

Hierarchically Structured Microspheres for High-Efficiency Rutile TiO₂-Based Dye-Sensitized Solar Cells

Meidan Ye,^{†,‡} Dajiang Zheng,^{†,‡} Mengye Wang,^{†,‡} Chang Chen,[†] Wenming Liao,^{‡,§} Changjian Lin,^{*,†} and Zhiqun Lin^{*,‡}

[†]State Key Laboratory of Physical Chemistry of Solid Surfaces, and Department of Chemistry, College of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering, Xiamen University, Xiamen 361005, China

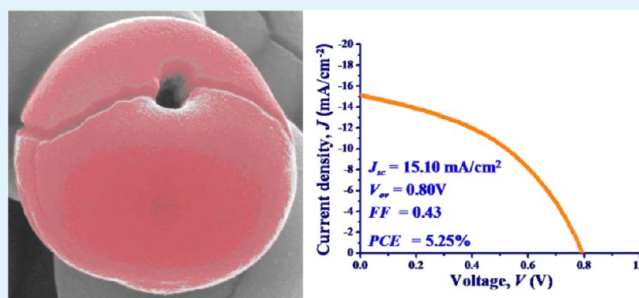
[‡]School of Materials Science and Engineering, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, Georgia 30332, United States

[§]School of Chemical Engineering and Technology, Tianjin University, Tianjin, China 30072

S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Peachlike rutile TiO₂ microsphere films were successfully produced on transparent conducting fluorine-doped tin oxide substrate via a facile, one-pot chemical bath route at low temperature ($T = 80\text{--}85\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) by introducing polyethylene glycol (PEG) as steric dispersant. The formation of TiO₂ microspheres composed of nanoneedles was attributed to the acidic medium for the growth of 1D needle-shaped building blocks where the steric interaction of PEG reduced the aggregation of TiO₂ nanoneedles and the Ostwald ripening process. Dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) assembled by employing these complex rutile TiO₂ microspheres as photoanodes exhibited a light-to-electricity conversion efficiency of 2.55%. It was further improved to a considerably high efficiency of 5.25% upon a series of post-treatments (i.e., calcination, TiCl₄ treatment, and O₂ plasma exposure) as a direct consequence of the well-crystallized TiO₂ for fast electron transport, the enhanced capacity of dye loading, the effective light scattering, and trapping from microstructures.

KEYWORDS: rutile TiO₂ microspheres, low-temperature synthesis, chemical bath method, dye-sensitized solar cells, post-treatments, light-to-electricity conversion efficiency



INTRODUCTION

Because of its outstanding chemical and physical properties, including chemical stability, photostability and appropriate electronic band structure, TiO₂ has received extensive attention as a promising candidate for use in water splitting, photocatalysis, sensors, and dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) over the past decades.^{1–7} The ability to tune nanostructured TiO₂ to different morphologies and polymorphs is the key to effectively realize aforementioned applications, as its optical and electrical properties depend critically on the shape, size, and phase of TiO₂.^{8–12} TiO₂ exists mainly in four crystal structures: anatase, rutile, brookite, and TiO₂ (B). Different phases possess different physicochemical properties offering different functionalities. Among these four phases, rutile and anatase are the most practically important crystal structures. In the photocatalytic applications, anatase usually exhibits higher activity than rutile because of the lower electron mobility and the greater electron–hole recombination in rutile.^{13,14} However, rutile (3.02 eV) has a smaller band gap than anatase (3.20 eV), leading partially to a photoresponse extending slightly into the visible light region. Moreover, rutile is the most thermodynamically stable and has high refractive index and good light-reflecting properties.^{11,14,15} Strikingly, when mixing them

together, the synergistic effect between anatase and rutile phases induces the spatial charge separation and reduces the electron–hole recombination, leading to enhanced photocatalytic efficiency.^{12,16} Notably, the most commercially active photocatalyst Degussa P25 is a mixture of anatase and rutile phases.^{5,13,17}

In addition, TiO₂ nanocrystals with various morphologies, such as nanorods, nanotubes, nanowires, nanosheets, nanospheres, etc., have been obtained by many synthetic approaches, including sol-gel synthesis, chemical bath method, hydrothermal process, chemical/physical vapor deposition, electrochemical anodization.^{18–26} Among these techniques, low temperature and atmospheric pressure synthetic strategies are highly desirable primarily due to the use of relatively simple reaction equipment, safe operation, and low fabrication cost.^{16,27} Accordingly, much work has centered on the preparation of crystalline TiO₂ nanostructures in moderate conditions.^{8,9,16,28} For example, rod-shaped rutile nanocrystals were prepared by thermohydrolysis of titanium(IV) chloride in

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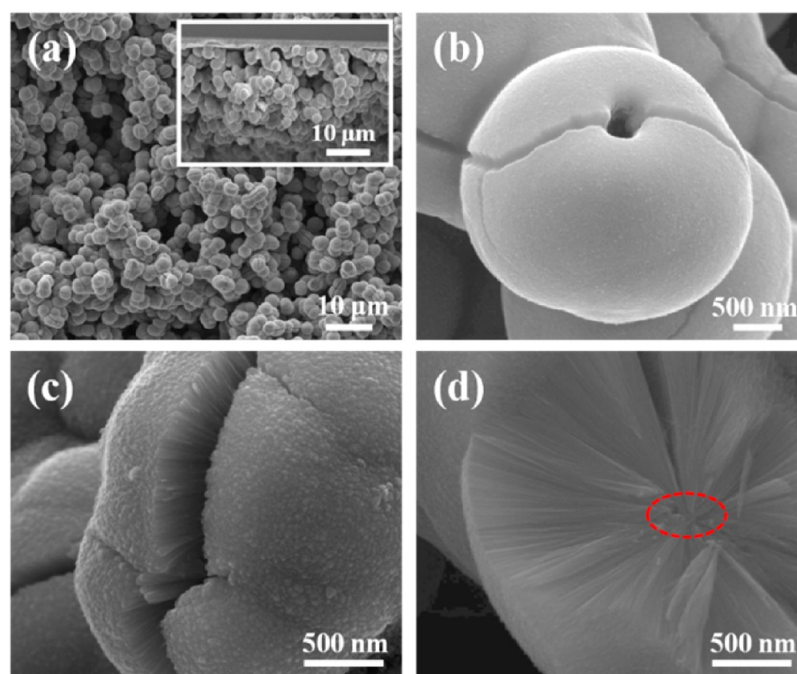


