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Room-Temperature-Processing Fullerene Single-Crystalline Nanoparticles for High-Performance Flexible Perovskite Photovoltaics

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ABSTRACT: Organic-inorganic hybrid perovskite solar cells (PSCs) employing a mesoporous metal-oxide scaffold are now at the forefront of solution-processing photovoltaic cells, yielding a power conversion efficiency exceeding 23%. However, processing temperatures of up to 450 °C are typically required to sinter the mesoporous metal-oxide scaffolds, which hinders the fabrication of low-cost and flexible devices. Moreover, these metal-oxide scaffolds usually suffer from high charge carrier recombination rates and inherent UV instability. In this paper, we develop for the first time an organic-scaffold architecture, which consists of room-temperature-processing C₆₀ single-crystalline nanoparticles (C₆₀-NPs) serving as an electron selective contact covering on C₆₀ compact films (c-C₆₀). C₆₀-NPs act as a three-dimensional framework to support perovskite crystals, enabling it to cover the substrate more uniformly and thus demonstrating an advantage over planar heterojunction PSCs. Furthermore, the higher electron mobility of C₆₀-NPs compared with commonly-used TiO₂ enhances the charge transfer from perovskite to electron transport layers and reduces charge carrier accumulation at the interface, demonstrating the advantage of an organic scaffold over inorganic metal-oxide for mesoporous scaffold PSCs. A power conversion efficiency (PCE) of 19.45% was obtained in organic-scaffold MAPbI₃-based perovskite solar cells (OPSCs), outperforming standard reference devices based on a TiO₂ mesoporous scaffold (maximum PCE = 17.07%). Furthermore, the high UV stability of C₆₀-NPs enables the realisation of ultra-stable OPSCs stressed in ambient conditions and working under both UV and full-sun illumination. Moreover, the devices can be easily processed under low temperatures, providing an efficient method for the large-scale

production of flexible PSCs. These flexible PSCs show remarkable performance with an excellent PCE of 17.28 %, which is among the highest values reported for MAPbI₃-based flexible PSCs to date. This work reveals that organic nanostructures as n-type charge collection layers are ideal replacements for the inorganic mesoporous scaffold as they achieve remarkably high efficiency and long-term operational stability in both rigid and flexible perovskite solar cells.

Organic-inorganic hybrid perovskite solar cells (PSCs) have made impressive advancement since they were first discovered in 2009, and their power conversion efficiency (PCE) has developed from 3.81 to 23.2% by means of solvent engineering, interface engineering, and composition engineering, which comes close to the performance of polycrystalline silicon photovoltaics.^{1–12} Two dominant device architectures, namely planar heterojunction and mesoporous scaffold structures, have been developed.^{13–16} The planar heterojunction PSCs are either fabricated layer by layer *via* high-vacuum deposition or the solution-based method.^{5,16,17} However, the high-vacuum deposition method requires complex equipment and consumes energy, while the formation of homogeneous film using the low-cost solution-processing method is difficult due to the dewetting process and sensitivity to the atmosphere.^{17–19} Because of these limitations, most efficient devices still employ a mesoscopic TiO₂ scaffold as an electron-selective layer despite the significant progress made on planar PSCs.^{20–24} However, the preparation of inorganic metal oxide nanostructures as a mesoporous scaffold is complex and requires sintering at a high temperature of > 450 °C, which makes them unsuitable for flexible PSCs.²⁵ Therefore, the development of a low-temperature-processing electron-selective scaffold is urgently needed.

Fullerene and its derivatives are among the most widely-used n-type materials in organic electronic devices as they have both a suitable energy level alignment and superior electron mobility.^{26–29} Furthermore, fullerene materials can be easily processed into single-crystalline nanostructures at room temperature, such as zero-dimensional nanoparticles, one-dimensional nanowires, and two-dimensional nanoribbons.^{30–35}

Therefore, developing fullerene nanostructures as a room-temperature-processing organic electron-selective scaffold would constitute a significant development for PSCs. In this paper, we report a novel perovskite solar cell architecture based on a single-crystalline C₆₀ nanoparticles (C₆₀-NPs) scaffold. The single-crystalline C₆₀-NPs is simply prepared at room temperature and is then deposited by spin-coating onto a C₆₀ compact layer (c-C₆₀) to form the organic scaffold. As a three-dimensional skeleton, C₆₀-NPs improve the wettability between the C₆₀ compact layer and the precursor for the CH₃NH₃PbI₃ (MAPbI₃) film, thereby enabling perovskite crystals to cover the substrate more uniformly and decrease the defect concentration of perovskite film. Moreover, compared to the conventionally-used electron-transport architecture – the compact TiO₂ layer/mesoporous TiO₂ scaffold (c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂), the proposed organic scaffold architecture enhances electron extraction and transport and reduces charge accumulation at the interface. The organic-scaffold MAPbI₃-based perovskite solar cells (OPSCs) achieved an average PCE of (18.41 ± 0.54) %, a value significantly higher than standard reference PSCs based on c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ (maximum PCE = 17.07 %). Furthermore, due to the high UV stability of C₆₀-NPs, this approach facilitates the realisation of ultra-stable PSCs that are stressed in ambient conditions and work under both UV and one-sun illumination. Notably, OPSCs retain 80% of their initial performance after 720 h of continuous stress testing in ambient conditions under one-sun illumination at continuous maximum power, thus approaching the standards required for industrial stability. Most importantly of all, the devices can be easily processed under low temperatures, offering an efficient method for the large-scale

production of flexible PSCs. These flexible PSCs exhibit remarkable performance with an excellent PCE of 17.28 % and good mechanical tolerance, which is among the highest values reported for flexible PSCs to date.

The C₆₀-NPs were formed in a solvent mixture of toluene and ethanol, following the method described by Andrievsky *et al.*^{36,37} The nanoparticles that we obtained were then filtered and moved into vigorously stirred ethanol and a highly concentrated dispersion containing 5 mg mL⁻¹ of C₆₀-NPs was then prepared. Finally, the as-prepared C₆₀-NPs dispersion was spin-coated onto a thermally deposited C₆₀ compact layer to form the organic scaffold architecture. Further details regarding preparation can be found in the **Experimental Section** (Supporting Information). It is important to note that the whole preparation process was conducted at room temperature without any thermal treatment.

