

# Signatures of Coherent Phonon Transport in Ultralow Thermal Conductivity Two-Dimensional Ruddlesden–Popper Phase Perovskites

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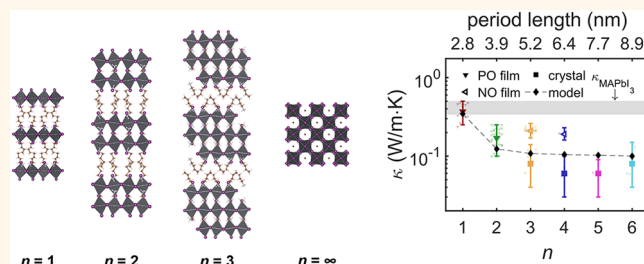
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**ABSTRACT:** An emerging class of methylammonium lead iodide (MAPbI<sub>3</sub>)-based Ruddlesden–Popper (RP) phase perovskites, BA<sub>2</sub>MA<sub>n-1</sub>Pb<sub>n</sub>I<sub>3n+1</sub> ( $n = 1-7$ ), exhibit enhanced stability to environmental conditions relative to MAPbI<sub>3</sub>, yet still degrade at elevated temperatures. We experimentally determine the thermal conductivities of these layered RP phases for  $n = 1-6$ , where  $n$  defines the number of repeated perovskite octahedra per layer. We measure thermal conductivities of  $0.37 \pm 0.13/0.12$ ,  $0.17 \pm 0.08/0.07$ ,  $0.21 \pm 0.05/0.04$ , and  $0.19 \pm 0.04/0.03$  W/m·K in thin films of  $n = 1-4$  and  $0.08 \pm 0.06/0.04$ ,  $0.06 \pm 0.04/0.03$ ,  $0.06 \pm 0.03/0.03$ , and  $0.08 \pm 0.07/0.04$  W/m·K in single crystals of  $n = 3-6$ . With the exception of  $n = 1$ , these thermal conductivities are lower than the range of  $0.34-0.50$  W/m·K reported for single-crystal MAPbI<sub>3</sub>. Reduced-order lattice dynamics modeling suggests that the initially decreasing trend of thermal conductivity in similarly oriented perovskites with increasing  $n$  may result from the transport properties of coherent phonons, emergent from the superstructure, that do not scatter at the interfaces of organic butylammonium chains and perovskite octahedra. Reduced group velocity of coherent phonons in  $n = 3-6$ , a consequence of band flattening in the phonon dispersion, is primarily responsible for their ultralow thermal conductivities. Similar effects on thermal conductivity have been experimentally demonstrated in deposited superlattices, but never in naturally defined materials such as RP phases. GIWAXS measurements reveal that higher  $n$  RP phase thin films are less orientationally controlled and therefore possess apparently elevated thermal conductivities relative to single crystals of the same  $n$ .

**KEYWORDS:** thermal transport, methylammonium lead iodide, 2D perovskites, layered materials, photovoltaics, optoelectronics



Methylammonium lead iodide (MAPbI<sub>3</sub>), a hybrid organic–inorganic perovskite (HOIP) belonging to the lead halide perovskite family, is a semiconducting material that has been widely considered for next-generation photovoltaic (PV) and optoelectronic (OE) applications.<sup>1–7</sup> Researchers have exploited its facile processability,<sup>7</sup> notable defect tolerance,<sup>4,6,8</sup> long carrier lifetime,<sup>4,6,9,10</sup> high absorption coefficient,<sup>1</sup> and suitable optical bandgap<sup>2</sup> to develop MAPbI<sub>3</sub>-based solar cells that have improved in power conversion efficiency (PCE) from less than 3% to 24% in just over a decade.<sup>1,3,11</sup> The impressive external luminescence efficiency and color quality of this HOIP have also made it a material of interest in light-emitting and lasing applications.<sup>1,3,4</sup>

Despite such promising characteristics, MAPbI<sub>3</sub> is inherently unstable and tends to rapidly degrade into solid PbI<sub>2</sub> and vaporous MA<sup>+</sup> and I<sup>-</sup>.<sup>12,13</sup> This process occurs even in dark vacuum environments and is accelerated by oxygen,<sup>14</sup> moisture,<sup>14–16</sup> light,<sup>15,17,18</sup> and, of central importance to this study, elevated temperature.<sup>15–18</sup> Careful synthesis,<sup>19</sup> encapsu-

