



Unprecedented facile approach of multiple amino-substituted triphenylamine derivatives for electrochromic devices with extremely high coloration efficiency and unexpected redox stability

Yu-Jen Shao¹, Min-Hsiu Tu¹, Guey-Sheng Liou

Institute of Polymer Science and Engineering, National Taiwan University, No. 1, Sec. 4, Roosevelt Rd., Taipei 10617, Taiwan

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ABSTRACT

Generally, the amino group is considered highly reactive and unstable. Thus, the amino derivatives would be entirely consumed by polymerization or end-capping to preserve the material stability in most research or application fields. Herein, we demonstrated that triphenylamine (TPA) with multiple *para*-amino substituents could reduce oxidation potential and provide extra oxidation sites while retaining their reversibility. Four *para*-amino-substituted TPA derivatives (TPA-1N, TPA-2N, TPA-3N, and TPA-ADM) designed and prepared in this study exhibited excellent stability under the electrochemical redox procedure, revealing more than 88% reversibility in the continuous cyclic voltammetry process up to 10,000 cycles. Among all the electrochromic devices, TPA-3N/HV performs the highest coloration efficiency ($631 \text{ cm}^2/\text{C}$), coloration speed ($46.4 \% \text{ s}^{-1}$), and superior stability, manifesting a reversibility of 99% or 98% after 1000 cycles (switching) or 10 h (maintaining at coloring state), respectively.

1. Introduction

The electrochromic (EC) materials present a reversible change in the optical properties under an applied voltage [1]. In general, the transition of the colors includes the bleached and the colored states and is utilized in smart windows, anti-glare glass, and transparent displays nowadays [2–5]. To optimize the EC devices (ECDs), the EC materials must possess fast response speed, high contrast ratio, low driving voltage, and long-term stability [6–9]. Coordination metal complexes, consisting of transition metal ions and small molecular ligands, and transition metal oxides are two common approaches for preparing EC materials. The combination of different metal ions and ligands can generate a range of colors during the redox process controlled by the gap of MLCT [10–14]. Besides, metal oxides such as WO_3 and NiO also have been widely used and further developed for multi-metal oxide-containing materials to study their electrochromic behaviors [15,16]. Meanwhile, the small organic molecules are also attractive to the researchers owing to their nature, ease of preparation, lower oxidation potentials, higher neutral state transmittance, and shorter response time [17–19]. Viologen is a typical cathodic EC material for small organic molecules [20–22]. After the reduction from the colorless dication, the cation radical exhibits intense color due to the intrinsic intramolecular charge transfer [23].

TPA derivatives have been considered one of the appropriate EC materials with high performance and superior electrochemical stability [24]. After an electron is removed from the lone pair of the nitrogen center in the TPA molecule, the propeller-shaped structure flattens and transforms to higher conjugated conformation with the characteristic absorption peaks generated at the visible light region [25]. Modified by different substituents or functional moieties, the optoelectronic properties of the TPA derivatives would be tunable and diversified [26,27]. Several methods have been reported to enhance the EC properties of the TPA derivatives. Electron-donating groups (EDGs), such as methoxy and methyl groups, are commonly decorated to the *para*-position of the TPA molecule [17,18,28–30]. The electron-donating ability of these EDGs could effectively reduce the oxidation potential, and the *para*-orientated substituents prevent the dimerization of the TPA derivatives, resulting in enhanced redox stability. A mixed-valence chromophore could lower not only the first oxidation potential of the molecules but also enrich the EC behaviors of more oxidation states. Consequently, by adding electroactive substituents such as dimethylamino, diphenylamino, and triphenylamine moieties, the conjugated connection between the TPA unit and the additional redox-active sites results in the mixed-valence system [17,26]. Moreover, a photoexcited electron transfer happens from the extra neutral nitrogen center to the TPA radical cation center, resulting

E-mail address: gслиou@ntu.edu.tw (G.-S. Liou).

¹ The authors contributed equally.

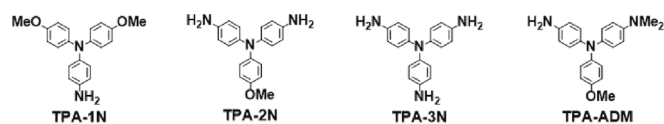
in the intervalence charge-transfer (IV-CT) absorption band at the NIR region [31,32]. Other than the substituent mentioned above, the amino substituent is an influential electron-donating group that inclines to oxidize under externally applied potential. Thus, the unprotected amino substituents are considered unstable and deteriorate quickly. Consequently, the amino-substituted EC materials would be prepared as polymers or other functionalized small molecular derivatives to preserve durability in most studies [33–36]. Nevertheless, after the procedures of the amidization or imidization to obtain polyamides or polyimides, the amino groups lose the original capability of further oxidation, sacrificing the electrochemical behavior of the additional oxidation sites.

A couple of amino-substituted TPA derivatives as the monomers used to prepare the corresponding electroactive polymers in previous studies [37–39]. However, these monomers would be potentially remarkable EC materials with lower oxidation potential and extra redox-active sites from the amino groups. Moreover, the preparation of the ECDs could be simplified without the polymerization procedure. In 2005, our group investigated the electrochemical properties of a series of *para*-amino-substituted TPA derivatives, revealing the practical electron-donating ability and providing additional active sites for further oxidation [40]. However, more detailed insight behaviors have not been elucidated yet. Herein, we demonstrate that the *para*-amino-substituted TPA derivatives can possess remarkable stability for the long-term requirement. In Scheme 1, TPA-1N, TPA-2N, and TPA-3N were designed and prepared to compare the correlation between the number of amino substituents and the EC behaviors. In addition, one of the amino substituents was modified to a dimethylamino group in TPA-ADM; the more stable and effective electron-donating ability results in enhanced EC performance than TPA-2N. Compared with the traditional work that connected several TPA units at *para*-orientation [17,41], this study provides a much more straightforward method to prepare the electrochromophores with multi-oxidation states. Moreover, the high optical contrast ratio, fast switching response speed, low oxidation potential, and long-term stability of these *para*-amino-substituted TPA derivatives confirm this facile and feasible approach for fabricating more efficient ECDs.

