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Guanidinium and mixed Cesium-Guanidinium Tin(II) Bromides: Effects of Quantum Confinement and Out-of-Plane Octahedral Tilting

Olga Nazarenko,^{†,‡} Martin R. Kotyrba,^{†,‡} Sergii Yakunin,^{†,‡} Michael Wörle,[†] Bogdan M. Benin,^{†,‡} Gabriele Rainò,^{†,‡} Frank Krumeich,[†] Mikael Kepenekian,[§] Jacky Even, ^{||} Claudine Katan, [§] Maksym V. Kovalenko^{†,‡*}

† Laboratory of Inorganic Chemistry, Department of Chemistry and Applied Biosciences, ETH Zürich, Vladimir-Prelog-Weg 1, CH-8093 Zürich, Switzerland

[§] Univ Rennes, ENSCR, INSA Rennes, CNRS, ISCR (Institut des Sciences Chimiques de Rennes) - UMR 6226, F-35000 Rennes, France

Univ Rennes, INSA Rennes, CNRS, Institut FOTON - UMR 6082, F-35000 Rennes, France

‡ Laboratory for Thin Films and Photovoltaics, Empa – Swiss Federal Laboratories for Materials Science and Technology, Überlandstrasse 129, CH-8600 Dübendorf, Switzerland

24 **ABSTRACT:** Hybrid organic-inorganic main-group metal 25 halide compounds are the subject of intense research owing to their unique optoelectronic characteristics. In this work, we 26 report on the synthesis, the structure, and the electronic and 27 optical properties of a family of hybrid tin (II) bromide 28 compounds comprising guanidinium [G, C(NH₂)₃+] and mixed 29 cesium-guanidinium cations: G₂SnBr₄, CsGSnBr₄, and 30 Cs₂GSn₂Br₇, G₂SnBr₄ has a one-dimensional structure that 31 consists of chains of corner-sharing [SnBr₅]²⁻ square pyramids 32 and G cations situated in-between the chains. Cs⁺ exhibits a 33 pronounced structure-directing effect where a mixture of Cs+ and G cations forms mono- and bi-layered two-dimensional 34 perovskites: CsGSnBr4 and Cs2GSn2Br7. Furthermore, the flat 35 shapes of the guanidinium cations induce anisotropic out-of-36 plane tilts of the [SnBr₆]⁴⁻ octahedra in the CsGSnBr₄ and 37 Cs₂GSn₂Br₇ compounds. In G₂SnBr₄, the Sn lone pair is highly 38 stereoactive and favors non-octahedral, *i.e.*, square pyramidal 39 coordination of Sn(II). G₂SnBr₄ exhibits bright broadband 40 emission from self-trapped excitonic states, owing to its soft lattice and electronic localization. This emission in G₂SnBr₄ is 41 characterized by a PL OY of 2 % at room temperature (RT; 75±5 42 % at 77 K) and a fast PL lifetime of 18 ns at RT. 43

> Hybrid organic-inorganic tin (II) halide compounds are intensely researched as to their photophysics and electronic properties, which are all governed by the structural diversity of Sn(II)-halide anionic networks.¹⁻⁶ Such compounds are promising for application in light-emitting devices,⁶⁻⁸ solar cells⁹⁻¹⁰ and photodetectors.¹¹ The crystal structure of hybrid tin (II) halide compounds consists of Sn(II)-X (X = Cl, Br, I) coordination anionic networks and organic cations. Sn(II)-X units can arrange themselves into a vast variety of structures: from extended three-dimensional (3D) structures composed of

Sn(II)-X coordination polyhedra connected by corners, edges and faces to isolated polyhedral units (0D-compounds) with a plethora of structures in-between.^{1, 3, 12-16} The Sn(II)-X units thus far observed experimentally include trigonal pyramids (coordination number, CN, of 3),¹⁷⁻¹⁸ seesaws (CN = 4),⁶ square pyramids (CN = 5),^{5, 19} and, most commonly, octahedral units (CN = 6).^{1, 20} The coordination geometry of the Sn(II) ion is a complex interplay that involves the effects of the stereoactivity of the 5s-lone pair as well as the geometry of the organic cation and the interactions of the cation with inorganic units such as hydrogen bonding. Satisfactory rationalization (and prediction) of these effects on the atomistic and electronic structure of the resulting compounds remains a formidable challenge.

The electronic band structure of hybrid Sn(II) halide compounds at the band gap is formed mainly by Sn 5*p* and 5*s* orbitals, and halide n*p* orbitals. Non-conjugated organic amines do not significantly contribute to frontier orbitals.²¹⁻²² In hybrid tin (II) halide perovskite structures, such as $(C_6H_5CH_2CH_2NH_3)_2SnI_4$, the ns² pair of Sn defines an antibonding character of the valence band maximum by coupling with the *p* orbitals of halogen atoms.²² The bandgap depends on the dimensionality and connectivity of the Sn(II)-X units, the atomic number of the halogen, and distortions of the metal-halide polyhedra (governed by the organic moiety).^{1, 23-²⁴ For instance, the optical bandgap of the 3D CH₃NH₃SnI₃ is 1.26 eV, whereas the 2D $[C_6H_5(CH_2)_2NH_3]_2SnI_4$ has an optical absorption edge at 1.97 eV.²⁵}

In the context of real-world applications, low-dimensional hybrid Sn(II) halides might eventually be of use as bright light emitters for lighting and other applications. For instance, 0D $(C_4N_2H_{14}Br)_4SnBr_3I_3$ [organic cation is N,N'-dimethylethylene-1,2-diammonium] demonstrates bright, yellow, broad-band photoluminescence (PL) with a quantum yield (QY) of ~85 % and a large Stokes shift (>100 nm) and a full width of half