Figure 1. SEM images of the TiO₂ microsphere film on the FTO glass substrate prepared by a chemical bath process for 12 h: (a) microspheres over a large area (inset: the cross-sectional view); (b) a full-grown microsphere; (c) surface of the microsphere; and (d) inside of the microsphere (red dashed line marked the solid core of microspheres).

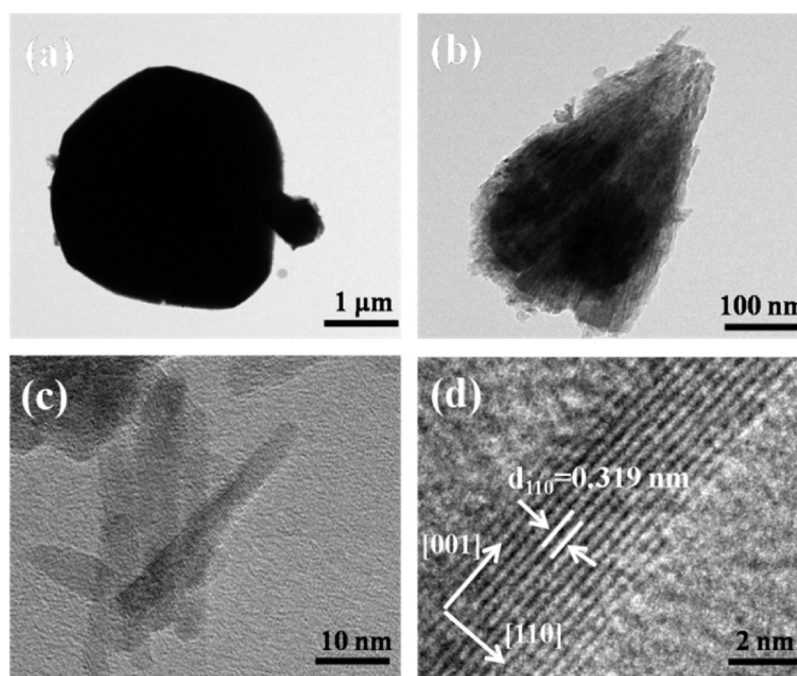


Figure 2. TEM images of TiO₂ microsphere prepared by a chemical bath process for 12 h: (a) a fully grown microsphere; (b) a small portion taken from the microsphere; (c) nanoneedle building blocks within microsphere; (d) HRTEM image of a TiO₂ nanoneedle.

hydrochloric acid/alcohol aqueous solution at 40–90 °C.⁸ The anatase TiO₂ nanocrystals with various shapes obtained from controlled aqueous sol–gel reaction at room temperature showed superior photocatalytic activities.²⁷

To date, zero-dimensional (0D), one-dimensional (1D) and two-dimensional (2D) TiO₂ nanostructures are routinely synthesized in a large scale by various physical and chemical routes.^{29–31} Notably, 3D TiO₂ architectures assembled with enormous 0D, 1D, or 2D morphologies have attracted intensive

interest as they combine the feature of nanoscopic building blocks (i.e., unique physicochemical properties and large areas) and the benefit of microscopic structures (i.e., advantageous scattering effect for light harvesting and easy handling), and thus have potential applications in photocatalysts and DSSCs.^{9,32–34} Recently, 3D TiO₂ architectures composed of nanoparticles, nanorods, nanowires, nanosheets and nanotubes have been reported.^{10,32,33,35–37} For instance, F-containing anatase TiO₂ hollow microspheres shaped by aggregating

several nanoflakes were obtained by hydrothermal treatment of TiF_4 in H_2SO_4 aqueous solution at $160\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and exhibited excellent performance in photocatalysis of methyl blue (MB).³⁶ Furthermore, DSSCs based on the TiO_2 nanobranch arrays prepared via a two-step synthesis showed a power conversion efficiency of 3.75%, because of the increase in dye adsorption and light harvesting efficiency.³⁸ However, it is noteworthy that the fabrication of these complex superstructures often requires stringent conditions, especially high temperature and high pressure.^{32,33,36,38,39}

Herein, we report the direct formation of well-defined peach-like rutile TiO_2 microspheres on fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) substrate via a simple, one-step low-temperature chemical bath route under atmospheric pressure. The well-defined microspheres comprising of massive nanoneedles (i.e., hierarchically structured TiO_2 microspheres) provided high surface area for dye adsorption and effective light scattering, yielding DSSCs with a power conversion efficiency (PCE) of 2.55%. Remarkably, subsequent calcination, TiCl_4 treatment and O_2 plasma exposure rendered a markedly improved PCE of 5.25% as a direct consequence of well-crystallized TiO_2 , for fast electron transport, the improved dye loading, the effective light scattering and trapping from microspheres.

