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1 **Selectively Absorbing Small-Molecule Solar Cells for Self-Powered Electrochromic**
2 **Windows**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Dynamic control of solar transmission by photovoltaic-powered electrochromic smart windows
22 is an up-and-coming approach towards the reduction of energy consumption in buildings.
23 Selectively-absorbing transparent organic solar cells are capable of exhibiting excellent visible-
24 light transparency as well as respectable power conversion efficiencies. This work presents
25 three different transparent small-molecule solar cells (TSCs) with an area of 2.52 cm², two of
26 which are UV-absorbing and one of which absorbs in the NIR, each in combination with an
27 organic electrochromic device (EC). The NIR-absorbing TSC uses a BDP-OMe:C₆₀
28 combination, and has a power conversion efficiency of 4% with an average visible light
29 transmission (AVT) of 40%. The two UV-harvesting systems, α -6T/B4PYMPM and
30 NPB:B4PYMPM, each have an AVT of 50-65%, as well as high open-circuit voltages of 1.5-
31 2.0 V. We demonstrate that these photogenerated voltages are sufficient to power a fluoran dye-
32 based organic EC, which has excellent optical properties: its color ranges from highly
33 transparent to deep black, and its on/off contrast ratio is higher than 80% in the range between
34 390 nm and 640 nm. Self-powered smart windows made by the combination of TSCs and ECs
35 provide a way to significantly reduce energy consumption from air conditioning and lighting,
36 towards zero-energy buildings.

37 **Keywords:** small-molecules; solar cells; electrochromic devices; smart windows; self-
38 sustainable

39 **1. Introduction**

40 Heating, air conditioning, and lighting in buildings account for a major portion of electricity
41 demand, around 40% of overall energy usage as of 2018 [1]. With the effects of climate change
42 rapidly worsening, it is imperative that we find ways to reduce this energy burden. Adaptation
43 of PV technology into building-integrated photovoltaics (BIPV), which act as self-powering
44 temperature-regulating building envelopes, could help to alleviate this issue in different ways
45 [2,3]. BIPV can minimize long-distance transmission losses and installation costs by generating
46 electricity close to where it is utilized, for example on roofs, facades, and solar shading systems
47 [4]. One especially promising branch of BIPV involves electrochromic smart windows powered
48 by transparent photovoltaic modules. These self-sufficient devices regulate the transmission of
49 solar radiation through building windows, controlling the interior climate without increasing
50 energy usage [5–7]. By reducing the amount of electricity required to manage indoor
51 temperature and lighting, these devices can help to mitigate the overall energy consumption,
52 thereby contributing to fight climate change. In this paper, we will present a BIPV system
53 consisting of a combination of an electrochromic device (EC) and transparent solar cells (TSCs),
54 each of which can be easily fabricated from organic materials.

55 In order to create a self-sustaining TSC-EC module, the power conversion efficiency (PCE) and
56 average visible light transmission (AVT) of TSCs need to be balanced [8]. Transparent polymer
57 solar cells with PCEs of 3-13% have been demonstrated in the past with AVTs in the range of
58 ~ 10-50% [8–14]. However, when using blade coating method to increase those devices' active
59 area over 1 cm², their fill factors, photocurrents and PCEs drop, indicating scalability problems
60 and limited usefulness in larger applications [15–18]. The selectively absorbing small-molecule

61 TSCs presented here have superior AVTs and scalability potential compared to polymer-based
62 transparent solar cells [19]. Among them, the near-infrared (NIR)-absorbing TSCs with an area
63 of 2.52 cm² exhibit, to the best of our knowledge, the highest PCE (~ 4%) in combination with
64 an AVT of 40%, compared to other reported small-molecule based TSCs [20–23]. While the
65 near-ultra-violet (UV) absorbing TSCs offer photovoltages of 1.5-2.0 V, enough to control light
66 transmission through the EC devices, the NIR devices require a series connection to achieve
67 sufficiently high voltages. However, the larger photocurrent (~ 10 mA cm⁻²) achieved by the
68 NIR TSCs in comparison with that of near-UV TSCs partially compensates for their lack of
69 photovoltage. The UV-absorbing TSCs have outstanding AVTs of up to 65%, along with
70 excellent solar heat gain coefficient (SHGC) values reaching 60%. The SHGC values indicate
71 that these UV-absorbing TSCs are good candidates for powering EC windows in colder
72 climates where additional heating is advantageous. On the other hand, the NIR-harvesting
73 device would provide more benefit in hot climates, since they block some of the IR radiation to
74 prevent the indoor from overheating.

75 Most commercially available electrochromic technologies operate by an electrochemical
76 oxidation/reduction reaction between inorganic metal oxide thin films, usually tungsten and
77 nickel oxide [24–27]. The EC system presented here diverges from this traditional configuration.
78 Instead of metal oxides, it is based on a type of dye commonly referred to as fluoran. Fluoran
79 dyes have been widely utilized as a component of thermal paper, and are reported as the active
80 agent in a handful of reports on EC devices [28,29]. Fluoran-based EC systems have been
81 studied most extensively by the Information Display group at Kyung-Hee University. They
82 have investigated the use of fluoran EC in several applications, including as a component in

83 augmented reality headsets and as part of an OLED-EC combination [30,31]. However, fluoran
84 EC has yet to be reported in smart window applications. Studies on the optical properties of this
85 material for ECs have shown that the performance of fluoran derivatives are comparable to
86 those of commercially available electrochromic windows, which offer a transparent-state
87 transmittance of 65%-78% and a darkened-state transmittance of 1%-4% [32].

88 **2. Experimental section**

89 *2.1. Sample preparation*

90 *2.1.1. Small-molecule solar cells preparation*

91 The layers of the small-molecule solar cells are thermally evaporated at ultra-high vacuum (base
92 pressure $< 10^{-7}$ mbar) on a glass substrate with a pre-structured ITO contact (Thin Film Devices,
93 USA). Glass substrates are cleaned in a multi-step wet process including rinsing with N-methyl-
94 2-pyrrolidone, ethanol, and deionized water as well as treatment with ultraviolet ozone. The
95 performances of the small molecule solar cells are optimized for opaque devices, before making
96 them transparent. The optimization steps are shown in Figure S1-3 and Table S1-3. In order to
97 make the optimized devices transparent, the thickness of the top Ag electrode is reduced from
98 100 to 7 nm. The structures of devices and of the used materials for all transparent solar cells
99 are listed in Table S4. All organic materials are purified 2-3 times by sublimation. The device
100 area is defined by the geometrical overlap of the bottom and the top contact, the active area of
101 standard and large-area devices equals 6.44 mm^2 and 2.52 cm^2 , respectively. To avoid exposure
102 to ambient conditions, the organic part of the device is covered by a small glass substrate, which
103 is glued on top.