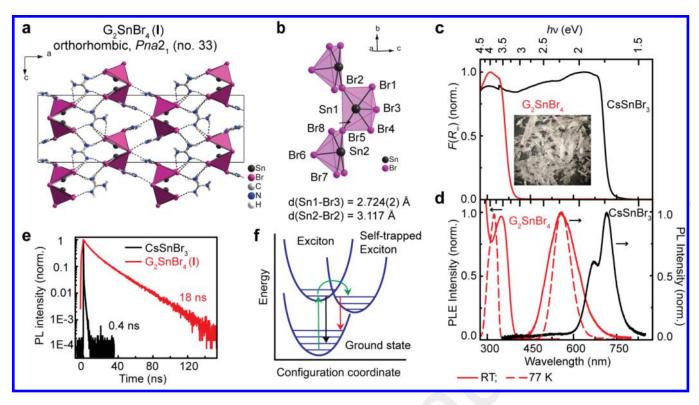


Figure 1. (a, b) Crystal structure of guanidinium tin bromide - G_2SnBr_4 (I). (c) Kubelka–Munk function $F(R_{\infty}) = (1-R_{\infty})^2/2R_{\infty}$ (R_{∞} -diffusive reflectance) of CsSnBr₃ and I. (d) Photoluminescence (PL) and PL excitation (PLE) spectra measured on powdered crystals of CsSnBr₃ and G₂SnBr₄ (I). (e) Time resolved PL traces of CsSnBr₃ and I at room temperature (RT). (f) A schematic of the formation of self-trapped excitons.

maximum (FWHM) - 126 nm.7 The corresponding compound, (C4N2H14Br)4SnBr6, containing exclusively bromide, exhibits a QY close to 100 %.8 The structure of these compounds comprises SnX₆⁴⁻ octahedra isolated by organic cations. Such emission characteristics are attributed to the emission from socalled self-trapped excitons, which are characterized by high binding energies and a low probability of interaction with intrinsic defects.²⁶ Self-trapped excitons form due to a combination of electronic localization of an electron-hole pair (exciton) and structural distortion that occurs fast upon photoexcitation (Figure 1f), which lead to a Jahn-Teller-like distortion in the excited state.²⁷ Hybrid 0D main-group metal halides are characterized by a soft lattice, strongly favoring the formation of self-trapped excitons due to facile structural distortion (exciton-phonon coupling). Radiative relaxation of self-trapped excitons leads to broad-band emission with a large Stokes shift as reported recently for a wide range of Sn(II) and Sb(III) halides.^{3, 6-8, 28-29} In comparison, the emission from 3D CH₃NH₃SnI₃ results from free-excitonic states and the PL band is characterized by a small Stokes shift, a narrow full-width at half-maximum (FWHM), and a fast radiative lifetime.^{12, 30}

Both organic and inorganic constituents determine the resulting crystal structure. Thus, organic cations such as formamidinium $[CH(NH_2)^+, FA]$ facilitate the formation of the 3D perovskite network of FASnI₃.¹² However, the use of large cations, such as phenethylammonium $[C_6H_5(CH_2)_2NH_3^+]$, typically results in a layered structure.²² A cation that is only slightly larger than FA – guanidinium – forms a layered G₂SnI₄ perovskite crystal structure with corrugated Sn-I layers.³¹ Guanidinium is a highly symmetric molecule (D_{3h}) and a potential contributor of six hydrogen bonds. The G cation, due to its larger-than-FA ionic radius, destabilizes the 3D perovskite network of corner-shared Sn-X octahedra.³² Instead, GSnI₃ forms a 3D network composed of Sn-I octahedra with mixed connectivity: corner- and face-sharing.¹ The appealing attributes of the G-cation are its high thermodynamic stability, strong hydrogen bonding capabilities, and high basicity with pK_a = 13.6 due to resonance stabilization by 6-8 kcal/mol.³³⁻³⁴ In a G-Sn-Cl system, there are two known compounds: 1D G₂SnCl₄ and the 3D perovskite-like GSnCl₃.³⁵⁻³⁶ Unlike G₂SnI₄, where the building blocks are Sn-I octahedra, G₂SnCl₄ has square pyramidal Sn(II) surrounded by Cl ions. So far, no compounds were reported in the G-Sn-Br system.

Herein, we investigated the G-Sn-Br and the mixed-cation Cs-G-Sn-X (X – Br, I) systems, wherein the effect of the additional smaller cation on the obtained structure can be probed. In our study we did not succeed in obtaining quaternary mixed Cs-G-Sn(II) iodides, observing instead known ternary G₂SnI₄^{1,31} and CsSnI₃ phases.³⁷ Therefore, the focus has been on the bromide systems. We have synthesized G₂SnBr₄ (I) (Figure 1a) and compared it to CsSnBr₃, and subsequently explored mixed Cs/G phases. G₂SnBr₄ is a 1D, luminescent compound with broadband PL and a PLOY of 2 % at RT. It is thermally stable up to 300 °C. Two layered perovskite compounds CsGSnBr₄ (II) and Cs₂GSn₂Br₇ (III) were obtained and characterized in terms of their crystal structure, electronic structure, and optical properties. They reveal significant quantum confinement and that the planar shape of the G cation induces significant structural and electronic anisotropy. We then compare these structural effects to those in homologous lead-based compounds.

METHODS

Chemicals, reagents and synthetic procedures. Guanidinium carbonate (G_2CO_3 , 99+ %), hydrobromic acid (HBr, 48 % water solution), Sn powder (99.8 %, ~325 mesh) were purchased from Acros.

