

Picosecond Charge-Transfer-State Dynamics in Wide Band Gap Polymer–Non-Fullerene Small-Molecule Blend Films Investigated via Transient Infrared Spectroscopy

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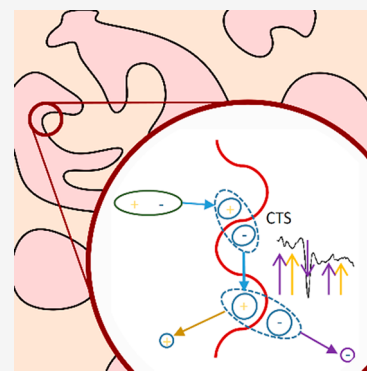


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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Organic solar cells based on wide band gap polymers and nonfullerene small-molecule acceptors have demonstrated remarkably good device performances. Nevertheless, a thorough understanding of the charge-transfer process in these materials has not been achieved yet. In this study, we use Fano resonance signals caused by the interaction of broad electronic charge carrier absorption and the molecular vibrations of the electron acceptor molecule to monitor the charge-transfer state dynamics. In our time-resolved infrared spectroscopy experiments, we find that in the small-molecule acceptor, they have additional dynamics on the order of a few picoseconds. A change in the solvent used in thin film deposition, leading to different morphologies, influences this time further. We interpret our findings as the dynamics of the charge-transfer state at the interface of the electron donor and the electron-acceptor. The additional mid-infrared transient signal is generated in this state, as both electron and hole polarons can interact with small-molecule acceptor vibrational modes.



Organic semiconductors can be used in a wide range of optoelectronic applications. In particular, solution-processed bulk heterojunction (BHJ) organic solar cells (OSCs) have attained considerable attention due to their high possible conversion efficiencies.^{1,2} The use of small-molecule nonfullerene acceptors, instead of fullerene molecules, enabled a better tuning of the optoelectronic properties of the electron acceptor to the electron donor and thereby improved the respective device performance.^{3–5} In addition, a wider range of the solar spectrum can be captured by using wide band gap polymers and by tuning the band gaps of both materials accordingly.^{6–8}

In all systems, the charge carriers created by the photoexcitation are usually described as bound excitons which then diffuse to the donor–acceptor interface.⁹ At the interface, a charge-transfer state (CTS) is formed in which one of the charges transfers to an energetically favorable material.⁹ Within these materials, charges interact with the respective structure and form polarons, in which the charges are Coulombically screened by a counteracting molecule rearrangement.^{10,11} On organic semiconductors, polarons are known to exhibit very broad electronic absorptions that can be monitored in the mid-infrared spectrum.¹² An interaction between a polaronic charge and a vibrational mode in the respective material can lead to a particularly enhanced or suppressed signal close to the ground-state mode. These effects are often summarized as infrared activated vibrations (IRAVs).^{12,13} While the exact interaction mechanism often remains unclear, they nevertheless can act as indicators for processes that involve a structural response of

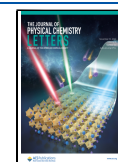
the material to a charge being present. Among the different explanations for IRAV signals, Fano resonances stand out, as they can lead to an antiresonance, which is a manifestly reduced signal at the original vibrational mode.¹⁴ A Fano resonance occurs as an interaction between a broad (in this case the wide electronic polaron absorption) and a sharp signal (here, the well-defined vibrational mode).¹⁵ In the literature, Fano resonances have been used in similar systems as a proxy to probe the charges' environment in a blend with the resonance only being present with the charge in proximity to the respective material.¹⁶

For the performance of an OSC, the CTS proves to be a critical stage for an efficient charge separation.^{17,18} This process follows the diffusion of the exciton to the donor–acceptor interface, for which different time scales have been reported in the literature. While in some cases diffusion times in the picosecond range have been published, other studies found faster processes in the femtosecond regime,¹⁹ in particular for intimately intermixed samples, in which little or no diffusion is necessary to reach the heterojunction.^{20,21} As this time strongly depends on the domain size in the samples, a

