

Chemical assisted formation of secondary structures towards high efficiency solar cells based on ordered TiO₂ nanotube arrays†

Liang Tao,^a Yan Xiong,^b Hong Liu^{*a} and Wenzhong Shen^{*ab}

Received 1st January 2012, Accepted 21st February 2012

DOI: 10.1039/c2jm00005a

Amongst all types of photoanodes in sensitized solar cells, nanotube arrays (NTs) have become a suitable choice that can balance the dye absorption, electron transport, and effective thickness. However, the maximum performance they have shown now is still not comparable with porous films. In this work, we have established a simple yet effective method towards high performance solar cell based on NTs. Significantly increased carrier generation by better dye absorption can be realized by the particle-like secondary structures grown on TiO₂ tubes. Nevertheless, this effect was often followed by a sacrifice of the electron transport properties of the NTs, which may greatly weaken the total net increase of efficiency by the secondary structures. With a subsequent TiCl₄ treatment and slightly modulated outer conditions (anodic voltage and stirring rate), we are able to adequately resolve this paradox. The short circuit current can be raised to over 110% higher, while the fill factor and open circuit voltage remain unharmed. As a result, an efficiency of 4.35% can be achieved in the back-side illuminated dye-sensitized solar cells, which is ~114% higher than the basic efficiency of the plain cell. The formation of the secondary structures can be explained by the reversible dissolution-reprecipitation of TiO₂ with the reaction-diffusion process of F⁻ and other fluoride species during the treatment.

1. Introduction

As a broadband semiconductor, TiO₂ has attracted a great deal of attention due to its excellent stability, photocatalytic ability and feasibility for various nanostructure fabrications.^{1–3} Since originally reported by O'Regan and Grätzel,⁴ the application of TiO₂ in dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) are currently applied in widespread scientific and technological regions. Up to now, the most excellent nanoporous (NP) film based DSSC with single dye can reach nearly 13% by using the YD2-o-C8 dye and a high potential reduction/oxidation pair (cobalt (II/III)-based redox electrolyte) developed by the Grätzel group.⁵ The large surface area of the NP film enables better absorption of the sensitizers, therefore enables more efficient light harvesting and carrier generation. Nevertheless, electron transport is a limiting factor on the performance of these NP crystalline electrodes due to the interface effects between two crystalline nanoparticles, which

leads to enhanced scattering of free electrons and thus reduces the electron mobility.⁶ Furthermore, the irregular organization of particles inside the NP films would also reduce the real effective absorption surface area for the sensitizers due to a possible block on the path into the depth of the porous layer.^{7–10}

In recent years, a great many efforts have been paid to explore better performed DSSCs. One of the well known methods was to apply mesoporous/P25 film using a sol-gel approach based on block copolymers, which has achieved a fairly high efficiency.¹¹ Another important approach is to research new photoanodes in place of the single porous TiO₂ films in order to further enhance the performance of the DSSCs. In a greater degree of variation, the ordered nanotube arrays (NTs) have been another recent focus which can hopefully offer higher carrier transport ability and less blocking effect of the sensitizer absorption than the NP films. It has been pointed out that the NTs-based DSSCs have higher charge-collection efficiencies than those of the NP-based ones by the Frank group.⁸ The work by the Schmuki group has achieved the first meaningful efficiency in DSSCs based on ordered TiO₂ NTs under AM 1.5 illumination.¹² About 2–3% efficiency of DSSCs based on the pure TiO₂ NTs were later obtained.^{13–15} To achieve better performance, further studies on the TiO₂ NTs-based DSSCs have been made *via* various approaches, mainly from morphology control and chemical implantation. It was reported that for the same diameter the optimum tube length was around 20 μm,⁹ meanwhile for the same thickness of nanotube, a smaller diameter helps to achieve

^aLaboratory of Condensed Matter Spectroscopy and Opto-Electronic Physics, and Key Laboratory of Artificial Structures and Quantum Control (Ministry of Education), Department of Physics, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, 800 Dong Chuan Road, Shanghai, 200240, People's Republic of China. E-mail: liuhong@sjtu.edu.cn; Fax: +86 (0)21 54743243; Tel: +86 (0)21 54743243

^bInstitute of Solar Energy, Department of Physics, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, 800 Dong Chuan Road, Shanghai, 200240, People's Republic of China. E-mail: wzshen@sjtu.edu.cn; Fax: +86 (0)21 54747552; Tel: +86 (0)21 54747552

† Electronic supplementary information (ESI) available: Further details. See DOI: 10.1039/c2jm00005a

higher efficiency.^{10,13} More recent research has indicated that for the same efficiency, the necessary thickness of photoanodes based on oriented nanostructures is much less than those based on NP films.^{15–18} This is especially helpful for flexible or transparent cells.

Nevertheless, the normal efficiency of DSSCs based on pure TiO₂ NTs is still lower than that based on nanocrystalline TiO₂ porous films,⁵ which is usually made by sintering a paste consisting of colloidal oxide particles with sizes in the 10–30 nm range. In order to resolve this issue, different approaches have been studied in recent years. One factor has been contributed to the reduction of electron transport in the tube arrays. This problem may have come from different reasons, for example, the trapping effect of oxygen defects in the TiO_x ($x \leq 2$) bulk, which often appears after the anodization due to incomplete oxidation.¹⁹ With oxygen plasma treatments assisted with chemical treatment, TiO₂ NTs-based DSSCs have exhibited an overall efficiency of 7.37%.²⁰ Another important factor is the relatively smaller total surface area of the tubes with a smooth surface compared to the NP ones, which can be hopefully overcome by modifications on the surfaces. One usual surface modification is creating secondary structures by applying the chemical treatments through etching or precipitation.^{18,21,22} However, the chemical treatments may induce problems such as irregular morphological change at the tube surface and damages in the tube bulk, which negatively influences the electron transport and thus reduce the total efficiency.^{23,24} Hence to a certain degree a paradox lies between the improvement of the two factors.

In this work, a simple and efficient fabrication method to modify and improve the TiO₂ NTs has been demonstrated, which can create a balance between the carrier transport and the dye absorption. Extradimensional fine structures, *i.e.*, additional islands on the tube walls were developed after being soaked in HF solutions and then annealed to 500 °C. Such a fine structure was proved to induce a significant increase of short circuit current and efficiency ($\Delta\eta/\eta_0 > 35\%$) from the plain DSSC (back-side illuminated model, see Fig. 1 in the ESI†). The back-side illuminated model has a low basic efficiency but offers identical initial experimental conditions to study the method.