2. Results and discussion

2.1. Monomer synthesis and characterization

To realize the correlation among the number of amino-substituents, stability, and EC performance, four *para*-amino-substituted TPA were synthesized and investigated in this study. TPA-1N, TPA-2N, and TPA-3N were prepared according to the previous reports [17,42,43]. The detailed synthesis procedures of the new compound, TPA-ADM, are described in Supporting Information. The precursor nitro derivative TPA-NDM was obtained via Ullmann condensation between 4-bromoanisole and 4-dimethylamino-4'-nitrodiphenylamine. After the following Pd/C catalyzed reduction, TPA-ADM was successfully synthesized. The characterizations of TPA-NDM and TPA-ADM were confirmed by IR and NMR spectroscopies and illustrated in Figs. S1–S11. In Fig. S1, TPA-NDM showed the characteristic absorption of NO₂ stretching peaks at 1589 and 1309 cm⁻¹. After hydrogenation, the peaks of NO₂ stretching disappeared, and the generated NH₂ peaks for the stretching and bending characteristic absorption could be observed at 3433 and 3330 cm⁻¹, and 1632 cm⁻¹, respectively. The peak assignment of ¹H–¹H COSY and ¹H–¹³C HSQC spectra confirmed the excellent



Scheme 1. Four designed and prepared *para*-amino-substituted TPA derivatives in this study.

agreement with the expected structures. The detailed characterization was illustrated in the Experiment Section of Supporting Information.

2.2. Electrochemical and spectroelectrochemical properties

The electrochemical properties of TPA-1N, TPA-2N, TPA-3N, and TPA-ADM were investigated by cyclic voltammetry (CV) and spectroelectrochemistry conducted with the optically transparent thin-layer electrochemical (OTTLE) containing 0.5 μmol of TPAs in 1 mL of anhydrous γ -butyrolactone (GBL) and 0.1 M tetra-*n*-butylammonium perchlorate (TBAP) as the supporting electrolyte under nitrogen atmosphere. The CV diagrams of these four TPA derivatives are depicted in Fig. 1 and Figs. S12–S15, and the results are summarized in Table 1. TPA-3N showed the lowest first oxidation peaks at 0.34 V, which referred to the most substantial electron-donating ability and the resonance effect of IV-CT among the TPA center and three amino groups. With the continuous increase of applied potential, TPA-3N exhibited the second and third oxidation peaks at 0.73 and 1.73 V, indicating the extra redox active sites generated by the amino substituents. However, the excessive applied potential made the third oxidation unstable and irreversible. Therefore, the electrochemical and electrochromic studies would focus on the first two oxidation states for these TPA derivatives. In Fig. 1, the oxidation potential peaks of these TPA derivatives revealed identical sequences as the number of amino groups (TPA-1N: 0.52/0.98 V; TPA-2N: 0.43/0.79 V; TPA-3N: 0.34/0.73 V), indicating that TPA-3N is more energy efficient with the lowest driving potential. Besides, by changing one of the amino substituents to the dimethylamino group, TPA-ADM displayed lower oxidation potentials at 0.38 and 0.73 V compared to TPA-2N, implying the more vital electron-donating ability of dimethylamino substituent. The reversibility of these TPA derivatives was also evaluated by the anodic and cathodic peak current ratio ($i_{p,a}/i_{p,c}$) [44], and the values revealed all close to 1, representing good reversibility at the first two oxidation states. Comparing the ratio of TPA-1N, TPA-2N, and TPA-3N, the value of TPA-3N is the closest to 1. The enhancement of the reversibility could be ascribed to the stabilized effect from the IV-CT between more active sites [32]. With more amino substituents joined to the conjugated system, the decay of the cation radical stability from the corresponding TPA derivatives could be inhibited.

The spectroelectrochemistry measurements of TPAs in the UV–Vis–NIR region are illustrated in Figs. S12–S15. The results revealed that TPA-1N, TPA-2N, TPA-3N, and TPA-ADM exhibited their characteristic absorption peaks at 301, 304, 309, and 307 nm in the neutral state, respectively, due to the increasing electron-donating ability (TPA-1N < TPA-2N < TPA-ADM < TPA-3N), resulting in a redshift of the absorption peaks. For TPA-1N, as the applied potential increased to the first oxidation state of 0.7 V, four new characteristic peaks appeared at 367, 587, 713, and 794 nm, while the intensity of the original peak in the neutral state (301 nm) decreased. According to the previous study, the absorption spectrum for the trimethoxy-substituted TPA (TPA-3OMe, without additional effective redox-active sites) cation radical manifested three characteristic peaks at 386, 619, and 724 nm [45]. In comparison, for TPA-1N, the absorption peaks at 367 nm and two shoulders at 587 and 713 nm should belong to the absorption of the TPA cation radical, indicating that the first electron removal should occur on the TPA nitrogen center. Moreover, a new prominent absorption peak appeared at 794 nm, implying the intensive IV-CT absorption between the TPA center and amino substituent, similar to the previous reports [46]. When the potential increased to the second oxidation state (1.1 V), the peaks at 367, 713, and 794 nm would decrease, while the intensity raised at the height of 587 nm attributed to the primary absorption of dication [TPA-1N]²⁺. For TPA-2N and TPA-3N, as the applied potential increased to the first oxidation state (0.6 V), TPA-2N exhibited the first oxidation peaks at 376 and 882 nm, while TPA-3N showed the first oxidation peaks at 387 and 851 nm. These two TPA derivatives displayed their IV-CT bands with longer wavelengths in the NIR region than TPA-1N, indicating the effect of donating ability from the additional amino

