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Electronic Supplementary Information

for

Enhanced Performance of Dye-Sensitized Solar Cells based on TiO₂

Nanotube Membranes using Optimized Annealing Profile

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Scheme S1 - Sketch of a) back- and c), d) front-side illuminated TiO_2 -based dye-sensitized solar cells. In the case of front-side illuminated DSSCs, the TiO_2 nanotube membrane can be transferred onto TiO_2 NP-coated FTO slides either in b) tube-top-up or c) tube-top-down configuration.





Anodic growth of TiO₂ nanotube layers and membrane fabrication

Highly ordered TiO₂ nanotube arrays were prepared by anodization of Ti foil (0.125 mm thickness, 99.7 % purity, Advent) in a two electrode electrochemical cell by using a Pt sheet as counter electrode. Prior to anodization, the Ti foils were cleaned by sonication in acetone and ethanol (10 min each) followed by rinsing in de-ionized water (DI) and drying in a N_2 stream.

The anodization experiments were performed at 60 V at room temperature in an electrolyte composed of ethylene glycol with 0.15 M NH₄F and 3 vol.% deionized (DI) water. TiO₂ nanotube layers with a thickness of *ca*. 20 μ m were produced by anodizing the Ti substrates in the above mentioned conditions for 1 h.

For producing TiO₂ nanotube membranes we followed a re-anodization approach introduced by Chen *et al.* [1]. For this, the as-prepared TiO₂ nanotube layers were annealed in air at 350 °C for 1 h. Then, the crystallized TiO₂ nanotube samples were anodized a second time in the same experimental conditions of the first anodization step. Afterwards, the nanotube layers were detached from the Ti substrate by immersing the tube layers in an aqueous 0.07 M HF solution at 30 °C: the tube layers formed by the second anodization step were still amorphous and therefore underwent preferential chemical dissolution in the HF solution so that the tube layers formed by the first anodization step and pre-annealed could be lifted off as free-standing membranes.

Fabrication of the photo-anodes and DSSCs

The photo-anodes were prepared after detachment of the TiO₂ nanotube layers by transferring the 20 μ m-thick membranes onto FTO slides (7 Ω m⁻²) that were previously coated by doctor-blade technique with a 2 μ m-thick film of a commercial TiO₂ nanoparticle paste (Ti-Nanoxide HT, Solaronix). The TiO₂ nanoparticle layer granted good adhesion, mechanical stability and established good electric contact between tubes and FTO. The membranes were transferred onto FTO either in tube-top-up or tube-top-down (*i.e.*, up-side down) configurations (see scheme S1). A "reference cell" was also fabricated by using a 20 μ m-thick TiO₂ nanoparticle layer as photo-anode (deposited by doctor-blade technique) instead of the detached nanotube membranes. After drying in air for about 20 min, all the photo-anodes were annealed in air at different temperatures (range of 350-650 °C) for 1 h, with a heating/cooling rate of 10, 30 and 60 °C min⁻¹ by using a Rapid Thermal Annealer (Jipelec JetFirst100). Precisely, when screening the different annealing temperatures, a slow heating profile, *i.e.*, 10 °C min⁻¹, was always used. On the other hand, when screening the effect of different heating rates (10, 30 and 60 °C min⁻¹), all the photo-anodes were annoaled at 500 °C.

For fabricating the dye-sensitized cells, the crystalline photo-anodes were firstly immersed into a 300 μ M dye solution (D719, Everlight, Taiwan) at 40 °C for 24 h. After dye-sensitization the samples were rinsed with acetonitrile to remove the non-chemisorbed dye and then were dried in a N₂ stream. The fabrication of the DSSCs was completed by sandwiching the crystalline dye-sensitized photo-anodes with Pt coated FTO glass as counter electrode using a hot-melt spacer (25µm, Surlyn, Dupont). Finally, the electrolyte (Io-li-tec, ES-0004) was introduced within the interspace of the DSSCs.

