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Bright triplet excitons in lead halide perovskites

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Nanostructured semiconductors emit light from electronic states known as excitons¹. 17 For organic materials, Hund's rules² state that the lowest energy exciton is a poorly 18 emitting triplet state. For inorganic semiconductors, similar rules³ predict an analog of 19 this triplet known as the 'dark exciton'4. Because this state releases photons slowly, 20 21 hindering emission from inorganic nanostructures, materials that disobey these rules have been sought. However, even after considerable experimental and theoretical 22 efforts, no inorganic semiconductors have been identified in which the lowest exciton 23 24 is bright. Here we show that the lowest exciton in cesium lead halide perovskites [CsPbX₃ (X = Cl, Br, and I)] involves a highly emissive triplet state. We first use the 25 effective-mass model and group theory to explore this possibility, which can occur 26 when the strong spin-orbit coupling in the perovskite conduction band is combined 27 with the Rashba effect⁵⁻¹⁰. We then apply our model to CsPbX₃ nanocrystals¹¹, for 28 29 which we measure size- and composition-dependent fluorescence at the single-30 nanocrystal level. The bright-triplet character of the lowest exciton immediately explains the anomalous photon-emission rates of these materials, which emit ~20 and 31 ~1,000 times faster¹² than any other semiconductor nanocrystal at room¹³⁻¹⁶ and 32 33 cryogenic⁴ temperatures, respectively. The bright-triplet exciton is further confirmed by detailed analysis of the fine structure in low-temperature fluorescence spectra. For 34 semiconductor nanocrystals, which are already used in lighting¹⁷, lasers¹⁸, and 35 displays¹⁹, these excitons can lead to materials with brighter emission. More generally, 36 our results provide criteria for identifying other semiconductors that exhibit bright 37 38 excitons, with potential implications for optoelectronic devices.

An exciton involves an electron in the conduction band Coulombically bound to a hole in the valence band. Its energy depends in part on the spin configuration of these two charge carriers. In organic semiconductors, the lowest energy exciton is a triplet state in which these two carriers have parallel spins. For the electron and hole to recombine and release a photon, one spin must simultaneously flip to satisfy the Pauli exclusion principle. Because this coordinated process is unlikely, triplet excitons are poorly emitting.

In addition to spin, the exciton energy depends on the atomic orbitals that constitute the conduction and valence bands. In many inorganic semiconductors, the orbital motion and spin of the carriers are strongly coupled. Spin is no longer conserved, and the total angular momentum of the electron and hole (J_e and J_h) must be considered. Further, the exchange interaction mixes these so that only the total exciton momentum $J=J_e+J_h$ is conserved. Due to these and other effects, each exciton state is split into several energy sublevels, known as fine structure. Studies on various materials have found that the lowest energy sublevel is 'dark', meaning that optical transitions to the ground state are dipole forbidden. Emission, if it occurs, is very slow. For example, in CdSe, recombination of the lowest exciton requires a change of two units of angular momentum⁴. Because the photon carries one unit, light cannot be emitted unless another unit is simultaneously dissipated, another unlikely process. The lowest exciton in all known inorganic semiconductors behaves similarly, leading to the common belief that such states *must* be dark.

We show that this belief is incorrect by examining CsPbX₃ (X=Cl, Br, and I) perovskites. Their crystals comprise corner-sharing PbX₆-octahedra with Cs⁺ ions filling the voids between (Fig. 1a). We first approximate the lattice as cubic and calculate band structures (Methods) for CsPbBr₃ (Fig. 1b), CsPbCl₃, and CsPbI₃ (Extended Data Fig. 1). The bandgap occurs at the Brillouin zone's R-point, near which the valence and conduction bands are well described

within the effective-mass model (see Supplementary Table 1). The top of the valence band arises from a mixture of Pb 6s and Br 4p atomic orbitals, with an overall s symmetry^{20,21}. Thus, including spin, the hole can occupy one of two s-like Bloch states with $J_h=1/2$, *i.e.* $|\uparrow\rangle_h=|S\rangle|\uparrow\rangle$ or $|\downarrow\rangle_h=|S\rangle|\downarrow\rangle$, using standard notation²². The conduction band consists of Pb 6p orbitals, leading to three possible orthogonal spatial components for the Bloch function: $|X\rangle$, $|Y\rangle$, or $|Z\rangle$ ^{20,21}. Because of strong spin—orbit coupling, these are mixed with spin to obtain a doubly degenerate $J_e=1/2$ state for the electron at the bottom of the conduction band:

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$$|\Uparrow\rangle_e = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} [(|X\rangle + i|Y\rangle)|\downarrow\rangle + |Z\rangle|\uparrow\rangle], \\ |\Downarrow\rangle_e = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} [|Z\rangle|\downarrow\rangle - (|X\rangle - i|Y\rangle)|\uparrow\rangle].$$
 (1)