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Cesium bromide (CsBr, 99%), hydroiodic acid (HI, 57% water solution stabilized with 1.5 % hypophosphorous acid, H₃PO₂) was obtained from ABCR. Tin(II) bromide (SnBr2, 99.2 %) was obtained from Alfa Aesar. All chemicals were used as received without further purification.

All syntheses and further manipulations with the products were performed under inert conditions (argon or nitrogen atmosphere) using Schlenk technique. Temperatures of the syntheses, stated below, correspond to the temperatures of the glycerol bath used as a source of heat. The syntheses were conducted in 10-20 ml Schlenk vessels equipped with a stirring bar.

G₂SnBr₄ (I) was crystallized from HBr. Briefly, 0.250 g (2.1 mmol) of Sn powder was dissolved in 3 ml of HBr (degassed under stirring in Ar 10 atmosphere for ~20 min beforehand); this mixture was stirred for 10 min at RT and then heated in the glycerol bath at 85-90 °C. When all Sn 11 dissolved, 0.378 g (2.1 mmol) of G₂CO₃ were slowly added. A strong 12 evolution of gas was observed (CO_2) . The reaction mixture was then 13 stirred for an additional 5 minutes resulting in a clear colorless solution, whereupon the stirring and the heating were discontinued. 14 Colorless transparent needles crystallized upon cooling and were 15 separated by vacuum filtration under Ar flow. The product was dried 16 under vacuum at 65-70 °C for 6 h. Yield - 41 % (with regard to the initial 17 [Sn]).

18 CsSnBr₃ was synthesized from stoichiometric quantities of Sn and CsBr precursors in HBr. Briefly, 0.180 g (1.5 mmol) of Sn were dissolved in 19 3-ml of HBr as described above. Next, 0.320 g (1.5 mmol) CsBr was 20 added, and a black precipitate formed immediately. A mixture was 21 stirred for an additional 5 min at 105 °C. Further manipulations with 22 the product were identical to those with G2SnBr4.

23 Cs2GSn2Br7 (III). 0.107 g (0.9 mmol) of Sn powder was dissolved in 3 ml of HBr, stirred for 10 min at RT and then heated to 85-90 °C. When 24 all Sn dissolved, 0.486 g (2.7 mmol) of G₂CO₃ and 0.1915 g (0.9 mmol) 25 of CsBr were slowly added. A strong evolution of gas (CO₂) was 26 observed and a black precipitate formed. The reaction mixture was stirred and kept at 85-90 °C for about 5 minutes until a slightly 27 yellowish solution resulted. Next, the stirring and heating were 28 discontinued, and the mixture was cooled down under a stream of cold 29 tap-water. Initially, some black precipitate of CsSnBr3 crystallized out 30 (Figure S1). In a few minutes, red crystals started appearing and the black powder re-dissolved. The mixture was left for one week for 31 further crystallization. Finally, the red product was separated by 32 vacuum filtration under an inert atmosphere and dried under vacuum 33 at 65-70 °C for 6 h.

34 Cs₈Sn₆Br₁₃I₇ was crystallized from a solution of hot HI and HBr acids 35 under N₂. CsBr (0.500 g, 2.350 mmol) was first dissolved in HBr (4.0 mL) and HI (1.0 mL) solution in a 10 mL Schlenk reaction tube and 36 sparged with N₂ while stirring at RT for 30 min. SnBr₂ (0.111 g, 0.399 37 mmol) was then added and a black precipitate formed. This mixture 38 was then heated with a glycerol bath until an orange solution resulted (110 °C). The stirring and heating were discontinued, and the solution 39 was cooled to RT. Within an hour orange needles crystallized out. The 40 solution was left overnight for further crystallization. The product was 41 separated by vacuum filtration under $N_{\rm 2}$ and dried overnight under 42 vacuum (70-80 °C). A yield of 50.8% was estimated relative to initial [Sn]. 43

Characterization. Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were collected in transmission mode (Debye-Scherrer-Geometry) with a STADI P diffractometer (STOE& Cie GmbH) equipped with a curved Ge (111)-monochromator (CuK α 1 = 1.54056Å) and a silicon strip MYTHEN 1K Detector (Fa. DECTRIS). For the measurement, a ground powder was placed between an adhesive tape (for CsGSnBr4 and Cs₂GSn₂Br₇) or sealed in a 0.3 mm glass capillary (for G₂SnBr₄ and CsSnBr3). Single-crystal XRD measurements were conducted on