Characterization of the photo-anodes and DSSCs

For morphological characterization of the TiO₂-based photo-anodes, a field-emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM, Hitachi SEM FE 4800) and transmission electron microscopy (Philips CM 30 T/STEM microscope) were used.

For determining the crystallographic features of the photo-anodes, X-ray diffraction analysis (XRD) was performed with an X'pert Philips MPD equipped with a Panalytical X'celerator detector using graphite monochromized Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.54056$ Å).

The chemical composition of the TiO₂ scaffolds was determined by energy dispersive X-ray analysis (EDAX Genesis) fitted to the Hitachi FE-SEM S4800, and by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS, PHI 5600, US).

The current-voltage characteristics of the different DSSCs were measured under simulated AM 1.5 front-side illumination provided by a solar simulator (300 W Xe with optical filter, Solarlight) and by applying an external bias (from - 50 mV up to + 900 mV) to the cell and measuring the generated photocurrent with a Keithley model 2420 digital source meter. Step size and holding time were 23.75 mV and 100 ms, respectively. The active area was defined by the 0.2 cm²-sized opening of the Surlyn seal and a scattering background was used.

Dye loading on the photo-anodes was measured by immersing the different dye-sensitized TiO_2 scaffolds in 5 mL of a 10 mM NaOH aqueous solution for 30 minutes. Then the optical absorption of the solutions was measured by a UV-Vis Spectrophotometer (Lambda XLS+, Perkin Elmer).

Intensity modulated photocurrent spectroscopy (IMPS) measurements of the different dye-sensitized TiO₂ photo-anodes were carried out in aqueous 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ solutions by using modulated light (10 % modulation depth) from a high power green LED ($\lambda = 530$ nm). The modulation frequency was controlled by a frequency response analyzer (FRA, Zahner). The light intensity incident on the cell was measured using a calibrated Si photodiode. A three electrode electrochemical cell was used, with a Pt foil as counter electrode and an Ag/AgCl reference electrode.

Incident photon-to-current conversion efficiency (IPCE) measurements were performed with a 150 W Xe arc lamp (LOT-Oriel Instruments) with an Oriel Cornerstone 7400 1/8 m monochromator. The light intensity was measured with an optical power meter.

To study the charge transport process upon photo-excitation of the different TiO₂ photo-anodes, transient absorption spectroscopy based on femtosecond (fs) pump-probe experiments were carried out. The 20 μ m-thick photo-anodes that were actually used for fabricating the DSSCs could not be employed for these measurements as too thick for transmitting the light pulse, that is, the pulse irradiated on the samples was fully absorbed and no transmitted signal could be measured. Therefore, the pump-probe experiments were performed on *ca*. 3 μ m-thick TiO₂ nanotube layer grown on quartz slides and crystallized in air at 500 °C with heating rate of 10 or 30 °C min⁻¹. Quartz slides as substrates for the tube

layers were preferred over FTO glasses since the used excitation wavelength was in the UV range (see below). The tube layers were grown by fully anodizing the 1 μ m-thick Ti layers that were evaporated on the quartz substrates. The anodization experiments were performed in the same electrolyte and at the same potential used for fabricating the membranes, and led to TiO₂ nanotubes showing comparable features in terms of morphology and phase composition upon crystallization. The pump-probe measurements were performed with a CPA-2110 femtosecond laser (Clark MXR, output 775 nm, 1 kHz, and 150 fs pulse width) using a transient absorption detection system (TAPPS Helios, Ultrafast Systems). The excitation wavelength was generated by third harmonic generation (258 nm) and was characterized by a pulse width of < 150 fs and energy of 200 nJ per pulse.

The obtained transient absorption spectra (reported in Fig. 3(a)-(d) in the main text) are well in line with those typically measured for TiO_2 [2-6]. According to the literature, the transient absorption in the visible region (between 400 and 600 nm, this depending on the structural features of the material) is mainly assigned to the holes formed upon photo-excitation. This signal is overlaid by the strong absorption of the trapped electrons that is usually observed in the region between 500 and 900 nm. Furthermore, the transient absorption of the "free" electrons is observed over the entire optical spectrum, although showing particularly strong absorptions in the near infrared (NIR) region. Besides, we also observed the transient absorption/stimulated emission of/from electron-hole recombination induced by the probe light.

