Electron Transfer

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Carboxyethynyl Anchoring Ligands: A Means to Improving the Efficiency of Phthalocyanine-Sensitized Solar Cells**

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Dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs)[1] can be considered realistic, low-cost alternatives to conventional silicon-based photovoltaic devices. Typically, these cells are composed of nanocrystalline TiO₂ deposited onto a transparent conducting glass substrate, which is covered with a molecular sensitizer endowed with an appropriate anchoring group. Energy conversion efficiencies up to 11.4% have been achieved using Ru^{II}/polypyridyl complexes as molecular sensitizers.^[2] Nonetheless, Ru^{II}/polypyridyl complexes lack strong absorption in the red or near-infrared region, where the solar flux of photons is still significant, thus limiting the realization of more efficient devices. In the search for ideal ruthenium-free sensitizers, dyes with large π -conjugated systems such as porphyrins^[3,4] and phthalocyanines^[4,5] which are suitable for efficient electron-transfer processes, are receiving considerable attention. Porphyrins, in particular, have been successfully used in DSSCs^[6] and, very recently, Grätzel, Diau, and Yeh et al. reported a DSSC with an incorporated porphyrin dye having a cell performance that achieves the figure of merit for the state-of-the-art devices.^[7]

Phthalocyanine (Pc) derivatives are also suitable sensitizers for DSSCs because of their intense and tunable absorption in the red or near-infrared region, transparency over a large portion of the visible spectrum, and extraordinary robustness.^[8] However, the efficiency values of Pc-based

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DSSCs are in general below those of devices made from their porphyrin relatives. [4,5] Their relatively poor performance is a consequence of the general tendency of Pcs to form molecular aggregates on the surface of the titanium dioxide nanocrystals; the aggregates result from the more π -extended aromatic surface. Even so, overall efficiencies of 3.5% at 1 sun have been reported by us when employing highly soluble carboxy functionalized Zn^{II}Pc derivatives, such as TT1, which show low tendency towards aggregation. [9] Moreover, Mori et al. recently confirmed that the presence of bulky substituents is fundamental for completely suppressing aggregation and, therefore achieved high energy conversion efficiencies. The carboxy functionalized Zn^{II}Pc substituted at the periphery with six 2,6-diphenylphenoxy groups achieved up to a 4.6% efficiency. [10]

Recent studies on Pcs for DSSC applications reported by us have focused on understanding the relationship between the structure and function in terms of the spacer located between the aromatic core and the anchoring carboxy group in a series of $Zn^{II}Pcs.^{[11]}$ An important finding is that the carboxy (or other) anchoring group needs to be electronically connected to the $Zn^{II}Pc$ to facilitate the charge transfer from the LUMO of the dye to the Ti 3d orbital. Rigid π -conjugated bridges and, in particular, vinyl-type conjugated spacers, have proven to be very effective groups for connecting the Pc π system to the carboxylic anchoring group. In this regard carboxyethynyl groups emerge as ideal candidates for optimal coupling and directionality in the linking of the $Zn^{II}Pc$ to TiO_2 .

With all these previous structure–property relationships in mind, we developed the synthesis of a series of Zn^{II}Pcs bearing carbon–carbon triple bonds (Figure 1) to serve as

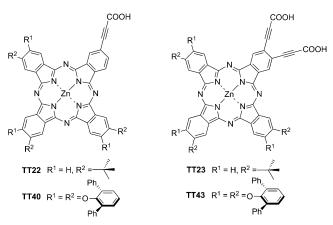


Figure 1. Structure of phthalocyanines TT22, TT23, TT40, and TT43.



spacers between the conjugated core and the anchoring COOH group. These nonflexible spacers having an extended electronic delocalization may keep the ZnIIPc core perperdicularly arranged and close enough to the TiO2 surface. Therefore, Zn^{II}Pcs with one (i.e., TT22 and TT40) or two carboxyethynyl groups (i.e., TT23 and TT43) were synthesized and studied as sensitizers in DSSCs^[13] to establish if the presence of two anchoring moieties in the dye is beneficial in terms of efficiency. Concerning the peripheral substitution of these unsymmetrically substituted Zn^{II}Pc derivatives, we introduced either three surrounding tert-butyl groups (i.e., TT22 and TT23) or six diphenylphenoxy groups (i.e., TT40 and TT43) to determine if the influence of peripheral substitution is paramount for achieving high efficiencies in compounds having similar anchoring moieties. In particular, we report herein that when using TT40 as a sensitizer we obtained record efficiency values of 5.5% and 6.1% under 100 and 9.5 mW cm⁻² intensities of standard AM 1.5, respectively.

