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Investigating the active layer thickness dependence of non-fullerene organic solar cells based on PM7 derivatives†

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Power conversion efficiencies (PCEs) in organic solar cells (OSCs) have rapidly improved in the last 5 years owing largely to the development of novel small-molecule acceptors and polymer donors with several systems' performances exceeding 17%. A key factor for these materials implementation into industrial relevant devices is their active layer thickness tolerance as solar cell performances are typically reported with thicknesses on the order of 100–150 nm, but thicker films (ca. 300 nm) are needed for printing and roll-to-roll processing. In this report, two PM7 isomeric derivatives were synthesized featuring a chlorinated benzodithiophene and ester functionalized terthiophene moieties for the incorporation into non-fullerene OSCs. The fundamental difference between the two isomeric polymers is the location of the ester side chains where the PM7 D1 esters are located on the outer thiophene units, whereas the esters on PM7 D2 are located on the central thiophene unit. This simple modification produced polymers with similar absorption profiles, electrochemical onsets, charge carrier mobilities when blended with ITIC-4F, and grazing-incidence wide-angle X-ray scattering patterns. Thin-film (100 nm) OSCs were fabricated resulting in average PCEs of 11.6% for PM7, 12.1% for PM7 D1, and 9.9% for PM7 D2 when blended with ITIC-4F. In contrast, large differences are observed in PCE when the active layer thickness is increased to 180 nm resulting in a decrease in average PCE for PM7 D2 (5.3%), whereas PM7 D1 was able to retain a 11.9% average PCE. The difference in active layer thickness tolerance between PM7 D1 and PM7 D2 is rationalized by extracting the energetic disorder (σ) for hole transport using temperature dependent space-charge limited current studies. In the end, this study conveys how small changes to polymer structure, such as side chain placement, may have a small effect on thin-film polymer properties and device performance, but significant differences are realized when charges are transported over longer distances (thicker films, >150 nm).

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1. Introduction

Organic solar cells (OSCs) comprised of solution processable, synthetically modified donor and acceptor semiconductors mixed in a bulk heterojunction (BHJ) have represented a promising, sustainable, and green energy alternative.^{1–4} Blending a p-type

conjugated polymer donor with an n-type, small-molecule, non-fullerene acceptor (NFA) in a BHJ has represented the most promising active layer materials to date, with power conversion efficiencies (PCE) reaching 17% in single junction OSCs.^{5–9} The recent improvement in PCE of OSCs has largely been influenced by the advancement in the synthetic modification of fused-ring electron acceptors (FREAs) which possess several advantages including strong visible-near-infrared (NIR) absorption, electrochemical and structural flexibility, and facile synthesis and purification.^{10,11} Since the first FREA, ITIC, was synthesized in 2015 by the Zhan group,¹² many alterations have been made to the electron-rich core, electron-deficient end-groups, and/or side chain to modify the NFAs compatibility with polymeric donors.^{13–17} In 2017, a fluorinated derivative (ITIC-4F) of ITIC was synthesized which, at the time, produced state-of-the-art OSC devices due in part to the further red-shifted absorption, deeper highest occupied molecular orbital