Bruker Smart Platform diffractometer equipped with an Apex I CCD detector and molybdenum (MoK α = 0.71073 Å) sealed tube as an X-ray source. Crystals were tip-mounted on a micromount with paraffin oil. The data was processed with the APEX3 software package,³⁸ and the structure solution and refinement were performed with SHELXS³⁹ and SHELXL,⁴⁰ respectively, which are embedded in Olex2.⁴¹ The crystal structures were solved with direct methods, light elements (C, N) were located in the difference Fourier map, and hydrogen atoms were placed at calculated positions. The crystallographic data for the reported tin halide compounds were deposited at the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre (CCDC) under the codes 1854819 (G₂SnBr₄), 1854833 (Cs₂GSn₂Br₇), 1854838 (CsGSnBr₄), as well as at the Inorganic Crystal Structure Database (ICSD), i.e., card number 434800 for Cs₈Sn₆Br₁₃I₇. UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectra of the microcrystalline powders were collected using a Jasco V670 spectrophotometer equipped with deuterium (D₂) lamp (190 - 350 nm) for use in UV and halogen lamp (330 – 2700 nm) for use in UV/NIR, and an integrating sphere detector (ILN-725) with a working wavelength range of 220 - 2200 nm. The diffuse reflectance data were transformed with Kubelka-Munk model into the absorption/scattering ratio spectrum. Photoluminescence spectra were measured with a CCD fiber spectrometer (LR1, Aseq Instruments) with a 355 nm excitation source (frequency-tripled, picosecond Nd:YAG laser, Duetto from Time-Bandwidth). PL emission from the samples passed through a long-pass optical filter with an edge at 400 nm in order to reject the excitation laser line. PL spectra were corrected to the spectral sensitivity of the detection system. For temperature-dependent PL measurements, a sample of CsSnBr3 was placed atop of a 4-stage Peltier cooling/heating element in an evacuated chamber with a quartz window. The sample temperature was adjusted and stabilized with an accuracy of 0.25 °C by a homemade electronic scheme based on an Arduino microcontroller and thermocouple sensor. The current through the Peltier was reversible, thus the setup provided a wide working temperature range of -40 - 120 °C. This is an open-source project by the authors, deposited and described in details at https://www.researchgate.net/project/Highpower-thermoelectric-cooler-TEC-controller-with-4-stage-Peltierrefrigerator-heater. Time-resolved photoluminescence (TR-PL) measurements were performed using a time-correlated single photon counting (TCSPC) setup, equipped with an SPC-130-EM counting module (Becker & Hickl GmbH) and an IDQ-ID-100-20-ULN avalanche photodiode (Quantique) for recording the decay traces. The average radiative lifetimes were determined as: $\tau_{avg} = \frac{\sum_{l=1}^{2} \tau_{l}^{2} \cdot A_{l}}{\sum_{l=1}^{2} \tau_{l} \cdot A_{l}}$, where A_{l} and τ_{l} are the corresponding amplitudes and exponential decay parameters in the biexponential analysis. For measurements of PL and PLE spectra at low temperature (77 K), the sample was encapsulated in a quartz tube filled with Ar gas and placed in a homemade cryostat. Low temperature (77 K) and RT absolute PLQY were measured with excitation at 340 nm using Quantaurus-QY spectrometer from Hamamatsu. The sample was encapsulated in a quartz tube filled with Ar gas. PL measurements at lower temperatures (in the case of Cs₂GSn₂Br₇), down to 5 K, were conducted in a helium cryostat and PL spectroscopy was performed by exciting the sample with a frequencydoubled Ti:Sapphire mode-locked laser delivering pulses of about 150 fs duration at 400 nm and a repetition rate of 80 MHz. The timeintegrated PL was analyzed using a CCD-coupled grating spectrometer, whereas TR-PL traces were recorded with a streak camera. Thermal analysis [thermogravimetry (TG) and differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)] was performed using a Netzsch Simultaneous Thermal Analyzer (STA 449 F5 Jupiter). A powdered sample of G2SnBr4 (21.9 mg) was placed in an alumina crucible (without a lid) and heated under Ar gas flow (50 ml/min) to 850 °C (10 °C min-1). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was carried out on a Quanta 200F microscope (Thermo Fisher Scientific) operated at an acceleration voltage of 20 kV.

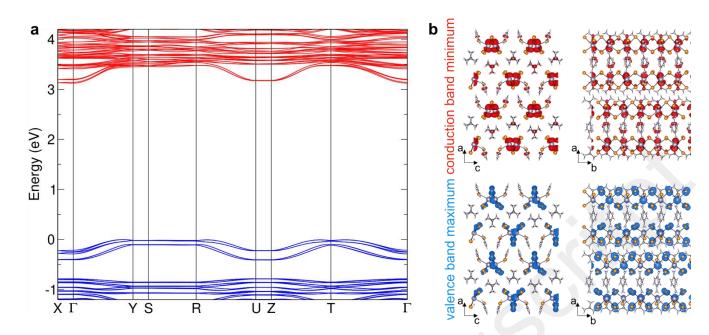


Figure 2. (a) Electronic band diagram of G_2SnBr_4 (I) computed by DFT. No dispersion can be observed except in the direction of the 1D chains [010] ($\Gamma \rightarrow Y$, $R \rightarrow U$, and $Z \rightarrow T$ paths). The space group $Pna2_1$ is a polar space group. Therefore, a Rashba splitting of the band edge states is predicted both in the conduction and valence bands away from the Y, R and T critical points of the Brillouin zone. (b) Representation of the electronic densities of the conduction (red) and valence (blue) edge states.

Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDXS) was performed with an Octane SDD detector (EDAX, Ametec) attached to the microscope column. For spectra recording and quantification (ZAF correction), the software Gemini (EDAX) was used.

Computational details. First-principles calculations were performed with experimental crystal structures using density functional theory (DFT) as implemented in the SIESTA package.⁴²⁻⁴³ Calculations have been carried out on experimental structures with the GGA functional in the PBE form.⁴⁴ Core electrons were described with Troullier-Martins pseudopotentials,⁴⁵ while valence wavefunctions were developed over double-ζ polarized basis set of finite-range numerical pseudoatomic orbitals.⁴⁶ Spin-orbit coupling was taken into account through the onsite approximation as proposed by Fernández-Seivane *et al.*.⁴⁷ In all cases, an energy cutoff of 150 Ry for real-space mesh size was used.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

