Dyes and Pigments 134 (2016) 139-147



Dyes and Pigments

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/dyepig

Diketopyrrolopyrrole-based oligomers accessed *via* sequential C–H activated coupling for fullerene-free organic photovoltaics



PIGMENTS

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 1 June 2016 Received in revised form 4 July 2016 Accepted 5 July 2016 Available online 7 July 2016

Keywords: Diketopyrrolopyrrol (DPP) Direct arylation Atom economy Non-fullerene acceptor P3HT Organic solar cell

ABSTRACT

Exploring sustainable chemistry for renewable energy plays a key role in meeting the ever increasing energy demand without sacrificing the environment. In this study, two novel diketopyrrolopyrrol(DPP)-based π -conjugated oligomers (named as **TPE-DPP4** and **BP-DPP4**) have been readily synthesized *via* a ligand-free Pd-catalyzed sequential activation of C–H bond in two steps with good yields starting from simple building blocks. Poly(3-hexylthiophene) is employed as an electron donor to blend with the new DPP-derived electron acceptors for the fullerene-free bulk heterojunction organic photovoltaics. The power conversion efficiency of 2.49% has been achieved, corresponding with an open-circuit voltage of 1.16 V, which is among the highest open-circuit voltages for the single-junction organic photovoltaics. The facilely accessible electron acceptors blended with cost-effective poly(3-hexylthiophene) donor for fullerene-free organic photovoltaics opens a new pathway to access renewable solar energy *via* sustainable chemistry.

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1. Introduction

Bulk heterojunction organic photovoltaics (BHJ OPV) has emerged as a promising renewable energy technology due to its merits of low-cost, light-weight, solution-processability and good flexibility [1–4]. Typically, the active layers of OPVs consist of fullerenes as electron acceptors (A) and conjugated (macro) molecules as electron donors (D) [5]. In spite of their widespread usage, fullerene-based acceptors do suffer from drawbacks including weak absorption of visible light, poor stability of morphology, limited chemical and electronic tunability, and high production cost, which may suppress the sustainability of OPV technology. In recent years, the conjugated semiconducting polymers and oligomers [6], which possess broad tunability in all the aspects of light absorption, frontier orbital energy levels (FOEL), electron affinity, molecular geometry and synthetic complexity, have been explored

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as electron acceptors in place of fullerenes for BHJ OPVs [7–14]. These fullerene-free OPVs have raised extensive attention and led to a rapid progress very recently [15–22], *e.g.*, the indacenodithieno [3,2-b]thiophene-2-(30x0-2,3-dihydroinden-1-ylidene)malononi-trile (ITIC) acceptor developed by the Zhan group [15]. Nevertheless, to ensure the cost-effectiveness and sustainability of fullerene-free OPVs, the accessibility of both acceptor and donor materials need to be carefully evaluated [23–25]. Green and sustainable synthetic strategies [26–39] to the π -conjugated materials using readily available building blocks are favorable to reach the above goal [23]. Moreover, the use of commercially available and well-developed semiconducting materials with relatively low price is recommendable [23–25].

In the current work, two novel DPP-based oligomer acceptors have been designed and synthesized *via* direct arylation of C–H bond (DACH) to pair with polymeric donor P3HT for fullerene-free BHJ OPV applications. Concerning the sustainability, this P3HT-DPPs donor-acceptor combination has some distinct advantages. DPP is not only a commercialized dye chromophore [40], but also a sustainable and readily available building block for the organic semiconducting materials [41–44]. Previous investigation shows that DPP unit is among the most synthetically accessible electronpoor monomers due to its low synthetic complexity [23]. Also, as



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demonstrated by our previous study, the accessibility of DPP derivatives can be further increased by employing the atom-efficient C-H activation reaction [45]. As for the donor applied herein, P3HT is one of the most frequently studied 2nd generation semiconducting polymers, which has a relatively lower price compared with other high performance 3rd generation D-A semiconducting polymers [25,46]. It is known that P3HT donor has a wide bandgap. and high-lying LUMO (lowest unoccupied molecular orbital) and HOMO (highest occupied molecular orbital) levels. Meanwhile, the conjugated polymers or oligomers containing a DPP block typically have narrow or medium bandgaps with higher LUMO levels compared to the commonly-used acceptors such as PC₆₁BM or perylene diimide (PDI) which has four electron-withdrawing carbonyl groups [47,48]. Therefore, the P3HT-DPP BHJ OPVs are expected to achieve high open-circuit voltages (V_{OC}) and a broad range of light harvesting, due to the enlarged gap between LUMO of DPP and HOMO of P3HT, and the complementary light absorptions of the wide-bandgap P3HT and narrow-bandgap DPPs [49–53].