Moreover, the impedance of the sensitizer installation and electron transport brought by those secondary structures could be compensated by TiCl₄ treatment and application of oscillating

voltages and mechanical stirring. Combining those methods, an increase of ~114% from the basic efficiency of plain DSSCs has been realized. The spectroscopic analysis on the formation of those islands described the recombination process at the wall surface by the reversible chemical etching process of TiO₂ with F⁻ anions. Generally speaking, the presented method introduced an effective approach to raise the cell efficiency with greatly enhanced short circuit current from both the dye installation and the carrier transport, which is able to play a significant role in the advancement of DSSCs and other devices relying on similar materials.

2. Experimental

2.1 Fabrication of TiO₂ nanotube arrays

The Ti sheets (0.25 mm thick, 99.7% purity, Sigma-Aldrich Co. Ltd., USA) were cleaned with methanol, ethyl alcohol, acetone and isopropyl alcohol with ultrasonication in sequence to remove any impurities. Highly ordered TiO₂ NTs were prepared by a second anodization of the Ti sheet in a two-electrode cell. The first anodization was performed at 180 V at 5 °C for 60 min in a solution of 0.09 M NH₄F and 1.0 wt% of H₂O in ethylene glycol (E.G.). The second anodization was performed at 180 V/180 ± 5 V at 5 °C for 10 min in the same solution. The anodized Ti sheet was rinsed with deionized water and ethanol, followed by annealing in air at 500 °C for 1 h at a heating rate of 10 °C per min. Then the TiO₂ film was carefully cleaned in deionized water with ultrasonication. The TiO₂ NT films used in the following experiments have a standard inner and outer diameter of about 100 nm and 200 nm, respectively.

2.2 Growth and modification of TiO₂ NTs with secondary structure

To develop the secondary structures on the nanotubes, the TiO₂ film was first soaked in a 0.1% HF solution (volume ratio of saturated HF and H₂O is 1 : 1000) for 30 min at room temperature within airtight bottles. After airing, the HF treated TiO₂ NT film was annealed at 500 °C for 1 h. In the TiCl₄ treatment, the sample was first soaked in a 0.2 M TiCl₄ solution for 60 min at room temperature within airtight bottles. Then it was annealed under the same conditions as the HF treatment. The digital pictures of TiO₂ NT films at different stages can be found in Fig. 2 in the ESI.†

2.3 Fabrication of DSSCs

The TiO₂ NT films with or without HF/TiCl₄ treatment were sintered in air for 1 h at 500 °C (each with an area of 0.25 cm²), then immersed in 0.5 mM N719 dye (Ruthenium 535-bisTBA) solution in ethanol for 12 h. These films were used as the photoanodes and mounted together with a counter electrode with platinum black (prepared by coating FTO glass with a 4 mM H₂PtCl₆ solution in ethanol and then heating in air at 200 °C for 60 min) to form back-side illuminated cells. The liquid electrolyte was injected into the cells by a syringe, which consisted of 0.1 M iodine (I₂), 0.1 M lithium iodide (LiI), 0.6 M tetra-butylammonium iodide and 0.5 M 4-*tert*-butyl pyridine in acetonitrile (CH₃CN, 99.9%).

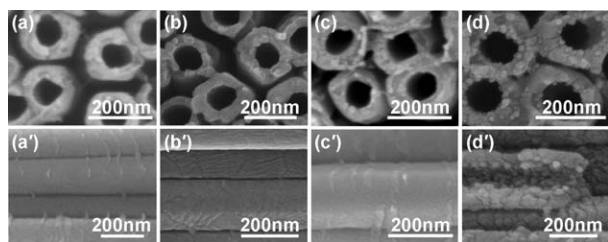


Fig. 1 FE-SEM images of oriented TiO₂ tube arrays grown from a 250 nm thick Ti sheet by 10 min, (a), (b) without and (c), (d) with HF treatment (soaked in a 0.1% HF aqueous solution for 30 min at room temperature within airtight bottles). (a), (c) show the top view of the as-prepared TiO₂ NTs before annealing; (b), (d) show the top view of annealed TiO₂ NTs. (a')–(d') show the lateral view of corresponding TiO₂ NTs under the same conditions.

2.4 Characterization of the materials and devices

The surface morphologies of the samples were characterized by a field emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM, JEOL JSM). The elemental analysis was performed by the energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) during the FE-SEM observation. A transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEM-2100F, JEOL USA Inc.) was employed to investigate the detailed structural information of the TiO₂ NT materials. Detailed microstructures were investigated by the selected area electron diffraction (SAED) during the high-resolution (HR)-TEM measurements. The microstructures of the samples were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD, D/max-2200/PC) with high intensity Cu-K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$). The Raman spectra were taken at room temperature on a Jobin Yvon LabRAM HR 800UV micro-Raman system with the excitation of a He-Cd laser (325.0 nm). The photocurrent density-photovoltage (J-V) characteristics of the DSSCs with an active area of 0.25 cm² were measured under AM 1.5 (100 mW cm⁻²) illumination provided by a solar simulator (Oriel Sol 2A) with a Keithley 2400 source meter. More data can be found in Table 1 in the ESI.†

3. Result and discussion

3.1 Development of the secondary structure on the TiO₂ NTs

In order to study more systematically, experiments were firstly carried out with only HF enrollment. The TiO₂ NTs were fabricated with the standard procedure that has been usually applied for better identities.^{25,26} The anodization voltage was chosen to be 180 V and the temperature was 5 °C so that the tubes could be growth in a relatively fast rate with good quality. A second anodization for 10 min was carried out to form more ordered tube arrays in a controlled short length to meet the requirement of the DSSCs. The so-fabricated NTs in those different stages are shown in Fig. 1(a), (a'), (b) and (b'). They all had quite uniform sizes, *i.e.*, the inner diameter, outer diameter and thickness of 110 nm, 215 nm and 21 μm , respectively. The tubes have smooth inner and outer surfaces and straight shape before annealing, and contain some small corrugation on the surface after annealing.

