

A novel TiO₂ nanorod/nanoparticle composite architecture to improve the performance of dye-sensitized solar cells

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Abstract

In this article, we first prove that the length increase of TiO₂ nanorods by extending reaction time is infeasible for improving dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) efficiency because the longer growth time will lead to combination of nanorods from the roots part and formation of dense film. Then a TiO₂ nanorod-nanoparticle mesoporous film composite anode structure is designed and fabricated that serves as a model architecture for efficient cell devices as it simultaneously offers a large surface area, good light-scattering characteristics and a highly conductive pathway for charge carrier collection. Under standard solar cell measurement conditions, a photovoltaic conversion efficiency of 2.51% is obtained from the nanorod-nanoparticle film composite structure, which is higher than that of pure TiO₂ nanorods DSSC (1.11%). By another surface treatment process with TiCl₄, the DSSC efficiency based on such composite TiO₂ anode is further improved to 3.25%.

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1. Introduction

In the past few decades, dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) have been extensively investigated as a promising alternative to conventional solar cells based on p–n junction due to its low-cost manufacture [1,2]. A traditional DSSC is composed of organic dye, iodide electrolyte, Pt counter-electrode and photoanode which are all the key components for the photovoltaic conversation. Many research groups have tried to improve the DSSCs power conversion efficiency by controlling the structure of anode [3,4]. The usual porous nanocrystalline TiO₂ film offers a big surface area to absorb enough dye. However, the porous structure is not in favor of electron transport due to the multiple transport paths among different grain boundaries [5–7]. Therefore, one-dimensional nanostructure such as nanorod [8–10] or nanotube [11–13] arrays have been adopted to address this issue. They offer direct electrical pathways for electron due to the single crystal structure. But the conversion efficiency is still low because

of smaller photoanode surface area caused by limited nanowire/nanotube length. Additionally, the growth of longer TiO₂ nanorods is also difficult due to combination of nanorods from root parts [14]. Therefore, some researchers developed composite semiconductor films to enhance the light harvesting efficiency and electron transport [15,16]. For example, Sheng et al. [15] added TiO₂ nanotubes (5% content) into porous nanoparticle film and obtained a high power conversion efficiency of 9.79%, as single-crystal nanotube has a longer electron lifetime and less combination loss occurs at the interface. Peng et al. [16] showed that the efficiency of a composite DSSC was improved after 24 wt% rutile nanorods were added to mesoporous film. However, these TiO₂ nanorods are randomly mixed into nanoparticles with inferior electron transport property compared to vertically aligned nanorod or nanotube arrays on the conductive substrate. Therefore, how to efficiently increase the anode specific surface area, transfer electrons and reduce their recombination with redox species is believed to be the key steps in achieving more efficient DSSCs.

In this paper, we design and prepare a new kind of composite anode structure that a layer of TiO₂ nanoparticle

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(TiO₂ NP) film is printed onto the top of TiO₂ nanorod (TiO₂ NR₁) arrays, named TiO₂ NR₁–NP. The TiO₂ NP film composed of commercial P25 nanoparticles with large specific surface area is mesoporous, which can absorb more dye and allow electrolyte solution to penetrate through the TiO₂ NP film and into the underlying TiO₂ NR₁ arrays. For comparison, a TiO₂ nanorod (TiO₂ NR₂) arrays film of the same thickness to that of TiO₂ NR₁–NP is also synthesized by a two-step hydrothermal growth method. It is demonstrated that the cell efficiency with composite TiO₂ NR₁–NP photoanode shows two times increase than that of TiO₂ NR₂ solar cell. Moreover, after a post TiCl₄ immersion treating process, the cell efficiency was further increased. The reasons were investigated by quantum efficiency and electrochemical impedance spectrum measurements.

2. Experimental details

2.1. Synthesis of TiO₂ NR₁ and NR₂

TiO₂ nanorod arrays were prepared by a hydrothermal method as described by Liu and Aydil [17]. Briefly, 30 ml of deionized water was mixed with 30 ml of concentrated hydrochloric acid (37 wt%). The mixture was stirred for 5 min, and then 1.25 ml tetrabutyl titanate was added into the mixture. 15 ml of the above reaction solution was transferred to a Teflon autoclave after being stirred to be clear and preheated at 150 °C for 40 min to expel the air dissolved in the solution. Then, hydrothermal synthesis was conducted at 150 °C for 8 h. That is one growth round for TiO₂ NR₁. To obtain longer TiO₂ NR₂, the TiO₂ NR₁ obtained from the first step was used as seed and similar hydrothermal reaction was repeated. However, 30 ml of deionized water was substituted by 25 ml of deionized water and 5 ml of saturated aqueous NaCl solution. At last, the autoclave was cooled down to room temperature under flowing water. The samples were taken out and then rinsed with deionized water before drying.

