INTRODUCTION

As an effective device, dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) have garnered significant attention due to their exceptional efficacy in transforming sunlight into electrical energy and their affordable manufacturing methods. They have been demonstrated to be a compelling tool for achieving efficient solar energy conversion, thereby warranting extensive scientific research and experimentation [1-4]. Significant research has been done on the components of DSSCs, including the sensizers, photoanodes, counter electrodes and redox electrolytes, to enhance the performance of photovoltaic devices [5-8]. The dye sensitizer is usually an important constituent in DSSCs, as it has a significant impact on efficiency (η) and device stability. Many researchers have discovered plenty of ruthenium complex sensitizers and metal-free organic sensitizers that convert light into energy. Researchers have been interested in metal-free dyes despite their low efficiency because of their high molar extinction coefficient, easy manufacture and ecologically friendly nature [9-12]. Also the organic photosensitizers have been identified as excellent substitutes for ruthenium complex sensitizers due to the overprice and toxicity of ruthenium metal.

The common metal-free organic dye design involves a donor bridge-acceptor (D-π-A) configuration, this allows for precise adjustment of electrochemical and optical properties [13]. Triphenylamine, carbazole, coumarin, indoline and phenothiazine moieties have been effectively used as donors in metal-free organic dyes and have also shown encouraging efficiency in DSSCs of around 10% [14-17]. Phenothiazine is a heterocyclic compound that makes its analogues suitable for hole transport substances for organic devices due to its electron rich nitrogen and sulfur heteroatoms and strong capacity to give electrons. As a result, the development of inexpensive phenothiazine based sensitizers may improve the device performance...
Many low band gap and wider band gap materials have been explored with the aid of simple and low cost chemical methods \[18,19\] for wide spread applications like energy conversion \[20\], storage \[21,22\] and gap sensors \[23\]. Furthermore, chemical methods have advantages for growing nanoparticles, nanowires \[24,25\], etc. In this direction, 1D nanowires have sparked tremendous interest in production of solar cells \[26\], which provide direct and effective paths for charge transport, decreased electron hopping and increased interfacial area. Regarding this, our team is researching CdS nanowires photoanodes to enhance the efficiency of the photovoltaic devices by employing various novel metal-free sensitizers and altering various anchoring groups \[27-29\].

Current studies explore the design and synthesis of phenothiazine based sensitizers (PPC and PCTC) with cyanoacrylic acid as an anchoring group, as shown in Fig. 1. Theoretical simulations using DFT methods illustrate the shape and positioning of the HOMO and LUMOs. PPC and PCTC are utilized as metal-free organic dyes on chemically synthesized large surface area 1D CdS NWs in the production of dye-sensitized solar cells and the efficiency of the device is assessed. PCTC has shown enhanced cell efficacy compared to PPC based on current density-voltage (J-V) and external quantum efficiency (EQE) parameters. This is because there is less molecular aggregation in the case of PCTC due to derivatization from the bulky coumarin azide group to the N-propyl group. This is the first report of cyanoacrylic acid used as an anchoring group on CdS NWs semiconductors. The results demonstrate the potential of PCTC as a promising candidate for enhancing the efficiency of dye-sensitized solar cells. The use of cyanoacrylic acid as an anchoring group opens up new possibilities for further improving the performance of these devices.

**Experimental**

Analytical-grade chemicals were utilized without purification. The reaction was monitored using thin layer chromatography on Aluchresep silica gel 60 F254 plates (0.2 mm) (S.D. Fine, Mumbai, India). The melting point was obtained by using a coslab melting point equipment. The infrared spectra between 4000 and 500 cm\(^{-1}\) were recorded using Perkin-Elmer Spectrum (Version 10.5.4.). The NMR spectra were collected in response to TMS using a JEOL DELTA 2 spectrometer. A Shimadzu (LC-MS) spectrometer with a 70 eV setting was used to produce mass spectra. The elemental analyses were carried out with the help of the Heraeus CHN rapid analyzer. The Perkin-Elmer Lambda 365 UV-Vis spectrophotometer and the Jasco V-770 spectrophotometer were used to measure the UV-Vis spectra of solutions and films, respectively. A Fluoromax-4 Spectrofluorometer (Horiba) was used to record the emission spectra of solutions at ambient temperature. The substrate was a 2 mm thick fluorine doped tin oxide (FTO) coated glass with a sheet resistance of 15 cm\(^{-2}\) from Sigma-Aldrich, USA.

