

Glass-Encapsulated Light Harvesters: More Efficient Dye-Sensitized Solar Cells by Deposition of Self-Aligned, Conformal, and Self-Limited Silica Layers

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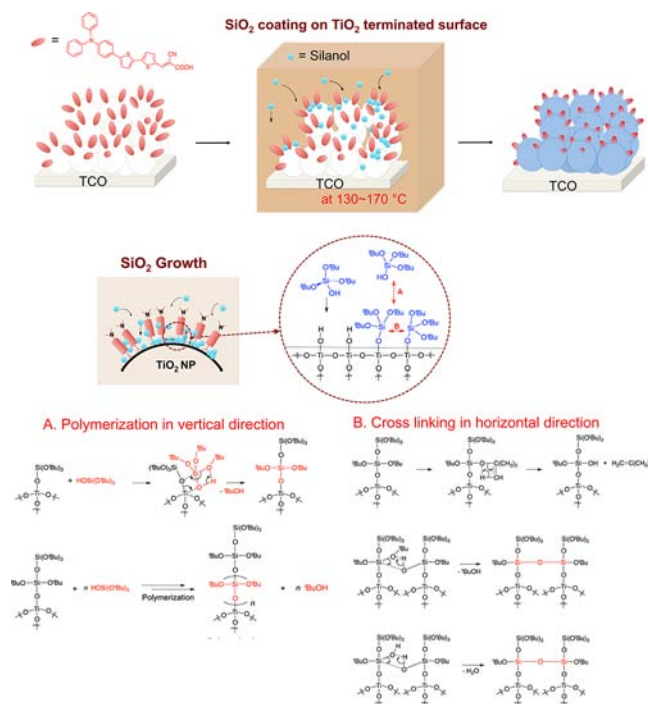
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S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: A major loss mechanism in dye-sensitized solar cells (DSCs) is recombination at the TiO₂/electrolyte interface. Here we report a method to reduce greatly this loss mechanism. We deposit insulating and transparent silica (SiO₂) onto the open areas of a nanoparticulate TiO₂ surface while avoiding any deposition of SiO₂ over or under the organic dye molecules. The SiO₂ coating covers the highly convoluted surface of the TiO₂ conformally and with a uniform thickness throughout the thousands of layers of nanoparticles. DSCs incorporating these selective and self-aligned SiO₂ layers achieved a 36% increase in relative efficiency versus control uncoated cells.

Dye-sensitized solar cells (DSCs) have great potential to compete with conventional p–n junction solar cells due to their relatively low cost.¹ However, their efficiency is limited by the ease with which electrons collected by the nanoparticle (NP) framework can recombine with ions in solution. Therefore, the photovoltaic efficiency of DSCs can be increased by retarding electron recombination at the photoelectrode interfaces. The surfaces of the TiO₂ NPs are not fully covered by the dye molecules, as shown schematically in Scheme 1. Thus, an electrical short by direct contact between electrolyte and the areas of TiO₂ not covered by dye provides an important loss pathway by which electrons recombine with the electrolyte. This recombination rate could be reduced or eliminated by selectively coating an insulating and transparent layer on these open areas of TiO₂. In an effort to minimize such losses, many groups have proposed device architectures that include the coating of inorganic barrier layers,² the use of long aliphatic chain on organic framework,³ saccharides,⁴ the introduction of co-adsorbents,⁵ encapsulation by cyclodextrins,⁶ and post-surface passivation by polymerization.⁷ Recently, high band gap metal oxide layers prepared via atomic layer deposition (ALD) have received much attention as efficient interface engineering tools owing to their capability of infiltrating porous structures, thereby ensuring good coverage of the surface of the nanoporous electrode,⁸ fine control of thickness,⁹ and low-temperature processing.¹⁰ However,

Scheme 1. Post-dye SiO₂ Deposition Process and Plausible Reaction Mechanism on Dye-Coated TiO₂ Nanoparticles



applying ALD layers prior to dye adsorption on TiO₂ or related oxides significantly reduces the electron-transfer rate from the dye through the metal oxide overlayers by creating a tunneling barrier.¹¹ Therefore, a new methodology is needed that does not interfere with electron transfer to or from the dye molecules.

