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He, Bo Yang, Bin Kolaczkowski, Matthew A <u>et al.</u>

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Molecular Engineering for Large Open-Circuit Voltage and Low Energy Loss in Around 10% Non-fullerene Organic Photovoltaics

⁴ Bo He,^{†,‡} Bin Yang,^{*,†,‡,#} Matthew A. Kolaczkowski,[†] Christopher A. Anderson,[†] Liana M. Klivansky,[†] ⁵ Teresa L. Chen,[†] Michael A. Brady,^{†,§} and Yi Liu^{*,†}

6 [†]The Molecular Foundry, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, California 94720, United States

7 [#]College of Materials Science and Engineering, Key Laboratory for Micro-Nano Physics and Technology of Hunan Province, Hunan

8 University, Changsha, Hunan 410082, China

9 [§]Advanced Light Source, Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, California 94720, United States

10 **Supporting Information**

11 ABSTRACT: Recent efforts in organic photovoltaics (OPVs) have been devoted to obtaining low-bandgap non-fullerene acceptors 12 (NFAs) for high photocurrent generation. However, the low-lying 13 lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) level in narrow bandgap 14 NFAs typically results in a small energy difference (ΔE_{DA}) between the 15 LUMO of the acceptor and the highest occupied molecular orbital 16 (HOMO) of the donor, leading to low open-circuit voltage (V_{OC}) . The 17 trade-off between ΔE_{DA} and photocurrent generation significantly 18 limits the simultaneous enhancement of both V_{OC} and short-circuit 19 20 current density (I_{SC}) . Here, we report a new medium-bandgap NFA, IDTT-T, containing a weakly electron-withdrawing N-ethyl thiabarbi-21 turic acid terminal group on each end of the indacenodithienothio-22 phene (IDTT) core. When paired with a benchmark low-bandgap 23 PTB7-th polymer donor, simultaneous enhancement of both ΔE_{DA} and 24 25



absorption spectral coverage was realized. The OPV devices yield a V_{OC} of 1.01 V, corresponding to a low energy loss of 0.57 eV in around 10% efficiency single-junction NFA OPVs. The design demonstrates a working principle to concurrently increase ΔE_{DA} and photocurrent generation for high V_{OC} and PCE in bulk fullerene-free heterojunction OPVs.

ulk heterojunction organic photovoltaics (OPVs) have 28 emerged as a promising class of solar cells that offers a 2.9 potentially low-cost pathway to large-area, lightweight, 30 31 and mechanically flexible solar panels.^{1–3} Steady improvement 32 of device performances has been realized over the past decades, 33 partly owing to the great development of active materials, 34 including both the donor⁴ and acceptor materials.^{3,4} Engineer-35 ing of material properties⁶⁻⁸ is crucial to important device 36 parameters, such as short-circuit current (J_{SC}) , open-circuit $_{37}$ voltage ($V_{\rm OC}$), fill factor (FF), and the overall power conversion 38 efficiency (PCE), which are related to the absorption in the 39 visible-near-infrared (NIR) spectrum,⁹ relative energy lev-40 els,^{10,11} and nanoscale phase morphology¹² of the active 41 materials.^{13–19} The majority of the OPV devices have 42 employed fullerene derivatives as the electron acceptors for 43 their high electron transport property and excellent crystal-44 lization behavior.^{13,20,21} Their absorption properties and 45 electronic structures are however less than ideal, which has a 46 limited window for tuning via chemical modification because of 47 the narrow tunability of the fullerene moiety.^{22,23} Very recently,

