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EXPLORING THE STRUCTURAL AND OPTICAL PROPERTIES OF LOW DIMENSIONAL HALIDE PEROVSKITE-LIKE COMPOUNDS AT EXTREME CONDITIONS

FORTALEZA 2023

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Tese apresentada ao Programa de Pós-Graduação em Física do Centro de Ciências da Universidade Federal do Ceará, como requisito parcial à obtenção do título de Doutor em Física.

Orientador: Dr. Alejandro Pedro Ayala

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ABSTRACT

Low-dimensional Metal Halide Perovskite-like (MHPs) compounds have emerged as promising materials for various optoelectronic applications, including photodetectors and solar cells. These compounds feature a metal halide octahedron as the fundamental structural unit, crucial in dictating their optoelectronic and chemical properties. To further investigate and harness their unique potential, researchers have explored extreme conditions, such as low temperatures and high pressures, to induce structural changes and explore their impact on electronic and optical properties uncovering novel physical properties and establishing a comprehensive understanding of the structural-property relationship. One example is the zero-dimensional bromide hexa-Bromo bismuthate ${([CH_3)_2NH_2]^+}$ ^{4Br}-[BiBr₆]³⁻, which at low-temperature (T < 100 K) and without involving a structural phase transition, the intriguing octahedra distortion produces a photoluminescence (PL) state changing its optical properties. On the other hand, the twodimensional $CsPb₂Cl₅$ undergoes two structural phase transitions at high pressures, where the low-pressure phase P_I: *I4/mcm* transforms into phase P_{II}: *I4/m* at $P_c^{I-II} = 1.60$ GPa, and subsequently changes to phase P_{III} : *C2* at $P_c^{II-III} = 5.16$ GPa. On the other hand, an occupational disorder was observed in the family of $CsPb_2(Br_{1-x}I_x)$, where both Br and I ions occupy the same position at 16l sites. Regarding PL properties, the iodine substitution increases PL intensity and modifies the energy emission, demonstrating a redshift of the PL center. Finally, the low-temperature Raman spectroscopy and PL of the $CsPb₂Br₅$ compound provided valuable insights into the origin of its photoluminescence. The evolution of the photoluminescence spectra at low temperatures reveals an intriguing increase in emission intensity and the emergence of a dual-emission band beyond 60 K. Specifically, the narrow photoluminescence observed at room temperature can be attributed to the radiative recombination of free excitons. In contrast, the broad emission observed at low temperatures is ascribed to the presence of self-trapped excitons (STE). In this context, the results of the structural-property relations in past metal halide perovskite-like pave the way for developing new and improved devices and technologies for different applications.

Keywords: low-dimensional perovskite-likes; extreme conditions; synchrotron powder x-ray diffraction; Raman spectroscopy; photoluminescence.

RESUMO

Compostos de haleto metálico de baixa dimensão semelhantes a perovskita (MHPs) surgiram como materiais promissores para várias aplicações optoeletrônicas, incluindo fotodetectores e células solares. Esses compostos apresentam um octaedro de haleto metálico como unidade estrutural fundamental, crucial para ditar suas propriedades optoeletrônicas e químicas. Para investigar e aproveitar melhor o seu potencial único, os investigadores exploraram condições extremas, como baixas temperaturas e altas pressões, para induzir mudanças estruturais e explorar o seu impacto nas propriedades electrónicas e ópticas, descobrindo novas propriedades físicas e estabelecendo uma compreensão abrangente da relação propriedade-estrutura. Um exemplo é o brometo hexa-Bromo bismutato de dimensão zero $\{[(CH_3)_2NH_2]^+\}$ 4Br⁻.[BiBr₆]³⁻, que em baixa temperatura (T <100 K) e sem envolver uma transição de fase estrutural, a intrigante distorção de octaedros produz um estado de fotoluminescência (PL) alterando suas propriedades ópticas. Por outro lado, o composto bidimensional CsPb₂Cl₅ sofre duas transições de fase estruturais em altas pressões, onde a fase de baixa pressão PI: *I4/mcm* se transforma na fase P_{II}: $I4/m$ em P_c^{I-II} = 1.60 GPa, e posteriormente muda para fase P_{III}: $C2$ em P_c^{II-III} = 5.16 GPa. Por outro lado, foi observado um distúrbio ocupacional na família de $CsPb_2(Br_1,xI_x)$ ₅, onde ambos os íons Br e I ocupam a mesma posição nos sítios 16l. Em relação às propriedades do PL, a substituição de iodo aumenta a intensidade do PL e modifica a emissão de energia, demonstrando um desvio para o vermelho do centro do PL. Finalmente, a espectroscopia Raman de baixa temperatura e PL do composto CsPb₂Br₅ forneceram informações valiosas sobre a origem da sua fotoluminescência. A evolução dos espectros de fotoluminescência a baixas temperaturas revela um aumento intrigante na intensidade de emissão e o surgimento de uma banda de dupla emissão além de 60 K. Especificamente, a estreita fotoluminescência observada à temperatura ambiente pode ser atribuída à recombinação radiativa de excitons livres. Em contraste, a ampla emissão observada em baixas temperaturas é atribuída à presença de excitons autoaprisionados (STE). Neste contexto, os resultados das relações propriedade- estrutura no passado do tipo perovskita de haleto metálico abrem caminho para o desenvolvimento de dispositivos e tecnologias novos e melhorados para diferentes aplicações.

Palavras-chave: perovskitas de baixa dimensionalidade; condições extremas; difração de raios x em pó de sincrotron; espectroscopia Raman; fotoluminescência.

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1 Introduction

Metal halide perovskites (MHPs) have emerged as a captivating and versatile material class that has garnered significant attention across various scientific disciplines, including physics, chemistry, and materials science. These compounds boast an unique crystal structure, which underpins their exceptional properties and diverse applications as solar cells, where the rapid progress in perovskite solar cells has led to impressive power conversion efficiencies and has positioned them as a potential rival to traditional silicon solar cells, (Meng, You e Yang, 2018; Rong *et al.*, 2018), photodetectors, photo-batteries, and Light Emitting Diodes (LEDs) (Liu *et al.*, 2021; Stranks e Snaith, 2015; Zhang, Eperon e Snaith, 2016).

The perovskite crystal structure is characterized by a corner-sharing BX_6 octahedron, where A elements occupy the cuboctahedral cavity in each unit cell. The most prevalent chemical formula for MHPs is ABX3, wherein X represents halide anions, while A and B encompass various sizes of cations. Specifically, $A⁺$ denotes an organic molecule or inorganic cation, while B^{2+} corresponds to a metal cation (Wu *et al.*, 2022) (see Figure 1). Deviations from the ABX³ stoichiometry can be attained through total or partial substitution of chemical elements in their respective A, B, or X positions (Jin, 2021). Such substitutions can effectively modify the crystal structure and engender new properties, paving the way for establishing crucial structure-property relationships in these compounds. This topic is of immense interest within the research community, as it catalyzes the development of novel and advanced materials for diverse technological applications (Zhu e Zhu, 2020).

MHPs can be characterized by their archetypal ABX_3 system, featuring accessible cubic, tetragonal, orthorhombic, trigonal, and monoclinic polymorphs (Akkerman e Manna, 2020; Alaei *et al.*, 2021). These materials also undergo structural phase transitions (SPT) as a function of temperature and pressure. Metal halide perovskites are solution-processable, making them easily preparable from precursor solutions containing raw materials AX and $BX₂$ halide salts, such as chloride (Cl), bromide (Br), and iodide (I), which crystallize into the ABX_3 structure. These compounds can exist in fully inorganic and hybrid organic-inorganic structures (Xiao, Song e Yan, 2019; Zhou *et al.*, 2019). Modifying the corner-sharing octahedral network [BX₆] in the MHPs crystal lattice, could described different dimensionalities such as 2D, 1D, and 0D, each corresponding to distinct arrangements of components. There are two categories of low

dimensionalities *"morphological level,"* corresponding to the arrangement of a few or hundreds of unit cells in 2D, 1D, or 0D (left panel of Figure 2), and *"molecular level,"* corresponding to the arrangement of octahedrons in 2D, 1D, or 0D (right panel of Figure 2).

Figure 1– Unit cell of an ideal cubic perovskite ABX₃ (left) and their extended crystal line structured connected by corner-sharing $[BX_6]^{4-}$ octahedra (right) (Zhou e Huang, 2018).

Source: (Zhou *et al., 2018)* without adaptations*.*

The diversity of metal halide perovskite structures, especially in their low-dimensional forms, has led to intriguing properties and potential applications (Kim *et al.*, 2018; Zhang, Eperon, e Snaith, 2016). Low-dimensional perovskite structures have gained significant attention due to their unique electronic and optoelectronic properties and enhanced stability compared to their three-dimensional counterparts. These materials exhibit quantum confinement effects, which result in tunable bandgaps and improved charge transport properties. Moreover, low-dimensional perovskites are promising for quantum computing and other emerging technologies (Qin e Pan, 2023). The morphological low-dimensional aspects of perovskites are closely associated with their crystal size. These low-dimensional metal halide perovskites (L-MHPs) are considered nanomaterials, exhibiting quantum confinement effects in at least one direction. They can be categorized into three main groups: 2D nanoplatelets (NPLs), 1D nanowires (NWs) and nanorods, and 0D quantum dots (QDs) (Yao *et al.*, 2021). Despite their reduced dimensions, these L-MHPs maintain a crystallographic structure identical to 3D MHPs, with ABX³ being the prevailing chemical formula (Lin *et al.*, 2018). Their

distinctive properties stem from the quantum confinement effect arising due to the reduced dimensions.

Figure 2– 3D ABX₃ MHPs and their perovskite-related materials with different dimensionalities at both morphological and molecular levels. On both the morphological (left) and molecular (right) levels, it shows a reduction in dimensions from bulk phase to 2D, 1D, and 0D to obtain new materials related to ABX³ MHPs (Wu et al., 2022).

Source: (Wu *et al., 2022)* without adaptations*.*

Investigating low-dimensional metal halide perovskites is a rapidly evolving field with significant implications for materials science and technology. Researchers are actively exploring various synthetic approaches to precisely control the size and shape of these nanomaterials, aiming to unlock their full potential for next-generation devices. However, challenges persist, particularly concerning stability and reproducibility. Understanding these fundamental aspects sheds light on the physics underlying L-MHPs, and enables the development of tailored strategies to enhance their performance and stability in optoelectronic devices (Nie *et al.*, 2023). While the number of natural perovskite minerals is limited, the realm of synthetic compounds spans across the entire periodic table, leading to modification of the chemical formulas and diverse perovskite types, including metallics, metal-free, and oxides,

highlighting the adaptable nature of the perovskite crystal lattice. Moreover, their advantages, such as low cost, facile low-temperature synthesis, and solution processability, have contributed to their growing popularity (Drushliak e Szafrański, 2022).

Crystal structure (MHPs), HPLs exhibit significant polymorphism, with diverse structural phase transitions highly sensitive to changes in temperature and pressure. These structural phase transitions significantly impact the electronic and optical properties of HPLs (Burger *et al.*, 2021; Octavio de Araujo *et al.*, 2022). Notably, modifications in lattice parameters, phonon frequencies, and electron-phonon coupling strengths observed during the phase transitions can be harnessed to design new functional materials for optoelectronic devices, flexible electronics, and smart windows. However, this dynamic behavior poses challenges in understanding the intricate structure-property relationships, impeding a clear path toward commercialization due to inherent phase instability. Therefore, a deeper understanding of the underlying mechanisms and anion exchange in MHPs is essential to gain a clearer perspective. Exploring and controlling polymorphism and structural phase transitions in perovskites are necessary steps to ensure the reliable performance of these compounds and to design and engineer new materials with desired properties for specific applications (Kim *et al.*, 2022; Tang *et al.*, 2022).

MHPs and HPLs, as previously described, are systems where structural and compositional modifications impact the physical properties present in the samples (Gao et al., 2019; Yan et al., 2023). Further investigation of the underlying mechanism and anion exchange is crucial to elucidate the correlation between crystal structure and physical property. Notably, two mechanisms control the perovskite phase and composition, which are highly relevant to properties, these mechanisms are the octahedral tilting and anion exchange (Shi *et al.*, 2017). Synchrotron-based and conventional X-ray diffraction measurements shed light on the physical aspects of modifying the octahedral displacements related to perovskites and like-perovskite compounds. Differential optical methods reveal the anion exchange processes, and both analyses are developed in situ, providing a quantitative characterization of the tunable properties. These represent the initial steps in the comprehensive characterization of perovskites and like-perovskites. Figure 3 illustrates the structural diversity of perovskites derived from the potential for dynamic octahedra tilt within a corner-sharing network of the ABX₃ form (Ahn *et al.*, 2017; Chan *et al.*, 2022; Steele *et al.*, 2020; Tu *et al.*, 2018).

Octahedral tilting is pivotal in the structural variation and destabilization of the cubic ABX³ phase in perovskites. As depicted in Figure 3B, the proper octahedral tilting prevents the collapse of the corner-sharing network during temperature variations. As previously discussed, when the tolerance factor shifts away from the ideal range, the energy required for bond bending becomes sufficient to break them, leading to the formation of perovskites, perovskite-like or non-perovskite structures, such as side- or face-sharing octahedra (Grancini e Nazeeruddin, 2018). Restructuring the cubic phase into a lower symmetry subgroup is fundamental in halide perovskites and like-perovskite compounds.

Figure 3C presents an overview of the most common 15 different space groups of tilted perovskites, as predicted by the group-subgroup theory. The Glazer notation is used to classify octahedral distortion throughout the crystal during thermal expansion or decrease (Howard e Stokes, 1998). For instance, the CaTiO₃ perovskite exhibits the phase sequence upon heating as *Pnma*→*I*4*/mcm*→ *Pm*3̅*m* above 1000 °C (Yashima e Ali, 2009)*.* On the other hand, the anion exchange can be achieved by partially or completely substituting halide ions. The flexible lattice and abundance of vacancies enable switching during or post-synthesis with an abundant source of halide precursors or a mixture of other anion species (see Figure 3A). The halide concentration drives the diffusion of ions into the crystal lattice, and as a result, bandgaps are dominantly dependent on the anion composition and valence. This phenomenon leads to diverse relations between structural, physical, and optical properties. Additionally, anion exchange can modify or shift the photoluminescence (PL) emission across the visible spectrum (Bella *et al.*, 2016; Protesescu *et al.*, 2015). The anion exchange has demonstrated its versatility in modifying the structures and properties of MHPs and HPLs (Schmidt-Mende *et al.*, 2021).

Figure 3– Phase transitions, anion exchange, and the phase-energy landscape in polymorphic ABX₃ perovskites. A Archetypal cubic crystal structure $(t = 1)$ and anion exchange concept for ABX_3 perovskites. When t deviates from unity, octahedral tilts are introduced to accommodate a pseudo-cubic distorted perovskite structure. **B** Illustration of reversible phase transitions in polymorphic perovskites, transitioning through pseudo cubic structures via octahedral tilting and into a non-perovskite structure via bond breaking. **C** Overview of reported group-subgroup symmetries of tilted halide perovskites $APbX_3$ (A=MA, FA, Cs; X= Cl, Br, I), and $CsSnX₃$ (X=Cl, Br, I) with comparison to the archetypal CaTiO₃ perovskite system. The

tilts are identified using Glazer notation, and the dashed lines correspond to first-order transitions. Other subgroups have been reported under atypical environments and are not included for simplicity (Steele et al., 2020).

Source: (Steele *et al.*, 2020) without adaptations*.*

Due to their distinctive characteristics, L-MHPs and L-HPLs compounds could display self-trapped exciton (STE) emissions. The A-site cation plays a crucial role in determining the structural stability and the strength of electron-phonon interactions, ultimately impacting the formation and behavior of self-trapped excitons. Achieving the right balance between the structural tolerance factor and the electron-phonon coupling is crucial for maximizing the STE emission efficiency in these materials (Liu *et al.*, 2023). The broadband emission observed in low-dimensional perovskites and perovskites-like has sparked an intriguing scientific debate surrounding the role of structural defects and phonons in the recombination process. This debate revolves around how these factors directly contribute as emissive centers or indirectly facilitate the formation of self-trapped excitons (STEs) (Lin *et al.*, 2022). However, designing an ideal A-site cation that satisfies the structural tolerance while promoting the desired STE emission, driven by the appropriate electron-phonon coupling effect, presents a significant challenge (Xu *et al.*, 2022).

The interaction between charge carriers and lattice vibrations, known as electronphonon coupling, plays a crucial role in the optoelectronic properties of perovskites. These materials exhibit strong excitonic effects, enhancing the coupling between electrons or holes and lattice vibration. In particular, the formation of self-trapped excitons (STEs) arises from the strong electron-lattice or hole-lattice coupling, leading to the confinement of bound electronhole pairs within the lattice distortion field; it is highly related to distortions in the octahedron unit or octahedral tilting (Grancini e Nazeeruddin, 2018). In the simplified exciton self-trapping mechanism (Figure 4), the strong electron-phonon coupling induces a lattice distortion, creating a potential energy landscape that traps the exciton. This trapping phenomenon results in the localization of the electron and hole, forming a self-trapped exciton state (Yan et al., 2023).

Figure 4 *–* Scheme showing the mechanism of exciton self-trapping in a 2D perovskite. The vertical arrows represent optical transitions (Grancini e Nazeeruddin, 2018).

Nuclear coordinate

Source: (Grancini et al., 2018) without adaptations*.*

Photoluminescence is a fundamental phenomenon that greatly influences the optical properties of semiconductors. Among the different types of luminescence, exciton luminescence is particularly significant as it describes the photon-emitting process resulting from the recombination of an exciton. Excitons, formed by an electron and a hole binding, are responsible for the characteristic emission properties observed in semiconductors. In conventional semiconductors, the emission of exciton luminescence is primarily determined by the stationary bandgap and the exciton-binding energy, resulting in narrowband photoluminescence. This narrow emission spectrum has been extensively utilized in various

applications, particularly in optical communication, where the precise generation and detection of photons are crucial (Li *et al.*, 2019).

