

Atomic Level Resolution of Dye Regeneration in the Dye-Sensitized Solar Cell

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Two donor—acceptor organic dyes have been synthesized that differ only by a two-heteroatom change from oxygen to sulfur within the donor unit. The two dyes, (*E*)-3-(5-(4-(bis(4-(hexyloxy)phenyl)amino)phenyl)thiophen-2-yl)-2-cyanoprop-2-enoic acid (**Dye-O**) and (*E*)-3-(5-(4-(bis(4-(hexylthio)phenyl)amino)phenyl)thiophen-2-yl)-2-cyanoprop-2-enoic acid) (**Dye-S**), were tested in solar cell devices employing both I_3^-/I^- -based and $[Co(bpy)_3]^{3+/2+}$ redox mediators. Power conversion efficiencies over 6% under simulated AM 1.5 illumination (1 Sun) were achieved in both electrolytes. Despite similar optical and redox properties for the two dyes, a consistently higher open-circuit voltage (V_{oc}) was measured for **Dye-S** relative to **Dye-O**. The improved efficiency observed with **Dye-S** in an iodide redox mediator is against the commonly held view that sulfur atoms promote charge recombination



attributed to inner-sphere interactions. Detailed mechanistic studies revealed that this is a consequence of a 25-fold enhancement of the regeneration rate constant that enhances the regeneration yield under open circuit conditions. The data show that a high short circuit photocurrent does not imply optimal regeneration efficiency as is often assumed.

INTRODUCTION

Dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSC) continue to be actively pursued as low cost alternatives to traditional photovoltaics.¹ The successful utilization of Co^{III/II} diimine compounds as redox mediators²⁻⁵ removes some of the inherent thermodynamic limitations of the I_3^-/I^- mediators⁶ and could soon enable a leapfrog jump in efficiency. Also impressive is the molecular detail in which DSSCs can now be optimized.^{7,8} Isotopic substitution has also been shown to enhance excited-state electron injection yields.⁹ Indeed, several recent reports demonstrate that exchange of a single atom, or a few atoms, in a dye molecule markedly changes the efficiencies of DSSCs comprised of them. While the magnitude of the efficiency change can be quite dramatic, the origin(s) generally remains speculative. Adducts comprised of one of the exchanged atoms with redox mediators present in the electrolyte are generally invoked to rationalize photoelectrochemical behavior.^{10,11} In all cases investigated thus far, adduct formation lowers DSSC efficiencies. The findings disclosed herein suggest that adduct formation, most likely involving iodide activation, can result in enhanced power conversion efficiencies when the position of the exchanged atom within the dye structure is carefully taken into account.

One would indeed expect changes in DSSC efficiency when heteroatoms in a dye molecule are exchanged. Adduct formation between the dye and the semiconductor surface and/or species present in the electrolyte alters redox potentials and hence the interfacial electron-transfer kinetics that govern electrical power generation. O'Regan and Palomares have reported evidence of N–I and S–I binding.^{10,12} The iodine species was thought to be the oxidized form of the redox mediator present in the electrolyte, either molecular iodine, I_2 , or tri-iodide, I_3^- . The high surface concentration of these iodine-based electron acceptors at the TiO₂ interface results in conditions that favor unwanted charge recombination and hence lower the quasi-Fermi level of the illuminated TiO₂ thin film.¹³ Based largely on this novel work, it is now widely accepted that the presence of sulfur heteroatom(s) in a dye molecule has a deleterious influence on energy conversion when employed in DSSCs. This conclusion is unfortunate as large classes of organic dye, such as polythiophenes and phenothiazines, possess S atoms.

To resolve the nature of these interactions, two oxygen atoms in the donor–acceptor organic dye (*E*)-3-(5-(4-(bis(4-(hexyloxy)phenyl)amino)phenyl)thiophen-2-yl)-2-cyanoprop-2-enoic acid (**Dye-O**)¹⁴ were replaced with two sulfur atoms, (*E*)-3-(5-(4-(bis(4-(hexylthio)phenyl)amino)phenyl)thiophen-2-yl)-2-cyanoprop-2-enoic acid) (**Dye-S**) shown in Figure 1. The dye molecules are "donor–acceptor" or "push–pull" type organic dyes wherein charge transfer occurs from the triphenylamine group (TPA) to the cyanoacetic acid moiety that can bind to the TiO₂. This orbital arrangement allows for efficient charge separation and vectorial electron transfer toward the TiO₂ surface subsequent to light absorption. Moreover, these donor and acceptor units are common modalities in high performance organic and/or inorganic DSSC sensitizers.^{15–19}

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Figure 1. Molecular structures of the organic dyes **Dye-O** and **Dye-S**. The heteroatoms that have an effect on the regeneration reaction with redox mediators are indicated. The β -LUSO (lowest-unoccupied spin orbital) for the oxidized forms of each dye, **Dye-O**⁺ and **Dye-S**⁺, are provided below each structure to highlight the delocalization of the wave function onto the heteroatoms of interest (the terminal hexyl substituents were replaced with methyl substituents for the calculations).

In this study, the location of the substitution of the two-atom changes was carefully taken into consideration. As shown in Figure 1, there is a sizable orbital coefficient on the heteroatom (either O or S, for **Dye-O** and **Dye-S**, respectively) in the lowest-unoccupied spin orbital (LUSO) of the oxidized forms of the dyes (i.e., **Dye-O**⁺ and **Dye-S**⁺). Consequently, the delocalization of the LUSO onto the heteroatoms offers the opportunity to interrogate how S and O atoms can affect DSSC performance, particularly in view of the fact that it is this same portion of the oxidized sensitizer that directly interacts with the redox mediator. Comparative interfacial electron transfer studies were therefore conducted with **Dye-O** and **Dye-S** anchored to mesoporous TiO₂ thin films in the presence and absence of Co^{III/II} and I₃⁻/I⁻ redox mediators. It is shown that the identity of the heteroatom can have a profound effect on dye regeneration, and in turn the

open-circuit voltage ($V_{\rm oc}$), as the S atoms enhance the rate of the reaction between the oxidized dye and the redox mediator by 3-fold with Co-based mediators, and 25-fold with iodide-based mediators.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Preparation of Compounds. All reactions and manipulations were performed using solvents passed through an MBraun solvent purification system prior to use. All reagents were purchased from Aldrich. Purification by column chromatography was carried out using silica (Silicycle: Ultrapure Flash Silica). Analytical thin-layer chromatography (TLC) was performed on aluminum-backed sheets precoated with silica 60 F254 adsorbent (0.25 mm thick; Merck, Germany) and visualized under UV light. Routine ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra were recorded at 400 and 100 MHz, respectively, on a Bruker AV 400 instrument at ambient temperature. Chemical shifts (δ) are reported in parts per million (ppm) from low- to high-field and referenced to residual nondeuterated solvent in the Supporting Information. Standard abbreviations indicating multiplicity are used as follows: s = singlet; d = doublet; t = triplet; m = multiplet. All ¹H chemical shifts follow the general labeling scheme in Figure 2. Organic and inorganic compounds **Dye-O**¹⁴ and **P1-S**,²⁰ **P2-S**,²⁰ **P3-S**,²⁰ 4,4,5,5-tetramethyl-2-(thiophen-2-yl)-1,3,2-dioxaborolane,²¹ 1,3-dimethylimidazolium iodide (DMII),²² $[Co(bpy)_3](PF_6)_2^5$ and $[Co(bpy)_3](PF_6)_3^5$ were synthesized according to literature reports.