2.2. Preparation of TiO₂ NR₁–NP composite film

TiO₂ paste was prepared as reported in the literature [18]. A layer of TiO₂ paste composed of commercial P25 nanoparticles was coated onto the top of TiO₂ NR₁ by a screen-printing technology and the resulting composite film was gradually heated to 450 °C for 30 min. The anodes were then immersed into 0.04 M TiCl₄ aqueous solution at 70 °C for 40 min followed by calcination at 450 °C for 30 min. The obtained sample was named as TiO₂ NR₁–NP–TiCl₄.

2.3. DSSC device fabrication

The dried TiO₂ anodes were immersed in a 0.5 mM N719 ethanol solution for 24 h to absorb dye. The dye-sensitized electrode and Pt-counter electrode were assembled together as a sandwich sealed with 25 µm thick hot-melt gasket (Surllyn 1702). The electrolyte solution composed of 0.05 M I₂, 0.5 M LiI, 0.5 M 4-tertbutylpyridine and 0.3 M DMPH in acetonitrile

was injected into the device space by vacuum backfilling. The active area of final cell was 0.6 × 0.6 cm².

2.4. Anode and cell characterization

The morphology and crystal structure of anode films were examined with field emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM, Quanta FEG250) and X-ray diffraction (XRD, D8-Advance, Bruker), respectively. The diffused reflectance and transmittance spectra were examined by UV–vis–NIR spectrophotometer (UV-3600, Shimadzu) equipped with an integrating sphere. The current–voltage (*I*–*V*) characteristics of the DSSCs were measured with a Keithley 2612A source/meter under simulated sunlight (AM1.5, 100 mW cm^{−2}, San-Ei). The incident-photon-to-current conversion efficiency (IPCE) was measured with a QEX10 system (PV Measurement Inc.). The electrochemical impedance spectrum (EIS) was measured with a Zahner Zennium electrochemical workstation under the solar simulator illumination (100 mW cm^{−2}) at the cell open-circuit voltage. An applied perturbation voltage was 10 mV and the frequency range was from 1 MHz to 100 mHz.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Morphology and crystal structure of different anodes

Fig. 1 shows SEM images of anode films from different angles at variable magnification. These uniform nanorods of Fig. 1(a, c) are nearly perpendicular to the FTO substrate and exhibit quadrangular prism shapes with square top facets, which is the expected TiO₂ growth habit of tetragonal crystal structure. The density of TiO₂ NR₁ is about 4 × 10⁹ cm^{−2} and the average length is ~2 µm via a one-step hydrothermal reaction, as is shown in the inset of Fig. 1(a). By a two-step hydrothermal reaction, the length of TiO₂ NR₂ becomes twice as long and the diameter is also wider. But, the nanorods combine together at their roots and form a continuous film as shown in Fig. 1(a). The TiO₂ NR₁–NP composite film shown in Fig. 1(b) is designed to grow of nearly same thickness with the TiO₂ NR₂. The nanoparticle film printed onto the top of TiO₂ NR₁ is uniform and mesoporous as shown in both the cross-section (Fig. 1(b)) and top (Fig. 1(d)) view SEM images.

Fig. 2 shows the XRD patterns of different kinds of TiO₂ anode films. Beside the diffraction peaks from FTO substrates marked with asterisks, all other peaks in curves (a) and (c) are ascribed to tetragonal rutile phase of TiO₂ (JCPDS no. 88-1175). In comparison with the TiO₂ powder diffraction pattern, the (002) peak is significantly enhanced, especially for curve (c), which indicates that longer TiO₂ nanorods grow preferentially along [001] direction as shown in SEM images. The length of TiO₂ NR₂ is extended to ~4 µm and their orientation is better with a stronger (002)-peak than that of TiO₂ NR₁. As the nanorods are not absolutely perpendicular to the substrate surface, a stronger peak of (101) crystal face is also observed. For TiO₂ NR₁–NP film shown in curve (b), additional peaks of anatase TiO₂ (JCPDS no. 21-1272) from the P25 nanoparticles also appear.