Significant changes by extreme conditions, such as low-temperature and high pressure on low-dimensional halide perovskite-like materials, enable the formation, modification, or production of phase-change optical devices. Allowing a deep insight into the current investigations on L-HPLs, and the experimental demonstrations open a pathway towards their discovery and understanding. This inspires the potential applications of perovskites-like in different devices, as the paradigm of crystal structure defining properties remains open, and it is the principal objective of this work in different family compounds. In this context, this thesis is structured as follows: Chapter 2 describes the methodology used for sample preparation and characterization techniques. Chapter 3 investigates the low-temperature effect on the zerodimensional hybrid perovskite-like $[(CH₃)₂NH₂]$ ₄BiBr₇. Chapter 4 presents the pressureinduced structural phase transition on the 2D structure CsPb₂Cl₅. Chapter 5 investigates iodide doping and its impact on 2D CsPb₂X₅ (X = Br, I) perovskite-like properties. Chapter 6 explored the electron-phonon coupling in the $2D \text{ CsPb}_2Br_5$. Finally, it presents the conclusions and potential applications of these materials in future research.

2 Experimental Section

This chapter provides a comprehensive overview of the experimental methods employed in this study. The methodology includes the synthesis of a diverse range of compound families using a variety of techniques. Furthermore, the investigation explores the fundamental principles underlying the influence of low-temperature and high-pressure conditions on various analytical methods. Specifically, the effects of these conditions on Single Crystal X-Ray Diffraction (SCXRD), Synchrotron Powder X-Ray Diffraction (SPXRD), photoluminescence (PL), and Raman spectroscopy were thoroughly examined and analyzed.

2.1. Synthesis Method

All samples were synthesized by the slow evaporation method. The reagents used in synthesizing were from commercial sources purchased from Sigma Aldrich and Alfa Aesar.

 $((CH_3)_2NH_2)_4BiBr_7$: The compound was grown by dissolving 1 mmol of BiBr₃ in N, Ndimethylformamide (DMF), adding an aqueous solution of HBr at 60 ºC. The resulting solution was stirred and then kept at room temperature. After 4 weeks, gradual evaporation of the solution led to the growth of high-quality, single-transparency crystals exhibiting a brightyellow coloration in the form of bars.

CsPb₂Cl₅: The raw materials were cesium chloride (CsCl, 99.9 %), lead chloride (PbCl₂, 99.9 %), and HCl solution (47 wt % in H2O). The precursors CsCl/PbCl² were added in a small beaker in a 1:2 stoichiometric ratio. Then, 4 ml of deionized water and 2 ml of HCl were mixed at 80 ºC into the beaker under constant stirring at 480 rpm until a clear solution was obtained. The same temperature was maintained for 30 minutes. The resulting solution was placed to evaporate at 24 ºC, covered with parafilm containing tiny holes. The final crystals were washed with toluene several times.

CsPb₂(Br_1 -x**I**_x) s **:** Light-yellow square single crystals of iodine-substituted CsPb₂Br₅ were synthesized using Cesium bromide (CsBr, 99.9%) and lead bromide (PbBr₂, 99.9%) in a stoichiometric ratio, and mixed with 2 ml of N, N-dimethylformamide (DMF) at 80°C while being constantly stirred at 480 rpm until a clear solution was obtained. Cesium iodate (CsI, 99.9%) and PbBr² were used in the proper ratio and mixed for substitution. HBr solution (47 wt. % in H2O) was added, and the temperature was maintained for 1 hour. The solution was

then evaporated at room temperature for several days, covered with paraffin film with tiny holes, and crystals were collected from the bottom of the beaker and washed with toluene.

2.3. Experimental measurements

Single crystal X-ray diffraction (SCXRD) measurements

Single crystal X-ray diffraction data (ϕ scans and ω scans with κ and θ offsets) were collected on a Bruker D8 Venture κ-geometry diffractometer equipped with a Photon II CPAD detector and an IµS 3.0 Incoatec Mo K α (λ = 0.71073 Å) microfocus source. Suitable crystals from each sample were harvested and mounted on MiTeGen MicroMount using immersion oil. The APEX 4 software was used for the unit cell determination and data collection. The data reduction and global cell refinement were made using the Bruker SAINT+ software package, and a multi-scan absorption correction was performed with SADABS (Krause *et al.*, 2015). Using the Olex² (Dolomanov *et al.*, 2009) interface program to the SHELX suite (Sheldrick, 2008), the structure was solved by the intrinsic phasing method implemented in ShelXT (Sheldrick, 2015), allowing the location of most of the atoms. The remaining atoms were located from different Fourier maps calculated from successive full-matrix least-squares refinement cycles on $F²$ with ShelXL and refined using anisotropic displacement parameters. MERCURY (Macrae *et al.*, 2020) and VESTA (Momma e Izumi, 2011) were used to prepare the artwork representations for publication.

Synchrotron Powder X-Ray Diffraction (SPXRD): SPXRD was performed at the XDS beamline of the Brazilian Synchrotron Laboratory (LNLS). High-pressure patterns were obtained with a wavelength of λ = 0.6199 Å. A sp2300 spectrometer from Princeton Instruments equipped with a 1200 gr/mm grating and an LN2- cooled CCD was used to record the measurements excited by a 405 nm solid-state laser. The sample and a small ruby chip were loaded in a diamond anvil cell (DAC) using Nujol (Mineral oil) as the pressure-transmitting medium. The pressure values were calibrated using the standard ruby luminescence lines.

Raman spectroscopy*:* The low-temperature Raman active dependence spectra, from 10 K until room temperature, were collected using a T64000 Jobin–Yvon spectrometer equipped with an Olympus microscope and an LN2-cooled CCD to detect the scattered light. The spectra were

excited with an Argon ion laser ($\lambda = 514.5$ nm). The spectrometer slits were set to give a spectral resolution better than 2 cm^{-1} . All measurements were performed using a long working distance plan-achromatic objective $(20.00 \times 0.35 \times 20.50 \text{ mm})$. The temperature-dependent spectra were obtained by keeping the sample in a vacuum inside a He-compressed closed-cycle cryostat. A Lakeshore 330 controller controlled the temperature, keeping the precision around 1 K.

The pressure-dependent spectra were obtained by keeping the powder sample in a diamond anvil cell chamber with stainless steel gaskets with holes of about 200 μm. Nujol was used as a pressure-transmitting pressure medium. The ruby pressure gauge method was used to quantify the relationship between the applied pressure (Shen *et al.*, 2020) and line emission. The powder of the sample and ruby were together in the gaskets without contact. Each Raman spectrum was deconvoluted in the sum of Lorentzian functions, using the Fityk software (Wojdyr, 2010).

Photoluminescence (PL): The PL spectra were collected using a T64000 Jobin–Yvon spectrometer equipped with an Olympus microscope and an LN2-cooled CCD to detect the scattered light. The spectra were excited with an external lamp (405 nm) using a long working distance plan-achromatic objective of 20X. The temperature-dependent spectra were obtained by keeping the sample in a vacuum inside a He- compressed closed-cycle cryostat for PL analyses. A Lakeshore 330 controller controlled the temperature, keeping the precision around 1 K. The photoluminescent curves were adjusted with a Person fit profile using Fityk following the quantitative analysis of emission spectra.

Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM): The analyses were performed using a Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) QUANTA FEG 450 available at the Central Analítica of the Universidade Federal do Ceará (UFC).

3 Understanding the low-temperature effect on the zero-dimensional perovskite-like [(CH3)2NH2]4BiBr⁷

In recent years, Lead Halide Perovskites (LHPs), including inorganic and hybrid variants, have emerged as groundbreaking semiconductors with diverse applications. However, concerns over the long-term stability and toxicity of lead (Pb) have spurred interest in exploring alternative lead-free perovskite materials (Wang *et al.*, 2019). Efforts to develop lead-free perovskites have focused on replacing Pb^{2+} ions with environmentally friendly metal cations, including Sn^{2+} , Bi^{3+} , Cu^{2+} , Sb^{3+} , and Ge^{2+} (Cao e Li, 2021; Zhao *et al.*, 2019) to mitigate environmental and health risks while maintaining or improving performance. These alternative cations offer reduced toxicity, enhanced stability, and tunable properties, making them promising candidates for next-generation optoelectronic devices (Chatterjee e Pal, 2018; Ke e Kanatzidis, 2019).

The search for suitable lead-free perovskite materials presents exciting opportunities and challenges. These alternative cations offer tunability and unique properties that have the potential to revolutionize optoelectronics. By systematically investigating the structural, electronic, and optical characteristics of these materials, researchers aim to unlock their full potential for a wide range of applications (Luo *et al.*, 2018). Extensive research has been dedicated to understanding the fundamental properties, optimizing synthesis methods, and exploring device applications of lead-free perovskite materials. Bi-based alternatives have garnered attention due to their non-toxic nature and high chemical stability, making them suitable for various applications, including organic synthesis and medicine. Researchers are actively exploring the unique properties of Bi-based halide perovskites and novel strategies to optimize their performance, paving the way for their potential use in diverse applications (Shen *et al.*, 2020; Zhang, Wang, e Zou, 2019).

Understanding the performance and characteristics of Bi-based halide perovskites will be crucial for their successful integration into various optoelectronic devices (Wu *et al.*, 2023). The field actively explores their applications and develops novel approaches to optimize their performance, offering promising prospects for future advancements. Among the extensively investigated Bi-based compounds are the zero-dimensional A3Bi2I⁹ materials, where A represents Cs, Rb, and the organic molecule CH3NH3. These compounds have shown promise as high-performance metal halide perovskite photocatalysts for solar energy conversion (Li *et* *al.*, 2022; Park *et al.*, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2018) and as potential candidates for X-ray detectors due to their eco-friendly composition and high attenuation coefficient to X-ray irradiation (Lin *et al.*, 2023). Three-dimensional double perovskites, such as $Cs₂AgBiX₆$ (X= Cl, Br), have been investigated for their optoelectronic and photocatalytic applications. Moreover, Bi perovskites have been systematically studied for photocatalytic $CO₂$ reduction, making them highly attractive for sustainable energy conversion applications (McClure *et al.*, 2016; Tedesco e Malavasi, 2023; Wu *et al.*, 2021).

Despite the extensive investigations on Bi-based samples for perovskite, and perovskitelike formation, the presence of Bi^{3+} ions possess a significant challenge, and the complete substitution of Pb with Bi has not yet been achieved, resulting in limited hybrid compositions. Therefore, this study is focused on the novel organic-inorganic material known as Tetrakis (dimethylammonium) Bromide Hexabromobismuthate: $\{[(CH_3)_2NH_2]^+\}$ ₄Br⁻.[BiBr₆]³⁻ (Samet *et al.*, 2010) or its abbreviated form $DMA = [(CH_3)_2NH_2]^+ (DMA_4BiBr_7)$. This compound has been systematically examined to analyze the structural-property changes under lowtemperature conditions comprehensively. Several characterization techniques, including Single Crystal X-Ray Diffraction (SCXRD), Raman spectroscopy, and Photoluminescence (PL), have been employed to understand and characterize the properties of this compound.

3.1 Investigating the Crystal Structural Modification

The crystal structure of $[(CH_3)_2NH_2]_4BiBr_7$ at room temperature was accurately confirmed using the Single-Crystal X-Ray Diffraction (SCXRD) technique. The compound exhibits an orthorhombic perovskite-like structure with $P2₁2₁2$ space group. The unit cell dimensions of $a = 10.8150(3)$ Å, $b = 13.8872(3)$ Å, $c = 8.9272(3)$ Å, and $V = 1340.78(7)$ Å³ (see Figure 5a). The asymmetric unit consists of various elements, which can be described by the chemical formula ${[(CH_3)_2NH_2]^+}_4Br$ ⁻.[BiBr₆]³⁻. Within the crystal structure, two crystallographic independent positions are occupied by $[(CH_3)_2NH_2]^+$ molecules. One of these molecules is linked to an isolated Br anion through hydrogen bonds, both found in disordering sites. Meanwhile, the other $[(CH_3)_2NH_2]^+$, along with the octahedral $[BiBr_6]^3$ - units, occupy the void spaces within the crystal structure.

The compound $[(CH₃)₂NH₂]$ ₄BiBr₇ exhibits intriguing behavior at low temperatures, remarkably avoiding any structural phase transition. However, at this temperature, all dimethylammonium (DMA) cations assume well-defined positions and orientations (see Figure 5b), influencing the structural framework through an order-disorder mechanism that leads to the contribution of intermolecular hydrogen bonds (H -bonds) between the $DMA^+ \cdots$ Br and the DMA^+ "[BiBr₆]³⁻ units, in the crystal stability. The *H*-bonds at low temperatures involve a smaller energy change due to their partial interactions, and the octahedrons large and welldefined geometric arrangement could overlap with the electronic *H-*bonds. Comparing these two types of interactions, *H-*bonds are more flexible and sensitive to environmental changes, such as temperature variations, while octahedral interactions are relatively more robust, providing the structural stability of the crystal lattice. This observation suggests that the lowtemperature conditions induce unique dynamic interactions within the crystal lattice, leading to the establishment of *H-*bonds that significantly influence the material properties.

Figure 5 – Crystal structure of the $[(CH_3)_2NH_2]_4BiBr_7$ at (a) room temperature and (b) lowtemperatures. The black dashed line is presented as the H- bonds or the connection between $[({\rm CH}_3)_2{\rm NH}_2]^+ \cdots {\rm Br}$ and the $[({\rm CH}_3)_2{\rm NH}_2]^+ \cdots [{\rm BiBr}_6]^3$.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Concurrently, a natural decrease in the cell parameters is observed at 100 K, indicating a contraction of the crystal lattice as the temperature decreases. This lattice contraction could be attributed to the reorganization of the molecular components. To gain deeper insights into these structural changes, comprehensive crystallographic data and structure refinement results for the sample at both room temperature and 100 K are provided in Table 1, offering detailed information about the variations in the structural parameters.

Empirical formula		$(DMA)_4BiBr_7$				
Formula weight	952.72					
Temperature/K	298	100				
Crystal system	Orthorhombic					
Space group	$P2_12_12$					
Unit cell dimension	$a=10.8150(3)$ Å $b=13.8872(3)$ Å $c=8.9272(3)$ Å	$a=10.7346(3)$ Å $b=13.7092(4)$ Å $c=8.8120(3)$ Å				
Volume $\angle A^3$	1340.78(7)	1296.80(7)				
Density / Mg/m^3	2.360	2.440				
μ /mm ⁻¹	17.004	17.580				
F/000	872	872				
Z	$\overline{2}$					
Radiation	MoKα (λ = 0.71073)					
2θ range for data collection/°	2.71 to 33.20	2.75 to 33.20				
Crystal size/mm ³	$0.302 \times 0.29 \times 0.09$					
Reflections collected	5141	4978				
Index ranges	\leq 13	$-12 \le h \le 16$, $-21 \le k \le 21$, $-13 \le 1$ $-16 \le h \le 16$, $-21 \le k \le 21$, $-13 \le 1$ \leq 13				
Goodness-of-fit on F^2	1.043	1.041				
Final R indexes $[L>=2\sigma(I)]$	$R_1 = 0.0321$, $wR_2 = 0.0558$	$R_1 = 0.0235$, $wR_2 = 0.0590$				
Final R indexes [all data]	$R_1 = 0.0593$, w $R_2 = 0.0638$	$R_1 = 0.0251$, w $R_2 = 0.0582$				

Table 1– Crystal data and refinement parameters of [(CH3)2NH2]4BiBr⁷ at different temperature conditions.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

The $[BiBr_6]^3$ - possesses a distorted octahedra configuration, with Bi-Br bond lengths ranging from 2.831 (8) Å to 2.859 (7) Å. Unlike the regular octahedra found in homogeneous compounds like the guanidinium $[C(NH₂)₃]₃BiBr₆ compound (Bator *et al.*, 2001), the Br-Bi-Br$ angles different from the ideal 90° octahedra. To quantitatively assess the distortion of the $[BiBr₆]³$ units, the distortion parameter (Δd) based on the Bi-Br bond lengths and angle variance (σ) is employed using the following expression:

$$
\Delta d = \left(\frac{1}{6}\right) \sum \left(\frac{d_n - d}{d}\right)^2 \tag{1}
$$

$$
\sigma = \left(\frac{1}{15}\right) \sum \left(\frac{\theta_n - 90}{90}\right)^2 \tag{2}
$$

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where d is the mean Bi-Br distance and d_n are the six individual Bi-Br, on the other hand, θ_n are the Br-Bi-Br angles (García-Fernández *et al.*, 2018; Katan *et al.*, 2015; Lufaso e Woodward, 2004). The obtained values show that the compound has a $\Delta d = 0.69445$ and $\sigma = 2.70$ at roomtemperature, indicating a significant distortion in the octahedral geometry. Interestingly, the compound $[(CH_3)_2NH_2]_4BiBr_7$ undergoes no structural phase transition at low temperatures. However, a natural decrease in the cell parameters is observed, indicating a contraction of the crystal lattice. The crystal data and structure refinement results for the sample at both room temperature and 100 K are presented in Table 1, providing detailed information on the structural parameters.

Concurrently, a natural decrease in the cell parameters is observed at 100 K, indicating a contraction of the crystal lattice as the temperature decreases. This lattice contraction could be attributed to the reorganization of the molecular components. To gain deeper insights into these structural changes, comprehensive crystallographic data, and structure refinement results for the sample at both room temperature and 100 K are provided in Table 1, offering detailed information about the variations in the structural parameters.

To further investigate the low-temperature distortion effect and elucidate the modifications in the local symmetries, Raman spectroscopy was employed. Raman spectroscopy is a powerful technique that provides valuable insights into the materials vibrational modes and crystal symmetries. By analyzing the Raman spectra, it was detected the changes induced by temperature variations in $[(CH_3)_2NH_2]_4BiBr_7$. The temperature-dependent Raman spectra displayed numerous bands observed in the wavenumber range of 90 to 3250 cm-¹. The obtained Raman spectra for the compound where from 20 K to room temperature, as shown in Figures 6 to 12.