To characterise the morphology of as-prepared nanoparticles, the atomic force microscope (AFM) and transmission electron microscope (TEM) images in **Figure 1a and b** were presented to show that the C₆₀ particles used are very uniform. As shown in the distribution curve in **Figure S1** (Supporting Information), The average sizes of the nanoparticles were calculated to be (76.22 ± 18.40) nm by measuring the diameter of 200 nanoparticles. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) results (**Figure 1c**) indicate that the as-prepared C₆₀ nanoparticles are crystalline and the marked periodicity 0.803 nm corresponds to the spacing distance of the (111) plane. The selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern of individual C₆₀-NP is shown in **Figure 1d**. The presence of discrete diffraction points in the SAED patterns was

observed, indicating single crystallinity of the nanoparticle. The XRD patterns of the C_{60} -NPs (**Figure 1e**) can be indexed with a face-centred cubic (FCC) crystal system, where it is notable that the (200) reflection is missing. The extinction of the (200) reflection is typical of pristine FCC C_{60} crystals.³⁸ The lattice constant of the C_{60} -NPs is $a = 1.413$ nm, which consists well with the 1.415 nm value of pristine C_{60} crystals.³⁹ We have previously reported that the highly-ordered molecular organisation of organic single crystals can remarkably enhance their charge transport properties.³³ Therefore, the single-crystalline nature of as-prepared C_{60} -NPs is beneficial for charge transfer when using them as a charge transport layer, which may also significantly reduce charge accumulation at the interfaces. Spin-coating C_{60} -NPs dispersion onto a C_{60} compact layer can form a dense, pinhole-free film (**Figure 1f**). Additionally, the c - C_{60}/C_{60} -NPs that were prepared showed enhanced transmittance in the visible region compared to c -TiO₂/m-TiO₂ (**Figure S2**, Supporting Information). This high transparency can effectively avoid the parasitic absorption of the perovskite absorber to maximize the resultant photocurrent of the relevant PSCs.⁴⁰

As shown in **Figure 2a-c**, the organic-scaffold architecture inherits the basic structure of PSCs with an inorganic mesoporous scaffold.¹³⁻¹⁵ In this architecture, the inorganic nanocrystal scaffolds are replaced with organic C_{60} -NPs networks that can be processed at room temperature, as noted previously. The fabrication of organic-scaffold perovskite solar cells (OPSCs), which is included in details in the **Experimental Section** (supporting information), is similar to that of PSCs based on an inorganic mesoporous scaffold. The surface wettability of the contacted film is important for the

formation of a high-quality MAPbI₃ film.²⁸ The dewetting of C₆₀ compact thin films can result in MAPbI₃ film with incomplete coverage and a non-uniform film after solution-processing and subsequent baking.^{41,42} According to the literature, the dewetting of thin films becomes completely suppressed following the addition of a small amount of C₆₀-NPs, which stabilises the film by apparent pinning.^{42–45} Therefore, the employment of C₆₀-NPs in this experiment may improve the wettability between the C₆₀ compact film and the precursor solution for the perovskite film. To study the effect of C₆₀-NPs on surface wettability, we measured the contact angles of MAPbI₃ precursor solution on different surfaces. As shown in **Figures 2d and e**, the contact angle of MAPbI₃ precursor solution on the C₆₀ compact film was 62.7°, which is much larger compared to C₆₀ films covered with C₆₀-NPs (16.1°). Thus, the wettability between the C₆₀ compact film and the perovskite precursor solution can be significantly improved by C₆₀-NPs, which may facilitate the spreading of the perovskite precursor solutions and the formation of high-quality MAPbI₃ films. For comparison, we also examined the wettability of c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ film in which the perovskite precursor has a contact of 38.5°, a value significantly higher than that for an organic scaffold (c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs). Therefore, it was expected that higher-quality perovskite films can be formed on an organic scaffold (c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs) than on an inorganic scaffold (c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂). To verify this hypothesis, SEM observation was carried out. **Figures 2g and h** present top-view SEM images of the perovskite films with and without an organic scaffold. Perovskite films without a scaffold display pinholes and bare substrates, raising the risk of short circuits. By contrast, perovskite films on a scaffold shown

continuous and complete coverage, demonstrating an advantage above planar heterojunction PSCs. Furthermore, uniformly spread organic scaffolds work as TiO₂ scaffolds but, compared to perovskite films on TiO₂ scaffolds, can also support perovskite crystal growth with larger grain sizes of up to several micrometres (**Figure 2h and i**). Moreover, organic scaffolds can be prepared in a less costly and much simpler way, which further demonstrates the advantage of an organic scaffold over an inorganic mesoporous scaffold for perovskite solar cells.

To compare the charge generation efficiency, we measured the optical absorption of MAPbI₃ films on an organic scaffold and an inorganic mesoporous scaffold, the data for which are displayed in **Figure 3a**. The absorption intensity of MAPbI₃ film on an organic scaffold (c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs) is a little stronger than that on an inorganic mesoporous scaffold (c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂). This may be due to the larger perovskite grains.

In addition to the efficiency of charge generation, charge-carrier mobility also affects the performance of the device. Low mobility of the electron transport layer (ETL) indicates more traps and will slow down charge transport. This could lead to charge accumulation at the interface, which will induce an energy barrier to suppress the charge transport.⁴⁶ To compare the charge transport properties in the organic and inorganic scaffolds, we measured the mobility of c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs and c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ films following the space-charge-limited-current (SCLC) method,⁴⁷ the results of which are presented in **Figure 3b**. The mobility of the c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs film was found to be approximately $1.2 \times 10^{-2} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, which is much higher than that of c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂

$(4.2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1})$. This indicates that, compared to c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ architecture, c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs architecture can offer more rapid charge transport through the ETLs.