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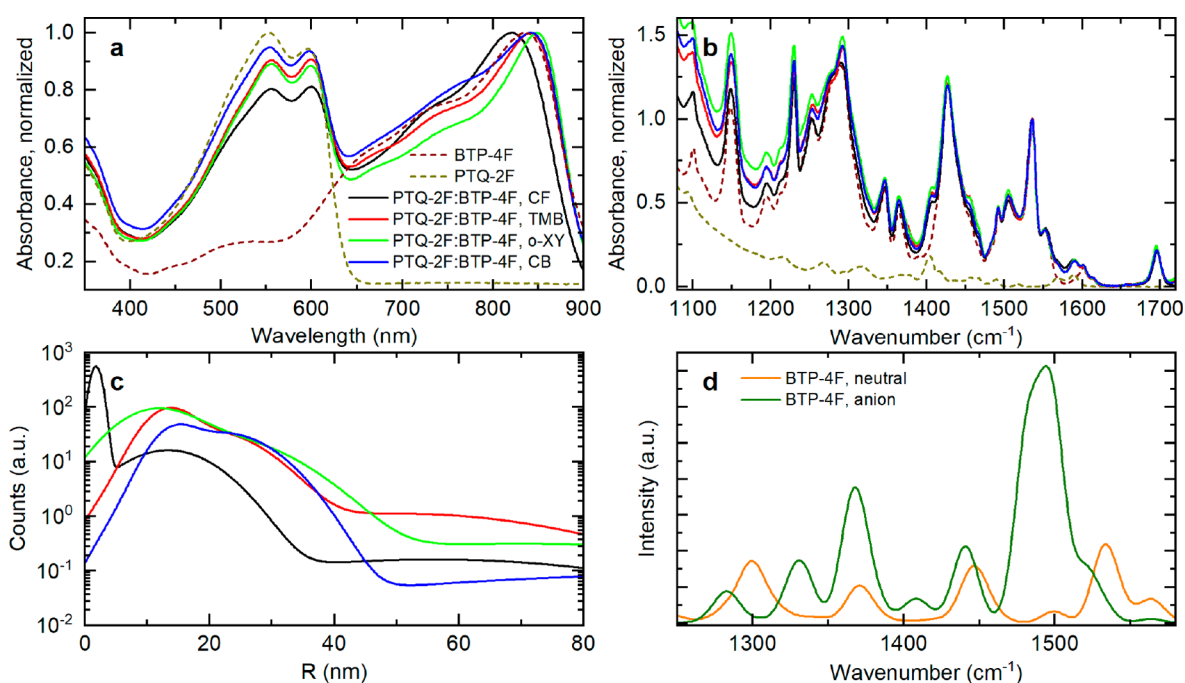


Figure 1. (a) UV-VIS spectra of PTQ-2F:BTP-4F blend films spin coated from different solvents (CF = chloroform, TMB = 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene, o-XY = ortho-xylene, CB = chlorobenzene) and neat BTP-4F and PTQ-2F films for comparison. All spectra are normalized to their maximum absorbance. (b) Infrared spectra of the samples, legend as in (a); all spectra are normalized to the mode at 1535 cm^{-1} . (c) Domain size distribution as obtained from GISAXS fits. (d) Calculated IR spectra for the neutral and anionic BTP-4F small-molecule acceptor.

direct comparison of this morphology-dependent process proves to be difficult. To examine the dynamics of the CTS and the electron/hole transfer, a wide range of pump–probe experiments have been used. In many cases, visible transient absorption (vis-TA) measurements have been interpreted with a delayed rise of the acceptor material signal after a hole or electron transfer.^{10,22–25} Nevertheless, this assignment remains ambiguous concerning the exact dynamics of the CTS, which need to be considered separately from the mere transfer of an electron or a hole to its respective acceptor material.²⁶ The critical phase in the charge separation process should be considered longer, as the recombination probability remains enlarged until both charges separately diffuse away from the donor–acceptor interface.

In this article, we use picosecond vis-pump/mid-infrared-probe spectroscopy to investigate the dynamics of the CTS in a wide band gap polymer:nonfullerene small-molecule blend (PTQ-2F:BTP-4F) forming bulk heterojunctions. We select distinct Fano resonances to distinguish the CTS dynamics from broad polaronic states. In combination with DFT calculations, we find that multiple BTP-4F vibrational modes form strong antiresonance that probes polaronic charge carriers on or close to the BTP-4F phase. We show that the structure of the blend films, varied due to different solvents used in the blend film deposition, influences the CTS lifetime.