All presented compounds were crystallized from hydrobromic acid (HBr, 48 % water solution) under Argon atmosphere using Sn powder, CsBr, and G2CO3 as precursors. G2SnBr4 (I), obtained from stoichiometric quantities of G and Sn(II), crystallizes as colorless transparent needles. Compound I was then characterized by single-crystal XRD (Figures 1a, b, S2, Table S1-S4) and found to crystallize in the orthorhombic crystal system, space group Pna21. This structure consists of corrugated chains oriented along [010] (i.e., extended in b direction), comprising corner-sharing square pyramids -[SnBr₅]²⁻. The formation of such pyramids emphasizes the stereoactivity of the lone pair of Sn(II). The G cations are situated in the space between the chains and connect them via hydrogen-halogen bonds into a 3D supramolecular structure (Table S2). Two non-equivalent pyramids can be identified, which connect in an alternating manner. In both kinds of pyramids, Sn atoms are displaced out of the basal planes (by 0.23 and 0.24 Å, for Br1Br2Br5Br4 and Br2Br5Br8Br7 planes, respectively, Figure 1b). The Sn-Br bond lengths are in the range of 2.724(2)-3.117 Å, which is comparable to the

distances found in (NH₄)SnBr₃×H₂O (2.623-3.047 Å), where Sn(II) has the same square-pyramidal coordination.⁴⁸ The shortest Sn-Br bond is with the Br ion at the apex of the pyramid. G₂SnBr₄ (I) has a similar crystal structure as G₂PbBr₄, which contains an alternating orientation of [PbBr₅]²⁻ square pyramids in 1D chains.⁴⁹ The 1D character is confirmed by inspection of the DFT electronic structure (Figure 2). Indeed, the band diagram (Figure 2a) exhibits an indirect bandgap of 3.12 eV, and no dispersion of the edge state bands is observed except when following a path corresponding to the [010] crystal direction. Furthermore, the computed electronic edge state densities exhibit sizeable overlaps, but only along the *b* crystallographic direction (Figure 2b) thus confirming the 1D character of the density of states close to the bandgap. It is also worth noticing that a Rashba splitting of the band edge states is observed both in the conduction and valence bands away from the Y, R and T critical points of the Brillouin zone as a result of the polar space group $Pna2_1$ assigned to (I). Sn-I square pyramidal units were also observed when using larger cations, such as $[C_3H_7N(C_2H_4)_3NC_3H_7]^{2+.19}$ G₂SnBr₄ (I) is thermally stable up to at least 300 °C (see TGA/DSC analysis in Figure S3). Two endothermic processes without mass loss occur before the decomposition at around 146 and 190 °C and indicate melting and/or other structural transitions.

Studies on a ternary 3D phase – the black $CsSnBr_3$ – date back to as early as the 1970s. $CsSnBr_3$ crystallizes in a cubic perovskite crystal structure (space group Pm-3m, Figure 3a) and melts congruently at 450 °C.⁵⁰⁻⁵² A phase transition to a tetragonally distorted lattice appears upon cooling to below 19 °C.⁵² The yellow $CsSnI_3$ crystallizes in the orthorhombic crystal system. $CsSnI_3$ is a 1D compound composed of edge-sharing [SnI_6]⁻¹ octahedra,⁵³ and converts into a cubic 3D phase only at 152 °C.⁵² Similarly, $CsPbI_3$ is known to crystallize in a 3D-lattice (cubic, space group Pm-3m) at higher temperatures and

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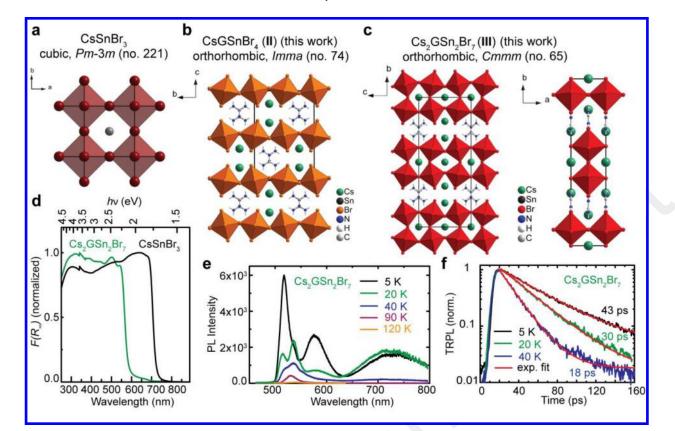


Figure 3. (a) Crystal structure of cubic 3D-perovskite CsSnBr₃. (b, c) Crystal structure of two-dimensional perovskites: CsGSnBr₄ (II) and Cs₂GSn₂Br₇ (III). (d) Kubelka–Munk function of CsSnBr₃ and III at RT. (e) Selected low-temperature PL spectra of III. (f) Selected low-temperature time-resolved PL spectra of III.

converts into 1D-phase, analogous to 1D-CsSnI₃, within the 329 - 290 °C temperature range.⁵⁴

We were then interested to see the effect of Br-I mixing in the Cs-Sn-X system. Interestingly, the addition of iodide with [I]/[Sn] = 19/1 (in concentrated HBr) leads to the precipitation of Cs₈Sn₆Br₁₃I₇ in the form of orange needles. It crystallizes in the orthorhombic crystal system, space group Cmcm (Tables S5-S7) and consists of layers of corner (through µ2-Br) and edge-sharing (through μ_3 -I ions) distorted [SnBr₄I₂]^{-1%} and [SnBr₃I₃]^{-1%} octahedra (Figure S4a, b). Iodide has one full and two partially occupied positions that are shared with bromide ions. The Cs+ cations are situated in-between, as well as within, Sn(II) halide layers. There are two types of crystallographic surroundings for the Sn(II) ions; one characterized by the presense of a very weak Sn-I bond of 3.723 Å - in [SnBr₃I₃]-1¹/₆ octahedra (see Sn1 atom in Figure S4b). The Sn2-I1 distances within [SnBr₄I₂]⁻¹^{2/3} are 3.454 Å, which is in the range of d(Sn-I) in CsSnI₃, 2.942 - 3.470 Å.⁵³ Based on powder XRD analysis, Cs₈Sn₆Br₁₃I₇ was obtained as a pure phase (Figure S4c) with a homogeneous composition that was estimated with EDX (Figure S5a-c). The same structural motif was found in Cs_{2.38}Rb_{1.62}Sn₃Cl₈I₂, recently reported by Li, et al., 55 obtained by solid-state reaction. The optical band edge of Cs₈Sn₆Br₁₃I₇ lies at 2.23 eV (Figure S6a, b), which is 0.58 eV smaller than the optical bandgap of Cs2.38Rb1.62Sn3Cl8I2.55

