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# Chalcohalide Antiperovskite Thin Films with Visible Light Absorption and High Charge-Carrier Mobility Processed by Solvent-Free and Low-Temperature Methods

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Chalcohalide, Antiperovskite, Mechanochemical Synthesis, Thin Film, PLD

**ABSTRACT:** Silver chalcohalide antiperovskites represent a rather unexplored alternative to lead halide perovskites and other semiconductors based on toxic heavy metals. All synthetic approaches reported so far for Ag<sub>3</sub>SI and Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr require long synthesis times (typically days, weeks or even months) and high temperatures. Herein, we report the synthesis of these materials by a fast and low-temperature method involving mechanochemistry. Structural and optical properties are examined experimentally as well as by density functional theory. Furthermore, we deposit Ag<sub>3</sub>SI as thin film by pulsed laser deposition and characterize its optoelectronic properties by optical pump terahertz probe measurements, revealing a high charge-carrier mobility of 49 cm<sup>2</sup>V<sup>-1</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>. This work paves the way to the implementation of chalcohalide antiperovskites in various optoelectronic applications.

### **1. INTRODUCTION**

Lead halide perovskites have marked a revolution in optoelectronics and other energy-related applications in the last decade. Much of the success of these materials can be related to the extraordinary versatility of the perovskite structure which allows for a broad range of related crystal phases (*e.g.*, tetragonal and orthorhombic distortions) and chemical compositions (*e.g.*, multi-cation and/or multianion compositions). Yet, beyond lead halide perovskites, there exists a number of analogous compounds, many of which remain relatively underexplored.<sup>1</sup> This is the case of the antiperovskite structure, where "anti" refers to the swapped positions of the anions and cations in the ABX<sub>3</sub> structure (see Figure 1).



**Figure 1.** Schematic representation of halide perovskite (left) and chalcohalide antiperovskite (right) crystal structures. The antiperovskite structure can be viewed as a perovskite structure where anions (in red) are replaced by cations (in blue) and viceversa.

As is also true for lead halide perovskites,<sup>2</sup> chalcohalide antiperovskites are not newly discovered materials. Indeed, Ag<sub>3</sub>SI and Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr, which adopt the antiperovskite structure, have been reported at least since 1960 (note that these can also be written as ISAg<sub>3</sub> and BrSAg<sub>3</sub> to stress the analogy with the more typical ABX<sub>3</sub> representation of the perovskite structure).<sup>3</sup> Nevertheless, the vast majority of synthesis methods reported so far are carried out in a quartz tube sealed under vacuum and require very high temperatures, often substantially above 200 °C and long synthesis times (see Table 1), which make these processes unsuitable for most applications.

Table 1. Summary of reported synthesis conditions for Ag<sub>3</sub>SI and Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr. The maximum temperatures achieved during each synthesis and their total time are given.

Material	Maximum temperature (°C)	Total time	References
Ag <sub>3</sub> SI, Ag <sub>3</sub> SBr	200	1 month	4,5
Ag <sub>3</sub> SBr	220	10 days	6
Ag <sub>3</sub> SI, Ag <sub>3</sub> SBr	280	2 months	7,8
Ag <sub>3</sub> SI, Ag <sub>3</sub> SBr	300	4–5 days	3,9,10
Ag <sub>3</sub> SBr	300	10 days	11
Ag <sub>3</sub> SI, Ag <sub>3</sub> SBr	400	4–5 days	12,13
Ag <sub>3</sub> SI	550	17 hours	14
Ag <sub>3</sub> SI, Ag <sub>3</sub> SBr	550	5–7 days	15-17
Ag <sub>3</sub> SI	600	1 day	17
Ag <sub>3</sub> SI	700	3 months	18
Ag <sub>3</sub> SI	750	3 hours	19
Ag <sub>3</sub> SI	800	6–7 days	20,21
Ag <sub>3</sub> SBr	800	6 months	22,23
Ag <sub>3</sub> SBr	800	1 month	24
Ag <sub>3</sub> SBr	800	4 months	25
Ag <sub>3</sub> SI	850	30 hours	26
Ag <sub>3</sub> SI, Ag <sub>3</sub> SBr	Digestion - 200	2–3 days	7,26-30