104 *2.1.2. Organic electrochromic devices preparation*

105 The electrochromic solution contains chemical components in the following approximate
106 concentrations: 0.3M tetrabutylammonium tetrafluoroborate, 0.5M black fluoran dye and 0.5M
107 hydroquinone in N,N-dimethylacetamide. All chemicals are used as received from the
108 manufacturer. Devices are all made with two pieces of ITO glass and the EC thickness is
109 determined by tape spacer.

110 *2.2. Characterization techniques*

111 Current-voltage characteristics in dark and under solar illumination are measured with an SMU
112 (Keithley 2400, USA) at room temperature in ambient conditions. The cells are illuminated
113 with a spectrally mismatch corrected intensity of 100 mW cm^{-2} (AM1.5g) provided by a sun
114 simulator (16 S-150 V.3 Solar Light Co., USA). The intensity is monitored with a Hamamatsu
115 S1337 silicon photodiode (calibrated by Fraunhofer ISE Freiburg, Germany).

116 EQE_{PV} measurements are taken using masks to minimize edge effects and to define an exact
117 photoactive area (2.78 mm^2). The EQE_{PV} is detected with a lock-in amplifier (Signal Recovery
118 SR 7265) under monochromatic illumination (Oriel Xe Arc-Lamp Apex Illuminator combined
119 with Cornerstone 260 1/4m monochromator, Newport, USA) using a calibrated mono-
120 crystalline silicon reference diode (Hamamatsu S1337 calibrated by Fraunhofer ISE, Germany).

121 Transmission and reflection spectra for transparent solar cells and electrochromic devices are
122 measured by Shimadzu UV-3100 and Shimadzu solid-spec 3700 spectrometers. In order to
123 measure the transmission spectra for transparent standard devices with an area of 6.44 mm^2 , a
124 mask is used to make sure that light pass through from the transparent active layer region only.

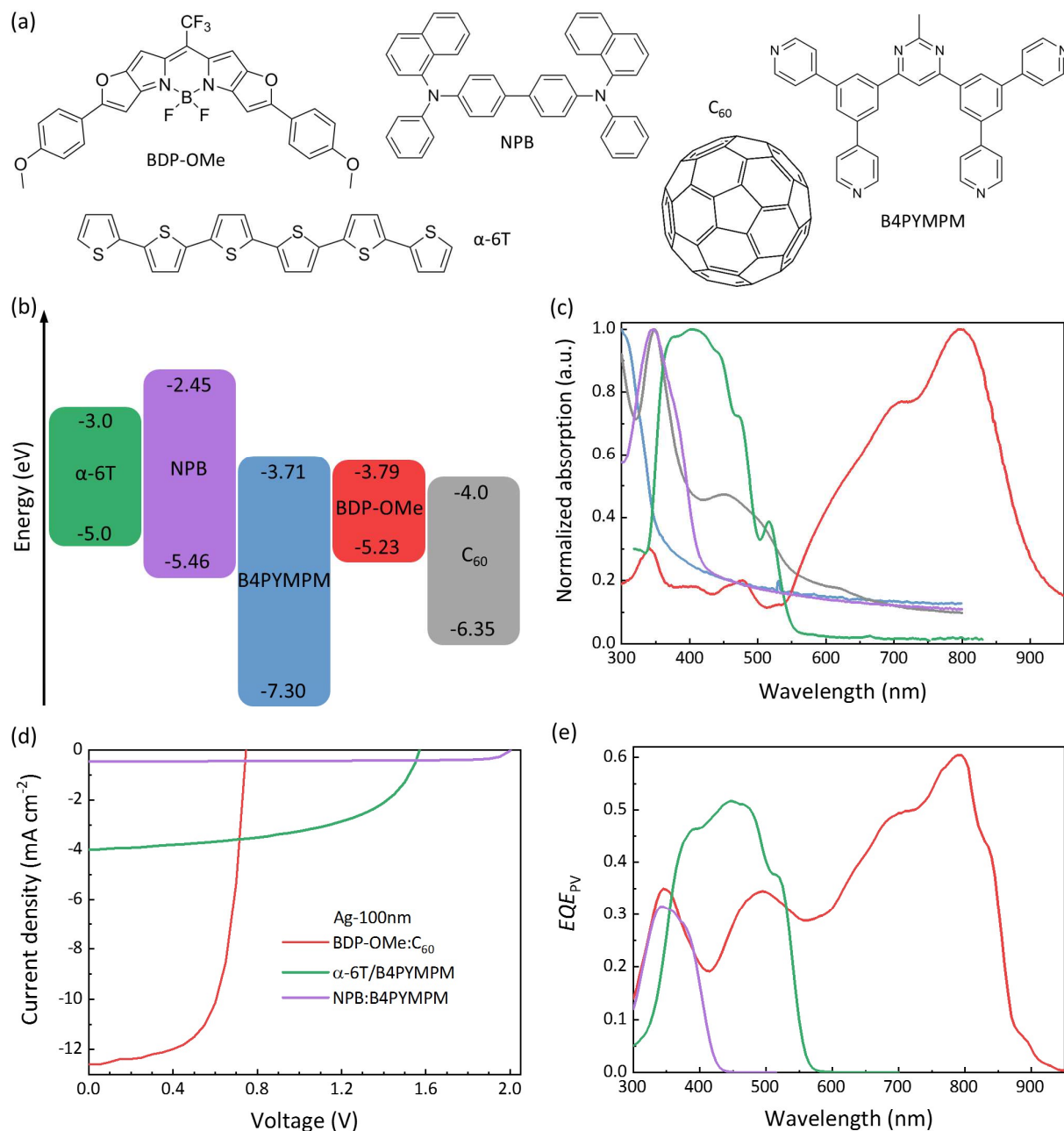
125 For large-area TSCs (2.52 cm^2), we measure transmission and reflection spectra in the range
126 between 300 to 2500 nm for the calculation of SHGC. In order to measure the transmission
127 spectra of EC devices at different applied voltages, the devices are mounted inside the UV-Vis
128 spectrometer while being wire-connected to an external power source, a Keithley 2602 SMU
129 or a transparent solar cells. With these spectra, CRI and CIE coordinates are calculated by
130 ColorCalculator software produced by OSRAM Sylvania, Inc. SHGC values are obtained by
131 utilizing the equations mentioned in Note S1.

132 **3. Results and discussion**

133 *3.1. Chemical structures and optoelectronic properties of small-molecule TSCs*

134 The transparent solar cells use combinations of electron-donating and electron-absorbing
135 materials whose chemical structures, energy levels, and absorption spectra are shown in Fig. 1.
136 The materials NPB and α -6T are utilized as electron donors. The ionization potential (IP) and
137 electron affinity (EA) levels of the high-gap material NPB are 5.46 and 2.45 eV respectively
138 [33], resulting in an absorption peak at around 347 nm as shown in Fig. 1c. The IP and EA of
139 α -6T are 5.0 and 3.0 eV respectively [34], with an optical gap around 2.0 eV and a relatively
140 broad absorption region from 330 to 550 nm (see Fig. 1c). The absorption of NPB is localized
141 in the UV region, while α -6T also absorbs visible light. B4PYMPM works as an electron
142 acceptor when combined with NPB or α -6T, lending to a subtle contribution to the light
143 absorption while providing interfaces with both donor materials which efficiently dissociate
144 excitons into free carriers [35]. For devices absorbing in the NIR, BDP-OMe is combined with
145 C_{60} . As a narrow-gap ($\sim 1.44 \text{ eV}$) small-molecule material shown in Fig. 1b, BDP-OMe has a

146 strong absorption peak at around 800 nm, making it a satisfactory NIR photon absorber. The
 147 absorption of BDP-OMe in the visible regions is quite weak, which is beneficial to the
 148 transmission of visible light.