Taking all of the abovementioned aspects into account, two novel non-planar oligomers both containing four DPP blocks have been design and synthesized in good yields by direct arylation of mono-phenyl capped DPP respectively using tetrakis(4bromophenyl)ethene (TBPE) and tetrabromo-biphenyl (TBBP) as arylating reagents. From the viewpoint of molecular design, the twisted non-planar [20-22,54,55], quasi-3D [56] and 3D [52,53,57–59] molecular acceptors suggest that the optimization of the morphology of BHJ layer and thus fill factors (FF) can be realized by molecular geometry engineering. Tetraphenylethene (TPE) has been widely used as a building block in the field of aggregationinduced emission (AIE) [60,61] and very recently as a core for PDI-based 3D non-fullerene acceptor [54]. In this study, for the first time, the TPE and biphenyl (BP)-cored tetra-DPP (named as TPE-DPP4 and BP-DPP4, Scheme 1) have been easily obtained via sequential C-H activation starting from simple building blocks. To the best of our knowledge, there are no previous reports using strategy of sequential C–H activation for accessing structurally complicated DPP-based oligomers. The non-planar conjugated oligomers obtained herein were further evaluated as non-fullerene acceptors in BHJ OPVs by using cost-effective P3HT as donor, affording a highest PCE of 2.49% with an open-circuit voltage (Voc) of 1.16 V, which is among the highest Voc for the single-junction OPVs reported. The integration of easily accessible acceptors with an economical donor for fullerene-free OPVs provided by us represents a step toward accessing renewable solar energy by sustainable chemistry.

2. Experimental section

The general synthetic routes toward Ph-DPP, **TPE-DPP4** and **BP-DPP4** are outlined in Scheme 1. The detailed synthetic procedures are as follows.

2.1. Synthesis of Ph-DPP

DPP (1000 mg, 524.78, 1.90 mmol), PivOH (60 mg, 0.3 equiv.), and anhydrous K_2CO_3 (316 mg, 1.2 equiv.) were added into a Schlenk tube. The mixed solid in the tube was purged by repetitions of vacuum and nitrogen filling (\times 3). Then a mixture of bromobenzene (300 mg, 1.90 mmol) and an anhydrous DMA (25 mL) solution of Pd(OAc)₂ (8 × 10⁻⁵ M) was added into the tube. The reaction solution was put through freeze-vacuum-thaw cycles three times to remove dissolved gases, and then rigorously stirred at 110 °C for 10 h under nitrogen atmosphere. After cooling to room temperature, the mixture was poured into an aqueous solution of NaCl (saturated, 250 mL) to remove the high boiling point solvent

DMA. The precipitate was extracted with CH₂Cl₂ (3×40 mL). The combined organic layer was washed with distilled water. Removal of the solvent by rotary evaporator afforded the crude product, which was then purified by column chromatography on silica gel using the mixtures of CH₂Cl₂ and hexane as eluent (1.5:1, v/v) and gave a deep red solid (790 mg, 70%). The thin layer chromatography (TLC) analysis for the reaction is shown in Fig. S1 (see Supplementary Information, SI). Ph-DPP is a known compound [45].

¹H NMR (500 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 8.97 (d, J = 4.0 Hz, 1H), 8.89 (d, J = 3.5 Hz, 1H), 7.68 (d, J = 7.5 Hz, 2H), 7.62 (d, J = 5.0 Hz, 1H), 7.42 (ddd, J = 5.0, 6.5, 4.0 Hz, 4H), 7.30–7.27 (m, 1H), 4.16–3.89 (m, 4H), 1.93 (d, J = 5.5 Hz, 2H), 1.37–1.25 (m, 16H), 0.88 (ddd, J = 5.5, 6.0, 3.5 Hz, 12H).

