



Enhanced performance of solar cells via anchoring CuGaS₂ quantum dots

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ABSTRACT Ternary I–III–VI quantum dots (QDs) of chalcopyrite semiconductors exhibit excellent optical properties in solar cells. In this study, ternary chalcopyrite CuGaS₂ nanocrystals (2–5 nm) were one-pot anchored on TiO₂ nanoparticles (TiO₂@CGS) without any long ligand. The solar cell with TiO₂@CuGaS₂/N719 has a power conversion efficiency of 7.4%, which is 23% higher than that of monosensitized dye solar cell. Anchoring CuGaS₂ QDs on semiconductor nanoparticles to form QDs/dye co-sensitized solar cells is a promising and feasible approach to enhance light absorption, charge carrier generation as well as to facilitate electron injection comparing to conventional mono-dye sensitized solar cells.

Keywords: CuGaS₂, quantum dots, TiO₂ nanoparticles, solar cells, photo-anode

INTRODUCTION

Quantum-dot-sensitized solar cells (QDSSCs) have gained more attention as a promising option for next-generation solar cells [1–5] due to the quantum confinement effect [6], large dipole moment, high molar coefficients, multiple-exciton generation (MEG), low cost and facile fabrication [7–12]. The chalcopyrite semiconductor quantum dots (QDs), such as CdS(Se) [13–20], PbS(Se) [21–24], SnSe₂ [25], InAs [26,27], Sb₂S₃ [28], were introduced into QDSSCs as light-harvesting sensitizers *via* various methods. Since photons with lower energy could be absorbed, the chalcopyrite semiconductor QDs are considered as a promising candidate for the high-efficiency solar cells

[29]. The reported semiconductor QDs in QDSSCs were mainly attributed to the binary semiconductor materials. To date, a few ternary semiconductor QDs have been reported in the field of solar cells [30]. Inspired by these researches, the ternary I–III–VI QDs of A^IB^{III}C₂^{VI} (A = Cu, Ag; B = Al, Ga, In; C = S, Se, Te) chalcopyrite semiconductors are expected to exhibit excellent optical properties [31,32]. Recently, some of them have been reported applied on solar cells, such as CuInS₂, CuInSe₂, CuInSe_xS_{2-x} and CuIn_xGa_(1-x)S₂ [33–38], which attracted great attention to serve as Pb/Cd-free light-harvesting materials in QDSSCs. Among these ternary semiconductors, CuGaS₂ is the most promising ternary compound due to its conductivity, normally p-type [39], large direct band gap energy [40], facile fabrication [38,41], and environmental friendliness. CuGaS₂ nanocrystals exhibit excellent activity in solar water splitting [42,43], biological and chemical sensing [44,45]. Ascribing to its wide band gap energy (2.2–2.5 eV) [46,47] corresponding to the green light region and direct transition [29,48–51], CuGaS₂ nanocrystals could be an optimum candidate for the QDSSCs. However, very few studies on CuGaS₂ QDSSCs were reported. A survey is essential for further experimental efforts in CuGaS₂ QDSSCs in order to achieve eco-friendly processes in preparative protocols.

Herein, the CuGaS₂ QDs directly and homogeneously grew on TiO₂ nanocrystals (named as TiO₂@CGS) for QDSSCs by a vacuum one-pot nanocasting method. CuGaS₂ QDs with particle size of 2–5 nm were anchored on the surface of TiO₂ nanoparticles directly without organic

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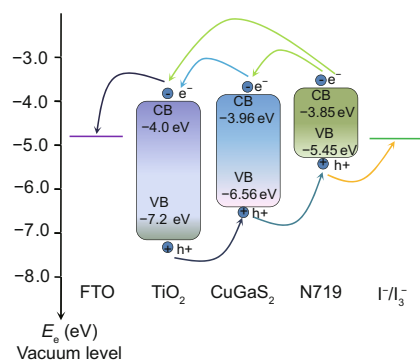


Figure 1 A schematic illustration of the relative band energy levels for charge transfer in the FTO/TiO₂/CGS/N719 electrolyte. *E*

linker molecules. The relative band energy levels for holes and electrons transfer in the FTO/TiO₂/CGS/N719 electrolyte based QDSSCs are illustrated in Fig. 1. Because of the quantum confinement effects, the CuGaS₂ QDs hold a higher conduction band (CB) edge, which facilitates the photoelectron injection from the excited CuGaS₂ QDs into TiO₂ nanoparticles [52–54]. Moreover, the CuGaS₂ QDs in the TiO₂@CGS nanocrystals could act as complimentary sensitizers to enhance the light harvesting properties in dye sensitized solar cell (DSSC).