an emerging class of non-fullerene acceptors (NFAs) based on 48 low-bandgap fused-ring small molecules has rivaled the 49 dominance of fullerene-based acceptors.²³⁻³¹ Their attractive 50 features, such as greater tunability of molecular structures and 51 optoelectronic properties³²⁻³⁵ and high PCEs that already 52 surpass that of the best fullerene-based single-junction 53 devices,³⁵⁻⁴² have re-established the competitiveness of bulk 54 heterojunction OPVs. Since the seminal work by Zhan et al. 55 that demonstrated the use of 3,9-bis(2-methylene-(3-(1,1-56 dicyanomethylene)-indanone))-5,5,11,11-tetrakis(4-hexylphen-57 yl)-dithieno[2,3-d:2′,3′-d′]-s-lowindaceno[1,2-b:5,6-b′]- ₅₈ dithiophene (ITIC) as a low-bandgap NFA for OPVs,³² great 59 progress has been made in the molecular design of NFAs that 60 enable the fabrication of high-efficiency single-junction devices 61 with PCE over 10%.36,43 62

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Despite progress toward approaching the Shockley-Queisser 63 64 theoretical maximum efficiency, the non-fullerene OPVs still 65 suffer from high energy loss ($\sim 0.7-1.0$ eV),^{11,15,44,45} which is $_{66}$ reflected by the fact that the $V_{\rm OC}$ is generally smaller than half 67 of the optical bandgaps of photoactive molecules in most high-68 efficiency (PCE \geq 10%) devices.^{11,45} The V_{OC} is a key 69 photovoltaic parameter which is essential to drive portable 70 electronics and consumer electronic devices without employing 71 a complicated tandem structure or resorting to electric 72 utilities.^{26,46–52} In principle, the low $V_{\rm OC}$ primarily results 73 from energy level mismatch or internal energy loss during the 74 photoinduced charge-transfer process.⁵³ The $V_{\rm OC}$ is dependent 75 on the difference between the lowest unoccupied molecular 76 orbital (LUMO) level of the electron acceptor and the highest 77 occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) level of the electron 78 donor ($\Delta E_{DA} = E_{Acceptor}^{LUMO} - E_{Donor}^{HOMO}$).¹³ For non-fullerene OPVs, 79 much effort has been devoted to reducing the optical bandgaps 80 of non-fullerene acceptors to extend absorption into the near-81 infrared portion of the solar spectrum for high photocurrent 82 generation.^{33–35,37} This modification generally lowers the ⁸³ LUMO levels, resulting in a decreased ΔE_{DA} and thereby ⁸⁴ V_{OC} lower than 1 V in most non-fullerene OPVs.^{22,33–35,37,38,54} ss Such a trade-off between ΔE_{DA} and photocurrent generation ⁸⁶ limits the simultaneous enhancement of both V_{OC} and J_{SC} for 87 high PCEs in non-fullerene OPVs. The medium-bandgap non-88 fullerene acceptors, although receiving less attention, are a 89 potential remedy to the trade-off: On one hand, their relatively 90 high-lying LUMO levels can increase ΔE_{DA} for high V_{OC} . On ⁹¹ the other hand, high J_{SC} may be realized when combined with a 92 variety of known low-bandgap donors, such as the model polymer PTB7-th, to enhance the absorption spectral coverage. 93 94 However, to the best of our knowledge, such a design principle 95 has been rarely demonstrated.⁵

⁹⁶ In this Letter, we demonstrate a proof-of-concept of ⁹⁷ combining a medium-bandgap non-fullerene acceptor with ⁹⁸ the low-bandgap donor PTB7-th for high-efficiency OPVs with ⁹⁹ a high $V_{\rm OC}$. By adopting an acceptor-donor-acceptor ¹⁰⁰ geometry with a weakly electron withdrawing end group, the ¹⁰¹ LUMO energy is increased significantly. This strategy gives rise ¹⁰² to an optical bandgap of 2.0 eV that is complementary to ¹⁰³ electronic energy levels of PTB7-th. The resulting OPVs display ¹⁰⁴ a $V_{\rm OC}$ of 1.01 V, which is among the highest in around 10% ¹⁰⁵ efficiency single-junction NFA OPVs.

