



High Efficiency Quantum Dot Heterojunction Solar Cell Using Anatase (001) TiO₂ Nanosheets

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Quantum dots (QDs) have attracted a lot of attention due to their tunable bandgap and their high optical absorption cross section.[1-3] A variety of research projects attempt to integrate QDs into solar cells devices, including nanocrystal (NC)-polymer hybrid solar cells, NC-Schottky solar cells, NCsensitized titanium dioxide (TiO2) solar cells, and NC hybrid bilayer solar cells.[4-12] Recently investigations focus on QD heterojunction solar cells, by placing oxide NCs (TiO₂ or ZnO) as a thin spacer layer between the QDs and the FTO.[13-19] In addition, a tandem QD solar cell with the same structure has been demonstrated as well.^[20] Multiple exciton generation (MEG) effect was also demonstrate in similar QD based solar cell structure.[21]

PbS and PbSe QDs belong to group IV-VI, which are known for their high absorbance in the visible and in the near infrared regions. They have a relatively large Bohr radius,[22-24] large ground state cross section of absorption (~10-15 cm⁻²) and long excitonic lifetime (~200–800 ns). [25] In addition their bandgap can be tuned between 0.3-2.0 eV

The crystal structure of anatase TiO2 can be theoretically constructed as truncated octahedron with eight equivalent (101) facets and two equivalent (001) facets on the top/bottom.[26] Studies have shown that the (001) facets of anatase TiO2 are more reactive than the (101) facets which are more thermodynamically stable.[27] Moreover, the band edge of anatase TiO2 with dominant (101) facets is more negative than the exposed (001) anatase TiO₂.[28]

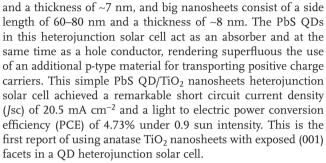
Here we report on a QD heterojunction solar cell using anatase TiO2 nanosheets with dominant (001) facets as photoanode. The anatase (001) TiO₂ nanosheets were synthesized via a simple hydrothermal route using tetrabutyl titanate, as the precursor and hydrofluoric acid solution as the solvent. Two sizes of nanosheets were synthesized with rectangular sheetlike structures, small nanosheets with a side length of ~30 nm

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TiO₂ nanosheets were synthesized via a simple hydrothermal route using tetrabutyl titanate, Ti(OBu)4, as the precursor and 47% hydrofluoric acid solution as the solvent (see the experimental section for details). Figure 1A shows a typical X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern of TiO2 nanosheets synthesized at 180 and 200 °C. All the diffraction peaks are indexed to the anatase phase of TiO2 (JCPDS No. 21-1272), indicating that the obtained product was pure anatase TiO2 nanosheets. Figure 1B shows a high-magnification TEM image of an individual TiO2 nanosheet. The lattice spacing parallel to the top and bottom facets was determined to be 0.235 nm, corresponding to the (001) planes of anatase TiO2. The corresponding selected-area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern (indexed as the [001] zone axis diffraction) as shown in the inset of Figure 1A further indicates that the top and bottom facets of the nanosheets are the (001) planes. The low-magnification transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of the obtained small and large TiO₂ nanosheets are shown in Figures 1C and 1D, respectively. The small nanosheets consist of well-defined rectangular sheetlike structures with a side length of 30 nm and a thickness of 7 nm, while the big nanosheets consist of well-defined rectangular sheet-like structures with a side length of 60-80 nm and a thickness of 8 nm.

On the basis of the above structural information, the percentage of highly reactive (001) facets in the small TiO₂ nanosheets (30 nm) was estimated to be 65% and the percentage of highly reactive (001) facets in the big TiO2 nanosheets (80 nm) was estimated to be 75%. In addition, from BET analysis, the surface areas of the small and big TiO2 nanosheets are determined to be 122 and 72 m²/g, respectively.

The prepared TiO₂ nanosheets were used for the fabrication of heterojunction PbS QD/TiO2 solar cells. Figures 2A and 2B present a scheme of the device structure. The bottom layer is composed of compact TiO2 and TiO2 nanosheets with exposed (001) facets layers acting as electron collectors. The light is absorbed by PbS QD film, which was made using layer-by-layer deposition technique. The original ligands of the PbS QDs





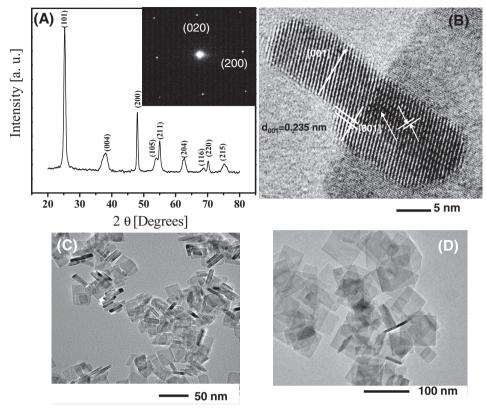


Figure 1. (A) XRD pattern and (B) High-magnification TEM image of an individual TiO₂ nanosheet. (C) Low-magnification TEM image of 30 nm TiO₂ nanosheets synthesized at 180 °C using 10 mL of Ti(OBu)₄ and 0.8 mL of HF. (D) Low-magnification TEM image of 80 nm TiO₂ nanosheets synthesized at 200 °C using 10 mL of Ti(OBu)₄ and 1.6 mL of HF. Inset of Figure 1A: Typical SAED pattern of an individual TiO₂ nanosheet.