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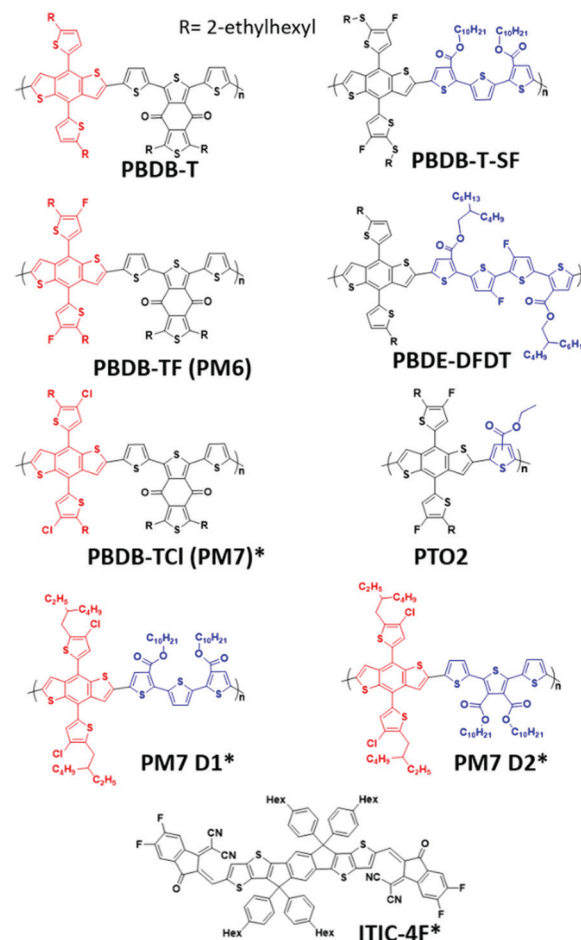
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(HOMO) level, and improved BHJ morphology.¹⁸ The ITIC-4F NFA was one of the highest performing acceptor-donor-acceptor (ADA) electron-rich core FREA, but recently a new structure paradigm, which produced higher PCEs, was designed where an electron-deficient core FREA was synthesized to give an overall acceptor-donor-acceptor-donor-acceptor (ADADA) motif.^{19–25} Incorporation of an electron-deficient unit in the FREA core allowed for increased conjugation length without significantly raising the HOMO level of the NFA, therefore, absorption further in the NIR (approaching 1000 nm) was possible without compromising the donor-acceptor ionization energy (IE) alignment.

To maximize solar irradiance consumption, wide-bandgap (WBG) polymer donors are paired with narrow-bandgap NFAs to produce active layer blends with complementary absorption.^{26–35} To date, the most successful family of WBG polymer donors (PBDB-T), generally comprised of a benzodithiophene (BDT) donor unit and a benzodithiophene-4,8-dione (BDD) or thiophene ester acceptor unit, were first implemented in a NFA OSC in 2016 by the Hou group when blended with ITIC.^{36–38} Since this report, there has been a plethora of PBDB-T derivatives designed with one of the most widely used being the fluorinated version (PM6) where two fluorine atoms were introduced on the conjugated side chain of BDT (Scheme 1).^{39–48} Fluorination of the polymer donor enhances the solar cell performance by lowering the HOMO level, thus increasing the open-circuit voltage (V_{OC}), and increasing the carrier mobilities due to stronger intermolecular interactions which can enhance the active layer packing.^{42,49} Recently, chlorine has been found to be a practical replacement for fluorine in both the polymeric donor and NFA components of the active layer blend.^{50–60} In comparison with their fluorinated counterparts, chlorinated polymer donors have lower energy levels, decreased energy loss, blue-shifted optical absorption, enhanced molecular packing, and most importantly, easier synthesis. This was most clearly demonstrated in 2018 when a chlorinated version of PBDB-T (PM7) was synthesized which used three fewer synthetic steps compared to its fluorinated equivalent.⁵⁴ This notion of designing economical π -conjugated materials for OSCs has become vital due to PCEs reaching industrial relevance.^{61,62} Poly (3-hexylthiophene) (P3HT) is still considered the most cost-effective and industrially relevant polymer donor, but suffers from low PCE mainly due to the low IE which limits V_{OC} and its compatibility with NFAs.^{63–65} To resolve this problem, ester functionalized polythiophene derivatives have been synthesized and successfully paired with NFAs to produce high performing OSCs that are still relatively cost-effective, as compared to most top-performing polymer donors.^{66,67} Additionally, the thiophene ester moiety has been incorporated into several donor-acceptor (DA) polymers as a relatively simple acceptor unit alternative (Scheme 1).^{28,32,33,68}

An equally important challenge in the field of OSCs is designing materials that have a high active layer thickness tolerance as this will be necessary for large-scale device fabrication.^{69–72} In general, NFA OSCs have optimal active layer



Scheme 1 High performing polymer donors incorporating BDT and thiophene esters from the literature, PM7 D1, PM7 D2 and ITIC-4F. *Materials used in this study.

thicknesses around 100 nm and typically experience dramatic performance losses when casted thicker due largely to a loss in fill factor (FF). On the other hand, fullerene-based OSCs have shown less dependence on the active layer thickness, which is attributed to fullerenes large electron mobility and aptitude to form relatively large, semi-crystalline domains.^{73–76} Therefore, there has recently been a thrust to design NFA OSC active layers that retards the performance drop when casted as a thicker film through the synthesis of new polymer donors,⁷⁷ synthesis of new NFAs,^{45,78–80} and the use of ternary blends.^{81–83} Although there have been a few successful reports regarding thick active layer NFA OSCs through new polymer design, there is still a need for the field to check new materials active layer thickness tolerance as many only report one thickness, which may be misleading when considering a materials utility in large-scale device fabrication.