In the design of a medium-gap acceptor IDTT-T, the 106 107 indacenodithienothiophene (IDTT) core of ITIC was retained 108 on account of its proven ability to facilitate phase separation 109 and crystallization while the strongly electron-withdrawing end 110 groups cyano indone of ITIC were replaced with the weakly 111 electron-accepting N,N'-diethyl thiobarbituric acid (TBA) (Scheme 1). Molecular modeling based on density function 112 113 theory (DFT) calculations estimate that this end group 114 substitution would result in a 0.23 eV increase of the optical bandgap and a 0.26 eV increase of the LUMO energy level 115 (Figure 1a). The synthesis of IDTT-T was furnished in 78% 116 yield by refluxing the CHO-terminated IDTT derivative 1 with 117 118 thiobarbituric acid derivative 2 in the presence of pyridine in 119 CHCl₃ (Scheme 1). The detailed synthesis protocal of IDTT-T 120 acceptor is included in the Supporting Information, and the ¹H 121 NMR and ¹³C NMR spectra of IDTT-T are shown in Figures 122 S1 and S2, respectively.

f1

To understand how the end group and backbone structure affects the orbital energy levels, cyclic voltammetry (CV) was carried out for ITIC and IDTT-T solutions in CHCl₃ using a Scheme 1. (a) Structural Formulas of Low-Bandgap NFA ITIC and the New Medium-Bandgap NFA IDTT-T, (b) Molecular Structure of the Low-Bandgap Donor Polymer PTB7-th, and (c) Synthetic Scheme of IDTT-T



Figure 1. (a) Energy diagram of NFAs and their relative alignment to the energy levels of PTB7-th. The numbers in parentheses are from molecular modeling. (b) CVs of IDTT-T and ITIC (referenced to Fc/Fc+ redox couple. Scan rate: 100 mV/s).

three-electrode setup and ferrocene as the internal standard. 126 The ionization potentials and electron affinities, which are also 127 widely termed HOMO and LUMO energy levels, were 128 estimated to be -5.47 and -3.76 eV for ITIC and -5.51 eV 129 and -3.51 eV for IDTT-T, respectively, based on the 130 corresponding onset potential of the first oxidative and 131 reductive wave (Figures 1b and S3 and Table S1). While the 132 variation of HOMO levels was negligible between the two 133 NFAs, the 0.25 eV higher LUMO energy level of IDTT-T 134 compared to ITIC reflected the significantly weaker electron- 135 withdrawing ability of TBA end group than the cyano indone 136 group and is consistent with the modeling results. When 137 combined with the PTB7-th polymer donor, ⁵⁵ the $\Delta E_{\rm DA}$ shows 138 a significant increase from 1.26 eV for the low-bandgap ITIC 139 acceptor to 1.51 eV for the medium-gap IDTT-T, which alludes 140 to a higher V_{OC} in OPV devices. 141

The end group modulation on energy levels correlates well 142 with the absorption properties. As shown in Figure 2a, the 143 f2 absorption edge of IDTT-T shows a significant blue shift of 86 144 nm compared to that of ITIC, in accordance with an optical 145 bandgap increase from 1.71 eV for ITIC to 2.00 eV for IDTT- 146 T. The absorption spectrum of ITIC has a large overlap with 147



Figure 2. Absorption and photoluminescence spectra of PTB7-th and NFA films: (a) absorption spectra of pristine PTB7-th, ITIC, IDTT-T, and PTB7-th:IDTT-T blend film with a composition ratio of 1:2; (b) photoluminescence spectra of pristine PTB7-th, IDTT-T, PTB7-th:ITIC, and PTB7-th:IDTT-T blend films with a composition ratio of 1:2.