However, after the HF treatment, a series of secondary structures appeared at the surface of the TiO₂ tubes compared to the tubes without the preliminary HF treatment, as shown in Fig. 1(c), (c'), (d) and (d'). In detail, numerous multidimensional fine structures emerged around the surface of NTs after the tubes were annealed, while few multidimensional fine structures appeared before the tubes were annealed. It is worth mentioning that the inner/outer diameter of tubes remained at the original size while the surface became rougher. It can also be seen from Fig. 1(d') that these particles were also grown at the inside surface of the tubes.

3.2 Structural analysis of TiO₂ NT films with HF treatment

Beside the surface morphological change shown in Fig. 1, changes can also take place in the inner morphology and microstructures. Therefore the TEM measurement was carried out together with SAED patterns. Fig. 2(a)–(d) show the magnified TEM images of the TiO₂ NTs with/without HF

treatment. These results clearly show that after the HF treatment and annealing, the inner surface of the tubes also became much rougher than the one without HF treatment after annealing, and the diameter of the nanotubes was hardly affected. Compared to Fig. 1(c') and (d'), similar secondary structures to the outer surface were formed with HF treatment and annealing, with an average size ranging from 12 to 25 nm. It can also be more clearly observed from Fig. 2 that the development of those secondary structures mainly happened after the sample was already taken out of the HF solution, and during the annealing. The corresponding SAED pattern shown in Fig. 2(e) and (f) confirms the changing from amorphous phase to crystalline phase and the highly crystalline nature of anatase TiO₂. The SAED data has indicated that the TiO₂ was polycrystallized and more or less randomly oriented. The crystalline structures could also be identified in the HR-TEM images shown in Fig. 2(g) and (h).

Though the SAED and the HR-TEM images have shown crystallinity of the so-fabricated TiO₂ NTs, they have only shown the localized information. For more macroscopic information, the XRD and the Raman spectroscopy are necessary. Fig. 2(i) shows the corresponding XRD pattern of the HF-treated TiO₂ tube arrays. All diffraction peaks of the as-prepared tubes after annealing at 500 °C exhibit good agreement with anatase reference data,²⁷ indicating that the HF-treated TiO₂ NTs are well crystalline after the widely-used annealing method. Fig. 2(j) shows the room temperature Raman spectrum recorded between 100 and 700 cm⁻¹. It exhibits five distinct and strong peaks at about 143.9, 195, 399.3, 518.6 and 637.8 cm⁻¹ in the Raman

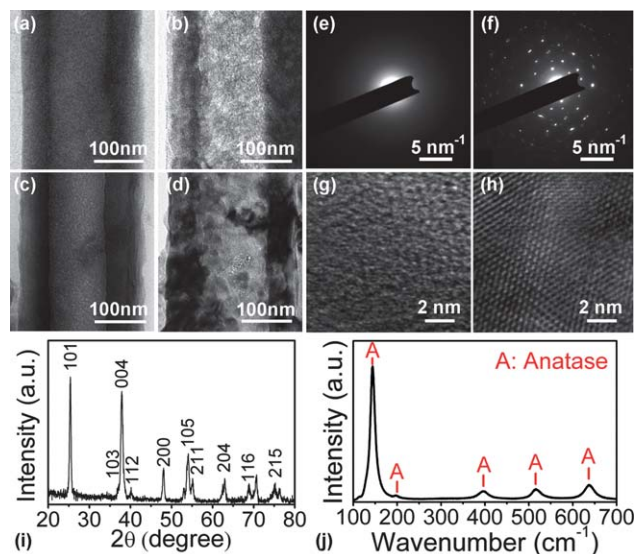


Fig. 2 Analysis of the TiO₂ tubes with HF treatment. (a)–(d) TEM images of the TiO₂ NTs: (a) without HF treatment, before annealing; (b) without HF treatment, after annealing; (c) with HF treatment, before annealing; and (d) with HF treatment, after annealing. (e), (f) SAED pattern of the TiO₂ NTs with HF treatment: (e) before annealing; and (f) after annealing. (g), (h) HR-TEM images of the TiO₂ NTs with HF treatment: (g) before annealing; and (h) after annealing. (i) XRD pattern of the TiO₂ tubes with HF treatment, sintered in air for 1 h at 500 °C at a heating rate of 10 °C per min. (j) Room temperature Raman spectra of the anodized tubes with HF treatment, sintered under the same conditions.

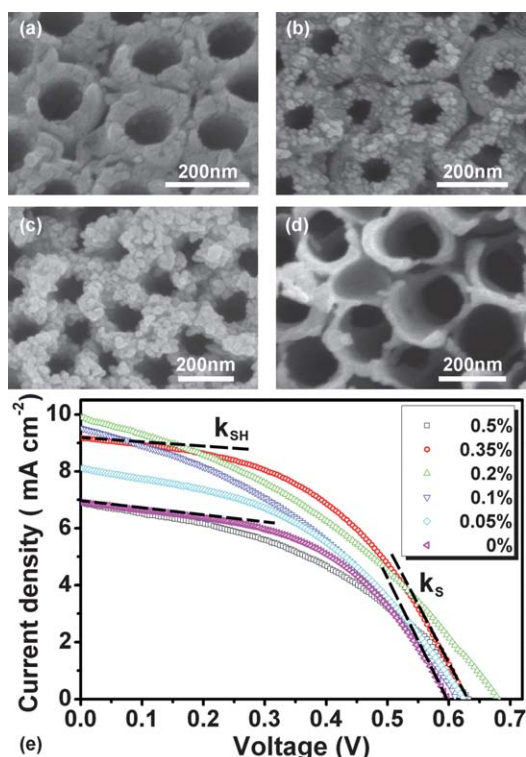


Fig. 3 TiO₂ tube arrays after annealing at 500 °C, pre-treated with HF in different concentrations: (a) 0.05%, (b) 0.2%, (c) 0.35%, (d) 0.5% HF treatment. (e) J-V characteristics of dye-sensitized solar cells (using N719) with the TiO₂ NTs treated by various HF aqueous solution concentrations, at a constant illumination of 100 mW cm⁻². The dashed lines marked by k_{SH} and k_S indicate the slopes near J_{SC} and V_{OC} , which are related to the reciprocals of shunt resistance and series resistance, respectively.

spectrum of the annealed TiO₂ tube arrays, revealing that the lattice atoms are aligned in anatase phase, which agrees well with the observation for TiO₂ thin films by Fujiki and other groups.^{28–30} Those results above indicated that the so-fabricated TiO₂ NTs were ready to be used in the DSSCs.