When the momentum of the electron and hole states are then combined, the exciton splits due to electron–hole exchange into a *J*=0 singlet state,

$$|\Psi_{0,0}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [|\psi\rangle_e |\uparrow\rangle_h - |\Uparrow\rangle_e |\downarrow\rangle_h], \qquad (2)$$

and a threefold degenerate J=1 triplet state,

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$$|\Psi_{1,-1}\rangle = |\psi\rangle_e |\downarrow\rangle_h, \ |\Psi_{1,0}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [|\psi\rangle_e |\uparrow\rangle_h + |\Uparrow\rangle_e |\downarrow\rangle_h], \ |\Psi_{1,+1}\rangle = |\Uparrow\rangle_e |\uparrow\rangle_h,$$
 (3)

where each $|\Psi_{J,J_z}\rangle$ is labeled with J_z , the z-projection of J. The probability of light emission due to electron–hole recombination from these excitons can then be calculated (Supplementary Section 1). We find a probability of zero for $|\Psi_{0,0}\rangle$ and nonzero for $|\Psi_{1,J_z=0,\pm 1}\rangle$, indicating a dark singlet and bright triplet.

These selection rules are confirmed by group theory. At the R-point, the band-edge electron and hole states transform as irreducible representations R_6^- and R_6^+ , respectively (superscript denoting parity)²³. Exchange then splits the exciton into a dark singlet (R_1^-) and a bright triplet (R_4^-). (See Supplementary Section 2 and Supplementary Table 3.)

Detailed calculations (Supplementary Section 1) can then reveal the energetic order of these levels. If only short-range exchange is included, the singlet lies below the triplet (Fig. 1c). However, CsPbX₃ perovskites should also exhibit a large Rashba effect⁵. This occurs in semiconductors with strong spin–orbit coupling and an inversion asymmetry. For the closely related hybrid organic–inorganic perovskites, the impact of this effect on photovoltaic and spintronic devices has been heavily discussed⁶⁻⁹. Although the cause of the inversion asymmetry (cation positional instabilities²⁴ or surface effects⁹) remains unknown, the Rashba effect should alter the fine structure. Indeed, the bright triplet exciton can be lowered below the dark singlet exciton.

To examine this possibility, we studied colloidal nanocrystals of CsPbX₃ (Methods). Compared to bulk crystals, nanocrystals allow the additional effect of system size to be investigated. Such particles are roughly cube-shaped with edge lengths *L*=8-15 nm (Fig. 1d). Before these were introduced¹¹, all technologically relevant semiconductor nanocrystals exhibited slow sub-microsecond radiative lifetimes at cryogenic temperatures due to the lowest exciton being dark⁴. In contrast, CsPbX₃ nanocrystals emit ~1000x faster (with subnanosecond lifetimes)¹². Figure 2a shows photoluminescence decays for individual CsPbI₃, CsPbBr₃, and CsPbBr₂Cl nanocrystals at cryogenic temperatures. The decay times are 0.85, 0.38, and 0.18 ns, respectively, decreasing with increasing emission energy. The photoluminescence quantum yield for the fastest of these samples, the CsPbBr₂Cl nanocrystals (*L*=14±1 nm), was measured to be near unity (88±14%) at 5 K (Extended Data Fig. 2), indicating that these decay times can be directly related to radiative lifetimes. Figure 2b presents a larger set of decay times (squares) for individual CsPbI₃, CsPbBr₃, and CsPbBr₂Cl nanocrystals. All are much shorter than those reported for CdSe, CdS, CdTe,

InAs, InSb, InP, PbSe, PbS, and PbTe nanocrystals¹³⁻¹⁶, consistent with the lowest exciton being the bright triplet.

However, fast decays could also indicate emission from trions (charged excitons). Trions are optically active but suffer from rapid nonradiative Auger recombination. Thus, they should exhibit quicker but weaker decays than excitons. In our single-nanocrystal experiments above, trion contributions are reduced by spectral filtering (Extended Data Fig. 3). However, to test explicitly the role of trions, we analyzed the photon stream from individual nanocrystals without filtering (Fig. 2c,d, left plots). The correlation of emission intensity with lifetime allows the strong exciton and weak trion contributions to be separated (right plots)²⁵. We confirm fast exciton lifetimes (1.2 and 0.4 ns, respectively) for CsPbI₃ and CsPbBr₃ nanocrystals, values consistent with ensemble measurements (Extended Data Fig. 4).