148 that of the donor PTB7-th, leading to incomplete spectral 149 coverage below 635 nm. In contrast, the IDTT-T absorption 150 shows great complementarity to that of PTB7-th and better 151 coverage between 450 and 650 nm, which is advantageous for 152 photocurrent generation. As illustrated in Figure S4, IDTT-T 153 also has a higher extinction coefficient than PTB7-th. It is 154 noteworthy that the LUMO energy level of the TBA-155 terminated IDTT-T is among the highest for large bandgap 156 NFA featuring similar A–D–A or A– π –D– π –A struc-157 tures.^{5,47,56–58}

Steady-state photoluminescence (PL) spectra of both pristine 158 159 and PTB7-th:NFA blend films were obtained to examine the 160 PL quenching efficiency, which is related to the exciton 161 dissociation and photoinduced charge-transfer properties of the 162 donor-acceptor pairs. The pristine PTB7-th film exhibited a 163 PL peak at ~758 nm (Figure 2b). When blended with IDTT-T 164 in a donor: acceptor ratio of 1:2, the photoluminescence was 165 quenched by ~94%. Comparable PL quenching efficiency was 166 observed for the ITIC:PTB7-th blend, indicating similar exciton 167 dissociation in PTB7-th:NFAs.⁵⁹ In other words, despite the reduction of the LUMO offset between the donor and acceptor, 168 169 lifting LUMO energy levels of non-fullerene acceptors to 170 increase ΔE_{DA} has a negligible impact on the charge-transfer 171 efficiency and photocurrent generation. The PTB7-th:IDTT-T 172 film displays an additional PL peak at ~675 nm, which should 173 be ascribed to the residual emission of IDTT-T (Figure 2b).

Photovoltaic devices based on the inverted structure (ITO/ 175 ZnO/PTB7-th:NFA (1:2)/MoO₃/Ag) were fabricated to verify 176 the variation of V_{OC} for different NFAs. As shown in Figure 3a, 177 the prototype PTB7-th:ITIC device displayed a V_{OC} of 0.828 V, 178 a J_{SC} of 14.4 mA/cm², a fill factor (FF) of 67%, and a PCE of 179 8.0%, which are comparable to those of conventional PTB7-180 th:fullerene-based OPVs.⁶⁰ For the IDTT-T based devices, the



Figure 3. Photovoltaic performance for two different NFAs (PTB7-th:ITIC and PTB7-th:IDTT-T) based devices: (a) J-V curves under illumination of 100 mW/cm², AM 1.5G; (b) EQE curves.

 $V_{\rm OC}$ was increased to 1.015 V, together with a FF of 57% and a 181 significantly enhanced $J_{\rm SC}$ of 15.7 mA/cm², leading to a high 182 PCE of 9.0%. Table 1 displays average device parameters for 183 ti

Table 1. Average Device Parameters for Two Different NFAs (PTB7-th:ITIC and PTB7-th:IDTT-T) Based Devices

D:A	V _{OC} (V)	$J_{\rm SC}$ (mA/cm ²)	FF (%)	PCE (%)	$\stackrel{R_{\mathrm{se}}^{a}}{(\Omega)}$	$R_{\rm sh}^{b}$ (Ω)
PTB7-th:ITIC	0.825	14.4	66	7.8	2.3	15.6
PTB7- th:IDTT-T	1.01	15.7	57	9.1	4.9	12.5
^a Sorios resistan	ce ^b Shu	nt resistance				

