

# Comparative Study on Pyrido[3,4-*b*]pyrazine-Based Sensitizers by Tuning Bulky Donors for Dye-Sensitized Solar Cells

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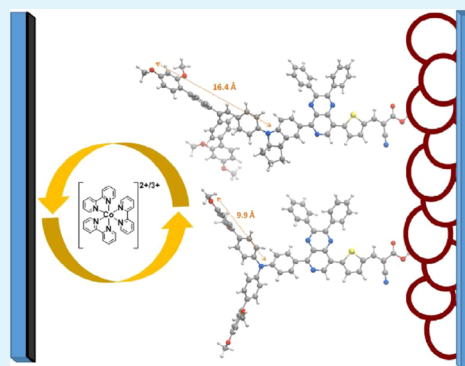
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## Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** Dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) with cobalt electrolytes have gained increasing attention. In this Research Article, two new pyrido[3,4-*b*]pyrazine-based sensitizers with different cores of bulky donors (indoline for DT-1 and triphenylamine for DT-2) were designed and synthesized for a comparative study of their photophysical and electrochemical properties and device performance and were also analyzed through density functional theory calculations. The results of density function theory calculations reveal the limited electronic communication between the biphenyl branch at the cis-position of *N*-phenylindoline and the indoline core, which could act as an insulating blocking group and inhibit the dye aggregation and charge recombination at the interface of TiO<sub>2</sub>/dye/electrolyte. As expected, DSSCs based on DT-1 with cobalt redox electrolyte gained a higher photoelectric conversion efficiency of 8.57% under standard AM 1.5 G simulated sunlight, with  $J_{sc} = 16.08 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ,  $V_{oc} = 802 \text{ mV}$ , and  $FF = 0.66$ . Both electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and intensity-modulated photovoltage spectroscopy (IMVS) suggest that charge recombination in DSSCs based on DT-1 is much less than that in their counterparts of DT-2, owing to the bigger donor size and the insulating blocking branch in the donor of DT-1.

**KEYWORDS:** sensitizers, pyrido[3,4-*b*]pyrazine, indoline, triphenylamine, dye-sensitized solar cells



## INTRODUCTION

As a promising technology for the new generation of photovoltaic systems, dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) have attracted tremendous attention due to their ecological and economical fabrication processes since the first report in 1991.<sup>1–7</sup> Each component of the DSSC (i.e., sensitizer, electrolyte, photoanode, and counter electrode) plays an important role in the photovoltaic performance. As one of the key components, the redox electrolyte has been demonstrated to be very crucial in determining the photoelectric conversion efficiency and device stability of DSSCs.<sup>8,9</sup> So far, the most commonly used redox mediator is iodide/triiodide ( $I^-/I_3^-$ ), which has showed remarkable performance in DSSCs owing to its desirable kinetic properties and high carrier collection efficiencies.<sup>10,11</sup> However, the  $I_3^-/I^-$  redox couple suffers from several intrinsic disadvantages including a low redox potential ( $\sim 0.4 \text{ V}$  vs NHE), competitive blue light absorption and corrosion toward metal materials, which pose a negative influence on the open-circuit voltage ( $V_{oc}$ ), the short-circuit current density ( $J_{sc}$ ), the device stability, and in turn the solar-to-electric power conversion efficiency ( $\eta$ ) as well as the scaled-up applications of DSSCs.<sup>9,12</sup> In order to improve the situation, more researches

have been focused on finding alternative redox electrolytes with the main goal of increasing the  $V_{oc}$  in the past decade.<sup>13–18</sup> Among the candidate redox electrolytes, cobalt (II/III) tris-bipyridyl redox shuttle became popular due to its tunable redox potential, negligible light absorption and remarkable performance.<sup>19–22</sup> The state-of-the-art DSSCs based on zinc porphyrin complexes with cobalt electrolyte have achieved an amazing  $\eta$  of over 12%.<sup>23,24</sup> However, compared to the  $I_3^-/I^-$  redox shuttle, the larger size, heavier mass and lower diffusion coefficient of the cobalt complex lead to mass transport and charge recombination problems, which limits the thickness of TiO<sub>2</sub> films, and hence the light-harvesting abilities of the cell devices.<sup>25,26</sup> Therefore, metal-free organic sensitizers have been becoming increasingly attractive owing to their high extinction coefficients, versatility of molecular structure, tunable energy levels and absorptivity.<sup>27–30</sup> What's more, the recombination can be reduced by tuning the molecular structure.

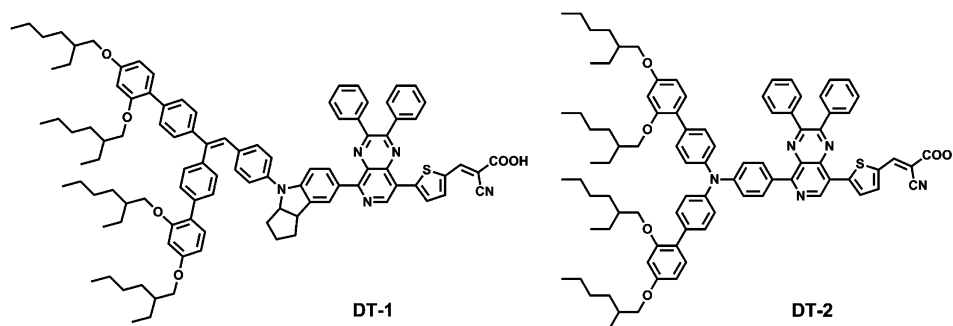
Earlier research on DSSCs based on organic sensitizers with cobalt electrolytes have indicated that these suffer from severe

Received: November 11, 2014

Accepted: January 12, 2015

Published: January 12, 2015

Scheme 1. Molecular Structures of the Dyes DT-1 and DT-2



mass transport problems and charge recombination.<sup>31,32</sup> Modifications on the ligands of cobalt complexes and passivation treatments on mesoporous semiconductor layers were carried out in order to reduce the interfacial charge recombination.<sup>33,34</sup> Substantial progress was not made, however, until Hagfeldt et al. published their inspiring work on a new triphenylamine-based organic sensitizer **D35** with *o,p*-dibutoxyphenyl as the electron-donating substituent.<sup>35</sup> For the sake of convenience, we here call those bulky donors with the electron-donating *o,p*-dialkoxyphenyl substituent as the “Hagfeldt”-type donors. Their work showed a novel and effective approach toward higher photoelectric conversion efficiency with much less charge recombination of electrons in the TiO<sub>2</sub> films and cobalt redox species. Since then, many organic sensitizers with bulky donors have been designed, synthesized and applied to DSSCs with cobalt electrolytes and new record efficiencies keep being refreshed.<sup>36–42</sup> The  $\eta$  of DSSCs based on single organic sensitizer is 10.65%, achieved by employing dye **YA422** with cobalt (II/III) tris-bipyridyl redox electrolyte.<sup>43</sup> **YA422** is a typical organic sensitizer with indoline-based Hagfeldt-type donor. As a matter of fact, “Hagfeldt”-type donors based on indoline and triphenylamine are widely employed to construct D- $\pi$ -A organic sensitizers for DSSCs with cobalt redox electrolytes.<sup>44–47</sup> However, little research has been conducted to figure out the differences between the two types of bulky donors and their performance in DSSC devices.

Therefore, we constructed two sensitizers with the only difference being in the core of the Hagfeldt-type donor: indoline (**DT-1**) and triphenylamine (**DT-2**). Noticing the absorption onset of **YA422** was only around 670 nm, which posed a limitation to the short-circuit current density ( $J_{sc} = 15.26 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  with cobalt electrolyte and  $J_{sc} = 14.40 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$  with iodide electrolyte),<sup>43</sup> we employed a stronger electron-withdrawing pyrido[3,4-*b*]pyrazine (PP)-based auxiliary acceptor to replace its quinoxaline-based analogue in **YA422** with the aim of further broadening the absorption range and enhancing the  $J_{sc}$ .<sup>48</sup> Herein, we report two new D-A- $\pi$ -A organic sensitizers (**DT-1** and **DT-2**, see Scheme 1) for DSSCs with cobalt electrolytes, consisting of bulky indoline-based or triphenylamine-based Hagfeldt-type donors, PP unit as auxiliary acceptor, thiophene as  $\pi$ -bridge and 2-cyanoacetic acid as acceptor and anchoring group. The structure–property relationship of the two dyes was investigated in the DSSC devices with Co[(bpy)<sub>3</sub>]<sup>3+/2+</sup> electrolytes. As a result, DSSCs based on **DT-1** achieved higher photoelectric conversion efficiency of 8.57% under standard AM 1.5 G simulated sunlight ( $J_{sc} = 16.08 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ,  $V_{oc} = 802 \text{ mV}$ , and  $FF = 0.66$ ). Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and intensity-modulated photovoltage spectroscopy (IMVS) were employed

to investigate the interfacial processes and recombination dynamics in the devices, indicating that **DT-1** with bulky indoline-based Hagfeldt-type donor can retard the charge recombination more effectively, which might be owing to the bigger donor size and the insulating blocking branch in the donor of **DT-1**, as shown by density function theory (DFT) calculations.

## EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

**Materials and Reagents.** Fluorine-doped SnO<sub>2</sub> conducting glass (FTO glass, transparency >90%, sheet resistance 15  $\Omega$ /square was obtained from the Geao Science and Educational Co. Ltd. of China. Acetonitrile, tetra-*n*-butyl ammonium hexafluorophosphate (TBAPF<sub>6</sub>), 4-*tert*-butylpyridine, and lithium iodide were bought from Fluka and iodine (99.999%) was purchased from Alfa Aesar. 5, 8-dibromo-2,3-diphenyl-pyrido[3,4-*b*]pyrazine, compound **1** was synthesized according to the reference.<sup>48</sup> All chemicals and reagents were purchased from suppliers and used without further purification. Tetrahydrofuran (THF) was dried with sodium under argon before use.

**Instruments and Characterization.** A Brücker AM 400 spectrometer was employed to obtain <sup>1</sup>H NMR and <sup>13</sup>C NMR spectra with TMS as the internal standard. High resolution mass spectra were obtained via HITACHI-80 mass spectrometer. The UV–vis spectra were measured using a Shimdtzu UV-260 UV–vis spectrometer. A Versastat II electrochemical workstation (Princeton applied research) was utilized to perform cyclic voltammetry measurement on dyes with a three-electrode system, in which glassy carbon electrode as the working electrode, platinum wire as the counter electrode, and a saturated calomel electrode as the reference electrode with ferrocene as the external standard and 0.1 M tetra-*n*-butyl ammonium hexafluorophosphate in dichloromethane as the supporting electrolyte. The scan rate was 50 mV/s.

**Synthesis of Sensitizers. 2,5-Dibromopyridine-3,4-diamine (1).** Pyridine-3,4-diamine (5.45 g, 50.0 mmol) and 48% HBr (40 mL) was added into a 50 mL flask, followed by slowly adding Br<sub>2</sub> (8 mL) dropwise. Then the mixture was heated at 80 °C for 24h. After cooling, the raw product was collected by filtration and washed using saturated Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> aqueous solution, saturated NaHCO<sub>3</sub> aqueous solution and deionized water successively. In the end, the compound **1** was obtained by recrystallization in ethanol as ochre solid (7.34 g, 55% yield). <sup>1</sup>H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl<sub>3</sub>)  $\delta$ , ppm: 7.53 (s, 1H), 5.99 (s, 2H), 5.05 (s, 2H).

**5,8-Dibromo-2,3-diphenylpyrido[3,4-*b*]pyrazine (2).** The mixture of compound **1** (2.76 g, 10 mmol), benzil (2.1 g, 10 mmol), and glacial acetic acid (20 mL) was heated at 60 °C for 10h. After it was cooled, the mixture was poured into 500 mL water. The raw product was collected by filtration and purified by chromatography on a silica gel column with CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>/PE (1:1 by volume) to give **2** as yellow solid (2.18 g, 49% yield). <sup>1</sup>H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl<sub>3</sub>)  $\delta$ , ppm: 8.97 (s, 1H), 7.65 (s, 4H), 7.45 (m, 2H), 7.38 (m, 4H).

**4-(4-(2,2-Bis(2',4'-bis(octyloxy)-[1,1'-biphenyl]-4-yl)vinyl)phenyl)-7-(8-bromo-2,3-diphenylpyrido[3,4-*b*]pyrazin-5-yl)-1,2,3,3a,4,8b-hexahydrocyclopenta[*b*]indole (3).** Under an argon atmosphere, a mixture of compound **2** (300 mg, 0.68 mmol) and Pd(PPh<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub> (24 mg)

in THF (13 mL) was heated to 50 °C. Then 5 mL 2 M K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> aqueous solution was added, followed by injecting a solution of (4-(4-(2,2-bis(2',4'-bis((2-ethylhexyl)-oxy)-[1,1'-biphenyl]-4-yl)vinyl)-phenyl)-1,2,3,3a,4,8b-hexa-hydrocyclopenta[b]-indol-7-yl)boronic acid (1 mL, 0.5 mmol) in THF slowly. The mixture was heated to 80 °C and refluxed for 8 h. After cooling, the raw product was extracted using CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> and water. The organic layers were combined and dried by anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. After filtration, the solvent was removed under reduced pressure and the residue was purified by chromatography on a silica gel column with CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>/PE (1:1 by volume) to give **3** as red solid (165 mg, 23% yield). <sup>1</sup>H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl<sub>3</sub>) δ, ppm: 8.97 (s, 1H), 8.15 (s, 1H), 8.11 (d, J = 8.8 Hz, 1H), 7.73 (d, J = 7.6 Hz, 2H), 7.62 (d, J = 7.6 Hz, 2H), 7.56 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 2H), 7.48 (d, J = 8.4 Hz, 2H), 7.40–7.31 (m, 12H), 7.13 (m, 5H), 7.01 (s, 1H), 6.57 (m, 4H), 3.88–3.84 (m, 10H), 2.06–1.90 (m, 4H), 1.76–1.67 (m, 6H), 1.58–1.46 (m, 8H), 1.34–1.26 (m, 24H), 0.97–0.84 (m, 24H).

**5-(5-(4-(4-(2,2-Bis(2',4'-bis(octyloxy)-[1,1'-biphenyl]-4-yl)vinyl)-phenyl)-1,2,3,3a,4,8b-hexahydrocyclopenta[b]indol-7-yl)-2,3-diphenylpyrido[3,4-b]pyrazin-8-yl)thiophene-2-carbaldehyde (4).** Under an argon atmosphere, a mixture of **3** (150 mg, 0.1 mmol) and Pd(PPh<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub> (18 mg) in THF (12 mL) was heated to 50 °C; then 5 mL of 2 M K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> aqueous solution was added, followed by injection of a solution of 5-formyl-2-thiopheneboronic acid (47 mg, 0.3 mmol) in THF (10 mL). Then the mixture was heated to 80 °C and refluxed for 18 h. After it was cooled, the raw product was extracted using CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> and water. The organic layers were combined and dried by anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. After filtration, the solvent was removed under reduced pressure and the residue was purified by chromatography on a silica gel column with CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>/PE (4:1 by volume) to give **4** as red solid (112 mg, 73% yield). <sup>1</sup>H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl<sub>3</sub>) δ, ppm: 10.00 (s, 1H), 9.25 (s, 1H), 8.27 (s, 1H), 8.24 (d, J = 8.8 Hz, 1H), 7.97 (d, J = 4.0 Hz, 1H), 7.86 (d, J = 4.0 Hz, 1H), 7.78 (d, J = 6.4 Hz, 2H), 7.66 (d, J = 6.8 Hz, 2H), 7.56 (d, J = 8.0 Hz, 2H), 7.46 (dd, J = 8.4 Hz, J = 16.4 Hz, 6H), 7.39–7.36 (m, 4H), 7.34–7.31 (m, 4H), 7.14 (m, 5H), 7.02 (s, 1H), 6.57 (m, 4H), 3.88 (m, 10H), 2.03–1.97 (m, 4H), 1.75–1.68 (m, 6H), 1.43–1.42 (m, 8H), 1.33 (m, 24H), 0.93–0.86 (m, 24H).