By comparing the experimental powder XRD patterns with those simulated from single-crystal XRD data obtained herein (except for CsSnBr₃, where ICSD card 4071 was used), I and CsSnBr₃ were determined to be phase-pure (Figure S7, S8). CsSnBr₃ also appears to contain amorphous CsSnBr₃ (Figure S8), which can explain the partially-resolved component at 650-700 nm in the PL spectrum (Figure 1d). We then obtained two mixed guanidinium-cesium tin bromides: CsGSnBr4 (II, orange colored) and Cs₂GSn₂Br₇ (III, red-colored), as a mixture of crystals. Both compounds are layered perovskites (Figure 3b, c). The formation of these phases was found to be in strong competition with the crystallization of compounds I and CsSnBr₃. Cs₂GSn₂Br₇ (III) was obtained as the dominant phase, with CsGSnBr₄ (II) as a major impurity (below 10 %, Figure S9) at a molar ratio of Cs/G/Sn = 1/6/1. Optical absorption analysis of the sample of Cs₂GSn₂Br₇ by a Kubelka-Munk function points to a possible trace quantity of a rather amorphous CsSnBr₃ thus giving rise to a small shoulder in the 650-700 nm region (Figure 3d). Both II and III crystallize in the orthorhombic crystal system, namely in Imma (II) and Cmmm (III) space groups, respectively (Figure 3b, c, Table S1). The crystal structures of II and III consist of 2D perovskite layers of corner-sharing [SnBr₆]⁴⁻ octahedra that are separated by cesium and guanidinium cations. The derivation of these structures can be visualized by cutting the parental cubic CsSnBr₃ perovskite lattice along the (100) crystallographic plane and adding the octahedral tilting (discussed later in detail). The importance of the mixed-cation design for obtaining 2D-perovskites had been previously reported for the analogous CsGPbBr(I)4 and Cs₂GPb₂Br₇ compounds.⁴⁹ Compound II contains monolayers of corner-sharing octahedra (Figure 3b), whereas compound III features double layers, connected via corners (Figure 3c). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first tin bromide featuring multi-layers. The perovskite slabs are mutually shifted in-plane by a vector a/2 (a being an ideal cubic cell vector, Figure 3c). Cs⁺ and G

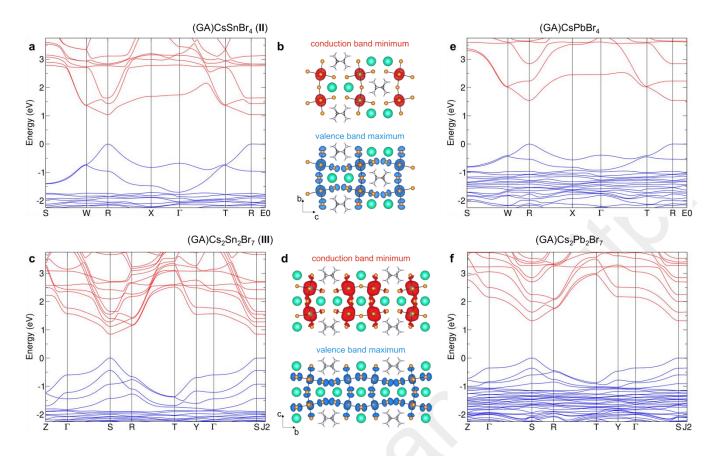


Figure 4. (a) Electronic band structure and (b) representation of the electronic densities of the conduction (red) and valence (blue) edge states (at the R point of the *Imma* Brillouin zone) of CsGSnBr₄ (II). R \rightarrow E0 corresponds to the stacking direction. (b) and (d), same for Cs₂GSn₂Br₇ (III). S \rightarrow J2 corresponds to the stacking direction. (e) Electronic band structures of CsGPbBr₄ and (f) Cs₂GPb₂Br₇. Electron densities are computed at the R point for II (b) and S point for III (d).

cations in **II** and **III** are both situated in the interlayer space. and alternate with each other in a periodic manner. In Cs₂GSn₂Br₇ (III), cesium cations also fill the voids within the perovskite layers. G forms hydrogen bonds with the bromide ions from the perovskite layers (Table S8, S9). G cations are closely packed with intermolecular d(C···N) distance of ca. 3 Å. Due to the difference in ionic radii of the Cs⁺ and G cations and the planar shape of the latter, Sn-Br octahedra are tilted in an alternating manner along the crystallographic axis b and c for II (Figure 3b) and III (Figure 3c left), respectively. This generates smaller cavities for Cs⁺ and large voids for G cations. However, in the in-plane direction (for instance along the crystallographic axis *a* for III. Figure 3c right) the planar shape of the G cation and small atomic radius of Cs+ lead to the absence of steric strain with almost perfectly collinear Sn and Br atoms and subsequently longer Sn-Sn distances (6.011 and 5.965 Å for II and III, respectively). This might contribute to an observed disorder in atomic positions of bromide along this direction. In CsGSnBr₄ (II), d(Sn-Br) = 2.909(2)-3.006(1) Å, are comparable to Sn-Br distances in a CsSnBr₃ cubic phase [d(Sn-Br) = 2.898 Å].⁵⁰ Sn-Br-Sn angles are in the range of 155.9(5)-180.0° (Figure S10). CsGSnBr₄ and CsGPbBr₄ both crystallize in the space group *Imma*, and are isotypic.⁴⁹ III is isotypic to Cs₂GPb₂Br₇, and crystallizes in the space group *Cmmm*.⁴⁹ The average Sn-Br distances for III are in the range of 2.915-2.987(1) Å (for additional crystallographic data for II and III. see Tables S10-S13). The interlayer Br... Br distances along the stacking direction (c and b for II and III, respectively) are rather short: $d(Br \cdot \cdot \cdot Br) = 4.161 \text{ Å}$ in CsGPbBr₄ (II) and $d(Br \cdots Br) = 4.070 \text{ Å in } Cs_2GSn_2Br_7 (III).$