149
 150 **Fig. 1.** (a) Chemical structures, (b) Energy levels, and (c) Normalized UV-Vis absorption
 151 spectra of the materials used in this work. The energy levels of α -6T [34], NPB [33],
 152 B4PYMPM [36], and C₆₀ [37] are obtained from the literature. (d) Current-density voltage (*J*-*V*)
 153 characteristics, and (e) Photovoltaic external quantum efficiency (*EQE*_{PV}) for solar cells with
 154 100 nm thick Ag electrodes. The area of the active layer of the studied solar cells is 6.44 mm².

155 3.2 Photovoltaic performance of TSCs

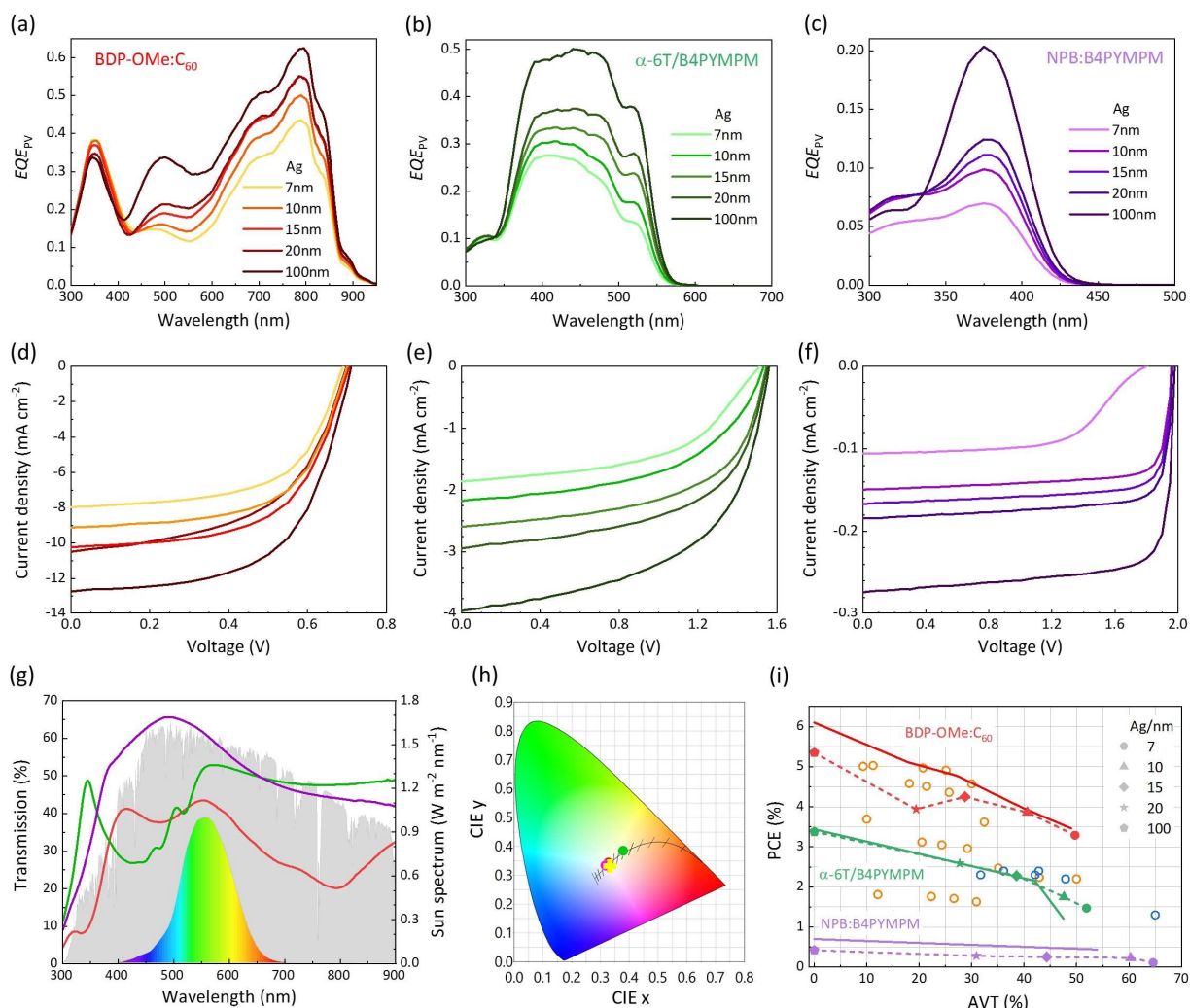
156 Current-voltage characteristics of bulk and planar heterojunction (BHJ/PHJ) solar cells are
157 measured under simulated solar intensity (AM 1.5g). Fig. 1d-e show the photovoltaic
158 performance of 6.44 mm² opaque solar cells with 100 nm-thick Ag electrodes. The photovoltaic
159 parameters, along with the performance of devices with various thicknesses of Ag electrodes,
160 are summarized in Figure S4 and Table S5. For the near-UV light-harvesting devices, open-
161 circuit voltages (V_{OC}) as high as 1.57 V and 2.00 V are achieved in the planar α -6T/B4PYMPM
162 and bulk NPB:B4PYMPM junction, with fill factors (FF) of 54.6% and 76.3%, respectively.
163 For the α -6T devices, a higher performance is obtained for planar junction than for bulk
164 heterojunction devices (Figure S2 and Table S2). Due to its higher external quantum efficiency
165 (EQE_{PV}), the performance of the α -6T device is superior to that of the NPB device, with a short-
166 circuit current density (J_{SC}) of 4.0 mA cm⁻² and a corresponding PCE of 3.44%. When the
167 thickness of the Ag electrode is reduced to 10 nm, to make the device transparent, the PCE of
168 α -6T/B4PYMPM and NPB:B4PYMPM decreases to 1.21% and 0.44%, respectively. This is
169 mainly due to the diminished J_{SC} from reduced absorption in the active layers, resulting from
170 the curtailed back reflection from the Ag top electrode. Interestingly, the V_{OC} of the device with
171 the reduced-thickness Ag electrode remains unaffected. For the BHJ NIR-absorbing solar cell,
172 BDP-OMe:C₆₀ has a dramatically enhanced J_{SC} of 12.58 mA cm⁻², which is consistent with both
173 its broad and high EQE_{PV} and the fact that the sunlight provides more photons in the spectral
174 region where this device has the strongest absorption. The PCE of this BDP-OMe containing
175 device reaches 6.10%, with a FF of 64.9% and a V_{OC} of 0.75 V. When the thickness of the Ag
176 electrode is reduced to 10 nm, the maximum EQE_{PV} drops to 48%, with a corresponding drop

177 in J_{SC} and PCE to 8.98 mA cm⁻² and 3.97%. However, the values for V_{OC} and FF remain nearly
178 unchanged. The stability of those devices is also very important. Recent reports confirmed that
179 organic solar cells have operation times of several years [38], in particular thermally evaporated
180 devices exhibit enhanced stability compared to their solution-processed competitor [39].

