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# A simple method to prepare uniform-size nanoparticle TiO<sub>2</sub> electrodes for dye-sensitized solar cells

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### ABSTRACT

Nanoparticle TiO<sub>2</sub> electrodes are fabricated using an improved electrostatic spray coating (ESC) method which is more simple, low cost and well reproducible comparing with the conventional method of preparing electrode for dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSC) by introducing monoethanolamine (MEA) into precursor solution. It is surprised to find that high transparency of films and good adhesion between film and substrate achieve and that particles size can be easily controlled by adjusting the proportion of MEA. The relationship between particles size and proportion of MEA added is presented in our work. After samples with various particle sizes are applied in DSSC, an increase of open-circuit voltage ( $V_{oc}$ ) from 620 mV to 765 mV is observed with the increase of particle size from 8 nm to 48 nm. Associated with photoluminescence results, we ascribe the change of  $V_{oc}$  to the different dominative states of films: surface defects and oxygen vacancies in 8 nm films. In addition, different thickness films with optimized proportion of MEA is applied in DSSC, an overall light to electricity conversion efficiency ( $\eta$ ) of 2.91% is obtained with a thickness of 2.0 µm.

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#### 1. Introduction

Recently, dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSC) have attracted widespread academic and industrial interest due to their advantages in solar energy conversion. For example, DSSC are low cost, easily fabricated, environmentally benign and have relatively high energy conversion efficiency [1-3]. In DSSC, anode films are commonly composed of high-surface-area nanostructured semiconductors to achieve sufficient dye loaded and high solar-power efficiencies. Many of studies on the preparation of nanostructured semiconductors electrodes have been reported [4-9]. However, most of the synthetic methods were high cost or involved multiple steps, such as, the fabrication and removal of templates, preparation of catalyst, and additional postsynthesis treatments. These steps would seriously affect the performance of photoanode in DSSC due to the contaminant or damage to the electrode. A most usual method is the screen-printing technology. However, it would take totally 3 days to finish the preparation of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles firstly, following the synthesis of TiO<sub>2</sub> paste and then the preparation of electrode [10]. Although using a commercially available TiO<sub>2</sub> powder (P25, Degussa) might be less complicated, the multistep and poorly reproducible resulted in long-term experiments are also economically unsuitable for industrial production and has to be reduced. In addition, the film crack and poor adhesion between TiO<sub>2</sub> film and substrate are two serious problems for the screen-printing technology. Thus, it is crucial to find a low cost, well reproducible and simple method to prepare semiconductor electrode. Otherwise, the large-area preparation technique of photoanode is imperative for the industrial manufacture of DSSC.

On the other hand, although DSSC has been widely studied in the past two decades, some basic concepts are still controversial such as the open-circuit voltage ( $V_{oc}$ ), especially the influencing factors of  $V_{oc}$ . Traditional theory explains  $V_{oc}$  as the difference between the redox level ( $E_{redox}$ ) in electrolyte and the Fermi level ( $E_F$ ) of photoanode in electron energies [1,11,12]:

$$V_{\rm oc} = \frac{1}{q} (E_{\rm F} - E_{\rm redox})$$

A value of 0.7 eV for the  $V_{oc}$  is obtained according to this theory. However, various values are always observed in experiments, which reveal the disadvantage of traditional theory. It is well known that the semiconductor electrode plays an important role in the operation of DSSC and the various values of  $V_{oc}$  might arise form the different physical or chemical property of the electrode. Hence more experiments should be performed to investigate the relationship between  $V_{oc}$  and electrode property.

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Fig. 1. Schematic drawing of the electrostatic spray coating system.

As a deposition technique, electrostatic spray coating (ESC) offers the benefits of depositing on large surfaces, coating parts with complex geometries, high deposition rate, and of being easily scaled up. In addition, ESC is a nature technique and has been widely used in industry [13] and its applications in depositing ceramic powders [14] and polymeric powders [15] have been explored. Therefore, ESC is very promising in the preparation of photoanode for the industrial manufacture of DSSC.

In our work, nanoparticle  $TiO_2$  electrodes were fabricated by an improved ESC method and monoethanolamine (MEA) was introduced to control the particle size for the first time. A rough controlling mechanism was presented and the relationship between particles size and the proportion of MEA was given in this work. In addition, the change of  $V_{oc}$  dependence of the size of particles was studied in detail associated with photoluminescence results. With the optimized proportion of MEA, different thickness of films were prepared and applied in DSSC and their performances were also presented.