**Electrochemical measurements**: The cyclic voltammetric measurements were performed in acetonitrile with a supporting electrolyte [0.10 M tetra-n-butylammonium hexafluorophosphate (TBAP)] under nitrogen environment at room temperature using a CHI-621A potentiostat workstation (scan rate: 100 mV s\(^{-1}\)). Pt wire serves as the system’s counter electrode, while graphite serves as the working electrode and Ag/AgCl (saturated KCl) serves as the working electrode (reference electrode).

**XRD and surface morphology measurements**: A Bruker D8 advance diffractometer with CuKa was used to observe X-ray diffraction in the 2\(\theta\) range between 20 and 90°. Scanning electron microscopy microscopy (SEM, JEOL, SED, 5.0 KV) was used to examine the surface morphology of the films.

**Photovoltaic measurements**: The photocurrent-voltage properties of the DSSCs were examined using Keithly (Model: 2611A) in both light and dark environments. A Sciencetech solar simulator (Model: SS150) generated the simulated sunlight under standard conditions (100 mW/cm\(^2\) with AM 1.5 G). EQE was calculated using a Bentham-TM 300 machine (300-800 nm) to determine how it changed with wavelength. A black painted mask was used to create an illuminated exposed area (0.20 cm\(^2\)) for each sample.

**Theoretical calculations**: The Gaussian 16 software was used on a computer workstation to conduct the computational studies. Utilizing the 6-311G(d,p) basis set, the hybrid B3LYP functional developed by Becke \[30,31\] and Lee, Yang and Purr \[32\] was used to optimize the ground state geometry of the organic sensitizers. For each molecule, several possible conformations were examined, and the frontier orbital computations were carried out using the conformation with the lowest energy.

**Synthesis of compact CdS and CdS nanowires**: Chemical bath deposition (CBD) technique was used to create a thin, compact CdS layer on FTO-coated glass by reported protocol \[33\]. In a nutshell, a compact layer of cadmium sulfide (CdS) was deposited to an FTO-coated glass substrate using a precursor that contained an equimolar solution of thiourea (Merck) dissolved in double distilled water and cadmium chloride (Merck),...
with a maintained pH at 12 (or below) using a solution of NH₄OH (Merck). Cleansed FTO was immersed in the aforementioned precursor solution for around 40 min at 70 °C to create a compact CdS film that was light yellow in colour.

The CdP approach was used to grow CdS NWs over a pre-coated compact CdS layer at room temperature (26 °C), by published work [33]. An aqueous solution of 0.10 M CdCl₂ complexed with an aqueous ammonia solution for around 9 h was used to prepare Cd(OH)₂ NWs templates for CdS NWs growth, followed by the hydroxyl ions (OH⁻) from the Cd(OH)₂ were then exchanged for S²⁻ ions in a solution of sodium sulfide flares (Merck) for around 50 min.

**Synthesis of organic sensitizers**

**Synthesis of 10-(prop-2-yn-1-yl)-10H-phenothiazine (2):**

Phenothiazine (3.0 g, 15.05 mmol), NaH (0.36 g, 15.05 mmol), and DMF (15 mL) were poured to a clean and oven-dried RB flask (100 mL). After stirring the reaction mixture for about 0.5 h at room temperature, propargyl bromide (2.24 mL, 15.05 mmol) was added dropwise and stirring continued overnight. Following the completion of the reaction (as indicated by TLC), the concentration of the mixture was poured to clean and oven-dried beaker containing ice-cold water (400 mL) and extracted with ethyl acetate (3 × 20 mL). Organic components were washed with brine and dried over sodium sulphate. The obtained product was purified using silic gel column chromatography and evaporated at reduced pressure to obtain a colourless viscous liquid 2 (76%).

**Synthesis of 10-(prop-2-yn-1-yl)-10H-phenothiazine-3-carbaldehyde (3):**

Phosphorus oxychloride (2.76 mL, 29.50 mmol) was introduced dropwise to a round-bottomed flask (100 mL) having DMF (1.15 mL, 14.75 mmol) and stirred at 0 ºC for 15 min. After stirring the aforesaid reaction mixture at room temperature for about 0.5 h, a solution of compound 2 (3.50 g, 14.75 mmol) in chloroform (10 mL) was slowly and carefully added to the reaction flask. After the addition was done, the resultant reaction mixture was heated in a water bath for about 24 h until the reaction was completed (TLC). Following the completion of the reaction, the reaction mixture was cooled in ice-cold water before being put into ice cold water and then acidified to neutral pH to remove excess piperidine. The reaction mixture was cooled to room temperature before being put into ice cold water and then acidified to neutral pH to remove excess piperidine. The resulting product was washed with distilled water followed by filtration. The dried product was purified using column chromatography with n-hexane/ethyl acetate (4:6) as an eluent. Yield: dark reddish solid of PPC dye (63%).