181 3.3 Scalability of NIR/UV-absorbing TSCs

182 In order to demonstrate the scalability of the vacuum deposition technique used for these TSCs,
183 devices with active areas above one square centimeter are fabricated. Fig. 2 shows the
184 photovoltaic characteristics as well as the transmission and reflection spectra of these enlarged
185 devices. The performance of BDP-OMe:C₆₀ device drops by around 10% when the active area
186 is raised from 6.44 mm² to 2.52 cm². This is mainly due to the slightly-lowered V_{OC} and FF ,
187 the latter of which may result from the increased resistance of the larger ITO electrode [40].
188 However, this effect is nearly absent in the α -6T/B4PYMPM devices. The PCE of large-area α -
189 6T-based opaque devices reaches 3.38 %, with a V_{OC} of 1.56 V, J_{SC} of 3.95 mA cm⁻², and FF of
190 54.9%, similar to the photovoltaic parameters of the small-area device. The V_{OC} and FF of the
191 NPB:B4PYMPM system remain unchanged when scaling up the device area to 2.52 cm², but
192 the J_{SC} decreases from 0.46 to 0.27 mA cm⁻², resulting in a PCE that is diminished to 0.42%.
193 When the thicknesses of Ag electrodes are minimized to achieve transparent devices, the
194 photovoltaic performance of TSCs is reduced mainly because of a loss of back reflection and
195 an increased sheet resistance of the Ag film [41]. Nevertheless, the efficiencies of both the BDP-
196 OMe- and α -6T-based devices remain adequate even with 10 nm-thick Ag electrodes: 3.86%
197 for BDP-OMe and 1.75% for α -6T. To the best of our knowledge, the FF of the

198 NPB:B4PYMPM system presented here, which reaches up to 77.7% in a device with an active
 199 area of 2.52 cm² and a 10 nm thick Ag film, is the highest value among reported transparent
 200 small-molecule solar cells [20,21,42,43].



201
 202 **Fig. 2.** Photovoltaic and optical performance of large-area (2.52 cm²) small-molecular solar cells with varied thickness of Ag. (a, b, c) Photovoltaic external quantum efficiency (EQE_{PV})
 203 and (d, e, f) Current density - voltage ($J-V$) characteristics. Pictures of those large-area samples
 204 are shown in Figure S5. (g) Transmission spectra for large-area transparent solar cells with 10
 205 nm thick Ag electrodes. The photopic response of the human eye is also shown in rainbow
 206 colors. (h) The international commission on illumination CIE 1931 (x, y) coordinates of the
 207 transmission spectra for all transparent solar cells with 10 nm thick Ag electrode. Red symbols
 208 represent the BDP-OMe:C₆₀ combination, green symbols represent α-6T/B4PYMPM devices,
 209 and purple symbols represent the NPB:B4PYMPM cells. The yellow cross represents the white
 210 light (0.333, 0.333). (i) PCE vs AVT plot for all investigated small-molecule solar cells. Solid
 211 lines indicate the performance of devices with a standard active-area of 6.44 mm², symbol-dash
 212 lines represent large-area devices. The reported transparent small-molecule solar cells
 213

214 processed via solution and thermal evaporation are shown in orange and blue open circles,
215 respectively [20–23].

216 3.4 Optical and thermal properties of TSCs

217 In addition to the photovoltaic performance, the amount of visible light and solar energy
218 transmitted through the TSC is ascertained by determining their AVT, color rendering index
219 (CRI), and solar heat gain coefficient (SHGC). The reflection and transmission spectra of
220 devices with transparent Ag electrodes are shown in Figure S6, and corresponding values for
221 the AVT, CRI, and SHGC are shown in Table 1. The AVT through the device is calculated
222 based on the transmission $T(\lambda)$ by the following formula [44]:

$$223 \quad \text{AVT} = \frac{\int_{390}^{830} T(\lambda)P(\lambda)S(\lambda)d(\lambda)}{\int_{390}^{830} P(\lambda)S(\lambda)d(\lambda)}, \quad (1)$$

224 where λ is the wavelength and $S(\lambda)$ is the solar spectrum (AM1.5g). The photopic spectral
225 luminous efficiency function $P(\lambda)$ describes the average spectral sensitivity of human vision in
226 regard to brightness [45].

227 The trends shown in Table 1 make it apparent that reducing the electrode thickness greatly
228 enhances the AVT. With a 10 nm thick Ag electrode, the AVT values for the two UV-absorbing
229 TSCs are excellent: 60.3% for NPB:B4PYMPM, and 47.6% for α -6T/B4PYMPM. The NIR-
230 absorbing combination BDP-OMe:C₆₀ has a decent AVT value of 40%, and has the highest PCE
231 (~ 4%) of the three devices. These BDP-OMe:C₆₀ devices show the best efficiency-to-AVT
232 trade-off, with performances that are comparable or superior to previously-reported results in
233 the field of transparent small-molecule solar cells in Fig. 2i [20–23]. Moreover, it has been
234 demonstrated that, when shifting the absorption peaks of molecules from visible to NIR region,

235 the reduction of PCE in order to get an equivalent AVT ($\sim 30\%$) is diminished from 25% to
 236 15% [20]. The main absorption peaks of our devices are not located in the visible region. As a
 237 result, this selectively UV/NIR-absorbing property makes the performance reduction of our
 238 devices smaller than devices that utilize non-selective absorbers as shown in Figure S7. These
 239 results indicate that selectively harvesting sunlight is one way to ameliorate the loss of
 240 performance in transparent solar cells.

241 **Table 1.** Photovoltaic and optical performance of large-area (2.52 cm^2) photovoltaic devices.