Mode	293 K	10 K	Ref.		Mode	293 K	10K	Ref.	
(v)	(cm^{-1})	(cm^{-1})	(cm^{-1})	Assignment	(v)	(cm^{-1})	(cm^{-1})	(cm^{-1})	Assignment
1	100	113	98-106	v_{as} (Br-Pb-Br)	42	\overline{a}	1406		
$\sqrt{2}$	Ξ.	118	118	DMA	43	1413	1416	1416-	δ_s (NH ₂)
				Translation				1428	
3	44	122	126-129	DMA Libration	44	1426	1424	1428	δ _s (CH ₃)
4	Ξ.	130	126-129	DMA Libration	45	--	1429		
5 6	Ξ. 134	138 142	138 138	DMA Libration DMA Libration	46 47	-- $\overline{}$	1446 1453		
$\boldsymbol{7}$	\mathbb{L}^2	150	145-175	DMA Libration	48	1459	1461	1469	δ_{as} (NH ₂)
8	154	160	145-175	DMA Libration	49	--	1469		
9	164	174	145-175	DMA Libration	50		1476		
10	۰.	204			51		1479		
11	--	215			52	--	1552		
12	256	259	262-297	τ (H ₃ C-N-CH ₃)	53	1559	1560	1544-	$\delta_{\rm as}$ (NH ₂)
13	$\overline{}$	283			54	--	1611	1596	
14	÷.	393	323-326	τ (H ₃ C-N-CH ₃)	55	2756	2761		v (C-H)
15	400	399	401-402	τ (H ₃ C-N-CH ₃)	56		2774		
16	437	440			57	2786	2779		v (C-H)
17	44	470			58	2796	2795		v (C-H)
18	488	483			59	2808	2807		v (C-H)
19	688	685			60		2817		
20	709	711			61	⊷	2828		
21	789	789			62	2842	2837	2844	$v(N-H)$
22	805	801	803	δ (H ₃ C-N-CH ₃)	63	--	2845		
23	Ξ.	822			64		2886		
24	825	827	823	ω (H ₃ C-N-CH ₃)	65	2902	2904	2896	v_s (C-H)
25	876	874			66		2933		
26	885	890	890-906	ρ (H ₃ C-N-CH ₃)	67	2937	2941	2931-	$v_{\rm as}$ (C-H)
$27\,$	1007	1004	994				2952	2938	
28	1014	1013		$v(H_3C-N-CH_3)$	68 69	2956	2960	2952-	v_{as} (C-H)
								2966	
29		1020			70	2961	2964	2961	$v(N-H)$
30	1023	1025	1030-	v_{as} (H ₃ C-N-	71		2966		
			1059	$CH3$)					
31	1072	1068			72	3015	3011		
32	1080	1080	1078	v_{as} (H ₃ C-N- $CH3$)	73	3021	3019	3023	v_s (C-H) + v $(N-H)$
33		1219			74	3027	3028	3026	$v_{\rm as}$ (C-H)
34		1225			75	3033	3036	3030-	v_s (N-H)
								3036	
35	1224	1231	1227	ρ (CH ₃)	76		3040		
36	1248	1244	1231-	ρ_s (CH ₃)	$77\,$	3090	3085	3080-	v_s (N-H)
			1236					3106	
37	--	1252			78	3106	3119		v_s (N-H)
38	--	1356	1351-	δ_{s} (CH ₃)	79	3129	3147	3124- 3144	v_{as} (N-H)
39	1365	1362	1353 1366-	δ_s (CH ₃)	80	3163	3157	3161	v_{as} (N-H)
			1370						
$40\,$	--	1395			81	3184	3202	3172-	v_{as} (N-H)
								3179	
41	1404	1403	1399- 1403	δ_{as} (CH ₃) + $\omega(NH_2)$	82		3209		

Table 2 – Frequencies (v in cm⁻¹) and proposed assignments of experimental Raman-active modes in $[(CH₃)₂NH₂]$ ₄BiBr₇ in both temperatures compared for similar compounds APbX₃ (A=DMA, MA; X=Br, I) (Ivanovska et al., 2016; Leguy et al., 2016; Rodríguez-Hernández et al., 2022; Samet et al., 2010). -

Abbreviations: ν: stretching; δ: bending; τ: twisting/torsion; ρ: rocking; ω: wagging; as:asymmetric; s: symmetric.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

To assign the observed modes in the Raman spectra, a comparison was made with other similar compounds, such as methylammonium (MA) $[CH_3NH_3]^+$ $MAPbX₃$ $(X=Cl, Br, I)$ (Ivanovska *et al.*, 2016; Leguy *et al.*, 2016), and the DMAPbBr3 (Rodríguez-Hernández *et al.*, 2022). The proposed assignments of the observed Raman modes at 290 K and 20 K are provided in Table 2. These assignments were based on the similarities in the vibrational characteristics between $[(CH_3)_2NH_2]_4BiBr_7$ and the reference compounds, facilitating the interpretation and analysis of the Raman spectra. By combining the low-temperature crystal structure analysis with the temperature-dependent Raman spectroscopy, it was suggested that $[(CH_3)_2NH_2]_4BiBr_7$ around 100 K displays an order-disorder mechanism modification, which could be attributed to the rearrangement of the distorted octahedral units internal angles, and the definition of the $[(CH₃)₂NH₂]$ organic molecule, this result it has been detected in perovskite-like DMAPbX₃ (X) =Cl, Br, I) (Rodríguez-Hernández *et al.*, 2022).

The temperature-dependent spectra presented in Figure 6 correspond to the internal vibrations of the Br-Bi-Br (v_1) and the rigid-body motions of the DMA organic cations modes v_2 to v_{11} (translations or/and librations). A noticeable softening of the phonons was observed upon heating, but at *Tdistortion* < 100 K, new vibrations related to the movements of the DMA cations were displayed. The distortion in the angle of the octahedra could affect the hydrogen bond between DMA and the $[BiBr_6]^3$ unit, resulting in the observed changes. The shrinking of the DMA molecule may explain the appearance of the new bands since, at low temperatures, the lattice thermal expansion contributes less, which defines the positions of the disorder of both the bromide ion as well as the molecules of the DMA, which could be observed at the $CH₂$ and CH3 vibrations. Vibrational modes associated with the internal vibrations of the DMA cation entities within the crystal structure were mainly observed at wavenumbers higher than 200 cm⁻¹. As previously described, the organic and inorganic sublattices can couple, leading to distortion (Grechko *et al.*, 2018; Menahem *et al.*, 2021).

Figure 6 – Left panel: Temperature-dependent normalized Raman spectra obtained for the $[{\rm (CH_3)_2NH_2}]_4BiBr_7$ between 20-290 K in the 90–300 cm⁻¹ range, Right panel: Temperaturedependent behavior of the mode positions observed in this wavenumber region.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

In particular, hydrogen bonding plays a significant role in the relative stability of the crystal structure. Therefore, it is useful to examine vibrations with contributions from hydrogen bonding interactions (El-Mellouhi *et al.*, 2016; Svane *et al.*, 2017). Figure 7 shows the temperature-dependent behavior of Raman spectra in the range from 300 to 650 cm⁻¹, primarily showing the DMA molecule torsions. This region does not exhibit any discontinuity around 100 K, as well as Figure 8, which displays the temperature dependence of the modes observed between 650 and 1200 cm⁻¹.

The NH₂ or CH₃ bending, stretching, and rocking modes are sensitive to the hydrogen bond between the DMA cation and the inorganic framework, as described by Rodríguez *et al.* (Rodríguez-Hernández *et al.*, 2022). Hence, they serve as suitable probes for investigating this coupling interaction. The CH³ rocking modes and CH³ and NH² bending of the DMA groups are observed in the wavenumber region between 1200 and 1600 cm⁻¹, as shown in Figure 9.

Figure 7 – Left panel: Temperature-dependent normalized Raman spectra obtained for the $[{\rm (CH_3)_2NH_2}]_4BiBr_7$ between 20-290 K in the 350–600 cm⁻¹ range, Right panel: Temperaturedependent behavior of the mode positions observed in this wavenumber region.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Interestingly, the ρ (CH₃) and δ_s (CH₃) contribute to the new vibrations, which is not surprising considering the hydrogen bonding interaction between the DMA and the octahedra $[BiBr_6]^3$. Figure 10 shows the measured Raman spectra related to the CH₃ and NH₂ stretching modes. Notably, some of the previously described observations are highlighted in this region, as well as the anomalous hardening (on heating) of the bands at 2786 cm^{-1} and 2842 cm^{-1} . Usually, that shift toward lower wavenumbers is associated with hydrogen bonding effects, which affect the C-H and N-H stretching vibrations (Arunan *et al.*, 2011; Arunan e Mani, 2015; Bordallo *et al.*, 2007; Haughey e Beveridge, 1969), suggesting the presence of hydrogen bonds in the structure. These hydrogen bonds dynamically contribute to the distortion, as illustrated in Figures 11 and 12.

Figure 8 – Left panel: Temperature-dependent normalized Raman spectra obtained for the $[{\rm (CH_3)_2NH_2}]_4BiBr_7$ between 20-290 K in the 600–1200 cm⁻¹ range, Right panel: Temperaturedependent behavior of the mode positions observed in this wavenumber region.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Figure 9 – Left panel: Temperature-dependent normalized Raman spectra obtained for the $[{\rm (CH_3)_2NH_2}]_4BiBr_7$ between 20-290 K in the 1200–1650 cm⁻¹ range, Right panel: Temperaturedependent behavior of the mode positions observed in this wavenumber region.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Figure 10 – Left panel: Temperature-dependent normalized Raman spectra obtained for the $[{\rm (CH_3)_2NH_2}]_4BiBr_7$ between 20-290 K in the 2750–2860 cm⁻¹ range, Right panel: Temperaturedependent behavior of the mode positions observed in this wavenumber region.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Figure 11 – Left panel: Temperature-dependent normalized Raman spectra obtained for the $[{\rm (CH_3)_2NH_2}]_4BiBr_7$ between 20-290 K in the 2870–3050 cm⁻¹ range, Right panel: Temperaturedependent behavior of the mode positions observed in this wavenumber region.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Figure 12 – Left panel: Temperature-dependent normalized Raman spectra obtained for the $[{\rm (CH_3)_2NH_2}]_4BiBr_7$ between 20-290 K in the 3050–3250 cm⁻¹ range, Right panel: Temperaturedependent behavior of the mode positions observed in this wavenumber region.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Furthermore, it has been observed that the weakening of the intermolecular interactions $(H$ -bond) upon heating indicates the correlation with the $DMA⁺$ cation dynamics in the hightemperature related to the frameworks. These observations suggest that the dynamics of the DMA cations and the framework are strongly coupled and contribute to the octahedra distortion. The observed changes in the Raman modes analysis demonstrate a correlation between the strength of hydrogen bonding, the free motion of the DMA, the effect and contribution of the distortion of the octahedra, and the order-disorder DMA mechanisms. The comprehensive analysis of the temperature-dependent Raman spectra provides a deeper understanding of the structural dynamics and hydrogen bonding effects in [(CH3)2NH2]4BiBr7, which is essential for harnessing its unique properties and exploring its potential in optoelectronic applications.
3.2 Examining the Photoluminescence Properties

The metal halide ionic octahedron is the fundamental structural unit in halide perovskites, influencing their optoelectronic and chemical properties. As a result, the dynamic behaviors of metal halide perovskites can be correlated with their responses to various environmental stimuli. Low-temperature Single-Crystal X-Ray Diffraction (SCXRD) and Raman spectroscopy studies on $[(CH_3)_2NH_2]_4BiBr_7$ have shown that at temperatures below $T_{distortion}$ < 100 K, there is an increase in the distortion of the $[BiBr_6]^3$ octahedra, as evidenced by modifications in the internal angles. These structural changes also impacted the hydrogen bonds within the compound.

The low-dimensional nature of the perovskite-like structure is an essential aspect to consider. This characteristic allows for efficient localization and confinement of excitons within the crystal lattice, forming self-trapped excitons (STEs) (Liu S. *et al.*, 2021; Roy *et al.*, 2021). The strong interaction between excitons and phonons further enhances the stability and radiative recombination of these STEs, giving rise to the observed broad emission spectra. The difference in photoluminescence (PL) profiles between high and low temperatures can be attributed to the interplay between thermal lattice effects and electron-phonon interactions (Han *et al.*, 2022). Both processes are maximized at elevated temperatures, leading to a non-radiative emission path. However, at lower temperatures, lattice relaxation facilitates the generation of electron-hole pairs, promoting STEs states with radiative emissions, which aligns with the observed photoluminescence spectra centered around 425 nm (Blue-Turquese) at 90 K.

Figure 13 shows the PL measurements at low temperatures of the $[(CH₃)₂NH₂]$ $4BiBr₇$. Observe that when the temperature decreases, the intensity of the PL spectra emission increases. In addition, was observed a notable blueshift in the emission of the sample as the temperature gradually decreased from 90 to 14 K. It is important to highlight that the compound exhibited the production of STEs. Accordingly, STEs are a band-to-band luminescence, indicating that electrons in the conduction band recombine with holes in the valence band, and the recombination process emits a phonon by a defect (Li *et al.*, 2019; Shi, Y. *et al.*, 2021). Thus, once electrons and holes are photogenerated, these excitons are self-trapped instantly because these self-trapped states are accessible and more stable in the presence of lattice distortion.

Figure 13 – The low-temperature photoluminescence evolution spectra in the $[(CH₃)₂NH₂]$ ₄BiBr₇ compound.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Photoluminescence spectroscopy has revealed that the PL spectra are highly sensitive to structural distortions and the presence of electronic charge carriers. These factors influence the energy emission, intensity, and full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the broadband emission, and they are directly linked to the significant dependency of STEs emissions on structural distortions. Notably, low-dimensional perovskite-type materials with distorted octahedra, intrinsically exhibiting electron-phonon interaction, are more likely to produce STEs emissions. In some cases, these states can only be accessed under specific external conditions that help relax the crystal structure, further increasing the contribution of STEs states (Li *et al.*, 2020; Zhang *et al.*, 2021). The strength of electron-phonon can be evaluated by the Huang-Rhys factor $S = \Delta E / \hbar \omega$, which is the number of phonons emitted after the carrier capture (Whalley *et al.*, 2021). All STE recombination processes could be explained and fitted (see Figure 14) by the equations described in Table 3.

Table 3 – Fitted values of the adjustments for the PL center and FWHM parameters with equations (3-5) where k_b in all the expressions is the Boltzmann constant (8.617 x10⁻⁵ eV/K).

$E(T) = E_0 + A_{TE}T + A_{EP} \left[\frac{2}{e^{k_B T} - 1} + 1 \right]$ (3) $E_{g(T=0)}(eV)$ A_{TE} (meV/K) A_{EP} (meV)				$\hbar\omega$ (meV)
	2.97 ± 0.03	3.16 ± 0.01	140 ± 30	16 ± 3
	$I_0(\mu a.u)$	A		E_A (meV)
$I(T) = \frac{I_0}{\frac{-E_A}{1 + 4e^{\frac{E_A}{k_BT}}}}$ (4)	$7.9 + 0.3$		10.6 ± 0.9	
	Γ ₀ (meV)	γ_{ac} (meV/K) γ_{LO} (meV) E_{L} (meV)		
$\Gamma(T) = \Gamma_0 + \gamma_{ac} T + \frac{\gamma_{LO}}{\frac{E_{LO}}{\rho k_b T}}$ (5)	0.4 ± 0.1	4 ± 1	60 ± 16	$7 + 3$

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Figure 14– The PL parameters (a) center, (b) intensity, and (c) FWHM for $[(CH_3)_2NH_2]_4BiBr_7$.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

The energy-temperature relationship (Figure 14 (a)) $E(T)$ in the system can be described as the sum of distinct contributions, including the unrenormalized bandgap at $T = 0$ (E_0), the electron-phonon energy interaction (A_{EP}), the weight thermal expansion (A_{TE}), and $h\omega$ representing the average optical phonon energy. Using the fitted values, the Huang-Rhys factor $S = \Delta E/\hbar \omega$ of the [(CH₃)₂NH₂]₄BiBr₇ is 8.8, which indicates a strong electron-phonon coupling regime, similar to other halide perovskite such as the inorganics CsPbBr₃ ($S = 12$) (Pan *et al.*, 2022).

Characterizing the photoluminescence behavior of the system involves several crucial parameters in the intensity model. Firstly, I_0 represents the PL intensity at $T = 0$. Additionally, E_A , indicates the contribution of thermal dissociation of self-trapped excitons (STEs) to enhance the PL intensities. It represents the energy required for the thermal activation process that promotes the release of carriers and subsequent increases in PL intensity. The constant factor A, dependent on the luminescence lifetime, helps understand the dynamics of the emitted light (Sahoo et al., 2022). It reflects the interplay between radiative and nonradiative decay processes, providing insights into the radiative recombination efficiency and overall lifetime of excitonic states (see Figure 14(b)).

The full width at half maximum (FWHM) function is influenced by associated parameters that contribute to the broadening of the PL spectra (see Figure 14 (c). Γ_0 captures scattering effects arising from disorder and crystallographic imperfections in the material. It represents the FWHM value at $T = 0$ K, reflecting the intrinsic broadening without thermal effects. The FWHM adjustment includes terms related to homogeneous broadening. Specifically, the Fröhlich coupling constants γ_{ac} and γ_{LO} account for the interaction between charge carriers and acoustic and longitudinal optical phonons (Iaru *et al.*, 2021). These terms influence the dynamics of excitonic states and contribute to broadening the PL spectra. Additionally, the phonon energy, represented by E_{LO} , lays a crucial role in determining the energy scale associated with the phonon modes involved in electron-phonon interactions. Finally, electron-phonon interaction in the sample, as indicated by the activation energy $E_A=$ 10.6 meV, is closely tied to the exciton-phonon coupling characterized by the activation energy ELO=7 meV. This coupling enables phonon-assisted electronic transitions, enhancing the photoluminescence intensity through the population of phonons.