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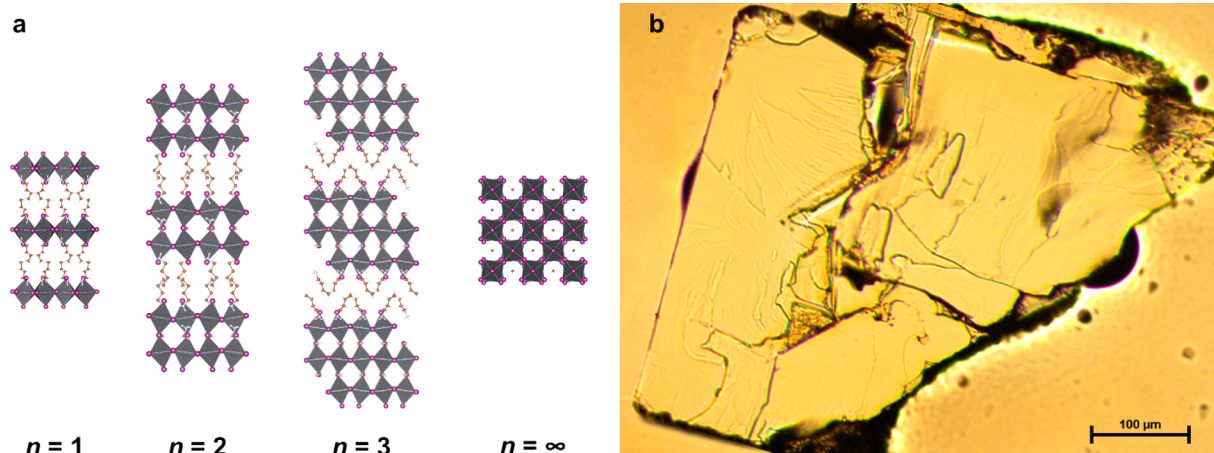


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**Figure 1.** (a) Crystal structure of  $n = 1–3$  homologous members, where  $n$  represents the number of perovskite octahedra per organic layer and dictates the thickness of the inorganic layers. As  $n$  approaches infinity, the formula describes 3D MAPbI<sub>3</sub>. (b) Optical microscope image of a Au-coated single crystal of  $n = 6$  (BA<sub>2</sub>MA<sub>3</sub>Pb<sub>6</sub>I<sub>19</sub>).

lation,<sup>11,20</sup> and pinhole control<sup>21</sup> can increase the material's resilience and lifetime but not significantly enough to make it competitive with more stable alternative PV and OE materials such as Si- or Ga-based compounds. Prior studies have shown that exposing MAPbI<sub>3</sub> to temperatures as modest as 75–85 °C leads to degradation rates significantly faster than that at room temperature.<sup>12,16–18,22</sup> This thermal instability is responsible for the failure to meet international standards for solar cells, which require that they remain stable up to at least 85 °C (IEC 61646).<sup>23</sup> The exceptionally low thermal conductivity of single-crystal MAPbI<sub>3</sub>, reported to be  $\kappa = 0.34–0.50$  W/m·K,<sup>24–27</sup> makes proper thermal management a major challenge to its stability and longevity in devices.

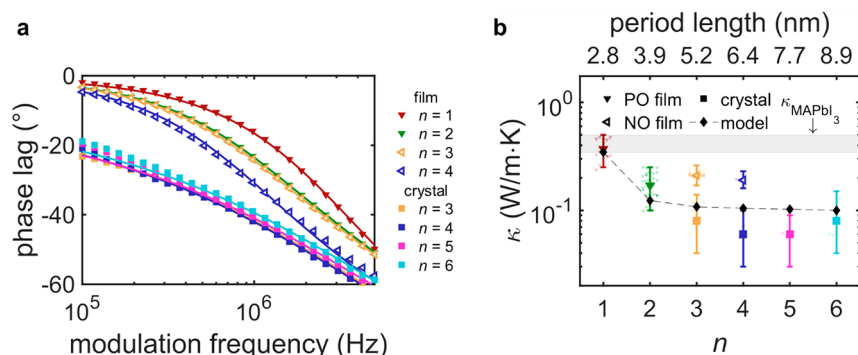
Two-dimensional, layered perovskite structures such as Ruddlesden–Popper (RP) phases have been developed in an effort to retain the desirable features of 3D HOIPs, such as solution processability, and catalyze stability and excitonic effects more akin to conventional PV materials.<sup>28–30</sup> In these structures,  $n$  layers of perovskite octahedral cages are separated by organic cationic spacers. The MAPbI<sub>3</sub>-based RP phases, BA<sub>2</sub>MA <sub>$n-1$</sub> Pb <sub>$n$</sub> I <sub>$3n+1$</sub>  (BA = butylammonium) (see Figure 1a), exhibit improved stability in moisture- and light-rich environments due to the presence of hydrophobic BA chains and demonstrate PCEs as high as ~12.5%.<sup>30–32</sup> These RP phases have shown degradation at 80 °C, though at slower rates than MAPbI<sub>3</sub>.<sup>15</sup> However, their thermal conductivities and the underlying phonon transport mechanisms, which control their ability to dissipate heat, remain unclear. A recent experimental study of multiple lead halide 2D layered perovskites finds that their thermal conductivities are related to the orientation of the organic spacers relative to the inorganic layers.<sup>33</sup> The importance of the inorganic layer thickness and interface density, controlled by  $n$ , was not considered since the structures were not derivatives of the same perovskite family. Meanwhile, Rasel *et al.* hypothesize that the decreasing thermal conductivity they observe in (C <sub>$n$</sub> H <sub>$2n+1$</sub> NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>PbI<sub>4</sub> 2D perovskites with increasing  $n$  may result from phonon transport dependency on organic-chain length.<sup>34</sup>