In this contribution, two isomeric polymers were synthesized with the vision of creating relatively scalable, high-performing PM7 derivatives which replaces BDD with a terthiophene unit functionalized with ester side chains (Scheme 1). The two derivative polymers differ only in the placement of the ester functionality on the terthiophene moiety where PM7 D1 is

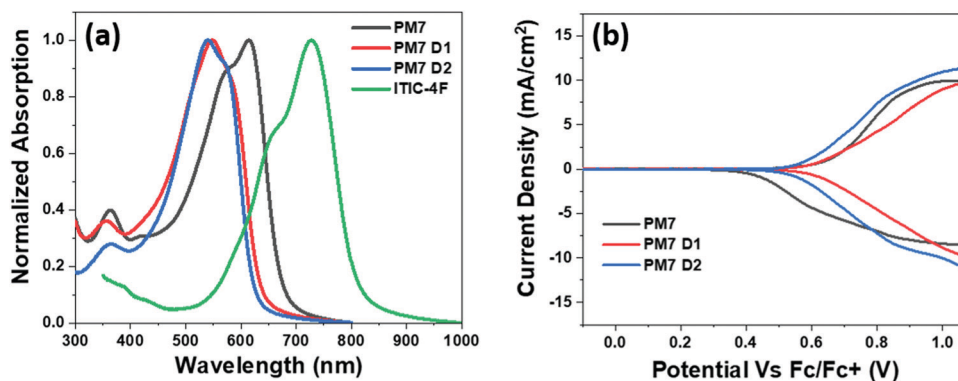


Fig. 1 (a) Film UV-vis absorption casted from chlorobenzene. (b) Differential pulsed voltammetry oxidation curves.

functionalized on the outer thiophene units, and PM7 D2 are located on the central thiophene unit. By using parallel polymerization techniques, the three polymers (PM7, PM7 D1 and D2) were isolated with high chemical purity, similar molecular weights and dispersities, which allow for an impartial comparison of material properties, and ultimately device performance. Introducing the oligothiophene ester units decreased polymer aggregation which is reflected in the blue-shifted, structureless absorption profiles creating better complementary absorption when paired with ITIC-4F (Fig. 1a), compared to PM7. Solar cell fabrication revealed PM7 and PM7 D1 perform similarly (PCE = 12%) and PM7 D2 performs slightly worse (PCE = 10%) when casted as 100 nm-thick active layers. On the other hand, when the active layers were increased to a thickness of 180 nm, the performance of D2 dramatically declined whereas the PCE of D1 was retained. This thickness dependence originates from the polymers stacking ability in the BHJ which, in this case, is determined by the side chain placement along the backbone and can be quantified by characterizing the hole energetic disorder. This work exposes the importance of testing a polymers active layer thickness tolerance as small modifications to a polymers structure, such as side chain placement, can radically change its ability to stack/pack in the BHJ which is reflected in thick active layer OSCs.

2. Results and discussion

The three polymers featured here were polymerized using traditional Stille cross-coupling conditions in pre-dried, degassed chlorobenzene using tris(dibenzylideneacetone) dipalladium(0) ($\text{Pd}_2(\text{dba})_3$) as the palladium source and tri(*o*-tolyl) phosphine ($\text{P}(\text{o-tol})_3$) as the corresponding ligand. Polymers were isolated in excellent yields (>90%) after reacting for 24 hours at 140 °C and purified using Soxhlet techniques. High-temperature gel permeation chromatography (GPC) performed in 1,2,4-trichlorobenzene reported number average molecular weights (M_n) between 45 and 50 kg mol^{-1} and dispersities (D_M) below 2.5 with monomodal chromatograms (Table 1). Elemental analysis proved the purity of the polymers as each were within the detection limit (0.3%) of their calculated C, H, and S ratios (Table 1). The similar molecular weight,

Table 1 Percent yield, GPC and elemental analysis

Polymer	Yield (mg)	M_n (kg mol^{-1})/ D_M	Elemental analysis actual/theoretical		
			C%	H%	S%
PM7	240/93%	48.8/2.45	65.21/65.20	6.24/6.12	20.62/20.47
PM7 D1	235/91%	49.6/2.25	64.67/64.78	6.65/6.72	17.60/17.80
PM7 D2	245/92%	45.8/2.07	64.87/64.78	6.58/6.72	17.74/17.80

dispersity, and chemical purity of the three polymers will minimize differences in solubility, molecular packing, and blend morphology to provide a reasonable comparison. The full synthetic procedure, schemes, NMR spectra, and GPC traces are located in the ESI† (Fig. S1–S20).