Substrate Preparations. Mesoporous nanocrystalline TiO₂ thin films used in the spectroscopy studies were prepared as previously described.²³ Film thickness was determined to be about 5 μ m by profilometry. The films were briefly immersed in acetonitrile solution containing dye (~75 μ M) and coadsorbent chenodeoxycholic acid (~3.7 mM). Films were then washed with neat CH₃CN and diagonally positioned in a standard 1 cm² quartz cuvette containing 0.5 M LiClO₄ acetonitrile solution. In some experiments, the sensitized thin films were sandwiched against a glass microscope with a vinyl film (Warps, 8 mil Vinyl-Pane) spacer that contained desired concentrations of Co(bpy)₃²⁺ or LiI in 0.5 M LiClO₄ acetonitrile solutions. The electrolyte solutions were purged with Ar gas for at least 30 min prior to experimentation.

Spectroelectrochemistry. Steady-state UV–visible absorption spectra were obtained on a Varian Cary 50 spectrophotometer at room temperature. A potentiostat (BAS model CV-50W) was employed for measurements in a standard three-electrode arrangement with a sensitized TiO_2 thin film deposited on a FTO substrate working electrode, a platinum disk counter electrode, and a Ag/AgCl reference electrode (Bioanalytical Scientific Instruments, Inc.) in 0.5 M LiClO₄ acetonitrile solution. All potentials are reported versus the normal hydrogen electrode (NHE). The ferrocenium/ferrocene half-wave potential was measured at room temperature before and after each



Figure 2. UV-vis absorption spectra of Dye-O (red) and Dye-S (blue) in (a) fluid CH_3CN solution and (b) anchored to TiO_2 immersed in CH_3CN solution at 298 K.

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experiment and was used as an external standard to calibrate the reference electrode. Conversion constant of -640 mV from NHE to Fc⁺/Fc was used in acetonitrile at 25 °C.

Transient Absorption Spectroscopy. Nanosecond transient absorption measurements were obtained with an apparatus similar to that which has been previously described.²³ Briefly, samples were excited by a frequency doubled Q-switched, pulsed Nd:YAG laser (Quantel USA (BigSky) Brilliant B; 532 nm, 5-6 ns full width at half-maximum (fwhm), 1 Hz, ~10 mm in diameter) directed 45° to the film surface. A Glan-Taylor polarizer was employed in the laser path to attenuate the pulse fluence. A 150 W xenon arc lamp coupled to a 1/4 m monochromator (Spectral Energy, Corp. GM 252) served as the probe beam (Applied Photophysics) that was aligned orthogonally to the excitation light. For detection at sub-100 μ s time scales, the lamp was pulsed with 80 V. Detection was achieved with a monochromator (Spex 1702/04) optically coupled to an R928 photomultiplier tube (Hamamatsu). Transient data were acquired on a computer-interfaced digital oscilloscope (LeCroy 9450, Dual 350 MHz) with 2.5 ns resolution terminated at 50 Ω for sub-100 μ s; for longer time scales, the signal was terminated with a 10 k Ω resistor and bandwidth limited at 80 MHz. Typically, 30-50 laser pulses were averaged at each observation wavelength over the range 380-710 nm for full spectra generation. 300-500 laser pulses were typical averages for single wavelength measurement to achieve satisfactory S/N. Kinetic data fitting and spectral modeling was performed in Origin 8, and least-squares error minimization was accomplished using the Levenberg-Marquardt iteration method.

DFT Calculations. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations were carried out using B3LYP and the 6-31G(d) basis set. All geometries were fully optimized in the ground states (closed shell) and the +1 oxidized states (open shell). Time-dependent density functional theory (TD-DFT) calculations were performed with an IEFPCM solvation model (CH₃CN) using a spin-restricted formalism to examine low-energy excitations at the ground-state geometry. All calculations were carried out with the Gaussian 03W software package.²⁴

Cell Fabrication. Photoanodes were prefabricated by Dyesol Inc. (Australia) with screen-printable TiO₂ pastes (18-NRT and WER4-O, Dyesol). The active area of the TiO₂ electrodes was 0.28 cm^2 with a thickness of 6 μ m (18-NRT) and 3 μ m (WER4-O) on fluorine-doped tin-oxide [FTO; TEC8 (8 Ω cm⁻²)]. The TiO₂ substrates were treated with TiCl₄(aq) (0.05 M) at 70 °C for 30 min and subsequently rinsed with H2O and then dried prior to heating. The electrodes were heated to 450 °C for 20 min in an ambient atmosphere and left to cool to 80 °C prior to immersing into an acetonitrile solution containing the dye (~0.25 mM) and chenodeoxycholic acid (~2.5 mM) for 16 h. The stained films were then rinsed with copious amounts of CH3CN and dried. The cells were fabricated using Pt-coated counter-electrode [FTO TEC-15 $(15 \,\Omega \,\text{cm}^{-2})$] and sealed with a 30 μ m Surlyn (Dupont) gasket by resistive heating. Two electrolytes were used for this study: (i) I_3^{-}/I^{-} [1.0 M 1,3-dimethylimidazolium iodide (DMII), 60 mM I₂, 0.5 M tertbutylpyridine, 0.05 M NaI, and 0.1 M GuNCS in a mixed solvent system of acetonitrile and valeronitrile (85:15, v/v)]; (ii) Co^{III/II} [0.21 M $[Co(bpy)_3](PF_6)_2, 0.033 \text{ M} [Co(bpy)_3](PF_6)_3, 0.1 \text{ M} NaClO_4, and$ 0.2 M tert-butylpyridine in acetonitrile]. Each electrolyte was introduced into the two sandwiched electrodes via vacuum backfilling through a hole in the counter electrode. In the cases where the I_3^{-}/I^{-} electrolyte was used, the hole was sealed with an aluminum-backed Bynel foil (Dyesol). In the cases where the Co^{III/II} electrolyte was used, the hole was covered with a thin Surlyn (25 μ m) microscope slide; aluminum foil was then taped to the back of the cell. Silver bus bars were added to all cells after sealing.