**Synthesis of 10-(prop-2-yn-1-yl)-10H-phenothiazine-3-carbaldehyde (4):**

Round bottomed flask (100 mL) was charged with 4-(azidomethyl)-2H-chromen-2-one (1.21 g, 5.61 mmol) obtained as reported earlier [34] and dissolved in a THF/water (1:1) mixture. Compound 3 (1.50 g, 5.61 mmol) was added to the above-prepared solution and the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for approximately 6 h until the reaction was completed in the presence of copper sulphate and sodium ascorbate as catalyst. After the reaction was completed (TLC), the reaction mixture was poured into ice-cold water and extracted with chloroform (3 × 20 mL). Under low pressure, the solvent evaporated and the crude product was subjected to column chromatography with an eluent mixture of n-hexane/ethyl acetate (7:3), yielding 2.05 g of red coloured solid of compound 4 (yield: 75%).

**Synthesis of (E)-2-cyano-3-(10-(1-(7-methyl-2-oxo-2H-chromen-4-yl)methyl)-1H-1,2,3-triazol-4-yl)methyl)-4a,10a-dihydro-10H-phenothiazin-3-yl)acrylic acid (PCTC):**

Methanol (20 mL) was added to a round-bottomed flask (100 mL) containing compound 3 (1.50 g, 5.61 mmol). Cyanoacetic acid (0.47 g, 5.61 mmol) and piperidine (0.56 mL, 5.61 mmol) were added to the above-mentioned flask and refluxed on the water bath for about 5 h until the reaction was completed. The reaction mixture was cooled to room temperature before being put into ice cold water and then acidified to neutral pH to remove excess piperidine. The resulting product was washed with water followed by filtration. The dried product was purified using column chromatography with n-hexane/ethyl acetate (4:6) as an eluent, yielding a dark reddish solid of PCTC dye (62%).

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Scheme-1, as illustrated, the phenothiazine was subjected to N-alkylation using propargyl bromide to yield 10-(prop-2-yn-1-yl)-10H-phenothiazine (2), which was then subjected to the Vilsmeier-Haack reaction to form 10-(prop-2-yn-1-yl)-4a, 10a-dihydro-10H-phenothiazin-3-yl)acrylic acid (3). The sensitizer PPC was prepared by combining compound 3 with cyanoacetic acid in a Knoevenagel condensation reaction. The
PCTC was synthesized via click chemistry by reacting compound 3 with coumarin azide and followed by Knoevenagel condensation with cyanoacetic acid. These novel metal-free sensitizers were purified using column chromatography and then analyzed spectroscopically to validate their structure.

**Structural studies:** Fig. 2 displays the structure patterns in thin layer that was prepared using a standard chemical method, a mixture of FTO, CdS compact and CdS nanowires. Patterns of X-ray diffraction indicate that the deposited layers were polycrystalline. Using standard $d$-values to compare $(hkl)$ planes has shown that both cubic as well as hexagonal crystal formations with spacing groups $F\overline{4}3m$ and $P\overline{6}3mc$ can work. The highest points of CdS compact thin layers were observed at crystallographic planes (111), (222) and (311). Other peaks were detected from the CdS nanowire diffraction patterns, such as (002), (102), (110), (103), (200), (112), (004), (202) and (211). The CdS compact as well as the CdS nanowires have been verified by comparing them to JCPDS cards nos. 01-080-0019 and 00-041-1049. The verification confirmed the crystal structure of CdS in the samples.

**Surface characterization:** Fig. 3a shows dense CdS thin layers with surfaces that resemble grains on the glass substrate covered with FTO. The extensive surface area of the CdS nanowire allows the liquid electrolyte to permeate the porous area and make direct interaction with FTO. The compact CdS layer prevents direct interaction between the liquid I$_3$–/I– and FTO. Once the ideal deposition conditions are reached, the compact surface structure serves as additional sites for the creation of CdS nanowires. Fig. 3b exhibits a nano-network within CdS at greater magnification. At greater magnification, the distinct and well-interconnected shape of the nanowires is plainly visible due to their large surface area. For enhanced device efficacy, the consistently interlinked CdS nanowires create a singular, unobstructed system for charge carriers to move through.