The interfacial charge transfer process plays vital role in the charge recombination and device efficiency.⁸ To understand the charge transfer process in PSCs, the steady-state photoluminescence (PL) and time-resolved photoluminescence (TRPL) spectra were collected to reveal the charge transport behavior at the interface of ETL/perovskite.^{48,49} **Figure 3c** shows the PL spectra of perovskite, c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂/perovskite and c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs/perovskite. The spectra of the perovskite films all showed an emission peak of ~770 nm, which is typical of MAPbI₃, but in each case the intensity of the peak was substantially less than that of the peak for MAPbI₃ on glass. It is clear that both c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs and c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ underlayers quenched the perovskite emission, and the c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs underlayer exhibited stronger quenching compared to the c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ underlayer. This indicates that c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs allowed more efficient electron extraction and transport from perovskite to the ETLs. Moreover, we investigated the TRPL lifetimes for perovskites on ITO, ITO/c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs, and ITO/c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂. As shown in **Figure 4d**, The TRPL plots were fitted *via* a biexponential Equation (1)

$$f(t) = A_1 \exp(-t/\tau_1) + A_2 \exp(-t/\tau_2) + B \quad (1)$$

where τ_1 and τ_2 are slow and fast decay time constants, respectively, A_1 and A_2 are their corresponding decay amplitudes, and B is a constant.⁵⁰ For the MAPbI₃ sample, the τ_1 and τ_2 were 69.32 and 12.79 ns, respectively. When the inorganic mesoporous scaffold c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ was introduced, the τ_1 and τ_2 both decreased to 48.10 and 8.70

ns, respectively. When the organic scaffold c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs was introduced, the τ_1 and τ_2 decreased further to 43.84 and 3.79 ns, respectively. Apparently, the perovskite/organic scaffold system can provide a faster electron transfer process and lower interface recombination in compared with the perovskite/inorganic mesoporous scaffold system. Therefore, the charge transportation and injection get improved and less charge accumulation occurs at the interface of ETL/perovskite, thus leading to the reduced hysteresis behavior in the device with organic scaffold, as discussed in the following section.^{20,28,51} Moreover, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was also employed to investigate the interfacial carrier transfer and recombination kinetics in PSCs.⁸ **Figure S3a** shows the Nyquist plots measured in dark condition with the equivalent circuit in the inset for the devices with the c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ and c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs ETLs, respectively. The high frequency semicircle is attributed to the transport resistance (R_{tr}), whereas the low frequency part is determined by the recombination resistance (R_{rec}).⁵² Due to the simplified transmission line model, the high frequency semicircle is almost indistinguishable and the Nyquist plots in **Figure S3a**, showing a main semicircle at low frequency, is according to the recombination processes. As shown in **Figure S3b**, the recombination resistance is closely related with the applied bias with the fitted R_{rec} values of the organic scaffold devices much higher compared with inorganic scaffold devices. Therefore, the organic scaffold devices can inhibit the charge carriers recombination and improve the interfacial charge transfer.

Figure S4 (supporting information) shows the typical device structure of the n-i-p perovskite solar cell which consists of Gold/Spiro-OMeTAD/MAPbI₃/m-TiO₂/c-

TiO₂/fluorine doped tin oxide (FTO)/glass. This device served as a control device for comparison. To examine the performance of the c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs organic scaffold, we fabricated OPSCs by replacing the TiO₂ compact and mesoporous layers with the C₆₀ compact layer and C₆₀-NPs. For OPSCs based on an organic scaffold, the ETL formation did not need the high-temperature processing. Therefore, an indium-tin oxide (ITO) electrode with higher transmittance than the FTO electrode in a visible range was utilised as a cathode on a glass substrate. A C₆₀ compact layer with a thickness of 10 nm was deposited on the ITO/glass substrate using thermal evaporation in a vacuum environment upon which C₆₀-NPs were then spin-coated as an organic scaffold. The MAPbI₃ was then deposited onto the C₆₀-NPs scaffold and the hole transport material Spiro-OMeTAD was spin-coated on top of the MAPbI₃ layer. Lastly, the anode, Gold, was thermally evaporated to finalise the device fabrication. Further details concerning device fabrication can be found in the **Experimental Section** (Supporting Information). A schematic diagram and cross-sectional SEM image of the final device are displayed as **Figures 4a and b**.

Figure 4c depicts the typical *J-V* characteristics of the champion devices based on c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs and c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ under AM 1.5 G illumination. The average values and standard deviations of key photovoltaic parameters are summarised in **Table 1**. Firstly, we investigated the effect of the thickness of C₆₀-NPs on photovoltaic performance of perovskite solar cells. **Figure S5a** shows dependence of PCE (measured from reverse scan) on C₆₀-NPs thickness. As shown in **Figure S5b-e**, in absence of C₆₀-NPs, *i. e.* when the thickness of C₆₀-NPs is 0 nm, the cells gave relatively lower open-

circuit voltage (V_{OC}), short-circuit photocurrent density (J_{SC}) and fill factor (FF) compared to the cells employing C_{60} -NPs. This is due to the lower-quality perovskite crystals formed directly on C_{60} compact layer and the relatively poor electron collection ability of C_{60} compact layer due to small contact surface. When employing C_{60} -NPs as organic scaffold, PCE changed mainly due to change of FF as shown in **Figure S5**. The optimum thickness of C_{60} -NPs that exhibited the highest PCE at 19.45% was determined to be 50 nm. PCE decreased as the C_{60} -NPs thickness increased over 50 nm. This was due to decreased conductivity of thick C_{60} -NPs that increased the series resistance of the device and resulted in lower FF (**Figures S5d, e**). PCE also decreased as the C_{60} -NPs thickness decreased below 50 nm. Considering that the C_{60} -NPs has a particle size from 40 to 100 nm, this performance reduction was possibly due to pinholes or tunneling recombination on the thinnest C_{60} -NPs layer. When applying the optimized C_{60} -NPs thickness, the PSC based on c- C_{60} / C_{60} -NPs yielded the highest PCE of 19.45% with a V_{OC} of 1.08 V, a J_{SC} of 22.79 mA cm⁻², and an FF of 0.79, clearly outperforming the PSCs based on c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ ETLs. The best-performing reference cell using c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ ETLs gave a J_{SC} of 22.10 mA cm⁻², V_{OC} of 0.99 V, FF of 0.78, and PCE of 17.07%. These values are comparable with those of a previous report on devices with the same structure.⁵³ The improved photovoltaic performances of the c- C_{60} / C_{60} -NPs devices can be attributed to the following causes: 1) the high electron mobility of c- C_{60} / C_{60} -NPs facilitated electron extraction and transport from perovskite to the ETLs, effectively hindering charge recombination at the ETL/perovskite interface; 2) C_{60} -NPs well supported the perovskite active layer which has large grains

and fewer grain boundaries; 3) The uniform MAPbI₃ films formed on the c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs substrate improved interfacial contact between the MAPbI₃ layers and the electron transport layers and, furthermore, reduced recombination centres in the perovskite films; these results in the enhanced photovoltaic properties. It has previously been reported that the fullerene layers can effectively passivate the charge trap states in perovskite and eliminate the hysteresis in PSCs.⁵⁴ *J-V* curves, shown in **Figure 4c**, indicate that the commonly observed hysteresis in c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ PSCs is virtually negligible in the devices based on c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs.