3.3 Photovoltaic performance of DSSCs based on TiO₂ NTs treated by HF aqueous solution in various concentrations

As demonstrated in sec. 3.2, secondary structures on the TiO₂ surfaces were formed with 0.1% HF treatment and have shown good crystallinity after annealing. It would be interesting to investigate the evolution of this phenomenon *versus* different conditions. Hence similar experiments have been carried out with a series of HF conditions and the results are shown in Fig. 3(a)–(d). When the HF concentration increased, first the density of particles on the surface increased, then reached a maximum. When the HF concentration continued to rise up, the tube surface became smooth again. Combining the results in Fig. 1(a) and (c), apparently these kind of island-particles reach the highest density with an intermediate HF concentration of about 0.35%.

Consequently, this multidimensional fine structure gave rise to a corresponding improvement of DSSCs based on those TiO₂

NTs. The as-fabricated samples were mounted with a counter electrode (Pt black) to form a back-side illuminated dye-sensitized solar cell (using N719 as the sensitizer). Though the back-side illuminating form of the DSSC would suppress the total conversion efficiency, it would not harm the effect of secondary structures. Fig. 3(e) presents the J-V characteristics of the DSSCs. For a solar cell without HF processing, the measurement yielded the efficiency of 2.03% (curve 0% in Fig. 3(e)), with an open circuit voltage (V_{OC}) of 0.60 V, a short circuit current density (J_{SC}) of 6.90 mA cm⁻², and a fill factor (FF) of 0.49. When the TiO₂ NTs processed by various concentration of fluoride were applied into DSSCs, the cell performance was increased significantly (see curve 0.05%, 0.1%, 0.2%, 0.35% and 0.5% in Fig. 3(e)), as the HF concentration increases from 0%. The best efficiency was 2.75% at the 0.35% HF concentration, with $V_{OC} = 0.62$ V, $J_{SC} = 9.16$ mA cm⁻², and FF = 0.49. Compared to its non-HF treated counterpart, it represents an increase of 32.75% of the short circuit current and 35.47% of the efficiency. These improvements can be contributed to the increase of dye absorption due to higher effective surface-to-volume ratio by those secondary crystal structures. However, after the development of the secondary structures on the tubes, the contact between those particles and the tube surfaces is sometimes not good, and too many particles might stack together and too much of a steep surface roughness can sometimes block the penetration of the dye molecule to the depth of the tubes. Both these factors can both reduce the improvement of the cell efficiency.^{31,32}

Furthermore, as widely known in the solar cell characterization, the slope of the J-V curve at different positions can represent the resistances inside the solar cell, *i.e.* the slopes near the V_{OC} (k_S) and J_{SC} (k_{SH}) are proportional to the reciprocals of the

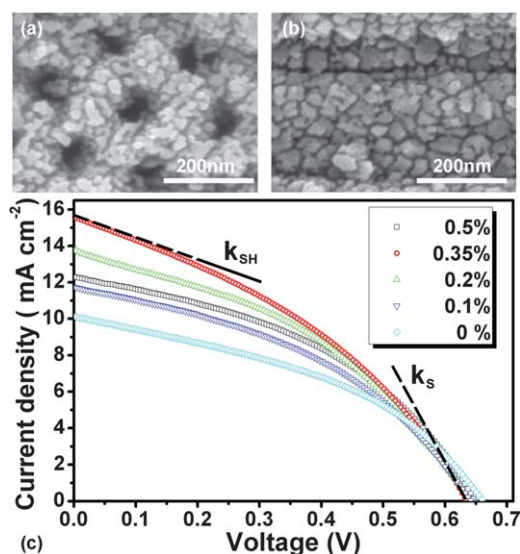


Fig. 4 TiO₂ NTs with 0.35% HF and TiCl₄ treatment, after annealing, and their performance in DSSCs. (a), (b) Top and lateral view, respectively; (c) J-V behavior of DSSCs with the TiO₂ NTs treated by a TiCl₄ solution (soaked in a 0.2 M TiCl₄ solution for 60 min at room temperature within airtight bottles) and various HF aqueous solution concentrations, at a constant illumination of 100 mW cm⁻². The dashed lines marked by k_{SH} and k_S indicate the slopes near J_{SC} and V_{OC} , respectively.

series resistance and shunt resistance, respectively.³³ Therefore the information about the electron transport in the cell can also be extracted from the measurement of the slopes. As shown in Fig. 3, k_S decreased from $2.8 \times 10^{-2} \Omega^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$ (plain cell) to $1.5 \times 10^{-2} \Omega^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$, again indicating that the electron transport through the cell was negatively influenced by the HF treatment. Besides, the electron transport can also be reduced by structural damage in the bulk of the tubes, as shown by the TEM image in Fig. 2(d). Finally, k_{SH} decreased from $2.1 \times 10^{-3} \Omega^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$ to $8.0 \times 10^{-4} \Omega^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$, showing increased shunt resistance due to the secondary structure.

3.4 Complementary development of the secondary structures

3.4.1 Integration with TiCl_4 treatment. As demonstrated in sec. 3.3, the high dimensional secondary structures (surface particles) on the TiO_2 tube array can significantly enhance the performance of the DSSC, but they would also bring some negative effects on the electron transport and the dye loading. The as-formed secondary structures should be further improved by some complementary steps to reduce these negative effects. One possible way is to increase the contact between the particles and tube surface, or among the particles themselves. This can be resolved by a simple TiCl_4 treatment, which was commonly applied in the working photoelectrode pre-treatment.¹⁸ It was reported to induce improvements in the adhesion and mechanical strength of the nanocrystalline TiO_2 layer³⁴ and result in higher photocurrent, which intimated a complementary procedure with HF. Fig. 4(a) and (b) show the TiO_2 NTs with the combined treatment by the HF and the TiCl_4 afterwards. To be more adapted to the application, the TiCl_4 concentration was set to 0.2 M, a usually applied value with an optimized effect.¹⁸ Apparently, the secondary structures on the tube surface became more regular and much more flat islands were formed. It could also be detected that the stacking effect of particles was reduced, especially compared to Fig. 3(c).