2.2. Synthesis of TPE-DPP4

Ph-DPP (300 mg, 0.5 mmol), 1.1,2,2-tetrakis(4-bromophenyl) ethene (TBPE) (65 mg, 0.1 mmol), PivOH (15 mg, 0.15 mmol), and anhydrous K₂CO₃ (83 mg, 0.6 mmol) were added into a Schlenk tube. The mixed solid in the tube was purged by repetitions of vacuum and nitrogen filling (\times 3). Then 10 mL anhydrous DMA solution of Pd(OAc)₂ (5 × 10⁻⁵ M) was added into the tube *via* syringe. The reaction solution was put through freeze-vacuum-thaw cycles three times to remove dissolved gases, and then rigorously stirred at 110 °C for 10 h under nitrogen atmosphere. The post-treatment of the reaction are similar to that of Ph-DPP. The crude product was purified by column chromatography on silica gel using the mixtures of CHCl₃ and ethyl acetate (EA) as eluent (100:1, v/v) and gave a dark blue solid (235 mg, yield 86%, calculated from TBPE).

¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 8.93 (dd, J = 11.4, 4.2 Hz, 8H), 7.64 (d, J = 7.5 Hz, 8H), 7.49 (d, J = 8.1 Hz, 8H), 7.37 (dd, J = 38.7, 7.3 Hz, 20H), 7.13 (d, J = 7.7 Hz, 8H), 4.04 (s, 16H), 1.91 (s, 8H), 1.30 (d, J = 68.0 Hz, 65H), 0.86 (dd, J = 34.4, 15.3 Hz, 48H).

¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 164.26, 152.32, 152.56, 146.39, 142.54, 142.23, 139.52, 135.77, 134.98, 134.45, 131.77, 131.51, 128.72, 128.20, 127.05, 111.01, 110.78, 48.61, 41.96, 32.99, 31.25, 26.33, 25.86, 16.71, 13.26.

MALDI-TOF MS (*m*/*z*): [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₇₀H₁₈₈N₈O₈S₈, 2727.90; found, 2728.42. Elemental Anal.: calcd: C, 74.85; H, 6.95; N, 4.11. Found: C, 74.86; H, 6.95; N, 4.12.

2.3. Synthesis of BP-DPP₄

Ph-DPP (300 mg, 0.5 mmol), 3.3',5.5'-tetrabromo-1.1'-biphenyl (TBBP) (47 mg, 0.1 mmol), PivOH (15 mg, 0.15 mmol), and anhydrous K₂CO₃ (83 mg, 0.6 mmol) were added into a Schlenk tube. The mixed solid in tube was purged by repetitions of vacuum and nitrogen filling (×3). Then an anhydrous DMA (10 mL) solution of Pd(OAc)₂ (5 × 10⁻⁵ M) was added into the tube *via* syringe. The reaction solution was put through freeze-vacuum-thaw cycles three times to remove dissolved gases, and then rigorously stirred at 110 °C for 10 h under nitrogen atmosphere. The post-treatment of the reaction are similar to that of Ph-DPP. The crude product was purified by column chromatography on silica gel using the mixtures of CHCl₃ and ethyl acetate (EA) as eluent (100:1, v/v) and gave a dark blue solid (216 mg, yield 85%, calculated from TBBP).

¹H NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 9.00 (s, 8H), 7.82 (d, *J* = 26.8 Hz, 6H), 7.56 (m, 12H), 7.33 (m, 16H), 3.98 (s, 16H), 1.90 (s, 8H), 1.31 (d, *J* = 78.8 Hz, 64H), 0.80 (d, *J* = 77.5 Hz, 48H).

¹³C NMR (151 MHz, CDCl₃) δ 168.32, 163.96, 163.74, 152.46, 144.92, 140.06, 137.47, 135.68, 133.54, 132.53, 131.84, 131.28, 128.48, 126.99, 111.23, 110.32, 110.09, 48.62, 42.01, 32.46, 32.02, 31.28, 29.93, 26.36, 25.77, 16.78.

MALDI-TOF MS (*m*/*z*): [M]⁺ calcd for C₁₅₆H₁₇₈N₈O₈S₈, 2549.67;



Scheme 1. Sequential Activation of C-H Bonds for Accessing TPE-DPP4 and BP-DPP4.

found, 2550.33. Elemental Anal.: calcd: C, 73.49; H, 7.04; N, 4.39. Found: C, 73.47; H, 7.05; N, 4.40.