two different NFAs (PTB7-th:ITIC and PTB7-th:IDTT-T) 184 based devices and shows that the average PCE was around 7.8% 185 and 9.1%, respectively. The devices based on PTB7-th:IDTT-T 186 films exhibited a larger series resistance, which was consistent 187 with the lower FF. The larger series resistance is attributable to 188 a rougher surface [shown later by atomic force microscopy 189 (AFM) characterization] or the presence of more voids for 190 more shorting channels (current-leaking), which is further 191 indicated by the smaller shunt resistance. Further optimization 192 of the film morphology should reduce series resistance and 193 increase shunt resistance for higher FF and better device 194 performance. The high $V_{\rm OC}$ corresponds to a very low energy 195 loss, E_{loss} , of 0.57 eV, which was calculated using the equation 196 $E_{\text{loss}} = E_{\text{g}} - eV_{\text{OC}}^{61,62}$ where E_{g} is the optical bandgap of PTB7- 197 th, the active material with the smallest bandgap. Figure 3b 198 displays external quantum efficiency (EQE) spectra that were 199 acquired from different NFA-based devices. The variation of 200 the calculated I_{SC} by the integration of the EQE spectra with 201 solar spectrum AM 1.5G (100 mW/cm²) is consistent with the 202 variation of the measured J_{SC} . The shift of cutoff edge of EQE 203 curves (Figure 3b) agrees well with the blue shift of the 204 absorption edge of NFA materials (Figure 2a). Significant 205 enhancement between ~450 and 650 nm for the PTB7- 206 th:IDTT-T device should be attributed to the characteristic 207 absorption feature from the medium-bandgap IDTT-T, serving 208 as a complementary absorber to that of the low-bandgap PTB7- 209 th polymer donor. 210

Motivated by the superior photovoltaic performance of 211 IDTT-T over ITIC when paired with PTB7-th, further 212 optimization of the PTB7-th:IDTT-T device performance was 213 carried out under various conditions. It was found that thermal 214 annealing treatment of the active layer films resulted in 215 negligible improvement in device performance (Figure S5); 216 therefore, no thermal treatment was exerted in further 217 optimization. A thickness-dependent study of photovoltaic 218 performance in both standard structure (ITO/PEDOT:PSS/ 219 PTB7-th:IDTT-T/Ca/Al) and inverted structure (ITO/ZnO/ 220 PTB7-th:IDTT-T/MoO₃/Ag) devices (Figure 4a,b) indicated 221 f4 that the inverted devices exhibited photovoltaic performance 222 superior to that of the conventional counterparts, consistent 223 with previous reports.^{63,64} For the 57 nm thick PTB7-th:IDTT- 224 T device, the inverted device showed a PCE of 9.1%, whereas 225 the conventional counterpart exhibited only 6.1%. Additionally, 226 the $V_{\rm OC}$ of 1.01 V in the inverted device was higher than the 227 $V_{\rm OC}$ of 0.888 V in the conventional counterpart. However, the 228 thicker active layer (e.g., 78 and 110 nm) led to decrease in 229 photovoltaic performance in both conventional and inverted 230 devices. With the optimal thickness of 57 nm, we subsequently 231 carried out the study of photovoltaic performance as a function 232



Figure 4. Optimization of photovoltaic performances: J-V curves acquired from devices based on the PTB7-th:IDTT-T active layer in (a) conventional structure (ITO/PEDOT:PSS/PTB7-th:IDTT-T/Ca/Al) and (b) inverted structure (ITO/ZnO/PTB7-th:IDTT-T/MoOx/Ag) device; variation in PCE as a function of (c) composition ratio between IDTT-T and PTB7-th; and (d) percentage of solvent additives [blue triangles, chloronaphthalene (CN); red squares, 1,8-diiodooctane (DIO)]; (e) J-V curves of the highest-performance cells with different device areas under illumination of 100 mW/cm²; (f) corresponding EQE curves for devices in panel e.

233 of IDTT-T:PTB7-th composition ratio in the active layer. It 234 was found that the devices with a donor:acceptor ratio of 1:2 235 showed the highest PCE of 10.3% (Figure 4c). The solvent 236 additives, such as chloronaphthalene (CN) and 1,8-diiodooctane (DIO), played a negative effect to give decreased PCE 237 (Figure 4d), which is different from previously reported results.^{14,65-67} Considering the above optimal fabrication 238 239 conditions, we fabricated both large-area (0.16 cm^2) and 240 small-area (0.03 cm²) devices, which yielded the highest PCEs 241 of 9.2% and 11.8% with V_{OCs} of 1.01 V, respectively (Figure 242 4e). A histogram of the device efficiencies is plotted in Figure 243 S6. The variation in J_{SC} values for different device areas is 244 consistent with the variation in the calculated $J_{\rm SC}$ based on the 245 246 EQE curves (Figure 4f). The high V_{OC} of over 1 V in our devices is among the highest for high-efficiency (over 10%) 247 NFA OPVs.^{68,6} 248