As a result, it could be detected by the J-V measurement that significant improvement has taken place in the DSSCs based on those TiO_2 NTs. It also clearly illuminates the increasing of secondary crystal structures as well, which is shown in Fig. 4(c). On one hand, with only TiCl_4 (curve 0% given in Fig. 4(c)), the cell yielded the efficiency of 2.76%, with $V_{OC} = 0.62 \text{ V}$, $J_{SC} = 10.09 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$, and $FF = 0.44$. It was higher compared to the sample without any treatment, but still similar as the cell with HF treatment, which has a maximum efficiency of 2.75%. On the other hand, when the TiO_2 NTs were treated by TiCl_4 and HF together, the performance of corresponding DSSC was increased significantly compared to the situation under the same HF treatment without TiCl_4 treatment (see the data for 0.1%, 0.2%, 0.35% and 0.5% HF, given in Fig. 3(e)) in general. The highest efficiency was 3.65%, obtained at an HF concentration of 0.35%, which is about 80% greater than the plain DSSC without any treatment, with $V_{OC} = 0.63 \text{ V}$, $J_{SC} = 15.54 \text{ mA cm}^{-2}$, and $FF = 0.37$. It should also be noticed that besides the increase of efficiency, the short circuit current was greatly enhanced to about 125% higher than the basic value on the plain DSSC and $\sim 70\%$ higher than the sample with only HF treatment. This fact strongly indicates a contribution to the contact modification near the secondary particles and the tube surfaces, which leads to

more carrier transferring from the dye to the TiO_2 bulk and a final increase of the overall efficiency.

From the J-V curve, it can be measured that after the TiCl_4 treatment, k_S has increased from $1.5 \times 10^{-2} \Omega^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$ (the optimized sample at 3.5% HF) to $2.0 \times 10^{-2} \Omega^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$, which means the series resistance of the cell was reduced. Nevertheless, k_{SH} increased from $8.0 \times 10^{-4} \Omega^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$ to $4.0 \times 10^{-3} \Omega^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$, indicating the decrease of shunt resistance. Consequently, the fill factor at the maximum efficiency (0.37) was even less than the cases for the plain DSSCs (0.49), that with only HF treatment (0.49) and that with only TiCl_4 treatment (0.44), which can strongly harm the real output of the cell. A result from the TiCl_4 treatment is that many unnecessary contacts on the irregularly roughened surface can be built which can induce a higher probability of the carrier recombination. Moreover, the structural damage inside the tube bulk can not be simply repaired by the TiCl_4 treatment at the surfaces. Therefore better ordered tube arrays prior to the chemical treatments are expected to be helpful, with assistance of some simple outer conditions.

3.4.2 Under modulated conditions (oscillating voltage and mechanical stirring).

As discussed above, on one hand, the efficiency is improved due to larger surface area for dye absorption and better surface contact by chemical modifications. On the other hand, the chemical treatment might also bring negative influence on the efficiency and the fill factor due to the increased roughness inside the tubes and damage in the bulk of the tubes. It has been studied by our previous works that the morphology of the TiO_2 NTs could be adjusted by controlling the mechanical stirring rate or the fast periodically modulated anodic voltage.²⁵ Hence it is expected to be combined with the previous treatment to obtain secondary fine structures with better ordered, straight

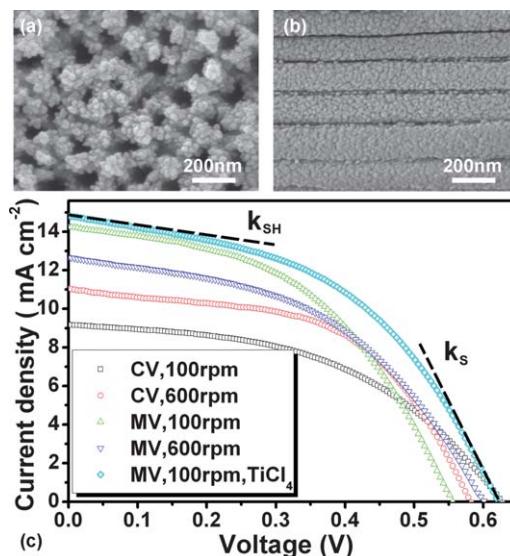


Fig. 5 TiO_2 NTs with modulated voltage ($180 \pm 5 \text{ V}$) and mechanical stirring at 100 rpm followed by 0.35% HF treatment and their performance in DSSCs. (a), (b) Top and lateral view, respectively; (c) photovoltaic behavior of dye-sensitized solar cells with TiO_2 NTs formed at various modulated conditions, at a constant illumination of 100 mW cm^{-2} . The dashed lines marked by k_{SH} and k_S indicate the slopes near J_{SC} and V_{OC} , respectively.

and compact TiO₂ NTs. By using those techniques together with the chemical treatment, the negative influence of the secondary structures might be reduced so that the efficiency can be further improved.

To ensure better identity of this study, all the following experiments were carried out preliminarily with the HF concentration at 0.35% according to previous experiments. The typical morphology of so-fabricated sample can be demonstrated by Fig. 5(a) and (b), revealing significant change with controlled modulated voltage and higher stirring rate compared to those tubes fabricated with only controlled chemical treatment. It can be clearly observed the secondary structures on the walls are more homogeneously distributed in a more uniform size. Besides, the tubes were very straight and ordered. The tubes were anodized with periodically modulated voltage of 180 ± 5 V and at stirring rate of 100 rpm and 600 rpm, which are the typical optimized values according to previous investigations.²⁵ Fig. 5(c) compares the J-V characteristics of the DSSCs fabricated under various conditions. The highest efficiency was 4.35% ($V_{OC} = 0.61$ V, $J_{SC} = 14.79$ mA cm⁻², and FF = 0.48), about 114.2% higher than the DSSC without any treatment and 19.2% higher than the sample with only chemical treatment. This result was obtained with the previously optimized chemical treatment at 180 ± 5 V with a stirring rate of 100 rpm. k_S under this condition was 2.4×10^{-2} Ω⁻¹ cm⁻², higher than the value 2.0×10^{-2} Ω⁻¹ cm⁻² under the optimized conditions with only TiCl₄ and HF treatment. The k_{SH} was 1.5×10^{-3} Ω⁻¹ cm⁻², much lower than 4.0×10^{-3} Ω⁻¹ cm⁻² for the optimized sample with TiCl₄ and HF. Consequently, though the short circuit current was lower than the sample when only treated by HF and TiCl₄, the fill factor was raised by 29.7%, which implies that the electron transport ability was further improved by better organized arrays and the real output with a certain load is much better under the same J_{SC} .