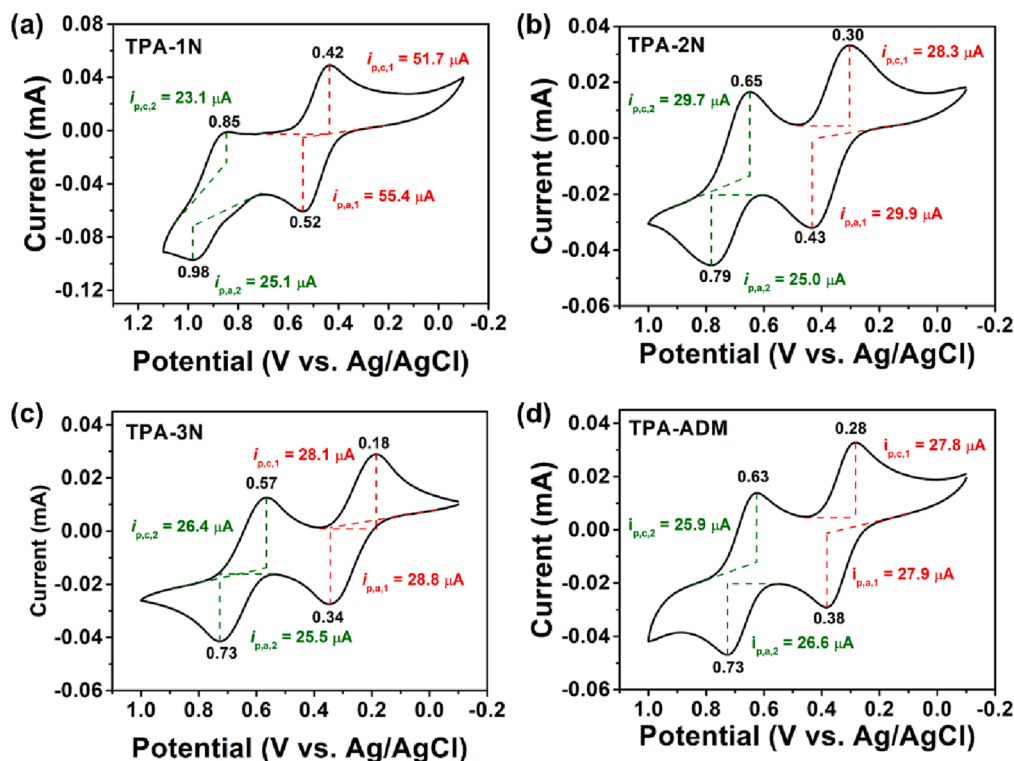


Fig. 1. Cyclic voltammograms of (a) TPA-1N, (b) TPA-2N, (c) TPA-3N, and (d) TPA-ADM conducted with platinum net in OTTLE cell at a scan rate of 50 mV/s. (sample amount: $0.5 \mu\text{mol}$ (5×10^{-4} M) in 1 mL of 0.1 M TBAP/GBL).

Table 1

The oxidation potential of TPAs of the first two oxidation states.

Index	1st oxidation state			2nd oxidation state		
	$E_{p,a}$ [V] _a	$E_{p,c}$ [V] _b	$i_{p,a}/i_{p,c}$ _c	$E_{p,a}$ [V] _a	$E_{p,c}$ [V] _b	$i_{p,a}/i_{p,c}$ _c
TPA-1N	0.52	0.42	1.07	0.98	0.85	1.08
TPA-2N	0.43	0.30	1.06	0.79	0.65	0.84
TPA-3N	0.34	0.18	1.02	0.73	0.57	0.97
TPA-ADM	0.38	0.28	1.00	0.73	0.63	1.03

^a Anodic peak potential (oxidation). ^b Cathodic peak potential (reduction). ^c Peak current ratio, $i_{p,a}/i_{p,c} = 1$ for reversible redox system.

substituents. When the potential raised to the second oxidation potential of TPA-2N (0.9 V), two new characteristic peaks appeared at 602 and 734 nm, while the absorption intensity of the IV-CT band at 882 nm retained near the same value. The phenomenon might indicate that IV-CT is preserving between the two oxidized centers and the remaining neutral one. After fully oxidized, the IV-CT bands at 882 nm disappeared, and two characteristic peaks at 602 and 734 nm enhanced to higher values. Comparing the absorptions for the second and third oxidation states of TPA-1N, TPA-2N, and TPA-3N, we found that the absorbance and the wavelength increased as the number of amino substituents increased. Therefore, the amino group played a vital auxochrome role in enhancing absorption. TPA-ADM showed the characteristic peaks of first oxidation at 378 and 951 nm. Replacing the original amino substituent with a dimethyl amino group should typically cause the large redshift and board absorption band at 951 nm of IV-CT because the resonance structures would be more stable. Thus, the cation radical delocalized between the TPA center and dimethylamino group rather than the amino substituent. Because of the intensive mix-valance ability between the dimethylamino group and TPA center nitrogen, the second oxidation should be located on the amino group, creating a strong absorption peak at 747 nm. When the applied potential raised to

the third oxidation, the absorption band of IV-CT at 951 nm diminished while the absorption peak at 747 nm was maintained at the same absorbance. The optical parameters of these amino-substituted TPAs are summarized in Table S1. In addition, the extinction coefficient of the prepared TPAs in the NIR region (ϵ_{NIR}) revealed that the value would increase from $14.0 \times 10^3 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ to $29.7 \times 10^3 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ as the more amino substituents in the TPA unit. TPA-ADM exhibited higher ϵ_{NIR} and $\epsilon_{\text{visible}}$ values than TPA-2N at the first and second oxidation states due to the strong resonance between the non-oxidized dimethylamino group and oxidized TPA cation radical. Upon the third oxidation state, TPA-2N would show much higher ϵ_{NIR} and $\epsilon_{\text{visible}}$ values to TPA-ADM, implying that the oxidized dimethylamino group attributed less absorbance than the oxidized amino group. Interestingly, TPA-3N revealed the highest ϵ value either in visible or NIR region at each oxidation state when compared to the others, implying that the TPA chromophores would possess high contrast just by introducing more amino groups even in low concentration.

2.3. Redox kinetics of TPAs

To further clarify the correlation between the molecular dynamics and amino groups, the kinetic studies of TPAs were used to calculate the diffusion coefficient (D , $\text{cm}^2 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) by Randles-Sevcik equation [47]. To estimate the D of the TPAs, a series of CV measurements with different scan rates were conducted, as illustrated in Fig. S16. The obtained peak current i_p was plotted with the square root of scan rate ($\nu^{0.5}$), and the linear regression slope gives the value of $i_p - \nu^{0.5}$, which could be converted to diffusion coefficient (D). The high linearity of the plots of $i_p - \nu^{0.5}$ suggested a diffusion-controlled reaction for the redox process [48]. The calculated diffusion coefficients (D) are summarized in Table S2. TPA-3N revealed the highest diffusion coefficient among all the TPA derivatives ($D_a = 9.65 \times 10^{-7} \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$, $D_c = 6.25 \times 10^{-7} \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$), which might be ascribed to the smaller hydrodynamic radii of the amino substituent in comparison to methoxy group. It is worth noting that the diffusion coefficients for the cation radicals are all smaller than the

corresponding neutral state species, implying that the cation radicals should form as the ion pair with the counter ion in the solution and slower the diffusion rate [49,50]. Furthermore, the electrochemical rate constant (k_{ox} and k_{red}) could also be calculated by Nicholson dimensionless number (ψ) and the obtained D according to the reference [51–54]. As shown in Fig. S17 and Table S2, the TPA-3N exhibited the most rapid rate either in oxidation or reduction compared to others, indicating that the multi-amino substituted TPA could efficiently

enhance the electron transfer rate upon the redox process. Besides, by comparing with the TPA-2N and TPA-ADM, TPA attached with the amino group (TPA-2N: $k_{ox} = 6.65 \times 10^{-4}$; $k_{red} = 5.51 \times 10^{-4}$) displayed a higher rate constant than the dimethylamino group (TPA-ADM: $k_{ox} = 6.38 \times 10^{-4}$; $k_{red} = 4.90 \times 10^{-4}$), confirming the amino group possessed more efficient and rapid electron transfer than the dimethylamino group.