The solution (Fig. S21, ESI†) and thin-film (Fig. 1a) UV-vis absorption spectra show that the reference PM7 polymer is significantly red-shifted as compared to the two terthiophene ester derivatives. As previously shown, polymers in the PBDB-T family show strong solution aggregation due to the planar, 2D BDT and BDD conjugated units which facilitate polymer stacking.^{29,59} Therefore, the PM7 UV-vis in chlorobenzene shows a structured profile with a low energy band at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 608$ nm, previously assigned as an aggregation peak, and a high energy band at $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 572$ that is attributed to the π - π^* transition (Fig. S21, ESI†).²⁹ In contrast to PM7, the two derivatives (D1 and D2) have identical featureless absorption bands in chlorobenzene with a $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 525$ nm assigned as the π - π^* transition. The structureless absorption bands are likely due to many non-planar conformers with minimal difference in energy brought on by the terthiophene units which possess more degrees of freedom as compared to the BDD unit. This phenomenon has been previously reported in oligothiophene/polythiophene structures and in the incorporation of oligothiophene units into DA polymers.^{28,84} We note here that PM7 D1 and D2 have identical solution absorption profiles in chlorobenzene, which is desirable when comparing chlorobenzene active layer casted devices. The thin-film absorption spectra for D1 and D2 are red-shifted and reveal a new distinct low energy shoulder that is characteristic of aggregation and planarization of the polymer backbone due to the loss of degrees of freedom present in solution (Fig. 1a). Optical differences are more

obvious in the thin-film absorption as absorption onset and λ_{max} of PM7 D1 are slightly lower in energy ($E_{\text{gap}}^{\text{opt}} = 1.93$ eV, $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 548$ nm) as compared to D2 ($E_{\text{gap}}^{\text{opt}} = 1.96$ eV, $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 540$ nm). As noted before, due to the strong aggregation in solution, the thin-film absorption of PM7 is nearly identical to its solution profile with a slight 15 nm red-shift of the onset due to further planarization in the solid state. Finally, the blue-shifted absorption of D1 and D2 compared to PM7 overlap less with ITIC-4F suggesting better complementary absorption when considering the polymers thin-film λ_{max} .

Thin-film redox properties of the three PM7 polymers were characterized using cyclic voltammetry (CV, Fig. S22, ESI†) and differential pulsed voltammetry (DPV, Fig. 1b and Fig. S23, ESI†). Qualitatively, the cyclic voltammograms look similar for all three polymers with quasi-reversible cathodic and anodic waves. More insight was provided by carefully performing DPV to estimate the IE and electron affinity (EA) values from the onset potentials of each polymer. The onset values were estimated using the first DPV scan, and a fresh film was used for each oxidation and reduction sweep to eliminate changes in the film morphology and swelling effects, as previously published.⁸⁵ Interestingly, the onset of oxidation for PM7 and PM7 D1 are nearly identical ($E_{\text{onset}}^{\text{ox}} = 0.62$ V) whereas the onset of oxidation for PM7 D2 is slightly lower at $E_{\text{onset}}^{\text{ox}} = 0.57$ V, which will most likely translate to a lower V_{OC} when blended with ITIC-4F in a OSC.⁸⁶ The difference in oxidation potential between D1 and D2 suggests that the terthiophene ester motif in D2 behaves as a weaker acceptor unit as compared to D1, this is not obvious by the onset of reduction for D2 ($E_{\text{onset}}^{\text{red}} = -1.8$ V) when compared to D1 ($E_{\text{onset}}^{\text{red}} = -1.78$ V), according to DPV (Fig. S23, ESI†). This may suggest that the D1 terthiophene moiety is more “twisted” as compared to D2, resulting in a higher oxidation potential. Taken together, the electrochemical gap for PM7 is smaller $E_{\text{gap}}^{\text{chem}} = 2.33$ eV as compared to the two derivatives, D1 and D2, which corroborates well with the smaller optical gap estimated from the onset of absorption (Table S1, ESI†). With the polymers electrochemically characterized, the IE and EA energy levels were estimated, and an energy level diagram with ITIC-4F was constructed (Fig. S24, ESI†). A crucial variable to OSCs is the IE energy offset between

the donor and acceptor as small offsets may dramatically impact the device performance. The polymers studied here all have a larger than 0.2 eV offset with ITIC-4F which has previously been shown to be sufficient, although not necessary, for optimally performing OSCs.⁸⁵