To that end, interest in the thermal conductivity of BA<sub>2</sub>MA <sub>$n-1$</sub> Pb <sub>$n$</sub> I <sub>$3n+1$</sub>  RP phases is 2-fold. Practically, the thermal conductivity is important to maintain appropriate temperatures during device operation. Fundamentally, the naturally occurring 2D architecture of these structures allows for the possibility of

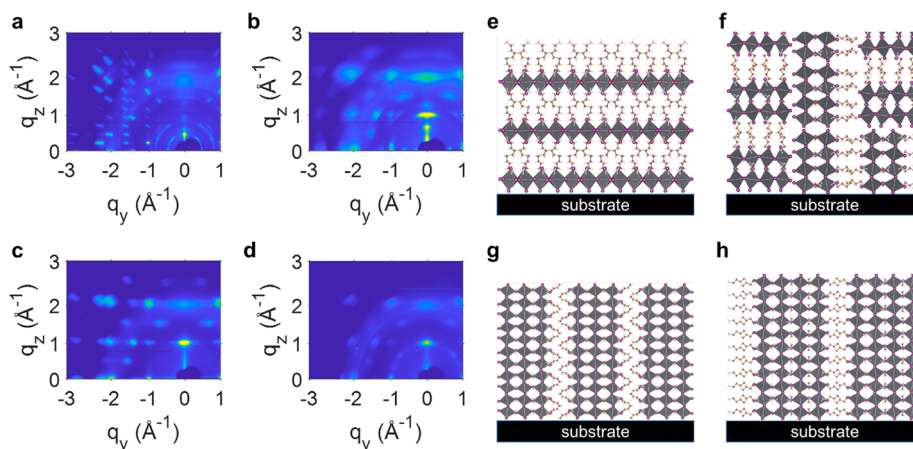
coherent interlayer phonon transport. In the context of superlattices, this occurs when phonon modes emerge from the secondary periodicity rather than scatter at the structure's associated interfaces and therefore exhibit “wave-like” instead of “particle-like” transport.<sup>35,36</sup> The so-called coherent phonons can have mean free paths greater than the superlattice period, thus enabling higher thermal conductivities than would be expected in a purely particle-like regime. However, such coherent phonon enhancements to thermal conductivity of layered materials can be hindered by imperfect interfaces that destroy periodicity<sup>35,36</sup> and thus have only been observed in a few cases such as in very high-quality epitaxial oxide heterostructures<sup>34</sup> and GaAs/AlAs superlattices.<sup>36</sup>

Secondary periodicity and the resulting coherent phonons have been studied in RP phases,<sup>37–39</sup> and their effect on thermal conductivity has been considered with mixed conclusions.<sup>40,41</sup> A recent transient reflectance study describes longer period oscillations in (PEA)<sub>2</sub>Pb <sub>$n$</sub> I <sub>$3n+1$</sub>  RP phases with increasing  $n$ . While they do not consider how this affects phonon speed, they speculate that it will cause thermal conductivity to increase with increasing  $n$ .<sup>40</sup> By contrast, through atomic-level simulations, a separate study concluded that the thermal conductivity of a SrTiO<sub>3</sub>-based RP phase should decrease with increasing  $n$ .<sup>41</sup> Clearly, more experimental thermal conductivity data are required to understand the complex phonon physics and thermal transport in RP phases.