**(E)-3-(5-(5-(4-(4-(2,2-Bis(2',4'-bis(octyloxy)-[1,1'-biphenyl]-4-yl)-vinyl)phenyl)-1,2,3,3a,4,8b-hexa-hydrocyclopenta[b]indol-7-yl)-2,3-diphenylpyrido[3,4-b]pyrazin-8-yl)thiophen-2-yl)-2-cyanoacrylic acid (DT-1).** Under an argon atmosphere, a mixture of **4** (111 mg, 0.075 mmol), 2-cyanoacetic acid (85 mg, 1 mmol), and ammonium acetate (115 mg, 1.5 mmol) in acetic acid (13 mL) was refluxed at 120 °C for 12 h. After it was cooled, the mixture was poured into 300 mL saturated NaCl aqueous solution and stirred. The precipitate was collected by filtration and purified by chromatography on a silica gel column with CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>/methanol (20:1 by volume) to give DT-1 as black solid (89 mg, 77% yield). <sup>1</sup>H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl<sub>3</sub>) δ, ppm: 10.77 (s, 1H), 8.30 (m, 2H), 7.93 (m, 4H), 7.47–7.45 (m, 4H), 7.36–7.34 (m, 3H), 7.27–7.25 (m, 3H), 7.19–7.18 (m, 5H), 7.11–7.07 (m, 8H), 6.95 (s, 2H), 6.50 (m, 2H), 6.44 (m, 3H), 3.78 (m, 10H), 2.00–1.73 (m, 6H), 1.28–1.18 (m, 36H), 0.85–0.76 (m, 24H). <sup>13</sup>C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl<sub>3</sub>) δ, ppm: 160.62, 157.66, 131.28, 130.29, 129.58, 127.18, 123.30, 105.71, 100.47, 71.70, 70.89, 70.73, 39.88, 39.81, 39.74, 31.53, 30.93, 30.34, 30.09, 29.52, 29.45, 29.36, 24.45, 24.27, 23.50, 23.43, 14.29, 11.32, 11.22. HRMS (ESI) *m/z*: [M + H]<sup>+</sup> calcd for C<sub>102</sub>H<sub>114</sub>N<sub>5</sub>O<sub>6</sub>S, 1536.8490; found, 1536.8488.

**4-(8-Bromo-2,3-diphenylpyrido[3,4-b]pyrazin-5-yl)-N,N-diphenylaniline (5).** Under an argon atmosphere, a mixture of **2** (882 mg, 2 mmol) and Pd(PPh<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub> (22 mg) in THF (15 mL) was heated to 50 °C, then 5 mL of 2 M K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> aqueous solution was added, followed by injecting a solution of 4-(diphenylamino)phenylboronic acid (289 mg, 1 mmol) in THF slowly. Then the mixture was heated to 65 °C and refluxed for 8 h. After it was cooled, the raw product was extracted using CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> and water. The organic layers were combined and dried by anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. After filtration, the solvent was removed under reduced pressure, and the residue was purified by chromatography on a silica gel column with CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>/PE (1:1 by volume) to give **5** as orange red solid (478 mg, 79% yield). <sup>1</sup>H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl<sub>3</sub>) δ, ppm: 9.03 (s, 1H), 8.24–8.22 (m, 2H), 7.72

(m, 2H), 7.59 (m, 2H), 7.39–7.26 (m, 14H), 7.20 (m, 2H), 7.11–7.09 (m, 2H).

**5-(5-(4-(Diphenylamino)phenyl)-2,3-diphenyl-pyrido[3,4-b]-pyrazin-8-yl)thiophene-2-carbaldehyde (6).** Under an argon atmosphere, a mixture of **5** (200 mg, 0.33 mmol) and Pd(PPh<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub> (16 mg) in THF (12 mL) was heated to 50 °C, then 5 mL of 2 M K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> aqueous solution was added, followed by injecting a solution of 5-formyl-2-thiopheneboronic acid (156 mg, 1 mmol) in THF (10 mL) was added. Then the mixture was heated to 80 °C and refluxed for 16 h. After cooling, the raw product was extracted using CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> and water. The organic layers were combined and dried by anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. After filtration, the solvent was removed under reduced pressure and the residue was purified by chromatography on a silica gel column with CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>/PE (2:1 by volume) to give **6** as red solid (153 mg, 73% yield). <sup>1</sup>H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl<sub>3</sub>) δ, ppm: 10.00 (s, 1H), 9.28 (s, 1H), 8.36 (s, 1H), 8.34 (s, 1H), 7.98 (d, J = 4.4 Hz, 1H), 7.86 (d, J = 4.0 Hz, 1H), 7.75 (d, J = 6.4 Hz, 2H), 7.62 (d, J = 6.8 Hz, 2H), 7.44–7.42 (m, 2H), 7.37–7.30 (m, 7H), 7.23–7.22 (m, 3H), 7.21–7.20 (m, 3H), 7.12–7.09 (m, 3H).

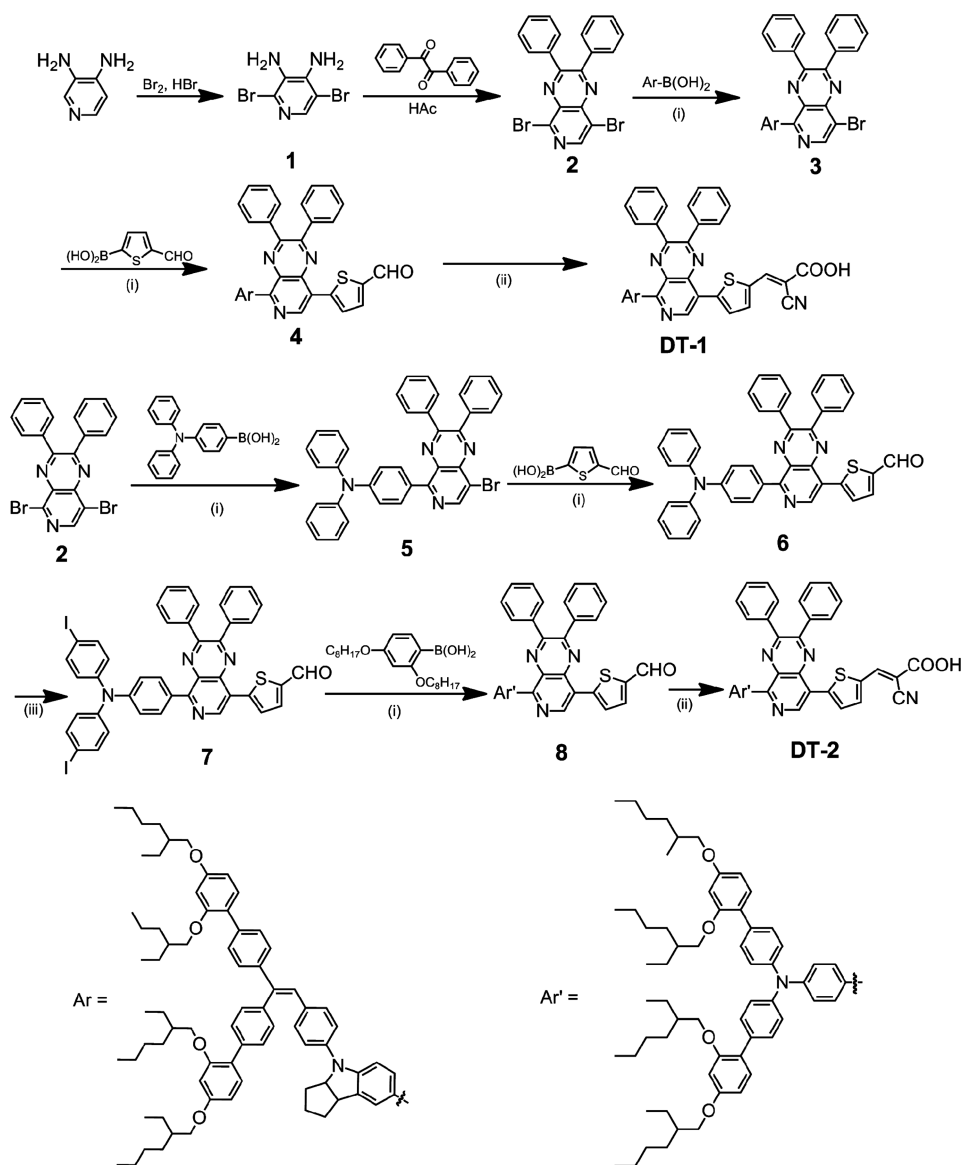
**5-(5-(4-(Bis(4-iodophenyl)amino)phenyl)-2,3-diphenylpyrido[3,4-b]pyrazin-8-yl)thiophene-2-carbaldehyde (7).** Under an argon atmosphere, a mixture of **6** (388 mg, 0.61 mmol), KI (607 mg, 3.66 mmol), acetic acid (30 mL), and H<sub>2</sub>O (3 mL) was heated to 80 °C. Then KIO<sub>3</sub> (522 mg, 2.44 mmol) was added, and the mixture was stirred for 8 h. After it was cooled, the mixture was poured into 500 mL saturated NaCl aqueous solution and stirred, followed by extraction with CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> and water. After removal of the solvent under reduced pressure, the residue was purified by chromatography on a silica gel column with CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>/PE (3:1 by volume) to give **7** as dark red solid (236 mg, 44% yield). <sup>1</sup>H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl<sub>3</sub>) δ, ppm: 10.01 (s, 1H), 9.30 (s, 1H), 8.36 (d, J = 8.8 Hz, 2H), 7.99 (d, J = 4.0 Hz, 1H), 7.87 (d, J = 4.0 Hz, 1H), 7.76–7.74 (m, 2H), 7.62–7.58 (m, 6H), 7.44–7.42 (m, 4H), 7.38–7.36 (m, 2H), 7.22–7.20 (m, 2H), 6.96–6.94 (m, 4H).