Inverted BHJ OSCs with a device architecture of indium tin oxide (ITO)/zinc oxide/polymer:ITIC-4F/molybdenum trioxide/silver were fabricated using the three polymers. All active layer solutions consisted of a 1 : 1 polymer : ITIC-4F weight ratio in CB with a 1% 1,8-diiodooctane (DIO) additive, which is similar to the optimal published conditions for PM7.⁵⁴ The current density–voltage (J – V) plots and the summary of device characteristics are presented in Fig. 2 and Table 2 for both thin (100 nm) and thick (180 nm) active layer devices. First, solar cells with a 100 nm thick active layer were fabricated using all polymers, as this thickness was found to be optimum for PBDB-T:ITIC-4F blend cells.^{18,28,54,87,88} Interestingly, PM7 D1 and PM7 performed similarly with average PCEs around 12% with the prime difference in device characteristics being the current density (J_{SC}), which is slightly higher for PM7 D1 (Table 2). In contrast, the average PCE of PM7 D2 was 2% lower than the other two polymers due to lower FF, J_{SC} and V_{OC} , with the latter predicted from the electrochemical results as PM7 D2 had the lowest oxidation potential onset. Significant differences are observed when the two PM7 derivatives were casted as thicker films (180 nm) and tested for their OSC performance as PM7 D1 was able to retain its average 12% PCE, whereas PM7 D2 showed a dramatic decrease to 5.3%. Here we note that in order to optimize the thick-film active layers, a 10 minute thermal annealing treatment at 100 °C was necessary. The thickness tolerance observed in PM7 D1 was observed in both North Carolina State University and Georgia Institute of Technology laboratories to provide evidence of reproducibility (Table 2 and Fig. S25, ESI†). Although the solar cell characteristics are slightly different, the values show a similar trend. Moreover, PM7 D1 (PCE = 10.6%) was found to have a better active layer thickness tolerance than PM7 (PCE = 8.3%), which suggests PM7 D1, when paired with ITIC-4F, is the best candidate for large-scale processing of the three polymers reported here. Finally, 320 nm thick active layer devices were

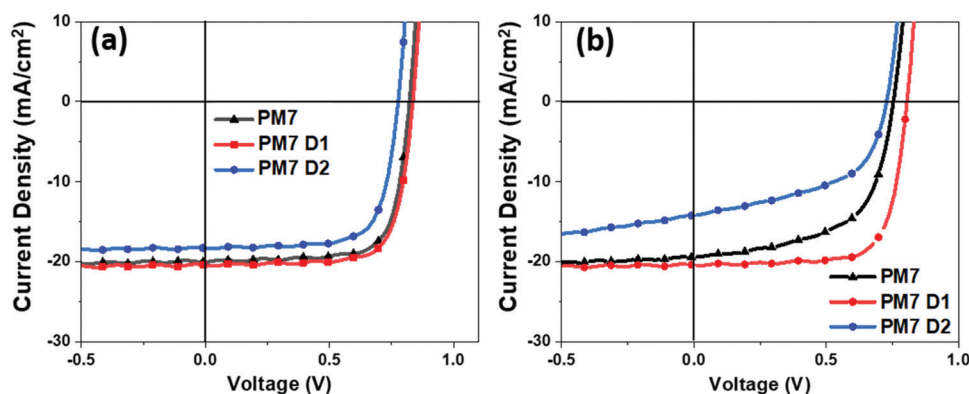


Fig. 2 Current density–voltage characteristics of OPV devices with a (a) 100 nm thick and (b) 180 nm thick active layer.