Recent combinations of donor–acceptor systems were tuned in a way that the visible absorptions of both donor and acceptor molecules are complementary, covering a wider spectral range. In this study, we select PTQ-2F (also called PTQ10 in the literature; full name in the Supporting Information (SI)) as a wide band gap electron donor polymer and the nonfullerene small-molecule acceptor BTP-4F (also called Y6 in the literature; full name in the SI). We use different solvents to tailor the structure of the blend films, thereby influencing the dynamics of the photovoltaic

processes. The absorbance spectra of the blend films can be found in Figure 1a (see also Supporting Figure S1).

The broad absorption by both molecules is clearly visible, as the electron donor polymer PTQ-2F mainly absorbs from 500 to 650 nm and the electron acceptor molecule BTP-4F exhibits an absorbance spectrum in the red to near-infrared from 650 to 800 nm. A slight difference in the absorbance spectra of the isolated components compared to the bulk heterojunction is indicative of the successful formation of the interpenetrating network.²⁷ Investigating the morphology of the PTQ-2F:BTP-4F blend films using grazing incidence small-angle X-ray scattering (GISAXS),²⁸ we find that the choice of the solvent from which the samples are coated indeed influences the average PTQ-2F domain sizes (see Figure 1c and the related Supporting Figure S2). In particular, a strong difference in the polymer cluster sizes is observed between chloroform and the other used solvents, as the former exhibits an additional small size component. For analysis, we use horizontal line cuts of the 2D GISAXS data at the critical angle of PTQ-2F and model them using three cylindrical form factors. Regarding their infrared spectra (see Figure 1b and Supporting Figure S3), the small molecule acceptor BTP-4F proves to be dominant compared to the rather weak modes associated with the electron donor polymer PTQ-2F. In particular, a plethora of strong vibrational absorptions of BTP-4F can be found in the fingerprint region between 1100 and 1600 cm^{-1} . While a fundamental assignment of the modes proves to be very difficult, density functional (DFT) calculations help to associate the signals to specific regions and molecular bonds of the molecule. In this study, we use DFT with the PBE0 hybrid exchange–correlation functional as implemented in the ORCA program^{29–31} to simulate the electronic structure and vibrational frequencies of the neutral BTP-4F molecule (see Figure 1d). To examine the effect of an additional charge on the BTP-4F molecule, the spectrum of a BTP-4F anion has