**Optical properties:** To explore the optical properties, UV-vis absorbance spectra were investigated. Fig. 4a-b show the differences in the PPC and PCTC absorbance spectra in chloroform, organic dye-loaded CdS nanowires and bare CdS nanowires. The figure depicts normalized absorbance (blue curve) with emission spectra (green curve) of PPC and PCTC dye. The spectra of both the sensitizers show two major absorbances, one in the UV region and the other in the visible region. The $\pi-\pi^*$ transition is responsible for the peaks observed at 320 nm for PPC and 335 nm for PCTC. The peaks of lower energy at 439 nm for PPC and 443 nm for PCTC result from intramolecular charge transfer (ICT) between donor and acceptor...
groups, because donor and acceptor pieces undergo orbital mixing. The yellow curves in Fig. 4a-b show the absorption curve for naked CdS NWs with a shoulder around a $\lambda_{max}$ of 480 nm and an onset wavelength of 506 nm indicating an energy gap of 2.42 eV. These findings corresponded to the observed band gap of CdS nanowires [35]. In addition, the absorption response of the two sensitizers attached to CdS NWs was seen as red curve. The absorption responses of the dye-CdS NWs are red-shifted and widened in comparison with the spectra of the sensitizers in chloroform and bare CdS nanowires, suggesting the existence of J-aggregation for the sensitizers with the CdS nanowires surface.

**Electrochemical investigation:** The electrochemical analysis of PPC and PCTC dyes were examined utilizing CV at a scan rate of 100 mV s$^{-1}$ in an electrolyte of 0.10 M TBAP at ambient temperature in a nitrogen environment. Ferrocene was employed as a standard reference. Fig. 5 shows the CV curves of PPC and PCTC dyes in acetonitrile. It is found that HOMO-LUMO levels and electrochemical band gap by using the onset oxidation and reduction potential values along with the equations from [36]. Table-1 provides a summary of their results about HOMO-LUMO and the electrochemical band gap.

$$\text{HOMO} = -\left[E_{\text{onset}}^{\text{ox}} + 0.44\right] \text{(eV)}$$
$$\text{LUMO} = -\left[HOMO + E_{\text{onset}}^{\text{red}}\right] \text{(eV)}$$
$$E_g = \text{LUMO} - \text{HOMO}$$

Fig. 3. Scanning electron microscope photos of (a) CdS compact (b) CdS nanowires

Fig. 4. Optical spectra for (a) PPC and (b) PCTC

Fig. 5. CV of PPC and PCTC in 0.1 M TBAP in CH$_3$CN
The CdS nanowires have a conduction band energy of -4.0 eV, while the LUMO of PPC and PCTC were -2.26 eV and -2.35 eV, respectively. It indicates that transferring excited electrons from organic dyes to conduction band of semiconductors (CdS NWs) is thermodynamically favourable. The HOMO of PPC and PCTC was -5.08 eV and -5.15 eV, both smaller than the -4.8 eV value of the I\textsubscript{3}^-/I\textsubscript{-} redox pair. This makes sure that the oxidized sensitizers produced when an electron is introduced into the CdS NWs conduction band can effectively receive an electron by the I\textsubscript{-} of the I\textsubscript{3}^-/I\textsubscript{-} pair.

PPC has an energy band gap of 2.82 eV, while PCTC has a band gap of 2.80 eV. Fig. 6 shows the energy level diagram for devices made with PPC and PCTC sensitizers. The energy band diagram shows that the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) levels of PPC and PCTC matched well with the conduction band of CdS nanowires, which makes it easier for electrons to move through them. The results suggest that devices utilizing these dyes could exhibit enhanced efficiency in dye-sensitized solar cells.

Computational studies: The shapes and electronic arrangement of the organic dyes (PPC and PCTC) were determined using density functional theory (DFT) calculations at the B3LYP/6-31G(d) level.

Molecular electrostatic potential maps (MEP): Fig. 7 illustrates the electrostatic potential of organic dyes (PPC and PCTC) using a rainbow colour pattern. The deepest red hue signifies an electron-rich location that could be attractive to electrophiles. The electron-deficient region with a blue hue might draw molecules towards nucleophiles. The red region in the MEP diagram of PPC molecule is situated on the carbonyl oxygen of the cyanoacrylic acid group. The colour blue serves as a visual cue for the H-atom in the carboxylic group that is devoid of electrons. The PCTC displays a prominent red colour above the carbonyl oxygens of coumarin and carboxylic acid, indicating a region abundant in electrons. The dark blue patch covers the hydrogen atom of carboxylic group, which is a location with a deficiency of electrons vulnerable to nucleophile. The MEP suggests that the acceptor group, particularly carboxylic, can bind to the semiconductor surface. This binding interaction is crucial for the molecule’s adsorption properties on the surface. Understanding the MEP diagram can provide insights into the reactivity and behaviour of the PPC molecule in various applications.