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Chemicals

Copper chloride (CuCl₂), sodium sulfide, titanium tetrachloride (99.5%), ethanol (98%), nitric acid (65%) were bought from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd; F127 (CAS No. 9003-11-6) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, Inc. Polyethylene glycol (PEG; 20000 in molecular weight) and gallium(III) chloride (GaCl₃) were purchased from J&K. The sensitizer N719 (*cis*-di(thiocyanato)-*N,N*-bis(2,2'-bipyridyl-4,4'-dicarboxylate)Ru (II)bis-tetrabutyl ammonium) electrolyte, surlyn film were purchased from Yingkou Opvtech New Energy Co., Ltd.

Synthesis of the TiO₂@CGS film and fabrication of device

Synthesis of TiO₂ nanoparticles

The synthesis of TiO₂ nanoparticles was as the following procedure [54]. 2.97 g F127 was dissolved in 36.88 g ethanol at 40°C and stirred for 30 min to obtain a clear solution. After that, 3.4 g TiCl₄ was added into the prepared clear F127 solution. The precursor solution was then placed into a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave (100 mL in capacity) after stirring for 8 h under 40°C. The autoclave was placed in an oven at 160°C for 16 h. Sub-

sequently, the solution was filtered and the products were washed with deionized water and dried at 80°C. Finally, the obtained powders were sintered at 610°C for 10 min after being kept at 300°C for 90 min and 500°C for 240 min. During the entire sintering process, the heating rate was kept at a constant of 2°C min⁻¹. After sintering, the products were dispersed in deionized water and nitric acid (65%) until the pH of this suspension reached to about 2. The suspension was vigorously stirred at 80°C for 8 h to obtain TiO₂ nanoparticles.

Preparation of TiO₂@CGS nanoparticles

TiO₂ nanoparticles were put into a sealed container and subjected to vacuum. After vacuumed for 30 min, the mixed solution of GaCl₃ (0.2 mol L⁻¹) was allowed to enter into the vacuum system, and then held for 10 min before the solvent was fully removed by evaporation. The precipitate was dried in vacuum oven at 80°C for 8 h. After drying, the mixed powder was washed twice with ethanol and dried in vacuum oven again. This entire procedure described above was repeated twice except that the GaCl₃ solution used was replaced by 0.2 mol L⁻¹ CuCl₂ aqueous solution and 0.4 mol L⁻¹ Na₂S aqueous solution, respectively. Finally, the sample was calcined in Ar gas at 500°C for 1 h to obtain TiO₂@CGS nanoparticles.

Preparation of mesoporous TiO₂ films and TiO₂@CGS film

The mesoporous TiO₂ films were prepared by the doctor-blade method [55]. The TiO₂ paste was made from the TiO₂ nanoparticles synthesized in the previous section. Briefly, 0.8 g TiO₂ was added into a mixed solution of ethanol/deionized water (3:1) and ultrasonicated for 30 min after the addition of PEG aqueous which acted as the pore-forming material. After that, the mixture was grinded into ropiness in agate mortar. A mask, with a window encompassed by 3M scotch tape, was used to define the 5 mm × 5 mm area which was used to spread the paste dropped on edge of the window with a glass slide on the fluorine doped tin oxide (FTO) conductive glass (SnO₂:F coated glass). Subsequently, the as-prepared TiO₂ films were sintered in air with a heating rate of 2°C min⁻¹ from room temperature to 300°C for 30 min, and to 500°C for 60 min. The synthesis of mesoporous TiO₂@CGS film was as the same procedure as the one described above.