Figure 1a displays a representative field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) image of TiO_2 microsphere film prepared in a chemical bath reaction containing a mixture of 15 mL of H_2O , 5 mL of ethanol, 5 mL of concentrated hydrochloric acid, 0.50 mL of TTIP, and 0.50 g of PEG14000 at $80\text{--}85\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 12 h. Such film densely distributed over the entire surface of the FTO substrate. It consisted of large quantities of microspheres (Figure 1a) with a thickness of approximately $30\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ (inset in Figure 1a). A close-up of a fully grown microsphere revealed the microsphere had a round peachlike feature with a cavity on the top of the surface. Some cracks on the surface were also clearly evident (Figure 1b). Close examination showed that the microspheres possessed rough surface (Figure 1c) and was made of numerous slender subunits (i.e., needle-shaped building blocks) with an approximately $1.5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ long and radially oriented with their growth axes spreading from a solid core (red circle in Figure 1d, i.e., possessing hierarchical architectures).

To examine the detailed structure of an individual microsphere, we performed transmission electron microscopy (TEM). The sample was subjected to mild ultrasonication in ethanol solution to yield an individual microsphere. Interestingly, Figure 2a shows a single microsphere with a diameter of $2\text{--}3\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ (Figure 2a), which accidentally happened to be decorated with a short rod on its top when prepared via the ultrasonication. Each microsphere was composed of numerous parallel nanoneedles with diameters in a range of $5\text{--}10\text{ nm}$ (Figures 2b and 2c). More importantly, these nanoneedles were completely crystalline as confirmed by high-resolution TEM (HRTEM). The lattice fringe with interplanar spacing of $d_{110} = 3.19\text{ \AA}$ can be indexed to tetragonal rutile phase (Figure 2d). In general, the (110) crystal plane is perpendicular to the (001) crystal plane, and thus the nanoneedles grew along the (110) crystal plane with a preferred [001] orientation.⁴⁰

Moreover, Figure 3 shows the Raman spectrum of TiO_2 microspheres prepared by chemical bath process for 12 h, indicating that the as-prepared sample possesses rutile phase according to the characteristic Raman modes at 132 cm^{-1} (B_{1g}), 440 cm^{-1} (E_g), and 608 cm^{-1} (A_{1g}) with a broad band near 240 cm^{-1} assigned to a second-order phonon.^{41,42}

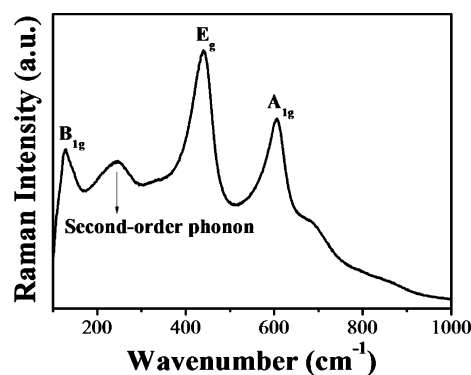


Figure 3. Raman spectrum of TiO_2 microsphere film prepared by chemical bath process for 12 h.

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis also showed that the microsphere films were pure rutile TiO_2 . As shown in Figure 4,

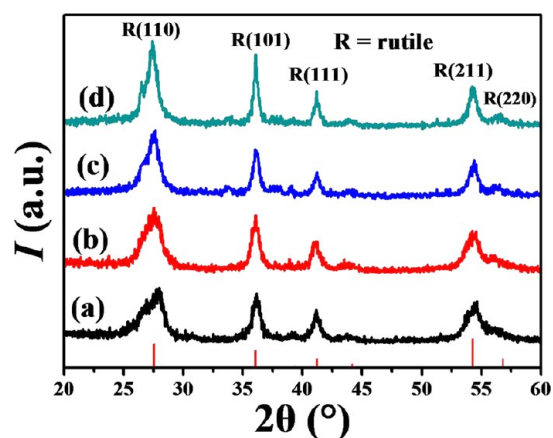


Figure 4. XRD patterns of TiO_2 microsphere films prepared via the chemical bath process for different times: (a) 3, (b) 6, (c) 9, and (d) 12 h. Red vertical lines in the figure represent the standard XRD pattern of rutile (JCPDS No.01-1292).

microsphere films prepared under typical reaction conditions for different times possessed the same diffraction peaks regardless of the difference in intensity, and can be assigned to tetragonal rutile phase with the diffraction peaks at $2\theta = 27.4, 36.1, 41.2, 54.3,$ and 56.6° , corresponding to the (110), (101), (111), (211), and (220) crystal faces of rutile TiO_2 (space group, $P4_2/mnm$; JCPDS No. 01-1292, $a = b = 0.459\text{ nm}$ and $c = 0.295\text{ nm}$), in accordance with the HRTEM measurement (Figure 2d) and the Raman result (Figure 3). In the work that follows, the growth parameters were scrutinized in order to reveal the prominent factors that governed the formation of hierarchical architectures.

As displayed in Figure S1 (see the Supporting Information), in the absence of both PEG14000 and ethanol, the formed film consisted of large agglomerates fused together (Figure S1a). The agglomeration was also observed when only 5 mL ethanol was added (see Figure S1b and Figure S4a in the Supporting Information). In contrast, well-defined microspheres clearly appeared over a large scale when produced in the presence of 0.50 g of PEG14000 only (see Figure S1c in the Supporting Information), implying that the addition of PEG14000 favorably assisted the formation of discrete microspheres. Furthermore, the addition of both PEG14000 and ethanol promoted the production of much more elaborate micro-

