

Ambipolar-transporting coaxial nanotubes with a tailored molecular graphene–fullerene heterojunction

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Despite a large steric bulk of C₆₀, a molecular graphene with a covalently linked C₆₀ pendant [hexabenzocoronene (HBC)–C₆₀; **1**] self-assembles into a coaxial nanotube whose wall consists of a graphite-like π -stacked HBC array, whereas the nanotube surface is fully covered by a molecular layer of clustering C₆₀. Because of this explicit coaxial configuration, the nanotube exhibits an ambipolar character in the field-effect transistor output [hole mobility (μ_h) = $9.7 \times 10^{-7} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$; electron mobility (μ_e) = $1.1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$] and displays a photovoltaic response upon light illumination. Successful coassembly of **1** and an HBC derivative without C₆₀ (**2**) allows for tailoring the p/n heterojunction in the nanotube, so that its ambipolar carrier transport property can be optimized for enhancing the open-circuit voltage in the photovoltaic output. As evaluated by an electrodeless method called flash-photolysis time-resolved microwave conductivity technique, the intratubular hole mobility ($2.0 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) of a coassembled nanotube containing 10 mol % of HBC–C₆₀ (**1**) is as large as the intersheet mobility in graphite. The homotropic nanotube of **2** blended with a soluble C₆₀ derivative [(6,6)-phenyl C₆₁ butyric acid methyl ester] displayed a photovoltaic response with a much different composition dependency, where the largest open-circuit voltage attained was obviously lower than that realized by the coassembly of **1** and **2**.

ambipolar transport | field-effect transistor | nanotube | photovoltaic | self-assembly

For addressing the imminent issue of energy, one of the principal subjects is to develop solar cells that are capable of efficiently converting light energy into electrical outputs. Although silicon-based solar cells have been commercialized, there exists a strong demand for organic solar cells because organic materials are flexible and easy to process (1). An ideal configuration for organic photovoltaics (PVs) consists of properly connected hole- and electron-transporting layers (p/n heterojunction) formed from electron-donating (D) and electron-accepting (A) molecular components, respectively, with neither charge–transfer complexation nor macroscopic D/A segregation (2–4). For the last decade, a major progress has been made by the “bulk heterojunction” approach (5–9), which integrates, in most cases, electron-accepting molecules such as fullerenes into hole-transporting media composed of π -conjugated polymers. However, despite the practical importance of this approach, the interface for the resulting p and n domains is, in principle, hard to tailor at the molecular level. As a new strategy to solve this essential problem, molecular assembly of covalently or noncovalently connected D–A modules has attracted increasing attention (10). In 2004, Würthner et al. (11) reported that self-assembly of a hydrogen-bonded D–A–D triad consisting of oligo(*p*-phenylene vinylene) (D) and perylenediimide (A) affords photoconductive nanofibers. To realize selective formation

of bicontinuous D/A arrays in bulk, an amphiphilic oligothiophene–C₆₀ covalent D–A dyad with a liquid crystalline character has been developed (12). Dye-sensitized wet solar cells have been prepared by a modification of electrodes through layer-by-layer assembly of oligo(*p*-phenylene)/naphthalenediimide (13) and porphyrin/C₆₀ (14), designed to form a heterojunction. Despite these pioneering examples, rational design of molecularly engineered D/A heterojunctions, leading to PV outputs, remains a big challenge.

In 2006, we reported that a hexa-*peri*-hexabenzocoronene (HBC)–trinitrofluorenone (TNF) covalent D–A dyad self-assembles into a photoconductive coaxial nanotube, where a TNF molecular layer laminates a graphite-like bilayer composed of π -stacked HBC units (15). HBC, a small fragment of graphene, is a basic structural element for graphite and carbon nanotubes. Pioneering works by Müllen and coworkers (16, 17) made it possible to use such a large, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon for organic electronics. Our TNF-appended nanotube was intended for PV. However, in a preliminary study using a field-effect transistor (FET) device, this nanotube did not show any sign of electron transport originating from the TNF layer on the tube surface, but only a hole-transport property due to the π -stacked HBC array. Therefore, we turned to focus on C₆₀, which is widely used as an electron-transporting component for organic PV devices (1–3, 6–9). In this article, we report an “all-in-one” PV nanotube via controlled self-assembly of an HBC–C₆₀ covalent D–A dyad (**1**; Fig. 1*A*; see *SI Text* and Fig. S1). This nanotube is a highly carbon-rich assembly adopting a coaxial D/A heterojunction (Fig. 1*B* and *C*) and can be regarded as a low-dimensional hybrid of a “molecular graphite” and a quasi-zero-dimensional nanocarbon.