**5-(5-(4-(Bis(2',4'-bis(octyloxy)-[1,1'-biphenyl]-4-yl)amino)phenyl)-2,3-diphenylpyrido[3,4-b]pyrazin-8-yl)thiophene-2-carbaldehyde (8).** Under an argon atmosphere, a mixture of **7** (311 mg, 0.35 mmol) and Pd(PPh<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub> (25 mg) in THF (14 mL) was heated to 50 °C, then 5 mL 2 M K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> aqueous solution was added, followed by injecting a solution of (2,4-bis(octyloxy)phenyl)-boronic acid (3 mL, 1.5 mmol) in THF was added. Then the mixture was heated to 80 °C and refluxed for 18 h. After it was cooled, the raw product was extracted using CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> and water. The organic layers were combined and dried by anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. After filtration, the solvent was removed under reduced pressure, and the residue was purified by chromatography on a silica gel column with CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>/PE (3:1 by volume) to give **8** as purplish red solid (325 mg, 71% yield). <sup>1</sup>H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl<sub>3</sub>) δ, ppm: 10.03 (s, 1H), 9.32 (s, 1H), 8.41 (d, J = 8.8 Hz, 2H), 8.01 (d, J = 4.0 Hz, 1H), 7.88 (d, J = 4.0 Hz, 1H), 7.79 (d, J = 6.4 Hz, 2H), 7.67 (d, J = 6.8 Hz, 2H), 7.52–7.42 (m, 8H), 7.41–7.36 (m, 4H), 7.34–7.31 (m, 3H), 7.28 (m, 3H), 6.61–6.59 (m, 4H), 3.93–3.90 (m, 8H), 1.80–1.73 (m, 4H), 1.45–1.30 (m, 32H), 0.99–0.89 (m, 24H).

**(E)-3-(5-(5-(4-(Bis(2',4'-bis(octyloxy)-[1,1'-biphenyl]-4-yl)amino)phenyl)-2,3-diphenylpyrido[3,4-b]pyrazin-8-yl)thiophen-2-yl)-2-cyanoacrylic acid (DT-2).** DT-2 was synthesized in a similar way to DT-1 by compound **4** with compound **8**. The residue was purified by chromatography on a silica gel column with CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>/methanol (20:1 by volume) to give DT-2 as black solid (130 mg, 77% yield). <sup>1</sup>H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl<sub>3</sub>) δ, ppm: 10.77 (s, 1H), 8.28 (m, 3H), 7.92 (m, 2H), 7.48 (m, 2H), 7.36–7.33 (m, 6H), 7.18–7.13 (m, 4H), 7.09–7.05 (m, 10H), 6.48 (m, 2H), 6.37–6.36 (m, 2H), 3.75 (m, 8H), 1.59–1.52 (m, 4H), 1.29–1.18 (m, 32H), 0.86–0.74 (m, 24H). <sup>13</sup>C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl<sub>3</sub>) δ, ppm: 159.91, 157.19, 145.38, 130.59, 130.34, 124.13, 122.98, 105.09, 100.10, 70.38, 69.84, 53.93, 39.66, 39.49, 29.68, 28.94, 23.80, 22.97, 13.55, 13.53, 10.58. HRMS (ESI) *m/z*: [M + H]<sup>+</sup> calcd for C<sub>89</sub>H<sub>102</sub>N<sub>5</sub>O<sub>6</sub>S, 1368.7551; found, 1368.7544

**Fabrication of DSSCs.** A compact TiO<sub>2</sub> layer was first deposited on the FTO glass by immersing into 40 mM TiCl<sub>4</sub> aqueous solution at 70 °C for 30 min three times and sintered at 450 °C for 30 min. Then



Scheme 2. Synthetic routes of Dyes DT-1 and DT-2<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>(i) Pd(PPh<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub>, K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>, THF/H<sub>2</sub>O. (ii) Cyanoacetic acid, NH<sub>4</sub>OAc, AcOH. (iii) KI, KIO<sub>3</sub>, AcOH, H<sub>2</sub>O.

one layer of Dyesol 90-T TiO<sub>2</sub> paste and a scattering layer were screen-printed onto and sintered gradually up to 500 °C and kept at this temperature before cooling. The photoanodes were immersed into 40 mM TiCl<sub>4</sub> aqueous solution at 70 °C for 30 min and sintered at 450 °C for 30 min again. Then the photoanodes were placed into 3 × 10<sup>-4</sup> M dye bath in CH<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>OH/CHCl<sub>3</sub> = 1:1 (v/v) solution for 6 h. The dye-sensitized photoanodes were sealed with platinumized counter electrodes by a hot-melt film (25-μm-thick Surlyn, Dupont). The electrolytes were introduced to the cells via two predrilled holes in the counter electrodes. The cobalt electrolyte consists of 0.22 M [Co(II)(bpy)<sub>3</sub>]TFSI<sub>2</sub>, 0.06 M [Co(III)(bpy)<sub>3</sub>]TFSI<sub>3</sub>, 0.1 M LiTFSI, and 0.5 M *tert*-butylpyridine in acetonitrile. The active area of all DSSCs is 0.25 cm<sup>2</sup>.

**Photovoltaic Property Measurements.** The current–voltage photovoltaic characterization was performed using the setup consisting of a 450 W xenon lamp (Oriel), a Schott K113 Tempax sunlight filter (PräzisionsGlas & Optik GmbH), and a Keithley 2400 source meter which applies potential bias and measures the photogenerated current. A set of circular variable neutral density filters used to adjust the light intensity was brought from Unice E-O Services Inc. in Taiwan. Monochromatic incident photon-to-current conversion efficiency

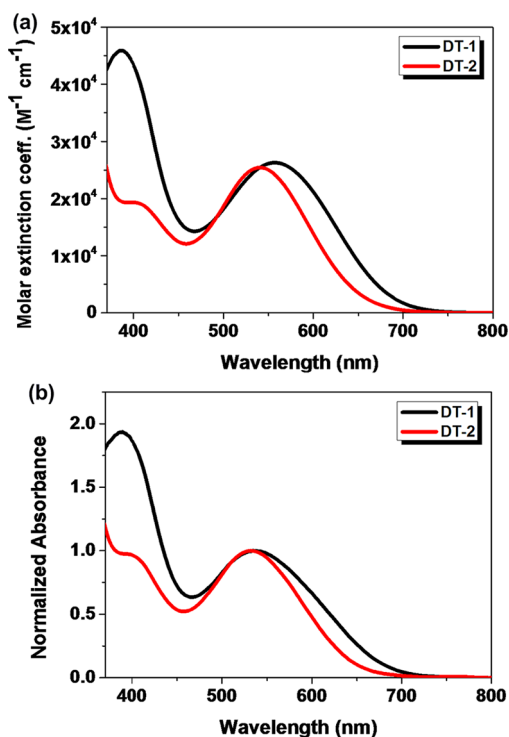
(IPCE) was obtained via the setup using a SR830 lock-in amplifier, a 300 W xenon lamp (ILC Technology) and a Gemini-180 double monochromator (Jobin-Yvon Ltd.). A Zahner IM6e Impedance Analyzer (ZAHNER-Elektrik GmbH & CoKG, Kronach, Germany) was employed to carry out the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy. The frequency range was 0.1 Hz–100 kHz and the applied bias was from –0.05 to –0.95 V. The magnitude of the alternating signal was 5 mV. Intensity-modulated photovoltage spectroscopy was performed on the Zahner IM6e Impedance Analyzer (ZAHNER-Elektrik GmbH & CoKG, Kronach, Germany) with a light-emitting display array (λ = 457 nm, blue light). The frequency range was also 0.1 Hz–100 kHz.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**Synthesis.** The synthetic routes of DT-1 and DT-2 are depicted in Scheme 2. We can see that the synthesis of DT-1 and DT-2 started from two Suzuki coupling reactions with 5, 8-dibromo-2,3-diphenylpyrido[3,4-*b*]pyrazine (2) and resulted in the corresponding aldehyde precursors (4 and 6). The indoline-based bulky donor part was synthesized according to