Evidently, using external modulated conditions during the anodization leads to a significant increase of the short circuit current due to both the higher surface available for dye chemisorption and the shorter path available for charge transportation. Table 1 has made a short summary of the cell performance under different conditions. In all modulated condition cases, samples fabricated by modulated voltage have

a much higher short circuit current and efficiency than the samples by constant voltage, although their open circuit voltage and fill factor are slightly sacrificed. These results demonstrate that ordered and straight tubes fabricated under modulated anodic voltage are effective in increasing the performance of DSSCs based on TiO₂ NTs. In combination with the application of the other techniques which can increase the open circuit voltage, for example, improved redox pair other than the I⁻/I³⁻,³⁵ a much better performed DSSC could be realized.

3.4.3 Mechanism of the secondary structure development.

Though morphological and structural studies have indicated significant changes in those different procedures, the mechanism behind the phenomena remains unknown, *e.g.*, the reason that the formation of the secondary structures mainly happened after annealing while the sample was already taken out of the HF solution. Hence, each link of the process of the fluorination reaction and crystallization was further detected by an EDX study. It shows more information of changes that took place under different conditions. The EDX spectrum of the TiO₂ NTs without HF treatment, as shown in Fig. 6(a), indicates that the obtained nanotubes are composed of only Ti and O elements. Fig. 6(b) describes the EDX spectrum of the same TiO₂ NTs which have been sintered into crystalline films of the anatase phase. Obviously, the annealed TiO₂ NTs maintain the same elemental composition. After the fluorination reaction in HF aqueous solution, successful incorporation of elemental F into the TiO₂ nanotubes could be observed from the compositional information of the EDX spectrum in Fig. 6(c). Further annealing treatment will yield pure TiO₂ nanotubes once again, which is unambiguously illustrated by Fig. 6(d). There were only Ti and O elements left in the tube arrays, without significant existence of elemental F.

The experimental facts indicated that the formation of the secondary structures is strongly connected to the F⁻ anions and the high temperature annealing that followed the HF treatment. It is known that the existence of an F⁻ anion will induce dissolution of TiO₂. Since the F⁻ is not detected after the annealing process with only TiO₂ left, the general reaction would be reversible, which is also supported by, ref. 36 with its form given as below:

Table 1 Short summary of photovoltaic characteristics of the DSSCs under various conditions^a

	Growth and chemical treatment conditions	$J_{SC}/\text{mA cm}^{-2}$	V_{OC}/V	FF(%)	$\eta(\%)$
Plain cell	CV ^b	6.90	0.60	49.3	2.03
HF treatment	CV, 0.1% HF	9.50	0.61	38.6	2.24
	CV, 0.2% HF	9.88	0.68	37.3	2.50
	CV, 0.35% HF	9.16	0.62	48.8	2.75
	CV, 0.5% HF	6.89	0.63	42.8	1.87
	CV, TiCl ₄	10.09	0.62	43.8	2.76
TiCl ₄ treatment	CV, 0.1% HF, TiCl ₄	11.71	0.65	40.6	3.08
	CV, 0.2% HF, TiCl ₄	13.72	0.64	39.6	3.49
	CV, 0.35% HF, TiCl ₄	15.54	0.63	37.0	3.65
	CV, 0.5% HF, TiCl ₄	12.27	0.64	42.6	3.36
	Modulated conditions	CV, 0.35% HF, 600 rpm	11.03	0.58	54.4
	MV, ^c 0.35% HF, 100 rpm	14.23	0.56	46.9	3.75
	MV, 0.35% HF, 600 rpm	12.65	0.59	47.3	3.54
	MV, 0.35% HF, 100 rpm, TiCl ₄	14.79	0.61	48.4	4.35

^a All data were acquired in back-side illuminated DSSCs. ^b Constant voltage. ^c Modulated voltage.

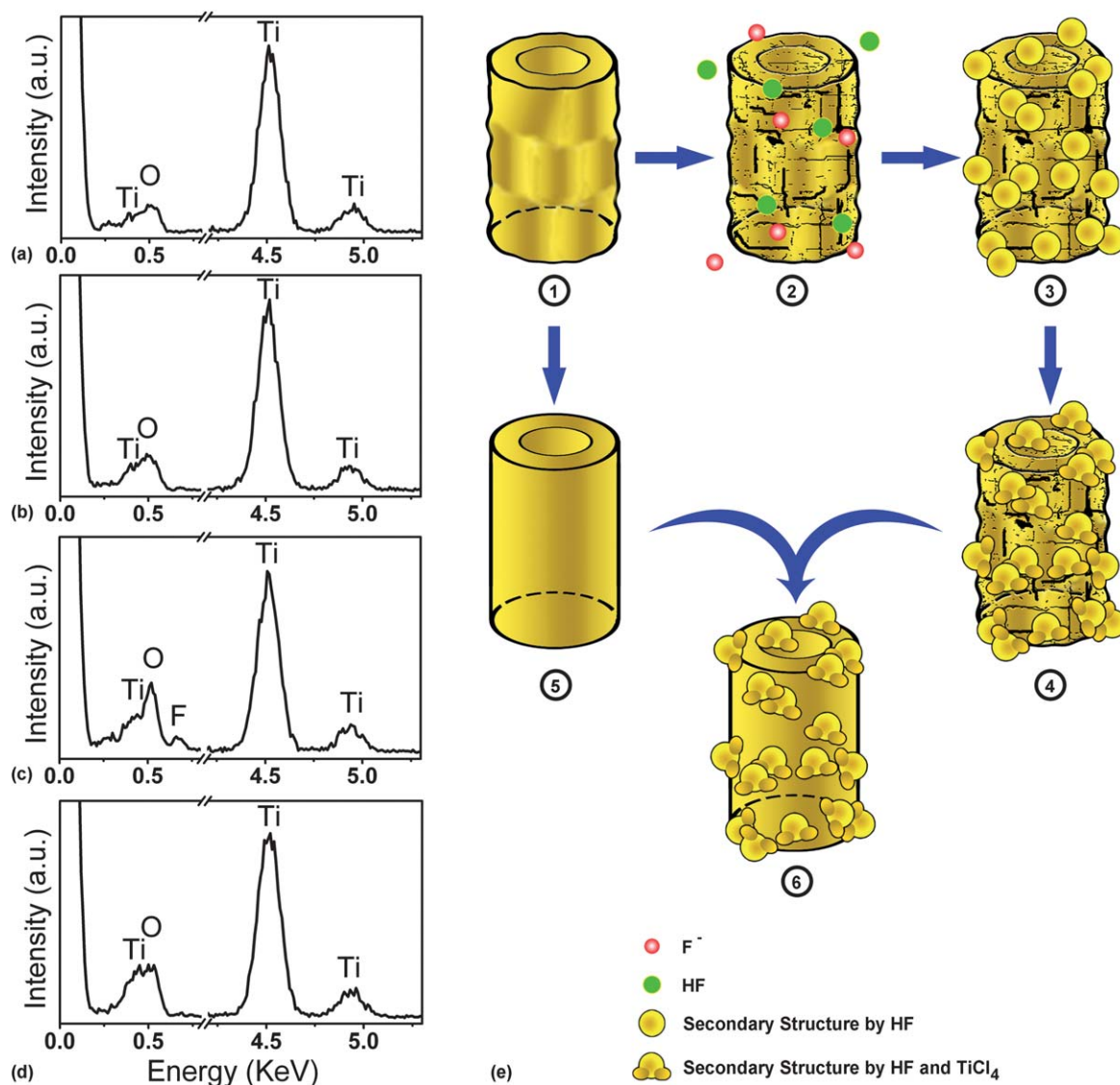
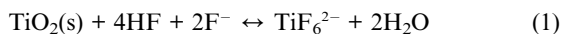