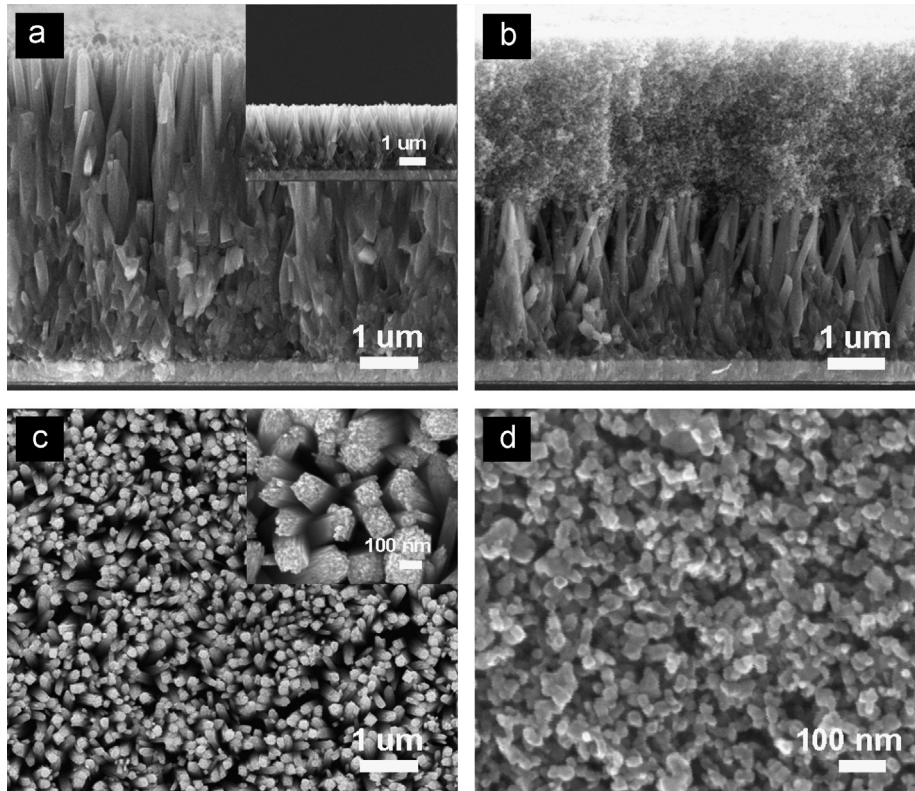


Fig. 1. Cross-sectional (a) and top view (c) SEM images of TiO_2 NR₂ film, inset of (a) is cross-sectional view of TiO_2 NR₁ film; cross-sectional (b) and top view (d) SEM images of TiO_2 NR₁-NP film.

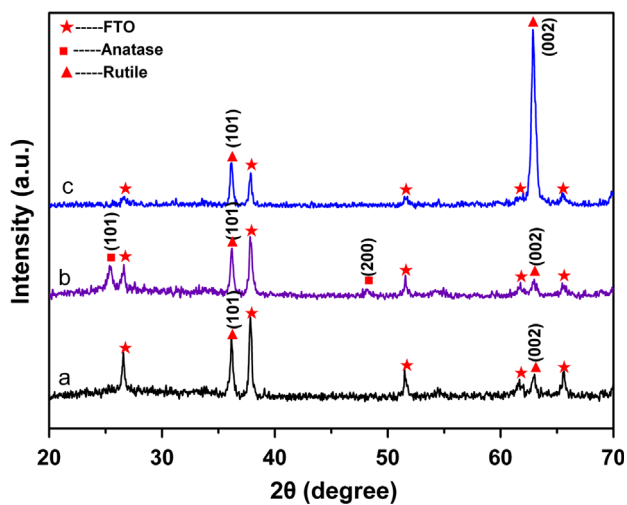


Fig. 2. XRD patterns of (a) TiO_2 NR₁, (b) TiO_2 NR₁-NP and (c) TiO_2 NR₂ films.