Figure 15 – CIE-1931 color space with the temperature-dependent chromaticity coordinates of PL emissions of [(CH₃)₂NH₂]₄BiBr₇ (blue dots).

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Table 4 – Temperature-dependent chromaticity coordinates

Temperature (K)	CIE x	CIE y
14	0.22357	0.10577
17	0.2237	0.10487
20	0.23084	0.11704
25	0.27109	0.18283
30	0.29351	0.21994
35	0.26129	0.17593
40	0.27111	0.18981
45	0.2416	0.1461
50	0.24874	0.16362
55	0.24544	0.1599
60	0.28181	0.21665
65	0.3058	0.25402
70	0.31187	0.26258
75	0.31827	0.27334
80	0.32058	0.27811
90	0.31853	0.27706

Source: Elaborated by the author.

The potential applications of the $[(CH_3)_2NH_2]_4BiBr_7$ as blue-turquoise light-emitting diodes (LEDs) were investigated by evaluating the spectral power distribution using the CIE 1931 color space curve, which characterizes the (*x,y*) chromaticity coordinates (Zhu *et al.*, 2019). Figure 15 displays the chromaticity coordinates of the CIE-1931 color space as a temperature function; the corresponding values are provided in Table 4.

At 90 K, the photoluminescence (PL) emitted by self-trapped excitons (STEs) produces a distinct blue-turquoise color. As the temperature decreases, the chromaticity coordinates exhibit variations, leading to a shift in the perceived color. This behavior aligns with the earlier discussion on the blueshift of the PL center. Remarkably, light violet emission is observed at the lowest temperature, showcasing the material's optical properties and tunability.

The investigation of the hybrid perovskite-like $[(CH₃)₂NH₂]$ ₄BiBr₇ at low temperatures has provided valuable insights into the effects of distorted octahedra on its luminescent properties. The modification of internal angles within the $[BiBr_6]$ ³⁻ octahedra permits the appearance of novel self-trapped exciton (STEs) contributions, resulting in a blue-turquoise (425 nm) PL emission at 90 K. Furthermore, at low temperatures, the PL profile exhibits a blueshift behavior, demonstrating the sample ability to tune the color emission from blue turquoise to light violet at different temperature values.

4 Pressure-induced structural phase transition on the 2D structure CsPb2Cl⁵

Numerous studies have extensively investigated the remarkable properties of metal halide perovskite (MHP) materials, which exhibit versatility in various forms, including thin films, micro/nanocrystals, and bulk crystals (Zhang, J., Hodes, Jin e Liu, S. (Frank), 2019). These compounds, particularly the lead-based MHPs with Cs-Pb-X (where X represents chloride (Cl), bromide (Br), and iodide (I) elements), have gained considerable traction in the industry due to their remarkable advancements (Bati et al., 2023; Wang, Y. P. et al., 2023). These efforts aim to mitigate the detrimental effects of moisture, oxidation, and other environmental influences, ensuring the sustained performance and longevity of the materials in practical applications. Consequently, these remarkable properties and advancements have positioned these materials as promising candidates for a wide range of optoelectronic devices, including solar cells, light-emitting diodes (LEDs), photodetectors, and sensors (Akkerman et al., 2017; Hu et al., 2022b; Song et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015).

The chemical composition of perovskites determines their crystal structure and stability, but their most attractive properties lie in the halide- and size-dependent bandgap tuning and carrier confinement, which govern the generation, dynamics, and recombination of charge carriers and excitons (Cao *et al.*, 2020b; Chouhan *et al.*, 2020; Ullah *et al.*, 2021). In particular, $Cs-Pb-X$ compounds, such as $CsPb_2X_5$, have intriguing characteristics due to their distinctive crystal structure. $CsPb_2X_5$ consists of layers of octagonal-shaped PbX $_8$ polyhedra forming a unique two-dimensional $(2D)$ arrangement, with $Cs⁺$ ions occupying the interstitial spaces between the layers (Chen, Y. *et al.*, 2018a; Li *et al.*, 2022).

42 This 2D structure enhances the stability of the $CsPbX₅$, contrary to the $CsPbX₃$ compounds, against moisture in an air environment, with benefits from the intrinsic twodimensional (2D) structure, which made them gain considerable attention as potential candidates for light-emitting diodes LEDs applications (Protesescu *et al.*, 2015), photodetectors (Li *et al.*, 2020), lasers (Zhang *et al.*, 2021), flexible electronics (Wang *et al.*, 2022), and solar cell applications (Jena, Kulkarni e Miyasaka, 2019; Yin *et al.*, 2015) due to their low cost, elemental constituents, and straightforward crystallization. Despite the enhanced optical properties exhibited by CsPb2X⁵ (Huang *et al.*, 2020; Ruan *et al.*, 2017; Wang *et al.*, 2016a), several challenges remain regarding the underlying mechanisms of its structural evolution and electronic properties (Li, J. *et al.*, 2017a; Zhang, T., Chen, Zhihui, Shi e Xu, Q.-H., 2019),

which directly impact its performance and can be modified under extreme conditions, such as low temperatures and high pressures, opening up new possibilities for applications.

The optical properties and structural behavior of $CsPb₂Cl₅$ have received significant research attention due to their similarities to Pb-based perovskite counterparts, such as CsPbCl³ (Behera *et al.*, 2018; Bhat *et al.*, 2021; Stefanski *et al.*, 2021). The face-connected layers of PbCl₈ polyhedra in CsPb₂Cl₅ induce significant lattice distortions, playing a crucial role in enhancing the creation of self-trapped excitons (STE) even at room temperature. Interestingly, the photoluminescence (PL) characteristics of $CsPb_2Cl_5$ strongly depend on the excitation energy. At higher excitation energies (>3.85 eV), excitons centered at 2.32 eV dominate the emission. However, at lower excitation energies (<3.85 eV), a remarkable phenomenon occurs, resulting in the emergence of self-trapped excitons (STE) as the primary emission feature. These self-trapped excitons exhibit a broadband emission centered at 1.8 eV with a broad full width at half maximum (FWHM) exceeding 120 nm, highlighting the unique optical properties of CsPb2Cl5 (Xu et al., 2021a; Yao et al., 2021).

The pressure-induced modifications in related compounds, such as $CsPb_2Br_5$, have also garnered attention. Previous studies (Ma *et al.*, 2019a) have reported a reversible isostructural phase transition at a critical pressure of 1.6 GPa from the *I*4/*mcm* phase, as confirmed by Angle Dispersive Synchrotron X-Ray Diffraction (ADXRD) experiments. These investigations demonstrated a gradual increase in the absorption onset with pressure, with a notable shift occurring at the critical pressure (Drushliak e Szafrański, 2022a). Similar studies have been conducted on perovskite compounds, such as $CsPbBr₃$ and $CsPbCl₃$, revealing that lattice distortions characterized by variations in Pb-X bond lengths and PbX_6 octahedral tilts influence the energy gaps in these materials. The compression of B−X bonds and bending−X−B bond angles can lead to intriguing phenomena under extreme conditions (Zhang, L. *et al.*, 2018; Zhang, Zeng e Wang, 2017).

To provide a comprehensive analysis of the structural-property changes under high pressure in CsPb₂Cl₅ was being systematically examined the crystal structure obtained using the synchrotron facility - Laboratório Nacional de Luz Síncrotron (LNLS) and Raman spectroscopy performed on powder crystals of CsPb₂Cl₅. The analysis was based on two highimpact journals publications (*The Journal of Physical Chemistry C:* IF-4.177) with the name: *Pressure-Induced Structural and Optical Transitions in Luminescent Bulk Cs4PbBr⁶* (Castro

Ferreira, Araújo, Gómez, M. A. P., et al., 2022) and (Crystal Growth & Design: IF-4.010) with the name: *The Effect of High Pressure on Polymorphs of a Derivative of Blatter's Radical: Identification of the Structural Signatures of Subtle Phase Transitions* (Broadhurst *et al.*, 2023).

4.1 Response of the Unit Cell Dimensions to Pressure

The crystalline structure of $CsPb_2Cl_5$ at room temperature was accurately confirmed using the Single-Crystal X-Ray Diffraction (SCXRD) technique. The crystal data and structure refinement results for the sample are presented in Table 5. The obtained crystallographic parameters indicate that the crystal belongs to the tetragonal space group PI: *I*4/*mcm* (140), consistent with (Chen, Y. *et al.*, 2018b). The obtained cell parameters are $a = b = 8.1523$ (3) \AA , $c = 14.8068$ (10) \AA and V = 984.06 (10) \AA ³. To explore the pressure dependence of CsPb₂Cl₅, the Synchrotron Powder X-Ray Diffraction (SPXRD) measurements were conducted, shedding light on its structural behavior under varying pressures. The corresponding pressuredependence SPXRD is illustrated in Figure 16. Remarkably, up to $P_c^{\text{I-II}} = 1.27 \text{ GPa}$, the diffraction patterns consistently exhibit the same crystal structure characterized by the *I*4/*mcm* space group, which suggests that the material maintains its structural phase within this pressure range. However, beyond this pressure, an intriguing structural phase transition occurs, leading to a modification in the crystal structure where the P_I transforms, as it will be shown, into the P_{II}: *I*4/*m* (87), which persists until $P_c^{\text{II-II}} = 4.69$ GPa, involving another SPT from P_{II} into the $P_{III}: C2$ (5). After, no remarkable changes at CsPb₂Cl₅ undergo any other phase transformation until the explored pressure range.

The diffraction patterns observed at the P_I and P_{II} phases exhibit similar characteristics, featuring a tetragonal *I* base. However, a closer analysis reveals a decrease in the intensity of specific diffraction peaks, particularly those around 10°, 19°, and 24°. This decrease provides clear evidence of a crystal modification occurring during the P_{II} phase, despite maintaining the same crystallographic tetragonal system. Furthermore, the diffractograms obtained during the transition from P_{II} to P_{III} exhibit abrupt changes. The diffraction peak profiles illustrate the presence of new angle reflections, particularly noticeable around 8°, 11°, and 13°. Additionally, at higher 2θ angles, the number of displayed diffraction peaks becomes denser, resulting in decreased peak resolution. These observations can be attributed to the decreased structural symmetry within the crystal lattice.

Empirical formula	$CsPb_2Cl_5$
Formula weight	724.54
Temperature/K	298.0
Crystal system	Tetragonal
Space group	I4/mcm
$a/\text{\AA}$	8.1523(3)
$c/\text{\AA}$	14.8068 (10)
Volume/ \AA^3	984.06 (10)
Z	4
$\rho_{calc}g/cm^3$	4.890
μ /mm ⁻¹	39.091
F(000)	1216
Crystal size/ $mm3$	$0.452 \times 0.424 \times 0.13$
Radiation	MoKα (λ = 0.71073)
2θ range for data collection/ \circ	2.75 to 28.12
Index ranges	$-10 \le h \le 10, -10 \le k \le 10, -19 \le l \le 19$
Reflections collected	6172
Independent reflections	348 [$R_{int} = 0.0597$, $R_{sigma} = 0.0413$]
Goodness-of-fit on F2	1.136
Final R indexes $[I>=2\sigma(I)]$	$R_1 = 0.0316$, $wR_2 = 0.0787$
Final R indexes [all data]	$R_1 = 0.0413$, $wR_2 = 0.0797$

Table 5 – Crystal data and structure refinement for $CsPb_2Cl_5$

Source: Elaborated by the author.

The crystallographic analysis of CsPb₂Cl₅ was carried out with the highest precision, employing the Rietveld method implemented in the EXPO2014 software (Altomare *et al.*, 2013). The diffractograms obtained for the P_I were refined within the I4/mcm space group determined in the SCXRD. A systematic methodology was adopted to elucidate the crystal structures of the P_{II} and P_{III} phases. Initially, the interest phase was indexed using the DICVOL program (Boultif e Louër, 2004) implemented in EXPO2014. This indexing step enabled the determination of essential parameters such as the lattice system and unit cell parameters, laying the foundation for subsequent analysis; to explore the possible crystal structures, a groupsubgroup diagram was employed to identify potential symmetry changes between different phases.

Consequently, the symmetry of each structure was rigorously verified using the pseudosymmetry search tools available at the Bilbao Crystallographic Server (La Flor, de *et al.*, 2016). This meticulous verification process ensured the accuracy and reliability of the determined symmetry. Finally, the verified symmetry and crystal cells were used as inputs to

simulate the new structure by the thermal annealing function, incorporating the atomic positions of the elements within the compound. The experimentally observed diffraction patterns were refined using the appropriate simulated models derived from the past process. This iterative refinement procedure allowed for meticulously determining the crystal structure for the highpressure phases of CsPb2Cl5. The Rietveld refinement of each phase is shown in Figure 17, providing detailed information on the corresponding tolerance factors. The fractional atomic coordinates of each refinement are described in Table 6.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

To establish a comparison between the structure and unit cell parameters, a thorough investigation was conducted to determine the *C*2 space group base into the tetragonal phases, resulting in the transformation: $(1/\sqrt{2})a = a_{C2}$; $(1/\sqrt{2})b = b_{C2}$; $(2\sin(\beta_{C2})) c = c_{C2}$). These features contribute to the enhanced understanding of the structural arrangement and provide important

insights for further analysis. The crystal structure of CsPb₂Cl₅ exhibits three distinct phases induced by pressure, namely P_I, P_{II}, and P_{III}; all phases presented bicapped trigonal prisms of PbCl₈ polyhedral units are interconnected through their faces, forming layers perpendicular to the *c*-axis in each phase in P_I , P_{II} , and to *a*-axis for P_{III} . These layers arrange themselves in a two-dimensional $(2D)$ configuration, while $Cs⁺$ cations act as spacers between the layers. It is worth noting the robustness of the 2D arrangement, which remains well-preserved under the influence of hydrostatic compression, as shown in Figure 18.

Figure 17 – Rietveld refinement of CsPb₂Cl₅ at selected hydrostatic pressures.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

	$a = 8.1428$ (6) Å, $c = 14.712$ (2) Å						
Pressure: 0.67 GPa							
		Volume: 974.71 (11) Å ³ , Space Group: <i>I4/mcm</i> , Z: 4					
Element	Name	$\overline{\mathbf{X}}$	Y	Z	Occ.	U	Site
Pb	Pb ₁	0.664	0.836	0.5	$\mathbf{1}$	0.029	8h
Cs	Cs ₁	0.5	0.5	0.25	$\mathbf{1}$	0.035	4a
Cl	Cl ₁	0.8379	0.662	0.3658	$\mathbf{1}$	0.025	161
Cl	Cl ₂	0.5	0.5	0.5	1	0.027	4c
				$a = 8.0770(3)$ Å, $c = 14.2374(10)$ Å			
Pressure: 1.60 GPa							
				Volume: 928.82 (8) \AA^3 , Space Group: <i>I4/m</i> , <i>Z</i> : 4			
Element Pb	Name Pb ₁	$\mathbf X$ 0.3349	y 0.1601	\mathbf{Z} 0.5	Occ.	$\mathbf U$ 0.03	Site 8h
Cs	Cs ₁	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	0.7382	$\mathbf{1}$ $\mathbf{1}$	0.04	4e
Cl	Cl ₁	0.173	0.343	0.6328	$\mathbf{1}$	1.00	16i
Cl	Cl ₂	0.5	0.5	0.5	$\mathbf{1}$	1.00	2a
Cl	Cl ₃	$\boldsymbol{0}$	$\boldsymbol{0}$	0.5	$\mathbf{1}$	0.01	2 _b
Pressure: 5.67 GPa	$a = 11.174(2)$ Å, $b = 11.2142(15)$ Å, $c = 8.724(8)$ Å β = 129.82 (6) \circ Volume: 839.7(11) \AA^3 , Space Group: C2, Z: 4						
Element	Name	$\mathbf X$	y	$\mathbf{Z}% ^{T}=\mathbf{Z}^{T}\times\mathbf{Z}^{T}$	Occ.	$\mathbf U$	Site
Pb	Pb ₆	0.5	0.2999	0.5	$\mathbf{1}$	1.00	2 _b
Cs	Cs ₁	$\overline{0}$	0.71	$\overline{0}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.01	2a
Pb	Pb ₅	0.186	0.46	0.536	$\mathbf{1}$	0.01	4c
Pb	Pb ₄	0.5	0.614	0.5	$\mathbf{1}$	1.00	2 _b
Cl	Cl ₁	0.1	0.6	0.8	$\mathbf{1}$	1.00	4c
Cs	Cs ₂	0.5	0.7	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.02	2a
Cl	Cl ₆	0.3	$\mathbf{1}$	0.797	$\mathbf{1}$	1.00	4c
Cl	Cl ₇	0.499	0.5	0.805	$\mathbf{1}$	1.00	4c
Cl	Cl ₉	0.3	0.8	1.2	$\mathbf{1}$	1.00	4c
Cl	Cl ₁₀	0.28	0.71	0.568	$\mathbf 1$	1.00	4c

Table 6– Fractional atomic coordinates and equivalent isotropic displacement parameters in Å for I, II and III phases of CsPb₂Cl₅.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Figure 18 – Crystal structures of phases (a) P_I , (b) P_{II} , and (c) P_{III} .

Source: Elaborated by the author.

The pressure dependence of the crystal cell parameters of $CsPb₂Cl₅$ is systematically investigated across a wide pressure range, extending up to 8.11 GPa, as depicted in Figure 19a. Notably, distinct discontinuities in the pressure-dependent behavior of all lattice parameters are observed around the P_I and P_{II} . A remarkable feature is observed between P_{II} to P_{III} , where a pronounced shift occurs, characterizing a significant structural phase transition. The

transformation of the lattice parameters from a related to P_{II} into a and b for P_{III} is the main characteristic of this transition. These abrupt changes signify both phase transitions in the sample, providing compelling evidence for the sensitivity of the crystal lattice to external pressure. This unexpected behavior challenges conventional expectations and underscores the complexity of the structural response to high pressure in $CsPb_2Cl₅$. Importantly, despite the considerable alterations in the crystal cell parameters, a consistent monotonic contraction of the crystal volume is observed throughout the investigated pressure range. This unidirectional change in volume points towards intricate structural modifications within the crystal lattice, further emphasizing the complex nature of the compound's response under high pressures.