Cell Characterization. Photovoltaic measurements were recorded with a Newport Oriel solar simulator (model 9225A1) equipped with a class A 150 W xenon light source powered by a Newport power supply (model 69907). The light output (area = 5 cm × 5 cm) was calibrated to AM 1.5 using a Newport Oriel correction filter to reduce the spectral mismatch in the region of 350–700 nm to less than 1.5%. The power output of the lamp was measured to 1 Sun (100 mW cm⁻²) using a certified Si reference cell. The current–voltage (*I*–*V*) characteristic of each cell was obtained by applying an external potential bias to the cell and measuring the generated photocurrent with a Keithley digital source

meter (model 2400). All cells were measured with a mask size of 0.13 cm². IPCE measurements were performed on a QEX7 Solar Cell Spectral Response Measurement System from PV Instruments, Inc. The system was calibrated with a photodiode that was calibrated against NIST standard I755 with a transfer uncertainty of less than 0.5% between 400 and 1000 nm, and less than 1% at all other wavelengths. All measurements were made in AC mode at a 10 Hz chopping frequency under a bias light. The system was calibrated and operated in Beam Power mode.

RESULTS

Synthesis and Characterization. The preparation of **Dye-O** followed a previously reported literature procedure.¹⁴ A similar protocol was followed for **Dye-S** with the exception of the generation of the **P2-S** precursor, which was isolated following an electrophilic aromatic substitution reaction between **P1-S** and $C_6H_{13}S^-$ (Scheme S1, Supporting Information). A subsequent electrophilic bromination step with NBS furnished the bromoderivative **P3-S**, which could undergo reaction with 4,4,5,5-tetramethyl-2-(thiophen-2-yl)-1,3,2-dioxaborolane under Suzuki cross-coupling conditions to yield **P4-S**. A Vislmeier–Haack formylation was employed to install the –CHO group (**P5-S**), which was condensed with cyanoacetic acid to yield the target **Dye-S**.

The optical spectra of **Dye-O** and **Dye-S** recorded in CH₃CN are very similar, Figure 2a. Dye-O is characterized by an intense charge-transfer absorption band centered at $\lambda_{\rm max}$ = 478 nm $(\varepsilon = 2.84 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1})$, while that of **Dye-S** is slightly hypsochromically shifted to $\lambda_{max} = 470 \text{ nm} (\varepsilon = 3.16 \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1$ cm⁻¹). The slight differences in absorption are attributed to less orbital overlap of the sulfur lone pairs with the π system of the aryl rings of the TPA groups relative to those of the oxygen atoms, which was corroborated by the ¹H NMR chemical shifts and redox chemistry (vide infra) of the two complexes.²⁰ Timedependent DFT indicates that, for both Dye-O and Dye-S, the HOMO, HOMO-1, and HOMO-2 orbitals are localized to the electron-rich TPA moiety, and the LUMO and LUMO+1 levels are confined to the cyanoacetic acid portion of the molecule; the lowest energy transition (Figures S2 and S3) is a LUMO \leftarrow HOMO transition. Light excitation into the charge transfer absorption bands resulted in room temperature fluorescence (Figure S4).

The dyes were found to bind to thin films of anatase, mesoporous TiO_2 with high surface coverages over $1 \times 10^{-7} \text{ mol/cm}^2$, and are herein abbreviated **Dye-O**/TiO₂ and **Dye-S**/TiO₂. When the sensitized thin films were measured in neat CH₃CN, the absorption maxima were slightly blue-shifted from that observed in fluid solution, Figure 2. The presence of 0.5 M LiClO₄ induced a significant bathochromic (red) shift in both cases, measured to be 870 cm⁻¹ for **Dye-O**/TiO₂ and 750 cm⁻¹ for **Dye-S**/TiO₂ (Figure S5). Lewis acidic cations, such as Li⁺ and Na⁺, bind to anatase TiO₂, and the local field generated is known to induce a bathochromic shift of dye molecules anchored to the same surface.²⁵

The cyclic voltammograms of **Dye-O** or **Dye-S** in 0.1 M NBu_4BF_4/CH_3CN electrolyte displayed quasi-reversible TPA^{•+}/ TPA⁰ redox waves at +0.96 and +1.06 V vs NHE, respectively (Figure S6). Cyclic voltammetry of the sensitized thin films showed broad waves with large peak-to-peak splittings (Figure S7). Spectroelectrochemistry was therefore used to estimate the reduction potentials of **Dye-O**/TiO₂ and **Dye-S**/TiO₂. Oxidation of **Dye-O**/TiO₂ or **Dye-S**/TiO₂ resulted in characteristic absorption changes attributed to the oxidized triphenylamine, Figure 3. Isosbestic points were maintained, and the spectral changes were reversible upon stepping the potential back to less positive values.



Figure 3. Visible absorption spectra of (a) **Dye-O**/TiO₂ (dye surface coverage $\Gamma = 1.0 \times 10^{-8}$ mol cm⁻²) and (b) **Dye-S**/TiO₂ ($\Gamma = 5.3 \times 10^{-8}$ mol cm⁻²) measured at the indicated applied potentials in 0.5 M LiClO₄ CH₃CN solution. The insets show the fraction (*x*) of dye molecules present in the reduced (\blacksquare) and the oxidized state (red \bullet). Overlaid on this data is a sigmoidal fit, $x = 1/(1 + 10 \exp((E_{app} - E^{\circ}_{1/2})/a \times 59 \text{ mV}))$, where *a* is the ideality factor determined to be 1.27 for **Dye-O**/TiO₂ and 1.05 for **Dye-S**/TiO₂.

The insets of Figure 3 show the fraction of molecules in each oxidation state as a function of applied potential, E_{app} . This fraction of (x) was calculated by $x = 1/(1 + 10 \exp((E_{app} - E^{\circ})/a \times 59 \text{ mV}))$. The formal reduction potential, E° , was taken as the equilibrium potential where the fraction present was 0.5, and was measured to be +1090 mV vs NHE for **Dye-S**/TiO₂ while +1015 mV for **Dye-O**/TiO₂. Ideality factors of a = 1.27 for **Dye-O**/TiO₂ and a = 1.05 for **Dye-S**/TiO₂ were required to fit the data.¹³ In some cases, the fractional surface coverage was converted to a chemical capacitance in units of mF/cm² by $(-dx/dE_{app}) \times \Gamma \times \mathcal{F} \times 10^6$, where Γ is the surface coverage in mol/cm² and \mathcal{F} is Faraday's constant (96 485 C mol⁻¹).