In 3D perovskites, the critical point of the Brillouin zone where a direct bandgap is observed is either the R-point,⁵⁶ for the cubic Pm-3m phase, or the Z-point for the distorted tetragonal P4/mbm phase (Figure S11). In both cases, the critical wavevectors have the point symmetries of their respective lattices (m-3m and 4/mmm). Similar symmetry considerations lead to critical wavevectors located along the stacking directions at the X (0,0,1) and Y (0,1,0) high-symmetry points for II and III, respectively, in the Imma and Cmmm Brillouin zones (both with point groups *mmm*). However, DFT simulations (Figure 4a and c) show that the electronic bandgaps are predicted to be direct at the R (0.5.0.0.5) and S (0.5,0.5,0) points of the Brillouin zones of II and III, respectively. In both cases, the point symmetry of the critical wavevector is reduced from mmm to 2/m. This can be related to the anisotropy of the out-of-plane octahedral tilts, which is directly induced by the shape of the G cations. The octahedral tilting is clearly apparent only in the (b,c) crystallographic planes (Figure 3-b and c). The difference between II and III lies in the fact that the (b,c) plane contains the stacking axis along c for **II** and along *b* for **III**. Furthermore, due to lattice distortions, the periodicity of the electronic density is doubled along b(c)for **II** (**III**), in contrast to the *a* direction. In turn, the valence band maxima and the conduction band minima show different hybridizations along all three directions (Figure 4b, 4d, and Figure S12) as well as different band dispersions (Figure 4a and c). Both compounds II and III exhibit flat dispersions along the stacking axis despite the short Br-Br distances, a characteristic feature of 2D systems. Analogously to CsSnBr₃ (Figure S11) and contrary to I (Figure 2), the bandgap remains

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direct in both **II** and **III** (Figure 4a and c) with a systematic decrease of the bandgap values with the decrease of dimensionality and thickness of perovskite layers. These variations in DFT bandgap energies (Table S14) are related to the equivalent quantum well thickness ($n = 1, 2 \text{ or } \infty$), which is roughly doubled when going from CsGSnBr₄ (**II**) to Cs₂GSn₂Br₇ (**III**) as a result of quantum confinement.

6 To experimentally probe the energy bandgaps in these hybrid 7 tin bromide compounds, an optical absorption analysis by 8 means of a Kubelka-Munk function as well as PL measurements 9 were performed (Figure 1c,d, 3d,e). The Kubelka-Munk 10 absorption representation was derived from the diffuse 11 reflectance spectra of powdered samples, and was estimated as 12 $F(R_{\infty}) = \alpha/S = (1-R_{\infty})^2/2R_{\infty} [F(R_{\infty}) - Kubelka-Munk units, \alpha$ absorption coefficient, S - the scattering coefficient, and R_{∞} - the 13 reflectance of an infinitely thick layer]. Here we neglected the 14 influence of excitonic effects on the absorption, because the 15 excitonic band cannot be consistently resolved for all 16 compounds and thus correctly de-convoluted from the 17 bandgap absorption edge. Hence the bandgap can be slightly 18 underestimated. The optical bandgap energies for I, III and 19 CsSnBr₃ were determined by plotting $[F(R_{\infty})\cdot h\nu]^r$ versus $(h\nu)$ 20 (hv - the incident photon energy, r = 2 for direct bandgap 21 semiconductor, and r = 1/2 for indirect bandgap semiconductor; Figure S13a,b). The highest absorption edge 22 energy (ca. 3.11 eV) was found for G₂SnBr₄ (I) (Figure 1c), 23 which is in agreement with its lowest electronic dimensionality 24 (1D). The 3D cubic CsSnBr₃ has the smallest bandgap energy 25 (1.74 eV, in agreement with literature⁵⁷), whereas the 2D 26 Cs₂GSn₂Br₇ (III) has an intermediate bandgap value of 2.16 eV 27 (Figure 3d). Compound II could not be obtained in the phase-28 pure form needed for diffuse reflectance (only individual small crystallites could be selected for a single-crystal XRD analysis). 29 However, the visual appearance of II pointed towards an 30 expected higher bandgap in comparison to III (orange vs. red). 31 Despite the well-known underestimation of bandgaps, such a 32 decrease is predicted from DFT calculations (Figure 4 and 33 Table S14) with 1.04 eV for II and 0.84 eV III. Cs2GPb2Br7 has a 34 larger optical experimental bandgap than III, by 0.44 eV (2.60 35 eV vs. 2.16 eV).49 A similar scenario was observed for the pair 36 of (C₆H₉C₂H₄NH₃)₂SnBr₄ (2.5 eV optical bandgap) and its lead analog (2.9 eV).⁵⁸ This might be a result of the difference in the 37 E_3 ionization energies between tin and lead $[E_3(Pb) = 31.94 \text{ eV}]$ 38 and $E_3(Sn) = 30.5 \text{ eV}$, the effect of the additional polarizability 39 (presence of filled diffuse *d* and *f* orbitals below the valence 40 electrons in Pb), and the distortions of the M-X (M = Sn, Pb) 41 octahedra. A different degree of tilting of the MBr₆ octahedra is 42 observed for Cs2GPb2Br7 and III (Figure S14), with stronger 43 deviations from the ideal 180° for the lead compound. Interestingly, despite the different tilts of the octahedra, the 44 angles are at the end compensated in a manner that gives the 45 required amount of space for guanidinium and cesium cations. 46 Figure 4e and f report the computed band structures for the 47 lead-based analogs of compounds II and III that share many 48 similarities with the tin-based layered perovskites (Figure 4a 49 and c). Both for II and III, the predicted electronic bandgaps 50 follow the same trends as the above mentioned experimental results. For instance, the bandgap increases from 1.04 eV (Sn) 51 to 1.55 eV (Pb) for II and from 0.84 eV (Sn) to 1.32 eV (Pb) for 52 III. 53