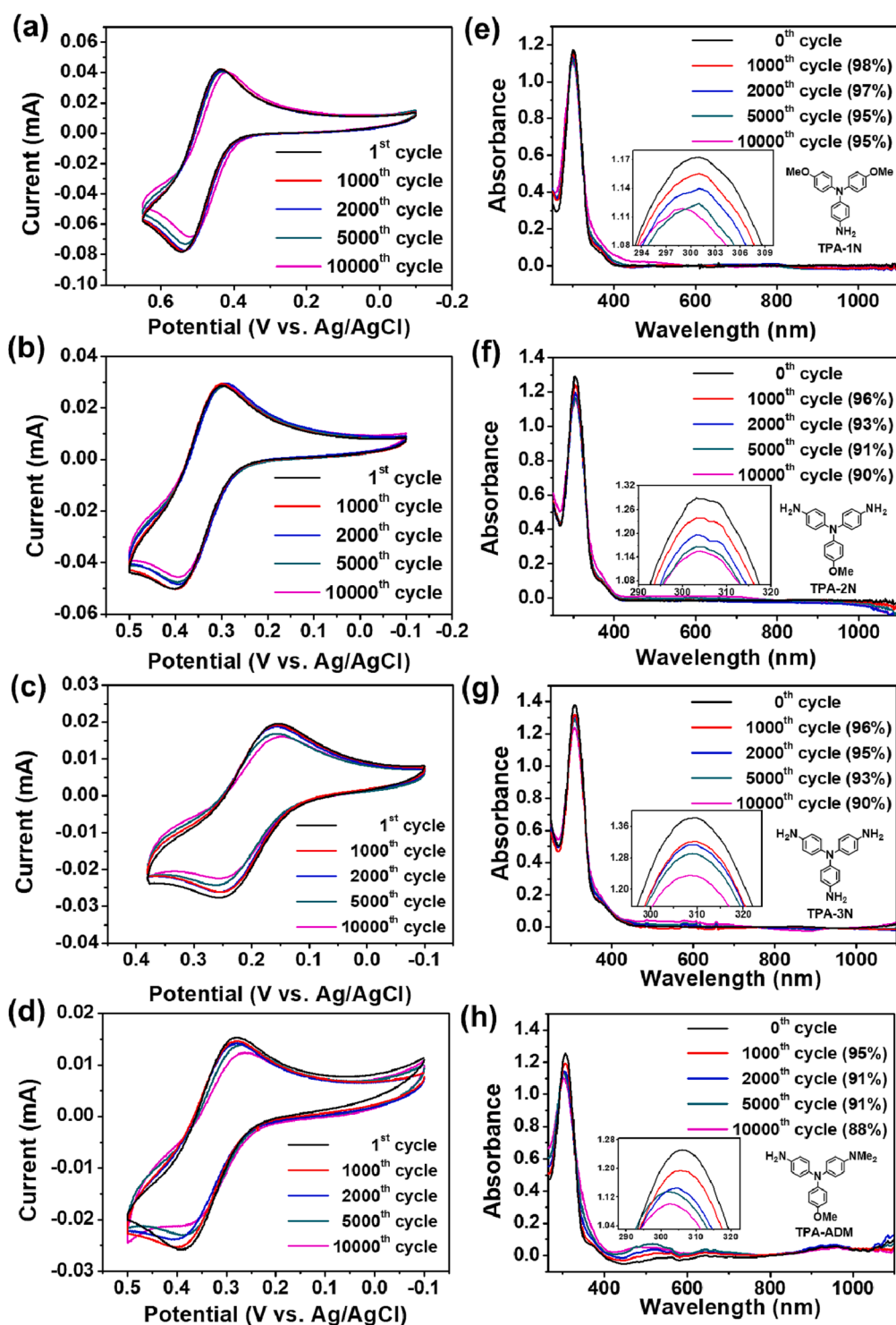


Fig. 2. The cyclic stability of (a) TPA-1N (b) TPA-2N (c) TPA-3N (d) TPA-ADM (sample amount: 0.5 μmol in 1 mL of 0.1 M TBAP/GBL) conducted with a platinum net in 0.1 M TBAP/GBL at the scan rate of 100 mV/s; The absorption spectra and recovery rate of (e) TPA-1N, (f) TPA-2N, (g) TPA-3N, and (h) TPA-ADM after different cycles of scanning.

2.4. Cycling stability of TPAs

The long-term stability of these TPAs was determined by continuous CV measurement up to ten thousand cycles in Fig. 2. For every thousand cycles of CV scanning, the cell would be applied a voltage of -0.1 V to recover the electroactive species to the neutral state. An absorption spectrum was then recorded to evaluate the decay of the sample. The reversibility was calculated by the remained absorbance after CV scans divided by the initial absorbance. All these TPA derivatives demonstrated outstanding electrochemical stability after long-term experiments. No obvious current decay could be noticed even after ten thousand cycles in Fig. 2a-d. For the absorption spectra in Fig. 2e-h, the calculated electrochemical reversibility after ten thousand cycles were TPA-1N: 95%, TPA-2N: 90%, TPA-3N: 90%, and TPA-ADM: 88%. The incredible reversibility of these TPA derivatives suggests that most of the cation radicals of TPAs could recover to the original neutral state even after long-term switching experiments, demonstrating high feasibility in the further application.

2.5. EC behaviors of liquid-type ECDs

The liquid-type devices were fabricated to elucidate the electrochemical behaviors and feasibility of this *para*-amino substituted TPA derivatives for long-term application. The detailed procedures are described in Supporting Information and Fig. S18. The ECDs based on TPA derivatives were fabricated by incorporating heptyl viologen (HV) as the complementary electrochromic materials, which can lower the oxidation potential and provide complementary absorption peaks to enhance the contrast ratio of the ECDs [55–57]. Each device contained $0.72 \mu\text{mol}$ TPAs (0.015 M), $0.72 \mu\text{mol}$ HV (0.015 M), and $4.8 \mu\text{mol}$ TBABF₄ (0.1 M) in 0.048 mL GBL with a 2×2 cm² active area. The CV diagrams and the parameters of the ECDs are illustrated and summarized in Fig. S19 and Table 2. TPA-3N/HV possessed the lowest oxidation potentials at 0.70 and 1.46 V for the first and second oxidation states among all ECDs. The oxidation potentials of the ECDs revealed the same sequence as the related TPA derivatives of the solution sample in OTTLE measurement, where the oxidation potential decreased as the electron-donating effect increased (TPA-1N/HV: $0.95/1.84$ V; TPA-2N/HV: $0.83/1.60$ V; TPA-ADM/HV: $0.78/1.55$ V; TPA-3N/HV: $0.70/1.46$ V). Previous research demonstrated that the oxidation redox process of TPA/TPA^{•+} could be assisted with the reduction of HV²⁺/HV^{•+} [58]. However, a prominent redox couple of HV^{•+}/HV²⁺ with residue color appeared at $-0.06/0.06$ V in TPA-1N/HV device, implying the unrecovered HV^{•+} after the assisted reduction process.