The E_{0-0} energy was calculated to be 2.31 and 2.32 eV for **Dye-O** and **Dye-S**, respectively, from the intersection of the absorption and fluorescence spectra (Table 1 and Figure S4). The excited-state reduction potential, $E(S^+/S^*)$, was then calculated by $E(S^+/S^*) = E(S^+/S) - E_{0-0}$ to be -1.35 and -1.26 V vs NHE for **Dye-O** and **Dye-S**, respectively.

The application of negative applied potentials to the sensitized thin films immersed in 0.5 M LiClO₄/CH₃CN resulted in reduction of TiO₂ and the characteristic absorption of the trapped TiO₂ electron, TiO₂(e⁻). The potential dependence of this reduction was found to be the same for **Dye-O**/TiO₂ and **Dye-S**/TiO₂, and was well described by a single exponential fit (Figure S8). The measured absorbance was related to the number of TiO₂(e⁻)'s per 15 nm diameter spherical particle through Beer's law and the extinction coefficient $\varepsilon = 1000 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ with an effective optical path length for a 5 μ m thick film of 50% porosity positioned 45° to the probe light. For example, the absorption due to 20 electrons per particle was calculated as Abs = $\varepsilon \cdot b \cdot c(\text{TiO}_2(e^-)) = 1000 (\text{M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}) \times 5 (\mu\text{m}) \times 1.414 \times 10^{-4} (\text{cm } \mu\text{m}^{-1}) \times 50\% \times 20/(4/3 \times \pi \times (7.5 \times 10^{-9}(\text{m}))^3 \times N_{\text{A}}/10^3(\text{L m}^{-3})) = 0.007.$

Interfacial Charge Recombination. Nanosecond transient absorption spectroscopy was used to quantify interfacial electron transfer from TiO_2 to the oxidized sensitizers. Absorption difference spectra of **Dye-O**/TiO₂ and **Dye-S**/TiO₂ displayed in Figure 4 were acquired in 0.5 M LiClO₄ CH₃CN after pulsed 532 nm excitation of the sensitized thin films. Simulations based on a 1:1 stoichiometry of oxidized dyes and injected electrons,

Table 1. Summary of Spectroscopic and Electrochemical Properties for Dye-O and Dye-S in Solution and Anchored to TiO₂

compound	$\lambda_{\max} (\mathrm{nm})^a$	${\lambda_{ m PL} \over (nm)^b}$	$\begin{array}{c} E_{1/2} (\mathrm{V} \mathrm{vs} \\ \mathrm{NHE})^c \end{array}$	$\mathop{(\mathrm{eV})^d}\limits^{E_{0-0}}$	$\frac{E(S^*/S^*)}{(V \text{ vs NHE})^e}$
Dye-O	478 (2.84)	598	0.96	2.31	-1.35
$Dye-O/TiO_2$	468		1.02	2.03	-1.01
Dye-S	469 (3.16), 318 (2.96)	623	1.06	2.32	-1.26
Dye-S/TiO ₂	453		1.09	2.12	-1.03

^{*a*}Corresponds to maximum of lowest-energy absorption band recorded in CH₃CN; ε values indicated in parentheses with units of ×10⁴ M⁻¹ cm⁻¹. ^{*b*}Fluorescence maxima determined in CH₃CN after excitation at a wavelength corresponding to λ_{max} . ^{*c*}Corresponds to TPA^{•+}/TPA⁰ redox couple. Data collected in 0.1 M NBu₄BF₄ CH₃CN solutions at 100 mV/s and referenced to [Fc]⁺/[Fc] (+640 mV vs NHE). Data for sensitized TiO₂ thin films were collected in 0.5 M LiClO₄ CH₃CN solutions by density of states measurements (see Figure 11). ^{*d*}In fluid solution, E_{0-0} was estimated from the intersection of the normalized absorption and fluorescence spectra (see Figure S4). For the sensitized TiO₂ thin films, E_{0-0} was estimated from the intercept of a tangent line drawn on the red edge of ground-state absorption. ^{*c*}Estimated using $E(S^+/S^*) = E_{1/2} - E_{0-0}$.

Dye⁺/TiO₂(e⁻), plus the first derivative of the ground-state absorption were in good agreement with the experimental data. Normalization of the measured spectra at different observation times revealed that the bleach in the initial spectra was red-shifted relative to those observed at longer delay times. The first derivative absorption feature is consistent with previous studies and the presence of an underlying electric field that influences the sensitizer absorption spectra in a manner similar to that observed in Stark spectroscopy. The time-dependent spectral changes are due to screening of the electric field by solvents and ions.^{25,26} The immediate appearance of the absorption spectrum of the oxidized dye molecule indicated that electron injection occurred with a rate constant $k_{inj} > 10^8 \text{ s}^{-1}$.

Shown in Figure 5 are absorption changes measured after pulsed light excitation of **Dye-O**/TiO₂ and **Dye-S**/TiO₂ in 0.5 M LiClO₄/CH₃CN that correspond to charge recombination between the injected electron and the oxidized sensitizer. Both sensitized thin films had a ground-state absorption of 0.43 at the



Figure 4. Absorption difference spectra measured at the indicated delay times after pulsed 532 nm excitation of (a) $Dye-O/TiO_2$ and (b) $Dye-S/TiO_2$ immersed in 0.5 M LiClO₄/CH₃CN solution. Overlaid in purple are simulated spectra.



Figure 5. Absorption change monitored at 635 nm after pulsed light excitation (532 nm; laser fluence: 0.3 mJ/cm²) of Dye-O/TiO₂ (left) and Dye-S/TiO₂ (right) immersed in 0.5 M LiClO₄/CH₃CN at the indicated applied potentials. Overlaid in yellow are best fits to the KWW kinetic model.