Both $CsSnBr_3$ and I are luminescent at RT, unlike II and III. The PL of G_2SnBr_4 (I) at RT is characterized by a broad emission

band (Figure 1d) with a FWHM of *ca*. 121 nm, 2 % PLQY, and a large Stokes shift of *ca.* 208 nm. At 77 K, the PLQY reaches 75±5 % and the PL band narrows (FWHM ~72 nm) while retaining the same peak position at 557 nm with a Stokes shift of 233 nm. Additionally, the PL excitation spectrum at 77 K is blue-shifted compared to that at RT. CsSnBr3 exhibits a PL maximum at 1.70 eV (Figure 1d) at RT, which is consistent with the literature value.57 In the PL spectrum of CsSnBr3, a shoulder was observed at the higher energy side, which seems to originate from an amorphous or nanocrystalline CsSnBr3 impurity.59 A blue shift of the emission bands of CsSnBr3 was observed when the temperature increased from 228 to 383 K (Figure S15). This trend is consistent with previous temperature-dependent PL theoretical and experimental studies and is explained by the lattice expansion upon heating and local displacements of the Sn(II) cation.^{57, 60-61} Large differences in the width of the PL bands and Stokes shifts for G₂SnBr₄ (I) and CsSnBr₃ indicate different radiative processes in these compounds. Timeresolved PL measurements (Figure 1e) yielded a PL lifetime of 0.4 ns for CsSnBr₃ and 18 ns in compound I. The short lifetime, the small Stokes shift and the narrow PL band attest to the excitonic nature of the radiative transition in CsSnBr₃. On the contrary, the longer PL lifetime and larger Stokes shift and broader FWHM point to emission via self-trapped excitons in compound I (Figure 1f). Importantly, the PL lifetime in 1D G₂SnBr₄ is much faster (18 ns) than that commonly found in 0D Sn(II)-halides (10²-10³ ns for bromide) at RT.^{6-8, 28} This might eventually lead to a practical advantage, for instance, in the context of applications such as white-light sources,^{7-8, 27} as the achievable saturated emission brightness scales with the PL lifetime.

For II and III, which are structurally more rigid and exhibit a delocalized electronic structure that reduces the propensity to form self-trapped excitons, the PL was measurable only at cryogenic temperatures (5 K - 120 K, Figure 3e). At 5 K, the main band peaks at 517 nm with an additional emission band around 577 nm. A broad emission band above 700 nm is also visible. Due to the very low PLQY and presence of different phases within the same sample, it is difficult to draw solid conclusions. Yet one can attribute the main emission bands to free excitons or self-trapped excitons with low stabilization energy (due to hindered structural distortion as compared to 0D and 1D-compounds). Finally, the lowest energy band might stem from surface defects. By increasing the temperature, the PL intensity quickly drops due to the activation of nonradiative processes. We have performed time-resolved PL measurements with a streak camera system, and the results are displayed in Figure 3f. The measured sub-100-ps decay times and their dependence on temperature attest to the presence of non-radiative processes, which efficiently quench radiative recombination.

In conclusion, we presented a highly luminescent at 77 K 1Dcompound G₂SnBr₄, as well as layered 2D-perovskites CsGSnBr₄ and Cs₂GSn₂Br₇. In G₂SnBr₄, the Sn(II) lone pair is stereoactive and influences the coordination environment of Sn(II). G₂SnBr₄ is a luminescent compound with broadband emission from self-trapped excitonic states that are enabled by the soft-lattice and electronic localization. This emission is characterized by PL QY of 2 % at RT and 75±5 % at 77 K. G₂SnBr₄ does not thermally decompose until 300 °C. The addition of cesium to the G-Sn-Br system promotes the formation of structurally more rigid, layered perovskite compounds, obscuring the formation of self-trapped excitons but leading to a delocalized electronic structure. $Cs_2GSn_2Br_7$ has a smaller bandgap than its lead analog, $Cs_2GPb_2Br_7$, due to the difference in E_3 ionization energies of tin and lead, higher electronegativity of Pb, as well as the different degree of structural distortion. Lastly, in-plane electronic coupling is anisotropic as a result of the planar shape of the guanidinium cation, which leads to significant octahedral out-of-plane tilting in only one of the two directions.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website. The Supporting information contains additional data on single crystal and powder XRD, thermal analysis, optical characterization, as well as EDX spectroscopy and electronic structure calculations.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*mvkovalenko@ethz.ch

Notes

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