The main interest for these materials so far has been related to their relatively high ion conductivity first reported by Takahashi and Yamamoto in 1966.<sup>14</sup> Most of the later work has been focused on elucidating the crystallography and phase transitions of these antiperovskites. Regarding Ag<sub>3</sub>SI, at least 4 polymorphs have been reported usually noted  $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha^*$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  which structurally differ in the ordering of the different ions.<sup>31</sup> The  $\alpha$  phase, with disordered S<sup>2</sup>-/I<sup>-</sup> anions is reported to be the most stable at temperatures above 250 °C. Upon cooling to room temperature,  $\alpha$ - Ag<sub>3</sub>SI may convert to the reportedly more stable  $\beta$  phase with ordered anions and lower ionic conductivity, or transform into the metastable  $\alpha^*$  phase, which has disordered S<sup>2-</sup>/I<sup>-</sup> anions (and higher ionic conductivity) as the hightemperature  $\alpha$  phase but differs in the position of the Ag<sup>+</sup> cations. The y phase, which implies Ag<sup>+</sup> cation ordering, is only reported at low temperatures (< 128 K).<sup>32</sup> Electrical conductivity in all cases has been ascribed mostly to ion movement. Regarding optical properties, Ag<sub>3</sub>SI is reported to be a narrow-bandgap semiconductor with theoreticallyand experimentally-determined direct bandgaps around 0.9–1.1 eV at room temperature,<sup>13,33</sup> which make it especially promising for photovoltaics. Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr appears to be less studied in comparison with scarce and conflicting bandgap energies reported from 0.3 eV to 1.9 eV.<sup>34-36</sup> Eventually, regarding the deposition of thin films, we are only aware of one report by Tver'yanovich et al.19 on multilayer films lacking detailed structural and/or elemental analysis.

In summary, silver chalcohalide antiperovskites appear as promising low-toxicity alternatives to lead halide perovskites and other semiconductors for photovoltaics and other optoelectronic applications. Nevertheless, with regards to literature, it is obvious that for the potential implementation of these materials in such fields, it is paramount to be able to obtain the antiperovskites in a much more time- and energy-efficient manner than those described in Table 1. Furthermore, the deposition of relevant thin films remains virtually unexplored. Finally, optoelectronic properties beyond ionic conductivity and especially on thin film samples, are yet to be accurately determined.

Here, we demonstrate that Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr and Ag<sub>3</sub>SI antiperovskites can be synthesized as non-templated high-purity powders by fast and low-temperature processes combining mechanochemical synthesis and mild thermal annealing. Light-absorption properties of the obtained crystallites are characterized experimentally by photothermal deflection spectroscopy (PDS). Furthermore, Ag<sub>3</sub>SI is deposited as thin film by pulsed laser deposition (PLD). Structural, morphological and elemental characterization are carried out by X-ray Diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) demonstrating the formation of compact antiperovskite thin films with thicknesses in the hundreds of nanometers. Optical characterization including air photoelectron spectroscopy (APS), Kelvin probe measurements (KP), and PDS as well as UV-vis optical absorption are employed to gain some insights into the energy levels of Ag<sub>3</sub>SI semiconductor thin films. Optical pump terahertz probe (OPTP) measurements demonstrate for the first time the high charge-carrier mobility for these materials (note that reports on high mobilities so far have focused on ion mobilities which the terahertz probe is largely insensitive to) and reveal that charge carriers are short lived. Eventually, density functional theory (DFT) calculations are undertaken to shed more light into the optoelectronic properties of Ag<sub>3</sub>SI and Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr antiperovskites as well as on their dependence on structural disorder.

#### 2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

# 2.1. CHEMICAL SYNTHESIS AND STRUCTURAL CHARACTERIZATION OF Ag<sub>3</sub>SX POWDERS

Based on our previous work on the mechanochemical synthesis of different metal-halide materials,<sup>37</sup> we ballmilled stoichiometric amounts of Ag<sub>2</sub>S and AgX (X = Br, I) for 1 h under inert atmosphere. However, this did not lead to the synthesis of Ag<sub>3</sub>SI or Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr, as shown in Figure 2a,c. Nevertheless, upon annealing at a moderate temperature of 160 °C for 30 min in nitrogen, Ag<sub>3</sub>SI is formed from the ball-milled mixture of Ag<sub>2</sub>S and AgI without any noticeable traces of unreacted precursors or by-products, as evidenced by the XRD analysis presented in Figure 2b. In the case of the bromide analogue, small traces of unreacted AgBr are still present when annealing at 160 °C (Figure S1), which vanish completely when heated to 220 °C (Figure 2d).