The incident photon-to-electron conversion efficiency (IPCE) spectra of the PSCs based on different ETLs are displayed in **Figure 4d**. The integrated current densities calculated from the IPCE spectra are 21.41 and 22.19 mA cm⁻² for solar cells based on c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ and c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs, respectively. These are in good agreement with the *J*_{SC} values achieved from the *J-V* curves. **Figure 4e** shows the stabilised photocurrent density and power conversion efficiency at the maximum power point (0.89 V). A stable output efficiency of 19.37% was demonstrated. The performance reproducibility of OPSCs was studied by characterising 50 devices in the same batch. Histograms displaying the key parameters of these devices (**Figure 4e** and **Figure S6-S9**) indicate excellent reproducibility.

Owing to the photocatalytic activity of TiO₂, the ETL employing it tends to result in the degradation of PSCs under UV light.⁵⁵ Eliminating this unwanted effect is significant for the practical application of PSCs.⁵⁵ **Figure 5** presents the long-term stability studies of PSCs stored under three different aging conditions: i) under darkness

at 25 °C in 40% relative humidity without encapsulation; ii) under continuous UV illumination (1 mW cm^{-2} , $\lambda = 365 \text{ nm}$) at 25 °C in 40% relative humidity without encapsulation; iii) under continuous full-sun illumination at the maximum power point tracking (MPPT) at 25 °C in 40% relative humidity with encapsulation. It can clearly be seen that, when stored under darkness, the PSCs based on $\text{C}_{60}/\text{C}_{60}\text{-NPs}$ and $\text{c-TiO}_2/\text{m-TiO}_2$ both exhibit good long-term stability, maintaining over 90% of their initial performance after 1200 hours without encapsulation. However, when the unencapsulated devices were under exposure to 1 mW cm^{-2} UV illumination ($\lambda = 365 \text{ nm}$), the PCE of the $\text{c-TiO}_2/\text{m-TiO}_2$ device decreases sharply and its performance is lost after 800 hours. According to the literature,^{56,57} the drop-off in the performance of the TiO_2 -based devices is mainly due to the intrinsic UV instability of TiO_2 . On the one hand, in the presence of UV light, photogenerated holes at the surface of TiO_2 react with oxygen absorbed at surface oxygen vacancies, and this results in an increased quantity of deep traps and an increase in the rate of charge recombination;⁵⁶ On the other hand, following UV-light exposure, electrons in the conduction band of TiO_2 can transform oxygen into hydroxyl radicals and the oxygen molecules absorbed on the TiO_2 trap states are likely to be reduced to $\text{HO}\cdot$ and H_2O , which promotes the degradation of the MAPbI_3 perovskite material.⁵⁷ In contrast, the $\text{c-C}_{60}/\text{C}_{60}\text{-NPs}$ device aged under the same illumination and storing conditions maintains about 90% of its initial performance after 1200 hours, showing the outstanding UV stability of $\text{C}_{60}/\text{C}_{60}\text{-NPs}$ devices. To further explore the potential of $\text{c-C}_{60}/\text{C}_{60}\text{-NPs}$ devices, long-term lifetime of the encapsulated cells is recorded under continuous full-sun illumination at

a temperature of 25 °C in 40% relative humidity, where the maximum power output is tracked constantly. The test is applied to devices based on C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs and c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂, respectively, until the time at which 20% PCE (T_{80}) is lost. As shown in **Figure 5**, the PSCs based on c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ ETL reached T_{80} after 85 hours of the applied stress test, while, in the same timeframe, the C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs-based PSC retained 98% of its initial PCE. In fact, the C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs-based PSC reached T_{80} after 720 h of continuous stress testing. The use of C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs ETL in PSCs showed a much stronger resistance to degradation during a much longer time period compared with devices based on c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ ETL. This reveals that the organic scaffold is potentially the ideal material for electron collection layers to obtain both the highly efficient and long-term stable PSCs.

The room-temperature-processing organic scaffold enables the fabrication of flexible solar cells, and to demonstrate this, we fabricated the MAPbI₃ PSCs with the c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs ETL on ITO-coated polyethylene naphthalate (ITO/PEN) substrates. A digital photograph and schematic diagram of the final device are shown in **Figure 6a**. A flexible OPSC was therefore demonstrated for the first time with a PCE as high as 17.28%, which is one of the highest values among flexible MAPbI₃ solar cells (**Figure 6b**). The device performance of the best flexible OPSC, measured under different voltage scan direction, are summarised in the inset table in **Figure 6b**. The performance reproducibility of flexible OPSCs was studied by characterising 50 devices in the same batch. Histograms displaying the key parameters of these devices (**Figure S10-S13**) indicate excellent reproducibility. The average values of the device performance

calculated from 50 flexible OPSCs are presented in **Table 2**. To examine the stability of OPSCs against the mechanical bending, a bending test including 1000 consecutive bending cycles was carried out at two different radius of curvature (R) of 10 mm and 5 mm. When R was 10 mm, the flexible OPSCs exhibited no efficiency drop-off, maintaining 100% of its initial PCE after 1000 bending cycles, as demonstrated in **Figure 6c**. Furthermore, when R was 5 mm, the flexible OPSCs retained 95% of initial efficiency after 100 bending cycles, and maintained more than 90% of initial efficiency after 1000 cycles (**Figure 6c**). Therefore, these analyses demonstrate that our flexible OPSCs exhibit excellent stability under mechanical bending, indicating the great potential of OPSCs for practical applications.

In summary, we demonstrated a novel perovskite solar cell architecture based on room-temperature-processing single-crystalline C_{60} nanoparticles (C_{60} -NPs) serving as an efficient electron-selective layer. C_{60} -NPs, acting as a three-dimensional skeleton, improve the wettability between the C_{60} compact layer ($c-C_{60}$) and the precursor for the $MAPbI_3$ film, therefore enabling perovskite crystals to cover the substrate more uniformly and decrease the defect concentration of perovskite film. Moreover, compared to the conventionally-used electron-transport architecture $c-TiO_2/m-TiO_2$, the proposed organic scaffold architecture enhances electron transport and extraction and reduces charge accumulation at the interface. The organic-scaffold perovskite solar cells (OPSCs) achieved a highest PCE of 19.45%, outperforming standard reference PSCs based on $c-TiO_2/m-TiO_2$ (the highest PCE = 17.07%). Furthermore, $c-C_{60}/C_{60}$ -NPs efficiently enhanced the UV stability of PSCs due to their inherent UV stability

compared to traditional c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ ETLs. Most strikingly, the devices can be easily processed under low temperatures, offering an efficient method for the large-scale production of flexible PSCs. These flexible PSCs show remarkable performance with an excellent PCE of 17.28 % and good mechanical tolerance, which is among the highest values reported for flexible PSCs to date. This work reveals that organic nanostructures as n-type charge collection layers are excellent replacements for the inorganic mesoporous scaffold as they achieve remarkably high efficiency and long-term operational stability of both rigid and flexible perovskite solar cells.