Table 2 Solar cell device characteristics

Polymer (blend thickness, nm)	J_{SC} (mA cm ⁻²)	V_{OC} (V)	FF (%)	PCE (best) (%)
PM7 (100)	18.9 ± 1.0	0.83 ± 0.01	74 ± 0.5	11.6 ± 0.5 (12.22)
PM7 D1 (100)	19.7 ± 0.7	0.84 ± 0.01	73 ± 2.0	12.1 ± 0.4 (12.78)
PM7 D2 (100)	18.0 ± 0.4	0.78 ± 0.01	71 ± 1.0	9.9 ± 0.2 (10.35)
PM7 (180) ^a	18.4 ± 0.8	0.76 ± 0.01	59 ± 1.0	8.4 ± 0.3 (8.77)
PM7 D1 (180) ^a	19.7 ± 0.4	0.81 ± 0.01	74 ± 1.0	11.9 ± 0.2 (12.20)
PM7 D2 (180) ^a	13.9 ± 0.2	0.74 ± 0.01	52 ± 1.0	5.3 ± 0.1 (5.43)
PM7 (100)	18.7 ± 0.4	0.86 ± 0.01	73 ± 0.3	11.7 ± 0.1 (11.86)
PM7 D1 (100)	19.2 ± 0.9	0.85 ± 0.01	72 ± 2.0	11.7 ± 0.2 (11.83)
PM7 D2 (100)	17.7 ± 0.5	0.82 ± 0.01	70 ± 1.5	10.2 ± 0.2 (10.38)
PM7 (180)	18.9 ± 0.3	0.79 ± 0.01	53 ± 1.5	8.2 ± 0.3 (8.50)
PM7 D1 (180)	20.2 ± 0.6	0.84 ± 0.01	63 ± 1.5	10.6 ± 0.4 (10.94)
PM7 D2 (180)	17.3 ± 0.6	0.77 ± 0.01	48 ± 1.0	6.4 ± 0.3 (6.72)
PM7 (320) ^a	19.7 ± 0.3	0.79 ± 0.01	49 ± 1.8	7.7 ± 0.3 (7.95)
PM7 D1 (320) ^a	20.1 ± 0.3	0.83 ± 0.01	54 ± 0.8	8.8 ± 0.2 (9.03)
PM7 D2 (320) ^a	9.98 ± 0.4	0.79 ± 0.01	47 ± 0.3	3.7 ± 0.2 (3.90)

^a Thermally annealed at 100 °C for 10 minutes. Results for solar cells fabricated at Georgia Tech are above the horizontal dotted line, while those fabricated at North Carolina State University are below the line, demonstrating close correlation in two device construction laboratories. Devices were averaged over 8 devices and the thicknesses are within ±10 nm.

fabricated with each polymer to investigate if the thickness tolerance trend continues for each BHJ (Fig. S26 and Table 2, ESI†). Predictably, the PCE for each device decreases due to a drop in FF. The PM7 D2:ITIC-4F blend's PCE continues to diminish (PCE < 4%) while PM7 D1's performance remains the highest of the three polymers at 8.8%. Indeed, PM7 D1's performance drops more significantly than PM7s, and therefore, the thickness tolerance difference becomes less significant around 300 nm. Regardless, the OSC performance differences between PM7 D1 and PM7 D2 are dramatic at all active layer thicknesses indicating significant morphological deviations as a result of the ester placement on the terthiophene moiety. The external quantum efficiency (EQE) spectra for all three polymer:ITIC-4F blends show similar results with minor differences between 300 to 810 nm, and all three show slightly higher integrated current when casted as a thicker film (Fig. S27 and Table S2, ESI†).

Grazing-incidence wide-angle X-ray scattering (GIWAXS) was used to probe differences in molecular packing between PM7 D1 and D2 in attempts to understand the dissimilar active layer

Table 3 Summary of mobility and energetic disorder of thick polymer:ITIC-4F blends

Polymer	Hole mobility (cm ² V ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	Electron mobility (cm ² V ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	σ_{hole} (meV)	σ_{electron} (meV)
PM7	1.13×10^{-4}	2.67×10^{-5}	68	62
PM7 D1	1.64×10^{-4}	4.85×10^{-5}	65	62
PM7 D2	1.04×10^{-4}	2.34×10^{-5}	73	63