**Figure 2**. XRD of stoichiometric AgI+Ag<sub>2</sub>S (a) and AgBr+Ag<sub>2</sub>S (c) mixtures ball-milled for 1 h. XRD of resulting antiperovskite after thermal annealing in nitrogen at 160 °C (b) or 220 °C (d) for 30 min of (a) and (c), respectively. Reference patterns for AgI, AgBr, Ag<sub>2</sub>S,  $\alpha^*$ -Ag3SI,  $\beta$ -Ag3SI, and  $\beta$ -Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr correspond to Inorganic Crystal Structure Database (ICSD) entries #56552, #56546, #182916, #93429, #202123, and #25531, respectively.

Note that such thermal annealing at low temperature of pristine (non-ball-milled) powder mixtures does not yield the desired antiperovskite phase (see Figures S2 and S3), so that both steps (ball-milling + thermal annealing) are found to be necessary to obtain Ag<sub>3</sub>SX. To be more precise on the obtained antiperovskite phases, Rietveld refinement (whose details can be found as Supporting Information in Figure S4 and Table S1) yields a composition of 75%  $\alpha^*$ -Ag<sub>3</sub>SI and 25%  $\beta$ -Ag<sub>3</sub>SI in the case of the iodide compound. In the case of X = Br, according to XRD (Figure S1),  $\beta$ -Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr (cubic antiperovskite; space group *Pm-3m*) is formed at 220 °C and is stable at room temperature.<sup>32</sup> This analysis demonstrates that high-purity, non-templated Ag<sub>3</sub>SX (X = I or Br) antiperovskites can be synthesized by a much faster and lower-temperature route compared to reported protocols in literature (see Table 1).

# 2.2. VISIBLE AND INFRARED LIGHT ABSORPTION CHARACTERIZATION

Determination of the absorption spectrum of powder samples by conventional transmission and reflection measurements is hampered by light scattering. We therefore used photothermal deflection spectroscopy (PDS; Figure 3) to characterize the optical response of Ag<sub>3</sub>SX samples in the visible and near-infrared region. PDS measures the (relative) amount of heat produced upon photon absorption.<sup>38</sup> If the samples are not very emissive, as is the case here, only a tiny portion of the absorbed energy is re-emitted. Thus, for weakly emissive samples, almost all absorbed energy is converted to heat, resulting in a PDS spectrum proportional to the optical absorption spectrum. Note that, as opposed to transmission and reflection measurements, the PDS measurement is not affected by light scattering and if no absorption takes place, the PDS signal is zero. It is therefore ideally suited to characterize absorption onsets of highly scattering samples, such as powder samples.



**Figure 3.** Photothermal deflection spectroscopy (PDS) characterization of Ag<sub>3</sub>SI (black) and Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr (red) powders. The PDS signal is proportional to the absorption spectrum. Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals.

The most striking feature in view of Figure 3 is the lack of a clear onset in the PDS signal that would allow for a clear determination of the bandgap energy value. This is especially so in the case of Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr where a shallow slope is present from 0.8 eV to 1.55 eV. We note however that this spectrum is very similar to previous characterization of the same compound by the closely-related technique of photoacoustic spectroscopy and could be related to subbandgap absorption by impurities.<sup>36</sup> However, we note as well that similar shallow absorption onsets have also been reported for several multinary semiconductors (e.g., kesterites, ABZ<sub>2</sub> semiconductors), which are attributed to lattice disorder.<sup>39-41</sup> Here, the disorder in the occupation of lattice sites has been shown to vield Gaussian disorder in the density of states, resulting in broad absorption tails. In any case, moving from X = Br to X = I seems to yield a redshift in absorption similar to that observed on tin and lead halide perovskites, with Ag<sub>3</sub>SI showing strong light absorption throughout the visible range as well as near infrared, which makes it promising for light-harvesting applications such as photovoltaics.