The AFM phase and amplitude images were obtained to examine nanoscale phase morphology in the blend films of PTB7-th:ITIC (Figure 5a,c) and PTB7-th:IDTT-T (Figure 525 5b,d). The amplitude images show similar surface roughness of 253 0.230 and 0.300 nm for PTB7-th:ITIC (Figure 5c) and PTB7-254 th:IDTT-T (Figure 5d), respectively. The phase contrast 255 between PTB7-th and ITIC domains is invisible for the 256 PTB7-th:ITIC blend film (Figure 5a), most likely because of 257 the similar elastic properties of PTB7-th and ITIC materials, 258 leading to the similar phase angle change with respect to the



Figure 5. Atomic force microscopic (AFM) phase (a and b) and amplitude (c and d) images of PTB7-th:ITIC (a and c) and PTB7-th:IDTT-T (b and d) blend films with a composition ratio of 1:2.

AFM cantilever.¹¹ For the PTB7-th:IDTT-T (Figure 5b) film, 259 the obviously improved phase contrast of the donor and 260 acceptor domains indicates the enhanced phase separation that 261 is beneficial for improved exciton dissociation and photo- 262 induced charge transfer. 263

Grazing incident wide-angle X-ray scattering (GIWAXS) 264 studies were conducted to further reveal the molecular packing 265 behavior in the thin films of individual components and the 266 blends. The ITIC (Figure 6a) and IDTT-T (Figure 6b) films 267 f6 displayed varying degrees of crystallinity in the horizontal (100) 268 plane, with the former showing a more discernible (010) out- 269 of-plane diffraction peak that suggests "face-on" oriented 270 crystallites. The GIWAXS pattern of PTB7-th (Figure 6c) 271 signified that the PTB7-th polymers form crystallites with a 272 preferred face-on orientation. In the two blended polymer:NFA 273 films (Figure 6d,e), the preferential "face-on" orientations of 274 the PTB7-th polymer donor was maintained, meanwhile both 275 the in-plane peaks and the out-of-plane peaks of the NFAs 276 disappeared, as can be seen from the vertical and horizontal 277 linecuts (Figure 6g,h). The decreased crystallinity was in 278 accordance with good blending between the polymer and the 279 NFA small molecules, a prerequisite for the formation of 280 favorable phase separation at the nanoscale for efficient charge 281 separation.⁷⁰ The very similar patterns for the ITIC and IDTT- 282 T blend films also suggested that the end groups in NFAs have 283 little impact on molecular orientation and packing behavior, 284 thus implying that the thin film morphology does not account 285 for the simultaneous enhancement of both $V_{\rm OC}$ and $J_{\rm SC}$. In 286 addition, thermal annealing of the PTB7-th:IDTT-T film 287 induced no notable changes of the GIWAXS pattern (Figure 288 6f), which suggests that the nanoscale morphology was 289 thermally stable under such conditions. This thermal behavior 290 agrees well with the observation of very similar device 291 performances before and after thermal treatment, which also 292 indicates good device stability. 2.93

In order to understand how the end groups in NFAs impact 294 charge transport properties, the space charge limited current 295 (SCLC) method was applied to estimate electron and hole 296 mobilities in the PTB7-th:ITIC and PTB7-th:IDTT-T blend 297 films. The J-V curves (measured in the dark) of both electron- 298 only and hole-only devices are shown in Figure S7. By fitting 299



Figure 6. 2D GIWAXS patterns of pristine films (a) ITIC, (b) IDTT-T, and (c) PTB7-th and blend films (d) PTB7-th:ITIC, (e) PTB7-th:IDTT-T, and (f) PTB7-th:IDTT-T (thermally annealed at 100 °C for 10 min). (g) Vertical and (h) horizontal linecuts of the pure NFA films and their blends with PTB7-th.