We discovered a method to deposit selectively an insulating and transparent layer of silica (SiO₂) only on the open areas of TiO₂ surface, but not on the adsorbed dye molecules or between the dye surface-linker and the electrode. Our approach exploits deposition of SiO₂ from a precursor that is catalytically

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decomposed by the surface of TiO_2 . Areas of TiO_2 covered by adsorbed dye do not catalyze the deposition of SiO_2 . Thus the gaps between dye molecules are selectively covered by SiO_2 . This SiO_2 retards the interfacial charge recombination dynamics without hindering electron injection from the dye into the TiO_2 or from the solution into the dye. When this SiO_2 treatment was applied to a DSC just after coating the TiO_2 with an organic dye (**OrgD**, Scheme 1), enhanced performance was obtained, with a higher power conversion efficiency and longer electron lifetime. Another important feature of the SiO_2 deposition process is that its thickness is self-limiting, so the same thickness is applied to all levels in the porous multilayer structure of the photoelectrode. In this study, we investigated the conditions needed to make SiO_2 deposit selectively on TiO_2 between dyes.

We found that SiO_2 less than 1 nm thick functions as a barrier to charge recombination and thereby improves the performance of these photovoltaic devices. The SiO_2 coating chemistry is related to a process for rapid ALD using alternating exposure of surfaces to vapors of trimethylaluminum (TMA) as a catalyst and tris(*tert*-butoxy)silanol (TBOS) as the SiO_2 precursor.¹² In this reaction, aluminum placed on the surface by the TMA plays a crucial role as a Lewis-acidic catalyst for deposition of SiO_2 layers up to 15 nm thick on top of the alumina.¹³ There have been reports that hafnium and zirconium can also catalyze the growth of SiO_2 .^{14–16} This work suggested to us that titanium might also catalyze the growth of SiO_2 . Indeed, we have found that anatase titanium dioxide does, in fact, catalyze growth of SiO_2 on its surface.

The SiO_2 coating process was performed in a home-built hot-wall tubular reactor (Scheme 1). TBOS was used as the precursor for both the silicon and the oxygen. The thickness of SiO_2 deposited on planar witness samples of TiO_2 is plotted as a function of substrate temperature in Figure 1. The reaction

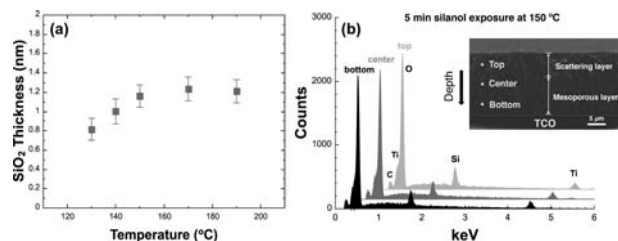


Figure 1. (a) RBS data for the thickness of the SiO_2 layer as a function of deposition temperature. (b) EDS data showing that the SiO_2 is deposited uniformly throughout the porous, nanoparticulate TiO_2 electrode.

temperature was varied from 130 to 190 °C, since no SiO_2 film was deposited below 130 °C. The amount of SiO_2 deposited was measured by the Rutherford backscattering spectroscopy (RBS) technique. The thickness of the SiO_2 film was found to increase with temperature from 0.8 nm to about 1.2 nm. These thicknesses represent the self-limited values obtained after initial dosing of about 1 Torr of silanol vapor, which was then allowed to react for 5 min. Other experiments showed that almost all of this deposition occurs within the first 10 s. Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopic (EDS) analyses (Figure 1) showed that the SiO_2 is evenly distributed throughout the thousands of TiO_2 NP layers constituting the photoanode. The coverage and thickness of the SiO_2 layer on the TiO_2 NPs were further examined with HRTEM (see Figure 2), which also