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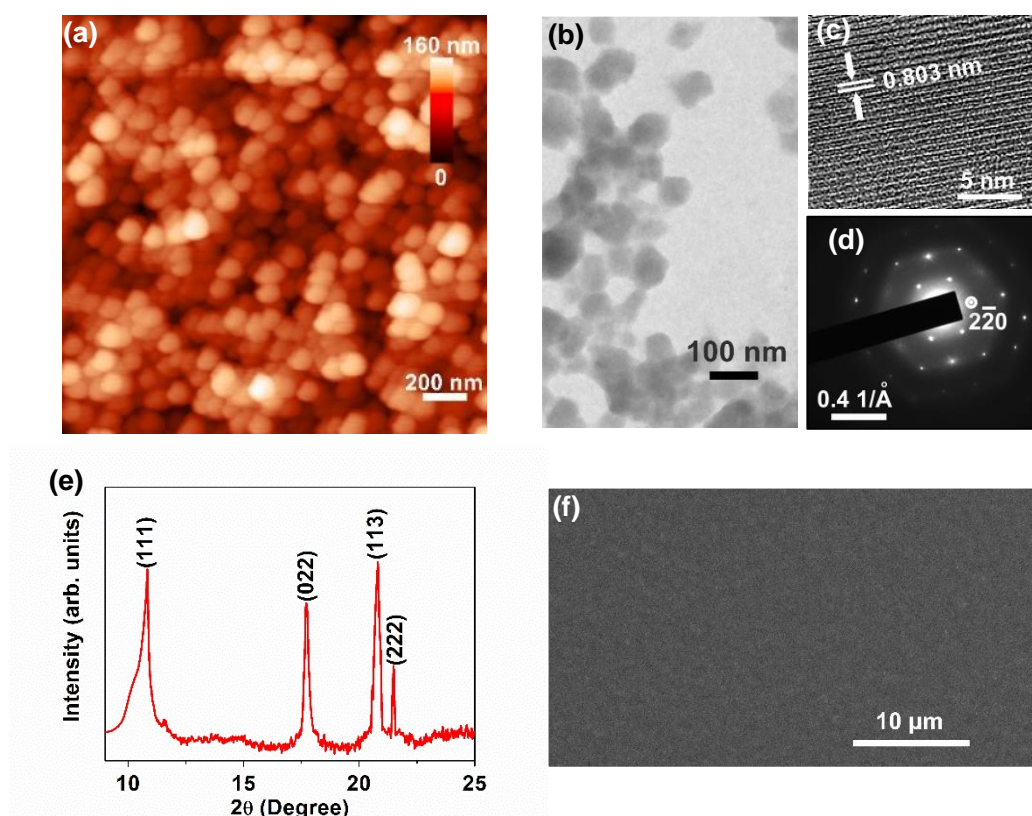


Figure 1 (a) AFM image of as-prepared C_{60} nanoparticles; (b) TEM image of C_{60} nanoparticles deposited on a copper mesh; (c) HRTEM image of C_{60} nanoparticles; (d) SAED pattern of C_{60} nanoparticles. Diffraction spot from the $(2\bar{2}0)$ plane is identified; (e) XRD pattern of C_{60} nanoparticles; (f) SEM image of C_{60} nanoparticles deposited on C_{60} compact layer.