The EC properties of the devices were investigated by spectroelectrochemistry analysis, illustrated in Fig. 3. For TPA-1N/HV, the first oxidation state of the device involved the oxidation of TPA-1N to TPA-1N^{•+} and the reduction of HV²⁺ to HV^{•+}. Consequently, the characteristic peaks were the superposition of HV^{•+} appeared around 400 and 600 nm (Fig. S20) [17,56], and TPA-1N^{•+} appeared at 794 nm when the applying potential raised to 1.2 V. Afterwards, the formation of TPA-1N²⁺ would generate a new characteristic peak around 580 nm, accompanied by a decrease of absorption at 794 nm as the potential was further increasing to 2.0 V. Similar results could be observed in the rest

Table 2
Electrochemical properties of the prepared ECDs.

Index	1st oxidation state			2nd oxidation state	
	$E_{p,a}$ [V] ^a	$E_{p,c}$ [V] ^b	$i_{p,a}/i_{p,c}$ ^c	$E_{p,a}$ [V] ^a	$E_{p,c}$ [V] ^b
TPA-1N/HV	0.95	0.70	1.10	1.84	1.53
TPA-2N/HV	0.83	0.55	1.20	1.60	1.34
TPA-3N/HV	0.70	0.44	1.06	1.46	1.24
TPA-ADM/HV	0.78	0.53	1.20	1.55	1.30

^a Anodic peak potential (oxidation). ^b Cathodic peak potential (reduction). ^c Peak current ratio, $i_{p,a}/i_{p,c} = 1$ for reversible redox system.

ECDs, where TPA-2N/HV showed three characteristic peaks at 400 , 608 , and 884 nm at the first oxidation state (0.9 V), revealing the formation of TPA-2N^{•+} and HV^{•+}. At the second oxidation state of TPA-2N/HV (1.8 V), the formation of TPA-2N²⁺ would generate another characteristic peak at 733 nm. For TPA-3N/HV, the distinct peaks of the first oxidation state (0.9 V) appeared at 400 , 608 , and 853 nm. Because TPA-3N²⁺ revealed almost no absorption between 450 and 600 nm, the absorption of 608 nm could retain the same value at the second oxidation state, implying the formation of HV^{•+} was saturated at the first oxidation state for the ECDs. The absorption spectra of TPA-ADM/HV followed a similar evolution as the other ECDs mentioned earlier. However, it showed a red shift up to 953 nm with a high extinction coefficient of 11.67×10^{-3} M cm⁻¹, resulting from the strong auxochrome of the dimethylamine group. Additionally, TPA-3N/HV also revealed a high absorbance in the NIR region with only $0.72 \mu\text{mol}$ of TPA-3N, implying an excellent chromophore as EC material in high-contrast NIR devices.

The CIELAB color space parameters were adapted to quantify the color change for the ECDs during the redox process. The ECDs appearance and the corresponding L*a*b* values are depicted in Figs. S21–S24 and presented as videos in Supporting Information. With the incorporation of HV, the absorption merging near 600 nm of HV with TPAs could enhance optical contrast. For TPA-1N/HV, the device exhibited a transparent and colorless appearance at the neutral state (L*: 97.52 , a*: -0.20 , b*: 4.67). After oxidation, the device revealed a navy-blue appearance (L*: 47.90 , a*: 5.66 , b*: -55.12) at the first oxidation state (1.2 V), and then the color became denser (L*: 31.09 , a*: 2.15 , b*: -44.40) at the second oxidation state (2.0 V). A similar color change could also be observed for other ECDs. For TPA-2N/HV, the color changes from colorless (L*: 98.23 , a*: 1.26 , b*: 2.69) to blue (L*: 69.29 , a*: -6.76 , b*: -37.93) and then deeper blue (L*: 61.21 , a*: -9.44 , b*: -26.39); TPA-3N/HV displayed different colors during the oxidation process from transparent and colorless (L*: 97.90 , a*: 1.08 , b*: 2.68) to cobalt blue (L*: 55.69 , a*: -8.92 , b*: -46.47) and then dark blue (L*: 42.90 , a*: -12.80 , b*: -45.93); The appearance of TPA-ADM/HV varied from colorless (L*: 97.87 , a*: -1.08 , b*: 6.72) to dark azure (L*: 53.50 , a*: -26.93 , b*: -37.61) and then gray blue (L*: 47.57 , a*: -34.86 , b*: -35.81).

The efficacies of the ECDs were further determined with the time-dependent measurement. The coloration efficiency (η_{CE}) is an essential factor in deciding the coloring ability for an ECD under a certain amount of charge consumption, which the following equation could calculate:

$$\eta_{CE} = \frac{\Delta OD}{Q} \quad (1)$$

where ΔOD is the change in optical density, defined as $\Delta OD = \log [T_b/T_c]$, T_b and T_c are the transmittances of bleaching and coloring states, respectively, and Q is the consumed charge density that is integral from i - t curve. The plots of ΔOD determined the coloration efficiency (η_{CE}) of the ECDs under different amounts of consumed charge density (Q), and the plots are illustrated in Fig. 4a and S25. The linear regression slope at the beginning of the plots represented the coloration efficiency (η_{CE}) of the ECDs. TPA-3N/HV possessed the highest η_{CE} (631 cm²/C) among the four devices, implying the highest ΔOD in the same charge consumption and energy efficiency. For other ECDs, the charge consumptions were approximately the same, so the η_{CE} was determined by the optical difference during the coloration process. TPA-1N/HV showed the lowest η_{CE} (189 cm²/C) due to the lowest contrast; TPA-2N/HV (418 cm²/C) and TPA-ADM/HV (452 cm²/C) revealed similar η_{CE} based on the similar ΔOD around 1.1 to 1.2 . Furthermore, according to the first oxidation potentials obtained from the CV diagrams, the coloring voltages were chosen as 1.2 V, and the bleaching voltages were set as -0.3 V for TPA-1N/HV and 0.9 V for the other ECDs to evaluate the response capability of the prepared ECDs. The coloring time (t_c) and bleaching time (t_b) are defined as the moment for reaching 90% of the maximum