#### 2. Experiment

The precursor solution was prepared by dissolving 0.15 g polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP, Sigma–Aldrich,  $M_{\rm w} \approx 1,300,000$ ) in a mixed solvent formed by 2 ml ethanol and 0.5 ml N,Ndimethylformamide (DMF) beforehand. Another solution was obtained by adding 0.5 g tetrabutyl titanate ( $\geq$ 98%) into the mixture of 1 ml acetic acid and 1 ml ethanol. The two solutions were mixed together and MEA was added. The mixture was stirred for 1 h, and then loaded into a 2 ml glass syringe equipped with an 8-mm-gauge stainless steel needle. As shown in Fig. 1, the needle was connected to a high voltage of 15 kV. A big piece of grounded zinc flake was placed 15 cm away below the tip of the needle. FTO substrates (4 mm in thickness, 75% transmittance in visible region,  $35 \Omega/\Box$ ) were placed on the zinc flake to collect the sprayed nanoparticles. The film thickness and growth rate were controlled by changing the spray time and adjusting the weight added on the syringe, respectively. Finally, all samples were annealled at 450 °C in air for 30 min to remove the organic compounds. By adjusting the MEA proportion (0.00, 1.58, 1.86, 2.43, 3.43 and 8.49 wt% versus the total weight of precursor solution), samples M<sub>0</sub>, M<sub>1</sub>, M<sub>2</sub>, M<sub>3</sub>, M<sub>4</sub> and M<sub>5</sub> were prepared (with nearly the same thickness about  $1 \mu m$ ). Moreover, different thickness TiO<sub>2</sub> films signed as T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>3</sub> and T<sub>4</sub> were also fabricated with 1.58 wt% MEA.

To prepare the DSSC, the samples were soaked in  $3 \times 10^{-4}$  M of ruthenium(II) dye (known as N719) in a *t*-butanol/acetonitrile (1:1, v/v) solution for 24 h at room temperature, and they were then rinsed with ethanol to remove excess dye on the surface and air-dried at room ambient. The cells whose active area was about  $1 \text{ cm}^2$  was fabricated by using the dye-adsorbed TiO<sub>2</sub> photoanode and a thermally platinized counter electrode (7 mM H<sub>2</sub>PtCl<sub>6</sub>



Fig. 2. Photographs of the samples without and with MEA added.

in isopropanol, heated at 400 °C on FTO for 15 min) filled with acetonitrile solution containing 0.05 M of I<sub>2</sub>, 0.1 M of LiI and 0.5 M of 4-*tert*-butylpyridine.

The structural properties of films were studied by X-ray diffraction (XRD) (Philips X'pert Pro MPD (Cu K $\alpha$  ray)). Raman scattering spectra was performed on a Jobin-Yvon LabRam HR80 spectrometer (with a 532 nm line of Torus 50 mW diode-pumped solid-state laser) under the backscattering geometry. The morphology and thickness of samples were investigated by field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) (Hitachi, S-4800). Roomtemperature photoluminescence (PL) spectra (excitation source: He–Cd laser) were performed to study the crystal properties. Photocurrent–voltage curves were measured under simulated solar light (AM 1.5, 100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup>).

#### 3. Results and discussion

Fig. 2 shows the visual images of the samples without (a) and with MEA (c) and the corresponding annealed samples (b) and (d). For the samples without MEA, the adhesion between  $TiO_2$  film and substrate is very bad which could be seen from the edge of the  $TiO_2$  film in Fig. 2(a) and the magnification picture in Fig. 2(b). For the thinner samples without MEA, cracks appear after annealing (shown in Fig. S1) and the problem of cracks becomes serious for the thicker samples. It was observed that almost all the films peel off FTO after annealing for the thicker ones (shown in Fig. S2). The similar phenomena have also been reported in previous works [16–20]. It is surprising that the phenomenon of bad adhesion is greatly improved after adding MEA shown in Fig. 2(c) and (d). Moreover, it is obvious that the transparency of samples is also greatly enhanced by the introduction of MEA, which could much enhance the absorption of photons by dye.

