conditions for 5.5 min, 2.5 h, 6 min, and 6 h, respectively. (Figure S14). The I_{D} - $V_{\rm BG}$ transfer curves before (pristine) and after exposure to controlled N₂ conditions are compared in Figure 4a. The I_D- $V_{\rm BG}$ curve under $\rm N_2$ conditions exhibits no certain p-doping signatures (see the blue curve for pristine and brown curve for N_2 0.8 atm in Figure 4a). Meanwhile, the clear dependence of the observed p-doping effect on O₂ conditions indicates the predominant contribution of O₂ molecules to enhanced p-type conduction in Sn-based perovskite (see blue curve for pristine and purple curve for O_2 0.2 atm in Figure S14).

Figure 4b shows the evolution of the I_D - V_{BG} transfer curves of the (PEA)₂SnI₄ transistor as a function of the O₂ exposure time after successive exposure under controlled N₂ and vacuum conditions. As the O₂ exposure time increases, both



Figure 4. Effects of N₂ and O₂ on the electrical characteristic of the $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ transistor. I_D-V_{BG} curves of perovskite transistors at $V_D = -40$ V under (a) successive exposure in sequence to N₂ (0.8 atm), vacuum conditions, (b) 0.2 atm O₂ conditions as a function of O₂ exposure time, and (c) vacuum conditions as a function of vacuum exposure time.

 $I_{\rm D_on}$ and $I_{\rm D_off}$ values gradually increase and almost reach their maximum values after 6 min (approximately 8×10^{-5} A for $I_{\rm D_on}$ and 10^{-6} A for $I_{\rm D_off}$), which is consistent with our previous atmospheric air exposure. As expected, the observed p-doping effects progressively recover with an increasing vacuum exposure time (Figure 4c).

We also conducted similar electrical measurements under relatively humid conditions (relative humidity = 54.3%) to verify the impact of water molecules in the atmosphere on observed reversible p-doping in Sn-based perovskite. Despite ambient air containing some moisture, the hydrophobic organic spacer in (PEA)₂SnI₄ facilitates reversibility similar to dry O₂ exposure, but irreversibility becomes apparent under prolonged or high humidity exposure. Detailed discussions on the effect of moisture and the experimental procedure for relatively high humidity conditions are presented in Supporting Information Section 14. Notably, the consistent reversibility observed under short-term exposure to dry O₂ or ambient air and irreparable electrical performance observed after exposure to relatively high humidity conditions further support our scenario that the atmospheric O_2 (not water molecules) predominantly contributes to the repeatable reversibility of pdoping effects when the Sn-based perovskite transistors are exposed to ambient conditions.

Recent studies have shown that the O2-adsorbates on the MHPs surface can rapidly diffuse into the bulk of MHPs within minutes (intergrain regions) or hour (to the grain interior) scale.⁵² This indicates that the observed p-doping likely involves the bulk diffusion of O2 molecules in (PEA)2SnI4. p-Doping accompanies the Fermi level of MHPs shift toward the valence band maximum (VBM), which can originate from acceptor states generated by the interaction between O_2 molecules and MHP lattice.53,54 Considering the selective pdoping response of our Sn-based perovskite transistors to O2 without significant structural or operational deterioration, we attribute the observed reversible p-doping to O2 present in ambient air, rather than N2 or H2O molecules, for which we carried out theoretical calculations to identify the probable doping sites within the MHP lattice (the next section). Besides, the complete dedoping observed under vacuum conditions strongly supports our assumption that the interaction between the O2 molecules and MHP lattice has a relatively low binding energy. Note that the reversibility holds up until exposure for 40 and 60 min to air and O₂, respectively, but irreversibility gradually appears after longer-term exposure to air or O_2 (Supporting Information Section 15).

DFT CALCULATIONS ON THE REVERSIBLE p-Doping EFFECT OF O₂ MOLECULES

In order to justify the observed selective p-doping by O_2 molecules under ambient exposure, we employed DFT calculations to investigate the effect of O_2 occupying (1) I vacancy or (2) interstitial sites in (PEA)₂SnI₄.

We first modeled I vacancies in a $\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2} \times 1$ supercell (376 atoms) of (PEA)₂SnI₄ and calculated their donor levels using the hybrid HSE06^{55,56} functional with inclusion of spinorbit coupling (SOC). Computational details can be found in the Methods Section. Due to the planar geometry of SnI₄ octahedral networks in (PEA)₂SnI₄, there are two distinct I vacancy sites: $V_{I,eq}$ and $V_{I,ap}$ where "eq" stands for I at the



Figure 5. O_2 interstitial introduces a shallow acceptor state in the band gap of $(PEA)_2SnI_4$. (a) Calculated defect levels induced by iodine vacancies $(V_{I_ap} \text{ and } V_{I_eq})$, the O_2 interstitial $((O_2)_i)$, and the N_2 interstitial $((N_2)_i)$ in $(PEA)_2SnI_4$. Spin density of the interstitial O_2 with (b) neutral charge state $((O_2)_i^0)$ and (c) negative charge state $((O_2)_i^-)$. (d) Schematic of the O_2 induced p-doping mechanism.