To compare with theory, we calculated radiative lifetimes for perovskite nanocrystals within the effective-mass model. In addition to the wavefunctions in equations (2)-(3), exciton confinement within the nanocrystal must be included via envelope functions for the electron and hole. If CsPbX₃ nanocrystals were spherical, excitonic lifetimes could be calculated with prior methods (Supplementary Section 3). However, for cubes, the electric field of a photon not only changes across the nanocrystal boundary due to dielectric screening (as in spherical nanocrystals), but it also becomes inhomogeneous (Fig. 2e and Extended Data Figs. 5 and 6). We included this inhomogeneity, along with the Rashba effect and the orthorhombic lattice distortion in CsPbX₃ nanocrystals²⁶. For simplicity, we assumed the nanocrystals were cube shaped. Only when the Rashba effect was included could a self-consistent model for CsPbX₃ nanocrystals be obtained, as now described.

The Rashba coefficient was estimated from low-temperature photoluminescence spectra (see below). If the effective Rashba field is parallel to one of the orthorhombic symmetry axes

of the nanocrystal (see Supplementary Section 1 for details and other cases), the bright triplet exciton (*J*=1) is split into three nondegenerate sublevels:

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$$|\Psi_{x}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}[|\uparrow\rangle_{e}|\uparrow\rangle_{h} - |\downarrow\rangle_{e}|\downarrow\rangle_{h}], \quad |\Psi_{z}\rangle = |\Psi_{1,0}\rangle, \quad |\Psi_{y}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}[|\uparrow\rangle_{e}|\uparrow\rangle_{h} + |\downarrow\rangle_{e}|\downarrow\rangle_{h}], \tag{4}$$

which lie below the dark singlet (Fig. 1c). The triplet states represent three linear dipoles polarized along the orthorhombic symmetry axes (x, y, z). Transitions from these three sublevels have the same oscillator strength. Moreover, in cube-shaped nanocrystals, these states still emit as linear dipoles despite the inhomogeneous field (Supplementary Sections 1 and 3).

The triplet exciton radiative lifetime, τ_{ex} , can then be evaluated from:

$$\frac{1}{\tau_{ex}} = \frac{4\omega n E_p}{9 \times 137 m_0 c^2} I_{\parallel}^2. \tag{5}$$

with the angular transition frequency, ω , the refractive index of the surrounding medium, n, the free-electron mass, m_0 , the speed of light, c, the Kane energy, $E_p = 2P^2/m_0$ (Extended Data Fig. 7), and the Kane parameter, P (ref. 22). I_{\parallel} is an overlap integral that includes the electron and hole envelope functions and the field-averaged transition-dipole moment (Supplementary Section 3).

Figure 2b presents the calculated τ_{ex} for CsPbX₃ nanocrystals (circles). The results can be divided into three regimes, depending on the nanocrystal size. When the nanocrystal is smaller than the exciton Bohr radius a_B (strong exciton confinement, orange circles), the predicted radiative lifetime decreases from 2 to 1 ns with increasing emission energy. For large nanocrystals in the opposite limit (weak exciton confinement, green circles), the lifetime should be even shorter as weakly confined excitons exhibit larger oscillator strengths²⁷. In this size regime ($L\sim15-25$ nm), the calculated lifetimes decrease below 100 ps for CsPbBr₃ and

CsPbCl₃ nanocubes. The lifetime would be decreased further in spheres of the same volume (lower inset, Fig. 2e).

The measured photoluminescence decays in Fig. 2b (squares) lie between those predicted for strong and weak confinement. Because the nanocrystal size and a_B are comparable, the electron and hole motion is correlated. If this effect is added (intermediate exciton confinement, blue circles), calculations for $L\sim4-16$ nm (Supplementary Section 3 and Extended Data Fig. 8) agree well with experiment.

The exciton level order used above depends on the values and relative signs of the Rashba coefficients for the electron and hole. If they have the same sign, the angular-momentum texture (*i.e.* how the angular-momentum orientation varies with wavevector) exhibits the same helicity at the valence band maximum and conduction band minimum⁷. Optical transitions between these bands are allowed when the helicity is preserved (due to their s and p symmetry, respectively.) Thus, for this case, the lowest exciton sublevel should be bright. See Supplementary Section 1.E for details. A similar situation exists in transition metal dichalcogenide monolayers²⁸.

We estimated the values of the Rashba coefficients from photoluminescence spectra of individual nanocrystals, which reveal the fine structure directly. Our nanocrystals exhibit one, two, or three peaks, all with near-linear polarization (Fig. 3a-c and Extended Data Figs. 9 and 10). This is consistent with the three nondegenerate exciton sublevels in equation (4) under orthorhombic symmetry, which should emit as orthogonal linear dipoles. For simplicity, we assume that the electron and hole Rashba coefficients are equal. The value (0.38 eV Å) required to fit the observed splittings (~1 meV) is reasonable, lying between those for conventional III-V quantum wells and organic—inorganic perovskites (see Supplementary Section 1.F). We note that for nanocrystals with tetragonal symmetry, $|\Psi_x\rangle$ and $|\Psi_y\rangle$ in

equation (4) remain degenerate (Supplementary Section 1.E), explaining recently observed two-peak spectra from individual CsPbBr₃ nanoscrystals²⁹.