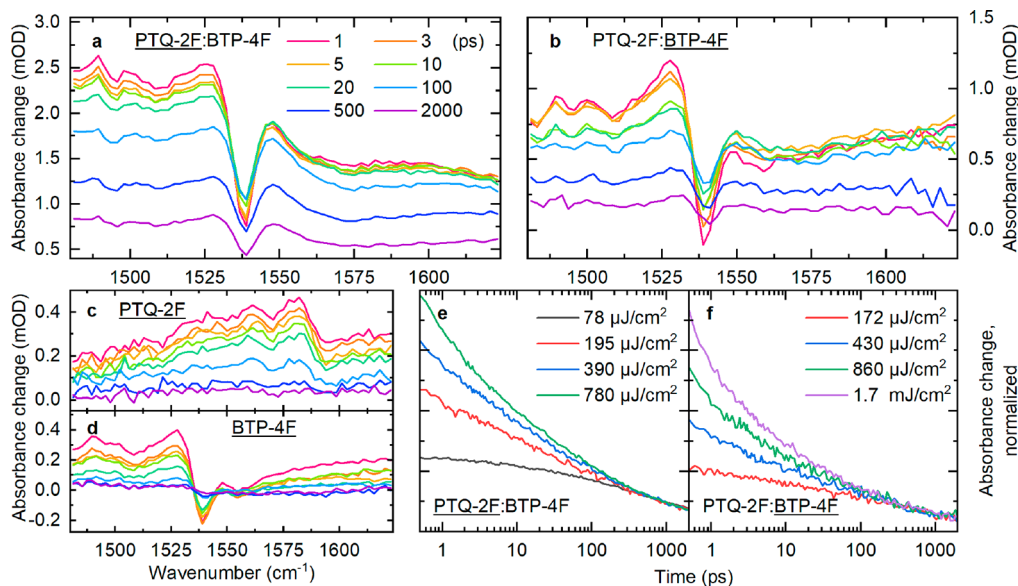


Figure 2. (a, b) Transient absorption spectra of PTQ-2F:BTF-4F blend films spin coated from CF, excited in the electron donor (a) and acceptor (b). (c, d) Transient absorption spectra of neat PTQ-2F (c) and BTF-4F (d) films. (e, f) Dynamics of the background signal at 1500 cm^{-1} of PTQ-2F:BTF-4F dissolved from CF, excited in the electron donor (e) and acceptor (f) normalized to their dynamics in the few hundreds ps region.

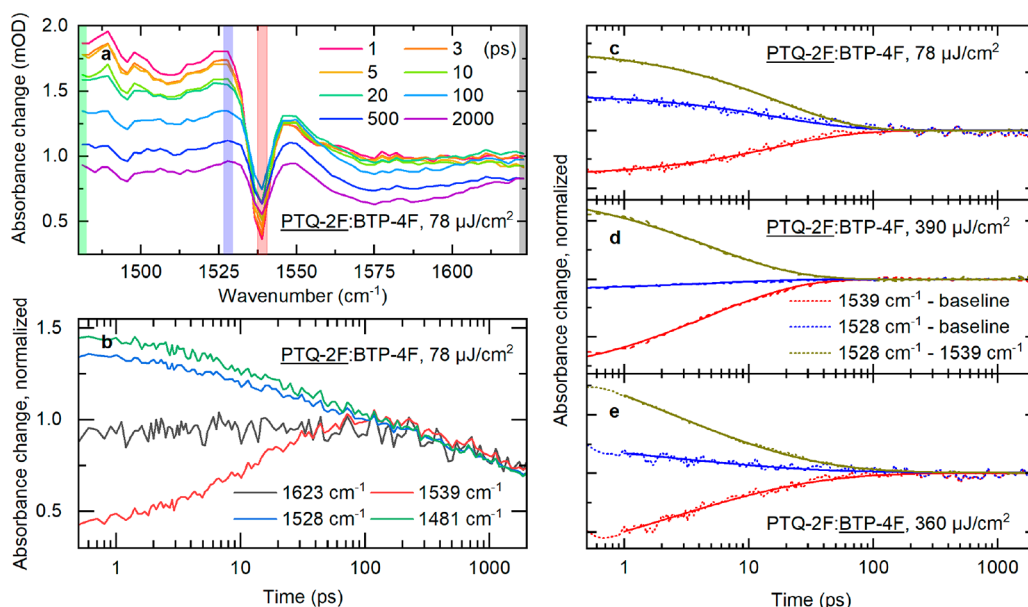


Figure 3. (a) Transient absorption spectra of PTQ-2F:BTF-4F blend films spin coated from TMB, excited in the electron donor. (b) Dynamics of selected pixel as marked in (a), normalized at 110 ps. (c–e) Additional dynamics of the Fano resonance for excitation in the electron donor (c, d) or electron acceptor (e) with different excitation densities. Stretched exponential fits (solid line, detailed fitting parameters in the SI) allow quantizing the charge-transfer state dynamics.

been calculated as well. For the anion, we find a strong additional mode, similar to an IRAV mode, close to the distinct ground-state absorption around 1535 cm^{-1} (see Figure 1d), which can be associated with collective vibration of the inden and malonitrile moieties dominated by the stretching C–C mode in the inden of the BTF-4F molecule. We further find that the additional charge in the anion is situated on this region of the small-molecule acceptor (see the charge density distribution in Supporting Figure S4). Therefore, we use this mode to investigate the interaction of polaronic charge carriers created upon photoexcitation and its interaction with the electron acceptor.

In our time-resolved mid-infrared spectroscopy measurements, we investigate that mode and the background signal in its vicinity.