Here, we determine the cross-layer thermal conductivity of thin film and single-crystal BA<sub>2</sub>MA <sub>$n-1$</sub> Pb <sub>$n$</sub> I <sub>$3n+1$</sub>  RP phases for  $n = 1–6$  using a high-resolution optical pump–probe technique known as frequency-domain thermoreflectance (FDTR).<sup>42</sup> In doing so, we distinguish the relationship between the thermal conductivity of these RP phases and that of MAPbI<sub>3</sub> to consider the implications on the thermal performance and longevity of devices that may implement this class of perovskite material. Moreover, we experimentally observe a decrease in thermal conductivity with increasing  $n$  in low- $n$  RP phases of similar orientation, suggesting that the contribution of coherent phonons diminishes as the interface density decreases. We reason that this phenomenon, coupled with the other tunable properties of BA<sub>2</sub>MA <sub>$n-1$</sub> Pb <sub>$n$</sub> I <sub>$3n+1$</sub> , identifies pathways for functionality in a wide variety of devices.



**Figure 2.** (a) FDTR phase lag data (markers) and fits (lines) for  $n = 1$ –4 thin films and  $n = 3$ –6 single crystals. (b) Room-temperature thermal conductivity of  $\text{BA}_2\text{MA}_{n-1}\text{Pb}_n\text{I}_{3n+1}$  as a function of  $n$  for  $n = 1$ –6. Downward and sideways facing triangles represent thin films that have layers of parallel orientation (PO) and normal orientation (NO) with respect to the substrate, respectively. Squares represent single crystals, and black diamonds represent the predicted thermal conductivity by a reduced-order lattice dynamics model. Semitransparent data are individual measurements, and opaque data are medians of all measurements for the respective sample, where error bars represent the 90th and 10th quantiles of fit distributions generated using a Monte Carlo estimation of uncertainty. The gray-shaded region indicates the range of thermal conductivities reported in the literature for  $\text{MAPbI}_3$ . Period length of the respective structure is labeled on the top axis.



**Figure 3.** GIWAXS measurements (a–d) and structural interpretation (e–h) of  $n = 1$ –4 thin films. The  $[0\ 1\ 0]$  crystal direction of  $n = 1$  is oriented normal to the substrate, while this same direction in  $n = 3$  and  $n = 4$  thin films is loosely parallel to the substrate.  $n = 2$  appears to be bimodal, possessing a 2:1 ratio of grains with the  $[0\ 1\ 0]$  crystal direction oriented normal and parallel to the substrate.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

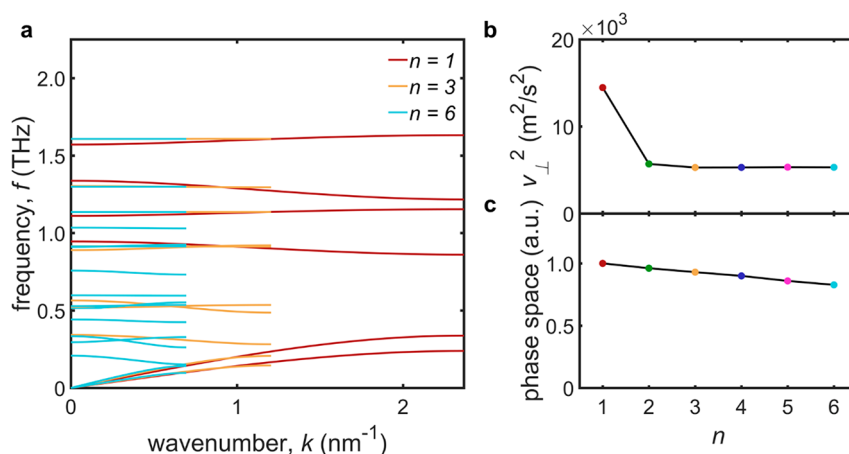
We examine thin films of  $n = 1$ –4 (thickness range of 40–240 nm) and single crystals of  $n = 3$ –6 (size range of 0.5–2 mm) (see Figure 1b). Single crystals of  $n = 1, 2$  could not be repeatably measured due to their typically smaller size (less than 200  $\mu\text{m}$ ), irregular shape, and rough surface topography. We measure thermal conductivity across numerous samples of both single crystals and thin films using FDTR. FDTR periodically heats the sample and monitors the phase lag of surface temperature to heat flux, which is fit using an analytical solution to the heat diffusion equation to extract the sample's unknown thermal conductivity (see Methods for details on sample preparation and FDTR). Fits based solely on thermal conductivities ( $\kappa$ ) of RP phases, shown as solid lines in Figure 2a, consistently match the experimental phase lag data over a wide range of frequencies and support the accuracy of this approach.