Emitting dipoles that are perpendicular (parallel) to the observation direction should show strong (no) emission. Thus, the intensity from each bright-triplet sublevel is explained by both its thermal population and the nanocrystal orientation. Single-line spectra (Fig. 3a) arise when the two upper sublevels are unpopulated. Strong linear polarization from this single line (Fig. 3a, inset) supports this interpretation. If the sublevel splitting in this nanocrystal were instead spectrally unresolved, the line would be unpolarized. From the expected three orthogonal dipoles, we calculated the relative intensity of the photoluminescence peaks and their polarization for arbitrary observation directions (Supplementary Section 4 and Extended Data Fig. 11). We then determined (Fig. 3d-f) the nanocrystal orientations consistent with the spectra and polarizations in Fig. 3a-c. Again, good agreement is obtained.

Figure 3g presents the experimental statistics for one-, two-, and three-line spectra. One is most common, suggesting that only the lowest sublevel is populated. For the two- and three-line spectra, the measured energy splittings are plotted in Fig. 3h,i. Given three sublevels separated by energies Δ_1 and Δ_2 (inset, Fig. 3i), the average splitting $\overline{\Delta}$ is $0.5(\overline{\Delta}_1 + \overline{\Delta}_2)$, bars denoting averages. However, two-line spectra can involve any two of the three features, leading to the average $\overline{\Delta}_1/3 + \overline{\Delta}_2/3 + (\overline{\Delta}_1 + \overline{\Delta}_2)/3 = 2(\overline{\Delta}_1 + \overline{\Delta}_2)/3$. Thus, we predict a ratio of 1.33 for average measured splittings in two- versus three-line spectra. The experimental ratio of 1.42±0.12 again supports our model.

While we have used cryogenic temperatures to confirm the bright triplet exciton, it remains important at room temperature. Although the splittings are small compared to thermal energy, the three triplet states (from four sublevels in total) are dipole allowed and thermally populated, unlike in other nanocrystals¹³⁻¹⁶. For example, in CdSe nanocrystals only 3 of 8

band-edge sublevels are bright, and these can be poorly populated even at room temperature. This and other effects (Supplementary Section 5) explain why room-temperature emission from CsPbX₃ perovskite nanocrystals is 20x faster than in other systems. The emission should be even faster for nanowires and nanoplatelets. Such shapes can further decrease the radiative lifetime due to diminished dielectric screening and smaller one- or two-dimensional excitons³⁰.

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Although CsPbX₃ nanocrystals are oxidatively stable, their long-term stability may be limited in warm, bright, and moist environments without encapsulation that prevents sintering and provides environmental stability. Moreover, the discovery that their lowest exciton is bright reveals criteria for obtaining this phenomenon in other materials. Potential semiconductors should lack inversion symmetry, and one band edge should have s symmetry and the other p, with the latter affected by strong spin—orbit coupling such that $J_{e,h}$ =1/2.

- Finally, the Rashba coefficient for both bands must be nonzero with the same sign.
- Online Content Methods, along with any Extended Data display items and Source Data, are available in the online version of the paper; references unique to these sections appear only in the online paper.
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- 290 **Supplementary Information** is available in the online version of the paper.
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model describing the energy dispersion at the R-point and calculated the fine structure using the wavefunction extracted from first-principle calculations. P.C.S. performed the group-theory analysis of the fine structure and selection rules. M.J.M., N.B., and J.L.L. completed the first-principle calculations of the bulk band structures and the band-edge wavefunctions. R.V., P.C.S, and Al.L.E. developed the effective exchange and Rashba Hamiltonian describing the exciton fine structure. J.G.M. and S.G.L. calculated the internal electric fields in spherical and cube-shaped nanocrystals. G.N. prepared the samples and performed electron microscopy under the supervision of M.V.K. Al.L.E. and D.J.N. wrote the manuscript with input from all authors.

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Figure legends

Figure 1 | Crystal and electronic structure for perovskite CsPbBr₃. a, Orthorhombic crystal structure of CsPbBr₃ (Pnma space group, unit cell shown as a frame), which differs from the idealized cubic perovskite by an octahedral tilting. b, Calculated band structure of cubic perovskite CsPbBr₃. The inset shows the first Brillouin zone of the cubic crystal lattice. c, The expected fine structure of the band-edge exciton considering short-range electronhole exchange (middle) and then including the Rashba effect (right) under orthorhombic symmetry. The latter splits the exciton into three bright states with transition dipoles oriented along the orthorhombic symmetry axes (labelled x, y, and z) and a higher energy dark state.

The energetic order of the three lower sublevels is determined by the orthorhombic distortion.