3.2. Optical properties and device performance

Fig. 3 shows the photocurrent–voltage (I - V) curves of DSSCs fabricated with different TiO_2 anodes and the according photovoltaic parameters are summarized in Table 1. The DSSC with TiO_2 NR₁ anode gets a higher short-circuit current density (J_{sc}) of 3.52 mA cm^{-2} than that (2.90 mA cm^{-2}) of TiO_2 NR₂ DSSC, which is different to our former expectation. To explore the reason, reflection and transmission properties of these two nanorod anodes were compared, as shown in Fig. 4. The reflectance of TiO_2 NR₂

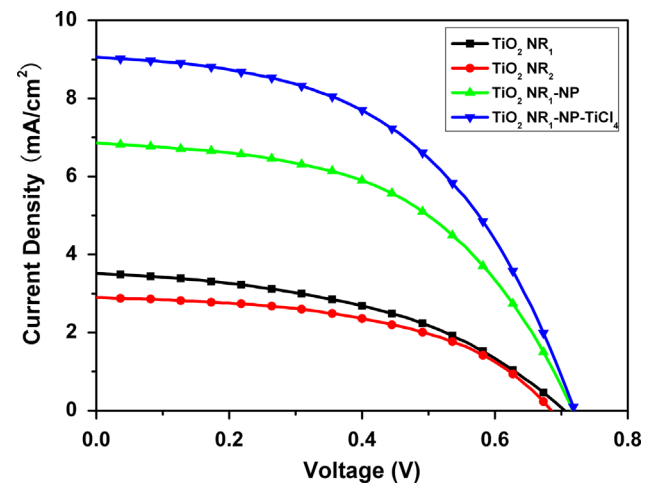


Fig. 3. I - V curves of the DSSCs fabricated with TiO_2 NR₁, TiO_2 NR₂, TiO_2 NR₁-NP and TiO_2 NR₁-NP- TiCl_4 anodes, respectively, under AM1.5 solar irradiation of 100 mW cm^{-2} .

Table 1
Photovoltaic parameters of different kinds of DSSC calculated from Fig. 3.

DSSC Anodes	V_{oc} (V)	J_{sc} (mA cm^{-2})	F.F.	η (%)
TiO_2 NR ₁	0.71	3.52	0.45	1.11
TiO_2 NR ₂	0.68	2.90	0.50	0.99
TiO_2 NR ₁ -NP	0.71	6.86	0.51	2.51
TiO_2 NR ₁ -NP- TiCl_4	0.72	9.06	0.50	3.25

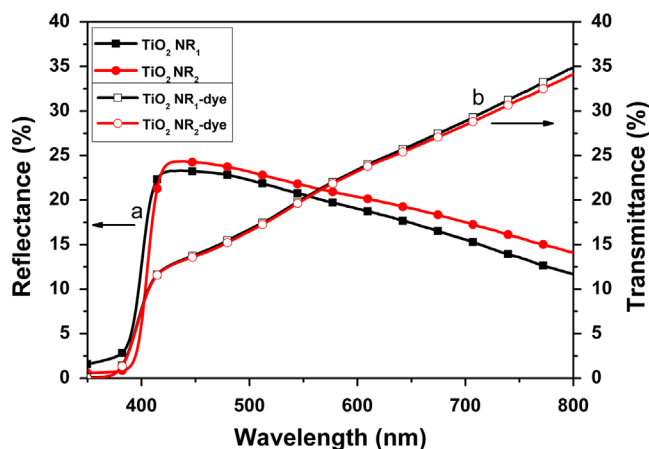


Fig. 4. (a) Diffused reflectance spectra of TiO₂ NR₁ and TiO₂ NR₂ films measured with integrating sphere, the films were illuminated from the TiO₂ side; (b) Transmittance spectra of TiO₂ NR₁ and TiO₂ NR₂ films sensitized by N719 dye, the testing light first contact the glass side into the integrating sphere.

is higher in the visible light wavelength range. This means that the longer TiO₂ nanorods exhibit superior light scattering performance than the shorter ones. However, the transmittance values of both sensitized nanorod anodes with dye are nearly identical from 380 nm to 650 nm, which corresponds to the spectral response range of N719 dye. It suggests that almost similar amount of light was captured by these two different anodes. Therefore, we can conclude that less dye was absorbed on the TiO₂ NR₂ anode due to its smaller internal surface area. As shown in Fig. 1(a), the diameter of TiO₂ NR₂ grows wider and the nanorod roots even form a continuous film. Furthermore, we also notice that the contact between TiO₂ NR₂ and FTO substrate becomes weaker after two step growth that will retard electron collection. As a result, the efficiency of TiO₂ NR₂ cell is lower than that of TiO₂ NR₁ cell, which is contrary to our expectation. Therefore, it proves that this method to improve the cell efficiency by extending TiO₂ nanorod length is infeasible at present.