532 nm excitation wavelength. The kinetics were nonexponential but were satisfactorily modeled by Kohlrausch–Williams–Watts (KWW) function, eq 1, with a β value of 0.20 ± 0.01 for both sensitizers on mesoporous nanocrystalline TiO₂ surface.²⁷ Average charge recombination rate constants, $k_{\rm cr}$, were calculated as the first moment²⁸ of the underlying Lévy distribution of rate constants, eq 2.

$$\Delta Abs = A \, \exp[-(kt)^{\beta}] \tag{1}$$

$$k_{\rm cr} = \left[\frac{1}{k\beta} \times \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{\beta}\right)\right]^{-1} \tag{2}$$

The rate constants were found to be within experimental error the same, $k_{\rm cr} = 1.3 \pm 0.1 \times 10^2 \, {\rm s}^{-1}$ for **Dye-O**/TiO₂ and $k_{\rm cr} =$ $1.4 \pm 0.1 \times 10^2 \, {\rm s}^{-1}$ for **Dye-S**/TiO₂ (Figure S9). The reduction of TiO₂ with forward bias had a marked influence on the average charge recombination rate constants as is shown in Figure 5. The $k_{\rm cr}$ values were found to increase exponentially with the applied potential from +100 to -300 mV vs NHE (Figure S10).

The V_{oc} was measured in the absence of redox mediator under the same condition as the charge recombination measurement described previously. Over 2 decades of irradiances, the V_{oc} values for **Dye-O**/TiO₂ and **Dye-S**/TiO₂ were within experimental error the same (Figure S11). **Sensitizer Regeneration.** The regeneration of $Dye-O^+/TiO_2(e^-)$ and $Dye-S^+/TiO_2(e^-)$ by iodide and $[Co(bpy)_3]^{2+}$ donors was investigated. A laser pulse was used to generate the interfacial charge separated state, $Dye-O^+/TiO_2(e^-)$ or $Dye-S^+/TiO_2(e^-)$, in an electrolyte that contained known amounts of I^- or $[Co(bpy)_3]^{2+}$. The data were recorded at an observation wavelength of 635 nm where the oxidized dye predominantly absorbed light, Figure 6. The observed kinetic data could not be fit to a single exponential function, but were adequately described by a sum of two exponential functions, from which an average rate constant was calculated, eqs 3 and 4.

$$\Delta Abs = A_0 + A_1 \exp(-k_1 t) + A_2 \exp(-k_2 t)$$
(3)

$$\overline{k}_{\rm obs} = \frac{A_1/k_1 + A_2/k_2}{A_1/k_1^2 + A_2/k_2^2} \tag{4}$$

The \overline{k}_{obs} values were linear in the Co(bpy)₃²⁺ and I⁻ as is shown in Figure 7. The slopes from the linear fits provided the second-order rate constants for dye regeneration. The values are summarized in Table 2.

The regeneration efficiency, ϕ_{reg} , was quantified on the basis of the charge recombination and regeneration rate constants, eq 5:

$$\phi_{\rm reg} = k_{\rm reg}[D] / (k_{\rm cr} + k_{\rm reg}[D]) \tag{5}$$



Figure 6. Absorption changes measured after pulsed laser excitation of the sensitized film in the presence of the indicated concentration of $[Co(bpy)_3](ClO_4)_2$, (a) **Dye-O**/TiO₂ and (b) **Dye-S**/TiO₂, or LiI, (c) **Dye-O**/TiO₂ and (d) **Dye-S**/TiO₂ in 0.5 M LiClO₄/CH₃CN. Absorbance changes were monitored at a probe wavelength of 635 nm (excitation wavelength, 532 nm; laser fluence, 0.1 mJ/cm²). Overlaid in yellow are the best fits to biexponential kinetic model.



Figure 7. Plots of observed regeneration rate constants (\bar{k}_{obs}) of **Dye-O**/TiO₂ (red \blacksquare) and **Dye-S**/TiO₂ (blue \blacklozenge) obtained from the kinetics fits versus titrated (a) $[Co(bpy)_3]^{2+}$ and (b) $[I^-]$ concentrations.

where *D* is the donor concentration. The ϕ_{reg} values reflect the facts that charge recombination rate constants were highly sensitive to the extent of forward bias and that regeneration rate constants were larger for **Dye-S**⁺/TiO₂(e⁻), Table 3.

Transient absorption spectra were also recorded after pulsed laser excitation in the presence of iodide. At long observation

times (>10 μ s), the injected electron and I₃⁻ were observed as well as a derivative feature attributed to a shift in the ground-state absorption of the dye molecules due to the injected electrons (an electroabsorption or Stark effect)^{25,26} (Figure S12). Recombination of the injected electron with I₃⁻ was found to be well modeled by KWW function with a β value of 0.8 (Figure S13).

Table 2. Second-Order Regeneration Rate Constants $(k_{\rm reg})$ Abstracted for Dye-O/TiO₂ and Dye-S/TiO₂ in 0.5 M LiClO₄/CH₃CN Containing Cobalt- and Iodide-Based Redox Mediators

	[Co(bpy) ₃] ²⁺				
	$\overset{k_{\mathrm{reg}}}{(\mathrm{M}^{-1}\mathrm{s}^{-1})}$	$\Delta G^{\circ a}$ (V)	$\overset{k_{\mathrm{reg}}}{(\mathrm{M}^{-1}\mathrm{s}^{-1})}$	$\Delta G^{\circ b}$ (V)	$ \Delta G^{\circ c} $ (V)
$Dye-O/TiO_2$	1.1×10^{6}	-0.46	1.5×10^{6}	0.21	-0.09
$Dye-S/TiO_2$	3.5×10^{6}	-0.53	3.7×10^{7}	0.14	-0.16
aro([Co(how]	13+/2+) _	056 W	NUE bCal	vulated free	~~~~~~

 ${}^{LCo((bpy)_3]^{5+/2^+}} = 0.56 \text{ V vs NHE.}$ ${}^{Calculated free energy}$ change for outer-sphere reactions based on $E^{\circ}(I/I^-) = 1.23 \text{ V vs}$ NHE. ${}^{Calculated free energy}$ change for outer-sphere reactions based on $E^{\circ}(I_2^{-}/2I^-) = 0.93 \text{ V vs}$ NHE.

 Table 3. Regeneration Efficiencies Calculated by Equation 5

 at the Indicated Forward Bias Conditions

	bias (mV vs NHE)	$\phi_{\rm reg}~0.5~{\rm M~I^-}$	$\phi_{\rm reg} 0.2 \text{ M} [{\rm Co}^{\rm II}({\rm bpy})_3]^{2+}$
$\textbf{Dye-O}/\text{TiO}_2$	80	1.0	1.0
	0	1.0	1.0
	-70	0.99	0.97
	-140	0.97	0.91
	-200	0.83	0.60
	-270	0.57	0.28
$\mathbf{Dye} extsf{-}\mathbf{S}/\mathrm{TiO}_2$	100	1.0	1.0
	30	1.0	1.0
	-40	1.0	1.0
	-110	0.99	0.99
	-180	0.99	0.95
	-240	0.99	0.85

An average rate constant was calculated to be 2.3 \pm 0.4 s⁻¹ with eq 2.