The orthorhombic unit cell and the resulting sublevel order is shown for CsPbBr₃. **d**,

Transmission electron micrograph of an individual CsPbBr₃ nanocrystal of edge length L=14

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Figure 2 | Characterization of fast radiative lifetimes in CsPbX₃ nanocrystals. a, Photoluminescence decays measured from single CsPbl₃ (L=14 nm), CsPbBr₃ (11 nm), and CsPbBr₂Cl (14 nm) perovskite nanocrystals. **b**, Calculated radiative lifetimes of the bright triplet exciton versus transition energy for CsPbX₃ nanocrystals with X=Cl, Br, and I. The theoretical results are divided into three size regimes: strong (orange circles), intermediate (blue circles), and weak (green circles) exciton confinement. These values are compared with measured photoluminescence decays from individual perovskite nanocrystals (squares, sizes as in a). A data point for an ensemble of CsPbCl₃ nanocrystals (L=10 nm) is also shown. Measured values are consistent with calculations in the intermediate confinement regime, which include electron-hole correlations. **c**,**d** Detected photon counts (left panels) versus time from individual CsPbI₃ and CsPbBr₃ nanocrystals (sizes as in **a**). Traces show "A-type" blinking from the nanocrystals²⁵. Such data can be analyzed to separate contributions to the photoluminescence decay from exciton and trion emission (right panel). The targeted temperature in all experiments was 5 K, but may be higher (10-20 K; see Fig. 3 caption). e, Calculated distribution of the z component of the electric field, E_z^z , normalized to the applied field (along the z direction) at infinite distance, E_{∞}^{z} , i.e. E_{z}^{z}/E_{∞}^{z} . This quantity is plotted versus position z across the center line of spherical (dashed lines) or cube-shaped (solid lines) nanocrystals for various ratios of the dielectric constant inside (ϵ_{in}) to outside (ϵ_{out}) the nanocrystal. The field inside the nanocrystal is essentially always lower for the cube compared to the sphere. Upper inset: Calculated two-dimensional distribution of E_z^z/E_∞^z inside a cube-shaped nanocrystal plotted on the xz mid-plane. The ratio $\varepsilon_{in}/\varepsilon_{out}$ was 6. Lower inset: Calculated ratio of radiative decay times for spherical and cubical nanocrystals with the same volume versus $\varepsilon_{in}/\varepsilon_{out}$ for strong and weak confinement.

Figure 3 | Fine structure of the bright triplet exciton for CsPbBr₂Cl nanocrystals. a-c, Photoluminescence spectra of individual nanocrystals (L=14±1 nm) exhibiting a single peak, two peaks, and three peaks. The targeted temperature was 5 K. However, a quantitative fit of the peaks based on a Boltzmann distribution required higher (10-20 K) temperatures. This may indicate a warmer sample temperature due to imperfect thermal contact and/or laser heating. Alternatively, deviations from a Boltzmann distribution may be present. The inset shows the polarization of each of the spectral features. For the spectra, a linear polarizer was placed in the detection path. The angle of this polarizer was adjusted such that the relative intensity of the features in the spectra matched the polarization dependence in the insets. d-f. Simulated spectra and polarizations for nanocrystal orientations that match the experimental results in a-c. See Supplementary Section 4 for details. Each panel lists the observation direction required relative to the orthorhombic unit-cell axes. g, Experimental statistics for observation of single-peak, two-peak, and three-peak spectra from individual nanocrystals with L=7.5-14 nm (51 spectra with 35 splittings in total). **h**,i Experimental fine-structure splitting measured for the two-peak and three-peak spectra, respectively. The average splitting in each case is provided.

Methods

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Chemicals. The following reagents were used to prepare CsPbX₃ nanocrystals: cesium carbonate (Cs₂CO₃, Aldrich, 99.9%), 1-octadecene (ODE, Sigma-Aldrich, 90%), oleic acid (OA, Sigma-Aldrich, 90%), oleylamine (OAm, Acros Organics, 80-90%), lead chloride (PbCl₂,

ABCR, 99.999%), lead bromide (PbBr₂, ABCR, 98%), lead iodide (PbI₂, ABCR, 99.999%), ntrioctylphosphine (TOP, Strem, 97%), hexane (Sigma-Aldrich, ≥95%), and toluene (Fischer Scientific, HPLC grade).