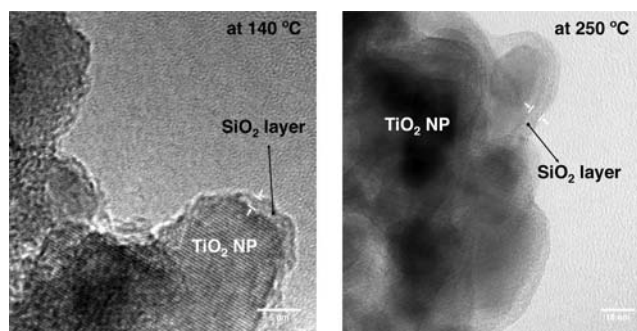


Figure 2. TEM images of TiO_2 NPs coated with SiO_2 at substrate temperatures of 140 and 250 °C.

shows a uniform and conformal SiO_2 layer. The thickness of the SiO_2 layer was ~ 1 and ~ 3 nm at 140 and 250 °C, respectively, showing the temperature dependence of the thickness, consistent with thicknesses determined by RBS.

Although it is not ideal to compare the thickness of SiO_2 on the dye-loaded TiO_2 surface with that on a flat surface, it should be noted that the real thickness of SiO_2 deposited is similar to the vertical dimension of dye molecules as evidenced by the stable oxidation of dyes within $\text{TiO}_2/\text{SiO}_2$ films (Figure S1) and the corresponding $I-V$ performance studied below (see Table 1). (Thicker layers might shut-off dye electrochemistry.)

Table 1. Photovoltaic Performance of DSCs

sample	J_{sc} [mA/cm^2]	V_{oc} [V]	ff	η [%]
OrgD	9.95	0.62	0.71	4.36
OrgD / $(\text{SiO}_2)_{130}$	11.03	0.66	0.69	5.02
OrgD / $(\text{SiO}_2)_{140}$	12.63	0.69	0.68	5.94
OrgD / $(\text{SiO}_2)_{150}$	12.17	0.68	0.69	5.70
OrgD / $(\text{SiO}_2)_{170}$	12.07	0.67	0.65	5.29
N719	13.58	0.77	0.71	7.39

In UV/vis spectra of $\text{TiO}_2/\text{OrgD}/\text{SiO}_2$ films, no significant decrease in absorbance is observed after SiO_2 deposition, indicating the sensitizing dye molecules are not affected by the SiO_2 precursor or the thermal stress during SiO_2 deposition (Figures S2 and S3). Given the fact that the sensitized dye molecules are partly surrounded by the SiO_2 layer, resulting in a change of the external dielectric field, the unchanged λ_{max} in the films arises from the low dielectric constant of SiO_2 ($\epsilon \approx 4$), which acts as a nonpolar medium.

Enshrining dyes with a glass (SiO_2) coating of precise and uniform thickness substantially improves the photovoltaic performance of the DSC devices. Figure 3 shows action spectra in the form of monochromatic incident photon-to-current conversion efficiencies (IPCEs) for DSCs based on **OrgD** (electrolyte: 0.6 M DMPImI, 0.05 M iodine, 0.1 M LiI, and 0.5 M *tert*-butylpyridine in acetonitrile). The post-dye-treated **OrgD**/ $(\text{SiO}_2)_x$ ($x = \text{SiO}_2$ deposition temperature ranging from 130 to 170 °C) cells clearly exhibited an increased response over the entire spectral region, but especially the red region, relative to the nontreated **OrgD** cell. The IPCE of **OrgD**/ $(\text{SiO}_2)_{130-170}$ showed plateaus of over 75% from 400 to 590 nm. Significantly higher responses were observed over the wavelength range of 500–700 nm for **OrgD**/ $(\text{SiO}_2)_{130-170}$ cells compared to **OrgD** cell. The broadened IPCEs of these coated cells suggest superior electron collection capability (greater collection length) versus untreated cells. If we examine IPCE as