At short observation times, there was clear kinetic evidence for the presence of $I_2^{\bullet-}$. It was of interest to test whether injected electrons recombined with $I_2^{\bullet-}$. This was accomplished by a method that was previously described.²⁹ The absorption change at 396 nm, where both I_3^- and $I_2^{\bullet-}$ absorbed light, was measured at a sufficiently long delay time (10 μ s) to ensure that all of the photogenerated $I_2^{\bullet-}$ had disproportionated. The initial amplitude of the absorption change expected if quantitative $I_2^{\bullet-}$ disproportionation occurred was then calculated, based on the known relative extinction coefficients of I_3^- and $I_2^{\bullet-}$,²⁹ and compared to the experimentally measured value. After a small correction for contributions from the oxidized dye, the calculated and experimentally measured values were within experimental error the same for **Dye-S**/TiO₂, consistent with quantitative I₂^{•-} disproportionation (Figure S14). In other words, all of the I₂^{•-} that was photogenerated underwent disproportionation with no evidence for a TiO₂(e⁻) + I₂^{•-} \rightarrow reaction. This same conclusion could not be reached for **Dye-O**/TiO₂ due to the more sluggish regeneration rates that made kinetic analysis difficult.

Light-to-Electrical Energy Conversion. Photocurrent density–voltage plots are shown for DSSCs with **Dye-O** and **Dye-S** using an iodide- and cobalt-based electrolytes, Figure 8. The DSSCs fabricated with **Dye-S** display power conversion efficiencies (η) similar to those fabricated with **1** with the I₃⁻/I⁻based electrolytes, Table 4. The DSSCs fabricated with **Dye-O** and **Dye-S** and an I₃⁻/I⁻-based electrolyte displayed PCEs of 6.1 ± 0.2% and 6.2 ± 0.3%, respectively. The DSSCs fabricated with **Dye-O** or **Dye-S** and the Co^{III/II} redox mediator displayed η of 4.6 ± 0.4% and 6.3 ± 0.7%, respectively.

Photocurrent action spectra, measured as the incident photon-to-current efficiency (IPCE) versus wavelength shown in Figure 9, were in good agreement with the absorptance spectra. The slight decrease in photocurrent efficiency that was measured below 420 nm with the iodide containing electrolyte is due to competitive light absorption by tri-iodide. The **Dye-O** absorbed light to about 650 nm. When corrections were made for light scattering and absorption by the FTO substrate, the efficiency was near 100%.

DISCUSSION

The two dyes investigated in this study, which differ only by a two-heteroatom change from oxygen to sulfur within the donor unit, revealed nearly quantitative short-circuit photocurrent efficiencies when employed in DCCS with iodide or cobalt redox mediators. However, the open circuit photovoltage, V_{oct} was found to be largest for Dye-S under all conditions investigated. It is not the absolute values of the conversion efficiencies that are novel in this study as Wang et al. have reported more optimal data,¹⁴ and even higher values for structurally related organic dyes have been realized by Bai and co-workers.³⁰ Instead, this comparative study revealed an improvement with Dye-S that stands in stark contrast to the commonly accepted view that sulfur atoms incorporated within the organic framework of a dye molecule enhance recombination and hence lower the overall light-to-electrical energy conversion efficiency. In fact, recombination of the injected electrons with the oxidized dye was within experimental error the same for the two sensitized materials.



Figure 8. Current-voltage curves for DSSCs fabricated with Dye-O and Dye-S at AM1.5 illumination using (A) I₃-/I⁻ and (B) Co^{III/II} redox mediators.

Fable 4. Solar Cell Performance Parameters	Obtained un	der Simulated	I AM 1.5	Illumination	(1 Sun)	for Dye-C) and Dye-S
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compound	electrolyte ^a	$J_{\rm sc}~({\rm mA/cm^2})$	$V_{\rm oc}~({\rm mV})$	fill factor	$\eta \ (\%)^b$
Dye-O	I^{-}/I_{3}^{-}	11.7 ± 0.2	734 ± 21	70.5 ± 1.5	6.1 ± 0.2
Dye-S	I^{-}/I_{3}^{-}	10.3 ± 0.6	798 ± 24	74.4 ± 2.2	6.2 ± 0.3
Dye-O	Co ^{III/II}	10.1 ± 0.5	714 ± 31	63.7 ± 4.8	4.6 ± 0.4
Dye-S	Co ^{III/II}	10.8 ± 0.4	828 ± 38	70.0 ± 3.6	6.3 ± 0.7

^{*a*}The I_3^{-}/I^{-} electrolyte solution is composed of 1.0 M 1,3-dimethylimidazolium iodide (DMII), 60 mM I_2 , 0.5 M *tert*-butylpyridine, 0.05 M NaI, and 0.1 M GuNCS in a mixed solvent system of acetonitrile and valeronitrile (85:15, v/v), while the Co^{III/II} electrolyte is composed of 0.21 M $[Co(bpy)_3](PF_6)_2$, 0.033 M $[Co(bpy)_3](PF_6)_3$, 0.1 M NaClO₄, and 0.2 M *tert*-butylpyridine in acetonitrile. ^{*b*}A 0.13 cm² mask was used; averaged parameters, with standard deviations, from no fewer than three different cells are listed.



Figure 9. Incident-photon-to-current efficiency (IPCE) for DSSCs fabricated using (a) I₃⁻/I⁻ and (b) Co^{III/II} redox mediators.

Likewise, recombination of injected electrons with oxidized iodide ions was also sensitizer independent. Surprisingly, the origin of the disparate V_{oc} values was instead traced to an enhanced regeneration rate and efficiency for **Dye-S**. Detailed mechanistic studies revealed that regeneration was optimal at the short circuit condition for both dye molecules, but was not rapid enough for **Dye-O** to compete with **Dye-O**⁺/TiO₂(e⁻) \rightarrow **Dye-O**/TiO₂ recombination as the number of electrons trapped in TiO₂ was raised toward the values expected at the open circuit condition. Below we discuss these two key findings in regard to the interfacial energetics, kinetics, and conversion efficiency in dye-sensitized solar cells.