other literatures.<sup>43</sup> The triphenylamine-based bulky donor unit was synthesized in two steps. It started from the aldehyde precursor 7, as shown in Scheme 2, followed with the Suzuki reaction to couple with the 2,4-bis((2-ethylhexyl)oxy)benzene group and resulted in the aldehyde 8. The final reaction was condensation of the aldehyde (4 or 8) with cyanoacetic acid by the Knoevenagel reaction to produce DT-1 and DT-2. All key intermediates were characterized with <sup>1</sup>H NMR and organic pyrido[3,4-*b*]pyrazine-based sensitizers were fully characterized with <sup>1</sup>H NMR, <sup>13</sup>C NMR, and HRMS in the Experimental Section.

**Photophysical Properties.** The absorption spectra of DT-1 and DT-2 in CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> solution and on TiO<sub>2</sub> films are shown in Figure 1 and the related data can be found in Table 1.



**Figure 1.** Absorption spectra of DT-1 and DT-2 in CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> solution (a) and adsorbed on TiO<sub>2</sub> transparent films (b).

**Table 1. Optical and Electrochemical Properties of the Dyes DT-1 and DT-2**

dye	$\lambda_{\max}^a$ (nm) ( $\epsilon \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ )	$\lambda_{\max}^b$ (nm)	HOMO <sup>c</sup> (V vs NHE)	$E_{0-0}^d$ (eV)	LUMO <sup>e</sup> (V vs NHE)
DT-1	557 (2.63)	540	0.90	1.84	-0.94
DT-2	541 (2.55)	532	0.92	1.89	-0.97

<sup>a</sup>Absorption maximum in CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> solution ( $1.5 \times 10^{-5}$  M).

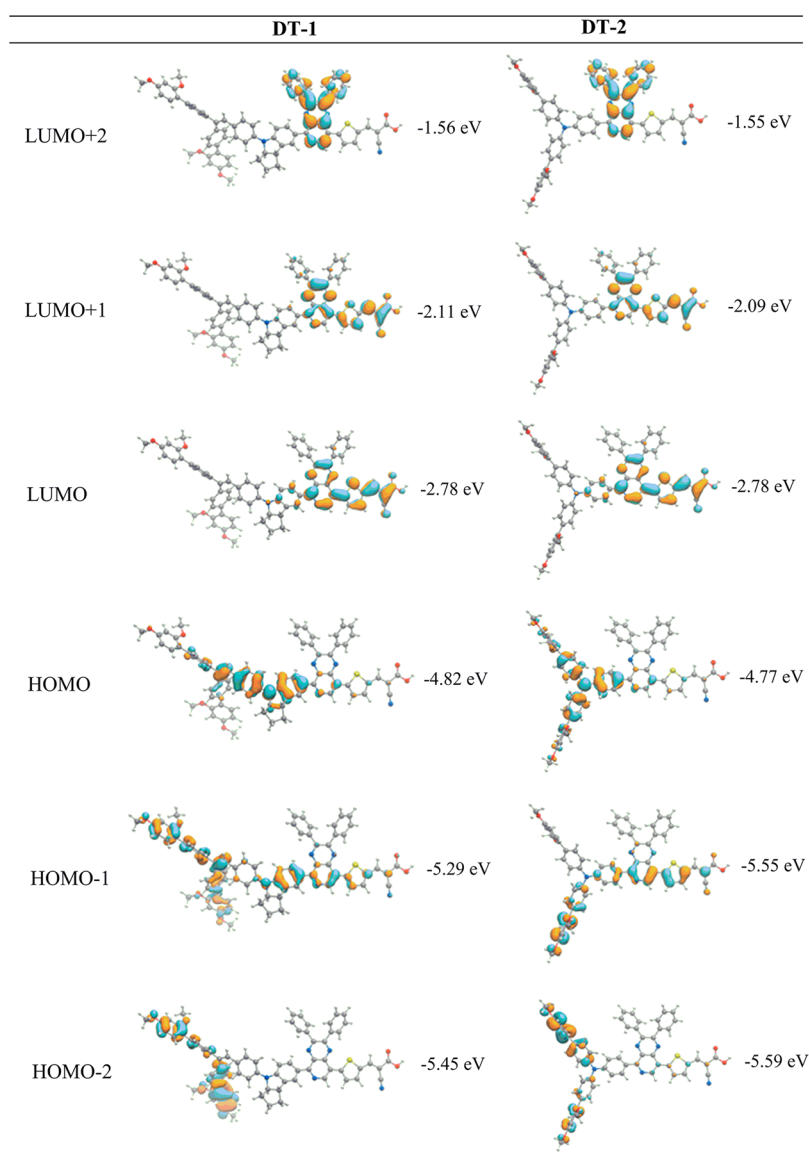
<sup>b</sup>Absorption maximum on 4  $\mu\text{m}$  TiO<sub>2</sub> transparent films. <sup>c</sup>HOMOs were measured in CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> with 0.1 M tetra-*n*-butylammonium hexafluorophosphate (TBAPF<sub>6</sub>) as electrolyte (working electrode, Pt; reference electrode, SCE; counter electrode, Pt wire; calibrated with ferrocene/ferrocenium (Fc/Fc<sup>+</sup>) as an external reference (0.69 V vs NHE)). <sup>d</sup> $E_{0-0}$  was estimated from the absorption thresholds from UV-vis absorption spectra of the dyes. <sup>e</sup>LUMO was estimated by subtracting  $E_{0-0}$  from  $E_{\text{HOMO}}$ .

According to Figure 1a, both DT-1 and DT-2 in CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> exhibit two major absorption bands, appearing at 370–470 and 470–700 nm. Compared to the absorption onset of YA422

( $\sim 630$  nm),<sup>43</sup> the absorption onsets of DT-1 and DT-2 red-shifted significantly to  $\sim 700$  nm, which indicates that the auxiliary acceptor with strong electron-withdrawing capability can effectively broaden the spectral response range. The absorption band at shorter wavelength can be ascribed to the localized aromatic  $\pi$ - $\pi^*$  transition from the donor group to the PP moiety. Meanwhile, the absorption band at longer wavelength can be attributed to the intramolecular charge transfer (ICT) transition from the donor group to the cyanoacetic acceptor unit. The absorption spectra of the two dyes exhibit absorption maxima at 557 (DT-1) ( $\epsilon = 2.63 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) and 541 nm (DT-2) ( $\epsilon = 2.55 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), respectively. Apparently, the observed bathochromic shift of 16 nm by DT-1 can be attributed to the stronger electron-donating capability of the indoline unit than that of triphenylamine, which is consistent with our previous work.<sup>49</sup> Simultaneously, the absorption range is also extended a bit by the indoline donor, suggesting that the indoline unit can narrow the bandgap and optimize the energy levels more efficiently than the triphenylamine unit, which is beneficial to light-harvesting and the whole photoelectric conversion efficiency. Compared to the absorption spectra in the solution, the maximum absorption peaks for DT-1 and DT-2 on 4  $\mu\text{m}$  TiO<sub>2</sub> transparent films (see Figure 1b) are slightly blue-shifted to 540 and 532 nm, respectively, which may be ascribed to the deprotonation of the carboxylic acid.<sup>50</sup>