### 2.3. PULSED LASER DEPOSITION OF Ag<sub>3</sub>SI THIN FILMS

Given the demonstrated fast and low-temperature synthesis of these silver chalcohalide antiperovskites and their promising properties for optoelectronics, we attempted the deposition of Ag<sub>3</sub>SI thin films. Thermal singleand dual-source evaporation, which have proven to be suitable for lead-halide perovskites<sup>42-44</sup> were investigated with little success. No evidence of sulphur incorporation into the thin films was found, meaning that both the presynthesized Ag<sub>3</sub>SI (in the single-source evaporation configuration) and Ag<sub>2</sub>S (in the dual-source co-evaporation configuration) undergo decomposition and incongruent evaporation or sublimation with loss of sulphur at low temperatures (see Figures S5 and S6). In contrast, antiperovskite thin-films of around 140 nm thickness (Figure 4a) were successfully deposited by pulsed laser deposition (PLD) in a similar manner as recently reported for silverbismuth-based halide double perovskites.45 In brief, Ag<sub>3</sub>SI powder is formed, first by mechanochemical synthesis, and then annealed as described in the Supporting Information. These stoichiometric powders are then pressed into a pellet and loaded into a PLD chamber. Ar gas is introduced to reach a working pressure of  $1.5 \times 10^{-2}$  mbar, after which an excimer laser (248 nm) ablates the target at a frequency of 10 Hz. The substrate is kept at room temperature for all depositions.

To begin with, the stoichiometric transfer of material from target to substrate was studied by energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX). By tuning the fluence of the excimer laser from 2 J cm<sup>-2</sup> to 0.3 J cm<sup>-2</sup> we observe little effect on the incorporation of sulphur into the thin-films, which remain sulphur-poor. Instead, we find that the ratio of Ag:I can be tuned from 3.73 at 2 J cm<sup>-2</sup> (an iodide deficiency) to 2.07 at 0.75 J cm<sup>-2</sup> (an iodide excess) (Table S2). A fluence of 0.75 J cm<sup>-2</sup> was chosen for this work, keeping an iodide excess in the film. This fluence was chosen in part to avoid the nucleation of metallic Ag crystals observed upon annealing of Ag-rich films (Figure S7). The sulphur deficiency was then compensated by adding an excess of elemental sulphur to the antiperovskite powder with a molar ratio of 3:1 before target pressing (see the Supporting Information for more details, Figure S8). Thinfilms deposited with these targets were studied by EDX, and a sulphur excess was observed (Table 2). Samples were then annealed at 200 °C for 30 minutes in a nitrogen atmosphere, and then measured once again by EDX. After this annealing process, the ratios of Ag:I:S equalize to  $\sim$ 3:1:1 (Table 2). We note that in all post-annealed films slight iodide-excess remains. This convergence towards the molar ratios expected from a Ag<sub>3</sub>SI compound is in agreement with XRD (Figure 4b), where the nucleation of Ag<sub>3</sub>SI polymorphs is observed; the  $\beta$ -Ag<sub>3</sub>SI phase being the most noticeable by its distinct peak at 31.65°.

**Table 2.** EDX measurements of as-deposited and annealed films. All films were deposited at room temperature, 10 Hz, a fluence of 0.75 J cm<sup>-2</sup>, and a working pressure of 1.5 x  $10^{-2}$  mbar. The samples were then annealed under N<sub>2</sub> at 200 <sup>o</sup>C for 30 minutes and show a convergence of the molar ratios of the Ag:S:I to ~3:1:1, with a slight iodide excess.

	Ag	S	I
Pristine	2.69	1.53	0.78
Annealed	2.93	0.97	1.10



**Figure 4**. a) Cross-sectional SEM image of a Ag<sub>3</sub>SI film deposited using a 3:1 S:Ag<sub>3</sub>SI target annealed for 20 hours at 200 <sup>o</sup>C. b) XRD of thin-films deposited using a sulphur-rich target of 3:1 S:Ag<sub>3</sub>SI. These films were grown on an ITO/SnO<sub>2</sub> substrate whose diffraction pattern is shown in black. Peaks from AgI and  $\alpha$ -Ag<sub>3</sub>SI phases are denoted by \* and #, respectively. c) Optical and PDS spectra. d) APS characterization showing ionization energy.