Fig. 3 shows the SEM images demonstrating the morphologies and thickness of the  $TiO_2$  films. For the samples without MEA, as shown in Fig. 3(a),  $TiO_2$  nanofibers are synthesized and they accumulate together loosely. After introducing MEA, uniform-size  $TiO_2$ nanoparticles are obtained and the particle size become larger with the increase of the MEA proportion added into the precursor solution. For the sample M<sub>1</sub>, the size is uniform about 8 nm. When MEA proportion increases up to 3.43 wt% (sample M<sub>4</sub>), as shown in Fig. 3(e), the  $TiO_2$  film is composed of particles varied in size. In Fig. 3(f), the size increases to about 40 nm with 8.49 wt% MEA (sample M<sub>5</sub>) added. The increase of particle size may be due to the following reason: when MEA was introduced into precursor solution, it could disperse in the mixture uniformly by strong stir. In the spray progress, accompanied with the volatilization of solvent, Y. Zhang et al. / Journal of Power Sources 189 (2009) 1256-1263



**Fig. 3.** FESEM images of samples without MEA (a) and with different proportion of MEA added (b)  $M_1$ , (c)  $M_2$ , (d)  $M_3$ , (e)  $M_4$ , (f)  $M_5$  and (g) the cross sectional view of the sample  $M_1$ .

the MEA aggregated to form separate dips which contain numbers of titanate molecules due to its mucous property. Then the uniform nanoparticles were obtained after annealing. The more MEA added, the big dip consisted of more titanate molecules formed and then larger particles were achieved. However, when abundant MEA existed in spray mixture, the larger dip would separate into small ones varied in volume due to the extensive presence of charge under high voltage. Thus varied size of particles appeared such as the sample M<sub>5</sub>. Therefore, the particle size could be easily controlled by the introduction of MEA. From the cross-section of the sample shown in Fig. 3(g), a good adhesion of spray film to the FTO appears and all the films thickness are about 1.0  $\mu$ m (about 0.5, 1.5 and 2.0  $\mu$ m for samples T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>3</sub> and T<sub>4</sub>, the others not shown here).

Fig. 4(a)–(d) shows the XRD patterns, Raman scattering spectra of samples with different MEA proportion and thickness and the relationship between particle size and the proportion of MEA. The XRD patterns of FTO,  $M_1$ ,  $M_2$ ,  $M_3$ ,  $M_4$ ,  $M_5$  are shown in Fig. 4(a), in which two typical peaks (101) and (200) of anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> are



**Fig. 4.** XRD patterns (a) and Raman scattering spectra (b) of samples M<sub>1</sub>, M<sub>2</sub>, M<sub>3</sub>, M<sub>4</sub> and M<sub>5</sub> (c) XRD patterns of samples T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>3</sub> and T<sub>4</sub>. (d) Relationship between particle size and the proportion of MEA added. XRD patterns (e) and Raman scattering spectra (f) of sample without MEA.

observed [21–23]. It can be obviously seen that the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of (101) peak became narrow with more MEA added. The average grain size of the samples is estimated by Scherrer formula:

$$D = \frac{0.89\lambda}{B\cos\theta}$$

where D,  $\lambda$ ,  $\theta$  and B is the mean grain size, the X-ray wavelength (here is 0.154056 nm), the Bragg diffraction angle and FWHM of (101) peak, respectively. The average grain size is achieved about 8 nm, 12 nm, 18 nm, 25 nm and 48 nm for M<sub>1</sub>, M<sub>2</sub>, M<sub>3</sub>, M<sub>4</sub>, M<sub>5</sub>, respectively, which is roughly consistent with the results of SEM.

Fig. 4(b) shows the Raman scattering spectra of the samples with different proportion of MEA added. The Raman scattering spec-

tra are performed to investigate the vibrational properties of the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanostructures. Anatase-structured TiO<sub>2</sub> belongs to the D<sub>4h</sub> space group [24,25]. In Fig. 4(a), six Raman modes are observed at 145, 199, 399, 485, 520 and 639 cm<sup>-1</sup>. Among them, the peak at 485 cm<sup>-1</sup> arises from FTO substrate and peaks at 145, 199, 399, 520 and 639 cm<sup>-1</sup> should be assigned to the E<sub>g</sub>, B<sub>1g</sub>, A<sub>1g</sub>, B<sub>2g</sub> and E<sub>g</sub> mode, respectively [26,27]. As shown in Fig. 4(b), all samples maintain the only anatase phase.