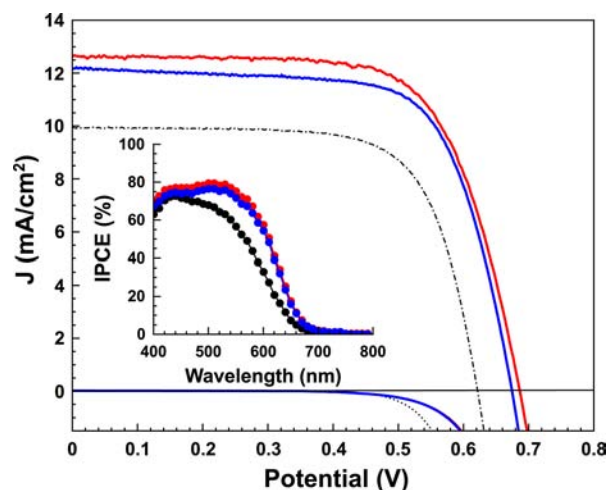


Figure 3. J - V curves, dark currents, and IPCE plots (inset) of **OrgD** (black dashed line), **OrgD**/(SiO₂)₁₄₀ (red line), and **OrgD**/(SiO₂)₁₅₀ (blue line).

a function of light harvesting efficiency over the wavelength (Figure S4), the results suggest that the coated films have much longer *effective* light infiltration compared to uncoated ones (“effective” means ability to inject electrons that are subsequently collected as a photocurrent rather than lost to interception by I₃⁻ or recombination with oxidized dye). An additional minor contributor to the IPCE broadening could be a red shift in dye absorption following encapsulation. Extinction measurements suggest that, depending on the wavelength, the shift could be as large as 15 nm. The measurements were complicated, however, by baseline shifts presumably due to light scattering.

The photovoltaic performances of the **OrgD** sensitized cells are listed in Table 1.¹⁷ The optimal condition for the SiO₂ barrier was that produced at 140 °C (~1.0 nm by RBS), which resulted in 36% increase in efficiency (η) compared to the reference cell, with the highest η achieved being 5.94%; both the open-circuit photovoltage (V_{oc}) value of 0.69 V and the short-circuit photocurrent (J_{sc}) value of 12.63 mA/cm² are larger than for the uncoated control.¹⁸ This value agrees well with that obtained by integrating solar-spectrum-weighted IPCE. Under the same conditions, the **OrgD** cell gave J_{sc} = 9.95 mA/cm², V_{oc} = 0.62 V, and fill-factor (ff) = 0.71, which correspond to η = 4.36%. When the deposition temperature was increased to 150 °C, the resulting device showed slightly poorer characteristics than the **OrgD**/(SiO₂)₁₄₀ cell. Of particular importance is the 60–70 mV increase in the V_{oc} value of the **OrgD**/(SiO₂)_{130–170} cell relative to the **OrgD** cell. This result implies that the SiO₂ surrounding the dye results in retardation of interfacial charge recombination losses in the device, as confirmed by the dark current data (Figure 3). Charge lifetimes (τ_e) determined from V_{oc} decay measurements are shown in Figure 4a. The τ_e values are successively shifted to larger values with increase of reaction temperature from 130 to 170 °C, demonstrating that the electron-recombination process was effectively retarded by the SiO₂ deposition. Specifically, the increase of τ_e by the post-dye SiO₂ layer is saturated with the amount produced at 140 °C, showing that as little as 1.0 nm of SiO₂ (about 4 monolayers) is sufficient to insulate the TiO₂ surfaces very efficiently. These results are also in good agreement with the V_{oc} results shown in Table 1.