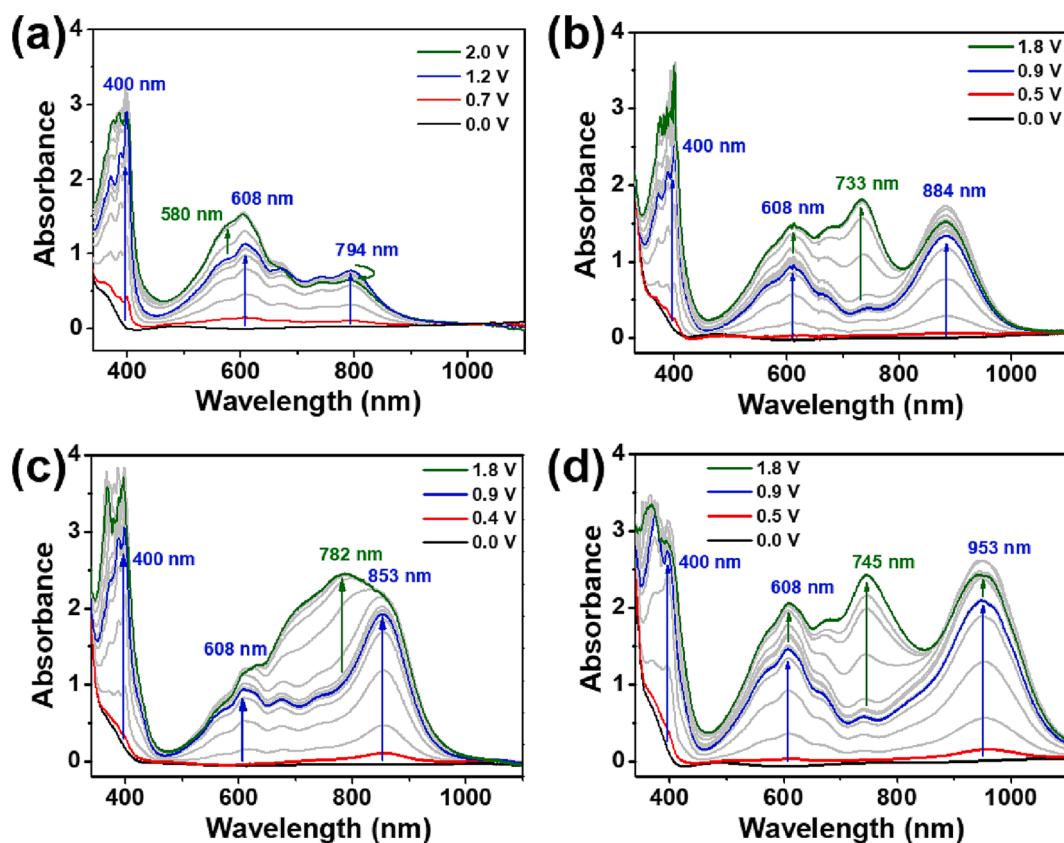


Fig. 3. Spectroelectrochemistry diagrams of (a) TPA-1N/HV, (b) TPA-2N/HV, (c) TPA-3N/HV, and (d) TPA-ADM/HV ECDs. The devices were fabricated from ITO glass with a $2 \times 2 \text{ cm}^2$ active area, containing $0.72 \mu\text{mol}$ TPAs (0.015 M), $0.72 \mu\text{mol}$ HV (0.015 M), and $4.8 \mu\text{mol}$ TBABF₄ (0.1 M) in 0.048 mL GBL.

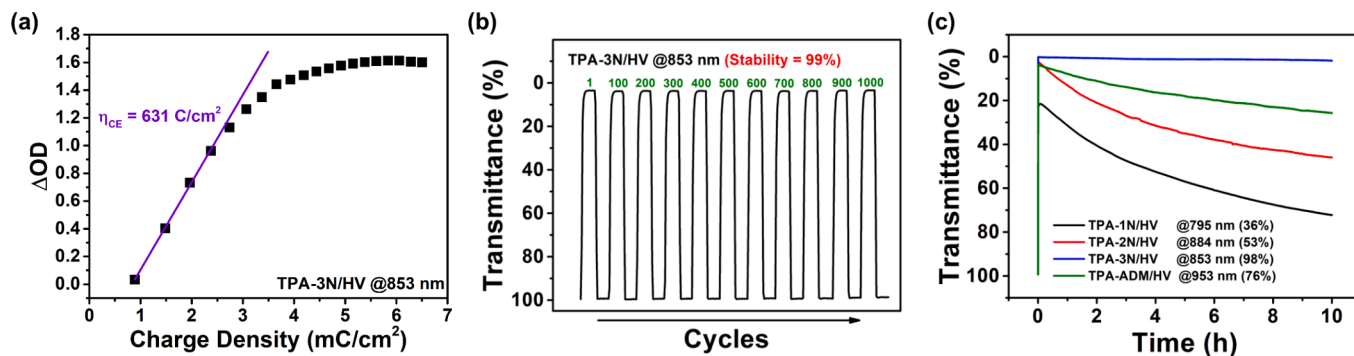


Fig. 4. (a) Coloration efficiency (η_{CE}) of TPA-3N/HV. (b) Switching stability of TPA-3N/HV for 1000 cycles with 60 s cycle time, 0.9 V as the coloring voltages, and -0.3 V as the bleaching voltage. (c) Long-term stability of ECDs at the on-state for 10 h. The devices were derived from ITO glass with a $2 \times 2 \text{ cm}^2$ active area, containing $0.72 \mu\text{mol}$ TPAs (0.015 M), $0.72 \mu\text{mol}$ HV (0.015 M), and $4.8 \mu\text{mol}$ TBABF₄ (0.1 M) in 0.048 mL GBL.