Figure 19 – (a) The lattice parameters as a function of pressure. (b) Third-order Birch-Murnanghan fit for each pressure phase.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Figure 19a illustrates the anisotropic compression observed throughout the process, with the *c* parameter exhibiting the highest compressibility compared to the *a* and *b* parameters. At room conditions, the *a* and *b* parameters show similar values, but as pressure increases, the difference in their compression ratios gradually becomes more pronounced, particularly evident until reaching the P_{III} phase. Continuous contraction of the cell parameters *a* and *b* are maintained during the P_I and P_{II} phases. While the pressure-induced structural phase transitions in CsPb2Cl⁵ have been successfully characterized through diffractograms and lattice parameters, it is crucial to consider the resulting relative shift, which can generate uniaxial stress due to the compound's elastic anisotropy. Such stress can be predicted using the Equation of State (EOS) (Birch, 1947; Goodwin, Keen e Tucker, 2008; Sata *et al.*, 2002). In this context, the experimental $P = (V_0/V)$ V(P) data presented in Figure 19b were fitted using the thirdorder Birch-Murnaghan equation of state:

$$
P = \frac{3}{2}B_0 \left[\left(\frac{V_0}{V} \right)^{\frac{7}{3}} - \left(\frac{V_0}{V} \right)^{\frac{5}{3}} \right] \left[1 + \frac{3}{4} (B' - 4) \left\{ \left(\frac{V_0}{V} \right)^{\frac{2}{3}} - 1 \right\} \right]
$$
(6)

Here, the equation is expressed in terms of the volume at zero pressure (V_0) , the bulk modulus $(B_0 = (-V \partial P / \partial V)_T)$, and the dimensionless pressure derivative $(B' = (\partial B / \partial P)_T)$, which describes the variation of B_0 with pressure (Katsura and Tange, 2019). The isothermal bulk modulus for the tetragonal base P_I-P_{II} of CsPb₂Cl₅ was estimated to be $B_0 = 14$ (4) GPa and it is derivative $B' = 6$ (2). Similarly, for the P_{III} phase, the values were determined as $B_0 =$ 27 (3) GPa and $B' = 6$ (1). The observed change of $I4/mcm \rightarrow I4/m \rightarrow C2$ was associated with an increased unit-cell volume, consistent with the expected behavior of high-pressure phases characterized by higher bulk moduli, reflecting their denser and less compressible crystal structures. In hybrid and inorganic materials based on metal halide perovskites, the B_0 values typically range from 10 to 70 GPa (Agbaoye, Adebambo e Adebayo, 2019; Chaves *et al.*, 2014; Tu *et al.*, 2021). The low bulk modulus of metal halide perovskites is believed to contribute to their unique properties, such as self-healing, ion migration, and low thermal conductivity, making them suitable for applications in the flexible electronics industry due to their ductility (Rakita et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2015), and the observed value of B' indicates a slow stiffening of the material.

The bulk modulus of CsPb₂Cl₅ can be compared with various Cs-Pb-Br perovskites and perovskites-like compounds, including $CsPb_2Br_5$ ($B_0 = 11.5$ (3) GPa, $B' = 9.3$ (6)) (Drushliak e Szafrański, 2022b), and the perovskite polymorphs of CsPbBr₃ (*Pbnm: B*₀ =

15.0 (8) GPa, $B' = 6.0$ (18)) (Szafrański, Katrusiak e Ståhl, 2021), (Pnma: $B_0 = 18.847$ GPa), $(I4/mcm: B_0 = 19.02 \text{ GPa})$, $(Cmcm: B_0 = 20.65 \text{ GPa})$, as well as the non-perovskite CsPbBr₃ (*Pnma:* $B_0 = 20.37$ GPa) (Schryver e Lamichhane, 2023). The results reveal good agreement among these compounds, indicating similar structural behavior under pressure. Notably, this characteristic is also shared with 3D organic-inorganic metal halide perovskites. For instance, CH₃NH₃SnI₃ has a bulk modulus of $B_0 = 12.6$ (7) GPa, HC(NH₂)₂SnI₃ has $B_0 =$ 8.0 (7) GPa, and HC(NH₂)₂PbI₃ has $B_0 = 11.0$ (2) GPa (Lee *et al.*, 2003; Liu *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore, the high value of the pressure derivative of the bulk modulus, $B'(B' > 4)$, observed in $CsPb_2Cl_5$ can be attributed to its layered crystal structure. Comparable values have been reported for graphite $(B' = 8.0 (6))$ (Solozhenko *et al.*, 2006) and layered GeSe₂ ($B' =$ 9.1 (22)) (Stølen *et al.*, 2000), emphasizing the influence of the layered nature of the crystal structure on the mechanical response to pressure.

4.2 Influence of the Pb-Cl bonds P^I and PII phases

Therefore, gaining further insights into the physical mechanisms underlying the P_I to P_{II} transition in $CsPb_2Cl_5$ is essential. To elucidate the structural changes accompanying the pressure-induced phase transitions, a comprehensive investigation of the Pb-Cl bond lengths (*l*¹ and l_2) and the Cl-Pb-Cl bond angles (θ_1 and θ_2) within the PbCl₈ polyhedral motif is carried out, as illustrated in Figure 20 a–d. Therein, the parameters l_1 and θ_1 represent the top view Pb-Cl bond lengths and Cl-Pb-Cl bond angles within the inorganic layers, respectively, while *l*² and θ_2 correspond to the side view of the Pb-Cl bond lengths and Cl-Pb-Cl bond angles.

The analysis reveals that l_1 undergoes a progressive contraction, and θ_1 gradually narrows as the sample is compressed, resulting in a successive decrease in both parameters until reaching the critical pressure $P_c^{\text{I-II}} = 1.27 \text{ GPa}$. At this point, a shift is observed in both the θ_1 and l_1 . On the other hand, l_2 exhibits a linear reduction at relatively low pressures as compression progresses towards $P_c^{\text{I-II}}$. However, beyond this critical point, l_2 undergoes a successive increase with increasing pressure, leading to elongation. Notably, the inflection point of the bond length l_2 coincides with the pressure-induced structural phase transition from P_I to P_{II} . Furthermore, the bond angle θ_2 demonstrates a widening dependence on pressure. To quantitatively assess the distortion of the PbCl₈ polyhedra, the distortion parameter (Δd) based on the Pb-Cl bond lengths is employed using the following expression:

$$
\Delta d = \left(\frac{1}{8}\right) \sum \left[\frac{d_n - d}{d}\right]^2 \tag{7}
$$

where d is the mean Pb-Cl distance and d_n are the eight individual Pb-Cl (García-Fernández *et al.*, 2018; Katan *et al.*, 2015; Lufaso e Woodward, 2004).

Figure 20 – (a) – (d) Refined Pb–Cl bond lengths and Cl–Pb–Cl bond angles $(l_1, l_2, \theta_1$ and θ_2) with increasing pressure. (e) – (f) Schematic diagram of the Pb–Cl bonds and Cl–Pb–Cl angles within the Pb–Cl layers for tetragonal $CsPb₂Cl₅$. (g) Schematic illustrations of the Pb–Cl bond lengths and Cl–Pb–Cl bond angles.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

The obtained values indicate that both Pb-Cl bond lengths contribute significantly to the distortion, with l_2 being the predominant factor. The pressure dependence of Δd , as depicted in Figure 21, highlights the crucial role played by the variations in l_2 and θ_2 under pressure in driving the observed structural phase transitions. These changes in the Pb-Cl network structure induced by compression have a direct impact on the electronic configuration, thereby influencing the photoelectric properties of the material, as the related compound CsPbCl3, which exhibits intriguing phenomena, such as the disappearance of photoluminescence or an unexpected increase in the band gap during the proper structural phase transition (SZAFRAŃSKI; KATRUSIAK; STÅHL, 2021; ZHANG et al., 2018).

Figure 21 – (a) Distortion (Δd) pressure-dependence of the PbCl₈ polyhedra, with (b) – (c) the P_I and P_{II} layers, respectively.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

4.3 High-pressure Raman Spectroscopy

Since the Raman spectra under extreme conditions are highly sensitive to the crystalline structure, it is imperative to investigate the vibrational properties of $CsPb₂Cl₅$. The Raman spectroscopy was conducted on $CsPb_2Cl_5$ at room temperature, employing increasing hydrostatic pressure to validate the structural phase transition. The group theory analysis (Kroumova *et al.*, 2003; Rousseau, Bauman e Porto, 1981a) predicts that the compounds exhibit 13 vibrations modes in the P_I (*IA/mcm*), 21 vibrations in P_{II} (*IA/m*), and 45 vibrations in P_{III} (*C*2). The Raman-active mode distributions are represented as $\Gamma_{raman}^I = 3A_{1g} \oplus 2B_{1g} \oplus 3B_{2g} \oplus 5E_g$

*Γ*_{*raman*}^{*II*}=6A_g⊕5B_g⊕10E_g and *Γ*_{*raman*}^{*III*}=21A⊕24B for the point group P_I: *D*_{4h} (4/*mmm*), P_{II}: C_{4h} (4/*m*), and P_{III}: C_2 (2), respectively.

Figure 22 – High-resolution Raman spectrum of $CsPb_2Cl_5$ at the pressure-induced P_I , P_{II} and P_{III} . The continuous blue, purple and green lines represent the convolution of Lorentzian line profiles (black lines) for each phase, which best fit the experimental data (black dots).

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Figure 22 displays selected Raman spectra of $CsPb_2Cl_5$ in the 65-300 cm⁻¹ range for each pressure-induced phase on CsPb₂Cl₅. At room conditions, six distinct Raman vibrational modes were observed. Through comparisons with previous Raman studies on metal-halide perovskite materials (ZHANG et al., 2018; ZHANG; ZENG; WANG, 2017) and the CsPb2Br⁵ (Hadjiev et al., 2018), the phonon assignments were established. The displayed Raman bands predominantly arise from vibrations of the Pb-Cl bonds. The low-frequency (ω < 70 cm⁻¹) vibrations correspond to the top-view layer visualization and involve the phonons associated with the l_1 length. On the other hand, vibrations with $\omega > 70$ cm⁻¹ are attributed to the l_2 bond vibrations. In Figure 22, the side-view vibrations in the P_{II} and P_{III} phases exhibit increased displayed bands, indicating a crystal structure modification. This observation validates the crucial role of the *l*₂ length on the structural phase transition mechanisms in the CsPb₂Cl₅ related to the PbCl₈ polyhedra continuous distortion, even though the layers are well preserved as was observed in synchrotron powder X-ray diffraction (SPXRD) results.

To gain further insights into the pressure-induced modifications, a comprehensive Raman spectrum as a function of pressure is presented in Figure 23a, revealing notable redshifts in all vibrational modes. Remarkably, the pressure-induced Raman spectrum exhibits the same profile as the P^I phase from room pressure up to 1.24 GPa, providing strong evidence for the reorganization and progressive contraction of the PbCl₈ polyhedra. However, a sudden shift in the frequency pressure-dependence is observed beyond this point, emphasizing the distinct nature of the subsequent phase transitions. Consistent with the SPXRD findings, a significant change in the *l*² vibration becomes evident in the pressure-dependent Raman spectra at 1.54 GPa. This transition coincides with a new Raman active band at $\omega = 230 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ in the P_{II} phase. Intriguingly, all phonons persist until encountering a discontinuity at the threshold of the P_{III} phase, suggesting the structural phase transition in the crystal structure. These findings are clearly illustrated in Figure 23b, which provides a comprehensive visualization of the evolving vibrational modes under increasing pressure and underscores the intricate interplay between pressure and crystal symmetry. Another notable feature observed in the Raman spectra is the sudden and significant increase in the phonon intensity at $\omega = 60$ cm⁻¹ in P_{II}. This pronounced change suggests that the aggravated pressure-induced distortion of the PbCl₈ polyhedra primarily drives the modification in the Pb-Cl network structure.

Figure 23 – (a) Pressure-induced Raman spectra of CsPb₂Cl₅. (b) Phonon energy as a function of the hydrostatic pressure. Vertical dashed lines represent the phase transitions identified by SPXRD.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

In conclusion, the structural phase transition of $CsPb₂Cl₅$ under pressure has been systematically investigated utilizing synchrotron powder X-ray diffraction (SPXRD) and Raman spectroscopy techniques. The obtained results shed light on the complex phase evolution of the compound. It was observed that $CsPb₂Cl₅$ undergoes a structural transition from phase P_I with space group I4/mcm to phase P_{II} with space group I4/m at a pressure of 1.60 GPa, and subsequently transforms to phase P_{III} with space group C2 at 5.16 GPa. To gain further insights into the structural changes, a comprehensive analysis was conducted on the Pb-Cl bond lengths (l_1 and l_2) and the Cl-Pb-Cl bond angles (θ_1 and θ_2) within the PbCl₈ polyhedral motif.

The obtained values highlight the significant contributions of both Pb-Cl bond lengths, with l₂ being the predominant factor in the distortion of the structure.

Additionally, bulk modulus calculations were performed for each phase, resulting in values of $Bo^H = 14 \pm 4$ GPa and $Bo^H = 27 \pm 3$ GPa. These findings suggest that CsPb₂Cl₅ exhibits a certain degree of structural softness, rendering it suitable for applications in the flexible electronics industry. Moreover, Raman measurements further validate the crucial role played by the l_2 bond length in the structural phase transition mechanisms of CsPb₂Cl₅, specifically about the continuous distortion of the PbCl₈ polyhedra. Remarkably, the layers within the compound remain well-preserved, as observed in the SPXRD results. The comprehensive understanding gained from this study enhances the knowledge of the structural properties and phase transitions of CsPb₂Cl₅ under pressure.

5 Iodide Doping and its Impact on 2D CsPb2X⁵ (X = Br, I) Perovskite-like Properties

Over the past decade, perovskite solar cells (PSCs) have received considerable attention from researchers due to their remarkable increase in power conversion efficiency (PCE), approaching that of conventional inorganic semiconductors. Among them, lead halide PSCs have emerged as strong contenders against commercially available silicon-based solar cells owing to their low-cost solution process photovoltaic technology (Bati *et al.*, 2023; Wang, Y. P. *et al.*, 2023).

Metal halide perovskites exhibit various physical properties due to structural and compositional modifications (Gao *et al.*, 2019; Yan *et al.*, 2023). Thus, further investigation into the underlying mechanisms and anion exchange phenomena is crucial to understand these materials comprehensively. Octahedral tilting and anion exchange are key mechanisms that play pivotal roles in controlling the phase and composition of perovskite structure (Shi *et al.*, 2017).

Anion exchange involves halide ions' partial or complete substitution within the perovskite structure. The flexibility of the lattice and the presence of vacancies allow for anion switching during or after synthesis using a variety of halide precursors or mixtures of other anion species. The concentration of halide ions influences the diffusion of ions into the crystal lattice, thus significantly impacting the bandgaps, primarily determined by the anion composition and valence. As a result, anion exchange exhibits diverse effects on perovskites' structural, physical, and optical properties. Moreover, it offers the capability to modify or shift the photoluminescence (PL) emission across the visible spectrum, providing tunability and versatility in the optical properties of these materials (Bella *et al.*, 2016; Protesescu *et al.*, 2015c). Proper control and implementation of anion exchange have demonstrated the potential to effectively modify the structures and properties of metal halide perovskites, opening up opportunities for tailoring their characteristics to specific applications (Schmidt-Mende *et al.*, 2021). A comprehensive understanding of anion exchange phenomena will pave the way for developing advanced perovskite-based devices with enhanced performance and functionality.

Within the realm of metal halide perovskites, the two-dimensional (2D) perovskite-like $CsPb₂Br₅$ compound, derived from $CsPbBr₃$ has gained significant interest for its promising applications in photodetectors and solar cells. It exhibits advantages such as utilizing low-cost raw elements and possessing high-quality optoelectronic properties (Chen, Chen, e Huang,

2023). To enhance its anion exchange properties, a comprehensive investigation of the lowdimensional tetragonal $CsPb_2(Br_{1-x}I_x)$ ₅ family has been conducted to explore and expand its potential for various applications. Several characterization techniques, including Single Crystal X-Ray Diffraction (SCXRD), Raman spectroscopy, and Photoluminescence (PL), have been employed to understand and characterize the properties of these compounds. The SCXRD and Raman spectroscopy analyses have provided detailed information on the crystal structure of the materials, enabling the elucidation of the effects of I halide substitution on the lattice parameters. A significant focus has been placed on the photoluminescence properties of the $CsPb_2(Br_{1-x}I_x)$ ₅ compounds. Intriguing changes in the PL characteristics have been observed by systematically varying the composition through halide substitution. Specifically, an increase in PL intensity accompanied by a decrease in energy emission has been observed, highlighting the tunability of the compounds across the entire visible spectrum. This tunability makes them highly attractive for applications where precise control over the emission wavelength is crucial.

5.1 Influence of the iodide in the crystal structure

The results of SCXRD structure determination on all iodine-substituted compounds reveal they are isostructural to the $CsPb_2X_5$ (X= Cl, Br) family (Dursun *et al.*, 2017; Li, J. *et* $al.$, 2017b; Yin, Zhang e Tao, 2019). The CsPb₂(Br,I)₅ solid solution has a body-centered tetragonal structure with I4/mcm symmetry at room temperature. Table 7 summarizes the crystallographic data and principal parameters of selected determined crystal structures. In Figure 24a, the CsPb₂(Br,I)₅ crystal structure is illustrated and depicted, showcasing both the top and side views of the Pb-X layers. These compounds can be effectively described by a conventional two-dimensional framework, where $Cs⁺$ ions reside between the planes of Pb-X polyhedra. The lead atoms coordinate with seven halogen atoms, forming a PbX_8 (X = Br or Br/I). These polyhedra are connected through edges, giving rise to sheets parallel to the crystal's ab plane. There are two non-equivalent halide anions: X_1 (4 c site), located on a plane half-height of the sheet and shared by four polyhedra, and X² (16*l* site), defining the top and bottom planes of the sheet. SEM and EDX analysis was conducted to explore the morphological characteristics and spatial distribution of I⁻ cations on the surface of a CsPb₂(Br,I)₅ single crystal. Figure 24b displays the SEM image, providing the crystal morphology. The accompanying EDX images (Figure 24c) display a consistent and uniform distribution of I- cations across the crystal surface. The intensity of the I signal remains constant throughout, indicating a high degree of homogeneity within the synthesized crystals.

