Tin oxide light-scattering layer for Titania Photoanodes in dye-sensitized solar cells

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SnO2 Light Scattering Layer for TiO2 Photoanode in Dye-Sensitized Solar Cells

Munkhbayar Batmunkh,[a, b] Mahnaz Dadkhah,[b] Cameron J. Shearer,[b] Mark J. Biggs,[a, c] and Joseph G. Shapter*[b]

Dedication (optional)

Abstract: High-performance dye-sensitized solar cell (DSSC) devices rely on photoanodes that possess excellent light-harvesting capability and high surface area for sufficient dye adsorption. In this work, morphologically controlled SnO2 microstructures have been synthesized and used as an efficient light backscattering layer on top of the nanocrystalline TiO2 layer to prepare a double-layered photoanode. By optimizing the thickness of both the TiO2 bottom layer and SnO2 top layer, a high power conversion efficiency (PCE) of 7.8% is achieved, demonstrating a ~38% enhancement in the efficiency when compared to a nanocrystalline TiO2-only photoanode (5.6%). We attribute this efficiency improvement to the superior light backscattering capability of SnO2 microstructures.

Introduction

Some ten years ago, the now late Nobel Laureate Richard Smalley was asked to define the world’s ten most pressing problems.[1] He provided this list with energy at the top and in fact argued that there was really only one problem suggesting that access to cheap, reliable energy was the key to solving the big issues of the world. This is still true today and has led to an enormous research effort to improve energy efficiencies, develop new energy production methods as well as innovation in energy storage. Recent developments in photovoltaic (PV) technologies, particularly perovskite solar cells (PSCs) and dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs), have shown great promise in addressing current energy related issues.[2-4] Although the significant development that has been made in the PSC efficiencies in a short time is very exciting,[4] toxicity and instability of PSCs still present considerable challenges in their commercialization. In contrast to the PSCs, DSSCs possess comparable efficiencies[5] (e.g. ~14%[6]) yet are non-toxic, demonstrate long-term stability, and are simple and cheap to manufacture.[5]

[a] Munkhbayar Batmunkh, Prof. Mark J. Biggs
School of Chemical Engineering
The University of Adelaide
Adelaide, South Australia 5005, Australia
[b] Munkhbayar Batmunkh, Dr. Mahnaz Dadkhah, Dr. Cameron J. Shearer, Prof. Joseph G. Shapter*
School of Chemical and Physical Sciences
Flinders University
Bedford Park, Adelaide, South Australia 5001, Australia
E-mail: jce.shapter@flinders.edu.au
[c] Prof. Mark J. Biggs
School of Science
Loughborough University
Loughborough, Leicestershire, LE11 3TU, UK

Supporting information for this article is given via a link at the end of the document.
Results and Discussion

Characterization and photovoltaic performance of the as prepared, microwaved and calcined SnO₂ based DSSCs

The preparation procedure of the as prepared, microwaved and calcined samples is shown in Figure 2a. A detailed description of the process is given in the experimental section. Typically, a SnCl₂·2H₂O powder was used as a starting material. It was first mixed with hydrochloric acid (0.02 M) solution before stirring for 45 min. This process leads to the precipitation of SnO₂ rods, which are denoted here “as prepared” SnO₂ (AP-SnO₂). The AP-SnO₂ samples were reacted using a microwave technique for 5 min under 600 W power to give “microwaved” SnO₂ (MW-SnO₂). In order to improve the crystallinity of the SnO₂, the MW-SnO₂ samples were calcined at 500 °C for 3 h in air yielding “calcined” SnO₂ (C-SnO₂). These three samples were characterized using X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and Attenuated Total Reflection-Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR).

XRD patterns of the synthesized samples are shown in Figure 2b. The peaks, assigned to (110), (101), (211), (310) and (312), were observed for all three samples, suggesting that the synthesized structures had various degrees of crystallinity. Particularly, it can be seen that the AP-SnO₂ and MW-SnO₂ structures display very broad and weak peaks, indicative of SnO₂ of poor crystallinity. In contrast, the C-SnO₂ sample shows narrow, strong peaks which can be assigned to a typical tetragonal rutile structure (JCPDS card no. 41-1445), indicative of highly-crystalline SnO₂. The ATR-FTIR spectra of the prepared samples, which are shown in Figure S1, further confirm the XRD results. A high crystallinity and wide band gap, without dopant and defects is favored for backscattering as both have been shown to introduce energy levels between the band gap that allow visible light absorption and luminescence.

Figure 2c-e shows the SEM images of three different SnO₂ structures. The synthesized SnO₂ structures were found to be typically rod shaped with average lengths of about 5 µm and width of about 1.8 µm. As shown in Figure 2c, the AP-SnO₂ sample was strongly aggregated. After treating AP-SnO₂ using the microwave, the strong aggregation was significantly reduced and the length and diameter of SnO₂ micro-rod also decreased (see Figure 2d) by almost 2-fold. As illustrated in Figure 2e, no significant changes in the morphology compared to the MW-SnO₂ samples were observed for the SnO₂ structures after calcination. But as discussed previously, the calcination for SnO₂ is necessary to improve the sample crystallinity.