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Synthesis. The CsPbX₃ (X=Cl, Br, and I) and CsPbBr₂Cl nanocrystals were synthesized by fast reaction between Cs-oleate and PbX₂ in the presence of OA and OAm (TOP is also added for CsPbCl₃ and CsPbBr₂Cl nanocrystals). First, the Cs-oleate was prepared by loading Cs₂CO₃ (0.407 g) into a 50-ml 3-neck flask along with ODE (20 ml) and OA (1.25 ml). The mixture is dried under vacuum for 1 h at 120 °C and then switched to N2. Since Cs-oleate precipitates out of ODE at room temperature, it must be pre-heated to 100 °C before injection. The ODE, OA, and OAm were pre-dried before use by degassing under vacuum at 120 °C for 1 h. For the nanocrystal reaction, 0.376 mmol PbX₂ (X=Cl, Br, or I), dried OA (3 ml for PbCl₂,1 ml for PbBr₂, or 1.5 ml for Pbl₂), dried OAm (3 ml for PbCl₂, 1 ml for PbBr₂, or 1.5 ml for Pbl₂), and dried ODE (5 ml) were combined in a 25-ml 3-neck flask. For CsPbCl₃, TOP (1 ml) was also added. The mixture was then degassed for 10 min under vacuum at 120 °C, and the flask was filled with N₂ and heated to 200 °C. Cs-oleate (0.8 ml from the stock solution prepared as described above) was swiftly injected when 200 °C was reached. After 10 s the reaction was stopped by cooling the reaction system with a water bath. The solution was centrifuged (4 min, 13750 g) and the supernatant discarded. Hexane (0.3 ml) was added to the precipitate to disperse the nanocrystals and centrifuged again. The obtained precipitate was redispersed in 3 ml toluene and centrifuged (2 min, 2200 g). The supernatant was separated from the precipitate, filtered, and used for our investigations. For CsPbBr₂Cl, 0.094 mmol PbCl₂, 0.282 mmol PbBr₂, dried OA (1.5 ml), dried OAm (1.5 ml), TOP (1 ml), and dried ODE (5 ml) were loaded into a 25-ml 3-neck flask and the same protocol was followed.

Sample preparation. For single-nanocrystal spectroscopy, the colloidal dispersions from the above syntheses were diluted to nanomolar concentrations in solutions of 3 mass percent polystyrene in toluene. This dispersion was then spin-casted at 5000 r.p.m. onto intrinsic crystalline Si wafers with a 3-µm-thick thermal-oxide layer. For ensemble measurements, the undiluted nanocrystal dispersions from the previous section were drop-casted on glass substrates. For photoluminescence quantum-yield measurements, 0.1 ml of the colloidal dispersion was mixed with 0.1 ml of a 5-mass-percent solution of poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA, 495,000 molecular weight) in toluene.

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Optical characterization. All optical measurements of single nanocrystals were performed in a self-built micro-photoluminescence (μ-PL) setup. The samples were mounted on xyz nanopositioning stages inside an evacuated liquid-helium flow cryostat and cooled down to a targeted temperature of 5 K (see Fig. 3 caption). Single nanocrystals were excited by means of a fiber-coupled excitation laser at an energy of 3.06 eV with a repetition rate of 40 MHz and a pulse duration of 50 ps. The excitation beam was sent through a linear polarizer and a short-wavelength-pass filter before being directed toward the sample by a dichroic beam splitter. Typical power densities used to excite single nanocrystals were 2-120 W/cm². Assuming an absorption cross section of 8x10⁻¹⁴ cm² (ref. 31), this yields 0.0057-0.34 excitons per nanocrystal per pulse³². For both excitation and detection, a long-working distance 100x microscope objective with numerical aperture of 0.7 was used. The nearly Gaussian excitation spot had a $1/e^2$ diameter of 1.4 µm. The emission was filtered using a long-pass filter and dispersed by a 0.75 m monochromator with an 1800 lines/mm grating before detection with a back-illuminated, cooled charge-coupled device camera. For polarization-dependent measurements, a liquid-crystal retarder was employed to compensate for retardation effects in the setup. For photoluminescence lifetime and time-tagged timeresolved (TTTR3) single-photon-counting measurements, we filtered the emission with a suitable tunable bandpass filter to either measure only the excitonic photoluminescence decay or to correlate excitonic and trionic emission intensities and decay times with a time-correlated single-photon-counting system with nominal time resolution of 30 ps.

Ensemble measurements were performed in an exchange-gas cryostat at 5 K. Here, the samples were excited with a frequency-doubled Ti:sapphire femtosecond pulsed laser with a repetition rate of 80 MHz at 3.1 eV. Optical power densities were below 3 W/cm². The emitted light was dispersed by a 150 lines/mm grating within a 300-mm focal length spectrograph and detected by a streak camera with 2 ps resolution. Absolute photoluminescence quantum-yield measurements at room temperature were performed on a Quantaurus QY (C11347-11, Hamamatsu).