Fabrication of quantum dot-dye bilayer-sensitized solar cells (QDBSC)

The mesoporous TiO₂ film and TiO₂@CGS film were sensitized with N719 dye by direct adsorption. Firstly, the

as-prepared TiO₂ film and TiO₂@CGS film were heated to 80°C and immersed into the N719 ethanol solution (0.5 mmol L⁻¹) for 24 h. After rinsing the film in solution by ethanol and drying in air, the desired mesoporous TiO₂/N719 film and TiO₂@CGS/N719 electrodes were obtained. The photovoltaic cells were assembled with the mesoporous TiO₂/N719 or TiO₂@CGS/N719 photoelectrode, Pt coated counter electrode, and sealing material (OPV-SN-60) with a thickness of 60 μm. Commercially available electrolyte of I₃⁻/I⁻ was injected into the space between the photoelectrode and the counter electrode.

Characterization

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of powders were obtained using D8 Advance (Germany) diffractometer with Cu Kα radiation (40 kV and 40 mA) with a scanning rate of 4° min⁻¹ for wide angle tests. The N₂ sorption measurements were performed by using Micromeritics Tristar 3000 for mesoporosity and Micromeritics ASAP 2020 for porosimeters and microporosity at 77 K, respectively. The mesoporous specific surface area and the pore size distribution were calculated using the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) analysis was performed on a Hitachi-S-4800 electron microscope. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images were obtained on a JEOL-2010F electron microscope operated at 200 kV. The UV-vis absorbance spectra were measured by a Shimadzu UV-2550 spectrophotometer. Symmetric dummy cells were used for the electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements. The EIS measurements were conducted by using a computer-controlled electrochemical workstation (CHI660A, Chenhua, Shanghai) in dark. Photovoltaic measurement (*J-V*) was recorded with a Newport Oriel class AAA solar simulator (model 92250A-1000) equipped with a class A 300 W xenon light source powered by a Newport power supply (model 69907). The power output of the lamp was calibrated to 1 Sun (AM1.5G, 100 mW cm⁻²) using a certified Si reference cell (VLSI standard, S/N 10510-0031). The current-voltage characteristics of each cell were measured with a Keithley-2400 digital source meter. Photovoltaic performance was characterized by using a mask with an aperture area of 0.25 cm². The incident photon-to-current efficiency (IPCE) was measured in DC mode with a 1/4 m double monochromator (Crowntech DK242), a multi-meter (Keithley 2000), and two light sources depending on the wavelength range required (300–600 nm: xenon lamp, 300 W; 600–900 nm: tungsten-halogen lamp, 150 W). The monochromatic light intensity for IPCE efficiency was

calibrated with a reference silicon photodiode. All the measurements were conducted under ambient conditions.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To characterize the phase structures and crystal size, the XRD pattern of the TiO₂@CuGaS₂ nanoparticles is shown in Fig. 2, which well matches with that of anatase phase TiO₂ (JCPDS 21-1272) and CuGaS₂. Although some peaks of TiO₂ and CuGaS₂ were seen overlapped, the XRD of CuGaS₂ exhibited several diffraction peaks in consistent with 2θ values of 29.12°, 48.07°, 48.60°, 57.17°, 58.15°, and 70.36°, and these peaks can be attributed to (112), (220), (204), (312), (116), and (400) planes of CuGaS₂ (JCPDS 25-0279). The XRD diffraction features of TiO₂@CuGaS₂ sample indicated the composite materials of anatase TiO₂ and gallite CuGaS₂, which conformed well with the electron diffraction patterns of TEM in Fig. 3.

Fig. 3 shows the TEM images of TiO₂@CGS nanocrystals and bare TiO₂ particles. The TEM images of bare TiO₂ nanoparticles in Fig. 3a and the synthesized TiO₂@CGS nanocrystals in Fig. S1 and Fig. 3b show that the diameter of the prepared TiO₂ particles is about 20–50 nm, and the CuGaS₂ QDs have an average size of approximately 2–5 nm. The high resolution TEM images in Fig. 3c exhibit the crystalline structure of the synthesized CuGaS₂ QDs. Fig. 3d is the spectra taken *via* energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) for TiO₂@CGS nanocrystals, which shows the existence of Cu, Ga, S elements in the QDs with the ratio of Cu/Ga/S to be 1.04 (±0.1):1.0:1.90 (±0.2). SEM-EDS mapping of TiO₂@CGS nanocrystals is shown in Fig. 4 to characterize the elemental distribution. The molar ratio of CuGaS₂ in TiO₂@CGS could be determined to be 5.4% by EDS analysis and the QDs are off-stoichiometric CuGaS₂ with a uniform elemental distribution.