Fig. 6 Caption EDX spectroscopy of the anodized TiO₂ NTs, showing the elemental composition under different conditions. (a), (b) Without HF treatment, before and after annealing, respectively; (c), (d) with HF treatment, before and after annealing, respectively. (e) Schematic illustration, different steps of the tube modification.



During the HF treatment, F components in the form of HF and F⁻ can diffuse into the TiO₂ bulk in different depths. However, the dissolution of TiO₂ is slow at room temperature and therefore no significant morphology change took place after the HF treatment. In the high temperature annealing, it took a certain time until the temperature finally reached the set value. During the temperature rising, more F⁻ in the bulk would react with the TiO₂ and induce the destruction of the TiO₂ locally. Due to the different penetrating depth, the interface between fluoride (TiF₆²⁻) and TiO₂ becomes much rougher, as shown in the step (2) in Fig. 6(e). As a consequence, there would be a redistribution of fluoride due to the rough TiO₂ surface and diffusion under high temperature. Nevertheless, as the temperature continues to rise up and being kept at several hundred degrees, the fluoride turns into TiO₂ again, and forms particle like secondary

structures, as shown in the step (3) in Fig. 6(e). Starting from a tiny value, if the [F⁻] is gradually increased with increasing HF concentration, this reformation will be enhanced, so that more secondary structures will develop. However, if [F⁻] becomes too high, then TiO₂ dissolvent would be significantly enhanced even at room temperature, which could be the reason for the smooth and thin tubes formed with 0.5% HF shown in Fig. 3(d).

When TiCl₄ was applied on the HF treated and annealed sample, a part of the Ti⁴⁺ ions will be enriched near the contact of secondary structures and the TiO₂ tubes. After the second annealing, new minor TiO₂ crystals will be formed near those positions, as shown in the step (4) in Fig. 6(e). Therefore they could further increase the effective contact surface area and enhance the ability of electron transport from the surface to the bulk. However, these minor contacts can not repair the damage inside the tube bulks. According to common comprehensions on corrosion processes, the chemical etching can be excessively

enhanced in certain positions with stronger roughness (step (1) in Fig. 6(e)).³⁷ Therefore the electron transport of the originally rough tubes before the chemical treatment will suffer more from the structural damaging compared to the originally smooth and straight ones. Besides, it is easier for the TiCl₄ treatment to form unnecessary contacts on the originally roughened surface than on the smooth and ordered tubes, which increases the probability of carrier recombination, leading to lower shunt resistance and fill factor.

Fortunately, as introduced in sec. 3.4.2, straight and ordered tubes could be formed in a high growth rate with controlled mechanical stirring and periodically modulated voltages (step (5) in Fig. 6(e)).²⁵ With those tubes, the damage in the bulk by the chemical treatment can be relatively reduced. Additionally, straighter, ordered tubes also helps to reduce the blocking effect from enhanced roughness inside the tubes after the chemical treatment. Consequently, the efficiency of DSSCs based on so-fabricated tube arrays was further improved. The composite structures were shown in the step (6) in Fig. 6(e) and the photovoltaic characteristics were summarized in Table 1. It is interesting to observe that a large amplification of 114% has been achieved by all of above treatments compared to the plain sample without any treatment.

4. Conclusions

To summarize this work, it can be concluded that a suitable balance can be generally established among the paradox in the dye absorption, the electron transportation at the surface and the bulk. First, the secondary structures can be controllably grown on both sides of the TiO₂ tubes developed with HF treatment, which induces a significant increase (>35%) of the conversion efficiency in DSSCs. With a subsequent TiCl₄ treatment and application of controlled oscillatory conditions, the negative effect to the electron transport in the cell due to the chemical treatments can be reduced. Overall, an efficiency of 4.35% can be reached in the back-side illuminated DSSC, which is ~114% higher than the basic value. Based on that, greater efficiency improvements of nanotube based DSSCs with thin layer thickness could be hopefully realized, with the development of other key parts, such as new dyes and electrolytes based on a new redox pair.^{5,35,38,39}

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the National Major Basic Research Project of 2012CB934302, Natural Science Foundation of China under contracts 11074169 and 11174202.

Notes and references

- 1 O. K. Varghese, D. Gong, M. Paulose, K. G. Ong and C. A. Grimes, *Sens. Actuators, B*, 2003, **93**, 338.
- 2 H. Tsuchiya, J. M. Macak, L. Müller, J. Kunze, F. Müller, P. Greil, S. Virtanen and P. Schmuki, *J. Biomed. Mater. Res., Part A*, 2006, **77**, 534.
- 3 J. M. Macak, M. Zlamal, J. Krysa and P. Schmuki, *Small*, 2007, **3**, 300.