2.4. Device fabrication and characterization

OPV devices were fabricated on glass substrates commercially pre-coated with a layer of ITO. Prior to fabrication, the substrates were cleaned using detergent, de-ionized water, acetone, and isopropanol consecutively for every 15 min, and then treated in an ultraviolet ozone generator for 15 min before being spin-coated at 3000 rpm with a layer of 30 nm thick poly(3,4ethylenedioxythiophene):poly(styrenesulfonate) (PEDOT:PSS). After baking the PEDOT:PSS layer in air at 150 °C for 15 min, the substrates were transferred to a glovebox. The active layer was spin-cast at 3000 rpm from a solution of P3HT and the tetra-DPPs in chloroform with different blend weight ratios at a total solid concentration of 15 mg ml⁻¹. The samples might be annealed at 110 °C for 10 min. Then a 5 nm thick poly [(9,9-bis(3'-(N,N-dimethylamino) propyl)-2,7-fluorene)-alt-2.7-(9,9-dioctylfluorene)] (PFN) film was deposited as the cathode buffer layer by the spin-coating of a solution of 0.4 mg ml⁻¹ PFN in methanol because PFN could reduce greatly the work function of the cathode, in favor of electron collection in the OPVs. Subsequently, the samples were loaded into vacuum deposition chamber (background pressure $\approx 5 \times 10^{-4}$ Pa) to deposit 100 nm thick aluminum cathode with a shadow mask (the device area was 5.2 mm²). The *J-V* curves were measured with a Keithley 2400 measurement source units at room temperature in air. The photocurrent was measured under a calibrated solar simulator (Abet 300W) at 100 mW cm^{-2} and the light intensity was calibrated with a standard photovoltaic (PV) reference cell. IPCE spectra were measured with a Stanford lock-in amplifier 8300 unit. The charge carrier mobilities of the P3HT:tetra-DPPs films were measured using the SCLC method. Hole-only devices were fabricated in a structure of ITO/PEDOT:PSS/P3HT:tetra-DPPs(2:1)/MoO₃/Al, electron-only devices were fabricated in a structure of ITO/PFN/P3HT:tetra-DPPs(2:1)/PFN/Al. The device characteristics were extracted by modeling the dark current under forward bias using the SCLC expression described by the Mott-Gurney law:

$$J = \frac{9}{8} \varepsilon_r \varepsilon_0 \mu \frac{V^2}{L^3}$$

Here, $\varepsilon_r \approx 3$ is the average dielectric constant of the blend film, ε_0 is the permittivity of the free space, μ is the carrier mobility, $L \approx 100$ nm is the thickness of the film, and *V* is the applied voltage.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Synthesis and sustainability aspects

Scheme 1 depicts the synthetic routes to two DPP-based oligomers **TPE-DPP4** and **BP-DPP4**, and the detailed procedures are described in the Experimental Section. Firstly, a mono-phenyl capped DPP, Ph-DPP, was obtained by the direct arylation of one α -C–H bond on thiophene-flanked DPP with one equiv of bromobenzene. The reaction was run under simple and ligand-free conditions: 0.1 mol % Pd(OAc)₂, 30 mol % pivalic acid (PivOH), 1.2 equiv anhydrous K₂CO₃, and solvent *N*,*N*-dimethylacetamide (DMA) at 110 °C for 10 h. It is noteworthy that this reaction can be carried out on a gram scale to afford Ph-DPP in good yield (reaction [1] in Scheme 1). After that, further arylation of the remaining α -C–H bond on Ph-DPP by multibromo-arenes, TBPE and TBBP, led to formation of TPE and BP cored tetra-DPPs, *i.e.* **TPE-DPP4** and **BP-DPP4** respectively. Overall, both oligomers were accessed by

sequential C–H activation of thiophene-flanked DPP in two steps with a global yield of more than 60% (70 $\% \times$ 86 %). As shown in the reactions of [2] and [3] (Scheme 1), four DPP blocks were smoothly installed onto TPE or BP cores in one step simply starting from Ph-DPP, and TBPE or TBBP. Throughout the synthetic route, C–H and C–Br bonds were exclusively used as reactive sites to build new C–C bonds. Neither organometallic reactants (*e.g.*, organoborons, organotins and organozincs) nor strong bases (*e.g.*, LDA and BuLi) were employed. Besides, non-halogenated and non-aromatic solvent DMA was applied as reaction medium.