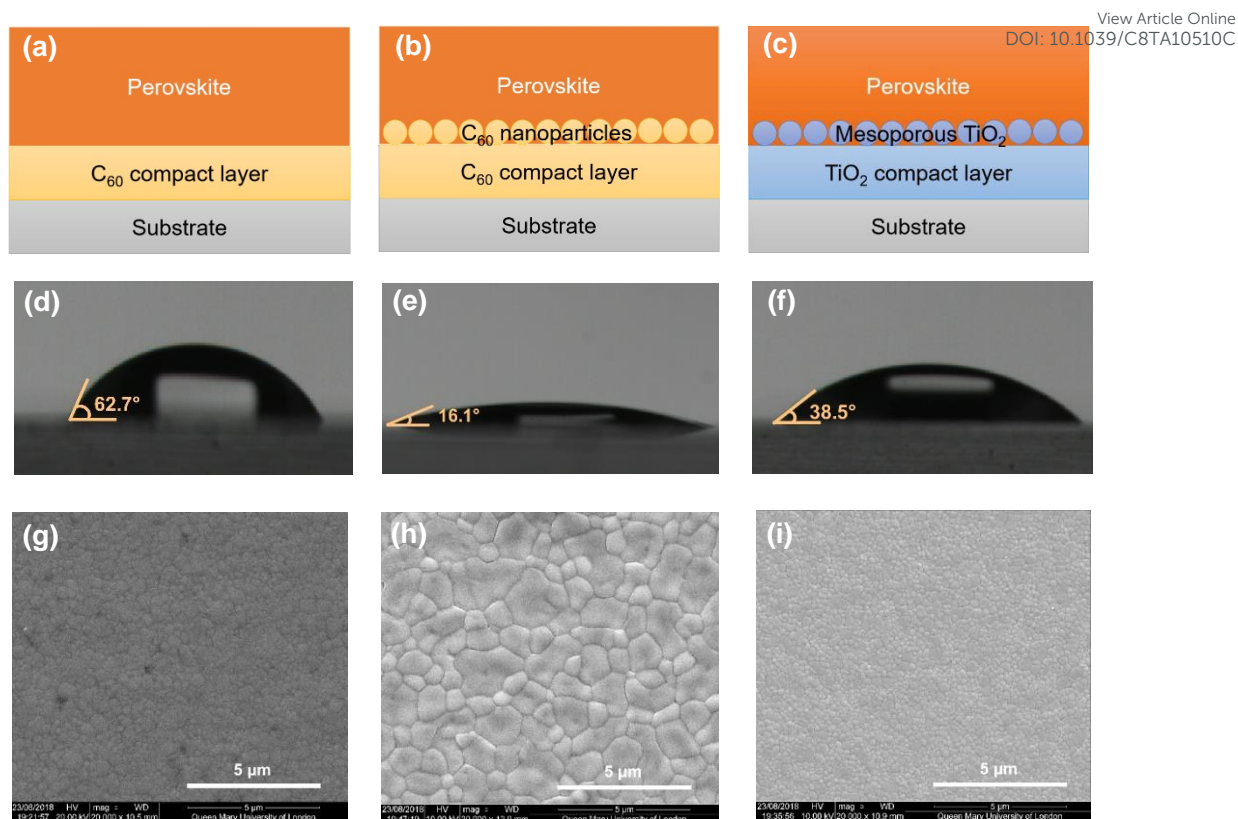


Figure 2 Schematic diagram of perovskite deposited on (a) C_{60} compact layer, (b) C_{60} -NPs/ c - C_{60} and (c) c - TiO_2 / m - TiO_2 ; Perovskite precursor contact angles with (d) C_{60} compact layer, (e) C_{60} -NPs/ c - C_{60} and (f) c - TiO_2 / m - TiO_2 ; Top-view SEM images of the $MAPbI_3$ film deposited on (g) C_{60} compact layer, (h) C_{60} -NPs/ c - C_{60} and (i) c - TiO_2 / m - TiO_2 .

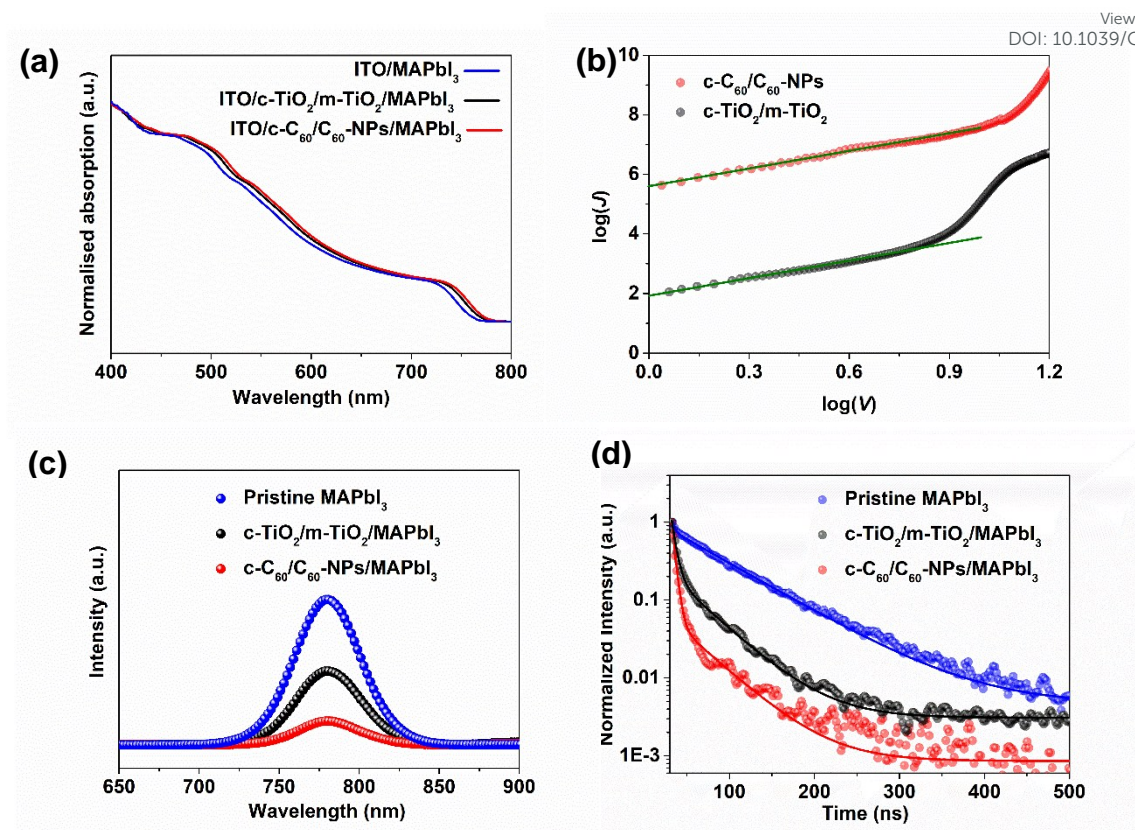


Figure 3 (a) UV-vis absorption spectra, (b) $\log(J)$ - $\log(V)$ plots, (c) steady-state PL spectra and (d) TRPL decay curves of perovskite films formed on ITO, ITO/c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs, and ITO/c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂, respectively.