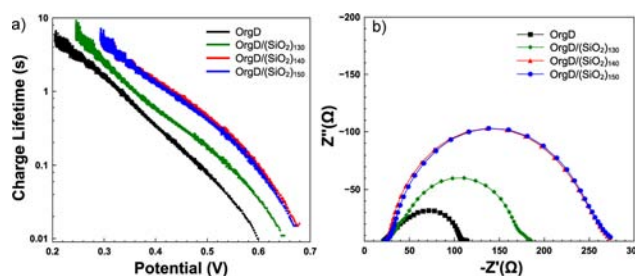


Figure 4. (a) Charge lifetimes from open-circuit photovoltage decays. (b) Dark electrochemical impedance spectra at 575 mV of **OrgD**, **OrgD**/(SiO₂)₁₃₀, **OrgD**/(SiO₂)₁₄₀, and **OrgD**/(SiO₂)₁₅₀ cells.

Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was performed under dark conditions (Figure 4b) with the forward bias ranging from -0.5 to -0.7 V. The semicircular curve obtained in the intermediate-frequency regime shows the dark reaction impedance caused by electron transport from the TiO₂ conduction band to the I₃⁻ ions in the electrolyte.¹⁹ The radius of the intermediate frequency semicircle showed the increasing order of **OrgD** (72 Ω) < **OrgD**/(SiO₂)₁₃₀ (133 Ω) < **OrgD**/(SiO₂)₁₄₀ (239 Ω) ≤ **OrgD**/(SiO₂)₁₅₀ (241 Ω), which is in agreement with the trends of the V_{oc} and τ_e values. EIS also revealed that the effective length of **OrgD**/(SiO₂)₁₄₀ is roughly 2.5 times greater than that of **OrgD**, confirming that SiO₂ inhibits the interception of injected electrons by the I₃⁻ ions in the electrolyte (Figure 5).²⁰ Figure S5 shows that the untreated

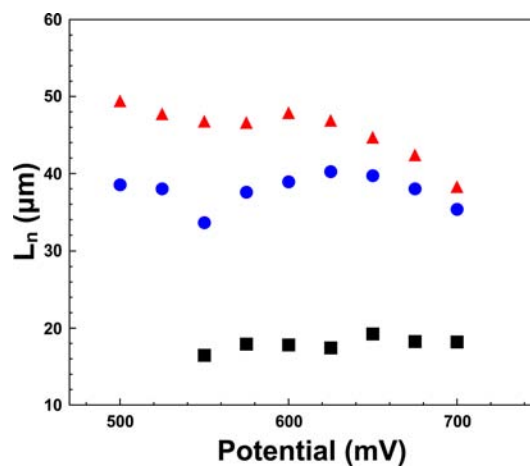


Figure 5. Effective electron diffusion lengths (from dark EIS) for the electrodes coated with **OrgD** (black squares), **OrgD**/(SiO₂)₁₄₀ (red triangles), and **OrgD**/(SiO₂)₁₅₀ (blue circles).

and treated cells have a similar capacitance, indicating that the band-edge of the nanoporous TiO₂ network is not affected by the SiO₂ deposition (Figure S5). We envision that this strategy could be even more useful for the bulky outer-sphere redox shuttles. Such studies are currently in progress and will be presented elsewhere.

In summary, we have demonstrated that self-aligned, conformal, and self-limiting deposition of SiO₂ on TiO₂ in DSCs is an effective tool for retarding charge recombination, leading to enhanced charge collection and substantially increased overall conversion efficiency. The SiO₂ layer forms only on the TiO₂ and does not cover the dye molecules. Moreover, this new architecture provides an insulating layer that retards interfacial charge recombination without reducing

electron transfer from the dye into the TiO₂ NPs or from the solution to the dye. Optimization of DSCs using this SiO₂ post-dye treatment as well as application to other, more strongly absorbing dyes is currently being investigated. We believe that the development of highly efficient DSC devices with excellent stabilities is possible through this interfacial engineering.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

■ Supporting Information

Experimental conditions and results of cyclic voltammetry, UV/vis spectra, J - V curves, chemical capacitance experiments, and TEM image. 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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