Concerning the sustainable chemistry, an efficient catalyst with high turnover number (TON, moles of substrate converted/moles of catalyst) will be highly desirable [62]. In our study, the DACH reactions were accomplished in a short time (10 h) in the presence of 0.1 mol% Pd(OAc)₂ without using phosphine ligands (Scheme 1). This catalysis was simple but highly efficient. To precisely quantify the ultralow catalyst loading for the reactions, stock DMA solution of Pd(OAc)₂, rather than solid Pd(OAc)₂, was added into reaction mixtures by syringes (see Experimental Section). These ligand-free Pd(OAc)₂-catalyszed DACH reactions with ultralow loading of catalyst (0.1 mol%) have a higher TON by 1–2 orders of magnitude than that of typical C–M/C–X bonds cross-couplings which usually need 2.5–10 mol % ligand-stabilized palladium catalyst, *e. g.*, Pd(PPh₃)₄.

Supposing the typical cross-couplings are employed instead, the synthesis of **TPE-DPP**₄ and **BP-DPP**₄ will be tedious and less atomefficient than the sequential C–H activation. As shown in Scheme S1 (see SI), from the same building blocks, six steps in total would be required if Suzuki or Stille couplings were used. During these processes, *n*-BuLi strong base and organotin or organoboron reactants are needed [63] (Scheme S1, SI). This comparison shows that the synthetic strategy we developed is more straightforward with total two steps and single byproduct of HBr (Scheme 1). It should be noted that the current synthetic route also has an improvement in atom efficiency as compared with all our previous ones using Suzuki coupling of mono-Br-DPP with phenylboronic acid to prepare Ph-DPP (Scheme S2, SI) [45,64–66].

On the whole, the strategy of sequential C–H activation (Scheme 1) provided herein for accessing DPP-based π -functional materials have a number of advantages in terms of sustainability [62], including (1) straightforward synthesis from simple building blocks on gram scale in few steps within short reaction time, (2) simple and ligand-free catalysis with ultralow catalyst loading and high TON, (3) bypassing the use of organometallic reactant and dangerous strong base, (4) absence of active C–M bonds in the reactants, and thus high compatibility with functional groups, (5) non-halogenated and non-aromatic solvent used for the reactions, (6) simple byproduct of HBr only, and, last but not least, (7) the current strategy can be extended as a general and effective method for accessing complex DPP-based functional materials.

3.2. Characterization and theoretical calculation

The target oligomers, **TPE-DPP**₄ and **BP-DPP**₄, were fully characterized by ¹H and ¹³C NMR, matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization time of flight (MALDI-TOF) mass spectroscopy (MS) and elemental analysis (spectra shown in SI). Both DPP-based oligomers are readily soluble in common organic solvents such as CHCl₃, CH₂Cl₂, tetrahydrofuran and dichlorobenzene due to the presence of solubilizing *N*-substituted 2-ethyl-hexyl chains. The thermal properties of **TPE-DPP**₄ and **BP-DPP**₄ were checked by thermogravimetric analysis (TGA, Fig. S2), which shows that both **TPE-DPP**₄ and **BP-DPP**₄ exhibit good thermal stability with 5% weight-loss temperatures (T_d) at 390 and 401 °C under N₂ atmosphere, respectively. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) was used to study the crystallinity of **TPE-DPP4** and **BP-DPP4** (Fig. 1). The DSC scanning of **TPE-DPP4** exhibits both weak crystalline melting and recrystallization peaks at 241.5 and 192 °C respectively. Under the similar DSC scans, neither melting nor recrystallization peaks could be observed for **BP-DPP4**. These results suggest that **TPE-DPP4** and **BP-DPP4** are low-crystalline and non-crystalline, respectively.