thickness tolerance in the OSC active layer blends.⁸⁹ The GIWAXS pristine and blend (thick and thin) 2D patterns are shown in Fig. S28 (ESI†). The blend films were prepared using the same processing techniques as the solar cell active layers and the thin (100 nm) and thick (180 nm) films have similar thicknesses. In general, the PM7 D1 and D2 neat scattering patterns are very similar with preferential face-on π - π stacking orientation, as indicated by the pronounced (010) peak in the out-of-plane (OOP) direction and the corresponding high intensity (100) peak in the in-plane direction. Minor differences, as compared to the pristine polymer films, are observed in the blend GIWAXS patterns as the out-of-plane (010) reflection remains pronounced suggesting little disruption to the polymer organization by the ITIC-4F acceptor. Further, some insight into active layer thickness tolerance differences between the two polymers can be gained when comparing the out-of-plane π - π stacking parameters, as shown in Table S3 (ESI†). Here, the π - π stacking of the PM7 D1 blend is unchanged and the coherence length changes from 27 Å to 32 Å, respectively, when comparing the thin and thick films. The PM7 D2 π - π stacking parameters change very little from a thin to thick film. However, the thickness and background normalized integrated intensity of the π - π stacking peak decreases in the D1 blends by a factor of 1.6 with an increase in thickness, whereas the intensities are similar in the D2 blend series (Fig. 3 and Table S3, ESI†). Although the π - π stacking peak intensity in the PM7 D2 blends is nearly unchanged, it showed a significant decrease in PCE with thickness, whereas the π - π stacking peak intensity of PM7 D1 decreased more considerably which ultimately translated to an unaffected PCE with thickness. This indicates that simple/traditional metrics of molecular packing that have worked in many other donor:acceptor material systems cannot be correlated to performance here.⁹⁰

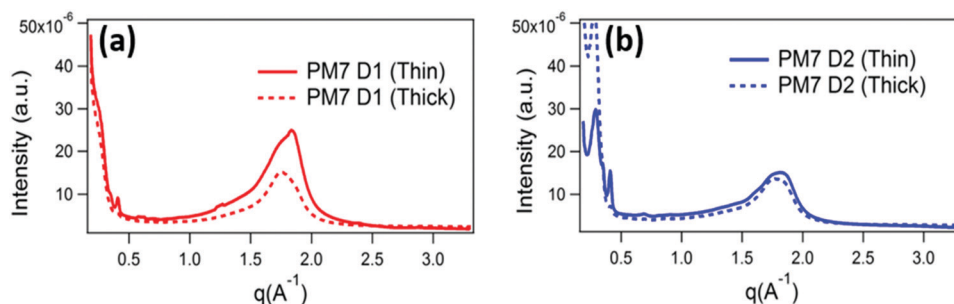


Fig. 3 The out-of-plane GIWAXS line cuts for scattering volume normalized (a) PM7 D1 and (b) PM7 D2 blends.

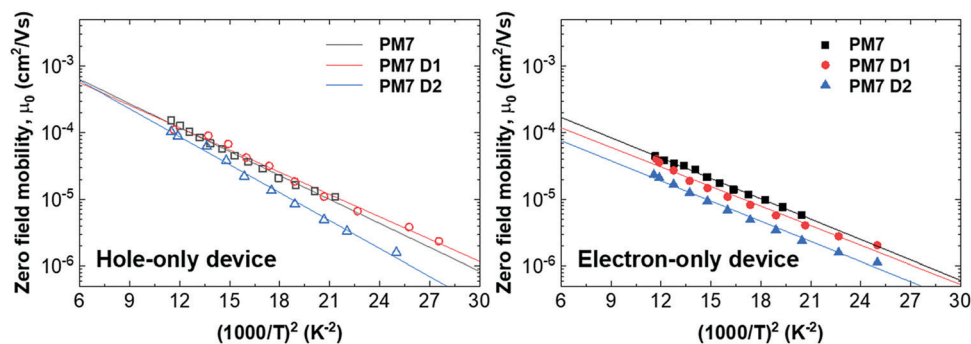


Fig. 4 Zero-field mobilities vs. $1/T^2$. Solid lines are best linear fits to the experimental data. The slopes of the plots yield the energetic disorders.

To further probe the origin of the active layer thickness tolerance difference in the two PM7 derivatives, space-charge limited current (SCLC) measurements of hole and electron-only devices were carried out on the thick polymer:ITIC-4F blend films (Fig. S29, ESI†). By fitting the J - V characteristics of single-carrier devices measured at room temperature, the hole mobility of all BHJ blends show similar values ranging from 1.0×10^{-4} to $1.6 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, while the BHJ film with PM7 D1 has roughly two times higher electron mobility than PM7 and PM7 D2 (Table 3). The higher electron mobility in the PM7 D1 BHJ blend results in a more balanced electron-hole mobility ratio, which accounts for the higher FF in PM7 D1 OPV devices.