Upon further annealing for 20h, antiperovskite diffraction peaks become more intense, translating an increased crystallization of amorphous material. A slight narrowing of diffraction peaks is also observed (see Figure S9) suggesting some crystallite growth and/or coalescence. The cross-sectional scanning electron microscopy (SEM) of a film deposited using a 3:1 S:Ag<sub>3</sub>SI target and subsequently annealed at 200 <sup>o</sup>C for 20 hr is shown in Figure 4a with a total thickness of 140 nm.

Optical properties of the annealed antiperovskite thin film are studied by PDS and UV-visible absorption (Figure 4c). In both cases a shallow slope is observed with multiple oscillations. These may be partly ascribed to interferences but also to structural disorder of the Ag<sup>+</sup> cations (see further discussion on theoretical calculations in the next section). Eventually photoelectron spectroscopy in air is carried out to determine the ionization energy (valence band maximum with respect to vacuum level). A linear extrapolation of the photoemission yield in linear scale gives an ionization energy around 5.4 eV (Figure S10). However, a closer look at the signal on a logarithmic scale (Figure 4d) reveals a second ionization energy around 4.9 eV. The origin of these two levels remains unclear but could also be related to structural disorder with the coexistence of  $\alpha^*$  and  $\beta$  phases as suggested by Figure 4b. Kelvin probe measurements (Figure S11) indicate a work function of 4.4 eV. Therefore, the Fermi level is calculated to be 0.5 to 1.0 eV above the valence band maximum.

In order to gain insights into the dynamics of photoexcited charge carriers in Ag<sub>3</sub>SI thin films, we carried out transient OPTP photoconductivity spectroscopy measurements. Figure 5 shows a normalized OPTP transient measured for Ag<sub>3</sub>SI following excitation with 2.48 eV pulses. As discussed by Wehrenfennig *et al.*,<sup>46</sup> the conductivity value immediately following the onset can be used to extract the effective electron-hole sum mobility in the material. This method has previously been used to extract charge-carrier mobilities for several emerging thin-film semiconductors (e.g., lead halide perovskites, lead-free perovskites, and other perovskite-inspired materials).47,48 Assuming free charge-carrier transport, we are able to extract an effective electron-hole sum mobility value of 49±1 cm<sup>2</sup>V<sup>-1</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>. We note that the obtained mobility rivals that of lead halide perovskites and other emerging semiconductors.49,50 To further analyze the lifetimes of charge carriers following excitation, OPTP photoconductivity transients was fitted with a stretched exponential model revealing a short charge-carrier lifetime of  $\tau \sim 24$  ps. Interestingly, the good fit of the stretched exponential model<sup>51</sup> indicates the strongly dispersive nature of charge-carrier recombination processes in these thin films, which is compatible with a high level of disorder and the presence of defect-mediated recombination processes, in agreement with the observation of long and shallow absorption tails reported above.



Figure 5. Normalized THz photoconductivity transient (- $\Delta T/T$ ) of a Ag<sub>3</sub>SI film annealed at 200 °C recorded following excitation with 2.48 eV photons at a pulse fluence of 0.9  $\mu$ J cm<sup>2</sup>. The dashed line corresponds to a stretched exponential fit to the experimental data.

Having extracted the charge carrier mobility and lifetime, we estimate a charge-carrier diffusion length of ~55 nm using the equation  $L_D = (\mu \tau k_B T/e)^{1/2.52}$  It is worth noting that the dispersive nature of charge-carrier recombination processes in  $Ag_3SI$  this film suggests that a range of charge-carrier recombination times are present, meaning that the obtained value represents an average diffusion length value.