The thermal conductivities ( $\kappa$ ) of  $\text{BA}_2\text{MA}_{n-1}\text{Pb}_n\text{I}_{3n+1}$  RP phases are shown as a function of  $n$  for  $n = 1$ –4 thin films and  $n = 3$ –6 single crystals in Figure 2b. Individual measurements are shown as semitransparent markers, whereas the central tendency, represented by the median, for each  $n$  is shown as an opaque marker. Upper and lower error bars represent the 90th and 10th quantiles of the distribution of fits generated by a

Monte Carlo estimation method, which is used to assess the uncertainty in  $\kappa$  from measurement variability and propagated uncertainty from fitting parameters (see SI Section 2.5).<sup>43,44</sup> The  $\kappa$  values of the thin film RP phases of  $n = 1$ –4 are ultralow at  $0.37 \pm 0.13/0.12$ ,  $0.17 \pm 0.08/0.07$ ,  $0.21 \pm 0.05/0.04$ , and  $0.19 \pm 0.04/0.03$  W/m·K, and that of the single-crystal RP phases of  $n = 3$ –6 are even lower at  $0.08 \pm 0.06/0.04$ ,  $0.06 \pm 0.04/0.03$ ,  $0.06 \pm 0.03/0.03$ , and  $0.08 \pm 0.07/0.04$  W/m·K. The  $\kappa$  values of the thin film RP phases initially decrease as  $n$  increases, consistent with increased coherent phonon contributions to thermal conductivity in lower  $n$  phases. The  $\kappa$  values of  $n = 3$ –6 single-crystal phases are among the lowest reported for fully dense solids.<sup>45</sup> Additionally, we note that  $\kappa$  values of thin films are larger than that of single crystals for  $n = 3, 4$ , contrary to the expectation of lower  $\kappa$  due to phonon boundary scattering in thin films.

To discern the origins of the discrepancy between thin films and single crystals, we perform grazing-incidence wide-angle X-ray scattering (GIWAXS) to assess the compositional purity and orientational control of thin film samples of  $n = 1$ –4. As a hybrid of wide-angle scattering and grazing incidence diffraction, in GIWAXS an X-ray beam is directed at an angle near that of total external reflection with respect to the film surface. Lengths on





**Figure 4.** (a) Phonon dispersion relationship of  $n = 1, 3$ , and  $6$  RP phases in the cross-layer  $[0\ 1\ 0]$  direction. (b) Average cross-layer group velocity of  $n = 1$ – $6$  RP phases. (c) Total phase space, normalized to that of  $n = 1$ , of  $n = 1$ – $6$  RP phases.

the order of tens of angstroms, corresponding to the  $d$ -spacing in solid-state materials, can be accessed because of the close distance between the detector and the sample. Additionally, the use of a 2D detector allows for the determination of the orientation of diffraction planes in the sample relative to the substrate based on the position along the angular axis  $\chi$  in which the peak appears.<sup>15,46</sup>

GIWAXS data are shown in Figure 3a for  $n = 1$ – $4$ . The peaks present in the measurement for  $n = 1$  indicate a high level of orientational consistency with layers oriented parallel to the substrate as shown in Figure 3e. This result confirms our observation of ultralow cross-layer thermal conductivity ( $\kappa_{\perp}$ ) in this RP phase, since FDTR measurements primarily probe thermal transport properties normal to the substrate surface. Interestingly, small peaks at low  $q$  indicate that there are some impurities in  $n = 1$  samples, possibly resulting from solvated phases created during film formation.<sup>47,48</sup> Data for  $n = 2$ , shown in Figure 3b, appear bimodal, with the layers oriented normal and parallel to the substrate surface, with the normal orientation being about twice as common as depicted in Figure 3f. This ratio is determined through calculation of the area under the  $(1\ 1\ 1)$  peak for each orientation (see SI Section 3.2). Data for  $n = 3, 4$  shown in Figure 3c and d have layers oriented normal to the substrate depicted in Figure 3g and h. Notably, the  $n = 4$  member has peaks that have been broadened along  $\chi$ , the angular axis, which indicates that the layers deviate by a couple of degrees from perfectly normal. In this orientation, heat will flow along the layers for  $n = 3, 4$ . We expect that the in-layer  $\kappa$  of RP phases will more closely resemble that of bulk  $\text{MAPbI}_3$  ( $\kappa = 0.34$ – $0.50$   $\text{W/m}\cdot\text{K}$ ) as phonons travel along the inorganic lead iodide layers. Hence, higher measured values of thermal conductivity for  $n = 3, 4$  thin films, relative to single crystals, are not a true reflection of  $\kappa_{\perp}$ , but are rather a consequence of the films' grain orientations.