**Electrochemical Properties.** To investigate the feasibility of electron injection from excited dyes into the conduction band of TiO<sub>2</sub> and dye regeneration by redox electrolyte of DT-1 and DT-2, cyclic voltammetry (CV) was carried out with a three-electrode system in which a glassy carbon electrode was used as working electrode, platinum wire as counter electrode and saturated calomel electrode (SCE) as reference electrode. Ferrocene/ferrocenium (Fc/Fc<sup>+</sup>) was employed as an external reference and tetra-*n*-butylammonium hexafluorophosphate in CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> (0.1 M) as supporting electrolyte. The CV plots of DT-1 and DT-2 are given in Supporting Information Figure S1. All the parameters of electrochemical properties are collected in Table 1. The redox potentials in the CV plots correspond to the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) energy levels of DT-1 and DT-2, presenting as 0.90 and 0.92 V vs NHE, respectively, which are more positive than the redox potentials of I<sup>-</sup>/I<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ( $\sim 0.4$  V vs NHE) and [Co(bpy)<sub>3</sub>]<sup>2+</sup>/[Co(bpy)<sub>3</sub>]<sup>3+</sup> (0.56 V vs NHE), suggesting sufficient driving forces for dye regeneration. Furthermore, the small upward shift of HOMO level of DT-2 indicates that the indoline-based unit has stronger electron-donating capability than that of the triphenylamine-based analogue. Estimated from the absorption thresholds of the dyes, the band gap energies ( $E_{0-0}$ ) of DT-1 and DT-2 are 1.84 and 1.89 eV, respectively. Calculated by subtracting  $E_{0-0}$  from  $E_{\text{HOMO}}$ , the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) energy levels DT-1 and DT-2 are -0.94 and -0.97 V, respectively. The LUMO levels of these dyes are considerably more negative than the conduction band edge energy level ( $E_{\text{CB}}$ ) of the TiO<sub>2</sub> semiconductor (-0.5 V vs. NHE), indicating sufficient driving forces for electron injection from the excited dye molecules to the TiO<sub>2</sub> conduction band. Therefore, these two sensitizers are qualified to be used in DSSCs in theory.

**DFT Calculations.** To gain insight into the molecular structure and electron distribution of the sensitizer dyes, DT-1 and DT-2, the ground state geometries were optimized by density functional theory (DFT) calculations employing the hybrid B3LYP functional and the 6-31G(d) basis set.<sup>51–53</sup>

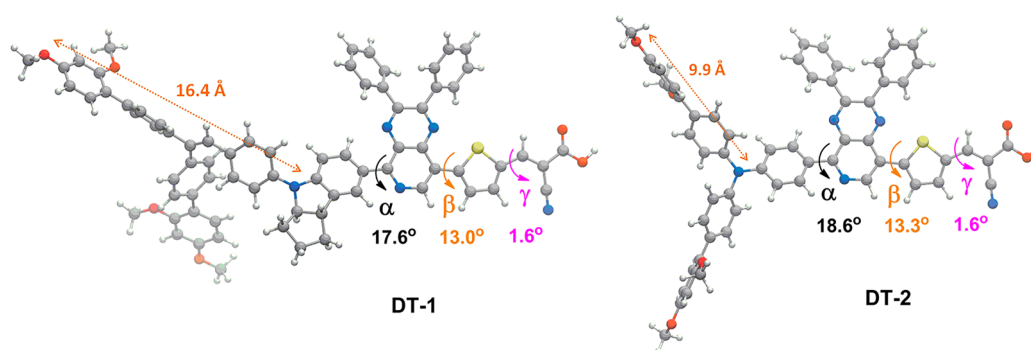


**Figure 2.** Computed energy levels and the spatial distribution of the frontier molecular orbitals of DT-1 and DT-2.

In the calculations, the long alkoxy chains were replaced by methoxyl groups to reduce computational costs without affecting the nature of frontier molecular orbitals. At the optimized geometries, time-dependent (TD) DFT calculations were carried out to shed light on the low-lying excited states of the sensitizer dyes, using the range-separated CAM-B3LYP functional and the triple- $\zeta$  TZVP basis set.<sup>54,55</sup> All theoretical calculations were carried out using the Gaussian 09 program package.<sup>56</sup>

The computed energy levels and the spatial distribution of the frontier molecular orbitals of DT-1 and DT-2 are shown in Figure 2. We can see that the virtual orbitals (LUMO, LUMO + 1, and LUMO + 2) in these two sensitizer dyes are on almost identical energy levels, since they possess the same acceptor moieties. Differences arise in the occupied orbitals, where the HOMO – 1 and HOMO – 2 of DT-1 reside on closer energy levels to the HOMO, compared to DT-2. As for their spatial distribution, the LUMO and LUMO + 1 are both located on the acceptor groups, while the LUMO + 2 resides on the central electron-deficient unit. The HOMO and HOMO – 2 are located on different parts of the donor moieties, while the

HOMO – 1 is delocalized over the whole molecule. In addition, it was found that the HOMO and HOMO – 1 of DT-1 receive more contributions from one biphenyl branch of large indoline-based donor moiety than the other, which is in the *trans*-position of the *N*-phenylindoline unit. The biphenyl branch in the *cis*-position contributes less to the HOMO and HOMO – 1 of DT-1, which are important orbitals that participate in the absorption of visible light. This can be ascribed to the fact that the *cis*-position is adverse to electron transfer from the biphenyl branch to *N*-phenylindoline. We would also like to emphasize that the HOMO of DT-1 is rather localized on the indoline core and the adjacent ethylene moiety with less contribution from the alkoxyphenyl branches, in contrast to that of DT-2. Similar bad electronic communication between branches and the core of donor moiety was found by Gabriela Marzari et al. when they attached perfluoroalkoxy groups on the donor part of fluorene-bridged sensitizers.<sup>57</sup> They suggested that perfluoroalkoxy groups mainly exhibit the antiaggregation properties, and possibly shield TiO<sub>2</sub> surface to reduce the back electron transfer to the electrolyte, which was evidenced by the corresponding photovoltaic performance of



**Figure 3.** Dihedral angles and the donor sizes of DT-1 and DT-2.

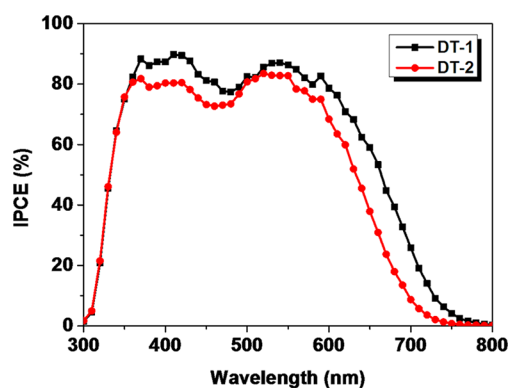
sensitizers.<sup>57</sup> In our case, the biphenyl branch at the *cis*-position of DT-1 could also act like an insulating block unit to inhibit the dye aggregation and charge recombination at the interface of TiO<sub>2</sub>/dye/electrolyte. While for DT-2, its HOMO resides evenly on the two biphenyl branches of the large triphenylamine-based donor segment and is extended to the peripheral alkoxyphenyl moieties, which is expected to be less effective in suppressing charge recombination.

Supporting Information Figure S3 illustrates the theoretical absorption spectra provided by TD-DFT calculations. The simulated absorption spectra show qualitative agreement with experimental results, albeit the excitation energies are overestimated. The main absorption peaks in the visible region arise from the HOMO → LUMO transition which corresponds to charge transfer from the donor to the acceptor moieties (Supporting Information Table S2). The strong absorption bands at shorter wavelengths arise from electronic transitions from HOMO to higher virtual orbitals, for instance LUMO + 3 for DT-1 and LUMO + 4 for DT-2, which correspond to local excitations of the donor units (see Supporting Information Figure S4). Because of its larger  $\pi$ -conjugation, the local excitation energy of the donor of DT-1 is lower than that of DT-2, in agreement with experimental observation.

The dihedral angles between donor moiety to PP group ( $\alpha$ ), between PP group and thiophene unit ( $\beta$ ) and between thiophene unit and 2-cyanopyridine moiety ( $\gamma$ ), as well as the sizes of the donors are illustrated in Figure 3. We can see that DT-1 and DT-2 have similar values in the three dihedral angles, owing to their similarities in molecular structures. Therefore, the replacement of indoline-based donor with triphenylamine donor does not evidently influence the planarity of the whole molecule, which proved that the molecular planarity does not contribute to the bathochromic shift of absorption maxima of DT-1 and DT-2. In addition, the small dihedral angles (less than 20°) not only are beneficial for ICT process but also can increase the likelihood of dye aggregation on the TiO<sub>2</sub> films. The sizes of the donors, which were evaluated by the distance between the methoxyl group and the phenyl nitrogen atom, are 16.4 and 9.9 Å in DT-1 and DT-2, respectively, reflecting the larger donor size of dye DT-1.