To explore the effect of different SnO₂ samples on the PV efficiency, DSSC devices were fabricated using AP-SnO₂, MW-SnO₂ and C-SnO₂ on top of TiO₂ as photoanodes and their performances were compared with control cells based on TiO₂-only photoanodes. The bilayer photoanodes were prepared by doctor blading SnO₂ layers on top of ~15.5 µm thick TiO₂ layer. After depositing both TiO₂ and SnO₂ on a FTO electrode, the photoanodes were soaked in N719 dye solution to saturation coverage.
The photocurrent density–voltage ($J$–$V$) characteristics of the DSSCs fabricated with different photoanodes are shown in Figure 3a and the corresponding PV parameters such as open-circuit voltage ($V_{oc}$), short-circuit current density ($J_{sc}$), fill factor (FF) and PCE have been summarized in Table 1. The control DSSC fabricated with TiO$_2$–only photoanode displayed a PCE of 5.10%. However, the AP-SnO$_2$–based DSSC exhibited a decreased PCE (4.47%) as compared to the TiO$_2$–only device (referred to here after as the ‘control device’). This decrease in the cell performance after depositing AP-SnO$_2$ could be due to the fact that: (i) the non-crystalline SnO$_2$ showed insignificant light backscattering effect (see XRD pattern in Figure 2b); and/or (ii) hindrance of electrolyte infiltration due to strong aggregation of the SnO$_2$ particles (Figure 2c). By using the MW-SnO$_2$ structure in the photoanode, the fabricated DSSC showed an increased $J_{sc}$ value and achieved a higher PCE (5.67%) than that of the control cell. This increase in the efficiency could be attributed to the reduced SnO$_2$ aggregation and possible improved backscattering. The DSSC fabricated with C-SnO$_2$ based photoanode exhibited a PCE of 6.32%, which is nearly 24% (relative) higher than that of the TiO$_2$–only photoanode. This high performance achieved for the C-SnO$_2$ sample when compared to the other SnO$_2$ based cells is due to the improved crystallinity of SnO$_2$ structure that significantly enhanced the light backscattering capability. On the basis of this high PCE, the C-SnO$_2$ sample was chosen for the fabrication of the DSSC devices and used for further investigations.

In order to determine the mechanism for enhanced PCE when using a TiO$_2$ + SnO$_2$ structure, the energy band levels of the components were compared (Figure 3b). It can be seen that the electrons at the SnO$_2$ conduction band cannot be transferred directly to the fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) electrode as SnO$_2$ was deposited on top of nanocrystalline TiO$_2$ and hence the SnO$_2$ layer is not physically (or electrically) connected to the FTO electrode. Therefore, these electrons can only be transferred to the external circuit through the TiO$_2$ layer. However, the conduction band of SnO$_2$ (–4.5 eV) is lower than that of TiO$_2$ (–4.26 eV) such that electron transfer from the SnO$_2$ layer to the TiO$_2$ layer is thermodynamically unfavorable (see Figure 3b). In such case, extra dye loading on the SnO$_2$ and high electron mobility of SnO$_2$ cannot contribute to the efficiency enhancement of this class of DSSC device (TiO$_2$ + SnO$_2$ photoanode based). Indeed the enhancement in the performance for the calcined SnO$_2$ based DSSC should come from only the light backscattering effect of SnO$_2$.