From Table 1, we can find that TiO₂ NR₁-NP cell has both higher J_{sc} and efficiency of 6.86 mA cm⁻² and 2.51%, respectively, which is the result of significantly increased surface area of composite anode. The upper TiO₂ film on nanorod arrays composed of P25 nanoparticles increases the anode specific surface area effectively for dye absorption. Simultaneously, the porous structure is beneficial for electrolyte to penetrate through the total TiO₂ composite film. Fig. 3 also compares device performance of TiO₂ NR₁-NP that was treated with or without TiCl₄. After surface treatment, J_{sc} increases to 9.06 mA cm⁻², and open-circuit voltage (V_{oc}) and filling factor (FF) are both similar to the untreated cell. Consequently, the efficiency reaches to 3.25% with an increment of 29%. The large increase of J_{sc} can be explained as follows. After TiCl₄ post-treatment, a thin blocking layer of TiO₂ is deposited on the naked FTO surface that reduces the recombination loss between accumulated electrons and electrolyte [19,20]. Moreover, smaller TiO₂ crystallites grown on the surface of nanorods and nanoparticles composite film will further increase the surface area for more light capture [4]. The different cell photovoltaic conversation behaviors can be further investigated by quantum efficiency measurement.

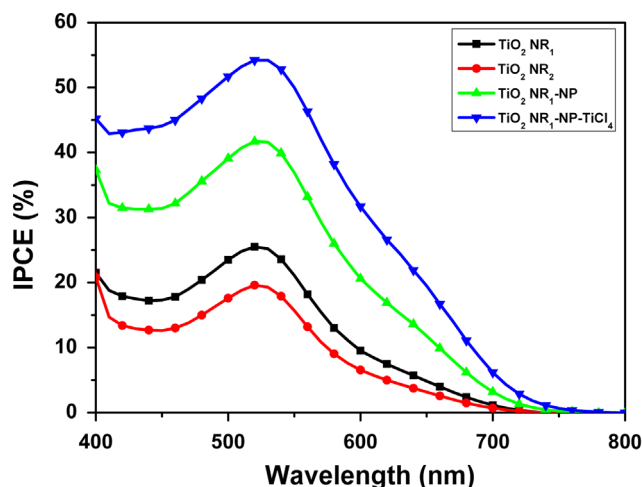


Fig. 5. IPCE spectra of the DSSCs fabricated with TiO₂ NR₁, TiO₂ NR₂, TiO₂ NR₁-NP and TiO₂ NR₁-NP-TiCl₄ anodes.

Fig. 5 shows the IPCE spectra of four kinds of DSSCs with different TiO₂ anodes obtained at the short-circuit condition. As can be seen, the IPCE curves from 400 to 700 nm exhibit similar spectrum shape and have an order of TiO₂ NR₂ < TiO₂ NR₁ < TiO₂ NR₁-NP < TiO₂ NR₁-NP-TiCl₄ at the visible light wavelength range, which is consistent with J_{sc} order. The IPCE gets a maximum efficiency at 530 nm corresponding to the absorption peak of the N719 dye.

Fig. 6 shows the electrochemical impedance spectra of the above different DSSC devices. Generally, three semicircles can be observed from the impedance spectra in the frequency range of 1–100 mHz, which correspond to the charge transfer resistance at the electrolyte/Pt-electrode interface (R_{pt}), at the TiO₂/dye/electrolyte interface (R_{ct}) and the diffusion resistance of I⁻/I³⁻ in the electrolyte (R_{diff}) in succession [21]. As shown in Fig. 6, the first and third semicircles are almost negligible. It means that R_{pt} and R_{diff} are very small in comparison with R_{ct} and indicates that the process of charge transfer at the TiO₂/dye/electrolyte interface is the most dominant factor for the DSSC photovoltaic performance. It is worth mentioning that the minimum value of R_{ct} is observed from TiO₂ NR₁-NP composite DSSC. This indicates that the addition of NP film contributes to the reduction of charge transfer resistance. The R_{ct} is further reduced after TiCl₄ treatment that means the conductivity is improved because the nanoparticles connect more closely. As we can see, the R_{ct} value of TiO₂ NR₁ film is the largest close to TiO₂ NR₂ film. This can be attributed to the lowest amount of dye absorption with the result of the lowest electron density injecting to the TiO₂ conduction band. Consequently, the charge transfer process becomes difficult with a result of poor DSSC photovoltaic performance.

Furthermore, the lifetime of electrons (τ) can be estimated from the Bode-phase plots, as shown in Fig. 7, according to the following equation [21]:

$$\tau = \frac{1}{2\pi f_{\min}}$$

where $f_{\min}$ inversely proportional to τ is the minimum frequency of the mid-frequency peak. From Fig. 7, we can find that the electron lifetime of TiO₂ NR₁ film is bigger than that of longer TiO₂ NR₂.