(oleic acid) were replaced by mercaptopropionic acid (MPA) during deposition. A gold contact was evaporated on top of the PbS QD film.

Two sizes of PbS QDs were used in this study. The absorption spectra of the PbS QDs are presented in the supporting information (Figure 1S in the SI) and correspond to band gaps (Eg) of $1.38~{\rm eV}$ and $1.24~{\rm eV}$.

The operation mechanism of the PbS (QD)/TiO₂ heterojunction solar cell (presented in Figure 2) shows a depletion layer that can extend from the ${\rm TiO_2}$ nanosheets film to the QDs film. The local electric field present in the depletion layer is essential in assisting the separation of photogenerated electron hole pairs.

Table 1 summarizes the results obtained for cells made from two sizes of nanosheets (30 and 80 nm) and two sizes of PbS QDs with absorbance of 900 and 1000 nm (corresponding to $E_{\rm g}$ of 1.38 and 1.24 eV, respectively). In addition, cells using standard TiO₂ NPs with dominantly exposed (101) facets (dyesol paste- DS90) were made for comparison.

We observe that the 30-nm nanosheets give higher short circuit photocurrents than 80-nm nanosheets. The 80-nm nanosheets give a lower efficiency than the ${\rm TiO_2~NPs.}$ The open circuit voltage ($V_{\rm oc}$) and current density are smaller for the large QDs ($E_{\rm g}$ of 1.24 eV compared to 1.38 eV) resulting in a lower power conversion efficiency. The best performance was achieved using 30-nm sized ${\rm TiO_2~nanosheets}$ –in in conjunction with PbS QDs having a bandgap of 1.38 eV.

The differences in the power conversion efficiency can be explained by the BET measurements. The 80-nm sized nanosheets have the lowest surface area of 72 m²/g while the 30-nm sized nanosheets have the highest surface area of 122 m²/g. The 18-nm NPs have a specific surface area of 75 m²/g. It is surprising that the smaller nanosheets produce a substantially higher photocurrent than the larger ones. Possibly, the photoinduced charge separation at the interface between the PbS-QD layer and TiO2 nanosheets is enhanced by an increase in the

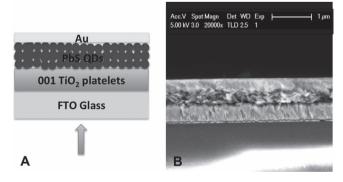


Figure 2. (A) The architecture of the PbS(QD)/nanosheets TiO_2 heterojunction photovoltaic device, the light is incident through the glass. (B) Cross sectional HR-SEM of the photovoltaic device. It shows that the PbS QDs form a nanocrystalline layer on top of the TiO_2 film very few QDs penetrate into the nanosheets network of the TiO_2 film.



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Table 1. Comparison of the J–V characteristics made from different sizes of TiO_2 nanosheets and PbS QDs.

TiO ₂ Sample	BET [m²/g]	QD <i>E</i> g [eV]	V _{oc} [V]	$J_{\rm sc}$ [mA cm $^{-2}$]	FF	$\eta^{\mathrm{a})}$ [%]
TiO ₂ 18-nm NPs (DS90)	75	1.38	0.543	16.3	0.41	4.04
TiO ₂ nanosheets 30 nm size	122	1.38	0.545	20.5	0.38	4.73
TiO ₂ nanosheets 30 nm size	122	1.24	0.488	16.6	0.46	4.17
TiO ₂ nanosheets 80 nm size	72	1.38	0.561	10.6	0.45	3.16
TiO ₂ nanosheets 80 nm size	72	1.24	0.46	9.41	0.53	2.73

a) The power conversion efficiencies were measured by using a solar simulator whose power output adjusted to match 0.9 full sunlight intensity (90 mW/cm²) by using a reference Si photodiode.

number of contact points between the two nanomaterials upon reducing the platelet size. The better photovoltaic performance of the nanosheets compared to nanoparticles may be attributed to the higher ionic charge of the exposed (001) compared to the (101) facets strengthening the attachment of the QDs to the TiO_2 surface.[27]

The data in Table 1 also reveal that the PbS particles with a 1.24 eV Eg yield a lower open circuit voltage than those with Eg of 1.38 eV. This can be explained by the quantum size effect which would reduce the built-in junction potential for the smaller PbS particles at equal doping levels. As a result, the $V_{\rm oc}$ increases by increasing the QD Eg.