equatorial site and "ap" stands for I at the aptical site (see Figure S20 in the Supporting Information). The calculated defect levels are shown in Figure 5a. We found that $V_{\rm L,eq}$ induces a much deeper donor level (-1.00 eV below the CBM) than $V_{\rm I,ap}$ (-0.24 eV below CBM), which agrees well with a previous theoretical report.⁵⁷

Accordingly, using the same supercell and computational setups, we further modeled O_2 and N_2 interstitials (i.e., $(O_2)_i$ and $(N_2)_i$ in $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ and calculated their acceptor levels. Unlike $(O_2)_i$ in MAPbI₃ that induces an acceptor level close to the conduction band minimum (CBM),⁵³ the acceptor level induced by $(O_2)_i$ in $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ is confirmed to be close to the VBM (0.43 eV above the VBM), which can lead to p-doping. By plotting the spin densities of $(O_2)_i^0$ and $(O_2)_i^{1-}$ at their optimized geometry (Figure 5b,c), we further confirmed that the spin state of the O_2 is changed when $(O_2)_i^0$ accepts an electron and becomes $(O_2)_i^{1-}$. Figure 5d depicts a schematic diagram of the p-doping mechanism by O_2 interstitial in (PEA)₂SnI₄. There are two half-filled antibonding orbitals (π_x^* and π_{v}^{*}) at the ground electronic configuration of the O₂ molecule. Both the calculated acceptor level of $(O_2)_i$ close to the VBM and changes in its spin state upon accepting an electron suggest that π_x^* and π_y^* levels of O₂ are aligned slightly above the VBM of (PEA)₂SnI₄, which facilitates p-doping of the material. In the case of $(N_2)_i$ the calculated acceptor level is located above the CBM, because the added electron in the $(N_2)_i$ defect supercell fills empty states in the conduction band of $(PEA)_2SnI_4$, rather than filling in empty orbitals of N_2 molecules. This also explains why we could not observe any pdoping behavior of our devices under N2 exposure. We further tested other possible O2 sites (iodine vacancies and the intermolecular region between the PEA molecules) and their capacities for reversible p-doping; we found that O_2 molecules situated at iodine vacancy sites initiate structural degradation as opposed to the experimentally observed reversibility (Figure S21), and O_2 incorporated in the intermolecular region cannot act as a p-dopant due to an unfavorable match in energy levels (Figure S22).

To experimentally demonstrate the p-doping in (PEA)₂SnI₄ resulting from the O₂ molecule-induced acceptor levels, we investigated temperature-dependent p-doping effects with prolonged O₂ exposure time to 60 min at 250 K (Figure S23). We observed a significantly lower degree of p-doping at 250 K compared to that of room temperature ($\Delta p \approx 2.4 \times 10^{17}$ cm⁻³, factor of 2 lower), despite a longer O₂ exposure time needed to saturate the doping effect (i.e., 60 min, rather than 450 s). This observation can be interpreted as the lower number of ionized O₂ molecules induced acceptor states within (PEA)₂SnI₄ at low temperatures.

Overall, our theoretical results reveal that the origin of the experimentally observed oxidative p-type doping/dedoping in $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ is likely to be a facile occupation/release of O_2 interstitials within $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ lattice by O_2 upon successive ambient/vacuum exposure, but note that it is difficult to experimentally confirm it through structural analysis due to several reasons: our sample is a thin film with strong preferred orientation, making high-resolution diffraction difficult if not impossible; doping concentration of oxygen is relatively low (specifically, ~2.7 doping carriers per 10,000 perovskite octahedral, which is discussed in detail in the Supporting Information Section 6), resulting in very subtle structural changes which may be below the detection limit of commonly used structural elucidation techniques; and the sample dedopes

itself in vacuum, therefore limiting the possible techniques to those conducted under atmospheric conditions.

In summary, we demonstrated a reversible p-doping effect in 2D layered (PEA)₂SnI₄ perovskite field-effect transistors upon exposure to ambient and vacuum conditions. As air exposure time increased, pronounced p-doping signatures such as enhanced on- and off-current levels, V_T shift, and increased carrier mobility were observed in our perovskite transistors. The observed p-doping phenomenon could be restored with vacuum exposure, showing nearly a complete dedoping in the perovskite channels without significant structural and operational degradation. In addition, the negligible variation in the XPS and XRD results as well as on- and off-current levels after repeated exposure to air/vacuum conditions demonstrated a high reversibility in the p-doping effect. We attribute this reversible p-doping effect to the facile incorporation and release of atmospheric O₂ molecules from the interstitial sites of the perovskite lattice based on the theoretical predictions by the DFT calculations which show generation of acceptor levels near VBM of (PEA)₂SnI₄ for justifying the selective p-doping effect by O₂. Our findings provide a basis for understanding the fundamental p-doping mechanism under ambient air conditions in Sn-based perovskites and developing advanced leadfree halide-perovskite-based electronics and optoelectronics.