	Ag (nm)	V_{oc} (V)	J_{sc} (mA cm^{-2})	FF (%)	PCE (%)	AVT (%)	CRI	CIE 1931 (x, y)	SHGC
BDP-OMe: C_{60}	7	0.69	7.96	60.0	3.29	49.7	94	0.3398, 0.3505	0.46
	10	0.70	9.12	60.4	3.86	40.6	94	0.3274, 0.3430	0.37
	15	0.71	10.24	59.0	4.25	28.7	93	0.3112, 0.3303	0.28
	20	0.70	10.49	53.7	3.94	19.4	93	0.2974, 0.3171	0.22
	100	0.71	12.74	59.1	5.35				
α -6T/ B4PYMPM	7	1.51	1.86	52.0	1.47	51.9	95	0.3766, 0.3812	0.56
	10	1.53	2.17	52.6	1.75	47.6	93	0.3793, 0.3852	0.48
	15	1.55	2.59	56.8	2.28	38.6	90	0.3624, 0.3788	0.31
	20	1.55	2.94	56.7	2.59	27.7	89	0.3515, 0.3729	0.24
	100	1.56	3.95	54.9	3.38				
NPB: B4PYMPM	7	1.80	0.11	59.4	0.11	64.6	98	0.3329, 0.3404	0.60
	10	1.96	0.15	77.7	0.23	60.3	99	0.3179, 0.3338	0.47
	15	1.96	0.17	77.7	0.25	44.3	98	0.2980, 0.3188	0.33
	20	1.96	0.18	77.9	0.28	30.9	98	0.2821, 0.3024	0.24
	100	1.98	0.27	77.3	0.42				

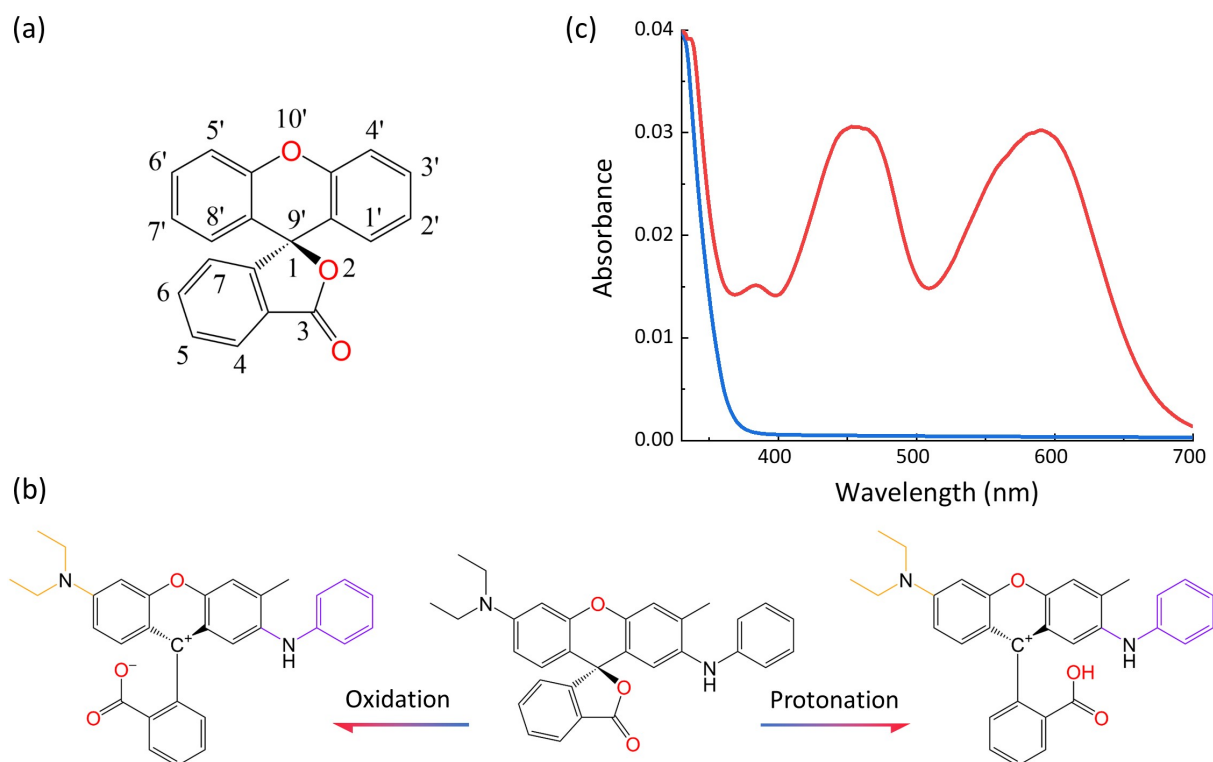
242 The CRI is a parameter used to quantitatively describe how accurately a light source or
 243 transparent medium reproduces the color of a given object, in comparison with the same object
 244 illuminated by an ideal light source (e.g. AM 1.5g) [46]. A CRI of 100 would indicate perfect
 245 color reproduction. All three of the transparent devices presented here have excellent CRI
 246 values, over 93 in the case of devices with 10 nm thick electrodes, indicating remarkable color-
 247 rendering qualities. The CIE 1931 (x, y) coordinates of transmission spectra for the transparent

248 BDP-OMe:C₆₀ and NPB:B4PYMPM devices approach those of the solar spectrum as the Ag
249 electrode becomes thinner (Figure S6).

250 In addition to their optical properties, the amount of solar heat energy our TSCs are able to
251 transmit is also significant for BIPV applications. The SHGC, whose value ranges from 0 to 1,
252 is a parameter that can be used to assess the thermal transfer properties of TSCs [47]. The higher
253 a window's SHGC, the more solar energy it can transmit [48]. The SHGC values for all of our
254 TSCs are strongly correlated with the thickness of the Ag electrode, devices with thinner
255 electrodes have higher SHGC values. The NIR-absorbing BDP-OMe:C₆₀ cells are the best at
256 blocking incoming heat, as evidenced by their relatively low SHGC figures compared to the
257 UV-absorbing cells. Its SHGC values are less affected by the reduction in electrode thickness
258 than those for UV-absorbing α -6T/B4PYMPM and NPB:B4PYMPM, which stems from the
259 ability of BDP-OMe:C₆₀ to convert more long-wavelength light into electricity than the UV
260 absorbing-devices, thereby reducing the amount of solar energy allowed into the indoor
261 environment. This heat-blocking ability makes BDP-OMe:C₆₀-based devices best suited for use
262 in hot climates, as they can help reducing electricity consumption due to air conditioning [49].
263 The near UV-absorbing solar cells have a lower heat-blocking ability, indicated by their higher
264 SHGCs. These values go up to 60%, which is comparable to a typical double-glazed window
265 (> 60%) [50]. This would make devices based on α -6T/B4PYMPM and NPB:B4PYMPM more
266 appropriate for cooler areas, since they help preserving heat by allowing more NIR light to pass
267 through, thereby keeping the room warm [49].

268 *3.5 Electrochromic devices*

269 Organic EC materials have been used in a variety of applications, including self-dimming
 270 mirrors and goggles [51], displays [52], and electrochromic e-skins [53]. The organic EC
 271 technology described here has distinctive properties, offering a superior on-off contrast ratio
 272 along with a low-cost, solution-based fabrication process [30]. Instead of metal oxide layers,
 273 the color-switching medium consists of a dye-containing liquid that changes from invisible to
 274 black by either electrochemical oxidation or an acid/base reaction [54]. The device itself runs
 275 on a low DC voltage that can be provided by the transparent solar cells described in the previous
 276 section. The combination of TSCs with ECs offers a promising option for sustainable light and
 277 temperature control in residential or office buildings [55].