In addition to GIWAXS, we characterize the composition and orientation of structures in  $n = 1$ – $4$  RP thin films using powder X-ray diffraction, or PXRD (see SI Section 4). We find that peaks in the  $n = 1$  measurement correspond to planes parallel to the substrate and that there are no features consistent with other orientations. Our measurement of  $n = 2$  corroborates the bimodal distribution of orientations observed in the GIWAXS measurement, with peaks being associated with planes both perpendicular and parallel to the substrate. The major peak found in the measurements of  $n = 3, 4$  thin films corresponds to

the  $(2\ 0\ 2)$  plane, and the minor peak is associated with the  $(1\ 1\ 1)$  plane that lies at an angle with respect to the substrate. Given that the former peak is significantly stronger than the latter, we conclude that the majority of the structure is oriented perpendicular to the substrate in both films.

While our measurements are consistent with the value reported by Giri *et al.* for the  $n = 4$  thin film with similar orientation ( $0.19 \pm 0.04/0.03$   $\text{W/m}\cdot\text{K}$  vs  $0.17 \pm 0.03$   $\text{W/m}\cdot\text{K}$ ),<sup>33</sup> we find lower values of  $\kappa_{\perp}$  in  $n = 4$  single crystals due to transport being exclusively cross-layer. We measure a comparatively higher  $\kappa_{\perp}$  in  $n = 1$ , or  $(\text{CH}_3\text{NH}_3)_2\text{PbI}_4$ , thin films than that reported by both Giri *et al.* for thin films ( $0.18 \pm 0.04$   $\text{W/m}\cdot\text{K}$ ) and Rasel *et al.* for single crystals ( $0.125 \pm 0.089$   $\text{W/m}\cdot\text{K}$ ).<sup>34</sup> Notably, the steady-state temperature rise in samples of  $n = 1$  resulting from our laser heating (14.6 K, see SI Section 2.6) is similar to that of Giri *et al.* (14 K) and is lower than that of Rasel *et al.* (30 K). It is possible that the lower thermal conductivity reported by Rasel *et al.* may arise from laser heating induced structural rearrangements that they hypothesize exist at and beyond  $\sim 325$  K based on their heat capacity data. Such structural rearrangements could hinder phonon transport and therefore reduce apparent thermal conductivity. By comparison, the difference between our reported value and that of Giri *et al.* may originate from variation in film preparation, particularly the use of different solvents and substrate temperatures during deposition, which are well known to affect film morphology, homogeneity, and composition.<sup>31,48–50</sup>

The overarching trend in Figure 2b is that  $\kappa_{\perp}$  (filled opaque data in Figure 2b;  $n = 1, 2$  thin films and  $n = 3$ – $6$  single crystals) of the RP phases initially decreases as  $n$  and the interface spacing increases and levels off at higher  $n$ . Generally, our findings suggest that thermal conductivity is possibly related to layer spacing by way of coherent phonon transport. In any superlattice there will be a coexistence of emergent coherent phonons that transmit through interfaces, and incoherent phonons that maintain the character of one constituent layer and scatter at the interfaces. The particle description of phonons suggests that increased interface spacing enables longer phonon mean free paths and therefore higher thermal conductivity. Since we observe the opposite trend, it appears that coherent phonons may contribute significantly to the thermal conductivity of  $n = 1, 2$  RP phases. We hypothesize that phonon coherence plays a less significant role in the thermal conductivities of  $n = 3$ – $6$  phases given their relative insensitivity to  $n$ .

266 The cross-layer thermal conductivity can be expressed as

$$\kappa_{\perp} = \sum_{\beta} C_{\beta} v_{\perp, \beta}^2 \tau_{\beta} \quad (1)$$