Interfacial Energetics. Spectroelectrochemistry of the sensitized thin films revealed that the electrochemical reduction of TiO₂ was insensitive to the identity of the surface anchored dye molecules. Reduction of TiO₂ results in a blue-black coloration of the film that has been attributed to trapped $TiO_2(e^-)$'s, most probably as Ti^{III} sites.³¹ Employing the approach of Bisquert and co-workers,³² the potential-dependent redox chemistry was converted to a chemical capacitance. A key assumption was that electrons could be independently added and removed from the TiO₂; that is, the electrons are screened from each other. With this assumption, molecular excited states with reduction potentials as low as 0 V vs NHE would be able to inject electrons into TiO₂, Figure 10. Dye-O and Dye-S are much more potent reductants, and quantitative injection was expected. The knowledge that the $E(S^+/S^*)$ potential is ~600 mV higher than needed for efficient electron injection allows for future work on developing these sensitizers by extending the π -bridge to lower the $E(S^+/S^*)$ and consequently covering a larger portion of the solar spectrum.

The dye molecules could be reversibly oxidized, and the potential dependence is displayed in the form of chemical capacitance. The peak of the distributions shown corresponds to the potential where equal concentrations of the oxidized and reduced forms were present. This value was taken as the formal reduction



Figure 10. Interfacial energetics of Dye-O/TiO₂ and Dye-S/TiO₂ in 0.5 M LiClO₄/CH₃CN solution.

potential and was found to be 75 mV more positive for **Dye-S**/TiO₂ than for **Dye-O**/TiO₂. This difference was attributed to the poorer orbital overlap of the lone pair of the sulfur atom with the phenyl ring.²⁰ Nevertheless, measurements of the photovoltage generated in the absence of redox mediators showed that the free energy stored in the **Dye-O**⁺/TiO₂(e⁻) and **Dye-S**⁺/TiO₂(e⁻) interfacial charge-separated states were within experimental error the same. Taken together, these data indicate that the change of heteroatoms did not appreciably influence interfacial thermodynamics for **Dye-O**/TiO₂ and **Dye-S**/TiO₂.

Interfacial Kinetics. Charge recombination between the injected $TiO_2(e^-)$ and the oxidized dye molecules was within experimental error the same for both **Dye-O**/TiO₂ and **Dye-S**/TiO₂. This observation was expected as the driving force for the



Figure 11. Molecular structures of two ruthenium(II)-based dyes studies by O'Regan and co-workers¹⁰ indicating the site where the heteroatoms have been changed. The β -LUSO (lowest-unoccupied spin orbital) for the oxidized form of the ruthenium dye where X = S is shown to the left of the β -LUSO (for **Dye-S**⁺ (also shown in Figure 1) to highlight that there is no orbital character over the S atoms in the metal dye and significant orbital character over the S atoms in the organic dye. The portions of the respective dyes that ostensibly interact with the redox mediator are illustrated. The equivalent spindensity plots are found in Figure S15.

reactions differed by merely 75 mV.^{33,34} The average rate constants, k_{cr} , abstracted from a distributional analysis of the kinetic data were highly sensitive to the presence of excess TiO₂(e⁻)'s. This behavior was first recognized by Durrant and co-workers for *cis*-Ru(4,4'-dicarboxy-2,2'-bipyridine)₂(NCS)₂/TiO₂³⁵ and was immediately apparent for the organic dyes studied herein. The k_{cr} values increased exponentially with the applied forward bias that, given the exponential density of states known for TiO₂, implies a reaction that is first-order in TiO₂(e⁻) concentration.

The kinetics for sensitizer regeneration were quantified spectroscopically. With $[Co(bpy)_3]^{2+}$ as the electron donor, second-order rate constants of the order of $10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ were measured for reaction 6.

At high $[Co(bpy)_3]^{2+}$ concentrations (i.e., above 0.13 M) and low concentrations of trapped TiO₂(e⁻)'s, the regeneration step was quantitative, consistent with the high photocurrent efficiencies measured at the short circuit condition. The high photocurrents also indicated that the unwanted charge recombination of the injected electron with the oxidized cobalt compound, $[Co(bpy)_3]^{3+}$, was inefficient. This observation likely emanates from the wellknown spin change that accompanies $Co^{III/II}$ redox chemistry that results in anomalously small self-exchange rate constants.^{36,37} The $[Co(bpy)_3]^{2+}$ compound has a d⁷ high spin electron configuration $(t_{2g}^{5}e_{g}^{*2})$, and $[Co(bpy)_{3}]^{3+}$ has a d⁶ low-spin configuration (t_{2g}^{6}) . Consistent with other sensitizers that have displayed high solar conversion efficiencies with a $Co^{III/II}$ redox mediator, the long hexyl hydrocarbon chains of the dye molecules are postulated to effectively shield the TiO₂ surface from the $[Co(bpy)_{3}]^{3+.2}$

Iodide oxidation has been the subject of many studies^{38,39} and occurs by two different mechanisms: one that is first-order in iodide to generate the iodine atom; and the other that is second-order in iodide to yield an iodine radical anion called di-iodide, $I_2^{\bullet-}$. It remains unclear which mechanism(s) are operative at sensitized TiO₂ interfaces. This ambiguity is due in part to the rapid reactivity of the iodine atom with iodide to yield the same $I_2^{\bullet-}$ product. However, the latter mechanism is generally thought to be operative in solar cells as the thermodynamics for this outer-sphere electron transfer pathway are more favorable.⁶ For example, the free energy change for regeneration of the classical N3 sensitizer, *cis*-Ru(dcb)₂(NCS)₂, to yield the iodine atom is

endergonic by +140 mV ($E^{\circ}(I^{\circ}/I^{-}) = 1.23$ V vs NHE), while it is exergonic by -160 mV for $I_2^{\circ-}$ formation ($E^{\circ}(I_2^{\circ-}/2I^{-}) = 0.93$ V vs NHE).⁴⁰ The corresponding driving forces for regeneration of **Dye-S**/TiO₂ studies here are essentially identical, suggesting specific interactions between the oxidized dye and iodide. While these arguments are not definitive as inner-sphere dye–iodide adducts may activate iodide and significantly alter the thermodynamics,⁴¹ ion-pairing with the oxidized dye is generally invoked to explain regeneration mechanisms at sensitized TiO₂ interfaces, reaction 7.⁴²

$$[I^{-}, \mathbf{Dye} \cdot \mathbf{X}^{+} / \mathrm{TiO}_{2}] + I^{-} \rightarrow \mathbf{Dye} \cdot \mathbf{X} / \mathrm{TiO}_{2} + I_{2}^{\bullet^{-}} \quad (\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{O} \text{ or } \mathbf{S})$$
(7)

In the present case, the rate constant for regeneration differs by a factor of 25 with only a 75 mV change in driving force for $Dye-O^+$ and $Dye-S^+$. This finding is striking in that previous kinetic data indicate that a 75 mV change in driving force would not have such a dramatic influence on the electron transfer rate constant.^{11,30} For example, Palomares and co-workers observed a 4-fold enhancement of regeneration with an additional 60 mV driving force,¹¹ while O'Regan and co-workers observed a 20-fold enhancement of regeneration with over 300 mV driving force.⁴³ Clearly the dependence of the measured electron transfer rate constants on $-\Delta G$ will be a function of where they sit on the Marcus parabola. Reactions that occur near the top of the parabola, that is, where $-\Delta G = \lambda$, may show a very shallow ΔG dependence, whereas those that are highly unfavored show a stronger dependence. Nevertheless, a 25-fold change in rate constant cannot reasonably be attributed to only a 75 mV change in driving force.