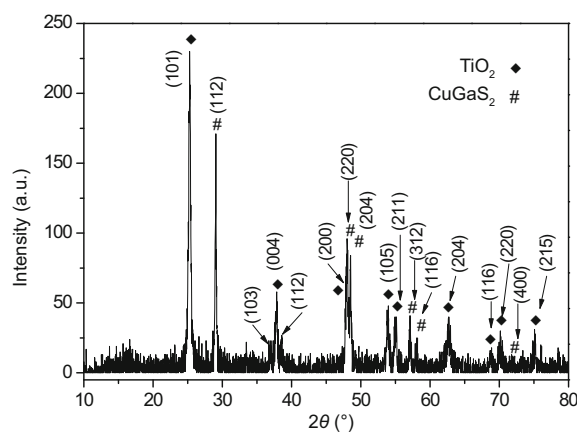


Figure 2 XRD pattern of the TiO₂@CGS nanoparticles.

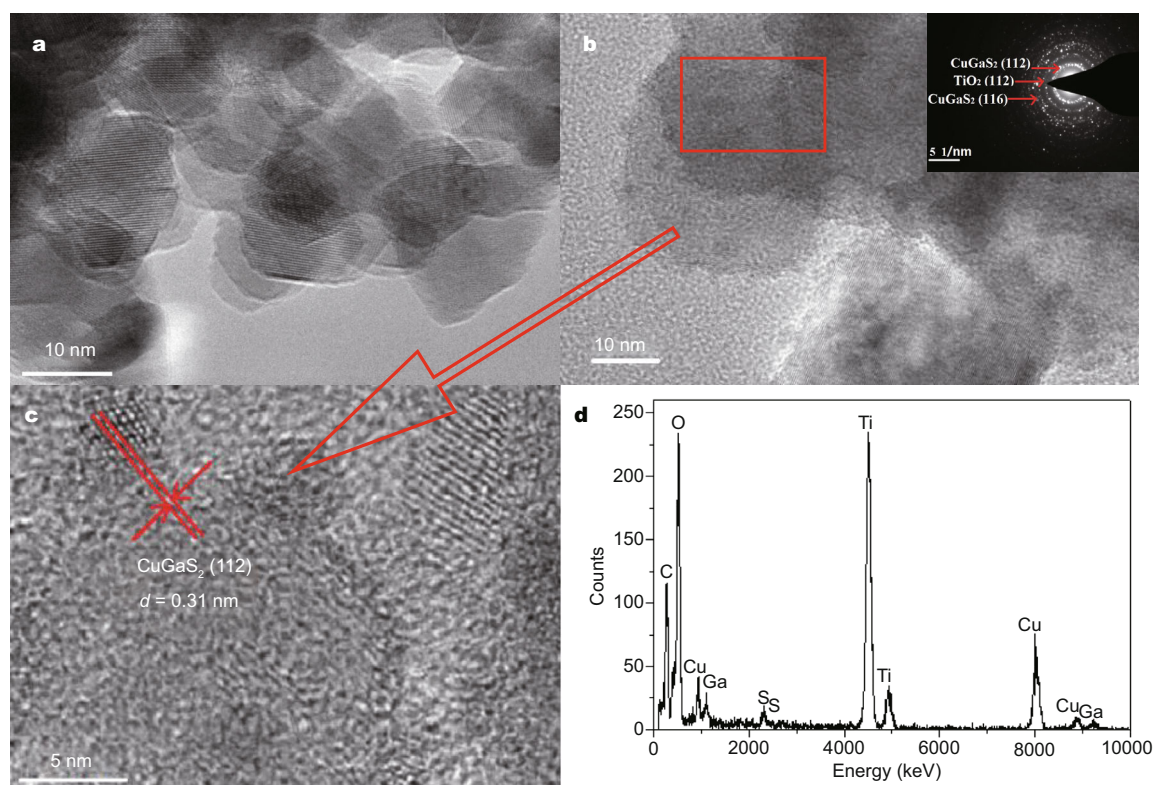


Figure 3 TEM images of (a) TiO_2 nanoparticles and (b) the synthesized $\text{TiO}_2@CGS$ nanocrystals. Inset of (b) is the selected-area electron diffraction pattern of $\text{TiO}_2@CGS$. (c) HR-TEM image of $\text{TiO}_2@CGS$ taken from the area within red square in (b). (d) Simultaneous EDS spectra of $\text{TiO}_2@CGS$.