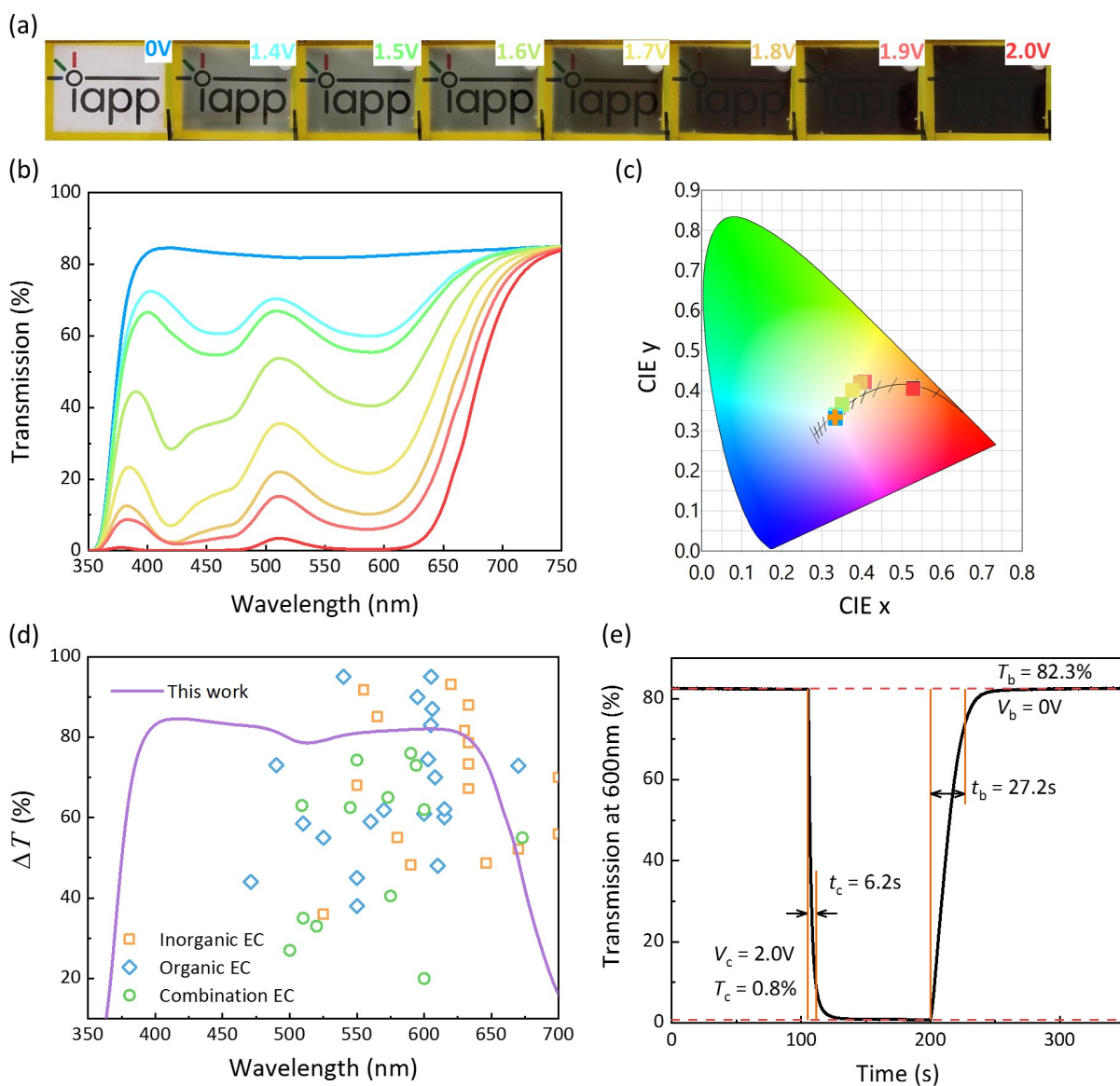


278
 279 **Fig. 3.** Properties and coloration mechanism of fluoran dye. (a) The core structure of a fluoran
 280 dye molecule. (b) The transparent, closed-ring molecule can be switched to black by either
 281 oxidation (left) or protonation (right). (c) Absorption spectra of black fluoran dye in its
 282 transparent (blue curve) and its darkened states (red curve). The black color stems from the
 283 absorption in the whole visible light range, in particular two absorption peaks, one in the violet
 284 and one in the yellow region, each of which is associated with separate functional groups

285 attached to the fluoran dye core. In the case of black fluoran dye, the groups are attached to the
286 6' and 2' positions [56].

287 The electrochromic pigment utilized here belongs to the family of fluoran dyes. Fluoran dyes
288 all share the same core molecular structure as shown in Fig. 3a, and the final color is determined
289 by the type and position of functional groups attached to the core [56]. Switching these dyes
290 from transparent to colored is done by cleaving the lactone ring, specifically the bond between
291 9' and 2 positions. Breaking this bond changes the hybridization of the spiro-carbon from sp^3
292 to sp^2 , extending the conjugated π -electron system and shifting the HOMO-LUMO level into
293 the visible range [49,57]. This bond-breaking coloration mechanism comes about in our devices
294 via a combination of two different pathways, depicted in Fig. 3b. One is by electrochemical
295 oxidation, wherein coloration occurs upon exposure of the dissolved dye to an electric field
296 [30]. In our devices, this happens by diffusion of the dye molecules to the working electrode.
297 The other coloration pathway is via direct protonation in a Bronsted-Lowry acid/base reaction,
298 where a free H^+ ion binds with the oxygen atom in the lactone ring, thereby breaking the C-O
299 bond and extending the molecule's π -conjugation [58,59]. The free H^+ ions in our devices come
300 from the oxidation of hydroquinone at the working electrode, which creates benzoquinone and
301 H^+ ions. The bleaching of this device occurs by the inverse of the coloration process.
302 Electrochemical reduction and/or deprotonation of the dye molecule closes the lactone ring and
303 resets the dye to its transparent state. Interestingly, this bleaching can happen at either a negative
304 or a neutral bias. The bleaching at 0 V is much slower than at negative bias, because at neutral
305 bias the molecules have to diffuse all the way to the counter-electrode for reduction and
306 deprotonation. At a negative bias, these processes occur directly at the working electrode, so
307 there is no additional wait for diffusion time [30].