Fig. 4(c) shows the XRD pattern of samples with various thicknesses. All the samples maintain typical anatase  $TiO_2$  structure. Estimating the average grain size by Scherrer formula, a value about 8 nm is obtained for all samples, indicating that there is no relation between film thickness and particle size. Otherwise, the diffraction peaks belonged to FTO become lower which reveals an increase in film thickness. The relation between particle size and MEA proportion is showed in Fig. 4(d). The particle size could be controlled by MEA proportion, which is technical significant for DSSC industrial production. Moreover, the samples without MEA also maintain typical anatase  $TiO_2$  structure which could be confirmed from the XRD and Raman scattering results shown in Fig. 4(e) and (f).

It is known that all type defects could influence the charge transfer in DSSC and play different roles in the DSSC operation. In order to investigate the crystal quality of electrodes, room-temperature PL spectra from samples M<sub>1</sub>, M<sub>4</sub>, M<sub>5</sub> are measured as shown in Fig. 5. PL measurement is a powerful technique to investigate energy levels in the band-gap and the electronic structure, optical and photochemical properties of semiconductor materials, by which the information such as surface oxygen vacancies (SOVs) and defects, as well as the efficiency of charge carrier trapping, immigration and transfer could be obtained [28-32]. As shown in Fig. 5, two UV emissions located at 365 nm (3.4 eV) and 369 nm (3.36 eV) are observed clearly from all samples and emission intensities become larger with the increase of particle size. Pan et al have also observed the PL band with maximum peak at 3.40 eV and attributed it to the bandto-band recombination because it is near-band-edge luminescence [33]. It can be seen that the band including the peaks at 3.40 and 3.36 eV can be fitted into seven Gaussian peaks as shown in the inset of Fig. 5(c). Furthermore, the half-width of those peaks is the identical with each other and the energy interval between neighboring fitted peaks is all about 0.04 eV. According to the Raman spectrum above, the sum of optical phonon energy of  $E_g$  (0.0180 eV) and  $B_{1g}$  (0.0247 eV) is 0.0427 eV, almost equal to the 0.04 eV interval. Because the k location of  $E_V$  top and  $E_C$  bottom is not at the same position in k space according to the energy band structure of  $TiO_2$ [34], some optical phonons are needed to assist the recombination in order to keep momentum conservation in the band-to-band optical transition, including optical phonon absorption and emission. Conclusively, we attribute this PL band to the band-to-band recombination with the participation of phonons represented as Eg and  $B_{1\sigma}$  and a similar phenomenon has also been observed in previous work [35]. As the UV emission is assisted by phonons, the crystal quality of TiO<sub>2</sub> which is concerned with phonons will be explored by the UV emission. It is observed that the UV emission intensity become larger when the particle size increases. As the particle size decreases, the surface to volume fraction would increase immediately and numbers of defects located at surface or inner form, which both would decrease the crystal quality of films.

In the visible region, a hump is observed which could be fitted by four Gaussian peaks as shown in the inset of Fig. 5(a). They are located at about 390 nm, 416 nm, 460 nm and 545 nm, respectively. The peak at 390 nm observed from all samples might be assigned to the free exciton recombination below conductive band. With the decrease of quality crystal, the emission intensity located at 416 nm observed from all samples become larger. Here, it is reasonable to ascribe them to bulk defects. In basic TiO<sub>2</sub> cells, each Ti<sup>4+</sup> is surrounded by an octahedron of six O<sup>2-</sup> ions, structural defects can be formed by losing neutral oxygen atoms and vacancy states associated with Ti<sup>3+</sup> ions are introduced. Otherwise, oxygen vacancies can easily form because of the higher surface to volume ratio of nanoparticles. Then self-trapped excitons localized on TiO<sub>6</sub> octahedral could be achieved when oxygen vacancies trap electrons (F, an oxygen-ion vacancy occupied by two electron and F<sup>+</sup>, an oxygen-ion vacancy occupied by one electron centers [36]). In our opinion, the 416 nm peak is attributed to the self-trapped excitons localized on TiO<sub>6</sub> octahedral. Similar phenomena have also been observed in the previous work [37-40]. The 460 nm and 545 nm are only observed in the samples with small particle size. In nanocrystals, surfaces play particularly important roles since the surface-to-volume ratio becomes larger. By introducing surface states formed near the surface (e.g. ion vacancies, surface ions with



**Fig. 5.** Room-temperature PL spectra from samples  $M_1$ ,  $M_4$ ,  $M_5$ ,  $M_0$  and the inset is the corresponding Gaussian fit.