268 where  $\beta$  indexes the phonon mode and  $C$ ,  $v_{\perp}$ , and  $\tau$  represent the  
269 modal heat capacity, cross-layer component of group velocity,  
270 and relaxation time. To quantitatively understand the effect of  
271 coherent phonon group velocity on  $\kappa_{\perp}$  in  $\text{BA}_2\text{MA}_{n-1}\text{PbI}_{3n+1}$ , we  
272 perform a reduced-order harmonic lattice dynamics calculation.  
273 To limit computational cost and modeling complexity,<sup>51</sup> we  
274 group atoms together to form octahedron-like and BA-like beads  
275 (see SI Section 5.1) that interact harmonically according to the  
276 equations of motion. Three spring constants are invoked to  
277 generate the equations of motion in this system: octahedron–  
278 octahedron, BA–BA, and BA–octahedron. The first is fit from  
279 the experimental dispersion of  $\text{MAPbI}_3$ ,<sup>52</sup> whereas the other two  
280 are derived from experimentally determined sound speeds.<sup>53</sup>  
281 These equations of motion are used in an assumed plane wave  
282 solution to determine the coherent phonon dispersion  
283 relations.<sup>54–57</sup> With BA omitted, the model accurately  
284 reproduces the acoustic phonon dispersion of  $\text{MAPbI}_3$  (see SI  
285 Section 5.3).<sup>52</sup> By using a reduced-order model, we ignore high-  
286 frequency incoherent phonon modes due to the localized  
287 internal vibrations of the  $\text{MAPbI}_3$  or BA molecules.

288 The nonintuitive trend in  $\kappa_{\perp}$  with  $n$  can be explained by the  
289 lattice dynamics that capture the effects of emergent coherent  
290 phonons. In Figure 4a we show the phonon dispersion  
291 relationships for  $n = 1, 3$ , and  $6$  in the cross-layer  $[0\ 1\ 0]$   
292 direction. As  $n$  increases there is more band flattening at high  
293 wavevectors and an increased number of phonon bandgaps  
294 resulting from the increased bead number density. Generally,  
295 this band flattening reduces the cross-layer coherent phonon  
296 group velocities and is especially pronounced between  $n = 1$  and  
297  $n = 2$ . The Brillouin zone averaged  $v_{\perp}^2$  decreases by more than  
298 60% from  $n = 1$  to  $n = 2$ , then decreases more gradually with  
299 increasing  $n$ , as shown in Figure 4b. Phonon scattering trends  
300 with  $n$  may, however, produce a competing effect on thermal  
301 conductivity. The fraction of the phonon frequency range  
302 occupied by bandgaps increases with increasing  $n$ , which reduces  
303 the phase space for scattering of coherent phonons (*i.e.*, the  
304 number of possible three-phonon scattering events that  
305 conserve energy and momentum) as shown in Figure 4c.  
306 Reduced phonon phase space typically causes increased  
307 relaxation times and thus increased thermal conductivity, but  
308 the gradual reduction in phase space with  $n$  may be offset by  
309 reduced  $v_{\perp}^2$  and an 8% reduction in  $C_{\beta}$  (see SI Section 5.4) to  
310 create a flat  $\kappa_{\perp}$  trend for  $n = 3–6$ .

311 Our harmonic model cannot be used to directly predict  $\kappa_{\perp}$   
312 since the average phonon lifetime  $\bar{\tau}_n$  for  $n = 1–6$  is not modeled.  
313 However, the correspondence of  $\kappa_{\perp}$  data to the average  $v_{\perp}^2$  and the  
314 relative invariance of phase space led us to fit eq 1 to the  $\kappa_{\perp}$  data  
315 by choosing a single  $\bar{\tau}$  across all  $n$  that minimizes the mean  
316 square error. We find a  $\bar{\tau}$  for coherent phonons across  $n = 1–6$   
317 RP phases of  $\sim 100$  ps, resulting in a predicted thermal  
318 conductivity that agrees well with experimental data across all  
319  $n$  (excluding films with  $n = 3, 4$ ), as shown in Figure 2b. While  
320 phonon relaxation times typically span orders of magnitude, the  
321 close fit of  $\kappa_{\perp}$  among all  $n$  to a single  $\bar{\tau}$  suggests that those of  
322 coherent phonons that may contribute heavily to  $\kappa_{\perp}$  have a  
323 narrower distribution. An average relaxation time of 100 ps  
324 corresponds to average cross-layer mean free paths ( $\bar{\Lambda}_{\perp} = \bar{\tau} \sqrt{v_{\perp}^2}$ )

) of coherent phonons spanning 7 nm for  $n = 6$  to 12 nm for  $n =$   
1, which are larger than or similar to the period length.