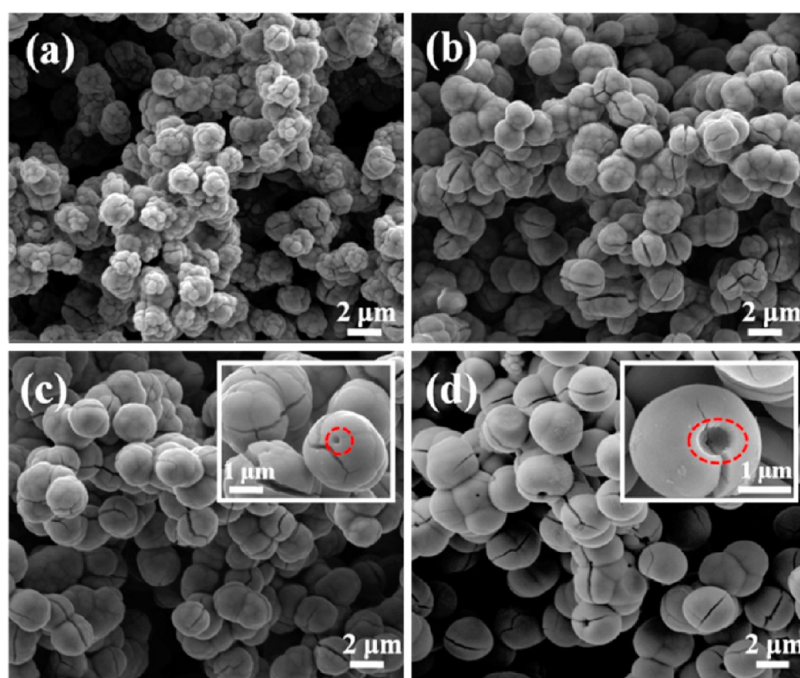


Figure 5. SEM images of TiO_2 microspheres prepared by a chemical bath process for different times: (a) 3, (b) 6, and (c) 9 h (inset: the microsphere with a cavity); and (d) 12 h (inset: the microsphere with a cavity).

spheres (Figure 5d). However, some microspheres still unavoidably connected together during the growth (Figure 5d). In other control experiments, on the one hand, reducing the amount of PEG14000 to 0.25 g resulted in larger microspheres (see Figure S2a in the Supporting Information), whereas increasing its amount to 1.00 g introduced broken microspheres composed of several smaller spheres (see Figure S2b in the Supporting Information). Obviously, the presence of PEG14000 significantly disrupted the agglomerated TiO_2 nanocrystals and markedly imparted the formation of versatile hierarchical architectures as a function of the concentration of PEG14000. On the other hand, the growth temperature also critically influenced the microsphere organization. Inevitably, decreasing the growth temperature down to 70 °C yielded the aggregated microspheres (see Figure S2c in the Supporting Information). Additionally, lower concentration of TTIP precursors gave rise to small particulate microspheres (see Figure S2d in the Supporting Information), whereas higher precursor concentration induced larger microspheres (see Figure S2e in the Supporting Information). This is not surprising as the precursor concentration affected the hydrolysis rate of Ti^{4+} , which in turn greatly impacted the nucleation density, leading to the largely different hierarchically structured TiO_2 microspheres. Similarly, reducing the volume of HCl down to 1 mL promoted the quick hydrolysis of precursors, leaving almost nothing on the FTO substrate; however, increasing the acid volume to 10 mL yielded flower-like morphology comprising several short nanorods (see Figure S2f in the Supporting Information) because of the vigorous suppression of Ti^{4+} hydrolysis under high acidity condition.

In our time-dependent study, it showed that the Ostwald ripening occurred during the chemical bath process. Specifically, the nanocrystals were emerged readily after 1.5 h (see Figure S3a in the Supporting Information). The microspheres spread completely over the FTO substrate after 3 h (Figure 5a). The diameter of formed microspheres was then gradually

increased from roughly 1 to 3 μm ; and concurrently, the microspheres evolved into clear peachlike features as the time progressed from 6 h to 12 h (Figure 5). In comparison to that obtained at 12 h (Figure 5d), the prolonged growth to 15 h yielded an almost similar microsphere feature and film thickness (see Figure S3b and Table S1 in the Supporting Information), suggesting that the TTIP precursor was almost completely consumed and the size of microspheres was nearly stable after 12 h. Moreover, the peak intensities in XRD patterns were progressively increased (Figure 4), which was associated with the increase in the film thickness and the degree of crystallization. The film thickness was increased from 10 to 30 μm , whereas the crystal size coarsened from 10 to 15 nm (calculated according to the Scherrer equation), as the reaction proceeded from 3 to 15 h (see Table S1 and Figure S4b in the Supporting Information). In the Ostwald ripening process, the smaller and less crystalline or less dense structure would be dissolved gradually, while the larger and better crystallized or denser structure would grow.^{43,44} Thus, within the microspheres, prolonged growth time yielded better crystallized TiO_2 nanocrystals that grew larger at the expense of smaller and less crystalline TiO_2 nanocrystals. Consequently, the crystallinity and the diameter of microspheres along with their film thickness were all increased during the course of crystal growth, dissolution and redeposition. Interestingly, a circular cavity with a diameter of 200 nm on the top of microsphere was apparently emerged after 9 h (marked in red cycle in the inset of Figure 5c), which increased to 700 nm after 12 h (red cycle in the inset of Figure 5d). The formation of these cavities could be ascribed to the crystal dissolution in the Ostwald ripening process, namely, some less-crystalline sites with more defects on the microsphere surface were preferentially dissolved.^{45,46} We note that the appearance of surface cracks (Figure 1c) is expected to reduce the surface tension of microsphere and retain its lowest energy as the minimization in surface energy is