#### Table 1

Summary of the V<sub>oc</sub>, J<sub>sc</sub>, FF and  $\eta$  of the samples M<sub>0</sub>, M<sub>1</sub>, M<sub>4</sub> and M<sub>5</sub> (a) and (b) samples T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>3</sub> and T<sub>4</sub>.

Sample	V <sub>oc</sub> (mV)	J <sub>sc</sub> (mA/cm <sup>2</sup> )	FF (%)	η (%)
(a)				
M <sub>0</sub>	648	0.41	45.6	0.12
M <sub>1</sub>	620	3.92	61.3	1.49
$M_4$	699	1.80	44.1	0.56
M <sub>5</sub>	765	1.09	59.8	0.50
(b)				
T <sub>1</sub>	637	2.59	60.0	0.99
T <sub>2</sub>	620	3.92	61.3	1.49
T <sub>3</sub>	629	4.80	54.4	1.64
T <sub>4</sub>	629	7.89	58.5	2.91

low coordination numbers, and groups coordinated on the surface of materials), localized energy levels are introduced in the middle of forbidden band gap. These mid-gap surface states are expected to become luminescence centers under an appropriate excitation [41]. Therefore, the two peaks might be assigned to the involvement of mid-gap surface states. The surface states could be formed by the surface ions with low coordinate number, e.g. Ti<sup>3+</sup>, oxygen vacancies, and groups coordinated on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> such as TiOH, TiOC<sub>4</sub>H<sub>9</sub>OH, etc. The first emission band around 466 nm of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals could be due to the surface states formed by oxygen vacancy (F) [37], and the other band around 545 nm might be due to the surface states formed by Ti<sup>3+</sup> according to [29,42] or the F<sup>+</sup>-type color center on the surface of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanocrystals [37]. For the samples without MEA, as shown in Fig. 5(d), a broad emission band centered at 540 nm appears, which indicates that there are also some defects existed in the nanofibers.

Fig. 6 shows the *J*–*V* characteristics of the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanofibers and nanopaticles based dye sensitized solar cells under 100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup> simulated AM 1.5 G sunlight. Table 1 summarizes the measured and calculated values obtained from each *J*–*V* curve in Fig. 6. The FF and  $\eta$  for each solar cell are calculated from the following equations [43]:

FF (%) = 
$$\left[\frac{V_{\text{max}} \times J_{\text{max}}}{V_{\text{oc}} \times J_{\text{sc}}}\right] \times 100$$
  
 $\eta$  (%) =  $\left[\frac{\text{FF} \times V_{\text{oc}} \times J_{\text{sc}}}{P_{\text{source}}}\right] \times 100$ 

where the  $V_{\text{max}}$ ,  $J_{\text{max}}$ ,  $P_{\text{source}}$  are the maximum voltage point, the maximum current density and the power density of incident light, respectively. In this experiment, the  $P_{\text{source}}$  is fixed at 100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup>.

As shown in Fig. 6(a), for the nanofibers based cells,  $J_{sc}$  and  $\eta$  are found to be 0.41 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> and 0.12%, respectively. Both of them are much lower than these of the samples with MEA as shown in Table 1. This might be due to the following reasons: (1) for the nanofibers based DSSC, nanofibers accumulate together loosely and the FTO could not be fully covered by nanofibers (shown in Figs. S3 and S4). These may cause larger dark current occurred between the electrons in FTO and  $I_3^-$  in electrolyte, which could reduce  $J_{sc}$  extremely. The similar results have also been reported in previous work [44]. However, the samples with MEA show a perfect contact between TiO<sub>2</sub> film and FTO. Thus a higher  $J_{sc}$  achieves. (2) Compared with nanoparticls, nanofibers possess lower surface area. So less dye is loaded which caused low  $J_{sc}$  and low  $\eta$ .

Among the samples with MEA, sample  $M_1$  possesses the lowest  $V_{oc}$  and the  $V_{oc}$  increases as the particle size become larger. Associated with the PL results, it is found that the three samples possess different states. One is with extrinsic (surface states) and intrinsic defects (oxygen vacancy), another is with intrinsic defects (oxygen vacancy) and the last is with few defects as high quality crystal.