	CsPb ₂ Br ₅	ranni y at room temperature conditions	$CsPb_2(Br_{0.88}I_{0.12})$ 5 $CsPb_2(Br_{0.78}I_{0.22})$ 5 $CsPb_2(Br_{0.66}I_{0.34})$ 5		
Empirical formula					
Formula weight	946.84	975.97	997.00	1024.61	
(g/mol^{-1})					
Crystal system		Tetragonal			
Space group			I_4/mcm		
Unit cell	$a=8.4952(5)$ Å	$a=8.5291(8)$ Å	$a=8.625(5)$ Å	$a=8.705(4)$ Å	
Dimensions	$b=8.4952(5)$ Å		$b=8.5291(8)$ Å $b=8.625(5)$ Å	$b=8.705(4)$ Å	
	$c=15.1959(12)$ Å	$c=15.3428(19)$ Å $c=15.519(13)$ Å		$c=15.664(6)$ Å	
Volume (\AA^3)	1096.66 (16)	1116.1(3)	1154.5(15)	1186.9(12)	
Density (Mg/m^3)	5.735	5.808	5.736	5.734	
μ (mm ⁻¹)	52.078	50.666	48.631	46.852	
F(000)	1576	1621	1653	1695	
Radiation type		Mo $K\alpha$			
Z		4			
Crystal shape		Block			
Absorption	Multi-scan				
correction					
R factor (all data)	$R_1 = 0.0754$	$R_1 = 0.0339$	$R_1 = 0.0320$	$R_1 = 0.0320$	
	$wR_2=0.1737$	$wR_2=0.0886$	$wR_2=0.0619$	$wR_2=0.0692$	
$GooF = S$	1.035	1.092	1.203	1.093	

Table 7 – Crystal data and refinement parameters of selected members of the $CsPb_2(Br_{1-x}I_x)$ 5 family at room-temperature conditions

Source: Elaborated by the author.

An interesting characteristic of $CsPb_2(Br,I)$ ₅ compounds is the preference of iodine to occupy the larger cage, leading to a substitution that exclusively occurs at the X_2 sites. Notably, regardless of the iodine content, when iodine was allowed to occupy X_1 sites, the refinement of the crystalline structure became unstable. This behavior is quite distinct from the CsPb₂(Br_{1−x}Cl_x)₅ system (Chen, Y. *et al.*, 2018c), where the larger anion (Br) occupies both X sites of the layers, with a preference but not exclusivity for the X_2 sites. Based on this atomic distribution, the stoichiometry of the $CsPb₂(Br,I)₅$ solid solution could be better described as $CsPb_2Br(Br_1-V_1)_4$, but to keep a consistent notation with previous reports, the iodine concentration will be denoted relative to the overall bromine content as $CsPb_2(Br_{1-x}I_x)_{5}$.

Figure 24 – (a) Room temperature body-centered tetragonal crystal structure of the lowdimensional $CsPb_2(Br,I)$ ₅ solid solution, and the top and side views of the polyhedra layers (b) SEM image and (c) EDX image of the compound.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

The most noticeable effect of iodine substitution is the consistent expansion of the lattice parameters and volume, as depicted in Figure 25 and summarized in Table 7 for selected structures. The lattice parameters of the unsubstituted compound agree very well with those reported by other authors (Chen Y. *et al.*, 2018c; Dursun *et al.*, 2017; Maity e Pradhan, 2020). The changes in these parameters attributed to the varying iodine content observed within the investigated concentration range can be effectively described by Vegard's law of linear proportionality, which is also observed in CsPbBr³ when substituted with both chlorine and iodine (Chen *et al.*, 2018) synthesized the CsPb₂(Cl_{1−x}Br_x)₅ system, which demonstrates a monotonic increase in the lattice parameters as the concentration of the larger anion increases. However, linear proportionality is not observed unlike the previously described solid solutions. Moreover, unlike the Br/Cl system, the complete solubility range cannot be achieved in the Br/I solid solution. The fully substituted $CsPb_2I_5$ compound does not crystallize under ambient conditions and has only been recently synthesized using high-pressure and high-temperature techniques (Li *et al.*, 2022b). Figure 25 and Table 7 included its corresponding lattice parameters for comparison purposes. As expected, the lattice parameters are larger than those of CsPb2Br5, but they do not follow the trend established by the low substitution side of the phase diagram (Figure 25). It has been proposed that these differences in lattice parameters could be related to the stress induced by the synthesis method (Li *et al.*, 2022b). However, it is worth noting that the same methodology was used to produce $CsPb_2Br_5$, whose lattice parameters do not differ considerably from crystals obtained by the conventional slow evaporation strategy. Therefore, it is more likely that the anomalous behavior of $CsPb₂I₅$ is due to its metastable nature, which can only be produced under extreme conditions.

The expansion of the lattice parameters in $CsPb₂(Br, I)₅$ can be attributed to the increase in bond lengths, which follow the same linear behavior observed in Figure 25. This relationship is further exemplified by the Pb-X distances presented in Figure 26a. The larger ionic radii of iodine anions in the Pb-Br₂/I bond elucidates this expansion phenomenon. However, even in the absence of substitution and while residing on the same plane as Pb, the distances associated with Br_1 experience an expansion due to the higher iodine content. Notably, the bond lengths of CsPb2I⁵ do not follow the linear trend defined by the low iodine content region, a characteristic that can be attributed to its previously discussed metastable nature.

Figure 25 – Unit cell lattice parameters and volume of the $CsPb_2(Br,I)$ ₅ solid solution. Data corresponding to CsPb2I⁵ was extracted from reference (Li et al., 2022b).

Source: Elaborated by the author.

The optoelectronic properties of $CsPb₂(Br,I)₅$ compounds result from the exciton dynamics within the 2D-planar $[PbX_8]^{6}$ -layers, making it essential to consider their structural characteristics. Figures 26b and 26c illustrate the layer distortion (θ) and height (d), respectively, with their definitions provided in Figure 24a. Due to the difference in the ionic radii of the halogens, the $[PbX_8]^{6}$ polyhedron and, consequently, the layers expand with increasing iodine content, resulting in a linear trend for layer height.

However, none of the previous parameters provide evidence suggesting a limit on the solubility range of the $CsPb_2(Br,I)_5$ phase diagram. The observed layer distortion can be attributed to the X-Pb-X bond angles shown in Figure 26b. Notably, the angles involving the $Br₁$ anion appear nearly unaffected by iodine substitution. On the other hand, the $X₂$ -Pb- $X₂$ angles, which are directly related to the layer height, exhibit a linear trend up to $x \sim 0.3$, but saturate beyond this value, defining an upper limit for this magnitude. It is worth highlighting that the X_2 sites define the eight nearest vertices of the CsX_{10} coordination polyhedron, and the expansion of the layers may be constrained by steric repulsion between these groups and the interlayer cesium cations. This limitation suggests a potential mechanism for controlling the layer height and maintaining structural stability within a specific range of iodine substitution.

Figure 26 – Selected (a) bond distances and (b) bond angles of the compounds in the $CsPb_2(Br,I)$ ₅ solid solution. (c) Height of the $[PbX_8]^{6}$ layers. Data corresponding to $CsPb_2I_5$ were extracted from ref. (Li et al., 2022b).

Source: Elaborated by the author.

The bond valence (BV) method can be used to estimate the strength of chemical bonds in a crystal lattice and to determine the valence states of the elements (Brown e Altermatt, 1985). It is often used to validate crystal structures (Brown, 2009). However, the conventional parameters used in the BV method tend to overestimate the length of Pb-X bonds and underestimate those of A-X bonds (Linaburg *et al.*, 2017). To address this, the parameters set of Pb-X parameters were calculated based on the gas phase bond length (Sheng-Zhi, 2007), and the Cs-X parameters were determined by considering second neighbors (Adams, 2001). This

parametrization provides reliable valences for unsubstituted $CsPb_2Br_5$ (Pb: 2.04 and Cs: 1.06) and CsPb2Cl⁵ (Pb: 2.01 and Cs: 1.02).

In order to analyze the solid solutions, the bond valence sums (BVS) were calculated using a weighted average approach, where each site's anion occupation was considered the weighting factor. To illustrate this methodology, let us consider the case of Pb. The bond valence sum for Pb was calculated using two non-substituted BV with Br₁ (3.1529(8) Å for $x=0$) and four substituted Br₂ sites, using two short BV (2.8870(9) Å for $x=0$) and four long BV $(3.3746(10)$ Å for x=0) were employed. The BVS as a function of the iodine concentration are shown in Figure 27. Additionally, to facilitate comparison, the valences determined from the structural data of the CsPb₂(Cl_{1−x}Br_x)₅ system (Chen, Y. *et al.*, 2018c) are also presented in this figure. As chlorine replaces both anion sites, its contribution to the BVSs was accounted for appropriately.

The calculated valence sums of the cations in the chlorine region of Figure 27 closely match the nominal values, which agrees with the full solubility observed for the Cl/Br solid solution. Consequently, the Pb BVS remains constant within the expected valence state within the chlorine-substituted region and for iodine concentrations up to about 0.3. Beyond this value, Pb BVS reduces until reaching the upper limit of the solid solution. The Cs BVS has a slightly different substitution dependence, remaining close to the nominal value in the chlorine-rich region and increasing slightly up to 1.18 at x~0.3 due to the iodine substitution. Above this value, it remains constant until reaching the maximum observed concentration.

Regarding the anions, it is interesting to notice that at the X_2 sites, the BVS does not depart considerably from the nominal value within the whole range of concentrations. On the other hand, the X_1 BVS constantly increases as the Br anion is substituted, reaching the nominal value at the limit of the miscibility region. Also, the global instability index (GII) does not depart from the stability region. These findings suggest that the cations are favorably bonded for all the chlorine concentrations and up to $x \sim 0.3$ in the case of iodine substitution, suggesting that instabilities increase beyond this value. As the limit value of the iodine substitution $(x\sim 0.5)$ is reached, the structure becomes non-viable, and it is impossible to obtain $CsPb₂X₅$ with higher iodine substitutions.

Figure 27 – (a) Lead, (b) cesium, and (c) anion calculated bond valences sum and (d) global instability index (GII) as a function of the iodine and chlorine content. Data corresponding to CsPb₂Cl₅ and CsPb₂I₅ were extracted from ref. (Chen, Y. et al., 2018c) and (Li et al., 2022b), respectively.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

5.2 Insights into the Effect of Iodide Incorporation on Raman Spectroscopy

Since all the investigated compounds have the same crystalline structure, group theory analysis based on the $CsPb₂X₅$ structure can predict the number of vibrational modes. The analysis was conducted using the body-centered tetragonal system with I4/mcm symmetry, and the distribution of the phonons and mode classifications are summarized in Table 8. At the Γpoint of the Brillouin zone, 13 Raman-active modes are predicted (Rousseau, Bauman e Porto, 1981), which are distributed according to the irreducible representation of the *D4h* point group as $\Gamma_{Raman} = 3A_{1g} \oplus 2B_{1g} \oplus 3B_{2g} \oplus 5E_g$. However, due to the layered PbX₈ polyhedra crystal habit of the samples, along with the [001] direction, the Raman selection rules of the *D4h* point group, vibrational modes with E_g symmetry are not expected to be observable, even under nonpolarized scattering geometries. Figure 28 shows that all Raman-active modes were identified in the room-temperature Raman spectra of $CsPb₂(Br,I)₅$. The symmetry of the observed bands was classified based on the polarized Raman results, confirmed by DFPT calculations reported by (Hadjiev et al., 2018) on CsPb2Br5.

Additionally, the vibrational modes involving $Br₁$ atoms do not contribute to the Raman spectrum. As seen in Figure 28, all the Raman-active modes were identified in the Raman spectra of $CsPb_2(BrI)_5$ at room temperature. The symmetry of the observed bands was classified based on the polarized Raman result reported by (Hadjiev et al., 2018) and confirmed by DFPT calculations on CsPb₂Br₅.

Table 8 – Distribution of vibrational modes based on the group theory for the $CsPb₂(Br,I)₅$ solid solution*.*

Atom	Wyckof	Site	Irreducible representations
S		symmetr	
	notation		
Pb	8h	\mathcal{C}_{2v}'	$A_{1g} \oplus A_{2g} \oplus A_{2u} \oplus B_{1g} \oplus B_{2g} \oplus B_{1u} \oplus E_g \oplus 2E_u$
Cs	4a	D_4	$A_{2g} \oplus A_{2u} \oplus E_g \oplus E_u$
Br ₁	4c	\mathcal{C}_{4h}	$A_{1u} \oplus A_{2u} \oplus 2E_u$
Br ₂ /I	161	C_{s}^{d}	$2A_{1g}\oplus A_{2g}\oplus A_{1u}\oplus 2A_{2u}\oplus B_{1g}\oplus 2B_{2g}\oplus 2B_{1u}\oplus B_{2u}\oplus 3E_g\oplus 3E_u$
	Total		$3A_{1g} \oplus 3A_{2g} \oplus 2A_{1u} \oplus 5A_{2u} \oplus 2B_{1g} \oplus 3B_{2g} \oplus 3B_{1u} \oplus B_{2u} \oplus 5E_g \oplus 8E$
			u
	Mode Classification		
	$\Gamma_{\text{acoustic}} = A_{2u} \oplus E_u$		

 $\Gamma_{\text{onto}} = 3A_{1g} \oplus 3A_{2g} \oplus 2A_{1u} \oplus 4A_{2u} \oplus 2B_{1g} \oplus 3B_{2g} \oplus 3B_{1u} \oplus B_{2u} \oplus 5E_g \oplus 7E_u$ $\Gamma_{IR} = 4A_{2u} \oplus 7E_u$ $\Gamma_{\text{Raman}} = 3A_{1g} \oplus 2B_{1g} \oplus 3B_{2g} \oplus 5E_{g}$ $\Gamma_{\text{silent}} = 2A_{1u} \oplus 3B_{1u} \oplus B_{2u}$

Source: Elaborated by the author.

The Raman spectra obtained from $CsPb₂(Br,I)₅$ single crystals exhibit a notable shift of most bands towards lower wavenumbers with increasing iodine substitution. This observed phenomenon can be attributed to the softening of vibrational modes caused by increased Pb-X bond distances and the corresponding changes in the effective mass at the Br_2/I sites. These conclusions are supported by the structural characterization results obtained through SCXRD. The shift towards lower wavenumbers in the Raman spectra indicates a reduction in the vibrational stiffness and increased vibrational amplitude within the crystal lattice upon iodine

substitution. The elongation of the Pb-X bonds, arising from the larger ionic radius of iodine compared to bromine, leads to weaker bonding interactions and, consequently, a decrease in the force constants of the relevant vibrational modes. Furthermore, the increased effective mass at the Br2/I sites, resulting from the larger atomic mass of iodine, contributes to the overall softening of these vibrational modes.

Figure 28 – Raman spectra of $CsPb_2(Br,I)$ ₅ single crystals. The asterisk indicates a leaking plasma line of the 568 nm excitation laser line.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Another interesting observation is the appearance of a peak at 102 cm^{-1} in the iodinesubstituted samples, which is absent in the pure compound. In their lattice dynamics calculations, Hadjiev et al. (Hadjiev et al. 2018) predicted this peak and was attributed to a B_{2g} mode that is not detectable experimentally due to its weak Raman activity. However, the bond polarizability increases upon iodine substitution, resulting in an enhancement of the intensity of this mode. The CsPb2Br⁵ sample displays narrower bands, indicating a more ordered crystal structure than the iodine-substituted samples. Table 9 summarizes and compares the experimental band positions with theoretical literature results.

Mode	DFPT PAW $(cm)^{-1}$		$CsPb_2Br_5$ $CsPb_2(Br_{0.78}I_{0.22})_5$ $CsPb_2(Br_{0.78}I_{0.22})_5$	
Symmetry	[(Hadjiev et al., 2018)]	$(cm)^{-1}$	$(cm)^{-1}$	$(cm)^{-1}$
E_g	36	38	36	36
B_{lg}	41			
A_{lg}	54	49	48	48
E_g	56			
B_{2g}	69	68	66	66
E_g	70			
B_{lg}	77	78	77	77
E_g	78			
A_{lg}	82			
B_{2g}	95		102	102
E_g	114			
A_{lg}	132	133	132	132
B_{2g}	148	142		

Table 9 – Mode symmetry comparison between experimental $CsPb_2(Br_{1-x}I_x)$ ₅ (x = 0.00, 0.12 and (0.22) Raman spectrum positions and the DFPT Raman of the CsPb₂Br₅ crystal.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

5.3 Unraveling the Role of Iodide in the Photoluminescence

The partial substitution of bromine by iodine in the $CsPb₂Br₅$ crystal structure has significantly influenced the lattice parameters and the arrangement of the two-dimensional (2D) layers. This substitution increases interatomic distances, potentially resulting in notable modifications to the optoelectronic properties of the crystals. Previous studies conducted by (Li, P. *et al.*, 2018), (Tang *et al.*, 2018), (Ma *et al.*, 2019b) and (Sichert *et al.*, 2015) have extensively investigated the emission characteristics of CsPb₂Br₅ nanocrystals, microplates, and films, revealing a strong green emission peak centered at approximately 520 nm. Having explored the emission properties under various experimental settings, these investigations have offered insightful information into the PL behavior of $CsPb₂Br₅$ -based materials.