the dominant driving force for the crystal growth and structure evolution.⁴⁷

In the present study, FTO glasses were used as substrates to support TiO₂ films as they possess a tetragonal rutile structure and the small lattice mismatch (only 2%) between the tetragonal FTO ($a = b = 0.4687$ nm) and rutile TiO₂ ($a = b = 0.4594$ nm).⁴⁰ Such small lattice mismatch promoted the epitaxial nucleation and growth of rutile TiO₂ film compactly on the FTO substrate with a close interaction, which is highly desirable to effectively transfer the excited electrons from TiO₂ to the FTO substrate for high-performance DSSCs. In addition, because of the presence of HCl in the precursor, the formation of 1D TiO₂ nanostructures (e.g., rods or needles) instead of 3D nanoparticles was favored as the (110) plane of rutile has a positive polar-face and Cl⁻ can be preferentially adsorbed on its surface to restrain the contact of the TiO₂ grains with the (110) surface, and thus the crystal growth along the [110] direction was greatly retarded, while accelerated in the [001] direction, thereby forming nanoneedle-like building blocks.^{40,48} These nanoneedles, however, can aggregate together to reduce the overall surface energy and reach a stable state by forming an agglomerated shape. To this end, PEG14000 was employed to interrupt the agglomeration. It is well known that that PEG is an inexpensive, nontoxic, nonvolatile and nonionic surfactant with excellent water-solubility, lubricating property and high stability at room temperature.⁴⁹ Moreover, PEG is available in a wide molecular weight distribution (in the range of 200–20 000) and different chain length with diverse frameworks, which ultimately provide different assembling effects on the final products. More importantly, PEG contains hydrophilic groups (i.e., –OH end group and –O– along the chain), which can effectively act as a donor to metal ions to form metal complexes with diverse conformations, and precisely control the morphology of the resulting materials.^{44,50–53} Therefore, PEG has been widely utilized in the synthesis of a number of materials, including TiO₂, ZnO, and CaCO₃.^{28,51–54} In this work, PEG14000 is considered as a steric dispersant that prevent the agglomeration of TiO₂ microspheres, while ethanol acts to facilitate the dissolution of PEG14000. It is worth noting that the O atom in PEG has loose coordination ability with metal ions, which renders PEG to adsorb onto the surface of primary TiO₂ nanocrystals to reduce the surface tension, and at the same time the adsorbed PEG with long organic chains on the TiO₂ surface impose a steric interaction to slow down the precursor hydrolysis rate and alleviate the agglomeration during the crystal growth.^{44,53} As a result, the reduced agglomeration favored the formation of well-defined microsphere architecture. Notably, secondary nucleation can occur preferentially on the active sites with more defects of the as-grown microspheres.^{48,55} Thus, it is not surprising that several individual microspheres grew up conjointly, and ultimately connected one another in the form of microsphere clusters.

All TiO₂ microsphere films noted above were then utilized as photoanodes to produce DSSCs, and their performance was measured (see Experimental Section). Table 1 and Table S2 in the Supporting Information summarize the device performance of the resulting N719 dye-sensitized rutile TiO₂-based solar cells, where the representative current–voltage (J – V) characteristics are shown in Figure 6. In DSSCs, the amount of dye loading, the light harvesting and the efficient charge separation and transport have crucial influences on the light-to-electricity conversion efficiency of DSSCs. In this context, first, we surveyed the devices produced using rutile TiO₂ that were

Table 1. Summary of Device Performance of Dye-Sensitized Solar Cells Based on Rutile TiO₂ Microsphere Films Prepared under Different Conditions

sample	J_{sc} (mA/cm ²)	V_{oc} (V)	FF	PCE (%)
3 h	3.91	0.68	0.53	1.41
6 h	4.86	0.71	0.56	1.92
9 h	5.70	0.76	0.49	2.13
12 h	6.58	0.80	0.48	2.55
15 h	6.40	0.75	0.53	2.52
12 h/450 °C	8.71	0.82	0.42	3.02
12 h/600 °C	10.55	0.85	0.43	3.89
12 h/600 °C/TiCl ₄	13.97	0.83	0.41	4.77
12 h/600 °C/TiCl ₄ /O ₂	15.10	0.80	0.43	5.25

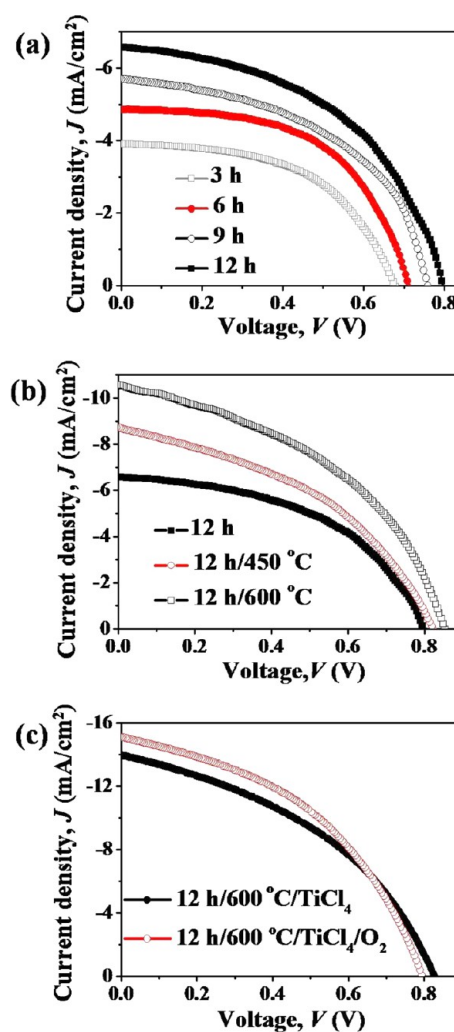


Figure 6. J – V characteristics of DSSCs capitalizing on TiO₂ microsphere films as photoanodes. (a) The TiO₂ microsphere films prepared by a chemical bath process for different times: 3, 6, 9, and 12 h. (b) The TiO₂ microsphere films grown for 12 h without annealing, with annealing at 450 °C, and with annealing at 600 °C. (c) The TiO₂ microsphere films grown for 12 h and then annealed at 600 °C, followed by TiCl₄ treatment, and under the same treatment as previous, followed by the last step of O₂ plasma exposure.