³⁰⁰ the *J*-*V* curves with the SCLC model,^{71,72} we found that the ³⁰¹ electron and hole mobilities of the PTB7-th:ITIC blend film ³⁰² were 2.43 × 10⁻⁴ and 2.07 × 10⁻² cm²/(V s) (Table 2),

Table 2. Electron and Hole Mobilities in PTB7-th:ITIC and PTB7-th:IDTT-T Blend Films Estimated by the Space Charge Limited Current (SCLC) Method

material	$\mu_{\rm e}~({\rm cm}^2/({\rm Vs}))$	$\mu_{\rm h}~({\rm cm^2/(Vs)})$
PTB7-th:ITIC	2.43×10^{-4}	2.07×10^{-2}
PTB7-th:IDTT-T	3.98×10^{-3}	5.19×10^{-3}

³⁰³ respectively. When using end-group-modified IDTT-T to ³⁰⁴ replace ITIC in the blend films, the electron and hole ³⁰⁵ mobilities of the blend film were determined to be $3.98 \times$ ³⁰⁶ 10^{-3} and 5.19×10^{-3} cm²/(V s), respectively, showing not only ³⁰⁷ an increased electron mobility but also clearly more balanced ³⁰⁸ electron and hole transport than those of the PTB7-th:ITIC ³⁰⁹ blend film. Balanced carrier transport is important for reducing ³¹⁰ bimolecular recombination and also improves charge collection ³¹¹ at the respective electrodes. As a result, J_{SC} was considerably ³¹² improved in the corresponding devices (Figure 3a).

313 We present a high-performance medium-bandgap non-314 fullerene acceptor that features an optical bandgap of 2.0 eV 315 and a high LUMO energy level. The combined use of a weakly 316 electron-withdrawing TBA end group and the IDTT core in an 317 A–D–A geometry gives rise to IDTT-T with a significantly 318 raised LUMO energy level compared to ITIC, together with 319 absorption in the bluer region of the visible spectrum that 320 matches well with that of the low-bandgap PTB7-th donor. 338

Because of the high LUMO level and the complementary 321 absorption properties, the OPV devices using PTB7-th:IDTT-T 322 as the active layer showcase a high $V_{\rm OC}$ over 1 V, together with 323 a high J_{sc} , low energy loss, and a highest PCE reaching 11.8% in 324 lab-scale devices. This performance compares favorably to the 325 performance of other wider gap NFAs reported to-date (Table 326 \$2).¹⁵⁻¹⁸ While the current OPV devices with leading 327 efficiencies are still based on low-bandgap NFAs,^{36,43} which 328 feature high photocurrent generation but often at the expense 329 of $V_{\rm OC}$, this work demonstrated that simultaneous increase of 330 V_{OC} and photocurrent generation in bulk heterojunction OPVs 331 can be realized by the use of judiciously designed wide bandgap 332 NFAs and donor materials with proper spectrum overlap. The 333 discovery of potent wide bandgap NFAs thus not only broadens 334 the scope of the OPV material design landscape but also opens 335 the door to high-efficiency OPV devices in new applications, 336 such as multicomponent solar cells. 337