transmittance difference during oxidation or reduction. The switching response behaviors for the ECDs depicted in Fig. 5 demonstrate that the t_c would significantly decrease from 4.6 s to 1.9 s among four ECDs by introducing more amino groups in the TPA unit. In contrast, the device derived from TPA-ADM/HV with dimethylamino group showed the same t_c as TPA-2N/HV. In addition, the coloration speed (v_c) and optical coloration rate constant (k_c) could be calculated, as shown and tabulated in Fig. S26 and Table 3 and Table S4, respectively [59]. The results displayed that TPA-3N/HV possessed the highest values of 46.4 \% s^{-1} and 0.593 s^{-1} for v_c and k_c , respectively. Besides, among the prepared ECDs, the larger values of v_c and k_c exhibited a shorter t_c along with the more amino group substituted in the TPA unit, indicating the same trend as the diffusivity and electrochemical rate constant study mentioned above. Besides, according to the Nicholson dimensionless number (ψ) in

Fig. S17, TPA-3N showed the largest k_{ox} , implying the rapid electron transfer during the coloring process. Based on this result, the faster t_c could also be attributed to the rapid electron transfer. However, the t_b exhibited a more prolonged time needed to bleach from the coloring state, along with more amino groups in the TPA unit (from 3.2 s to 4.2 s). This phenomenon conflicted with our above kinetic studies that the D_c and k_{red} of TPA-3N exhibited the highest values, which should reflect the shortest t_c . The longer t_b for TPA-3N/HV would probably be attributed to the more intensive switching optical contrast that needs more time to be erased. Similarly, TPA-2N/HV and TPA-ADM/HV exhibited relatively long t_b (3.7 s and 4.1 s) while with higher D_c and k_{red} values compared to TPA-1N/HV.

The electrochemical stability of the ECDs is crucial and was elucidated with the continuous switching cycling under their coloring/

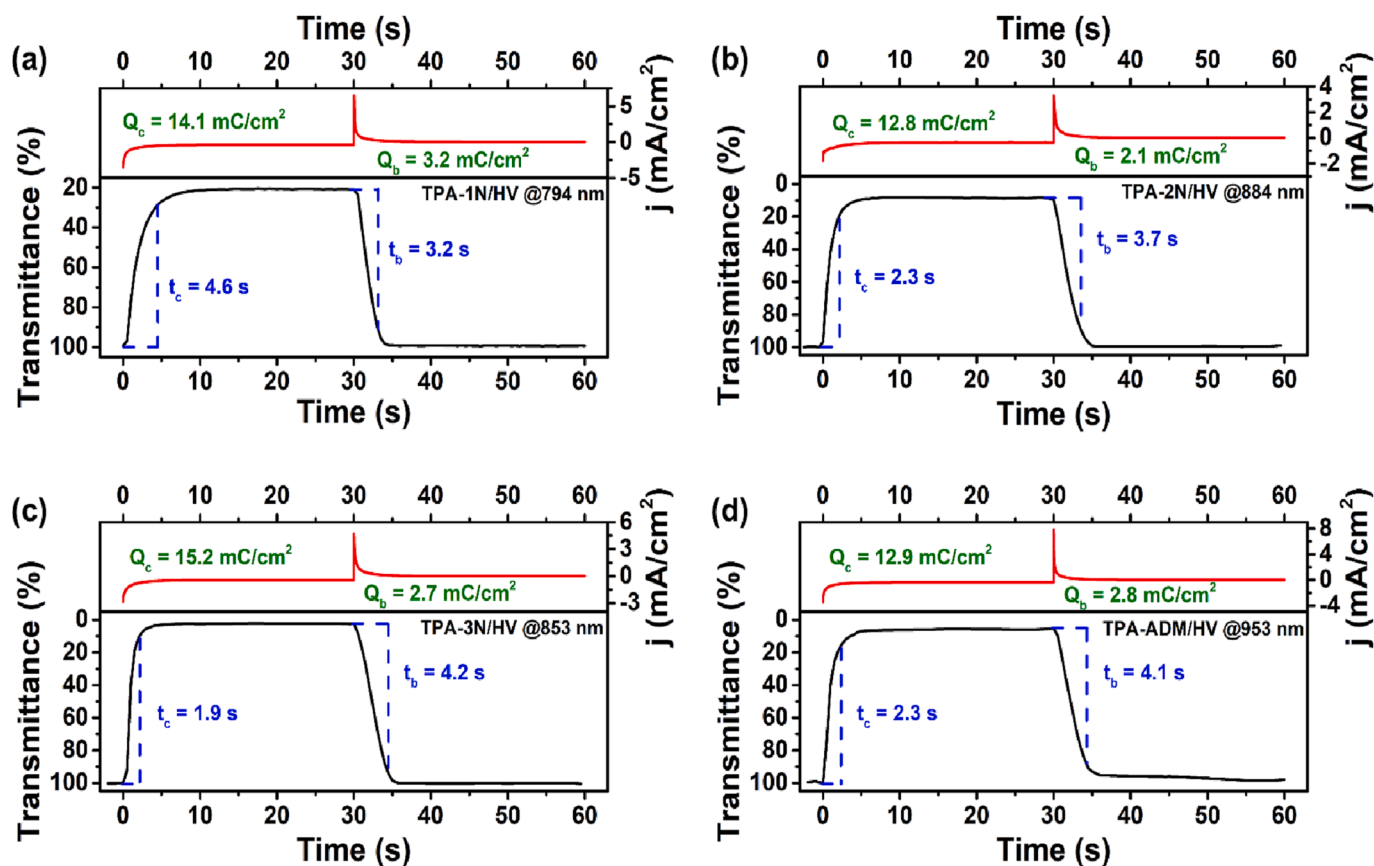


Fig. 5. Response time and injected charge plots of (a) TPA-1N/HV, (b) TPA-2N/HV, (c) TPA-3N/HV, and (d) TPA-ADM/HV. The coloring voltages were 1.2 V for TPA-1N/HV and 0.9 V for the others, while the bleaching voltages were -0.3 V for all the devices with 60 s cycle time. The devices were fabricated from ITO glass with a 2×2 cm² active area, containing 0.72 μ mol TPAs (0.015 M), 0.72 μ mol HV (0.015 M), and 4.8 μ mol TBABF₄ (0.1 M) in 0.048 mL GBL.

bleaching potentials. The results are depicted in Fig. 4b, Figs. S27-S28, and summarized in Table 3. In the first one hundred cycles, TPA-3N/HV and TPA-ADM/HV exhibited superior stability for only 1% and 3% decay of ΔT (stability: 99% and 97%); more scan cycles with extended experiments for these two ECDs were conducted. After one thousand switching cycles, TPA-3N/HV and TPA-ADM/HV also displayed remarkable stability for only 1% and 10% decay of ΔT (stability: 99% and 90%). In addition, TPA-3N/HV was also measured for the 100-cycle switching stability after 5000 or 10,000 cycles of CV scans, shown in Fig. S29. The results indicated that TPA-3N/HV could maintain the stability of 96.2% and 94.6% after 5000 and 10,000 cycles, respectively. The results suggested that TPA-3N/HV would be an ultra-stable ECD under this applied potential window ($-0.3/0.9$ V). The practical long-term stability of these ECDs was further recorded in Fig. 4c. After giving the corresponding coloring potentials for ten hours, TPA-3N/HV could keep 98% of its maximum transmittance contrast, implying the most electrochemically stable at the first oxidation state among all the