Frontier molecular orbital (FMO): The HOMO energy level for the organic dyes PPC and PCTC was mostly on the phenothiazine ring and a small part of the \( \pi \)-linker. Frontier LUMO energy level was located on the cyanoacrylic acid group, the \( \pi \)-linker and a small part of the phenothiazine ring, as depicted in Fig. 8. This splits the electron transfer from the phenothiazine group (donor) to the cyanoacrylic acid group (acceptor) via the \( \pi \)-bridge, making sure that the electrons are...
injected and charges are separated efficiently. They also make it easier for electrons to move from the excited sensitizer to the conduction band of the CdS semiconductor when the LUMOs are attached to the surface of CdS nanowires. Table-1 displays the theoretically computed HOMO, LUMO and energy band gap values of PPC and PCTC. Theoretical DFT results were compared to electrochemical values, showing good agreement. A few minor differences between both of them can be explained by the distinct molecular environments: electrochemical data was collected in the liquid state, while DFT data was collected only in a gaseous state.

Photovoltaic properties: The developed device is schematically represented in Fig. 9, which demonstrates its structure as FTO/CdS Compact/CdS nanowires/sensitizer/(I\textsubscript{3}/I\textsubscript{-})/Pt.

The photovoltaic cell efficiencies of PPC and PCTC as dye-sensitizers were analyzed through photocurrent density against voltage (J-V) measurements. Fig. 10 displays the J-V graphs for CdS nanowires and CdS NWs loaded with dye. The $J_{sc}$, $V_{oc}$ and FF of PPC and PCTC were determined and the results are shown in Table-2. The J-V measurements were conducted for the devices within the voltage span from -1.0 to +1.0 V in dark and bright illumination conditions. The naked CdS NWs exhibited an efficiency ($\eta$) of 0.102% under light. The efficiency of the sensitizer-loaded CdS NWs was 0.31% for PPC and 0.324% for PCTC. The inclusion of a larger coumarin group in PCTC reduces molecular agglomeration and demonstrates higher effectiveness than PPC, as shown in DFT simulations. Table-2 contains the assessed results of series resistance ($R_s$) and shunt resistance ($R_{sh}$) for fabricated DSSCs. The $R_s$ and $R_{sh}$ values for PPC and PCTC are also provided in Table-2, exhibiting differences in the performance of the PPC and PCTC loaded CdS nanowires. These values further support the higher efficiency of PCTC compared to PPC due to reduced molecular agglomeration.

**External quantum efficiency (EQE):** The EQE of CdS nanowires loaded with PPC and PCTC in I\textsubscript{3}/I\textsubscript{-} electrolyte was plotted against wavelength, showing response across the visible spectrum ranging from 300 to 600 nm. Fig. 11 demonstrates a noticeable change in the EQE for CdS nanowires as well as PPC and PCTC loaded CdS nanowires. The minimum EQE value found for CdS nanowires was 7.56%. The enhanced EQE values are 45.45% for PCTC loaded CdS nanowires and 44.12% for PPC loaded CdS nanowires. The results align with the J-V inves-

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<th>Table-2</th>
<th>The Photovoltaic Outputs for the DSSC</th>
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<tr>
<td>Label</td>
<td>$J_{sc}$ (mA/cm\textsuperscript{2})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CdS NWs</td>
<td>0.568</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CdS NWs/PPC</td>
<td>0.963</td>
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<tr>
<td>CdS NWs/PCTC</td>
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tigations. These findings suggest that the incorporation of PPC and PCTC significantly improves the efficiency of CdS nanowires in solar cell applications. The observed increase in EQE values highlights the potential for enhanced performance in photovoltaic devices utilizing these materials.

Conclusion

This study focused on designing, synthesizing and testing the efficiency of two new organic dye-sensitizers, PPC and PCTC, which are derived from phenothiazine. These sensitizers were anchored on 1D-CdS nanowires for use in DSSC. Both sensitizers contain phenothiazine as the main component, acting as an electron donor group and cyanoacetic acid as an anchoring group. Furthermore, PCTC consist of a coumarin ring and a triazole ring, which are linked to the phenothiazine structure by adopting the simple synthetic method. The PCTC sensitizer, with a concentration of 0.324%, exhibits higher efficiency in solar energy absorption compared to PPC (0.31%) and naked CdS nano-wires (0.102%). The DFT and the external quantum efficiency (EQE) results are highly relevant to the photovoltaic experiments. Since, both PCTC and PPC being effective sensitizers commonly employed in DSSC applications can enhance the efficiency of bare CdS NWs by factors of 3.04 and 3.19, respectively.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this article.

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Fig. 11. External quantum efficiency spectra of the DSSCs