However, the PL mechanism of CsPb₂Br₅ has been a topic of extensive debate, as theoretical calculations suggest that it should exhibit low PL activity due to being an indirect bandgap semiconductor. Several proposals have been in contradiction, and one possible explanation is the presence of emissive $CsPbBr₃$ impurities within the $CsPb₂Br₅$ crystal lattice. These impurities may introduce localized states or defects that facilitate radiative recombination

and contribute to the observed PL signal. A similar phenomenon was observed in another compound within the Pb-Cs-Br phase diagram, $Cs₄PbBr₆$, where the PL emission was attributed to nano-inclusions of $CsPbBr₃$ as an extrinsic effect. In this case, the nano sized $CsPbBr₃$ inclusions act as efficient emitters due to their direct bandgap nature, which contrasts with the indirect bandgap of Cs4PbBr⁶ (Castro Ferreira, Araújo, Gómez, M. A. P., *et al.*, 2022a). It is plausible that a similar extrinsic effect involving CsPbBr³ nano-inclusions may contribute to the PL emission observed in $CsPb_2Br_5$.

In contrast, iodine pure crystals were characterized in nanocrystals form (Zhang *et al.*, 2020). The presence of I ion decreases the optical bandgap, which agrees with experimental absorption results in CsPb(Br,I)₃ perovskites (Wang et al., 2016). The PL spectrum of the single crystals $CsPb_2(Br_{1-x}I_x)$ ₅ (x = 0.00, 0.12, and 0.22) recorded at room temperature are presented in Figure 29.

The CsPb₂Br₅ displays a strong and continuous green PL around 525 nm (2.36 eV) after exposure to different excitation energies, as described in previous studies of nanoplates and thin films based on this compound. This PL behavior is reminiscent of other perovskite-related compounds, such as CsPbBr³ and Cs4PbBr6 (Akkerman, Abdelhady e Manna, 2018; Castro Ferreira, Araújo, Gómez, M. A. P., et al., 2022), which also exhibit bright green PL within a similar wavelength range. With the addition of iodine, the PL intensity increases, and its center shifts to 2.34 eV (528 nm) for $x=0.12$ and 2.32 eV (535 nm) for $x=0.22$. These shifts in the PL wavelength can be attributed to the expansion of the Pb-X bond distances caused by the incorporation of iodine. As the interatomic distances increase, the energy levels associated with the radiative recombination processes are affected, resulting in the observed shifts in the PL spectrum. The tunability of the optical properties, including both PL intensity and emission wavelength, makes $CsPb_2(Br,I)$ ₅ compounds promising candidates for applications in photodetectors and optoelectronic devices. The ability to control and tailor these properties through iodine substitution offers opportunities for designing materials with desired optical characteristics for specific device requirements.
Figure 29 – (a) The optical photoluminescence measurement spectra of the $CsPb_2(Br_1,xI_x)$ ₅ for $x=0$ (Black), $x=0.12$ (Blue), and $x=0.22$ (Green) sample, (b) the PL center modification over the substitution of the iodine content, and (c) the spectrum difference in intensity between the pure bromide crystal and the substitution samples.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

The family of inorganic 2D perovskite-related compounds $CsPb_2(Br_1,xI_x)$ ₅ was successfully synthesized and characterized. Through SCXRD analysis, we observed an interesting occupational disorder at the 16l site, with both Br and I ions occupying the same position. This disorder leads to structural distortions in the decagons and proper layers, expanding the crystal lattice parameters proportional to the difference in ionic radii between the two halogens. Raman spectroscopy studies further support the well-ordered crystal structure of $CsPb₂Br₅ compared to its iodine-substituted counterparts. The characteristic vibrational modes$ exhibit minimal shifts, indicating the structural integrity of $CsPb_2Br_5$ and stability upon iodine incorporation. This finding highlights the successful incorporation of iodine into the crystal lattice without introducing significant structural distortions.

Regarding photoluminescence (PL) properties, CsPb₂Br₅ demonstrates a continuous emission spectrum centered at 524.98 nm, corresponding to an energy emission of 2.36 eV. Introducing iodine in the CsPb₂Br₅ crystal notably results in a redshift of the PL center. Specifically, $CsPb_2Br_{4,4}I_{0,6}$ exhibits a PL center at 2.34 eV (528.1 nm), while $CsPb_2Br_{3,9}I_{1,1}$ displays a PL center at 2.32 eV (534.71 nm). Remarkably, all these materials exhibit intense green photoluminescence, indicating their potential for optoelectronic applications. The observed redshift in the PL center can be attributed to the expansion of the Pb-X bond distances, which alters the interatomic interactions and energy levels associated with radiative recombination processes. This modification in the crystal structure and electronic properties enables tuning the PL emission wavelength in the green spectral range. Additionally, the introduction of iodine leads to a significant enhancement in the intensity of photoluminescence in the $CsPb_2(Br,I)$ ₅ compounds.

6 Exploring the Electron-Phonon Coupling in the 2D CsPb2Br5.

Multiple reports have highlighted the exceptional properties of materials based on halide perovskites (MHPs) (McGehee, 2013, 2014; Yakunin *et al.*, 2015). The basic crystal structure of MHPs is a simple cubic lattice with the space group $Pm\overline{3}m$ and a general stoichiometric formula of ABX3, where A represents a monovalent isolated cation situated at the center of the unit cell with a cube-octahedral symmetry. The divalent metallic element B is located at the corners of the cube, coordinated by twelve halide ions X, with B and X organized as BX_6 octahedra (Huang *et al.*, 2017; Li, Z. *et al.*, 2018; Lin *et al.*, 2018).

Replacing organic cations with inorganic components has emerged as a promising approach to enhance the stability of perovskites (Hu et al., 2022). In this context, cesium-based perovskites have attracted significant attention due to their improved long-term stability against humidity and extreme conditions, making them promising candidates for efficient and durable photovoltaic devices (Zhang, J., Hodes, Jin e Liu, S., 2019). Pure inorganic halide devices based on lead and cesium $(CsPbX_3)$ have played a significant role in the field of photovoltaics, exhibiting a power conversion efficiency (PCE) of 17.1%, stable light absorption properties, and the ability to tune their properties through crystal polymorphism, thus showing potential for applications in light-emitting diodes (LEDs) (Protesescu *et al.*, 2015a) photodetectors, (Zhang, Z. *et al.*, 2018) lasers (Li *et al.*, 2017), and flexible electronics compounds (Yuan *et al.*, 2017).

Parallel to the advancements in CsPbX₃ achievements, its all-inorganic derivatives, Cs4PbX⁶ and CsPb2X5, have been rapidly developed (Cao et al., 2020; Castro Ferreira, Araújo, Gómez, M. A.P., et al., 2022; Cho e Yun, 2020). However, all these $Cs_xPb_vX_z$ materials share the same elemental components but exhibit entirely different connectivity patterns, such as octahedra or polyhedra. The CsPbX₃ adopts a three-dimensional (3D) perovskite for the cornershared octahedra along all three crystal axes, while $CsPb₂X₅$ is characterized by a sandwich arrangement of Pb-X planes formed by polyhedra regarded as a 2D phase (Lange *et al.*, 2020). Cs_4PbX_6 , on the other hand, features completely decoupled $[PbX_6]^4$ octahedra, resulting in a zero-dimensional (0D) structure. These low-dimensional cesium lead halide-related perovskites, including Cs_4PbX_6 and $CsPb_2X_5$, have garnered attention due to their excellent photophysical properties, including high photoluminescence quantum yields (PLQY), narrow emission linewidths, broad absorption spectra, high color purity, and tunable emission in the visible light region through halide substitution (Le et al., 2018; Yin et al., 2017).

In the case of $2D \text{CsPb}_2X_5$, the electronic bands are confined within the Pb-X planes and do not easily dissociate in all crystal dimensions, resulting in larger band gaps than $CsPbX₃$. The photoluminescence (PL) of CsPb₂Br₅ has been extensively studied, and different growth habits have been observed, leading to discrepancies in the PL values and origin mechanisms (Ghaithan *et al.*, 2020; Zhang e Yin, 2018). Two possible origins for the photoluminescence have been proposed: i) the emissive clusters of the CsPbBr₃ impurities (Shamsi *et al.*, 2019); and ii) the dominant intrinsic defects that facilitate exciton-assisted emission (Tan *et al.*, 2019). It has been described that CsPb2Br⁵ nanosheets are PL-inactive semiconductors (Li *et al.*, 2016). However, other studies have reported strong green PL in CsPb₂Br₅ microplates (Zhang, T., Chen, Zhihui, Shi e Xu, Q. H., 2019). On the other hand, (Bao e Hadjiev, 2019) found that nanosheets produced by converting CsPbBr₃ traces into CsPb₂Br₅, the nanostructures displayed a high PL centered at 514 nm. CsPb₂Br₅ nanoplates with a narrow emission peak of 530 nm were produced by (Sahoo et al., 2022). Thin films with a thickness of 100 nm showed a PL wavelength peak of 517 nm (Qin *et al.*, 2017), and (Li *et al.*, 2017) reported that CsPb₂Br₅ presented quantum dots (QDs) PL centered at 500-519 nm. Due to that discrepancy, the comprehensive analysis of the PL emission and its origin in $CsPb₂Br₅$ is related; the analysis was carried out at low-temperature experiments to provide a deeper understanding.

The CsPb₂Br₅, as an indirect bandgap compound, presents an electronic transition where phonons participate in the radiative electron recombination process (Hu *et al.*, 2016). Hence, it is more susceptible to electron-phonon interactions (Li, Wang e Li, 2020). Materials with strong electron-phonon coupling often display intrinsic electronic transitions, forming localized excitonic carriers that can contribute to diverse photoluminescence (PL) processes (Grancini e Nazeeruddin, 2018). Therefore, a comprehensive investigation was conducted to gain insights into the origin of the PL mechanism in $CsPb₂Br₅$ using low-temperature Raman spectroscopy and photoluminescence measurements. The analysis of low-temperature Raman spectra provides valuable information about the dynamics within the crystal lattice, particularly focusing on the influence of anharmonic effects. These effects have a significant impact on the behavior of the Raman modes, shedding light on the lattice dynamics and providing insight into the interaction between phonons and charge carriers, which in turn contributes to the understanding of the photoluminescence processes in $C₈Pb₂Br₅$.

6.1. Study of the emissive cluster traces on CsPbBr³ through Raman Spectroscopy

The room-temperature structure of CsPb₂Br₅ was determined using Single-Crystal X-Ray Diffraction (SCXRD), revealing a tetragonal structure with *I*4/*mcm* symmetry. The lowtemperature compound did not present structural phase transitions (Hadjiev et al., 2018). The group theory analysis indicates that the Br¹ atom, represented by the 4*c* site, does not contribute to the Raman-active phonons. On the other hand, the Cs atom at the *4a* site exhibits one active band with E_g symmetry. The Pb atom at the *8h* is associated with vibrational modes $A_{1g} \oplus B_{1g} \oplus B_{2g}$, which result from the shifting of lead cations from an off-centered position within the polyhedra surrounding the $16l$ site occupied by the $Br₂$ atom, which vibrations correspond to bendings directly linked to the atomic displacements of the polyhedra tip, possessing $A_{1g} \oplus B_{1g} \oplus B_{2g}$ symmetries.

To investigate the vibrational response of CsPb₂Br₅ over a wide temperature range, measurements were performed from room temperature down to 14 K. At low temperatures, the Raman peaks exhibit enhanced resolution and sharper profiles compared to those observed at higher temperatures (see Figure 30a). This improved spectral resolution enables a more detailed analysis of the vibrational modes and their corresponding frequencies. Lorentzian peak fitting was employed to quantify the temperature dependence of the Raman-active bands, determining the center parameter for each mode as a function of temperature. The results are presented in Figure 30b, demonstrating that no significant shifts in the Raman modes were observed across the investigated temperature range. The frequencies associated with the lattice vibrations, such as the mode at 156 cm⁻¹, indicate that the crystal lattice of $CsPb_2Br_5$ and its interaction with excitons are sensitive to temperature-induced changes in the lattice dimensions. These findings highlight the importance of considering the temperature effects on the lattice dynamics and their impact on the properties of $CsPb₂Br₅$.

Figure 30 – (a) The normalized Raman spectra of the CsPb₂Br₅ sample from 290 K until 14 K, and (b) the center low-temperature evolution of the Raman active modes.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Contrary to the findings (Hadjiev et al., 2018)*,* the low-temperature Raman spectra did not reveal any discernible peaks corresponding to the characteristic vibrations of CsPbBr3. Specifically, the absence of characteristics CsPbBr₃ phonons 28 cm⁻¹ and 32 cm⁻¹ provides compelling evidence to refute the hypothesis that the observed photoluminescence (PL) in CsPb₂Br₅ originates from emissive clusters of CsPbBr₃ impurities. The absence of CsPbBr₃related Raman bands strongly suggests that the observed PL in CsPb₂Br₅ samples can be attributed to intrinsic mechanisms within the crystal lattice. This finding is of great significance as it highlights the integrity of $CsPb_2Br_5$. The absence of $CsPbBr_3$ enhances the understanding and paves the way for optimizing the optoelectronic properties of CsPb₂Br₅. By discarding the CsPbBr³ contribution, it confidently focuses on investigating and manipulating the intrinsic mechanisms of the $CsPb₂Br₅$ crystal lattice, which plays a crucial role in the electronic carrier

dynamic. These results contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of the fundamental photophysical properties of CsPb2Br⁵ and provide valuable insights for developing advanced optoelectronic devices based on this material.

6.2. *The exciton dynamics and their contribution to electron-phonon coupling at lowtemperature.*

As previously reported, $CsPb_2Br_5$ has been shown to exhibit continuous green photoluminescence centered at 524.98 nm, corresponding to an energy emission of 2.36 eV. Notably, this investigation revealed intriguing changes in the photoluminescence spectra at low temperatures, particularly an enhancement in the emission intensity (Figure 31a). At 60 K, the low-dimensional nature of the compound manifested as a dual-emission band, as depicted in Figure 31b. It is plausible to attribute this phenomenon to the interplay between thermal expansion effects and the vibrational lattice dynamics, which lead to modifying the emission characteristics at elevated temperatures.

To further understand the underlying mechanisms governing the temperature-dependent photoluminescence behavior, it was analyzed the intensity ratio (*Inarrow/Inew*) as a function of temperature, as presented in Figure 31c. Remarkably, the intensity ratio exhibited a linear decrease with decreasing temperature, indicative of the involvement of prohibited states and the intricate dynamics of electronic carriers within the crystal lattice. These observations align with previous studies (Smith e Karunadasa, 2018; Yangui *et al.*, 2015), which have elucidated the role of forbidden states and carrier dynamics in dictating the optical properties of similar materials.

The observed a decrease in intensity which can be attributed to an energy process involving the thermal activation of trapped carriers (Peters *et al.*, 2021). This phenomenon has been previously observed in certain lead halide perovskites that exhibit narrow roomtemperature photoluminescence outside the $CsPbBr₃$ cluster hypothesis, and it is associated with the radiative recombination of free excitons (FE). The exciton strongly interacts with the lattice in these materials, leading to lattice distortions. As a result, the FE decays into an excited state associated with point defects, giving rise to a new exciton-exciton binding and recombination process. These lattice-induced deformations effectively stabilize the exciton, leading to a broad emission known as self-trapped excitons (STE) (Xu *et al.*, 2021). The energy of the STE peaks is typically only a few meV below that of the FE band and is often observed

near each other. STE in the photoluminescence spectra indicates localized exciton states forming due to strong exciton-lattice interactions. These self-trapped excitons contribute to the broadening and spectral shifts observed in the low-temperature photoluminescence spectra. The STE emission is commonly observed in the energy range close to that of the FE band, further confirming their interplay and the influence of lattice deformations on the optical properties of the material.

Figure 31 – (a) The low-temperature photoluminescence evolution spectra in the $CsPb_2Br_5$ sample, (b) the photoluminescence emissions from 60 K until 11 K where are displayed the emissions bands, and (c) the intensity relationship ratio between both emissions as a function of temperature.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Unlike the room-temperature PL, the self-trapped exciton (STE) emission in $CsPb_2Br_5$ occurs at significantly lower energies compared to the bandgap and the free exciton (FE) emission, owing to the higher potential energy associated with the ground state lattice deformation (Lin *et al.*, 2022). The formation of the self-trapped state involves a distortion in the lattice configuration, which requires an activation energy (E_{st}) for the STE emission to occur. This activation energy is a barrier that facilitates the stabilization and subsequent emission of the self-trapped excitons. In Figure 32a, the distinct PL bands in $CsPb_2Br_5$ are clearly illustrated. The blue curve corresponds to the narrow emission from free excitons in the FE band, while the red curve represents the self-trapped exciton emission arising from the recombination of excitons in the STE band. The presence of STE leads to the observed dualemission band, where both FE and STE contribute to the photoluminescence at low temperatures (Figure 32b). At high temperatures, the thermal energy is insufficient to overcome the activation energy barrier for self-trapping, making it difficult for electrons in the FE band to access the prohibited states associated with STE (Li, Wang e Li, 2020). Consequently, only the emission from free excitons is observed at higher temperatures, as the population of the selftrapped exciton states is limited. This temperature-dependent behavior explains the absence of STE emission at elevated temperatures and highlights the importance of the activation energy barrier in regulating the excitation and emission processes in $CsPb₂Br₅$.

$E(T) = E_0 + A_{TE}T + A_{EP} \left[\frac{2}{h\omega} + 1 \right]$ (8)	$E_{\rm g(T=0)}(eV)$	A_{TE} (meV/K)	A_{FP} (meV)	$\hbar\omega$ (meV)
	2.2920 ± 0.0005	47.772 ± 0.001	146 ± 13	43 ± 3
$I(T) = \left \frac{I_0}{1 + A_0 \frac{-E_A}{k \cdot T}} \right $ (9)	$I_0(\mu a.u)$	\mathbf{A}	E_A (meV)	
	1.1 ± 0.1		41 ± 2	
$\Gamma(T) = \Gamma_0 + \gamma_{ac} T + \frac{\gamma_{LO}}{e^{\frac{E_{LO}}{k h T}} - 1}$ (10)	Γ ₀ (meV)	γ_{ac} (meV/K) γ_{LO} (meV) $E_{\gamma_{LO}}$ (meV)		
	10.6 ± 0.5	27 ± 9	$68 + 9$	$32 + 3$

Table 10 – Fitted values of the adjustments for the PL center and FWHM parameters.