TPA derivatives. Based on these results, we proposed that owing to having more auxochrome of the amino groups in TPA-3N, the oxidized nitrogen center has three electroactive sites to resonance by the IVCT effect. Thus TPA-3N/HV performed with remarkable stability. Furthermore, by comparison of the representative EC characteristics of other reported small molecules ECDs summarized in Table S5 and Fig. 6, the TPA-3N/HV derived from the unprecedented facile, energy-saving, economic-competitive approach demonstrates superior performance of high coloration efficiency (631C/cm²) and optical contrast ($\Delta T = 98\%$) in the NIR region while preserving high stability ($t_c = 1.9$ s) and fast response speed ($46.4\% \text{ s}^{-1}$) [18,26,60–63].

3. Conclusions

Four *para*-amino-substituted TPA derivatives, TPA-1N, TPA-2N, TPA-3N, and TPA-ADM, have been prepared and investigated the correlation between the amino substituents and the electrochemical/

Table 3
The electrochromic parameters of ECDs.

Index	t_c [s] ^a	t_b [s] ^b	ΔT [%] ^c	η_{CE} [cm ² /C] ^d	ν_c [%·s ⁻¹] ^e	Stability		
						100 cycles	1000 cycles	10 h
TPA-1N/HV	4.6	3.2	79	189	15.5	84%	–	36%
TPA-2N/HV	2.3	3.7	91	418	35.6	92%	–	53%
TPA-3N/HV	1.9	4.2	98	631	46.4	99%	99%	98%
TPA-ADM/HV	2.3	4.1	93	452	36.4	97%	90%	76%

^a Coloring time from the bleaching state to 90% of total transmittance change. ^b Bleaching time from the coloring state to 90% of complete transmittance change. ^c Change in transmittance is defined as $\Delta T = T_b - T_c$, where T_b and T_c are the transmittances of bleaching and coloring states, respectively. ^d Coloration efficiency is determined by the slope of change in optical density (ΔOD) versus charge density. Change in optical density is defined as $\Delta OD = \log [T_b/T_c]$.

^e Coloration response speed, defined as 90% of ΔT divided by t_c .

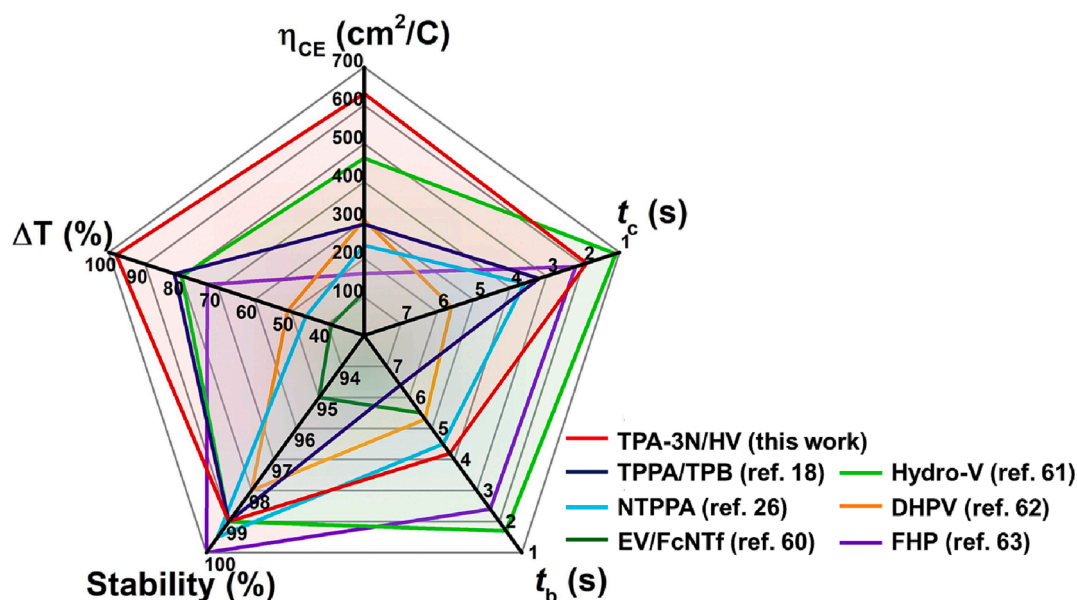


Fig. 6. Comparison of electrochromic parameters of reported small molecules ECDs. The stability of the ECDs was determined with the percent of remaining ΔT after 1000 switching cycles, excluding TPPA/TPB (32 hr, on-state) and FHP (5000 cycles). The electrolyte for each ECD contains TPPA/TPB: 0.04 M HV and 0.16 M TBABF₄ in 0.05 mL PC/GBL (1/1) [18]. NTPPA: 0.015 M HV in 0.05 mL GBL [26]. EV/FcNTf: 50 mM [BMim][NTf₂] [60]. Hydro-V: composting only DMF as solvent [61]. DHPV: 5 mg Fc, 200 mg PC, 200 mg C₂F₆LiNO₄S₂, 2 mL methanol, and 400 mg PVB [62]. FHP: 0.12 mM Fc, 150 mg PC, 160 mg LiTFSI, 1.5 mL methanol, and 300 mg PVB [63].

electrochromic properties. The introduction of amino substituents could reduce the oxidation potential significantly and generate extra oxidation states that enrich the color evolution, fast diffusivity, and rapid electron transfer, resulting in low-energy consumption materials. These TPA derivatives also present remarkable reversibility for more than 88% after ten thousand cycles of uninterrupted CV measurement. The related ECDs with the complement of HV reveal exceptional EC performance, where TPA-3N/HV demonstrates the lowest oxidation potential (0.70 V), the shortest coloring time (1.9 s), the highest coloration efficiency (631 cm²/C), and the most superior stability (99% for 1000 cycles, 98% for 10-hour coloring). This unprecedented study proves that the multi-*para*-amino-substituted TPA derivatives can exhibit outstanding EC behaviors with exceptional switching stability, providing a facile approach to preparing energy-efficient and high-performance ECDs.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2023.143003>.

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