308 A black-hued fluoran dye was chosen for our devices, in part for its excellent optical qualities,
309 and also because it is easily obtained and for example already used ubiquitously in thermal
310 paper (e.g., printed receipts) [56]. The dye's black color stems from the combination of
311 absorption throughout the visible wavelengths in addition to two maxima, found in the yellow
312 and in the violet wavelengths (see Fig. 3c). One maximum occurring around 450 nm is
313 associated with the anilino functional group at the 2' position, and imparts a violet color. The
314 other maximum around 600 nm comes from the alkyl functional group at the 6' position, giving
315 a yellow color. The absorption over the whole visible region, presenting in particular two
316 maxima in the yellow and violet region, results in a black hue.[56,60]



317
 318 **Fig. 4.** Electrochromic device performances. (a) Photographs and (b) Transmission spectra of
 319 a 70 μm -thick EC device held at the same voltage levels as in (a). A Keithley 2602 SMU is
 320 used to apply voltages to the EC device and to manipulate its transmission properties. (c) The
 321 CIE 1931 (x, y) coordinates of the device in each state when holding voltage changes from 0V
 322 to 2V stepwise. Different colors indicate varied turn-on voltages. The coordinate of the solar
 323 spectrum as a reference is shown as an orange cross. (d) Comparison of transmission difference
 324 (ΔT) between bleached state and darkened state in various types of EC devices. Details can be
 325 found in Table S6. (e) Bleaching and coloration times of the EC device extracted for a 90% of
 326 transmission change, from which the calculation of the coloration efficiency is shown in Note
 327 S2.

328 Fabrication of an EC device from dihydroxybenzene and fluoran dye involves simply
 329 dissolving the components in a solvent along with an electrolyte salt, then sealing the resulting
 330 liquid between two sheets of ITO glass. Fig. 4a shows a 70 μm -thick EC device operated by

331 applying a DC voltage (1.4-2.0 V) to switch the color from clear to deep black, the transmission
332 spectra of which are shown in Fig. 4b. The transmission in the unbiased off-state is very high
333 throughout the visible wavelengths, with an AVT of 82.2%. The fully opaque on-state transmits
334 very little light, with an AVT of 1.7%. Moreover, as shown in Fig. 4d, a high contrast ratio of
335 over 80% can be obtained in the range of 390 to 640 nm, which is comparable or higher than
336 those of commercially available EC smart windows [32]. This EC device can also offer varying
337 shades of black that still allow a portion of visible light to filter through, depending on the initial
338 amount of applied voltage. For a less-intense shade of black, one only needs to use a switching
339 voltage lower than 2 V. A noticeable variance between shades can be seen with about a 0.1 V
340 difference in switching potential. Lighter shades are achieved by applying switching potentials
341 of 1.4-1.6 V, and darker shades come from switching at 1.7-1.9 V. The color quality for each
342 of the states is represented in the CIE (x, y) coordinate plot in Fig. 4c. The EC device in the
343 fully-transparent state has coordinates of (0.333, 0.331), very close to those of the solar
344 spectrum. This indicates that the device in the off-state has a very clear and neutral color quality
345 which is further evidenced by the CRI value of 94 shown in Table S7.

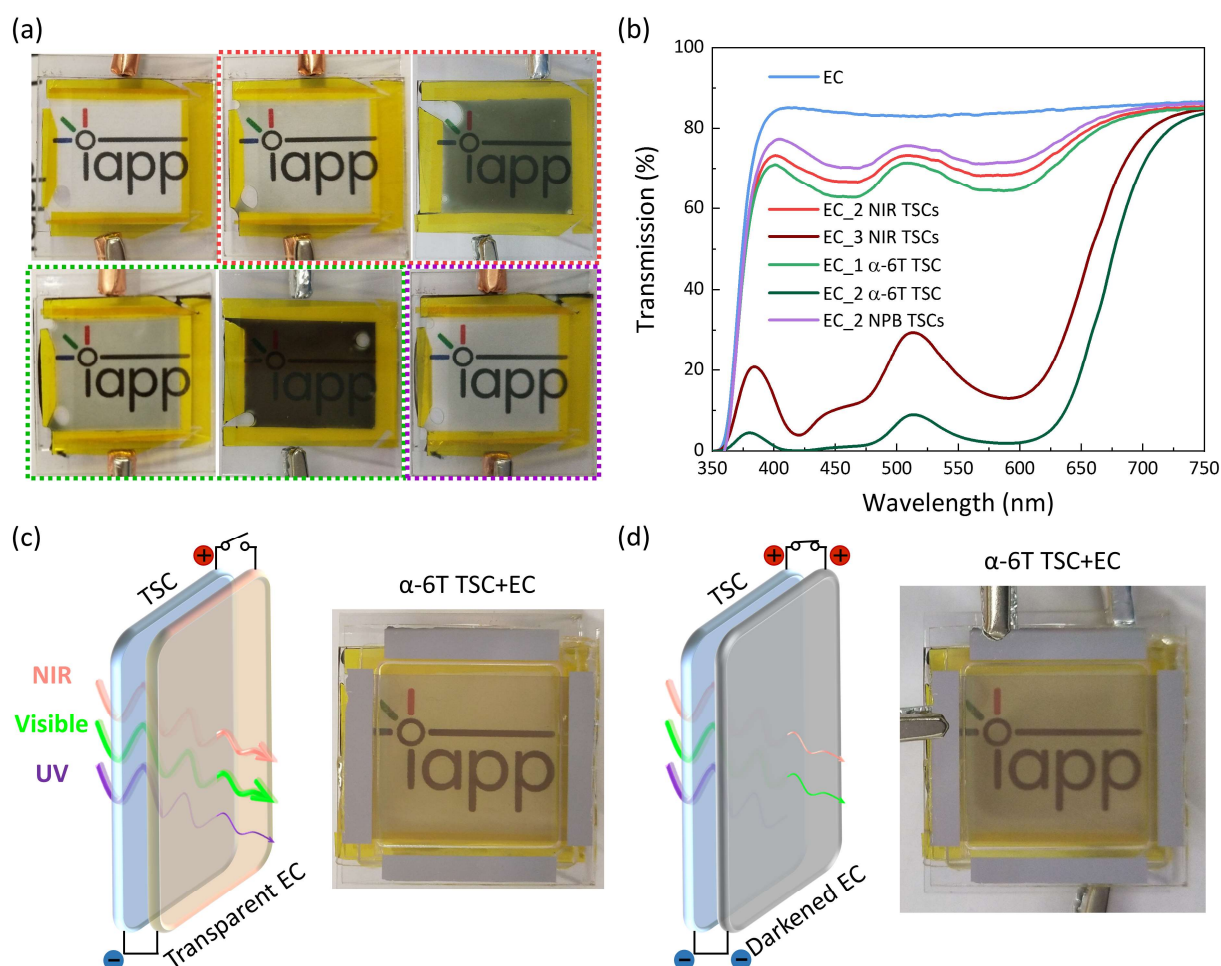
346 In addition to the contrast ratio between bleached and colored states, switching speed and
347 coloration efficiency are two important metrics to evaluate the performance of EC devices [27].
348 The switching on and off times for 90% transmission change are extracted, as shown in Fig. 4e.
349 Upon applying a driving voltage of 2.0 V, the EC device needs a coloration time (t_c) of 6.2 s to
350 reach a darkened state. However, since no reversed voltage is applied to revert the EC device
351 back to a transparent state, the bleaching time (t_b) is longer, 27.2 s. It is worth noticing that a
352 negative bias can indeed speed up the bleaching process: the t_b is decreased to 11.2 s when an