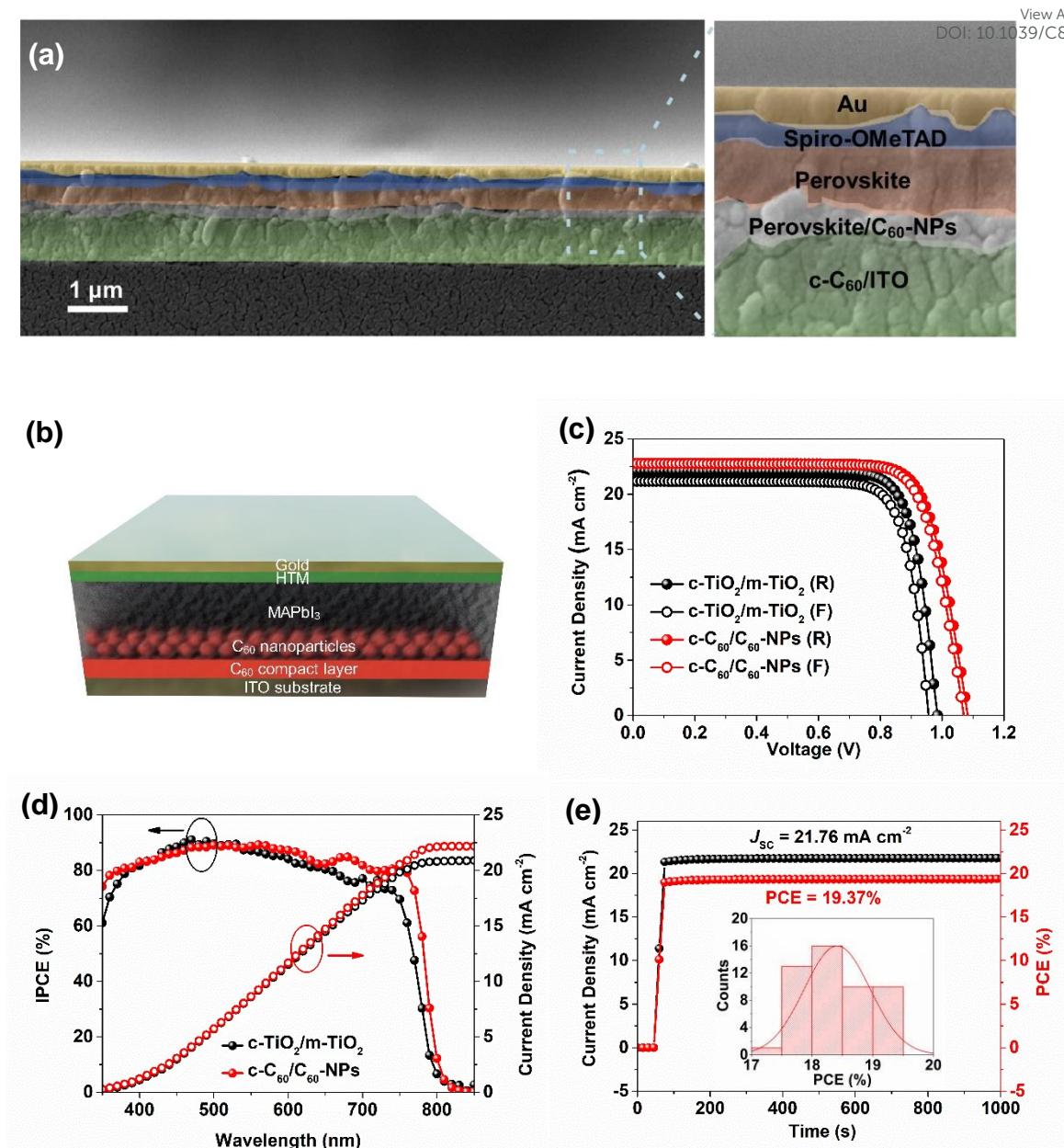


Figure 4 (a) Cross-sectional SEM image of the OPSC device containing a c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NP layer, (b) device configuration, (c) *J*-*V* characteristics and (d) IPCE spectra of the studied rigid PSCs using c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs and c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂, respectively; (e) The stabilized *J*_{sc} and PCE curves of PSCs using the c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs ETL measured under a constant bias of 0.89 V near the maximum power point and (inset) the histogram of rigid PSCs efficiencies.

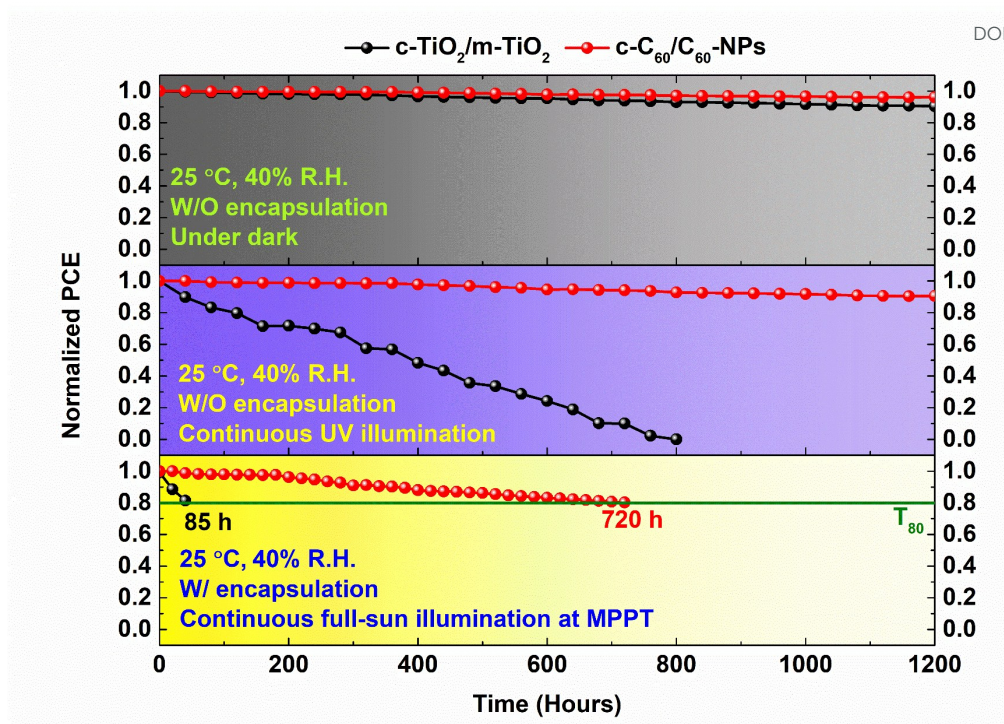


Figure 5 Long-term stability of the corresponding perovskite solar cells in three aging conditions: i) storing under dark at 25 °C in 40% relative humidity without encapsulation; ii) storing under continuous UV illumination (1 mW cm^{-2} , $\lambda = 365 \text{ nm}$) at 25 °C in 40% relative humidity without encapsulation; iii) storing under continuous full-sun illumination at the maximum power point tracking (MPPT) at 25 °C in 40% relative humidity with encapsulation.