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Synthesis of ZnO. The ZnO nanoparticles were synthesized by a 339 sol-gel method, modified from the procedure reported in the 340 literature.⁷³ In a 20 mL vial, potassium hydroxide (94.4 mg, 1.7 341 mmol) was first dissolved in ethanol (10 mL); the solution was 342 then sonicated and cooled to 0 °C using an ice bath. In a 343 second 20 mL vial, zinc acetate dihydrate (220 mg, 1 mmol) 344 was dissolved in ethanol (10 mL); the solution was then heated 345 to 70 °C for up to 30 min or until all the zinc acetate dihydrate 346 dissolved. Heating beyond the recommended time leads to 347 precipitation of insoluble zinc acetate and should be avoided. 348 Upon dissolution, the ZnAc solution was taken off the heat and 349 then cooled at 0 °C for about a minute. The KOH solution was 350 subsequently added into the ZnAc solution dropwise with 351 stirring. The resulting clear solution was stored in a refrigerator 352 overnight. The clear zinc oxide solution was transferred into 353 two large falcon tubes. Zinc oxide nanoparticles were 354 precipitated by adding hexanes (40 mL) in each tube followed 355 by centrifuging for 15 min at 4000 rpm. The solution was 356 decanted off, and the remaining ZnO pellet was redissolved in 357 ethanol (10 mL) for further use.

Thin Film and Device Characterization. The J-V curves were 359 acquired in the dark and under illumination of one sun (AM 360 1.5G) with light intensity of 100 mW/cm². A standard Newport 361 silicon diode was applied to calibrate the light intensity. EQE 362 was measured by a home-built IPCE system. The absorption 363 spectrum and photoluminscence spectrum were obtained by a 364 Cary 5000 UV-vis-NIR spectrometer and a Horiba NanoLog 365 spectrofluorometer, respectively. The excitation wavelength for 366 PL measurement was 500 nm. An Asylum MFP-3D stand-alone 367 AFM instrument from Oxford Instruments was used to take 368 AFM images under tapping mode. GIWAXS patterns were 369 acquired under X-ray incident angle of 0.14° and X-ray energy 370 of 10 keV at Beamline 7.3.3 of the Advanced Light Source, 371 Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory. 372

Device Fabrication and Characterization. For the inverted 373 device fabrication, the ZnO nanoparticle solution, filtered by a 374 0.25 μ m filter, was spun-cast at 4000 rpm for 60 s on a clean 375 ITO glass substrate and thermally annealed at 120 °C for 10 376 min in air. The concentration of the PTB7-th:NFA 377 (composition ratio = 1:2) solution was 25 mg/mL, dissolved 378 in chlorobenzene. The solution was spun-coated on the ZnO 379 layer at 3000 rpm for 40 s in a N₂-filled glovebox. The 8 nm 380 thick MoO₃ and 100 nm thick Ag layers were subsequently 381 prepared by thermal evaporation. For the standard device 382

³⁸³ fabrication, the active layer fabrication was the same as that for ³⁸⁴ the inverted device, and the only differences were (1) the hole ³⁸⁵ transport layer PEDOT:PSS (P4083), which was spun-coated ³⁸⁶ on ITO glass at 4000 rpm followed by a thermal annealing ³⁸⁷ treatment of 135 °C for 20 min, and (2) the cathode calcium ³⁸⁸ (20 nm) and aluminum (100 nm) prepared by thermal ³⁸⁹ evaporation under vacuum condition (2 × 10⁻⁶ mbar). Both ³⁹⁰ large-area (0.16 cm²) and small-area (0.03 cm²) devices were ³⁹¹ fabricated.

392 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

393 Supporting Information

394 The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the 395 ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acsenergy-396 lett.8b00366.

397 Synthesis details and additional optical, electrochemical,398 and device characterization data (PDF)

399 **AUTHOR INFORMATION**

400 Corresponding Authors

401 *E-mail: yliu@lbl.gov.

402 *E-mail: yangb1@hnu.edu.cn.

403 ORCID ⁽⁰⁾

404 Bo He: 0000-0003-1444-4625

405 Yi Liu: 0000-0002-3954-6102

406 Author Contributions

407 [‡]B.H. and B.Y. contributed equally.

408 Notes

409 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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