Our recent systematic study on the self-assembly of Gemini-shaped HBC amphiphile **2** (Fig. 1*A*) and its derivatives revealed that the long, paraffinic side chains and two phenylene units, along with the large π -conjugated HBC core, are the essential structural elements for nanotubular assembly (18–20). This observation, in turn, suggests that the triethylene glycol (TEG) chains, which are not essential for the controlled assembly, may be used as a scaffold for anchoring functional groups onto the nanotube surface. In fact, various nanotubes with different

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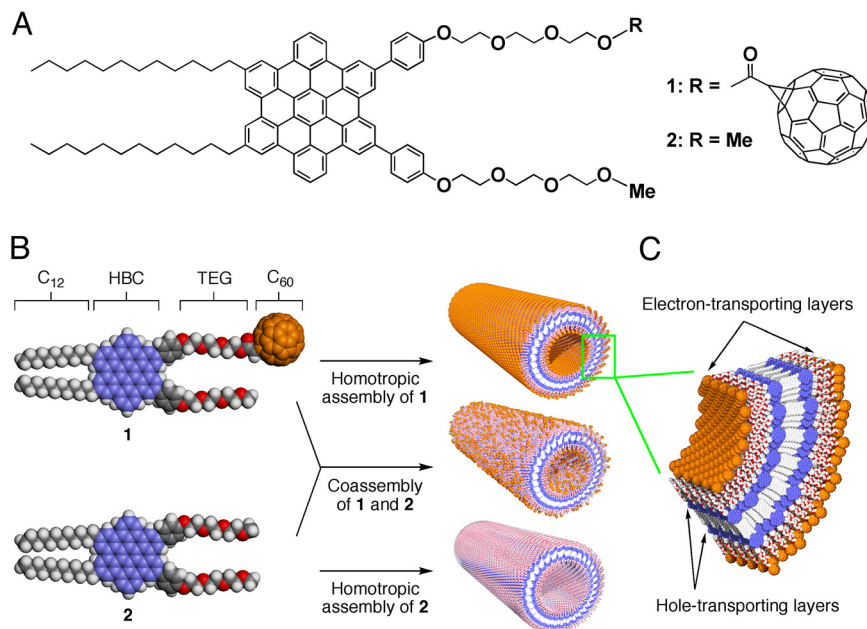


Fig. 1. Schematic representations of Gemini-shaped HBC derivatives and their nanotubes. (A) Molecular structures of HBC-C₆₀ dyad **1** and HBC **2**. (B) Schematic representation of the formation of homotropic and coassembled nanotubes of **1** and **2**. (C) Schematic representation of the wall structure of the nanotube of **1**, where an electron-transporting molecular layer of clustering C₆₀ (orange) laminates a hole-transporting, graphite-like layer of π -stacked HBC units (blue).

surface groups have successfully been obtained from HBC amphiphiles carrying functional groups at the TEG termini. Examples include HBC nanotubes appended with small surface pendants, such as allyl (21), thioacetate (22), and azide (23), or relatively large but planar pendants, such as coumarine (24), TNF (15, 25), and isothiuronium ion (26). Among these successful examples, self-assembly of an HBC amphiphile carrying spatially demanding norbornene pendants exceptionally gave a coiled nanostructure, a sterically relaxed form of the tubular assembly (27, 28). This result suggests that norbornene might be the upper limit in steric bulk for the exclusive formation of nanotubes. Because C₆₀ is much bulkier than norbornene and tends to aggregate, we were initially afraid that the nanotube formation from HBC-C₆₀ (**1**) might not take place. However, to our surprise, **1** successfully self-assembled into a perfect coaxial nanotubular structure, whose C₆₀ and graphite-like layers allowed for an ambipolar charge-carrier transport. Being encouraged by successful examples using some other HBC amphiphiles

(19, 25, 27, 28), we also attempted coassembly of **1** and HBC **2** without C₆₀. Consequently, the hole and electron mobilities in the nanotube could be properly optimized for enhancing the open-circuit voltage in the PV output.