The carboxyethynyl phthalocyanines **TT22**, **TT23**, **TT40**, and **TT43** were synthesized by means of two consecutive oxidation steps from the corresponding hydroxypropargyl derivatives: the reaction with the periodinane derivative IBX in DMSO afforded the corresponding formylethynyl derivatives, which were isolated and treated with NaClO₂ in water in the presence of sulfamic acid to yield the target compounds (see the Supporting Information). The synthesis of the corresponding mono- and bis(hydroxypropargyl) precursors were carried out by either a single or double Sonogashira coupling between a propargylic alcohol and the corresponding mono- or diiodo Pc derivatives, respectively.^[14]

All final compounds and their corresponding intermediates were fully characterized by spectroscopic techniques. The effectiveness of peripheral substituents in suppressing Pc aggregation was confirmed by ¹H NMR spectroscopy. The spectra of carboxyethynyl phthalocyanines in [D₈]THF show well-resolved signals in the aromatic region, especially in the case of **TT40** and **TT43** (see Figure S1 in the Supporting Information). Please note that **TT22** and **TT23** are obtained as a mixture of regioisomers.

UV/Vis spectral data demonstrate the consistently low aggregation of these carboxyphthalocyanines in THF solution (Figure 2). Absorption spectra of **TT22**, **TT23**, **TT40**, and **TT43** show split Q bands ranging from $\lambda = 670$ to 715 nm. Notably, the grafting of two carboxyethynyl groups onto the Pc molecule (i.e., **TT23** and **TT43**) causes a larger splitting and redshift of the Q bands. In particular, **TT43** shows the most redshifted and split of the Q bands of the series.

The characteristics of the photovoltaic device were measured under standard global AM 1.5 simulated solar conditions and are summarized in Table 1. The impact of the lack of aggregation of the macrocycles on the ${\rm TiO_2}$ surface may be inferred from the comparison of the efficiencies of **TT22** and **TT40**. In general, either a low dye concentration or the presence of a coadsorbent is essential for reducing the molecular aggregation, thus leading to a higher efficiency. [15] At full sun, using **TT22** as a sensitizer with a JH34 electrolyte we observed a short-circuit photocurrent density ($J_{\rm sc}$) of 7.01 mA cm⁻², an open-circuit voltage ($V_{\rm oc}$) of 610 mV, and

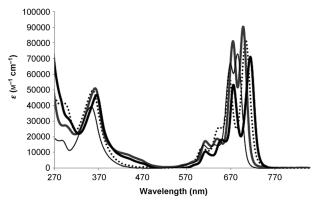


Figure 2. UV/Vis spectra in THF ($c = 1.2 \times 10^{-5}$ M) of **TT22** (thin black line), **TT23** (dotted line), **TT40** (thick gray line), and **TT43** (thick black line).

Table 1: J–V characteristics plotted as wavelength of DSSCs sensitized by TT22, TT23, TT40, and TT43.