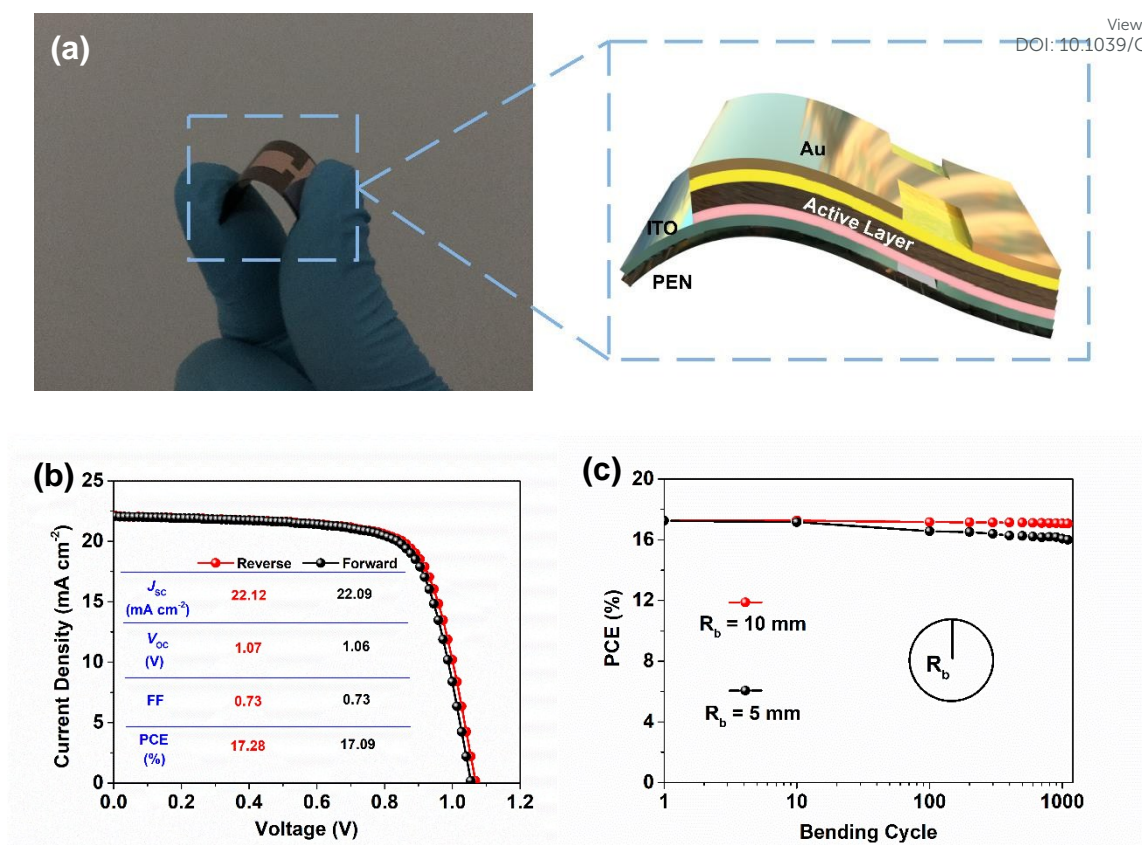


Figure 6 (a) A photograph and device configuration of a flexible MAPbI₃ OPSC on a PEN/ITO substrate; (b) *J-V* characteristics of a champion flexible OPSC; (c) PCE of flexible OPSCs as a function of bending cycles with different radius of curvature of 10 mm and 5 mm.

Table 1 Performance parameters of PSCs using different ETLs. Data were obtained by

averaging 50 devices. The data in parentheses are for the best performing device.

ETL	Scan direction	J_{sc} (mA cm ⁻²)	V_{oc} (V)	FF	PCE (%)
c-C ₆₀ /C ₆₀ -NPs	Reverse	22.33 ± 0.32 (22.79)	1.06 ± 0.02 (1.08)	0.78 ± 0.01 (0.79)	18.41 ± 0.54 (19.45)
	Forward	22.31 ± 0.36 (22.78)	1.05 ± 0.02 (1.07)	0.78 ± 0.01 (0.79)	18.29 ± 0.61 (19.26)
c-TiO ₂ /m-TiO ₂	Reverse	21.73 ± 0.32 (22.10)	0.96 ± 0.02 (0.99)	0.75 ± 0.02 (0.78)	15.76 ± 0.61 (17.07)
	Forward	20.83 ± 0.36 (21.18)	0.92 ± 0.03 (0.96)	0.71 ± 0.03 (0.75)	15.16 ± 0.52 (15.25)

Table 2 Performance parameters of flexible PSCs based on organic scaffold. Data were obtained by averaging 50 devices. The data in parentheses are for the best performing device.

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Scan direction	J_{sc} (mA cm ⁻²)	V_{oc} (V)	FF	PCE (%)
Reverse	21.78 ± 0.31 (22.12)	1.05 ± 0.02 (1.07)	0.71 ± 0.03 (0.73)	16.71 ± 0.51 (17.28)
Forward	21.69 ± 0.36 (22.09)	1.04 ± 0.02 (1.06)	0.71 ± 0.02 (0.73)	16.59 ± 0.45 (17.09)

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information.

Experimental Section; Transmission spectrum of c-C₆₀/C₆₀-NPs and c-TiO₂/m-TiO₂ films deposited on a glass substrate; The structures of conventional perovskite solar cells with mesoporous TiO₂ and compact TiO₂ as an ETL; Key parameter metrics of PSCs based on different ELTs.

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Author Contributions

The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval to the final version of the manuscript.

Notes

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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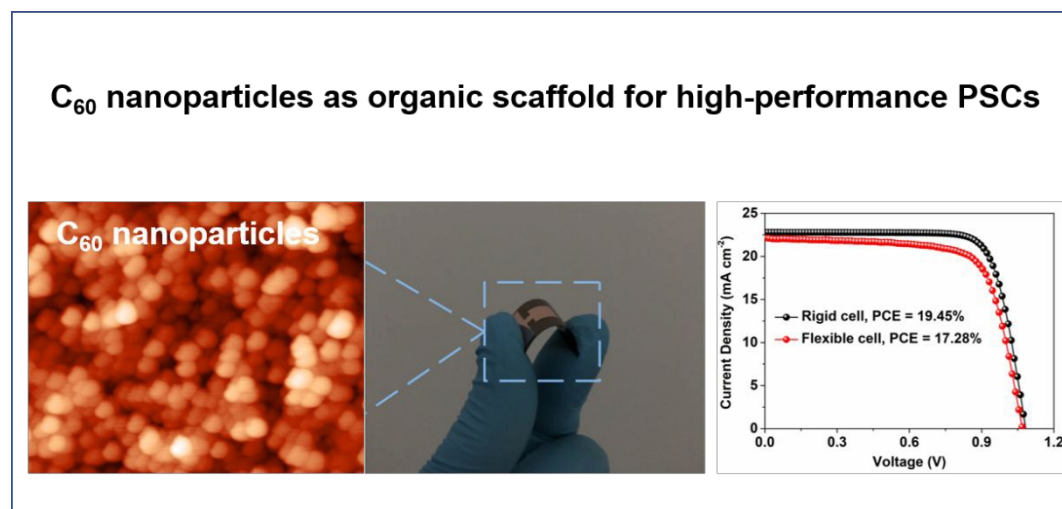
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Graphical Abstract

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Room-temperature-processing C₆₀ single-crystalline nanoparticles were employed as high-performance organic electron-selective scaffold for both rigid and flexible perovskite solar cells.