353 -1 V bias is applied (see Figure S8). The coloration efficiency represents the change in
354 transmission contrast divided by charges consumed per unit of active EC area [7,61]. Compared
355 to inorganic EC devices which have coloration efficiencies in the range of 19 to 133 cm² C⁻¹
356 [5,7,27], the coloration efficiency of our organic EC device is excellent and can reach up to
357 147.6 cm² C⁻¹ when its 90% optical density change is achieved. About the stability of our EC
358 devices, several works report that similar fluoran dye based devices exhibit transmittances of
359 bleached and colored states losses below 10% even after 12,000 cycles [30,62,63].

360 *3.6 Self-powered electrochromic smart window*

361 We demonstrate now the capability of TSCs to power EC devices in order to manipulate their
362 transmission state. Photographs of EC and EC driven by TSCs are shown in Fig. 5a, and
363 corresponding transmission spectra and calculated optical parameters are shown in Fig. 5b and
364 Table S8. Because its output voltage at the maximum power point is ~ 0.55 V, NIR-absorbing
365 TSCs need to be series-connected to get sufficient voltage to drive the EC device. As shown in
366 Fig. 5a, two series-connected NIR TSCs can only partly dim the EC, while three NIR devices
367 are able to make the transmission change very distinct with AVT and CRI reduced from 82.2%
368 to 19.7% and 93 to 73, respectively. Conversely, NPB-containing TSCs need a parallel
369 connection to produce enough current to make the coloration reaction in the EC device happen.
370 The power density of a single large-area α -6T TSCs under 1 sun intensity is sufficient to drive
371 the EC device because the energy consumption of the EC device is as low as 2.7 W m⁻² when
372 it is held at 1.6 V as shown in Figure S9. The low energy dissipation of the organic EC makes
373 the self-powered TSC+EC stack possible. The aforementioned stack is made by combining a

374 2.52 cm² α -6T containing TSC with a 70 μ m-thick EC device with an area of 2.85 cm². After
 375 illumination, the transmission of the organic EC is lowered as shown in Fig. 5d. It is worth to
 376 note that the EC can be tuned to a deep darkened state when two series-connected 6T TSCs are
 377 employed (see Fig. 5a), which indicates that with the help of well-designed circuit and other
 378 electric elements such as resistors, the photovoltaic-powered, transmission-tunable
 379 electrochromic window is indeed possible. This self-powered TSC+EC stack has great potential
 380 to replace the most common double-glazed windows due to its feasibility in large-scale
 381 manufacturing, easy installation, and energy-saving and sunlight-manipulating properties.



382
 383 **Fig. 5.** Performance of electrochromic device driven by transparent solar cells. (a) The top left
 384 shows an EC device at transparent state, the top right shows the EC powered by two or three
 385 series-connected BDP-OMe:C₆₀ NIR TSCs respectively (red box) as demonstrated in Figure
 386 S10. The EC charged by one or two α -6T/B4PYMPPM TSCs are shown on the bottom left in a

387 green box and on the bottom right by two parallel-connected NPB:B4PYMPM TSCs, shown in
388 a purple box. The illumination intensity for all the TSCs is ~ 1 sun. (b) Corresponding
389 transmission spectra of the EC device manipulated by TSCs. (c) Schematic illustration of
390 electrochromic smart window connected with transparent solar cells as a promising alternative
391 to traditional double-glazed windows. The front view of the real stack of α -6T/B4PYMPM and
392 EC is shown on the right. (d) Schematic illustration and real self-powered TSC+EC stack at the
393 darkened state.

394 **4. Conclusion**

395 We have demonstrated a promising combination of transparent large-area (2.52 cm^2) small-
396 molecule solar cells with a low-cost, solution-processed organic electrochromic device. Our
397 UV-TSCs exhibit ample AVT and excellent color quality as well as high photovoltage ($>1.5 \text{ V}$).
398 The NIR-harvesting blend BDP-OMe:C₆₀ shows a PCE of $\sim 4\%$ with an AVT of $\sim 40\%$, which
399 are superior compared with reported small molecule based TSCs. UV/NIR TSCs in series or
400 parallel connection are able to drive fluoran-based EC devices and to manipulate its AVT from
401 82.2% to 1.7% . Our results show that UV/NIR selectively absorbing TSCs are good candidates
402 for power-generating windows without sacrificing the transmission of visible light. The EC
403 device's remarkable on/off contrast ratio and adjustable transmission properties make these
404 suitable for controlling the indoor climate, which is important to realize smart energy-efficient
405 buildings. We hope this work will inspire more efforts into the synthesis of high-efficiency,
406 selectively absorbing, PV materials, and more advanced techniques to enlarge the area of TSCs
407 over 1 m^2 without significant performance reduction.

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413

414 **Author contributions**

415 X.J., D.S., and K.V. designed the experiments, prepared photovoltaic devices, and optimized
416 their performance. X.J. performed the J-V and EQE measurements for all solar cells. E.C.B.
417 and X.J. prepared electrochromic devices and performed UV-Vis measurements for EC devices;
418 X.J. did this measurement for transparent solar cells. J.B-N., S.R., K.V., and D.S. supervised
419 their team members involved in this project. X.J. and E.C.B. wrote the manuscript. All authors
420 contributed to the critical analysis of the findings and the revision of the manuscript. D.S
421 supervised the overall project.

422

423 **Competing interests**

424 The authors declare no competing interests.

425

426 **References**

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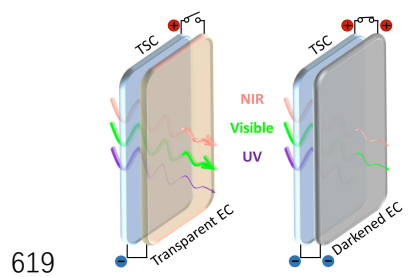
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618 TOC Graphic:



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621 **Highlights**

- 622 • A prototype of a self-powered electrochromic smart window is demonstrated, which can
623 dynamically modulate the sunlight transmission.
- 624 • Selectively UV-harvesting transparent solar cells (TSCs) show respectable average visible-
625 light transmission (AVT, ~ 50-65%) and offer high photovoltages (1.5-2.0 V) to drive
626 electrochromic devices.
- 627 • NIR-absorbing TSCs with an area of 2.52 cm² exhibit an efficiency of ~ 4% and an AVT
628 of ~ 40%, which is the highest performance among reported small-molecule-based TSCs.
- 629 • High contrast ratio of electrochromic device over 80% in the range of 390 to 640 nm.