Source: Elaborated by the author

Figure 32 – (a) Nuclear coordinate diagram for the PL emissions in the CsPb₂Br₅, (b) the dualemission band energy as a function of temperature. $(GS = Ground State, FC = Free Carrier, FE)$ = Free Exciton, STE = Self-Trapped Exciton, E_g = Band Gap Energy, E_b = Activation Energy for FE process, E_{st} = Activation Energy for STE detrapping, $E_{PL, FE}$ = FE Photoluminescence,

and $E_{PL, STE} = STE$ Photoluminescence) and (c) the intense blue-green (teal) light-emitting photoluminescence of CsPb2Br5.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Based on the observed exciton-exciton recombination behavior in the broad PL band and the limited understanding of the physical origins of these low-temperature dependencies, a comprehensive analysis of the peak center position, intensity, and full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the novel band was not performed. However, to gain further insights into the strength of the electron-phonon coupling and the impact of lattice thermal expansion, the temperature dependence of the principal band associated with the free excitons (FE) was carefully examined. In this regard, the models presented in Table 10 were employed to fit the temperature-dependent behavior of the FE-related band. By employing these models, a systematic analysis of the FE band allowed for a more comprehensive understanding of the underlying mechanisms governing its temperature dependence. The fitting procedure provided valuable information about the electron-phonon interactions and the influence of lattice thermal expansion on the FE emission.

Figures 33a-c provide a comprehensive analysis of the temperature-dependent evolution of the investigated parameters, offering valuable insights into the underlying physics of CsPb₂Br₅. The energy-temperature relationship $E(T)$ (see Figure 18a) is described by the sum

of distinct contributions as an unrenormalized bandgap at $T = 0$ (E_0), the electron-phonon energy interaction (A_{EP}), the weight thermal expansion (A_{TE}), and $\hbar\omega$ representing the average optical phonon energy.

In the intensity model, several parameters play a crucial role in characterizing the photoluminescence behavior of the system. Firstly, I_0 represents the PL intensity at $T = 0$, providing insights into the initial emission intensity of the material. Additionally, E_A , the activation energy indicates the significant contribution of thermal dissociation of free excitons (FE) to enhance the PL intensities. This parameter captures the energy required for the thermal activation process that promotes the release of carriers and subsequent increases in PL intensity. The constant factor A , which depends on the luminescence lifetime, is crucial for understanding the dynamics of the emitted light (Sahoo et al., 2022). The A parameter reflects the interplay between radiative and nonradiative decay processes, providing insights into the radiative recombination efficiency and the excitonic states overall lifetime.

Turning to the full width at half maximum FWHM function, the associated parameters contribute to the broadening of the PL spectra. Γ_0 captures the scattering effects arising from disorder and crystallographic imperfections in the material. It represents the FWHM value at $T = 0$ K, reflecting the intrinsic broadening of the material in the absence of thermal effects. Moreover, the FWHM adjustment includes terms related to homogeneous broadening. Specifically, the Fröhlich coupling constants γ_{ac} and γ_{LO} account for the interaction between charge carriers and acoustic and longitudinal optical phonons (Iaru *et al.*, 2021). These terms contribute to the broadening of the PL spectra by influencing the dynamics of the excitonic states. Furthermore, the phonon energy, represented by E_{LO} , plays a crucial role in determining the energy scale associated with the phonon modes involved in the electron-phonon interactions. The analysis of E_{LO} , as depicted in Figure 32c, provides valuable insights into the vibrational properties of the material and their influence on the observed PL spectra.

Figure 33 – The FE PL parameters (a) center, (b) intensity, and (c) FWHM for $CsPb_2Br_5$.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

The analysis of S, characterizes the degree of interaction between electronic excitations and lattice vibrations, including the formation and dynamics of excitons, phonon-assisted processes, and the overall optoelectronic performance. A strong electron-phonon coupling regime signifies a significant coupling between the electronic and vibrational degrees of freedom, indicating a substantial exchange of energy and momentum between the charge carriers and lattice vibrations. Upon photogeneration of electrons and holes, it is observed that excitons in $CsPb_2Br_5$ quickly self-trap due to the availability and increased stability of selftrapped states in the presence of lattice distortion. The formation of self-trapped excitons (STEs) relies on strong electron-phonon coupling, which can be evaluated using the Huang-Rhys factor $S = A_{TF}/\hbar\omega$. This factor quantifies the strength of electron-phonon coupling by indicating the number of phonons emitted after carrier capture (Whalley *et al.*, 2021). Typically, a value of $S \gg 1$ indicates a strong coupling regime. In the case of CsPb₂Br₅, the determined value of S is approximately 4, indicating a strong electron-phonon coupling regime. This value is comparable to other halide perovskites, such as the inorganic counterpart CsPbBr₃ ($S = 3.22$) (Chen, Chen e Huang, 2023). However, it should be noted that $CsPb_2Br_5$ does not exhibit as significant room-temperature STEs emissions as observed in $Cs_3Sb_2I_9$ ($S = 42.7$), Rb₃Sb₂I₉

 $(S = 50.4)$, Cs₃Bi₂I₉ $(S = 79.5)$ (McCall *et al.*, 2017) or in one-dimensional hybrid perovskites such as $C_5H_{16}N_2Pb_2Br_6$ ($S = 54$), $[C_6H_7CIN]CdCl_3$ ($S = 62.94$)(Xu *et al.*, 2022), and $[C_7H_{10}N]_3[BiCl_5]Cl$ ($S = 45$) (Klement *et al.*, 2021), for the low-temperature STEs emissions.

However, at higher temperatures, the energy barrier between the FE and STE states impedes the simultaneous emission of both bands. This behavior can be attributed to the Fröhlich interactions present in $CsPb_2Br_5$, which manifest as an exciton-phonon coupling phenomenon. To further support this hypothesis, the strength of the exciton-phonon interaction by analyzing the FWHM of the photoluminescence spectra needs to be done. The obtained fitted values of γ_{ac} and γ_{LO} exhibit an interesting relationship, with γ_{LO} being approximately three times larger than γ_{ac} . This finding suggests a significant contribution of exciton-phonon coupling involving optical modes, commonly observed in two-dimensional lead halide semiconductors (Wang, Y. *et al.*, 2023). Notably, the γ_{LO} value in CsPb₂Br₅ (40-65 meV) is similar to reported for CsPbBr₃, which also exhibits broad emission from free excitons (FE) and a second band attributed to self-trapped excitons (STE) at low temperatures (Anni *et al.*, 2021; Li *et al.*, 2023). In contrast, the γ_{L0} values observed in Rb₃BiCl₆ (693.6 meV) and Rb3BiCl6:4.55%Sb (347.3 meV) (Zhou *et al.*, 2021) indicate multiple STE emissions. Electronphonon interaction in the sample, as indicated by the activation energy $E_A = 41$ meV, is closely tied to the exciton-phonon coupling characterized by the activation energy $E_{LO}=32$ meV. This coupling enables phonon-assisted electronic transitions, enhancing the photoluminescence intensity through the population of optical phonons.

6.3. Exciton Dynamics and Color Purity Revealed through CIE Chromaticity Diagram

To explore the potential applications of the intense teal-emitting photoluminescence in CsPb₂Br₅ for low-temperatures Light Emitting Diode (LEDs), a comprehensive investigation was conducted to analyze the influence of the spectral power distribution on the emission color. The analysis utilized the CIE 1931 color space curve, which characterizes the perceived human optical color based on the (x, y) chromaticity coordinates established by the Commission Internationale de l'Eclairage (CIE) (Zhu *et al.*, 2019). Figure 34 depicts the calculated chromaticity coordinates in the CIE-1931 plot for the single crystal of $CsPb₂Br₅$ across a range of temperatures, and the corresponding (x, y) values are provided in Table 11. As previously described, the chromaticity coordinate falls at room temperature in the green (teal) region. However, at low temperatures, a noticeable modification in the emission color is observed,

resulting in an intense green color, which has been associated with green luminescence in Cs-Pb-Br perovskites within the visible spectrum (Yin *et al.*, 2023).

The observed changes in the photoluminescence emission color of $CsPb_2Br_5$ can be attributed to the emergence of self-trapped excitons (STEs) at low temperatures. The presence of STEs significantly influences the intensity of the emitted light and leads to alterations in the chromaticity coordinates. This behavior aligns with the previous discussions regarding the pronounced dependence on STEs and emphasizes the importance of comprehending their role in determining the luminescent properties of low-dimensional materials. It is worth noting that the detection of novel contributions from STEs at low temperatures indicates the relaxation of the crystal structure, enabling the appearance of previously inaccessible states. Furthermore, the observed color transition in CsPb₂Br₅ highlights the tunability of the optical properties of these materials at low temperatures, thus paving the way for the development of innovative light-emitting devices.

Temperature (K)	CIE x	CIE y	Temperature (K)	CIE x	CIE y
300	0.13031	0.80233	120	0.15298	0.80309
280	0.12966	0.79938	100	0.16265	0.79734
260	0.12019	0.81115	80	0.17348	0.79275
240	0.12184	0.81128	60	0.19773	0.77497
220	0.12493	0.80943	40	0.23785	0.7417
200	0.12292	0.81526	30	0.24631	0.73648
180	0.13539	0.80537	25	0.25062	0.73329
160	0.13554	0.8109	20	0.25401	0.7309
140	0.14197	0.80924	15	0.25304	0.73207
120	0.15298	0.80309	11	0.25932	0.72706

Table 11 – Temperature-dependent chromaticity coordinates of CsPb₂Br₅.

Source: Elaborated by the author.

The investigation conducted at low temperatures on the $2D \text{ CsPb}_2Br_5$ compound has provided valuable insights into the origin of its photoluminescence. Through analysis using Raman spectroscopy, and definitively ruled out the possibility of CsPbBr₃ clusters as the source of the observed photoluminescence. The evolution of the photoluminescence spectra at low temperatures reveals an intriguing increase in emission intensity and the emergence of a dualemission band beyond 60 K.

Figure 34 – CIE-1931 color space with the temperature-dependent chromaticity coordinates of PL emissions of CsPb₂Br₅ (purple dots).

Source: Elaborated by the author.

Both emission processes are closely associated with the inherent electron-phonon interaction in the sample, which gives rise to excitons that carry the emission signals. Specifically, the narrow photoluminescence observed at room temperature can be attributed to the radiative recombination of free excitons, whereas the broad emission observed at low temperatures is ascribed to the presence of self-trapped excitons (STE). The fitting models employed in our study successfully confirm the strong electron-phonon coupling present in the $CsPb₂Br₅compound. Additionally, the exciton-exction recombination process highlights the$ significant effect of exciton-phonon coupling on the photoluminescence behavior. Furthermore, a detailed examination of the spectral power distribution was made by utilizing the CIE 1931 color space curve as a function of temperature. Overall, this study significantly contributes to our understanding of the photoluminescence characteristics of CsPb₂Br₅ at low temperatures. The identified emission processes, along with the confirmed electron-phonon coupling, shed light on the fundamental mechanisms underlying the optical properties of this material.

Conclusions

The primary aim of this work is to comprehensively investigate the structural properties relationship of perovskite-like compounds under extreme conditions. The research explores the low-temperature effects on the zero-dimensional $[(CH₃)₂NH₂]$ ₄BiBr₇ structure. Additionally, it focuses on the pressure-induced structural phase transition in the 2D structure of $CsPb_2Cl₅$, providing valuable insights into the materials response to high pressure. Also, it explores the influence of iodide doping on the perovskite-like properties of 2D CsPb₂X₅ (X = Br, I). Moreover, it investigates the electron-phonon coupling in 2D $CsPb_2Br_5$ to understand the mechanisms governing charge transport and phonon interactions.

In summary, the investigation conducted on the $[(CH_3)_2NH_2]_4BiBr_7$ hybrid perovskitelike at low temperatures has provided valuable insights into the correlation between distorted octahedra and their luminescent properties. By manipulating the internal angles within the $[BiBr₆]³$ octahedra, we were able to observe the emergence of novel self-trapped exciton (STEs) contributions, leading to a distinctive blue turquoise (425 nm) photoluminescence (PL) emission at 90 K. This observation highlights the ability of the material to generate excitonic states that are strongly localized within the crystal lattice. At lower temperatures, we also observed a notable blueshift in the PL profile, showcasing the material's capability to tune the color emission from blue turquoise to light violet as the temperature decreases. These findings demonstrate the potential of $[(CH_3)_2NH_2]_4BiBr_7$ as a versatile candidate for optoelectronic applications, where its luminescent properties can be finely tuned by controlling the temperature. Further investigations are warranted to fully comprehend the underlying mechanisms responsible for the emergence of self-trapped excitons and the observed blueshift behavior, which will contribute to developing novel photonic devices and advancements in the field of perovskite-based optoelectronics.

The structural phase transition of $CsPb₂Cl₅$ under pressure was thoroughly investigated using Synchrotron Powder X-ray Diffraction (SPXRD) and Raman spectroscopy. The experimental findings indicate a sequence of phase transitions from P_I : I4/mcm to P_{II} at 1.60 GPa: I4/m and subsequently to P_{III} at 5.16 GPa: C2. A comprehensive analysis of the Pb-Cl bond lengths (l_1 and l_2) and the Cl-Pb-Cl bond angles (θ_1 and θ_2) within the PbCl₈ polyhedral motif was conducted to gain further insights into the structural changes. The results suggest that both Pb-Cl bond lengths significantly contribute to the observed distortion, with l2 playing a

more dominant role. Moreover, bulk modulus calculations were performed for each phase, yielding values of Bo^{I-II} = 14 \pm 4 GPa and Bo^{III} = 27 \pm 3 GPa. These findings indicate that CsPb₂Cl₅ exhibits structural softness, making it suitable for applications in the flexible electronics industry. The Raman measurements further validate the critical influence of the l_2 bond length on the underlying mechanisms of the structural phase transitions in $CsPb₂Cl₅$, primarily associated with the continuous distortion of the PbCl₈ polyhedra. Notably, the Raman spectroscopy results confirm that, despite the observed distortion, the layered structure of $CsPb₂Cl₅ remains intact, consistent with the observations from SPXRD measurements.$

A family of inorganic 2D perovskite-related compounds was successfully synthesized and characterized, $CsPb_2(Br_{1-x}I_x)s$, where $x = 0.00, 0.12, 0.22,$ and 0.34. Through the analysis of single crystal X-ray diffraction (SCXRD) data, the occupational disorder was observed at the 16l site, with both Br and I ions occupying the same lattice position. This disorder induces structural distortions in the decagonal and layer structures, resulting in the expansion of crystal lattice parameters in proportion to the difference in ionic radii between the two halogens. Further investigation using Raman spectroscopy supports the notion of a well-ordered crystal structure in CsPb₂Br₅ compared to its iodine-substituted counterparts. The characteristic vibrational modes exhibit minimal shifts, affirming the structural integrity and stability of $CsPb₂Br₅$ upon incorporating iodine. This finding highlights the successful integration of iodine into the crystal lattice without introducing significant structural distortions.

Regarding the photoluminescence (PL) properties, $CsPb₂Br₅$ exhibits a continuous emission spectrum centered at 524.98 nm, corresponding to an energy emission of 2.36 eV. Introducing iodine into CsPb₂Br₅ crystal results in a noticeable redshift in the PL center. Specifically, CsPb₂Br_{4.4}I_{0.6} exhibits a PL center at 2.34 eV (528.1 nm), while CsPb₂Br_{3.9}I_{1.1} displays a PL center at 2.32 eV (534.71 nm). Remarkably, all these materials exhibit intense green photoluminescence. The observed redshift in the PL center can be attributed to the expansion of the Pb-X bond distances, which affects the interatomic interactions and energy levels associated with radiative recombination processes. This modification in the crystal structure and electronic properties enables precise tuning of the PL emission wavelength in the green spectral range. Additionally, introducing iodine significantly enhances the intensity of photoluminescence in the $CsPb₂(Br,I)₅$ compounds, further establishing their potential for optoelectronic applications.

The investigation conducted at low temperatures on the 2D CsPb₂Br₅ compound has yielded valuable insights into the origin of its photoluminescence. Through comprehensive analysis utilizing Raman spectroscopy, we have definitively ruled out the possibility of CsPbBr³ clusters as the source of the observed photoluminescence. The observed evolution of the PL spectra at low temperatures reveals intriguing phenomena, including increased emission intensity and the emergence of a dual-emission band beyond 60 K. These emission processes are closely associated with the inherent electron-phonon interaction within the sample, leading to the formation of excitons that carry the emission signals. Specifically, the narrow photoluminescence observed at room temperature can be attributed to the radiative recombination of free excitons, while the broad emission observed at low temperatures is recognized as the presence of self-trapped excitons (STE). The employed fitting models in our study successfully confirm the strong electron-phonon coupling in the $CsPb₂Br₅$ sample.

Furthermore, the analysis highlights the significant influence of exciton-phonon coupling on the photoluminescence behavior, specifically in the exciton-exciton recombination process. Moreover, we conducted a detailed examination of the spectral power distribution by utilizing the CIE 1931 color space curve as a function of temperature. This comprehensive study contributes significantly to our understanding of the photoluminescence characteristics of $CsPb₂Br₅$ at low temperatures. The identified emission processes, along with the confirmed electron-phonon coupling, shed light on the fundamental mechanisms underlying the optical properties of this material. These findings enhance our knowledge of the photoluminescence behavior of $CsPb_2Br_5$ and provide essential insights into its potential applications in optoelectronic devices, such as light-emitting diodes and photodetectors.

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