The transients that were observed for each sample are represented by the sum of the absorption of the three independent species (holes, trapped and "free" electrons). Therefore, the decay curves of the transients were fitted to three exponential functions (at 550, 800 and 1250 nm). Since all three transient species show overlapping absorptions, global fits were performed in which the three lifetimes are global variables and the non-decaying components were treated as "offset" (a summary of the data is reported in Fig. 3(e) in the main text).

Figure S1 - a) XRD patterns of TiO₂ nanotube membranes that were transferred onto TiO₂ NP-coated FTO slides in tube-top-down configuration and annealed at 500 °C by using different heating rates (10, 30 and 60 °C min-1). XRD patterns of TiO₂ nanotube membranes that were transferred onto TiO₂ NP-coated FTO slides in b) tube-top-up and c) tube-top-down configurations (see scheme S1(b) and (c)) and annealed in air, at different temperatures (350-650 °C range) for 1 h, with a heating/cooling rate of 10 °C min⁻¹.

The XRD patterns measured for these photo-anodes show all the tube membranes to be composed of 100 % anatase phase, this regardless of photo-anode configuration and annealing temperature.



Figure S2 - a), b) J-V curves and c), d) photovoltaic characteristics of TiO_2 nanotube membrane-based DSSCs measured under simulated AM 1.5 illumination. To fabricate the photo-anodes, the TiO_2 nanotube membranes were transferred onto TiO_2 NP-coated FTO slides in a), c) tube-top-up and b), d) tube-top-down configurations. The photo-anodes were crystallized by annealing in air, at different temperatures (350-650 °C range) for 1 h, with a heating/cooling rate of 10 °C min⁻¹. Insets in a) and b) represent a sketch of tube-top-up and tube-top-down configurations, respectively.

These experiments show that the tube-top-down configuration of the photo-anode along with the annealing temperature of 500 °C represent the experimental conditions leading to dye-sensitized solar cells with enhanced efficiencies (*e.g.*, up to 8.19 %). The solar cells mounted with a tube-top-down configuration of the tube membranes lead to significantly higher efficiencies compared to their counterparts (*i.e.*, cell with a tube-top-up configuration) most likely because of the larger dye-loadings obtained with the former geometry.



Figure S3 - Example of IPCE spectrum (black curve) and relative integrated current density (red curve) of a DSSC the photo-anode of which is fabricated from a TiO_2 nanotube membrane transferred onto a TiO_2 NP-coated FTO slide (tube-top-down configuration) and annealed at 500 °C (1 h) with a heating/cooling rate of 30 °C min⁻¹.



Figure S4 - Intensity modulated photocurrent spectroscopy (IMPS) measurements were carried out in aqueous 0.1 M Na₂SO₄ solutions on bare (*i.e.*, without dye-sensitization) TiO₂ nanotube membrane-based photo-anodes annealed in air at 500 °C with heating rates of 10 and 30 °C min⁻¹. A three electrode electrochemical cell was used, with a Pt foil as counter electrode and an Ag/AgCl reference electrode. The experiments were performed by using modulated light (10 % modulation depth) from a high power LED ($\lambda = 365$ nm). The modulation frequency was controlled by a frequency response analyzer (FRA, Zahner). The light intensity incident on the cell was measured using a calibrated Si photodiode. The photocurrent of the cell was measured using a Zahner electrochemical interface that fed back into the FRA for analysis.