Figure 3A presents the photovoltaic results obtained for all samples include: standard TiO_2 NPs, two sizes of TiO_2 nanosheets with exposed (001) facets using PbS QDs with Eg of 1.38 and 1.24 eV. We obtain the best performance with quantum dots having a diameter of about 3.2 nm. (1st excitonic peak at 900nm, $E_g = 1.38$ eV) These PbS quantum dots produce a V_{oc} of 0.545 V, a J_{sc} of 20.5 mA cm⁻² and a fill factor of 38% corresponding to a PCE of 4.7% under 0.9 sun intensity.

The incident photon to current conversion efficiency (IPCE) specifies the ratio of extracted electrons to incident photons at a given wavelength. The IPCE spectra (Figure 3B) are plotted as a function of wavelength of the light. The solid state QDs cell shows a good response from the visible through the near infra-red (NIR), the IPCE spectrum using the TiO₂ nanosheets is reaching its maximum of 100% at 420 nm (rectangles) while the IPCE spectrum using the TiO₂ NPs is reaching its maximum of 90% at 400 nm. Photons of these wavelengths are converted most efficiently as they are absorbed by PbS particles located close to the TiO₂ interface. The excitonic peak of the PbS QDs is observed at 940nm for both cells corresponding to IPCE of 30% and 15.5% for the nanosheets and the NPs respectively. Those peaks are slightly red shifted compared to the first excitonic peak of the QDs (solid curve in Figure 3B) as a result

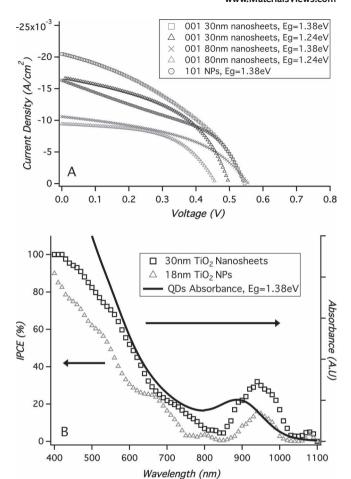


Figure 3. (A) Comparison of the J-V characteristics for the solid state PbS QD device. A mask with aperture area of 0.12 cm² was placed over the device. (B) IPCE spectra of the PbS QD/TiO₂ heterojunction solar cell. The rectangles show the heterojunction solar cell using (001) 30 nm nanosheets which produced the highest power conversion efficiency; The triangles show the heterojunction solar cell using TiO₂ NPs; and the solid curve shows the absorbance spectrum of the PbS QDs with Eg of 1.38eV.

of film formation. Integration of the IPCE spectrum over the AM1.5 solar emission yields a photocurrent density of 18.2 and 13.7 mA/cm² for the nanosheets and the NPs, respectively, which is in reasonable agreement with the measured values. We can attribute the close to 100% IPCE to the efficient attachment of the QDs to the (001) facets of the TiO₂ nanosheets, resulting in near-quantitative conversion of 400–420 nm photons into electric current. As a result of the high IPCE values the absorbed photon–to–current efficiency (APCE) was calculated by measuring the light harvesting efficiency. The APCE exceeds 100% which suggests of multiple exciton generation in the PbS QD/TiO₂ heterojunction solar cell (see Figure 2S in SI).

Anatase TiO_2 nanosheets with 30-nm and 80-nm size and with dominant (001) facets were synthesized and employed in PbS QD/ TiO_2 heterojunction solar cell. The best photovoltaic performance was achieved using 30-nm TiO_2 nanosheets with PbS QDs having Eg of 1.38eV. The photovoltaic parameters give a J_{sc} of 20.5 mA/cm², a V_{oc} of 0.545V, a FF of 0.38 corresponding

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to a solar to electric power conversion efficiency (η) of 4.73% under 0.9 light intensity. The higher surface area related to the small nanosheets and the high reactivity of the (001) facets contribute to the better performance of the PbS QD/TiO₂ heterojunction solar cell compared to standard TiO₂ NPs.