Inspection of the molecular orbitals of the two dyes reveals a higher orbital coefficient on the S atom relative to the O atom. This description is more predominant in the oxidized forms of the dyes, which is the more relevant form to be considered here. **Dye-O** and **Dye-S** offer the first examination of how different heteroatoms affect the regeneration step, where the heteroatoms constitute the portion of the molecule that will be interacting with the electrolyte. Previous studies on the heteroatom effect in coordination compounds placed the heteroatom on a remote portion of a bipyridine ligand, Figure 11. Consequently, this resulted in differences in behavior that were manifest in the recombination step, but not necessarily the regeneration step. The reaction between the oxidized forms of **Dye-O** and **Dye-S** and the redox mediator will almost certainly involve the portion

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of the molecule bearing the triaryl fragment containing the heteroatoms of interest. Consequently, the much faster rates of dye regeneration provide incontrovertible evidence that the S atoms mediate an interaction with the redox mediator that is favorable relative to the O atoms. Adduct formation between iodide and the soft more polarizable sulfur atom as the Lewis base at the regeneration site would provide an inner-sphere electron transfer pathway that could enhance electronic coupling and hence alter the electronic transmission coefficient. Alternatively, the higher rate of the reaction could simply be a result of the greater orbital coefficient on the S atom on the O atom.

In either event, transient absorption data clearly show that the unwanted charge recombination reaction with oxidized iodide species was not influenced by the presence of the sulfur atoms positioned near the donor site of these organic dyes as was invoked previously for the ruthenium-based sensitizers.¹⁰ Recombination of the injected electrons with I_3^- or I_2 was within experimental error the same for the two dye-sensitized TiO₂ materials, $2.3 \pm 0.4 \text{ s}^{-1}$. Di-iodide, an intermediate in the regeneration reaction and a I_3^- reduction product, is also a potential electron acceptor,^{44,45} yet there was no evidence for a reaction between **Dye-S**/TiO₂(e⁻) and $I_2^{\bullet-}$. Instead, the $I_2^{\bullet-}$ formed during regeneration underwent disproportionation with a quantum yield and reaction rate constant that was unchanged from that measured in fluid acetonitrile solution.²⁸

The question remains whether more rapid regeneration by **Dye-S⁺**/TiO₂(e^{-}) could account for the larger open circuit photovoltage, Voc. measured in the DSSCs. Generally speaking, the observation of quantitative short circuit photocurrents and IPCE values has led previous authors to conclude that regeneration is optimal.⁷ However, at short circuit the injected electrons are rapidly removed from TiO₂ thin film, whereas at the open circuit condition many electrons are trapped within each nanocrystallite, behavior that is known to enhance charge recombination.³⁵ Indeed, as electrons were thermally transferred to TiO₂ with an external potentiostat, recombination to these oxidized organic dyes increased significantly and the corresponding regeneration efficiency decreased. At -200 mV vs NHE, the regeneration efficiency for Dye-S⁺/TiO₂(e⁻) was near unity for both donors, while that for **Dye-O**⁺/TiO₂(e^{-}) had dropped by about 20% for iodide and 40% for $Co(bpy)_3^{2+}$. The more significant decrease for the cobalt mediator reflects the fact that it did not regenerate as quickly as did iodide. These regeneration efficiencies explain the smaller $V_{\rm oc}$ values measured for Dye-O as well as it is greater sensitivity to the cobalt mediator as is described more fully below.

Correlations of measurements made under potentiostatic conditions with an operational solar cell are nontrivial. Ideally, one would like to employ transient absorption spectroscopy directly as an in situ characterization tool for DSSCs as has been done in pioneering studies by O'Regan and co-workers.^{46,47} However, transmission losses associated with the complete DSSC coupled with the necessary corrections for redox chemistry that occurs at the counter electrode have thus far precluded data of the quality presented herein. Nevertheless, about 20 electrons have been calculated to reside in each TiO₂ nanocrystallite at the power point, albeit a value noted to be quite sensitive to the distribution of TiO₂ particle sizes.⁴⁶ With reasonable assumptions of extinction coefficient and path length, the measured $TiO_2(e^-)$ absorption at -200 mV is in good agreement with this value, and the number would be even higher at the open circuit condition. Thus, the potentiostatic kinetic data provide compelling evidence that the high short circuit photocurrents for both dyes are due to

quantitative regeneration and the low V_{oc} value for **Dye-O**/TiO₂ results from poor regeneration when the TiO₂(e⁻) concentration is high. Hence, the detailed mechanistic studies reported herein show that the observation of quantitative short circuit photocurrents is not necessarily an indication that regeneration is optimal. Quantitative regeneration of **Dye-S**⁺/TiO₂ as the TiO₂(e⁻) concentration was raised toward the values expected at the open circuit condition underlies its superior performance and V_{oc} values relative to **Dye-O**/TiO₂.

CONCLUSIONS

To our knowledge, this study provides the first direct comparison of molecules where a simple two-atom change, at the site of regeneration, systematically probes the rates of regeneration by I^{-} (and Co(II)). The results of this study contrast the broadly accepted view that S atoms enhance the rate of recombination between the $TiO_2(e^-)$ and the oxidized iodide mediator, thus lowering the solar conversion efficiency of the DSSC. These disparities in reactivities are manifest in the specific positioning of the heteroatom change within the portion of the dye molecule that is most likely to react with the incoming reductant I⁻. These results highlight that the atomic composition of the dye can have a profound effect on the dye regeneration process, and that the careful design of molecular dyes can lead to an optimization of interactions with the redox mediator that can lead to further enhancements in dye regeneration. Furthermore, the data provide compelling evidence that sluggish regeneration can lower the open circuit photovoltage even when quantitative short circuit photocurrents are measured.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information

Synthetic details, physical methods, and spectroscopic, electrochemical, and computational data. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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