prepared under different experimental conditions but without any post-treatments (Table 1 and Table S2 in the Supporting Information); the optimal microsphere film yielded with the assistance of PEG14000 in TiO₂ precursor was found to show

the highest device performance, exhibiting an open circuit voltage V_{oc} of 0.80 V, a short circuit current J_{sc} of 6.58 mA/cm², a fill factor FF of 0.48, and a power conversion efficiency PCE of 2.55% (Table 1 and Figure 6a), and representing a 46% increase in PCE as compared to the samples prepared in absence of PEG14000 ($PCE = 1.75\%$, $J_{sc} = 5.99$ mA/cm², $V_{oc} = 0.74$ V, $FF = 0.39$, Table S2 in the Supporting Information). Such a performance enhancement (i.e., $PCE = 2.55\%$) can be attributed to the larger surface area for more dye uptake (see Table S1 in the Supporting Information), in combination with the increased crystallization (Figure S4a) and improved light harvesting because of the hierarchical structures (Figure 7a). We note that as the growth time progressed, the thickness (see Table S1 in the Supporting Information) and crystallization (Figure 4) of TiO₂ films were increased simultaneously, which contributed higher dye adsorption (i.e. the amount of dye loading increased from 1.38×10^{-8} mol/cm² to 2.71×10^{-8} mol/

cm² when the growth time increased from 3 h to 12 h, Table S1 in the Supporting Information) and fast electron transport, and thus higher performance of the corresponding DSSCs (i.e., PCE improved from 1.41% for the 3 h TiO₂ microsphere film to 2.55% for the 12 h TiO₂ microsphere film, Table 1 and Figure 6a). As noted above, when the growth was up to 12 h, the films tended to be stable due to the equilibrium between the crystal growth and the dissolution process (see Tables S1 and S2 in the Supporting Information). Therefore, the microsphere films prepared from the 12 h chemical bath reaction was chosen to conduct the further studies as discussed below.

Second, in order to increase the crystallinity of TiO₂ nanocrystals for fast electron transport in DSSCs, the above optimal microsphere films (i.e., with $PCE = 2.55\%$) were then calcined. As clearly evident in Figure S4c, the crystallization of rutile phase was improved after calcined at either 450 °C or 600 °C. Accordingly, this thermal modification greatly raised the PCE from 2.55% to 3.02% ($J_{sc} = 8.71$ mA/cm², $V_{oc} = 0.82$ V, $FF = 0.42$) for calcination at 450 °C, and to 3.89% ($J_{sc} = 10.55$ mA/cm², $V_{oc} = 0.85$ V, $FF = 0.43$) for calcination at 600 °C (Table 1 and Figure 6b), respectively. However, the calcination also led to the formation of bigger crystals with a slightly lower surface area (see Table S1 in the Supporting Information), as reported in literature.^{8,14} It is well-documented that when amorphous TiO₂ is thermally annealed below 500 °C, the anatase phase will be formed.⁵⁶ This is also confirmed in this work when the samples were treated with TiCl₄ solution to decorate amorphous TiO₂ nanoparticles on the microsphere film surface that had been calcined at 600 °C, followed by the calcination again at 450 °C (Figure S4d), the anatase phase was emerged as evidenced in the XRD measurement (Figure S4d). However, when calcined the as-prepared TiO₂ microspheres without TiCl₄ treatment at 450 °C, no anatase phase appeared (see Figure S4c in the Supporting Information). This result implies that the microsphere film even without any calcination was already in its complete crystallization state of rutile phase, but with many defects in the film prepared at low temperature; thus, the calcination process was performed to increase their crystallinity.

Third, as noted above, TiCl₄ treatment followed by a 450 °C calcination additionally deposit many anatase nanoparticles on the microsphere surface (see Figure S3c in the Supporting Information). Clearly, this decoration certainly increased the amount of dye uptake from 2.59×10^{-8} mol/cm² to 2.88×10^{-8} mol/cm² for the corresponding samples (see Table S1 in the Supporting Information), suggesting an 11% increase in the dye capacity. Thus, the TiCl₄-treated DSSC showed an enhanced PCE of 4.77% ($J_{sc} = 13.97$ mA/cm², $V_{oc} = 0.83$ V, $FF = 0.41$, Table 1 and Figure 6c), representing a 23% increase in PCE (as compared to $PCE = 3.89\%$ for non-TiCl₄ treated device).