Dye	<i>I</i> ₀ [mWcm ⁻²]	J _{sc} [mAcm ⁻²]	V _{oc} [mV]	FF ^[a]	η [%] ^[b]
TT22 ^[c]	9.5	0.70	564	0.78	3.26
	100	7.01	610	0.73	3.13
TT23 ^[d]	9.5	0.35	455	0.75	1.24
	100	3.70	520	0.73	1.40
TT40 ^[e]	9.5	1.31	585	0.76	6.13
	100	12.3	638	0.70	5.50
TT43 ^[f]	9.5	0.85	521	0.76	3.54
	100	8.77	584	0.71	3.63

[a] Fill factor. [b] Overall efficiency η is derived from $J_{sc}V_{oc}FF/I_0$. [c] TiO₂: \approx 9 + 5 μ m, 0.1 mm **TT22** solution with 20 mm CDCA. [d] TiO₂: \approx 6 + 6 μ m, 0.1 mm **TT23** solution with 20 mm CDCA. [e] TiO₂: \approx 6 + 5 μ m, 0.05 mm **TT40** solution. [f] TiO₂: \approx 6 + 5 μ m, 0.05 mm **TT43** solution.

a fill factor (FF) of 0.73, thus corresponding to an overall power conversion efficiency (PCE, η) of 3.13%. In this case, a thicker TiO₂ film was required to optimize the PCE, because using a film that was $5.7 + 5 \mu m$ thick (i.e., as used with other Pc sensitizers studied in this work) gave a PCE value of 2.93% as a result of a $J_{\rm sc} = 6.73 \, \rm mA \, cm^{-2}$. The presence of chenodeoxycholic acid (CDCA) in the TT22 solution was essential for achieving the above-mentioned performance. Indeed, a TT22-based device without CDCA attained only 61% of the efficiency of the device prepared in the presence of CDCA, primarily because of a loss in photocurrent. However, a TT40-sensitized solar cell in the absence of CDCA yielded a PCE of 5.5% and 6.1% under 100 (1 sun irradiation) and 9.5 mW cm⁻², respectively (Table 1 and Figure 3). The higher efficiency of the TT40-based molecular photovoltaic devices is attributed to the reduced molecular aggregates on the surface of the TiO2. Additional evidence confirming the non-aggregating nature of TT40 is that no change in the incident photon-to-current efficiency (IPCE) and the photovoltaic characteristics was observed even with a solution having 0.4 mm dye concentration (see Figure S2 and Table S1 in the Supporting Information). In addition, absorption spectra on TiO₂ films showed that the actual dye loading on the TiO₂ surface is independent of the

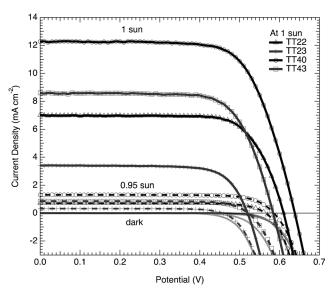


Figure 3. J–V characteristics of DSSCs sensitized by TT22 (line with triangles), TT23 (line with crosses), TT40 (line with circles), and TT43 (line with squares) when irradiated with simulated solar light at 9.5 (dash dotted line) and 100 (solid line with marker) mWcm⁻². Dotted lines show dark currents of all devices.

concentration (Figure S3). **TT40** on a double-layered TiO_2 film shows an IPCE greater than 85% at $\lambda = 700$ nm (Figure 4), and is in agreement with the absorbance maximum on the UV/Vis spectrum of the molecule.

Despite being endowed with two conjugated anchoring groups, **TT23** and **TT43** sensitizers showed inferior photovoltaic performances compared to **TT22** and **TT40**, mainly because of a drop in the $J_{\rm sc}$ value caused by the lower LUMO of the sensitizers (see below the electrochemical characterization)

A rationalization of the different $V_{\rm oc}$ values for all sensitizers can be achieved from the electron injection

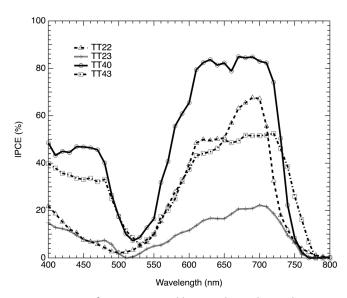


Figure 4. IPCEs of DSSCs sensitized by TT22 (line with triangles), TT23 (line with crosses), TT40 (line with circles), and TT43 (line with squares).