METHODS

Precursor Preparation. The $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ perovskite precursor solution (0.1 M) was prepared by dissolving phenethylammonium iodide (PEAI, 100 mg/mL, purchased from Greatcell Solar Materials) and tin(II) iodide (SnI₂, 75 mg/mL, purchased from Sigma-Aldrich) in *N*,*N*'-dimethylformamide (DMF, purchased from Sigma-Aldrich) with a molar ratio of 2:1. The (PEA)₂SnI₄ precursor solution was stirred for 3.5 h at 60 °C before film deposition. All the processes in solution preparation were carried out in a N₂-filled glovebox.

Perovskite Field-Effect Transistor Fabrication. 270 nm thick SiO₂/p⁺⁺-Si substrates were sequentially cleaned using acetone, isopropanol, and deionized water for 10 min each, followed by drying in a nitrogen flow. Bottom electrodes of Au (30 nm)/Ti (3 nm) were deposited with a shadow mask on the substrates by an electron-beam evaporator (KVE-2004 L, Korea Vacuum Tech) under high-vacuum conditions (~10⁻⁶ Torr) to make the active channel areas with 1000 μ m \times 150 μ m (width × length). The substrates with bottom electrodes were cleaned again with acetone, isopropanol, and deionized water for 10 min each, and UV-ozone treatment was carried out to remove remaining surface contamination. Then, prepared perovskite solution was spin-coated at 4000 rpm for 30 s to form $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ films on the substrates, and the samples were annealed at 100 °C for 10 min in a N2-filled glovebox.

Characterization and Electrical Measurements. The crystalline structures of $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ films were examined using X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements (SmartLab, Rigaku and D8-Advance, Bruker). Absorbance spectra were acquired by a UV–vis spectrophotometer (V-770, JASCO). Photoluminescence (PL) spectra were measured by an XperRam 200 spectrometer (Nanobase Inc.) with a 532 nm laser as a PL excitation source. The surface images of $(PEA)_2SnI_4$ films were collected using a field-emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM) (GeminiSEM 560, ZEISS) at an acceleration voltage of 5 kV and an atomic force microscope (AFM) (NX-10, Park Systems). The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy

(XPS) measurement was performed by using Axis Supra (Kratos). Depth profile of elements was measured by a timeof-flight secondary ion mass spectroscopy (TOF-SIMS) (TOF.SIMS5, IONTOF). All electrical measurements were conducted under dark conditions using a semiconductor parameter analyzer (4200-SCS, Keithley) at room temperature. FET parameters were extracted according to the methods outlined in Figure S24.

First-Principles Calculations. Underlying calculations were performed on the basis of Kohn-Sham density functional theory,58 considering periodic boundary conditions to represent the extended crystal. The Vienna Ab Initio Simulation Package (VASP)^{59,60} was employed with the projector augmented-wave (PAW)^{61,62} method where the valence states of H, C, N, O, Sn, and I are treated explicitly by $1(1s^1)$, $4(2s^22p^2)$, $5(2s^22p^3)$, $6(2s^22p^4)$, $14(4d^{10}5s^25p^2)$, and 7(5s²5p⁵) electrons, respectively. The Perdew–Burke–Ernzerhof exchange-correlation functional (PBE)⁶³ with the Grimme $D3^{64}$ scheme for vdW corrections (i.e., PBE + D3) was adopted to optimize the primitive unit cell and defect supercells of (PEA)₂SnI₄, since structural parameters of Snbased 2D halide perovskites calculated from PBE + D3 have shown excellent agreement with experiments.^{65,66} The planewave kinetic energy cutoff of 700 eV, a $4 \times 4 \times 1$ Γ -centered kmesh (for the primitive cell), and a $2 \times 2 \times 1$ Γ -centered kmesh (for supercells) were used during all structure optimization calculations. The convergence criteria were set to 10^{-6} eV and 5×10^{-2} eV Å⁻¹ for total energy and atomic forces, respectively. With PBE + D3 optimized defect geometries, we accurately calculated defect levels using the Heyd-Scuseria-Ernzerhof functional (HSE06)^{55,56} incorporating 43% Hartree-Fock exact exchange with spin-orbit coupling (SOC). Here, to reduce the computational cost of HSE calculations, the plane-wave kinetic energy cutoff was decreased to 500 eV and the total energy convergence criterion was lowered to 10^{-5} eV. Finite-size corrections^{67,68} were also applied for charged defect supercell calculations using the dielectric constants reported by Kahmann et al.⁵⁷

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsenergylett.4c00497.

Optical imaging, additional characterization of (PEA)₂SnI₄ perovskite transistors under various environmental conditions (ambient air, vacuum, humidity, nitrogen (N_2) , oxygen (O_2) under room and low temperature), comparative analyses of dual sweep and subthreshold properties upon sequential exposure to ambient air and vacuum conditions, a detailed analysis of the quantified variation in doping carrier concentration, ambient air and vacuum-induced doping effects across multiple (PEA)₂SnI₄ perovskite transistors, further characterization of perovskite films using an array of measurement techniques (photoluminescence (PL), Xray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS), X-ray Diffraction (XRD), Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM), and Time-of-Flight Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry (TOF-SIMS)), and computational calculations for optimal atomic geometries for both O₂ and N₂ interstitial (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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