The geometries of the oligomers TPE-DPP₄ and BP-DPP₄ have been calculated by density functional theory (DFT) method. As shown in Fig. 2a and b, the optimized geometries indicate that both TPE-DPP4 and BP-DPP4 are twisted and non-planar, which comes from the non-planar nature of TPE and BP cores, the steric effect among the DPP arms, and also the phenyl-thiophene linkages between cores and DPP blocks. The non-planar architecture of TPE-**DPP**₄ and **BP-DPP**₄ will suppress the intermolecular packing [58], which is responsible for their less crystalline solid state when compared to their planar counter parts. This is likely true as the linear/planar DPPBzFu has highly crystalline [67,68]. Although the DPP arms of these non-planar oligomers have less molecular orbital (MO) overlap, they are close to each other in space. The charges on **TPE-DPP4** and **BP-DPP4** can delocalize throughout the DPP arms, and can hop among each other. Taking advantage of the non-planar geometries, the distribution and transport of charges in multidirections will lead to statistically better D-A charge separation and collection [66].

3.3. Optical and electrochemical properties

To evaluate potential applications for OPV, the optical and electronchemical properties of TPE-DPP4 and BP-DPP4 were investigated. Fig. 2d shows the normalized individual UV-vis absorption spectra of the DPP-acceptors, and the donor polymer P3HT from spin-coated films. TPE-DPP₄ and BP-DPP₄ films exhibit very similar absorption spectra, with peaks (λ_{max}^{f}) at 588 and 638 nm for TPE-DPP₄ and 587 and 639 nm for BP-DPP₄. These peaks are redshifted compared to their solution absorption spectra (λ_{max}^{s} , Fig. S3), which can be ascribed to the enhanced intermolecular interaction in the solid state of oligomers. The absorption bandedge of the cast films (λ_{edge}^{f}) for **TPE-DPP4** and **BP-DPP4** are 777 and 774 nm respectively, corresponding to the optical bandgaps (E_{σ}^{opt}) of 1.59 and 1.60 eV. To maximize the light harvesting of BHJs, integrating electron donors and acceptors with complementary light absorption is highly desirable. As shown in Fig. 2d, P3HT film has an absorption peak at 523 nm, which is blue-shifted compared



Fig. 1. DSC curves of TPE-DPP4 and BP-DPP4.

with tetra-DPPs. The light absorption of P3HT donor and tetra-DPP acceptors complements each other quite well.

Besides light absorption, suitable FOEL gaps between donor and acceptor play an important role in driving photon-generated charge dissociation and determining the parameters of BHJ OPV devices. The FOELs of DPP-acceptors were electrochemically checked by cyclic voltammetry (CV) in CH₂Cl₂ solution (Fig. S4). The LUMO and HOMO are estimated from the $E_{1/2}$ values in solution, using the value of -5.1 eV for Fc/Fc⁺. Fig. 2e shows the FOELs of the P3HT donors and DPP-based acceptors. The FOELs of fullerene-based acceptor PC₆₁BM were illustrated for comparison purpose. Both TPE-DPP4 and BP-DPP4 exhibit very similar HOMOs and LUMOs. As illustrated in Fig. 2e, the gap between the LUMO of DPPs and the HOMO of P3HT (1.12 eV) is much larger than that between PC₆₁BM and P3HT (0.74 eV), benefiting high Vocs for the BHJ OPVs based on P3HT and DPPs. Notably, both of LUMO-LUMO (-2.74 eV vs -3.64 eV) and HOMO-HOMO (-4.76 eV vs -5.08 eV) offsets between P3HT donor and tetra-DPP acceptors are larger than 0.3 eV, which is favorable for either electron or hole transfer between D-A interfaces [69]. That is, due to the suitable FOELs, the electrons on P3HT will transfer onto tetra-DPPs while the holes on tetra-DPPs will transfer onto P3HT, thus potentially increasing the photogenerated current (Fig. S5, SI).

Table 1 summarizes the significant optical and electrochemical properties of P3HT donor and tetra-DPP acceptors.