**Photovoltaic Performance.** The DSSCs performances of all the dyes were tested under AM 1.5G irradiation (1 sun, 100 mW cm<sup>-2</sup>). Considering that the HOMO levels of DT-1 and DT-2 are 0.88 and 0.90 V vs NHE, respectively, [Co(bpy)<sub>3</sub>]<sup>2+/3+</sup> redox electrolyte was employed in DSSCs based on the dye DT-1 and DT-2 to reduce the loss in potential. The composition of the cobalt electrolyte used in this study is 0.22 M [Co(II)(bpy)<sub>3</sub>]-TFSI<sub>2</sub>, 0.06 M [Co(III)(bpy)<sub>3</sub>]TFSI<sub>3</sub>, 0.1 M LiTFSI, and 0.5 M

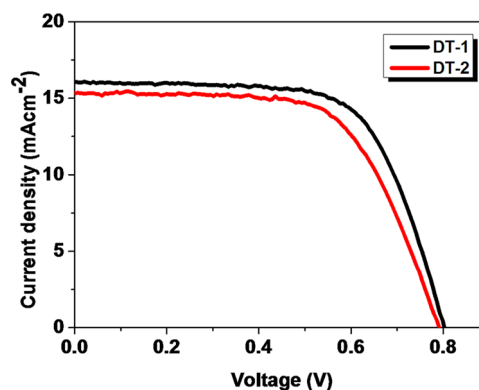
*tert*-butylpyridine (TBP) in acetonitrile (TFSI = bis-(trifluoromethylsulfonyl)imide). IPCE spectra for DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 in cobalt electrolyte are shown in Figure 4. Both dyes exhibit high IPCE values of more than 75%



**Figure 4.** IPCE spectra for DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 with cobalt electrolyte.

in the range of 350–600 nm. The broader wavelength range of IPCE and higher IPCE values suggest that DT-1 should have higher  $J_{sc}$  than that of DT-2.

The  $J$ - $V$  curves of DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 with cobalt redox electrolyte under simulated AM 1.5G irradiation are given in Figure 5. We can see that the DSSC sensitized by



**Figure 5.** Current–voltage characteristics of DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2.

DT-1 clearly outperforms the device based on the DT-2 mostly because of a higher  $J_{sc}$ . All the photoelectric results of  $J$ - $V$  measurement of DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 with cobalt

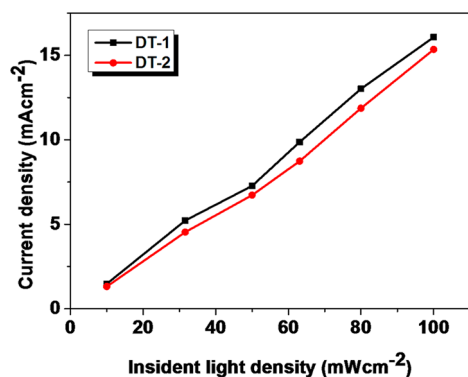


**Table 2. Photovoltaic Performance of the DT-1 and DT-2-Based DSSCs with Cobalt Redox System at Different Incident Light Intensity<sup>a</sup>**

dye	incident light intensity $I_0$ (mW cm <sup>-2</sup> )	$J_{sc}$ (mA cm <sup>-2</sup> )	$V_{oc}$ (mV)	FF	$\eta$ (%)
DT-1	100	16.08	802	0.66	8.57
	80	13.02	784	0.66	8.43
	63.1	9.87	774	0.68	8.22
	50	7.27	760	0.68	7.50
	31.6	5.23	748	0.70	8.59
	10	1.48	693	0.71	7.26
DT-2	100	15.35	790	0.64	7.74
	80	11.87	788	0.68	8.04
	63.1	8.74	778	0.71	7.60
	50	6.73	768	0.72	7.40
	31.6	4.54	752	0.73	7.89
	10	1.31	700	0.74	6.79

<sup>a</sup>Electrolyte: 0.22 M [Co(II)(bpy)<sub>3</sub>]TFSI<sub>2</sub>, 0.06 M [Co(III)(bpy)<sub>3</sub>]-TFSI<sub>3</sub>, 0.1 M LiTFSI, and 0.5 M *tert*-butylpyridine (TBP) in acetonitrile.

redox electrolyte under different incident light intensities are tabulated in Table 2. We further investigate the mass transport of redox species and charge recombination kinetics in DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 via the method of EIS and IMVS. The photocurrent density behaviors of DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 under different incident light intensities are illustrated in Figure 6. We can see that the  $J_{sc}$  values of DSSCs

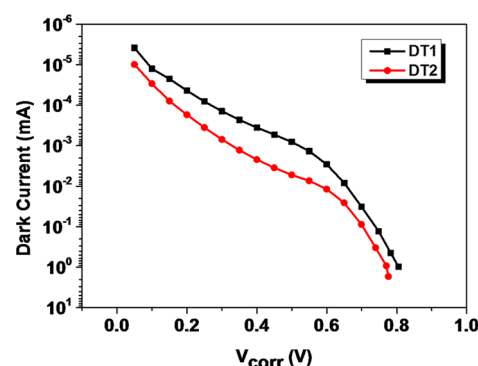
**Figure 6.** Photocurrent density behaviors of DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 under different incident light intensities.

based on DT-1 and DT-2 with cobalt redox electrolyte increased linearly with incident light intensities, suggesting that there are little mass transport problems in the DSSCs devices.<sup>25</sup> In the end, we achieved the highest PCE of 8.57% by DSSCs based on DT-1 at AM 1.5 G simulated sunlight, with  $J_{sc} = 16.08$  mA cm<sup>-2</sup>,  $V_{oc} = 802$  mV, and FF = 0.66. Furthermore, DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 with cobalt redox electrolyte show higher  $J_{sc}$ s than that of YA422 (15.26 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>, platinumized counter electrode),<sup>43</sup> suggesting the benefits of introducing the strongly electron-withdrawing PP unit.

Photovoltaic performance of DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 with iodide electrolyte are provided in the Supporting Information for reference (Figure S2 and Table S1). We can see that the  $V_{oc}$  values of DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 with iodide electrolyte are very low before coadsorbed with CDCA (<650 mV). At the presence of 5 mM CDCA, the  $V_{oc}$  values are enhanced by 40–70 mV, and the  $J_{sc}$  values are improved, particularly for DSSC based on DT-2 (from 8.96 to 14.99 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>),

indicating more serious dye aggregation problems for DT-2 than DT-1. The manifestly different influence caused by the coadsorption of CDCA with DT-2 and DT-1 on the performance of DSSCs is a strong indication that the bulky indoline-based donor group has greater steric hindrance than the triphenylamine moiety, which can prevent dye aggregation more efficiently. Moreover, the IPCE values of DSSCs based on DT-1 are higher than that of their counterparts with DT-2 throughout the whole wavelength range, providing explanation for the higher  $J_{sc}$  and PCE. The PCEs of DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 with iodide electrolyte are not very high, being lower than their counter parts with cobalt electrolyte.

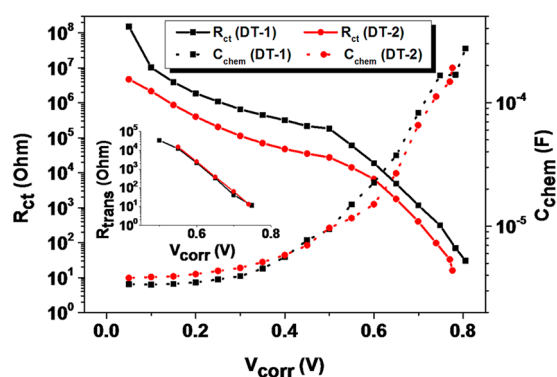
**Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy.** Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was utilized as a common tool to investigate interfacial charge transfer and recombination processes.<sup>58–60</sup> The dark currents in DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 with cobalt electrolyte against the IR drop corrected potential were presented in Figure 7. The EIS

**Figure 7.** Dark currents of DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 with cobalt electrolyte against the IR drop corrected potential.

measurements were performed in the dark and the applied bias voltage was from  $-0.05$  to  $-0.95$  V. Data were fitted using the transmission line model.<sup>61–63</sup> The smaller dark current in DSSC based on DT-1 indicates less charge recombination between TiO<sub>2</sub> surface and electrolyte and less loss of current in device, which can partly explain the higher  $J_{sc}$  and  $V_{oc}$  of DSSC based on DT-1.