Band-structure calculations. Figure 1b and Extended Data Fig. 1 show calculated band structures for CsPbBr₃, CsPbCl₃, and CsPbl₃. We assume that these materials exist in the cubic perovskite structure with a lattice constant of 5.865, 5.610, and 6.238 Å, respectively³³. The electronic structure of these crystals was determined using the Vienna *Ab-initio* Simulation Package (VASP)³⁴⁻³⁶ with projector-augmented wavefunctions³⁷. Our initial calculations used the PBEsol^{38,39} generalized gradient approximation, and included spin–orbit coupling. We used an energy cutoff of 400 eV and Γ-centered k-point grid of 6×6×6, which yield 40 k-points in the irreducible Brillouin zone.

As expected, standard density functional theory (DFT) seriously underestimates the bandgap in these materials. Accordingly, we used a modified version of the Heyd-Scuseria-Ernzerhof "HSE06" hybrid functional⁴⁰, which mixes exact Hartree-Fock exchange with conventional DFT. We initially started with 25% mixing, and planned to adjust the mixing to match the observed bandgap. However, this was not possible, even with 45% Hartree-Fock in

the calculation for CsPbBr₃. This produced a bandgap of 1.4 eV, far smaller than the 451 452 experimental gap of 2.8 eV. Rather than using even higher mixing, or even a full-scale 453 Hartree-Fock calculation, we instead added a scissors operator to adjust the bandgap to the 454 experimental result. We found that the electron and hole masses were nearly unchanged with 455 Hartree-Fock mixing, leading us to believe that this technique still provides the correct 456 physics. Further confirmation was provided by conducting G_0W_0 calculations (also with VASP) 457 on top of the PBE results. For this approach, we employed a plane-wave energy cutoff of 458 600 eV, a 150 eV energy cutoff for the response functions, 1894 unoccupied states, spin-459 orbit coupling, and "GW" pseudopotentials including all semicore electrons. Although these 460 calculations yielded band gaps that were in closer agreement with experiment (1.96 eV for 461 CsPbI₃, 2.36 eV for CsPbBr₃, and 3.27 eV for CsPbCl₃), other aspects of the band structure 462 remained virtually unchanged.

- Data availability. All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article (and its supplementary information files).
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Extended Data Figure legends

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- 491 Extended Data Figure 1 | Electronic structure for perovskite CsPbCl₃ and CsPbl₃. a,
- Calculated band structure of cubic perovskite CsPbCl₃. **b**, Calculated band structure of cubic
- 493 perovskite CsPbl₃. See Methods for details about the calculations.
- 494 Extended Data Figure 2 | Measurements to estimate the low-temperature quantum-yield
- 495 (QY) for our CsPbBr₂Cl nanocrystals. a, Photoluminescence spectra and b, decays for
- 496 CsPbBr₂Cl nanocrystals ($L=14\pm1$ nm) embedded in a poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) film
- 497 at 295 and 5 K. For the same sample, a calibrated integrating sphere was used to measure
- 498 the photoluminescence QY at 295 K (43±1%). To obtain the QY at 5 K, the
- 499 photoluminescence and optical absorption for several spots at 295 and 5 K under constant
- weak excitation (at 3.06 eV) were measured. The photoluminescence increased significantly,
- as seen in both the spectra and decay signal, while the absorption stayed nearly constant
- 502 (data not shown). From these results, the QY at 5 K was estimated to be 88±14%. The
- 503 photoluminescence decays in **b** are plotted both on a linear and logarithmic (inset) intensity
- scale with decay times of 1.60 (295 K) and 0.23 ns (5 K). The decrease in decay time at low
- temperature is clearly accompanied by an increase in the total emitted intensity (area under
- 506 the decay traces).
- 507 Extended Data Figure 3 | Exciton and trion emission from an individual CsPbBr₂Cl
- 508 **nanocrystal. a**, Photoluminescence spectrum of a single CsPbBr₂Cl nanocrystal showing two

exciton peaks at 2.5158 and 2.5175 eV and a trion peak that is red-shifted by 15-17 meV. The targeted temperature was 5 K (see Fig. 3 caption). **b**, Polarization properties of the exciton (left plot) and trion (right plot) emission peaks. The normalized area of a Lorentzian-peak fit for two exciton peaks (red and blue) and the trion peak (black) are shown as a function of the linear polarizer angle (placed in front of the spectrograph). Both exciton peaks show a dominantly linear polarization, with the main axis being indicated by the blue and red lines. The trion emission is unpolarized. See Supplementary Section 4 for further discussion.

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Extended Data Figure 4 | Composition-dependent ensemble photoluminescence decay measurements of lead halide perovskite nanocrystals. a, Typical streak-camera measurement of the photoluminescence from an ensemble of CsPbBr₂Cl nanocrystals at 5 K. In this example, the nanocrystals have L=14 nm. The emission peak is centered at 2.51 eV, and the exponential decay time is 210 ps, as extracted by summing over all energies, which is in good agreement with the results for single CsPbBr₂Cl nanocrystals of the same size. The ensemble decay spectrum is slightly asymmetric (being faster at higher energies), which might originate from the activation of an energy-transfer process from smaller to larger nanocrystals. To account for the latter effect, we have only considered the long component of the decay curve. **b**, Photoluminescence lifetimes at 5 K extracted for ensemble samples of nanocrystals of various compositions and sizes. The ensemble data (solid circles) are compared with single-nanocrystal measurements (open circles). The good agreement between the two data sets is further evidence that the measured single-nanocrystal photoluminescence decays are due to fast exciton radiative lifetimes and not due to trions, as the ensemble data are acquired at very low excitation power where photo-generated charging is not observed.