3.4. P3HT:tetra-DPPs fullerene-free BHJ OPV performances

Motivated by the complementary absorption and well-matched FOELs between P3HT donor and tetra-DPP acceptors, the devices with a configuration of ITO/PEDOT:PSS/P3HT:tetra-DPPs/PFN/Al were fabricated to investigate the performances of solutionprocessed BHJ OPVs under the simulated AM 1.5 G irradiation with intensity of 100 mWcm⁻². The devices based on P3HT:tetra-DPPs BHJ processed by chloroform are firstly optimized with three sets of D(P3HT)/A(tetra-DPPs) ratios, *i.e.* 3:1, 2:1 and 1:1. It was found that D/A ratio of 2:1 can afford best performance after thermal annealing at 110 °C for 10 min. Without annealing, a low PCE of 0.20% with a V_{OC} of 1.23 V, a short current (J_{SC} of 0.69 mA cm², and an FF of 0.23 is obtained when the blend weight ratio of donor (P3HT) and acceptor (TPE-DPP4) is 2:1 (Table S1, SI). After thermal annealing at 110 °C for 10 min, the device with the same D:A blend ratio can give a maximum PCE of 2.49% with a Voc of 1.16 V, a J_{SC} of 4.55 mA cm², and a FF of 0.47. The same trend was also found in the BHJ of P3HT: BP-DPP4. By annealing treatment, the PCE of P3HT: BP-DPP₄ BHJ can dramatically improved from 0.4% to 1.18% (Table S1). Fig. 3a shows the current density-voltage (I-V) characteristic curves of the optimal cells. The corresponding OPV parameters are summarized in Table 2. For P3HT-based fullerenefree OPVs, the distinct enhancement of PCE by annealing treatment was also observed by our group previously [52]. The thermal annealing may promote intermolecular π - π stacking in P3HT: tetra-DPP BHJ films, leading to better charge transport and suitable phase separation, which are desirable for J_{SC} , FF and thus the PCE. Impressively, the V_{OC} of 1.16 V achieved herein represents one of the highest values for the single-junction OPVs [49–53,70–72]. The large offset between the LUMOs of tetra-DPPs and HOMO of P3HT (Fig. 2e) contributed to the high V_{OC} s.

3.5. IPCE measurements

To understand the photophysical properties, the IPCE (incident photon-to-current conversion efficiency) of the P3HT:tetra-DPPs BHJs were studied. Fig. 3b shows the IPCE spectra of the optimal OPV device. The calculated J_{SC} s from IPCE are 4.51 and



Fig. 2. DFT optimized geometries (ethyl-hexyl chains replaced by methyl groups) of (a) **TPE-DPP**₄ and (b) **BP-DPP**₄. (c) Structure of P3HT. (d) Uv-vis absorption of neat films of **TPE-DPP**₄, **BP-DPP**₄ and P3HT. (e) FOEL diagram of P3HT, **TPE-DPP**₄, **BP-DPP**₄ and PC₆₁BM.

Table 1	
Optical and electrochemical properties of P3HT donor and tetra-DPP acception	ptors.

D or A	$\lambda_{max}^{s}\left(nm ight)$	$\lambda_{max}^{f}(nm)$	$\lambda_{edge}^{f}(nm)$	$E_{g}^{opt}\left(eV ight)$	HOMO (eV)	LUMO (eV)
P3HT	464	523	650	1.91	-4.76	-2.74
TPE-DPP 4	574/614	588/638	777	1.59	-5.08	-3.64
BP-DPP 4	569/608	589/639	774	1.60	-5.06	-3.61



Fig. 3. (a) J–V curves of P3HT:tetra-DPPs BHJs and their OPV device configuration. (b) IPCE spectra of P3HT:tetra-DPPs BHJs.

2.94 mA cm⁻², respectively, which are consistent with the measured J_{SC} s. Impressively, the IPCEs of P3HT:tetra-DPPs BHJs extend from 320 nm to 700 nm, matching well with their corresponding UV–vis absorption spectra (Fig. S3, SI). It indicates that light absorbed by both P3HT and tetra-DPPs were efficiently converted into current in solar cells, suggesting excitons generated

from donor and acceptor domain can be dissociated effectively at the D-A junction. The sufficient LUMO-LUMO and HOMO-HOMO offsets (>0.3 eV) between the donor and acceptor provided enough driving force for the photo-generated electron from P3HT transfer onto tetra-DPPs, while photo-generated hole from tetra-DPPs transfer onto P3HT (Fig. 2e and Fig. S5).

hotovoltaic parameters of the OPV devices based on P3HT:tetra-DPPs.								
D:A ^a	V _{OC} [V]	J_{SC} [mA cm ⁻²]	FF	PCE [%] ^d	$\mu_{ m h}$			
					$[10^{-4} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}]^{-1}$			
P3HT: TPE-DPP4 ^b	1.23	0.69	0.23	0.20 (0.16)	1.24			
P3HT: TPE-DPP4 ^c	1.16	4.45	0.47	2.49 (2.43)	1.41			
P3HT: BP-DPP4 ^b	1.15	1.32	0.26	0.40 (0.37)	0.57			
РЗНТ: ВР-DРР 4 ^с	1.11	2.93	0.36	1.18 (1.14)	0.87			

Table 2

Р

The D:A ratio is 2:1 (w/w).