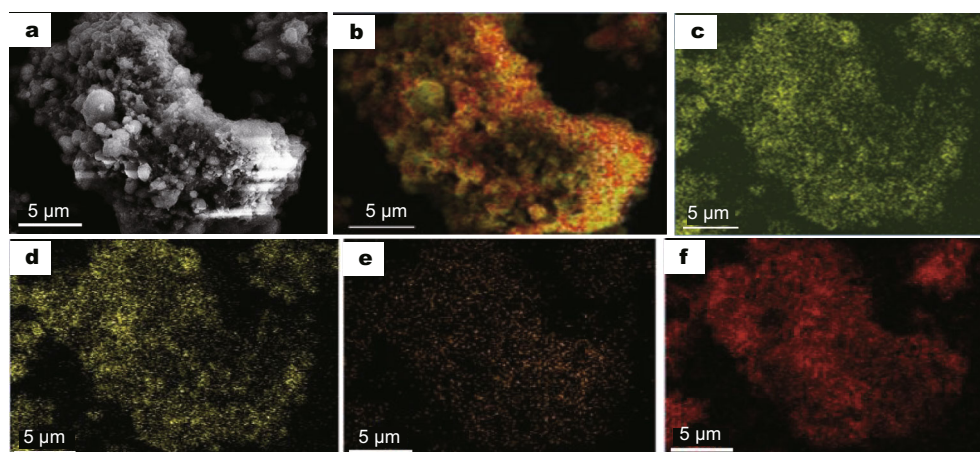


Figure 4 SEM images (a) and (b) of $\text{TiO}_2@CGS$; SEM-EDS elemental mapping of (c) Ti, (d) Cu, (e) Ga and (f) S.

Fig. 5 shows the N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms measured for $\text{TiO}_2@CGS$ nanoparticles and naked TiO_2 to characterize their specific surface areas and pore volumes. Both isotherms of $\text{TiO}_2@CGS$ and TiO_2 nanoparticles exhibit hysteresis loops of type-H1, with the adsorption and desorption jumps at 0.6 and 1.0, which is characteristic for mesoporous materials. According to the Barrett-

Joyner-Halenda (BJH) method and derived from the desorption branch shown in Fig. 5 and Table 1, the pore size distribution of $\text{TiO}_2@CGS$ shows a smaller mesopore size of 3.6 nm compared to 10.4 nm of TiO_2 nanoparticles. The BET surface area and mesopore volume of $\text{TiO}_2@CGS$ are measured to be $22.03 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ and $0.098 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$, respectively, which are 51.3% and 40.2%

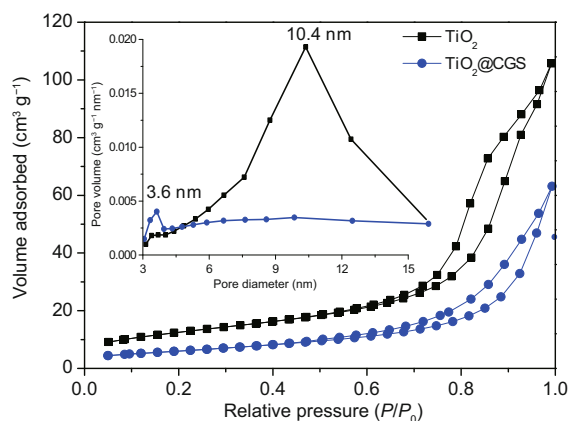


Figure 5 N_2 adsorption-desorption isotherms and the corresponding pore diameter distribution curves of different samples (inset).

less than those of TiO_2 nanoparticles, in accordance with previously reported studies [54]. Smaller particle size (2–5 nm) of the CGS QDs led to a severe aggregation within the mesopores, and thus decreased the mesopore volume. Due to the larger density of CGS QDs, even with an increased surface area, the specific surface area calculated *via* BET method got reduced. Whereas, the decreased BET surface area and mesopore volume of $TiO_2@CGS$ are still good enough to enrich the loading capacity of the N719 dye [55].