We observe a broad background absorption emerging after excitation with an additional antiresonance around 1538 cm^{-1} (see Figure 2a and b). This general finding is independent of whether the electron donor (PTQ-2F) or the electron acceptor (BTF-4F) is resonantly excited. The broad infrared signal that by far exceeds the measurement region limited by the spectrometer-detector configuration can also be obtained measuring both active layer components isolated (see Figure 2c and d). We interpret this signal as of polaronic nature, similar to other broad mid-infrared absorptions reported in the

literature for organic semiconductors (A more detailed discussion on the origin of the broad mIR transient background can be found in the SI).^{32–34} With the excitation densities employed in our experiments (from a few tens to few hundreds of $\mu\text{J}/\text{cm}^{-2}$), we find that higher order effects, such as non-geminate bimolecular polaron recombination, dominate the dynamics in our samples for the first tens of ps (see Figure 2e and f). A comparison with the neat PTQ-2F and BTP-4F films (see Supporting Figures S5 and S6) reveals that the higher order effects appear to originate in the donor polymer PTQ-2F, as the neat small-molecule acceptor BTP-4F shows no changes in its tens of picoseconds dynamics with increasing excitation density. Although in the literature a considerable non-geminate recombination has been observed for BTP-4F, it highly depends on the thin film morphology.³⁵

Therefore, our findings point toward a morphology-dependent difference of the charge mobilities in PTQ-2F and BTP-4F, suppressing the non-geminate recombination in BTP-4F in our experiments.

While the polaronic broadband absorption signal is rather unstructured, additional signals can be found. Their spectral shape at first glance resembles a bleaching signal of the infrared ground state modes. A closer comparison shows that the bleaching signal is slightly shifted in frequency and that the signal shape does not exactly mirror the original vibrational mode (see Supporting Figure S7). Thus, a broader range of possible interactions needs to be considered. As another interpretation, antiresonances need to be considered.

In the literature, antiresonances are usually associated with Fano resonance phenomena. They have been observed in a variety of organic semiconductor systems^{14,33} or similar materials^{36,37} and have also been used to track charge carriers within active layers.¹⁶ In our experiments, we find Fano resonances due to the interaction of the broadband electronic absorption of polarons and the narrow vibrational states of the small-molecule acceptor, which arise within our time resolution of approximately 0.5 ps. We will later discuss how the specific bleaching-like signal very close to the ground-state absorption exhibits a different dynamic than the polaronic background. This behavior conflicts with an assignment as a simple ground-state bleaching and points toward an anti-resonance.

The Fano resonances can act as a probe for the charge carrier population on or close to the respective material.

Monitoring the dynamics of the Fano resonance reveals an additional process at early delay times. Normalizing the broad background signal and the Fano resonance at longer delay times (see Figure 3b) allows separation of the additional process visible around the Fano resonance from the polaronic dynamics. We find that the Fano resonance signal exhibits an additional dynamic on the order of a few to a few tens of picoseconds. This additional process can only be found in an active layer BHJ composition but not for the neat materials that also exhibit polaron formation^{13,35} (see Supporting Figure S8). Therefore, we conclude that its physical origin lies within the charge-transfer process between the electron donor PTQ-2F and the electron acceptor molecule BTP-4F, which is only present in the BHJ geometry. We can exclude effects such as a polaron formation or stabilization process, akin to dynamics reported in perovskites,^{38,39} that could be expected on a ps time scale due to the lack of a similar additional signal in the neat material (see Figure S8 in the SI). The same argument relating to the neat material also holds true for other effects

such as a diffusion or hopping between acceptor molecules (a more detailed discussion can be found in the SI). We interpret our signal as due to the interaction of the broad electronic absorption of both hole and electron polaron in their respective acceptor molecule with the vibrational modes of the BTP-4F phase. As the occurrence of a Fano resonance requires a certain proximity of the polarons causing the broad electronic absorption and the BTP-4F molecules exhibiting the vibrational modes, the additional Fano dynamics appears to be an effect of the interaction between the hole polarons on the PTQ-2F polymer and BTP-4F molecules close to them. Considering the charge generation process as described in the literature, we conclude that the early dynamics visible in the antiresonance monitors the lifetime of the CTS. In this state, the excitonic initial excitations have already diffused to the phase boundary and a charge transfer has occurred. In the CTS, the charges are still Coulombically bound and, therefore, both polarons are still very close to the donor–acceptor interface. From this state, the charges can either recombine or separate to their respective acceptor material as free charge carriers.