Finally, to further improve the device efficiency of DSSCs, we exposed microsphere films to O₂ plasma prior to the immersion of the films into the N719 dye solution. We have previously reported that upon the exposure to O₂ plasma, the density of hydroxyl groups on the TiO₂ surface increased and eventually saturated; this increased the amount of dye loading due to the coupling reaction between terminal carboxylic acid groups on N719 and complementary hydroxyl groups on the TiO₂ surface, thus significantly regulating the charge transfer from the N719 dye to TiO₂.²⁴ In the present study, a 10 min O₂ plasma exposure was applied according to our previous work.²⁴

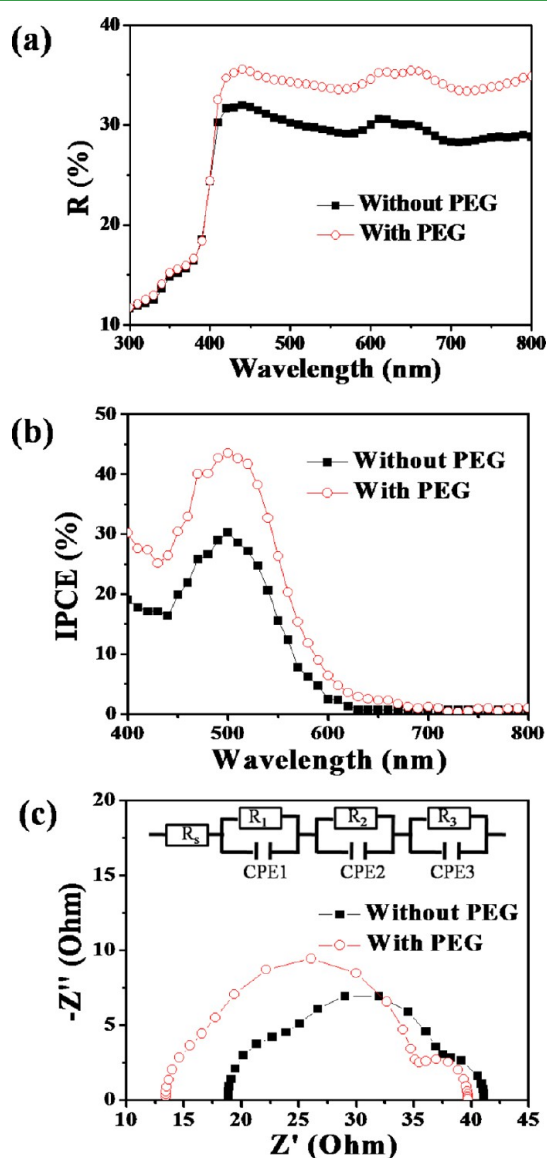


Figure 7. (a) UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectra, (b) IPCE spectra, and (c) Nyquist plots (fitted based on the equivalent circuit shown as the inset) of rutile TiO₂ microsphere film prepared by a chemical bath process for 12 h without and with the presence of 0.50 g of PEG14000, respectively.

As a result, the amount of dye adsorption was increased from 2.88×10^{-8} mol/cm² to 3.06×10^{-8} mol/cm², reflecting an improvement in PCE of the resulting DSSCs from 4.77% without the O₂ plasma treatment to 5.25% after the O₂ plasma exposure ($J_{sc} = 15.10$ mA/cm², $V_{oc} = 0.80$ V, FF = 0.43, Table 1 and Figure 6c).

As described above, the addition of PEG rendered the formation of well-defined TiO₂ microspheres. Moreover, the device efficiency of DSSCs based on the PEG-facilitated TiO₂ microsphere films (denoted as Cell I; PCE = 2.55%, Table 1) was higher than that (PCE = 1.75%, see Table S2 in the Supporting Information) using the TiO₂ microsphere film prepared in the absence of PEG (denoted as Cell II). In order to understand the different photovoltaic performance of these two DSSCs, in addition to the dye loading measurement (see Table S1 in the Supporting Information) and the UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectra (Figure 7a), the incident-photon-to-current efficiency (IPCE) studies were also performed (Figure 7b). The IPCE at 510 nm for Cell I (red hollow cycle, 43%) was higher than that of Cell II (black solid tetragonal, 30%). Moreover, the IPCE over the entire wavelength region for Cell I was also higher than that of Cell II, suggesting the increased light harvesting for the well-defined hierarchically structured TiO₂ microspheres (i.e., the PEG-facilitated TiO₂ microsphere films).

Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements were conducted in order to further elucidate the electrochemical characteristics of the two aforementioned DSSCs. The Nyquist plots for these two DSSCs are shown in Figure 7c. The fitted results are summarized in Table S3 in the Supporting Information. The EIS spectra exhibited three semicircles with a contact series resistance (R_s) on the FTO substrate. The first semicircle in the high frequency range is related to the resistance at the counter electrode (R_c) for the reduction reaction of I₃⁻ in the electrolyte using Pt as the counter electrode. The second semicircle in the intermediate frequency range represents the charge recombination resistance (R_2) at interfaces among the electrolyte, dye, and TiO₂. The third semicircle in the low frequency range offers the information regarding the resistance of finite diffusion of the electrolyte (R_3).³ The close R_1 of 3.89 Ω and 3.73 Ω for the Cell I and Cell II, respectively were obtained as the counter electrodes (i.e., Pt) were prepared in the nearly same manner. Intriguingly, the smaller R_s of 13.43 Ω and larger R_2 of 17.96 Ω for Cell I than the corresponding resistances for Cell II (i.e., $R_s = 18.86$ Ω and $R_2 = 12.80$ Ω) signified a better contact of TiO₂ microspheres with the FTO substrate and lower recombination rate for faster charge transport, respectively for Cell I. Finally, a smaller R_3 of 4.61 Ω for Cell I than that of 5.58 Ω for Cell II was found, implying a superior mass diffusion channel for the hierarchical structure in Cell I (Figure 1a), as compared to the agglomerated structure in Cell II (see Figure S1b in the Supporting Information).