As-cast.

Annealed at 110 °C for 10 min.

d The best and average (in brackets, from 10 devices) PCEs.

^e Hole and electron mobilities by SCLC method.

3.6. BHJ morphology and charge carrier mobility

Atomic force microscopy (AFM) and space-charge-limitedcurrent (SCLC) measurements were employed to investigate surface morphology and charge mobility of the BHJ layers. AFM scans were carried out for films spin-coated on ITO substrates. Fig. 4 shows the AFM images of all the as-cast and annealing-treated P3HT:tetra-DPPs BHJs. In the as-cast films, P3HT is highly miscible with tetra-DPPs (Fig. 4a, c, e and g). The RMS roughness of the as-cast P3HT:TPE-DPP4 and P3HT:BP-DPP4 BHJs are 0.465 and 0.571 nm respectively. After thermal annealing, the RMS roughness of the BHJ films increases to 0.629 and 0.723 nm accordingly. It can be speculated that the thermal annealing helps to improve the phase separation, crystallinity, and domain purity [52]. For SCLC tests, all devices were fabricated by using the identical procedure for solar cell preparation. The J-V curves for hole-only and electrononly devices are shown in Fig. S7. The rightmost two columns in Table 2 list the corresponding values. As Table 2 shows, both hole mobility (μ_h) and electron mobility (μ_e) of P3HT:**TPE-DPP**₄ and P3HT:**BP-DPP4** BHJs are improved by thermal annealing treatment that leads to the enhanced crystallinity. In addition, the μ_h and μ_e of P3HT:**TPE-DPP4** BHJ are both higher than those of P3HT:**BP-DPP4** BHJ. Compared with **BP-DPP4**, **TPE-DPP4** has a larger conjugation system and slightly higher crystallinity (Fig. S2), which may make contributions to the improved charge mobility.

4. Conclusion

Diketopyrrolopyrro (DPP), as a commercialized dye chromophore [40], is one of the most widely studied building blocks for organic semiconducting materials [41-44]. C-H is the most extensive chemical bond in organic compounds. The direct functionalization of C-H bonds for accessing target molecules has clearly attractive features for sustainable chemistry. In our work, starting from three simple building blocks, two large conjugated oligomers containing four DPP units have been readily constructed merely in two steps via Pd-catalyzed sequential arylation of C-H bonds. Neither organometallic reactants nor strong bases were employed throughout the processes of synthesis. The obtained DPP-based non-planar oligomers were tested as non-fullerene acceptors in OPVs by using commercially available P3HT as the donor, affording a best PCE of 2.49% with a high Voc of 1.16 V. The integration of easily accessible acceptors with economical donor for fullerene-free BHJ OPVs in our study represents a step toward accessing renewable solar energy via sustainable chemistry.

Importantly, the synthetic route developed herein can be extended as a general and effective method for accessing a wide number of DPP derivatives. Besides, the sequential C-H activation strategy for atom-efficient construction of π -conjugated oligomers should be applicable for other building blocks beyond DPP moiety. We believe, in the future, more and more π -semiconducting materials will be accessed via sequential C-H activation for organic electronic applications.



Fig. 4. AFM height (a, b, c, d) and phase (e, f, g, h) images of the P3HT:tetra-DPPs (2:1 by weight) BHJ films with or without annealing treatment.

 μ_{e}

023 0.32 0.15 0.17

Acknowledgements

The National Natural Science Foundation of China (21244008, 21374075, 21575097, 21375092), China Postdoctoral Science Foundation (Nos. 2013M540484 and 2014T70572), and Zhejiang Provincial Natural Science Foundation of China(No. LY15B030001) are appreciated for financial supports. SY Liu and WQ Liu contributed equally to this work)

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.dyepig.2016.07.007.

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