Extended Data Figure 5 | Calculation of the interior electric field in cube-shaped nanocrystals. a, Line plot of the electric potential, φ , along the center line between the capacitor plates (see Supplementary Section 3.B). b, Line plot of the normalized electric-field magnitude, E_z^z/E_∞^z , along the center line between the capacitor plates.

Extended Data Figure 6 | Contour plots of normalized electric-field magnitude across a cube-shaped nanocrystal. a-d, Contour plots of E_z^z/E_∞^z for four different ratios (4, 6, 8, and 10, respectively) of the dielectric constant inside the nanocrystal (ε_{in}) to the surrounding medium (ε_{out}) (see Supplementary Section 3.B). The plots depict the xz mid-plane of the cube and is valid for the symmetry-equivalent yz mid-plane. The z direction is vertical. **e**, Contour plot of E_x^z/E_∞^z on the xz mid-plane of the cube. The ratio of ε_{in} to ε_{out}) was set to 9. The E_y^z/E_∞^z distribution on the yz mid-plane is identical. In all plots, the z direction is vertical, and the perturbations near the corners of the plots are artifacts of the interpolation resolution utilized by the software used to construct them.

Extended Data Figure 7 | Extraction of the Kane energy, E_p , for the lead halide perovskites. From the band structures presented in Fig. 1b and Extended Data Fig. 1, the Kane energy, defined according to equation (5) in the main text, can be extracted for CsPbCl₃, CsPbBr₃, and CsPbl₃ from the band structure near the band edges. See Supplementary Section 1.B for details.

Extended Data Figure 8 | Calculations related to the determination of the exciton radiative lifetime in cube-shaped nanocrystals within the intermediate-confinement regime. a, Dimensionless electron-hole correlation constant, $b=\beta L$, and b, the square modulus of the ratio of I_{\parallel} for intermediate and strong confinement as a function of the size of the nanocrystal relative to the electron Bohr radius, L/a_e , for the three materials studied. The

inset in **b** shows the square modulus of I_{\parallel} in the strong-confinement regime for several different dielectric constants, $\epsilon_{\text{in}}/\epsilon_{\text{out}}$. See Supplementary Section 3.D for details.

Extended Data Figure 9 | Representative 2-peak spectra for individual CsPbBr₂Cl nanocrystals. a-i, Photoluminescence spectra of single nanocrystals at a targeted temperature of 5 K (see Fig. 3 caption). Each spectrum was recorded with a linear polarizer in the detection path. Thus, the displayed relative intensities cannot be used to determine the relative (potentially thermal) population within the fine structure multiplet. The linear polarizer was used here because it can be rotated to resolve all spectral features. Without the polarizer, the low-energy peak typically dominates in intensity.

Extended Data Figure 10 | Representative 3-peak spectra for individual CsPbBr₂Cl nanocrystals. a-i, Photoluminescence spectra of single nanocrystals at a targeted temperature of 5 K (see Fig. 3 caption). Each spectrum was recorded with a linear polarizer in the detection path. Thus, the displayed relative intensities cannot be used to determine the relative (potentially thermal) population within the fine structure multiplet. The linear polarizer was used here because it can be rotated to resolve all spectral features. Without the polarizer, the low-energy peak typically dominates in intensity.

Extended Data Figure 11 | Predicted exciton spectra and polarization properties for individual perovskite nanocrystals. The plots show the expected exciton fine structure in photoluminescence spectra from three orthogonal dipoles of the lowest energy exciton. The dipoles are oriented along the orthorhombic symmetry axes. Each plot includes an inset with the emission probability for the dipoles as a function of the polarization angle. **a-d**, Expected fine structure for observation in the [010], [001], [011], and [312] directions with respect to the orthorhombic symmetry axes. The temperature effect on the population of the sublevels is not

considered (*i.e.*, the populations of the sublevels are assumed to be equal). **e-h**, Expected fine structure for observation in the [010], [001], [011], and [312] directions with respect to the orthorhombic symmetry axes. The temperature effect on the population of the sublevels is considered. The temperature is assumed to be comparable to the fine-structure splitting, *i.e.* $k_bT \approx \Delta_1 = \Delta_2$, where k_b is the Boltzmann constant and T is temperature. See Supplementary Section 4 for further details.