To further examine the transport behaviors of the BHJ films with different donor polymers, we performed temperature-dependent SCLC measurements to extract the energetic disorder parameter (σ) (Fig. S30, ESI†). The resulting zero-field mobility at different temperatures (T) can be analyzed by the well accepted Gaussian disorder model (GDM) by a plot of extracted zero-field mobility (μ_0) against $1/T^2$ (Fig. 4).⁹¹ According to the GDM, the temperature-dependent zero-field mobilities are related to T via eqn (1), where σ is the energetic disorder, μ_∞ is carrier mobility as temperature trends to infinity, and k represents the Boltzmann constant. In eqn (1), μ_0 , μ_∞ , and σ can be associated with either electron (e) or hole (h) transport. Polymeric semiconductors have some level of disorder due to the different types of intra and intermolecular interactions that generate a

$$\mu_0 = \mu_\infty \exp[-(2\sigma/3kT)^2] \quad (1)$$

broadened electronic density-of-states (DOS).⁹² Based on the polymeric backbone, side chains, and coupling with an electronic acceptor, different blend morphologies are generated due to the conformational diversity of the molecular components.^{93,94} These molecular interactions cause different levels of ordered and/or amorphous regions in the active layer film which ultimately affect the charge-transport properties of the BHJ. Typically, energetic disorder values range from 125 to 60 meV depending on the donor:acceptor materials, ratio, and processing thereof.^{95,96} The extracted energetic disorders of the polymer:ITIC-4F blends are summarized in Table 3. The electron energetic disorder shows essentially no change between different BHJ blends, which is to be expected as ITIC-4F is the

main electron transport pathway in the BHJ blends. In contrast, the hole energetic disorder for PM7 D2 is higher (73 meV) as compared to the other blends which reflects a distinct change in energy width of the hole hopping site manifold, which arises from interactions with its environment.^{97,98} As such, we conclude the difference in performance of these OPVs originates from the different molecular packing properties that are occurring on the nm length-scale of the donor polymer. This is the first time, as far as we know, that the energetic disorder parameter has been correlated with the active layer thickness tolerance of polymeric donor materials.

3. Conclusion and perspective

To conclude, two PM7 isomeric derivatives (PM7 D1 and PM7 D2), and PM7, were synthesized with similar molecular weights and dispersities to compare their OSC performance and active layer thickness tolerance when paired with the NFA ITIC-4F. As compared to PM7, the two derivatives have less-structured, blue-shifted absorption profiles indicative of a less-planar and aggregated configuration. Thin-film properties and OSC (100 nm) device performance yielded similar results for the family of polymers with PM7 (PCE = 12.1 ± 0.4) and PM7 D1 (PCE = 11.6 ± 0.5) demonstrating higher PCEs as compared to PM7 D2 (PCE = 9.9 ± 0.2). Conversely, large differences in device performance were observed when the active layer thickness was increased to 180 nm, where PM7 D1 was able to retain its PCE (PCE = 11.9 ± 0.2), but the PCE of PM7 D2 dramatically decreased (PCE = 5.3 ± 0.1). The GIWAX data indicated that the changes to the backbone repeat structure had little correlative relation of the average molecular packing and texture of the overall film to performance. The thickness tolerance difference between the two isomeric polymers was ultimately attributed to the higher energetic disorder in the hole transport for PM7 D2 (73 meV) as compared to PM7 D1 (65 meV). Importantly, we demonstrate how thin-film (100–150 nm) device performance could be misleading when suggesting a material could be used for large-scale device fabrication as the thickness tolerance will be essential for a materials ability to be industrially relevant. Furthermore, molecular interactions that disrupt charge transport and cause recombination traps in BHJs may be more detrimental to the FF and J_{SC} as the active layer

thickness increases. These unfavorable interactions can go undetected with many of the traditional material characterizations such as light absorption, charge mobility, X-ray scattering patterns, and electrochemically derived energy levels, and therefore, using techniques to investigate energetic disorder, and the underlying reasons therein, will become important in optimizing future OPVs.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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