Fig. 6a shows the UV-vis absorption spectra of bare TiO_2 film and the $TiO_2@CGS$ film before and after sensitized with N719. The absorption onset for TiO_2 film is

shorter than 400 nm, which is in the region of ultraviolet. TiO_2 film with CGS could absorb light with wavelength shorter than 530 nm, and the two absorption peaks of N719 dye are at 430 and 520 nm, respectively. By sensitizing $CuGaS_2$ QDs in $TiO_2/N719$, the absorption spectra of the $TiO_2@CGS/N719$ films got a significant red-shift and extended to around 700 nm. Fig. 6b shows the plots of $(Ah\nu)^2$ versus $h\nu$ (A = absorbance, h = Planck's constant, and ν = frequency) for all samples, from which it is possible to extrapolate the slope near the absorption onset and to extract the energy of band gap. The curves yielded band gaps of 2.69 eV for $TiO_2@CGS$, 2.25 eV for $TiO_2/N719$, and 2.03 eV for $TiO_2@CGS/N719$, respectively. Thus, the introduction of sensitized $CuGaS_2$ QDs could enhance the light harvesting ability in $TiO_2/N719$, which can be attributed to the following factors: a higher intensity and a red shift of light absorption edge from 600 nm to around 700 nm. Such improvement could lead to an increased electron concentration in $TiO_2/N719$ substrate sensitized with $CuGaS_2$ QDs [56–62].

Co-sensitization of semiconductor QDs and organic dyes has also been investigated as an effective strategy for enrichment [54,55,63,64]. The J - V curves in Fig. 7 shows that these two absorbers also have vital contributions on the overall cell performance. The bisensitized device ($TiO_2@CGS/N719$) is revealed to have a great improvement on its photovoltaic performance, compared to the one with monosensitizers. Table 2 lists the open circuit potential (V_{oc}), short circuit current density (J_{sc}), fill factor

Table 1 Structural parameters of TiO_2 nanoparticles and $TiO_2@CGS$

	BET surface area ($m^2 g^{-1}$)	Mesopore volume ($cm^3 g^{-1}$)	Mesopore size (nm)
$TiO_2@CGS$	22.03	0.098	3.6
TiO_2	45.24	0.164	10.4

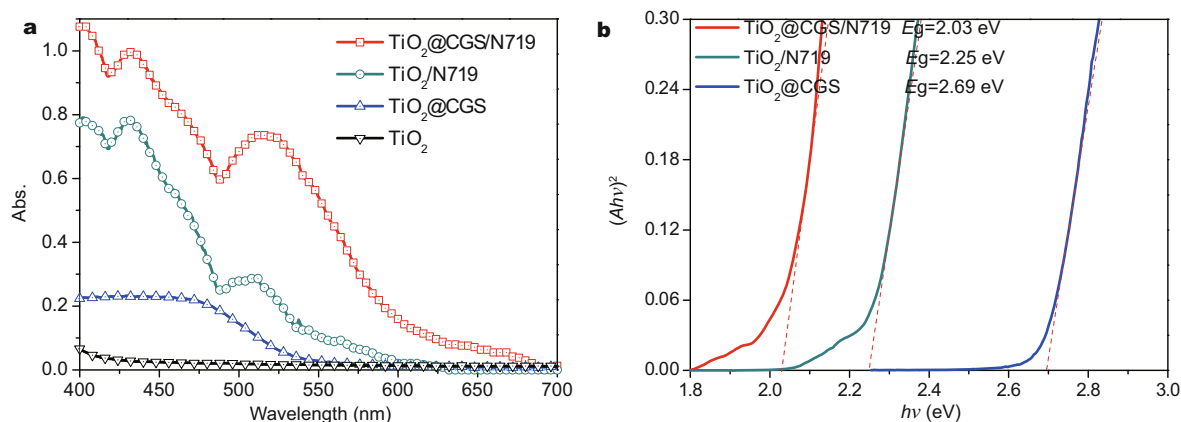


Figure 6 (a) UV-vis absorption spectra of different samples; (b) plots of $(Ah\nu)^2$ against the photon.