lifetimes for the different sensitizers (see Figure S4 in the Supporting Information). Optimized TT22 solar cells showed longer electron lifetimes than those of TT40, probably as a consequence of the addition of CDCA, a phenomenon that was demonstrated in previous work. [15a] Nonetheless, the highest V_{oc} value was achieved with **TT40**, and could be ascribed to a higher photoinduced charge density leading to a shift of the Fermi level of TiO2. Meanwhile, electron lifetimes in TT22 and TT40 solar cells were longer than those of TT23 and TT43 cells. This result shows that dyes conjugated with single anchoring group have longer electron lifetimes than dyes having two anchoring groups. The dependence of the electron lifetime on the number of anchoring groups has been observed in our previous studies with TT9, (i.e., a Zn^{II}Pc endowed with two carboxylic acids), which exhibited a shorter lifetime, although it performed at a higher level than TT1. [16] The structures of both TT1 and TT9 are not shown herein. The relationship between the charge dynamics and the anchoring group is very interesting but not clear at this stage.

Electrochemical characterization of the dyes also supports the results with regard to the efficiencies obtained for the dye series. Electrochemical properties were characterized by differential pulse voltammetry (DPV) in N,N'-dimethylformamide (DMF) containing 0.1м of tetrabutylammonium hexafluorophosphate (TBAPF₆; see Figure S5 and Table S2 in the Supporting Information). The reduction potentials of TT23 and TT43 are approximately 100 mV less negative than those of TT22 and TT40, respectively, and are consistent with lowerenergy LUMOs of the former derivatives. The reduction potential data are also in agreement with the UV/Vis spectral data. The lower-energy LUMOs of the TT23 and TT43 sensitizers, which contain two anchoring groups, result in a low efficiency for electron injection into TiO2. It is noteworthy that TT43-based solar cells showed redshifted IPCEs (Figure 4), which is in agreement with the absorption spectra shown in Figure 2.

The most important contribution of this work is related to the benefits of the ethynyl moiety as a bridge for optimal electronic coupling between the Zn^{II}Pc and TiO₂. First, **TT22** showed PCEs similar to those previously reported for the **TT1** counterpart, which has solubilizing *tert*-butyl groups and a COOH group directly linked to the Zn^{II}Pc core. This fact points to the effectiveness of the alkynyl bridge as a connecting group. Secondly, and more significantly, **TT40** largely outperforms the 4.6% efficiency previously reported by Mori et al.^[10] for a Zn^{II}Pc substituted with diphenylphenoxy substituents and a phenyl bridge between the anchoring carboxy group and the macrocycle.

However, the presence of an additional anchoring group (i.e., in TT23 and TT43) seems to be detrimental. A similar reduction in PCEs was observed on going from TT22 to TT23, and from TT40 to TT43; in both series, the introduction of an additional carboxyethynyl moiety reduces the efficiency of the molecular device by 55–60 %, mainly as a consequence of a strong reduction in the $J_{\rm SC}$ value. This drop is most likely ascribed to the low driving force for charge injection from the excited dyes into the TiO₂ conduction band.



Experimental Section

Solar cell fabrication and characterization: A TiO₂ film composed of ca. 6 μ m (transparent layer) and ca. 5 μ m (scattering layer) was prepared by screen-printing and treated with a 0.05 M titanium tetrachloride solution. The films were heated to 500 °C in air for 30 min before use, then dipped in either 0.1 mm TT22 or TT23 solutions in ethanol containing 20 mm 3 α , 7 α -dihydroxy-5 β -cholic acid (chenodeoxycholic acid, CDCA) for 5–6 h at room temperature. A quick rinse with acetonitrile was performed before fabrication of the solar cells using the procedure, testing conditions, and equipment previously reported. The liquid electrolyte, JH34 consisted of 0.6 m 1,3-dimethylimidazolium iodide, 0.03 m iodine, 0.05 m LiI, 0.05 m guanidinium thiocyanate, and 0.25 m 4-tert-butylpyridine in 15/85 (v/v) mixture of valeronitrile and acetonitrile. For TT40 or TT43 based solar cells, the solutions with no CDCA were used and the other procedures were similar as for TT22 and TT23.

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