**Fig. 6.** Plots of the *J*-*V* behavior of solar cells consisting of  $TiO_2$  films for samples  $M_0$  (a)  $M_1$ ,  $M_4$  and  $M_5$ , and (b),  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ ,  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  (c).

As mentioned above, as the charge carrier transport in cells operation, the quality of semiconductor films especial the defect type would influence factors of cell operation directly. Thus the change of  $V_{oc}$  could be due to three different states for nanoparticle TiO<sub>2</sub> as shown in Fig. 7: when sample possesses a high quality crystal, photoelectrons inject into the conduction band of TiO<sub>2</sub> and transport through semiconductor photoanode quickly. The quasi-Fermi level ( $E_{Fn}$ ) of electrons is located at a higher energy region which would introduce a high  $V_{oc}$  as shown in Fig. 7(a). When sample possesses numbers of intrinsic defects (oxygen vacancy), part of these photoinjected electrons are trapped in oxygen vacancy. Then the dark current would increase and the  $E_{Fn}$  decreases due to the electron occupancy in these oxygen vacancies in the positive region of  $E_{FB}$ . The  $E_{Fn}$  would decrease and  $V_{oc}$  degrades synchronously as



Fig. 7. Simple diagram showing the position of  $E_{Fn}$  and the distribution of the defect states in the band gap region for the (a)  $M_5$ , (b)  $M_4$  and (c)  $M_1$ .

shown in Fig. 7(b). When sample possesses numbers of extrinsic (surface states) in addition to intrinsic defects (oxygen vacancy), the photoinjected electrons are trapped in surface states [45–47] in the concentrated and wide distribution in the positive region of  $E_{\rm Fn}$ . The positive shift of  $E_{\rm Fn}$  in electrode may be assumed and the further degradation of  $V_{\rm oc}$  is observed corresponded from the existence of a large amount of trap sites in the positive potential region of  $E_{\rm Fn}$  as shown in Fig. 7(c). While the enhancement of photocurrent is due to the increased dye adsorption from the increased surface area, despite of minor side effect such as electron loss by trapping/detrapping events and increased charge recombination. As discussed above, the variations of  $V_{\rm oc}$  might be induced by different kinds of defects and all phenomena are consisting with previous work [48,49].

Due to the good performance in  $\eta$  of sample M<sub>1</sub>, varied thickness films with 1.58 wt% MEA were prepared. As shown in Fig. 6(b) and Table 1(b), the  $J_{sc}$  and  $\eta$  are greatly improved when thickness increases and the  $V_{oc}$  and FF almost maintain the same value. The invariability on the  $V_{oc}$  and FF may be due to the same surface chemistry of oxide anode and the uniform particle size about 8 nm [50]. For the  $J_{sc}$ , as it is reported before, the amount of dye loaded affects the  $J_{sc}$  directly. When the thickness of the TiO<sub>2</sub> film increases from 0.5 to 2.0  $\mu$ m, more dyes load, the  $J_{sc}$  and  $\eta$  are greatly enhanced.

#### 4. Conclusions

In this work, nanoparticle TiO<sub>2</sub> films were fabricated using ESC method and MEA was introduced for the first time. Compared with the usual preparation method of electrode, ESC is more simple, low cost and well reproducible. The transparency of samples and the adhesion between TiO<sub>2</sub> film and substrate were greatly improved as the introduction of MEA into the conventional ESC. In addition, the size of TiO<sub>2</sub> particles could be easily controlled by adjusting the proportion of MEA. The relationship between particles size and the proportion of MEA was presented in our experiment. After samples with various particle sizes been applied in DSSC, an increase of  $V_{oc}$ from 620 mV to 765 mV was observed with the increase of particle sizes from 8 nm to 48 nm. By analyzing the PL results, we attributed the change of V<sub>oc</sub> to three different states for nanoparticle TiO<sub>2</sub>, with extrinsic (surface states) and intrinsic defects (oxygen vacancy), with intrinsic defects (oxygen vacancy), and with few defects as high quality crystal. Moreover, different thickness of samples with the optimized proportion of MEA was applied in DSSC, an overall light to electricity conversion efficiency of 2.91% was achieved with a thickness of 2.0 µm. The method of improved ESC could also be extended to prepare nanoparticles of other inorganic materials. All results could be significant to understand the micro-progress in cells and provide guide for large-area preparation of DSSC electrode in industrial manufacture.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.jpowsour.2009.01.023.

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