Results and Discussion

Coaxial Nanotubes by Self-Assembly and Coassembly. HBC-C₆₀ covalent dyad **1** was synthesized by esterification of the hydroxyl group of HBC **4** with metano[60]fullerene carboxylic acid **5** (SI Text and Fig. S2). As a typical procedure for the self-assembly, a toluene suspension of **1** (0.2 mM) was ultrasonicated for 1 h and heated at 100 °C. The resultant orange-colored solution was allowed to cool to 25 °C and aged for a few hours, affording a brown-colored suspension. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) of an air-dried suspension exclusively showed cylindrical nanowires with an open-ended hollow structure (Fig. 2A). As confirmed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM), these nanotubes were uniform in diameter (22 nm) and wall thickness

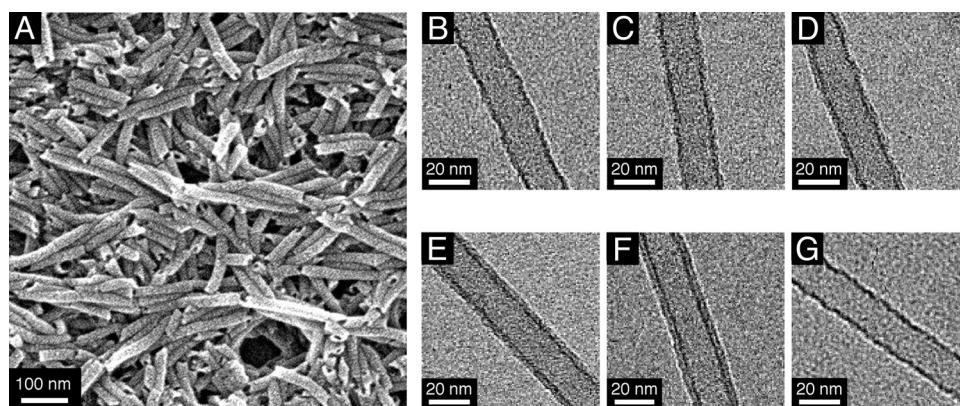


Fig. 2. Electron micrographs of the homotropic and coassembled nanotubes of **1** and **2**. (A) SEM micrograph of an air-dried toluene suspension of the homotropic nanotube of **1**. (B–F) TEM micrographs of air-dried toluene suspensions of the homotropic nanotubes of **1** (F) and **2** (B), and coassembled nanotubes with $f_1 = 25\%$ (C), 50% (D), and 75% (E). (G) TEM micrograph of an air-dried MeOH suspension of the nanotube of **1** after hydrolysis of the ester groups.

(V_{sd}) and then leveled off. Furthermore, the transfer curves displayed V -shape profiles (Fig. 3C and D). These behaviors are typical of ambipolar FET (31). From the saturated regions in the transfer curves, the electron (μ_e) and hole (μ_h) mobilities of the nanotube of **1** were evaluated as 1.1×10^{-5} and 9.7×10^{-7} $\text{cm}^2 \text{V}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$, respectively (SI Text).

A detailed study of the coassembled nanotubes revealed that both μ_e and μ_h are dependent nonlinearly on the nanotube composition (Fig. 3E). For example, μ_e decreased gradually as f_1 was decreased from 100% to 60%, and then it fell off abruptly thereafter. In particular, no electron mobility was detected when f_1 was lower than 40%, suggesting that the C_{60} cluster on the nanotube surface, as visualized by TEM (Fig. 2B–F), completely loses an effective continuity for long-range electron transport. On the other hand, a cast film of the nanotube of **2** without C_{60} exhibited only a p-type FET property, where μ_h of 1.0×10^{-4} $\text{cm}^2 \text{V}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$, thus obtained, is two orders of magnitude greater than that observed for the homotropic nanotube of **1**. Nevertheless, only a small increase in f_1 from 0 to 25% resulted in a considerable decrease in μ_h (80%). For such a complicated composition dependency of μ_h , we consider that the molecular layer of clustering C_{60} may prevent hole injection into the graphite-like inner layer from the source electrode. In addition to this, a large steric bulk of C_{60} may certainly hamper ideal π -stacking of the HBC units (25).