# 2.4. THEORETICAL CALCULATIONS

To shed more light into the electronic properties of these silver chalcohalide antiperovskites, especially concerning the bandgap of Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr on which very scarce and conflicting data is available (from 0.3 to 1.9 eV),<sup>34-36</sup> we undertook theoretical calculations at the DFT level using periodic boundary conditions (see the SI for computational details). Several phases have been previously characterized for Ag<sub>3</sub>SI and Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr.<sup>32</sup> In Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr, the  $\beta$  phase is the one found experimentally at room temperature, and consists of 3 Ag+ ions distributed statistically into the 12(h) sites in a simple cubic structure with space group Pm-3m. Preliminary geometry optimizations indicate that the Pm-3m structure where the Ag ions are placed (averaged) at the face centers is unstable (transition state), and upon small atomic displacements it evolves to a y-like distorted structure (see Figure S12a). On the other hand, the high-temperature  $\alpha$ phase of Ag<sub>3</sub>SI presents random distribution of S<sub>2</sub>-/I- anions, whose long-range ordering lowers the symmetry to *Pm-3m* ( $\beta$  phase).<sup>53</sup> As in Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr, upon crystal relaxation of the Pm-3m cell of Ag<sub>3</sub>SI, Ag ions move off the face center towards a Cmcm-like structure (Figure S12b). Further ordering of the Ag<sup>+</sup> cations in one of the four equivalent Ag-positions of the  $\beta$  phase leads to  $\gamma$ -Ag<sub>3</sub>SI (space group R3).53

Minimum-energy crystal structures of Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr and Ag<sub>3</sub>SI were obtained at the PBEsol/light tier-1 level of theory using primitive, conventional, and extended unit cells (see Figure S13). Lattice parameters for all the crystal structures are summarized in Table S3. High-level theoretical calculations using the hybrid HSE06 functional and includspin-orbit coupling (SOC) predict an indiing  $\operatorname{rect}(T \to \Gamma)/\operatorname{direct}(\Gamma)$  bandgap ( $E_g$ ) of 1.49/1.66 eV (Figure S14-S15), in contrast to a value of 0.88 eV reported at the less-accurate LDA level of theory,<sup>33</sup> but in good accord with photoacoustic experiments (1.5 and 1.85 eV for a broad absorption shoulder and peak, respectively).<sup>36</sup> The effect of the functional used in the calculations and the SOC correction on the bandgap energy is detailed in Table S4. The bandgap of Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr is characterized by a valence-band maximum (VBM) with an even contribution of constituting Ag<sup>+</sup> (4d-orbitals), S<sup>2-</sup> (3p-orbitals), and Br<sup>-</sup> (4p-orbitals) ions, whereas the conduction-band minimum (CBM) mainly involves the 5s-orbital of Ag<sup>+</sup> (Figure 6a and S16-S17). These results therefore evidence the crucial role of Ag in the VBM/CBM nature and suggest that the Ag ordering within the crystal may influence the bandgap energy.

Enlarging the unit cell from primitive to conventional and extended orthorhombic (ORC) cells increases the Ag<sup>+</sup> degrees of freedom for further relaxation and symmetry alleviation, and leads to a small decrease of the bandgap to 1.42/1.58 eV (indirect/direct) and 1.44 eV, respectively (Table S4). These values are in line with the reported experimental photoacoustic data and with our powder PDS signal saturation (*ca.* 1.55 eV). The electronic band structure found for the conventional ORC unit cell of  $Ag_3SBr$  is displayed in Figure 6b, showing a large number of quasidegenerated states below the bandgap indicative of high disorder of  $Ag^+$  ions within the cell.



**Figure 6.** Mulliken orbital-projected density of states (a) and band structure (b) calculated at the HSE06+SOC level for the conventional ORC cell of  $Ag_3SBr$ .