In summary, intriguing hierarchically structured rutile TiO₂ microspheres composed of nanoneedles were crafted via a simple, one-step and low temperature chemical bath route. Such hierarchical architecture carried advantageous features, including large surface area and effective light scattering and trapping due to the well-defined hierarchical structures. When they were exploited as the photoanodes in DSSCs, the resulting devices exhibited a PCE of 2.55% despite the rutile nature of TiO₂ microspheres, which was further increased to 5.25% upon sequential modifications of TiO₂ (i.e., calcination, TiCl₄

treatment, and O₂ plasma exposure). The PCE can be further improved by tuning the reaction condition in chemical bath process or employing other post-treatments (e.g., etching treatment) to produce TiO₂ microspheres with higher surface area. Importantly, the viable chemical bath process enables the creation of crystallized hierarchical rutile TiO₂ structures directly on large transparent conducting substrates at low temperature, which are highly desirable for practical applications in photocatalysis and solar cells, among other areas.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Formation of Hierarchically Structured TiO₂ Materials.

Peachlike rutile TiO₂ microsphere films on transparent conducting FTO substrate were prepared via a chemical bath route. In a typical synthesis, 0.50 g polyethylene glycol (PEG, $M_w = 14,000$, denoted PEG14000, PDI = 1.1) was dissolved in a mixture of 5 mL ethanol and 15 mL deionized water, which was further added with 5 mL concentrated hydrochloric acid (HCl; mass fraction = 36–38%). The mixture was stirred under ambient condition for 5 min before adding 0.50 mL titanium isopropoxide (TTIP-TiO₂ precursor; Sigma-Aldrich Co.). After stirring for an additional 5 min, the transparent solution was transferred into a glass bottle with a lid but without being sealed. Subsequently, an FTO substrate (F:SnO₂, 2 cm × 2 cm, 14 Ω/square; Pilkington Glass, USA) ultrasonically cleaned for 30 min in a mixed solution of acetone and ethanol with a 1:1 volume ratio, followed by deionized water rinsing for 15 min, was placed in the transparent solution with the conducting side of FTO facing up. The reaction was allowed to proceed at 80–85 °C for 12 h in an oven. The bottle was then cooled to room temperature in air. Subsequently, the FTO substrate was taken out, rinsed extensively with deionized water, and dried in air. The effects of growth parameters, including the growth time (from 1.5 to 15 h), the initial concentrations of precursor and PEG14000, the alcohol types, the growth temperature (from 70 to 85 °C), and the acidity of reaction solution on the resulting hierarchical structures were systematically investigated. TiO₂ films were also fabricated under the same condition without the addition of PEG14000 as controls to assess the influence of the presence of PEG14000 on the formation of hierarchical architectures.

TiO₂ Solar Cell Fabrication. Dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) were assembled using hierarchically structured TiO₂ films grown on the FTO glass as photoanodes. To improve their crystallinity, the TiO₂ films were annealed at 450 or 600 °C for 2 h inside a furnace. Prior to dye adsorption, the photoanodes were placed in 100 mL of 0.2 M TiCl₄ solution at 70 °C for 1 h. After being rinsed with deionized water, the TiCl₄-treated sample was annealed at 450 °C for 30 min, followed by a 10 min O₂ plasma exposure. The sample was then soaked in anhydrous ethanol containing 0.2 mM commercially available N719 dye (cis-bis(isothiocyanato)-bis(2,2'-bipyridyl-4,4'-dicarboxylato)ruthenium(II) bis(tetrabutylammonium); Solaronix Co.), and kept for 24 h at room temperature. Platinum (Pt)-coated counter electrode was prepared by dropping 0.5 mM H₂PtCl₆ isopropanol solution on another piece of FTO glass, followed by heating at 400 °C for 20 min. The dye-sensitized TiO₂ film with an active area of approximately 0.12 cm² was assembled together with the Pt-coated FTO glass by applying a 25 μm thick hot-melt sealed film as the spacer (SX1170-25; Solaronix). The redox electrolyte used in the study was an ionic liquid containing 0.60 M 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium iodide (BMMI-I), 0.03 M I₂, 0.50 M 4-tert-butylpyridine (TBP), and 0.10 M guanidethiocyanate (GTC) in a mixture of acetonitrile and valeronitrile (v/v = 85/15) (No. ES-0004, purchased from io.litec, Germany). The electrolyte was injected between two electrodes and driven by capillary force through the hole on the hot-melt sealed film.²⁴

Characterization. The morphology and lattice structure of TiO₂ films were examined by field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM; FEI Quanta250, operated at 10 kV in high vacuum) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM; JEOL 2100, operated at 200 kV). Raman spectrum was recorded on a Renishaw Raman

microspectrometer system 2000 equipped with a He–Ne laser (632.8 nm). Phase identification of TiO₂ was conducted by X-ray diffraction (XRD; SCINTAG XDS-2000, Cu K α radiation). The light absorption of TiO₂ films and the dye desorption were measured by UV-visible spectroscopy (Varian; UV-Visible spectrophotometer, Cary 5000). The current–voltage (*J*–*V*) characteristics were measured using a Keithley Model 2400 multisource meter. A solar simulator (SoLux Solar Simulator) was used to simulate sunlight for an illumination intensity of 100 mW/cm² calibrated with a Daystar Meter. The incident-photon-to-current efficiency (IPCE) spectra were measured as a function of wavelength (from 400–800 nm) on the basis of a monochromator (Oriel, model 74125). Impedance tests were performed in dark under open circuit voltage over the frequency range between 1 \times 10⁵ and 1 \times 10⁻² Hz, with an AC voltage magnitude of 10 mV. The impedance data were analyzed by Autolab electrochemical EIS fitting software.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

● Supporting Information

FESEM images of TiO₂ films prepared from other control experiments, tables of dye adsorption, device performance of DSSCs, and EIS parameters obtained by fitting the experiment data, and XRD patterns of TiO₂ microsphere films prepared under different experimental conditions. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

■ AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Authors

*E-mail: cjlin@xmu.edu.cn.

*E-mail: zhiqun.lin@mse.gatech.edu.

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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