(FF) and total energy conversion efficiency (η) of these devices. The V_{oc} increased from 704 to 756 mV (+52 mV) and J_{sc} increased from 14.88 to 18.36 mA cm⁻² (+23.4%) after co-sensitized with CGS. However, FF reduced from 0.572 to 0.53, mainly owing to increased charge carrier recombination rate and larger shunt resistance indicated by the slope of J_{sc} point of the J - V curve. Consequently, in one sun illumination condition, η of the bisensitized device with TiO₂@CGS/N719 as photoanode could reach up to 7.4%, which is 23% higher than that with TiO₂@N719 [61,62].

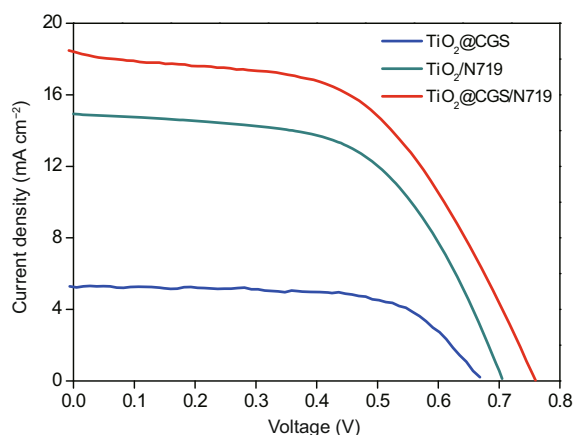


Figure 7 Photocurrent density-voltage characteristic curves of different solar cells.

Table 2 Photovoltaic parameters of different solar cells

	V_{oc} (mV)	J_{sc} (mA cm ⁻²)	FF	η (%)
TiO ₂ @CGS/N719	756	18.36	0.53	7.4
TiO ₂ @CGS	672	5.26	0.649	2.29
TiO ₂ /N719	704	14.88	0.572	6

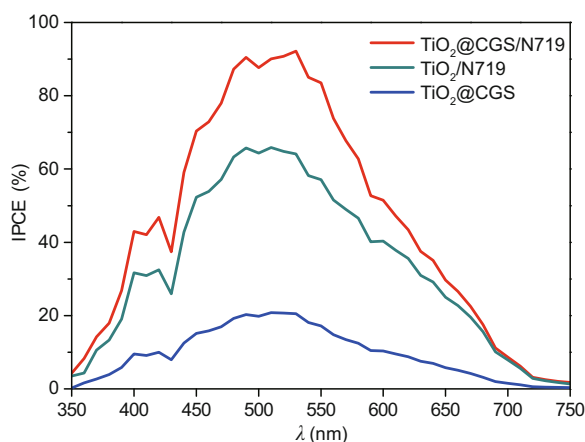


Figure 8 IPCE spectra of the solar cells fabricated with different photoanodes.

Attributed to the red-shift visual light absorption, TiO₂@CGS/N719 co-sensitized solar cell displays a higher energy conversion efficiency. The IPCE spectra shown in Fig. 8 investigate the role of CuGaS₂ quantum dots. The trend of the IPCE spectra of TiO₂@CGS/N719 co-sensitized solar cell and TiO₂/N719 dye sensitized solar cell are in accordance with that of UV-vis absorption spectra. The calculated J_{sc} values of TiO₂@CGS/N719, TiO₂/N719, TiO₂@CGS devices are 18.1, 14.2, and 5.0 mA cm⁻², respectively, in consistent with the J - V curves. By introducing the CuGaS₂ QDs as a co-sensitizer, the photon-to-electron conversion efficiency got significantly enhanced.

To investigate the effects of QDs on charge transport and recombination at the photoanode, EIS under dark was carried out to exhibit the representative impedance plots of cells based on TiO₂@CGS, TiO₂/N719 and TiO₂@CGS/N719 photoanodes, shown in Fig. 9. The equivalent circuit in Fig. 9 is used to fit the impedance measurements, which is composed of resistance-capacitance pairs and a distributed element to describe redefinable characteristics of the electrode and its interfaces with the electrolyte [65]. The resistance R records recombination in the solar cell, while C relates to the carrier accumulation and splitting of the Fermi levels [66]. The main semicircle in Fig. 9 is relevant to the charge transfer process at the interface of anode-electrolyte. The frequency large arcs (the semicircles from 32 to 160 Ω) are