Moving to Ag<sub>3</sub>SI, an HSE06+SOC indirect( $S \rightarrow \Gamma$ )/direct( $\Gamma$ ) bandgap of 1.28/1.56 eV is predicted for the  $\beta$ -ORCC primitive cell (Figure S18-S19). For the sake of comparison, the v phase of  $Ag_3SI$  (space group R3) is predicted with a bandgap of 1.34/1.71 eV for primitive rhombohedral and 1.32/1.69 eV for conventional hexagonal cells (Table S3 and Figure S13-S14). As in Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr, Ag orbitals are highly involved in the VBM (4d-orbitals) and CBM (5s-orbital) of β- Ag<sub>3</sub>SI (Figure S18). Moving from primitive ORCC to conventional and extended ORC cells leads to a noticeable bandgap reduction up to  $0.82(Z \rightarrow \Gamma)/1.06(\Gamma)$  and 1.00 eV, respectively (Figure S20-S23 and Table S4). This bandgap reduction is prompted by zig-zag Ag<sup>+</sup> ions displacements from *Cmcm* out of *ab*-plane along the *c*-axis (Figure 7). Simulation of the absorption spectrum by means of the linear macroscopic dielectric function approximation nicely matches the PDS shape recorded experimentally for the Ag<sub>3</sub>SI film, with several shoulders in the low-energy range (compare Figure 4c and Figure S24).



**Figure 7.** Minimum-energy crystal structures calculated at the PBEsol level for the primitive ORCC (a) and conventional ORC (b) unit cells of  $\beta$ -Ag<sub>3</sub>SI. Color coding: gray for Ag, yellow for S, and purple for I.

On the other hand, the  $\alpha^*$  phase of Ag<sub>3</sub>SI was modelled by randomly exchanging 15% and 100% of the S<sup>2-</sup>/I<sup>-</sup> anions in the conventional ORC unit cell. Minimum–energy crystal structures indicate large deformations localized over the defectively positioned anions in the 15% model, whereas a fully disordered structure is predicted for 100% exchange (see Figure S25). Theoretical calculations at the HSE06+SOC level predict for  $\alpha^*$ -Ag<sub>3</sub>SI a significant increase in the indirect/direct bandgap from 0.82/1.06 eV ( $\beta$ phase) to 1.30/1.31 eV (15% random distribution) and 1.29/1.39 eV (100% random distribution), in good accordance with the experimental evidences.<sup>13</sup>

Finally, the thermal effect on the bandgap was disentangled by performing ab-initio Car-Parrinello molecular dynamics on Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr and Ag<sub>3</sub>SI for 1 ps simulation time at 300 K (see the SI for details). Theoretical calculations predict a negligible thermal effect on the bandgap of Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr compared to the static calculations, with an average value of 1.42±0.07(indirect)/1.47±0.08(direct) eV. In contrast, the bandgap of Ag<sub>3</sub>SI experiences a noticeable increase of ca. 0.3 eV during the dynamics, with an average  $E_{\rm g}$  of 1.14±0.14(indirect)/1.38±0.14(direct) eV. In spite of this, root-mean-standard deviation (RMSD) in atomic displacements indicate that silver atoms have moved more on average in Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr (RMSD of Ag = 1.11 Å) than in Ag<sub>3</sub>SI (RMSD of Ag = 0.85 Å; see Table S5), suggesting that the electronic structure of the iodine-based material is more sensitive to local distortions.

#### **3. CONCLUSIONS**

In conclusion, we have shown the fast (< 2 h) and solvent-free synthesis of Ag<sub>3</sub>SI and Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr antiperovskites through mechanochemical synthesis and thermal annealing at moderate temperatures (160 °C and 220 °C, respectively). Thin films of Ag<sub>3</sub>SI were successfully deposited by pulsed-laser deposition from S-enriched Ag<sub>3</sub>SI targets. Our analysis of THz photoconductivity demonstrates that Ag<sub>3</sub>SI

films present an excellent charge-carrier mobility of  $49 \text{ cm}^2 \text{V}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ , highlighting the potential for applications in optoelectronic devices that rely on efficient charge-carrier transport. However, the relatively fast recombination life-times show that development of targeted trap passivation techniques is now required in order to extend charge-carrier diffusion lengths towards the hundreds of nanometers.

# **ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

Supporting Information.

This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <u>http://pubs.acs.org</u>.

Detailed experimental procedures, characterization methods, XRD of in-situ annealing of Ag<sub>3</sub>SBr, XRD of hand-mixed precursors, Rietveld refinement of Ag<sub>3</sub>SI, computed crystal structures and lattice parameters, calculated density of states, calculated band structures and bandgap energies, XRD of thin films by single- and dual-source sublimation, EDX and XRD of films by PLD, XRD of PLD targets, details of Optical-Pump-Terahertz-Probe Measurements.

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The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors.

### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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