Figure 8 depicts the charge transfer resistance ( $R_{ct}$ ) and chemical capacitance ( $C_{chem}$ ) of DT-1 and DT-2 based DSSCs as functions of IR drop corrected potential. Inset shows their charge transport resistance ( $R_{trans}$ ). In the case of DSSCs with cobalt electrolyte, since the mesoporous TiO<sub>2</sub> films are insulating at lower bias voltages, the  $R_{ct}$  represents the charge transfer resistance between the FTO substrate and the electrolyte. As the applied bias increases, the mesoporous TiO<sub>2</sub> films become increasingly conductive. Therefore,  $R_{ct}$  values at intermediate- and higher- biases represent the charge transfer resistance between the mesoporous TiO<sub>2</sub> films and the electrolyte.<sup>64</sup> In Figure 8, we can see clearly that the  $R_{ct}$  values in DSSCs based on DT-1 are 2–3 times larger than those based on DT-2. Such a big difference in the ability of retarding charge recombination arises from the only structural difference in the core of bulky donor between DT-1 and DT-2, demonstrating the great importance of fine molecular design of sensitizers to the device performance of DSSCs. The  $C_{chem}$  can describe the exponential trap distribution below the conduction band edge and has a close relationship with the Fermi level. At the potentials near the  $V_{oc}$  the  $C_{chem}$  values of DSSCs based on

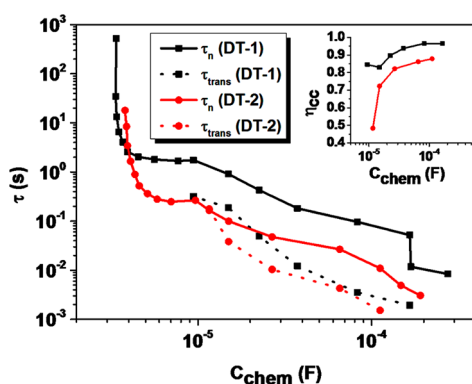




**Figure 8.** Charge transfer resistance ( $R_{ct}$ ) and chemical capacitance ( $C_{chem}$ ) of DT-1 and DT-2 based DSSCs extracted from the EIS measurement. Inset shows their charge transport resistance ( $R_{trans}$ ). The plotted potential is corrected for the IR drop because of the series resistance.

DT-1 and DT-2 are close to each other, indicating a very small difference between the two dyes in the energy levels of  $TiO_2$  conduction band edge ( $E_{cb}$ ).

Calculated by the equations of  $\tau_n = R_{ct} \times C_{chem}$  and  $\tau_{trans} = R_{trans} \times C_{chem}$ ,<sup>60–62</sup> the electron lifetime ( $\tau_n$ ) and electron transport time ( $\tau_{trans}$ ) of DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 as the function of  $C_{chem}$  are exhibited in Figure 9. Inset shows



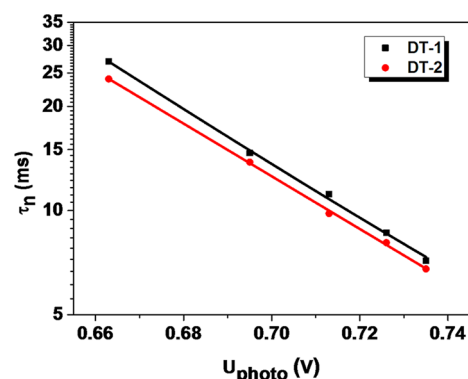
**Figure 9.** Electron lifetime ( $\tau_n$ ) and electron transport time ( $\tau_{trans}$ ) of DSSCs based on DT-1 (black) and DT-2 (red) as the function of chemical capacitance ( $C_{chem}$ ) during the EIS measurement. Inset shows their charge collection efficiency ( $\eta_{cc}$ ).

their charge collection efficiency ( $\eta_{cc}$ ), which was obtained via the formula of  $\eta_{cc} = 1/(1 + \tau_{trans}/\tau_n)$ . Compared to DT-2, DSSC based on DT-1 possesses much longer electron lifetime, which indicates much less charge recombination, leading to higher  $V_{oc}$ . Meanwhile, the higher  $\eta_{cc}$  values of DSSCs based on DT-1 compared to DT-2 are in good agreement with their IPCE spectra and  $J_{sc}$  values.

Above all, the results of EIS measurements show that DSSC based on DT-1 can retard the charge recombination more efficiently than its counterpart of DT-2 and provide some explanations for its higher  $V_{oc}$  and  $J_{sc}$ . The bigger donor size and the insulating blocking branch in the donor of DT-1 can account for the slower charge recombination rate.

**Intensity-Modulated Photovoltage Spectroscopy (IMVS).** Intensity-modulated photovoltage spectroscopy (IMVS) was employed to further study recombination kinetics in DSSCs based DT-1 and DT-2. Unlike EIS in the dark, IMVS was performed under incident light intensity at a certain

wavelength (460 nm in our study) under open circuit conditions, which resembles better the real DSSCs working situation under illumination.<sup>65–68</sup> The Nyquist plots were measured under different incident light intensities. The effective electron lifetimes ( $\tau_n$ ) were calculated by equation of  $\tau_n = 1/(2\pi f)$ , in which  $f$  represents the frequency at the minimum of the semicircle plot. Figure 10 illustrates the relationship



**Figure 10.** Electron lifetime as a function of photogenerated voltage for DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 with cobalt electrolyte obtained by IMVS.

between the electron lifetime and the photogenerated voltage ( $U_{photo}$ ). The electron lifetimes of DSSCs based on DT-1 are slightly longer than their counterparts of DT-2, which further confirm that the charge recombination in DSSCs based on DT-1 is slightly more severe than that of DT-2. The results show a good agreement with those extracted from EIS measurement.

## CONCLUSION

In this work, two new pyrido[3,4-*b*]pyrazine-based sensitizers (DT-1 and DT-2) were designed and synthesized for dye-sensitized solar cells with cobalt electrolytes and studied to understand the structure–property relationship between two different cores of bulky donor parts. The introduction of the strongly electron-withdrawing pyrido[3,4-*b*]pyrazine-based auxiliary acceptor was shown to have an effect of extending the absorption wavelength range and increasing the short-circuit current density of DSSCs compared to dye YA422, whose photovoltaic conversion efficiency in DSSCs has reached 10.65% but the absorption onset was only around 670 nm. An interesting circumstance about DT-1 is that the biphenyl branch at the *cis*-position of the *N*-phenylindoline segment contributes little to the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) of DT-1, and acts like an insulating blocking group according to density function theory calculations. However, the HOMO level of DT-1 is less positive than that of DT-2 due to the stronger electron donating ability of indoline than that of triphenylamine. For the device performance, the higher photoelectric conversion efficiency of 8.57% was obtained by DSSCs based on DT-1 with cobalt redox electrolyte under standard AM 1.5 G simulated sunlight, with  $J_{sc} = 16.08 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$ ,  $V_{oc} = 802 \text{ mV}$ , and  $FF = 0.66$ . Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and intensity-modulated photovoltage spectroscopy (IMVS) suggest that charge recombination in DSSCs based on DT-1 is slower than that in their counterparts of DT-2, owing to the larger donor size and the insulating blocking branch in the donor of DT-1. The longer electron lifetime of DT-1 contributes to its higher  $V_{oc}$ ; meanwhile, the

higher charge collection efficiency also partially enhances its  $J_{sc}$ . The results indicate that indoline-based sensitizers have better performance than their triphenylamine-based analogues in DSSCs with cobalt electrolytes.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### ● Supporting Information

The CV plots of DT-1 and DT-2, the IPCE and  $I-V$  curves of DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 with iodide electrolyte at the presence or absence of CDCA, the photovoltaic parameters of DSSCs based on DT-1 and DT-2 with iodide electrolyte at the presence or absence of CDCA, the simulated absorption spectra of DT-1 and DT-2, the spatial distribution of LUMO + 3 of DT-1 and LUMO + 4 of DT-2, computed excitation energies, oscillator strengths and molecular orbital composition for important low-lying excited states of DT-1 and DT-2. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

## ■ ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the Science Fund for Creative Research Groups (21421004), the National Basic Research 973 Program (2013CB733700), and NSFC/China (21172073, 21372082, 91233207, and 21302055).

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