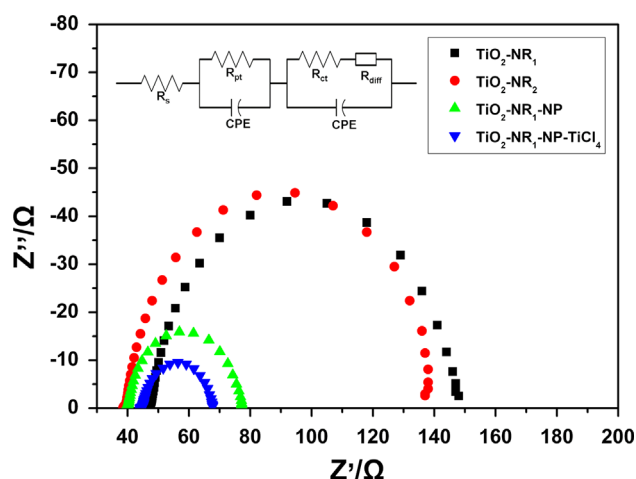


Fig. 6. Nyquist plots of the DSSCs fabricated with TiO_2 NR₁, NR₂, NR₁-NP and NR₁-NP- TiCl_4 anodes, respectively, at the open circuit voltage illuminated with AM1.5 solar light of 100 mW cm^{-2} . The inset shows the equivalent circuit for EIS.

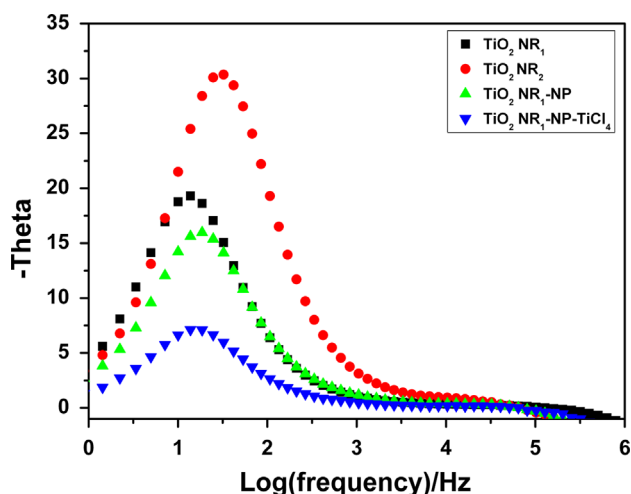


Fig. 7. Bode plots of the DSSCs fabricated with TiO_2 NR₁, NR₂, NR₁-NP and NR₁-NP- TiCl_4 anodes, at the open circuit voltage illuminated with AM1.5 solar light of 100 mW cm^{-2} .

Maybe the combination of nanorods at the root as shown in Fig. 1 (a) considerably increases the possibility of electron recombination. However, the frequency peak of TiO_2 NR-NP film moves to left no matter it was treated with TiCl_4 or not. This indicates the composite anode has a longer electron lifetime than TiO_2 NR₂ film. At the same time, the electron lifetime of TiO_2 NR₁-NP DSSC only declines slightly in comparison with TiO_2 NR₁ DSSC. This implies that the introduction of NP film can effectively improve the cell photovoltaic conversion efficiency at the expense of slight electron lifetime short.

4. Conclusion

In summary, we first prove that the length increase of TiO_2 nanorods by extending reaction time is infeasible for improving DSSCs efficiency because the longer growth period will lead to combination of nanorods from the roots part and

formation of dense film. To overcome this problem, we designed and grew a composite anode consisting of TiO_2 nanorods and mesoporous nanoparticle film. This new type of anode structure combines the advantages of the two parts together. The TiO_2 nanorods offer the direct electron transport pathways with long electron lifetime and enhance light scattering while the mesoporous film supplies large surface area to absorb a large amount of dye. Therefore, a photovoltaic conversion efficiency of 2.51% is obtained from the nanorod-nanoparticle composite film, which is higher than that obtained from pure TiO_2 nanorods DSSC (1.11%). By the another surface treatment process with TiCl_4 , the DSSC efficiency based on such composite TiO_2 anode is further improved to 3.25%. However, the efficiency is still low, and it has a long way for us to go in order to optimize the composite film.

Acknowledgments

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