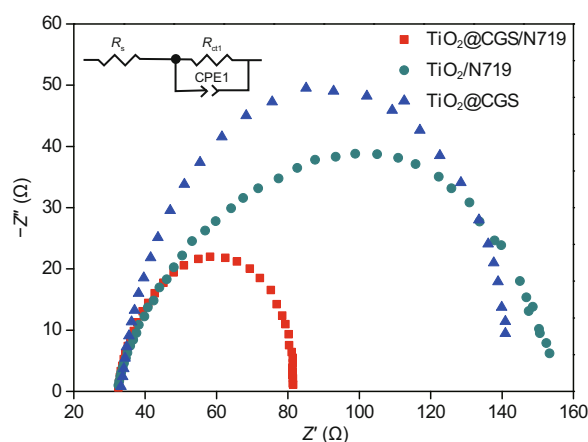


Figure 9 Impedance spectra and the inset is the corresponding equivalent circuit.

ascribed to the anode/electrolyte interfacial charge transfer resistance or recombination (R_{ct}) in parallel with the capacitance (CPE₁) in the TiO₂-based anodes and the anodes/electrolyte interface. The diameter of the semicircle exhibits the charge transfer resistance (recombination) at the anodes/electrolyte interfaces [8,67,68]. Obviously, comparing devices with TiO₂@CGS/N719 and TiO₂/N719 as photoanodes, the TiO₂@CGS/N719 based cell has a smaller diameter of the semicircle, which exhibits a decreased charge recombination resistance and a certain portion of the injected charges are lost by electron transfer from TiO₂ to I₃⁻ in the electrolyte. Meanwhile, the TiO₂@CGS/N719 photoanode with doped CGS QDs and dye shell decreased the direct contact surface area between bare TiO₂ surface and the electrolyte, which reduced the charge recombination resistance.

CONCLUSIONS

Novel visible-light induced TiO₂@CuGaS₂ nanocrystals have been successfully synthesized *via* the vacuum one-pot-nanocasting process, with CuGaS₂ (2–5 nm) grown uniformly on TiO₂ (20–50 nm). The TiO₂@CuGaS₂/N719 photoanode shows an excellent absorbance on broad wavelength light due to the narrow energy band gap ($E_g = 2.03$ eV). Photoanodes with the TiO₂ and TiO₂@CuGaS₂ nanocrystals were fabricated and the device with TiO₂@CuGaS₂/N719 has a power conversion efficiency η of 7.4%, which is 23% higher than that of monosensitized dye solar cell. Anchoring CuGaS₂ QDs on semiconductor nanoparticles to form QDs/dye co-sensitized solar cells is a promising and feasible approach to enhance light absorption, charge carrier generation as well as to facilitate electron injection comparing to conventional dye sensitized solar cells.

Received 23 May 2017; accepted 15 July 2017;
published online 29 August 2017

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Acknowledgements The authors thank the financial support from the National Key Research and Development Program of China (2016YFA0201001), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (11627801, 51102172 and 11772207), Science and Technology Plan of Shenzhen City (JCYJ20160331191436180), the Leading Talents of Guangdong Province Program (2016LJ06C372), the Natural Science

Foundation for Outstanding Young Researcher in Hebei Province (E2016210093), the Key Program of Educational Commission of Hebei Province of China (ZD2016022), the Youth Top-notch Talents Supporting Plan of Hebei Province, the Graduate Innovation Foundation of Shijiazhuang Tiedao University, Hebei Provincial Key Laboratory of Traffic Engineering materials, and Hebei Key Discipline Construction Project.

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Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Supplementary information Supporting materials are available in the online version of the paper.



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铆钉CuGaS₂量子点对提高太阳能电池光伏性能的研究

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摘要 三元I-III-VI族黄铜矿量子点作为太阳能电池的敏化剂表现出优异的光学性质。我们采用一步法将2-5纳米的三元黄铜矿CuGaS₂量子点铆钉在TiO₂纳米颗粒上, 不通过任何有机分子作为链接制备出了TiO₂@CGS复合材料。研究发现量子点和染料TiO₂@CuGaS₂/N719共敏化太阳能电池效率达到7.4%, 相对于单敏化染料太阳能电池而言, 其电池效率提高了23%。CuGaS₂量子点铆钉在半导体纳米颗粒增强了共敏化太阳能电池的光吸收能力、增加了电荷载流子数量, 促进了电子有效注入, 具有十分广阔的应用空间。