## CONCLUSIONS

In summary, we determine thermal conductivity perpendicular  
to the layers,  $\kappa_{\perp}$ , of  $\text{BA}_2\text{MA}_{n-1}\text{PbI}_{3n+1}$  RP phases using FDTR  
and find that it decreases with increasing  $n$ , particularly at low  $n$ .  
We predict that the observed trend in  $\kappa_{\perp}$  is due to a reduction in  
coherent phonon transport in higher  $n$  RP phases. According to  
our measurements, single crystals of  $n = 3–6$  all present ultralow  
thermal conductivities on the order of the lowest ever observed  
in fully dense solids. Our coarse-grain 3D lattice dynamics  
calculations reveal that the average of the square of cross-layer  
sound velocity,  $\overline{v_{\perp}^2}$ , of coherent phonons decreases with  $n$  at a  
rate consistent with our experimental  $\kappa_{\perp}$  data. Our findings  
suggest that while these RP phases are more stable than  $\text{MAPbI}_3$   
at elevated temperatures, their ultralow  $\kappa_{\perp}$  may make  
maintaining serviceably low temperatures challenging. However,  
varying  $n$  allows for tunability in thermal conductivity and other  
material properties, which unlocks a myriad of possibilities for  
design in PV, OE, and thermal transport applications.

## METHODS

**Sample Preparation.** Thin film RP phases with thicknesses of 40–  
240 nm are spin coated onto Si substrates. Single crystals, typically 0.5–  
2.0 mm in major dimension (as shown in Figure 1b), are precipitated  
from aqueous solution and epoxied to  $\text{SiO}_2$  substrates. Single crystals are  
exfoliated using Kapton tape to expose a pristine layer of material. Thin  
films and single crystals are then sputtered or evaporated with 60–110  
nm of Au. Profilometry is used to determine the thickness of the  
deposited Au layer, as well as that of the underlying perovskite layer in  
the case of the thin films. Samples are kept in a dark Ar glovebox  
environment except for transport, metal deposition, and measurement  
to minimize the possibility of contamination or exposure.

**FDTR.** In FDTR, the sample is heated by a 488 nm continuous-wave  
(CW) pump laser that is intensity-modulated over frequencies ranging  
from 100 kHz to 5 MHz. Periodic heating generates a periodic change  
in the sample's surface temperature, with a phase lag that depends on  
the thermal conductivity of the RP phase sample. Thermorefectance of  
the Au coating causes modulation of a reflected 532 nm CW probe  
laser, and its phase lag relative to the pump is monitored by a lock-in  
amplifier. The phase lag of the probe to pump (temperature to heating)  
is fit to a solution of the heat diffusion equation for a periodically heated  
layered structure to determine the unknown RP phase thermal  
conductivity, as shown in Figure 2a.<sup>58</sup>

The analytical solution used to fit the FDTR data relies on  
thermophysical properties of the sample such as its thickness and  
specific heat. The RP phases' volumetric heat capacities are not directly  
measured, so they are estimated based on the molar heat capacities of  
the structure's three constituent materials ( $\text{BA}$ ,  $\text{MAPbI}_3$ , and  $\text{PbI}_2$ ) and  
the volume of the unit cell. In the case of the thin films, the fit solution is  
insensitive to this parameter within the range of our measurements (see  
SI Section 2.4), so imprecision in this approximation does not  
significantly impact the quality of fit, quantified as a mean-squared  
error.

**GIWAXS.** GIWAXS is performed at Beamline 12-ID-B of the  
Advanced Photon Source at Argonne National Laboratory. A  
PerkinElmer XRpad (PerkinElmer Inc.) detector is employed with  
the sample-to-detector distance set to 18 cm. The energy of X-ray  
radiation is 13.3 keV. The samples used in GIWAXS measurements are  
deposited on silicon wafer substrates. The substrates are first aligned to  
be parallel to the X-ray beam, and the GIWAXS data are collected at an  
X-ray beam incidence angle of  $\sim 0.1^\circ$ . Curves are fit to the data using the  
LineFit toolbox, while plots are generated using the GIXSGUI  
program.<sup>59</sup> Simulations of  $\text{MAPbI}_3$  and BA at different orientations  
are created by LeeTool, a MATLAB-software package written by

389 Byeongdu Lee, available at the 12-ID-B beamline of the Advanced  
390 Photon Source (APS) at Argonne National Lab.

## 391 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### 392 SI Supporting Information

393 The Supporting Information is available free of charge at  
394 <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acsnano.0c03595>.

395 Sample preparation and characterization, frequency-  
396 domain thermorefectance model parameters, sensitivity,  
397 uncertainty, heating analysis, GIWAXS and PXRD  
398 acquisition and analysis, lattice dynamics model frame-  
399 work (PDF)

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### 443 Notes

444 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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