Intratubular Carrier Transport Properties. For evaluating the intratubular carrier transport properties, we used a flash-photolysis time-resolved microwave conductivity (FP-TRMC) technique (see Methods and ref. 32), which allows for probing the motion of photocarriers under a rapidly oscillating electric field. Because of this probing function, the FP-TRMC technique does not require electrodes for charge injection, so that one can evaluate intrinsic dynamics of mobile carriers. Furthermore, under such high-resonant frequency conditions, charge carriers can migrate only in a nanoscale range (33). Therefore, FP-TRMC profiles of the nanotubes are considered to reflect mostly the intratubular carrier transport events.

Upon laser flash, rise and decay profiles of a TRMC signal, given by $\phi \Sigma \mu$, are observed, where ϕ and $\Sigma \mu$ represent photocarrier generation yield and sum of the mobilities of generated charge carriers, respectively. In general, the maximum value of $\phi \Sigma \mu$ ($\phi \Sigma \mu_{\text{max}}$) is used for evaluating the photoconductivity of a material. As reported previously, the homotropic nanotube of **2** without C_{60} , upon laser excitation at 355 nm, shows only a small value of $\phi \Sigma \mu_{\text{max}}$ (25). However, as shown in Fig. 4A (transient profiles of $\phi \Sigma \mu$; Fig. S7A), $\phi \Sigma \mu_{\text{max}}$ was progressively enhanced upon increase of the content of **1** and furnished at $f_1 = 25\%$ maximum value, which is roughly 50-fold greater than that of the homotropic nanotube of **2**. $\phi \Sigma \mu_{\text{max}}$ then gradually decreased as f_1 was further increased, possibly because of a decrease in the hole mobility through the π -stacked HBC array. This tendency coincides with the composition-dependent profile of μ_h in the FET output, discussed in the above section (Fig. 3E). For evaluating the intratubular carrier mobility of the nanotube from $\phi \Sigma \mu_{\text{max}}$, photogenerated charge carriers have to be quantified. However, among the nanotubes tested for FP-TRMC, only the coassembled nanotube with $f_1 = 10\%$ gave a transparent cast film suitable for transient absorption spectroscopy (TAS) to quantify the photocarriers. Upon exposure of this cast film to a 355-nm laser light, an absorption band assignable to an HBC radical cation ($\text{HBC}^{+\cdot}$) appeared at 605 nm, along with bleaching of the absorption bands of HBC at 430 and 465 nm (Fig. 4B). The decay profile of the transient absorption at 605 nm agreed well with that of the transient conductivity observed by FP-TRMC (Fig. 4C). Thus, the carrier mobility of the nanotube was evaluated as 1.4–2.0 $\text{cm}^2 \text{V}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ (Fig. 4D; see also Methods), which is greater than those reported for HBC-based discotic