Experimental Section

Synthesis and Purification of TiO₂ Nanosheets: The synthesis of the nanosheets was followed a typical experimental procedure.^[28] Ti(OBu)4 (10 mL, 98%) and hydrofluoric acid (0.8 mL, 47%) solution mixed in a 150 mL dried Teflon autoclave which was kept at 180 °C for 24 h to yield the small nanosheets. The synthesis of the big nanosheets followed the same procedure as that for the small nanosheets except using 1.6 mL of hydrofluoric acid and the Teflon autoclave was kept at 200 °C for 24h. After the reaction was cooled to room temperature, the white powder was separated by high-speed centrifugation and washed with ethanol followed by distilled water for several times. Caution: Hydrofluoric acid is extremely corrosive and a contact poison, it should be handled with extreme care! Hydrofluoric acid solution is stored in Teflon containers in use

Nanosheets Characterization: The morphologies of TiO $_2$ nanosheets were examined by transmission electron microscopy (TEM; JEM 2010F, JEOL, Japan) and selected area electron diffraction (SAED) operated at 200 kV with a drop of TiO $_2$ nanosheet suspension in methanol mounted onto a carbon-coated 200 mesh Cu grid. The crystal structure of TiO $_2$ nanosheets was investigated by an X-ray diffraction technique (XRD-6000, Shimadzu, Japan) using Ni-filtered Cu K α line (λ = 0.15418 nm) at a scanning rate of 2° min $^{-1}$ in 20 ranging from 20° to 80°. The Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area of TiO $_2$ nanosheets was characterized using N $_2$ adsorption a t–196 °C on a Multi-Station High Speed Gas Sorption Analyzer (Quantachrome, NOVA 3000) in the relative pressure range (P/P $_0$) of 0.05–0.35.

Methods and Device Fabrication: Colloidal PbS QDs were synthesized according to the method reported by Hines et al. [29] As-prepared PbS QDs were capped with oleic acid (OA). The first excitonic absorption bands of QDs were tuned by controlling reaction temperatures and concentrations of the precursors. The PbS QDs were stored in nitrogen glove box.

During device fabrication, a thin blocking layer of compact TiO2 was first deposited by spray pyrolysis onto a pre-cleaned FTO glass substrate using a solution of titanium diisopropoxide bis(acetylacetonate) in ethanol as precursor. Subsequently, a nanosheet TiO2 layer was deposited by spin coating (4000 rpm for 10 sec) from a dilute aqueous solution containing a mixture of TiO2 nanosheets and ethanol (volume ratio of 1:3). This results in a nanosheet titania film with 300 \pm 50 nm thickness. The procedure for the deposition of the PbS QD film is similar to the one reported by Sargent et al.[13] with modifications. The PbS QDs were subsequently deposited layer by layer on the porous TiO2 film by spin coating a 50 mg mL⁻¹ solution in octane. Each layer was cast at a spinning rate of 2500 rpm applied for 10 s and treated thereafter briefly with a solution of 10% 3-mercaptopropionic acid (MPA, ≥99.0% from Sigma Aldrich) in methanol using again 2500 rpm rotational speed for 10 s. This treatment displaced the oleate ligand completely and rendered the QD insoluble, which allowed thin films of 300 nm thicknesses to be created using 12 successive deposition cycles. Each layer was rinsed with anhydrous methanol (purchased from Sigma Aldrich) to remove excess of MPA and PbS QDs. Finally, a gold back contact of ~100 nm thickness was deposited by evaporation through a shadow mask. The device was then completed by encapsulation in Argon atmosphere. The encapsulation of the device was made by placing 2-mm glass on top of the active area of the device using a frame of hot melt Surlyn (25 µm thick) as a sealant and spacer. After encapsulation, the device was stable in ambient air.

The cross section of the device was measured by high-resolution scanning electron microscopy (HR-SEM) FEI XL30 SFEG, using 5 kV with magnification of 20KX.

Photovoltaic Characterization: Photovoltaic measurements employed an AM 1.5 solar simulator equipped with a 450W xenon lamp (Model No. 81172, Oriel). Its power output was adjusted to match AM 1.5 global sunlight (100 mW cm⁻²) by using a reference Si photodiode equipped with an IR-cutoff filter (KG-3, Schott) in order to reduce the mismatch between the simulated light and AM 1.5 (in the region of 350-750 nm) to less than 2% with measurements verified at two PV calibration laboratories [ISE (Germany), NREL (USA)]. I-V curves were obtained by applying an external bias to the cell and measuring the generated photocurrent with a Keithley model 2400 digital source meter. The voltage step and delay time of photocurrent were 10 mV and 40 ms, respectively. A similar data acquisition system was used to determine the monochromatic incident photon- to-electric current conversion efficiency. Under full computer control, light from a 300 W xenon lamp (ILC Technology, U.S.A.) was focused through a Gemini-180 double monochromator (Jobin Yvon Ltd., U.K.) onto the photovoltaic cell under test. The monochromator was incremented through the visible spectrum to generate the IPCE (λ) as defined by IPCE (λ) = 1240($J_{sc}/\lambda \phi$), where λ is the wavelength, J_{sc} is the short-circuit photocurrent density (mA cm⁻²), and ϕ is the incident radiative flux (mW cm⁻²). Photovoltaic performance was measured by using a metal mask with an aperture area of 0.12 cm².

Supporting Information

Supporting Information is available from the Wiley Online Library or from the author.

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