The CTS proves to be of high relevance for the efficiency of OSCs. In the literature, a strong dependence on the morphology of the sample was reported.^{40–44} Varying the solvent from which the blend films are spin coated leads to different sample morphologies of the BHJ structure as shown above. We find that the lifetime of the CTS, evaluated from stretched exponential fits as shown in Figure 3c–e, generally increases as the polymer clusters embedded in the BTP-4F phase grow in size (see Table 1). Without surprise, there is no

Table 1. CTS Characteristic Time Constants as Obtained from a Stretched Exponential Fit and PTQ-2F Domain Sizes from GISAXS Data Analysis^a

PTQ-2F:BTP-4F solvent	$\tau_{\text{PTQ-2F}}/\text{ps}$	PTQ-2F 1st domain size/nm	PTQ-2F 2nd domain size/nm	PTQ-2F 3rd domain size/nm
chloroform	10.6 ± 0.7	1.7 ± 0.4	13 ± 1	55 ± 5
1,2,4-trimethylbenzene	16.9 ± 0.7	13 ± 1	20 ± 1	50 ± 5
orthoxylylene	21.2 ± 0.9	11.0 ± 0.9	19 ± 1	68 ± 7
chlorobenzene	22.0 ± 2.6	14 ± 1	22 ± 2	104 ± 12

^aThe samples were excited with approximately $80 \mu\text{J}/\text{cm}^2$ in the electron donor polymer PTQ-2F.

simple one-to-one relation between domain sizes seen in GISAXS and CTS times. Reasons might be in the complex local morphology of the donor–acceptor interface or in the presence of a molecularly intermixed third phase between donor and acceptor. The trend shown in Table 1 is independent of whether the electron donor or the acceptor is excited.

We additionally find a dependence of the characteristic times on the excitation density. With increasing excitation power, the characteristic CTS times decrease (see Figure 3c and d and Supporting Table S1) as the bimolecular component at early delay times becomes more dominant (see Figure 2e and f). From a principle point of view, the CTS recombines geminately and should, therefore, exhibit a lifetime independent of the excitation densities. Nevertheless, at the pump densities required for our experimental method, a non-geminate recombination path of the CTS interacting with

either free charge carriers or excitons could be imagined as well. Thus, we associate this behavior with the recombination of the CTS due to another charge carrier being present in its vicinity as a result of the relatively high excitation density. Comparing the Fano resonance dynamics for a similar excitation density into both PTQ-2F and BTP-4F, we cannot resolve significant differences in the time constants obtained.

Therefore, we can conclude that the charge transfer occurs within our experimental time resolution. In the literature, that process has been reported with a variety of time constants, both experimentally^{10,22,24,25} and theoretically.⁴⁵ The CTS observed in our study forms after the transfer of one of the charges and might not be distinguishable in transient absorption spectroscopy in other spectral regions.

In conclusion, using time-resolved mid-infrared spectroscopy, we investigate the charge carrier dynamics in PTQ-2F:BTP-4F donor–acceptor BHJ blend films with different morphologies. We measure broad polaronic absorptions with overlying Fano antiresonances due to the interaction with vibrational modes. Shortly after the optical excitation, these modes are particularly pronounced, with an additional dynamic at early delay times. These processes with characteristic times on the order of a few to tens of ps are associated with the CTS in which both hole and electron polarons can interact with the BTP-4F vibrational modes due to their proximity. We additionally find that the morphology of the BHJ structure strongly influences the CTS lifetime. Our results highlight the importance of the donor–acceptor interface and its properties for the charge carrier dynamics in the donor–acceptor BHJ. Combining time-resolved spectroscopy and structure characterization of donor–acceptor systems can help improve the performance of future OSC systems.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

SI Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jpcllett.2c02864>.

Experimental methods and sample preparation; details regarding DFT calculations. More detailed discussion of the mIR transient background origin. GISAXS line cuts, Fano resonance signal in neat BTP-4F, unscaled UV-VIS spectra and FTIR spectra of all samples. Fit parameters for stretched exponential fits at different excitation densities and for excitation into both electron donor and acceptor. (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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