SEM and TEM characterization of the TiO₂ tube membranes

From the top-view SEM pictures (shown in the main text - Fig 2(a), (c) and (e) - and taken by cracking the anodic film at a middle height along the tube length) it can be seen that all the tubes show an outer diameter of *ca*. 140-160 nm regardless of the annealing conditions. Nevertheless, a heating rate of 10 $^{\circ}$ C min⁻¹ leads to a clear separation of the inner and outer shells of the nanotubes (Fig. 2(a)) [7-9]. This separation could not be observed when tubes were subjected to a more rapid ramping in the annealing process (shown in Fig. 2(c),(e)). In particular, we found that a more rapid annealing led to a merging of the two shells so that an apparently "single-walled" tubular structure was obtained upon crystallization.

Further significant morphological features could be observed by TEM investigations (see Fig 2(b), (d) and (f) in the main text). First, a slow annealing leads to nanotubes with corrugated structure of the walls. This is most likely ascribed to the presence of the inner shell of tube which in this case exhibits a "nanoporous" texture (see Fig. 2(b)) [9]. Second, for these tubes the grain boundaries are clearly visible as fractures along the tube walls (highlighted in Fig. 2(b)). Conversely, the rapidly annealed tubes show a more robust morphology and do not exhibit sharp discontinuities along the tube walls (Fig. 2(d),(f)). Moreover, differences in the tube wall thickness can be seen when comparing tubes crystallized by using different heating rates. The nanotubes crystallized with heating rate of 60 °C min⁻¹ were *ca*. 28 nm thick while those annealed at 30 °C min⁻¹ showed about 46 nm-thick walls, with outer and inner shells of 27 and 19 nm in thickness, respectively.

Besides the effects on the morphology, we also found that the annealing conditions slightly affected both the crystallinity and the chemical composition of the tubes. In fact, as shown by the SAED patterns reported in Fig. 2, the typical reflections of TiO_2 anatase phase become brighter (*i.e.*, more intense) when increasing the rate of annealing, meaning that the rapid annealing led to nanotubes with a higher degree of crystallinity. In spite of this, no relevant change of crystallite mean size could be observed for the different annealing conditions (see data in Table S1).

On the other hand, for the chemical composition determined by XPS and EDAX analysis of the different photo-anodes, we found a clearly lower carbon and fluorine contents for rapidly annealed tubes (see Fig. S5 and S6). This may explain the material loss that leads to thinner tube walls, that is, a fast heating rate induces a larger release of carbonaceous species from the inner shell of the tubes (carbon is up-taken in the inner tube shell from the organic-based electrolyte during anodization [8,9]).

Figure S5 - XPS analysis of TiO_2 nanotube membrane-based photo-anodes annealed in air at 500 °C with heating rates of 10 and 30 °C min⁻¹: a) XPS survey; b) high-resolution spectra of the C 1s area; c) summary of the XPS data.



Figure S6 - EDAX analysis of TiO_2 nanotube membrane-based photo-anodes annealed in air at 500 °C with heating rates of 10 and 30 °C min⁻¹: a) and b) EDAX spectra of the photo-anodes annealed with a heating rate of 10 and 30 °C min⁻¹, respectively; c) summary of the EDAX data.



Summary of EDAX data			
Heating rate (°C min ⁻¹)	Element	Wt. %	At. %
	C k	1.51	3.35
10	O k	37.97	63.08
	Ti k	60.52	33.58
	C k	0.95	2.27
30	O k	32.48	58.02
	Ti k	66.57	39.71

Table S1 - Mean crystallite size for TiO₂ nanotubes annealed in air at 500 °C with heating rates of 10, 30 and 60 °C min⁻¹. The crystallite size was determined by: *i*) processing the XRD data by using the Sherrer equation applied to the main reflection of TiO₂ anatase phase ($2\theta = 25.3^{\circ}$ corresponding to the (101) crystallographic face); *ii*) TEM investigation (each value represents the average of the size of ten different crystallites).

Heating rate (°C min ⁻¹)	from XRD data	from TEM analysis
10	35.6	34.0
30	35.9	35.0
60	34.2	-

Average TiO₂ grain size for nanotubes annealed by different heating rates

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