- 4 B. O'Regan and M. Grätzel, *Nature*, 1991, **353**, 737.
- 5 A. Yella, H. W. Lee, H. N. Tsao, C. Yi, A. K. Chandiran, M. K. Nazeeruddin, E. W. G. Diau, C. Y. Yeh, S. M. Zakeeruddin and M. Grätzel, *Science*, 2011, **334**, 629.
- 6 T. Y. Peng, A. Hasegawa, J. R. Qiu and K. Hirao, *Chem. Mater.*, 2003, **15**, 2011.
- 7 M. Law, L. E. Greene, J. C. Johnson, R. Saykally and P. D. Yang, *Nat. Mater.*, 2005, **4**, 455.
- 8 K. Zhu, N. R. Neale, A. Miedaner and A. J. Frank, *Nano Lett.*, 2007, **7**, 69.
- 9 J. R. Jennings, A. Ghicov, L. M. Peter, P. Schmuki and A. B. Walker, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2008, **130**, 13364.
- 10 P. Roy, D. Kim, K. Lee, E. Spiecker and P. Schmuki, *Nanoscale*, 2010, **2**, 45.
- 11 S. Agarwala, M. Kevin, A. S. Wong, C. K. Peh, V. Thavasi and G. W. Ho, *ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces*, 2010, **2**, 1844.
- 12 J. M. Macak, H. Tsuchiya, A. Ghicov and P. Schmuki, *Electrochem. Commun.*, 2005, **7**, 1133.
- 13 D. Kim, A. Ghicov, S. P. Albu and P. Schmuki, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2008, **130**, 16454.
- 14 D. Kuang, J. Brillet, P. Chen, M. Takata, S. Uchida, H. Miura, K. Sumioka, S. M. Zakeeruddin and M. Grätzel, *ACS Nano*, 2008, **2**, 1113.
- 15 P. Charoensirithavorn, Y. Ogomi, T. Sagawa, S. Hayase and S. Yoshikawa, *J. Electrochem. Soc.*, 2010, **157**, B354.
- 16 F. Sauvage, F. Di Fonzo, A. Li Bassi, C. S. Casari, V. Russo, G. Divitini, C. Ducati, C. E. Bottani, P. Comte and M. Graetzel, *Nano Lett.*, 2010, **10**, 2562.
- 17 O. K. Varghese, M. Paulose, K. Shankar, G. K. Mor and C. A. Grimes, *J. Nanosci. Nanotechnol.*, 2005, **5**, 1158.
- 18 C. A. Grimes, G. K. Mor, K. Shankar, M. Paulose and O. K. Varghese, *Nano Lett.*, 2006, **6**, 215.
- 19 C. Richter and C. A. Schmuttenmaer, *Nat. Nanotechnol.*, 2010, **5**, 769.
- 20 J. Wang and Z. Q. Lin, *Chem. Mater.*, 2010, **22**, 579.
- 21 S. Ito, P. Liska, P. Comte, R. L. Charvet, P. Pechy, U. Bach, L. Schmidt-Mende, S. M. Zakeeruddin, A. Kay, M. K. Nazeeruddin and M. Grätzel, *Chem. Commun.*, 2005, 4351.
- 22 B. C. O'Regan, J. R. Durrant, P. M. Sommeling and N. J. Bakker, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2007, **111**, 14001.
- 23 L. M. Peter, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 2007, **9**, 2630.
- 24 C. He, Z. Zheng, H. L. Tang, L. N. Zhao and F. Lu, *J. Phys. Chem. C*, 2009, **113**, 10322.
- 25 H. Liu, L. Tao and W. Z. Shen, *Nanotechnology*, 2011, **22**, 155603.
- 26 H. Liu, L. Tao and W. Z. Shen, *Electrochim. Acta*, 2011, **56**, 3905.
- 27 Q. Q. Hou, Y. Z. Zheng, J. F. Chen, W. L. Zhou, J. Deng and X. Tao, *J. Mater. Chem.*, 2011, **21**, 3877.
- 28 T. Ohsaka, F. Izumi and Y. Fujiki, *J. Raman Spectrosc.*, 1978, **7**, 321.
- 29 W. F. Zhang, Y. L. He, M. S. Zhang, Z. Yin and Q. Chen, *J. Phys. D: Appl. Phys.*, 2000, **33**, 912.
- 30 A. S. Pottier, S. Cassaignon, C. Chaneac, F. Villain, E. Tronc and J. P. Jolivet, *J. Mater. Chem.*, 2003, **13**, 877.
- 31 A. J. Frank, N. Kopidakis and J. van de Lagemaat, *Coord. Chem. Rev.*, 2004, **248**, 1165.
- 32 K. Zhu, T. B. Vinzant, N. R. Neale and A. J. Frank, *Nano Lett.*, 2007, **7**, 3739.
- 33 C. Y. Chang and F. Y. Tsai, *J. Mater. Chem.*, 2011, **21**, 5710.
- 34 S. Ito, T. N. Murakami, P. Comte, P. Liska, C. Gratzel, M. K. Nazeeruddin and M. Grätzel, *Thin Solid Films*, 2008, **516**, 4613.
- 35 M. Wang, N. Chamberland, L. Breau, J. E. Moser, R. Humphry-Baker, B. Marsan, S. M. Zakeeruddin and M. Grätzel, *Nat. Chem.*, 2010, **2**, 385.
- 36 D. Gutiérrez-Tauste, X. Domènech, N. Casañ-Pastor and J. A. Ayllón, *J. Photochem. Photobiol., A*, 2007, **187**, 45.
- 37 L. R. Hilbert, D. Bagge-Ravn, J. Kold and L. Gram, *Int. Biodeterior. Biodegrad.*, 2003, **52**, 175.
- 38 D. Li, H. Li, Y. Luo, K. Li, Q. Meng, M. Armand and L. Chen, *Adv. Funct. Mater.*, 2010, **20**, 3358.
- 39 T. Daeneke, T. H. Kwon, A. B. Holmes, N. W. Duffy, U. Bach and L. Spiccia, *Nat. Chem.*, 2011, **3**, 211.