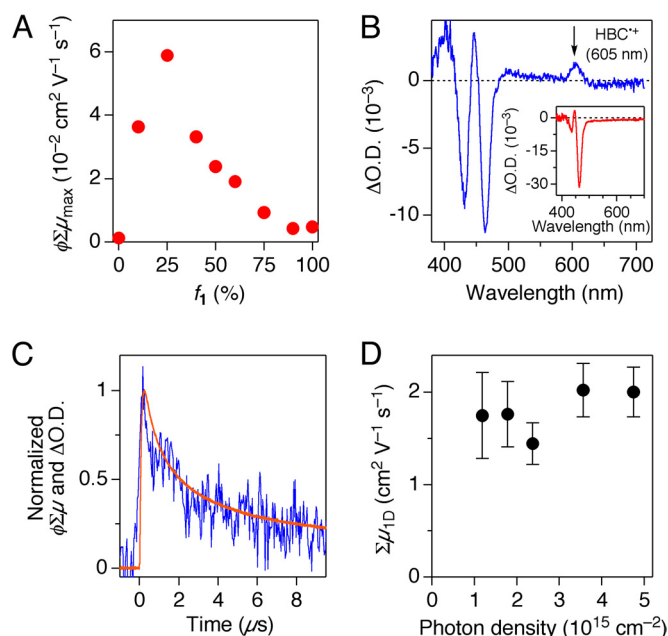


Fig. 4. Transient conductivity and absorption profiles of the homotropic and coassembled nanotubes of **1** and **2**. (A) Plots of $\phi \Sigma \mu_{\text{max}}$ versus f_1 . Transient conductivity ($\phi \Sigma \mu$) in FP-TRMC is given by multiplication of photocarrier generation yield (ϕ) and sum of charge carrier mobilities ($\Sigma \mu$) (32). (B) FP-TAS at 25 °C of a cast film of the coassembled nanotube with $f_1 = 10\%$ upon photoirradiation at 355 nm (photon density, $3.6 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-2}$). (Inset) FP-TAS at 25 °C of a cast film of the homotropic nanotube of **2**. Transient species arising from C_{60} were not observed because of a detection limit of the spectroscope. (C) Normalized FP-TRMC (orange) and FP-TAS (blue; $\lambda = 605 \text{ nm}$) profiles of a cast film of the coassembled nanotube with $f_1 = 10\%$, upon photoirradiation at 355 nm (photon density, $1.2 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-2}$). (D) Plots of $\Sigma \mu_{\text{ID}}$ for a cast film of the coassembled nanotube with $f_1 = 10\%$ versus photon density.

liquid crystals (34) and even close to the intersheet mobility in graphite ($\approx 3 \text{ cm}^2 \text{V}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$) (35).

PV Device Performances. As already described, only a small content of C_{60} -appended **1** in the coassembled nanotube gives rise to a very efficient quenching of the HBC fluorescence (Fig. S6). This fact indicates that the probability of HBC-to- C_{60} electron transfer is enhanced by a rapid migration of the excitation energy along the π -stacked HBC array (25). Having this positive sign in mind, we evaluated PV properties of the nanotubes. Because none of the nanotubes, upon drop casting, could form pinhole-free thin films, which are necessary for the conventional top-contact PV cell, we designed a dedicated device with a side-direction channel (Fig. 5A), which may be generally applicable to fiber samples. Thus, a toluene suspension of the nanotube of C_{60} -appended **1** was cast onto a fluoroalkyl-coated glass substrate, prepatterned with PEDOT:PSS/Au/Ti [PEDOT, poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene); PSS, poly(styrenesulfonate)] and $\text{TiO}_x/\text{Ti}/\text{Al}$ electrodes with an 8- to 15- μm separation (SI Text and Fig. S8A). Upon exposure to light of wavelength $\lambda = 300$ –650 nm from the backside of the glass substrate, the cast film displayed a PV response with an open-circuit voltage (V_{OC}) of 0.46 V (Fig. 5B). The short-circuit current (I_{SC}) was enhanced in linear proportion to the light intensity (Fig. S8B) and switched promptly and repeatedly in response to turning on and off the light (light power density, 0.39 mW mm^{-2} ; Fig. S8C). The on/off current ratio was nearly 10^3 (Fig. 5B Inset).

Likewise, PV devices were prepared from the coassembled nanotubes, and their performances were investigated (Fig. S8D). As shown in Fig. 5C, the V_{OC} value increased from 0.09 to 0.50

duration from the linac at the Institute of Scientific and Industrial Research, Osaka University, was used as an irradiation source (32). A xenon flash lamp was used as a probe light source. The nEB-PR-TAS was measured by a Hamamatsu model PMA-11 optical multichannel analyzer. For kinetic studies, the white light was separated into spectrum components by a Ritsu model MC-10N monochromator and detected by a Hamamatsu model S1722 Si PIN photodiode. The signals were collected by a Tektronics model SCD1000 transient digitizer.

Determination of 1D Carrier Mobility. One-dimensional carrier mobility, $\Sigma\mu_{1D}$, was given by $2 \times \Sigma\mu_{max}$, because most nanotubes lay two-dimensionally on the substrates. $\Sigma\mu_{max}$ was determined by using the $\phi\Sigma\mu_{max}$ value in FP-TRMC divided by ϕ . The ϕ was given by the ratio of the number of photogenerated charge carriers (N_c) to that of absorbed photons, where N_c was estimated from ΔOD in FP-TAS of a cast film of the nanotube with $f_1 = 10\%$ (Fig. 4B) and ε of HBC⁺ at 605 nm. The ε value of HBC⁺ was determined as $1.0 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ by the nEB-PR-TAS experiments (Fig. S7F).

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