Furthermore, the incident-photon-to-current conversion efficiency (IPCE) spectra offer detailed information on the light harvesting efficiency of the fabricated devices.[28, 29] Figure 3c illustrates the IPCE spectra of the DSSCs without and with SnO$_2$ layers as a function of wavelength. It should be noted that the IPCE spectra of the DSSCs were collected after the cell aging for around 12 days. As shown in Figure 3c, the IPCE of the DSSC fabricated with SnO$_2$ micro-rod based photoanode (TiO$_2$ + SnO$_2$) is higher than that of TiO$_2$–only photoanode cell over the entire wavelength region. The lack of wavelength dependence indicates the SnO$_2$ improves the performance of the DSSC without altering the internal mechanism, likely by increasing dye light absorption via light backscattering. Figure 4a shows the reflectance of SnO$_2$ films of various thicknesses. It is clear that the reflectance changes quite uniformly over the entire visible range confirming that improved light absorption, and hence higher IPCE, due to extra backscattering would be expected across the wavelengths measured as observed in Figure 3c.
Table 1. PV parameters and PCE (η) of DSSCs assembled with TiO$_2$-only (control device) photoanodes and three SnO$_2$-based photoanodes. The thicknesses of TiO$_2$ in the cells were ~15.5 µm. Average values and the standard deviations of the DSSCs are shown based on at least three cells for each device. Parameters of the best cells are also highlighted in bold.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Device</th>
<th>$J_{sc}$ (mA cm$^{-2}$)</th>
<th>$V_{oc}$ (V)</th>
<th>FF</th>
<th>η (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TiO$_2$-only</td>
<td>11.40; 11.26 ± 0.40</td>
<td>0.73; 0.73 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.61; 0.61 ± 0.02</td>
<td>5.10; 5.01 ± 0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP-SnO$_2$</td>
<td>10.84; 10.27 ± 0.83</td>
<td>0.69; 0.69 ± 0.02</td>
<td>0.60; 0.59 ± 0.02</td>
<td>4.47; 4.29 ± 0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MW-SnO$_2$</td>
<td>14.10; 13.60 ± 0.98</td>
<td>0.71; 0.72 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.57; 0.57 ± 0.02</td>
<td>5.67; 5.54 ± 0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-SnO$_2$</td>
<td>14.32; 14.51 ± 0.43</td>
<td>0.72; 0.72 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.60; 0.59 ± 0.01</td>
<td>6.32; 6.26 ± 0.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to further confirm that the light backscattering effect is the main reason for the efficiency enhancement in SnO$_2$ enhanced DSSC system, PV characteristics of DSSCs fabricated with TiO$_2$-only and SnO$_2$ micro-rod based photoanodes have been measured using a mirror as a light reflector and their results are compared with the J–V measurement performed without mirror (Figure S2). Briefly, the mirror was placed at the back (counter electrode) of the device during the J–V scan. The PCE of the TiO$_2$-only photoanode based DSSC (5.10%) was increased to 5.90% with the use of mirror during the measurement, while almost no changes were observed with and without mirror for the cell based on SnO$_2$ layer. Importantly, PCE changes observed in the SnO$_2$-free photoanode based DSSC were mainly a result of the changes in the $J_{sc}$ parameter. This result supports the aforementioned discussions and clearly suggests that the SnO$_2$ layer in such a device structure improves the DSSC performance due only to its light backscattering effect. A major advantage of this architecture is that the backscattering layer is placed between the light absorbing layer and the electrolyte and counter electrode. Both the electrolyte and counter electrode are opaque and therefore absorb some light, so simply placing a mirror behind the device does not achieve the same net effect as placing the SnO$_2$ light backscattering layer within the device, as can be seen by the fact that the measured PCE of the DSSC with the mirror (5.9%) does not reach that of the device with SnO$_2$ (6.4%).

Optimization of SnO$_2$ layer on the TiO$_2$ photoanode for DSSC performance

After confirming the light backscattering effect of C-SnO$_2$ layer, several investigations for the optimization of DSSC performance have been performed to maximize the PCE. In order to find an optimal SnO$_2$ layer on top of the TiO$_2$ layer, DSSC photoanodes were prepared by spin coating a SnO$_2$ colloidal solution onto the nanocrystalline TiO$_2$ film. The thickness of the SnO$_2$ layer was controlled by the number of spin coating cycles (varied from 0 to 12). SEM images of TiO$_2$ + SnO$_2$ films with different SnO$_2$ thickness are depicted in Figure S3. It can be observed from Figure S3 that the thicknesses of TiO$_2$ layers in all prepared films are consistent at 15.1–15.5 µm. Unexpectedly, the thickness of the SnO$_2$ layer does not appear to vary with the number of coating cycles. Instead, the SnO$_2$ layers in the films appear to become denser with increasing cycles (Figure S3).

To study the light backscattering efficiency of the prepared films, the reflectance of each film was characterized as a function of wavelength (from 400 nm to 800 nm), Figure 4a. The film prepared from a commercial TiO$_2$ paste (Ti-Nanoxide T/SP) supplied by Solaronix is highly transparent at wavelengths from 500 nm to 800 nm. It can be clearly seen that the reflectance (%) of the films increased with increasing the coating cycles of SnO$_2$ onto the TiO$_2$, indicating that the SnO$_2$ layer significantly improves the backscattering efficiency. As shown in Figure 4a, the reflectance of the film started to saturate (> 94%) after 8 spin coating cycles.

Figure 4 – (a) Reflectance spectra of the TiO$_2$ films with different coating cycles of SnO$_2$, and (b) J–V curves of DSSCs fabricated with different SnO$_2$ on TiO$_2$ photoanodes. Device number represents the spin coating (SC) cycle of SnO$_2$ onto ~15.5 µm thick TiO$_2$ layer.
The six photoanode films of different reflectance shown in Figure 4a were used in DSSC devices, denoted X-SC where the value of X indicates the number of spin coating cycles (e.g. the film prepared by spin coating SnO2 for 2 cycles is denoted ‘2-SC’). The PV performances of the six DSSC devices (see Figure 4b) have been compared with the control device fabricated with TiO2-only photoanode (0-SC).

The J–V characteristics of these DSSC devices are illustrated in Figure 4b. The detailed PV parameters such as Jsc, Voc, FF and PCE are summarized in Table 2. The measured Voc values of all DSSCs were similar at 0.73–0.74 V, indicating that the density of SnO2 layer does not influence this parameter. This is reasonable since the Voc in DSSCs is mainly determined by the energy difference between the conduction band of electron transporting material (TiO2 in this device) and the potential energy of redox couple in the electrolyte (I-/I3). In contrast, several interesting changes in the Jsc and FF values were observed. As shown in Table 2, the control device showed a Jsc of 11.40 mA cm–2. As compared to this Jsc value of 0-SC, continuous increases were observed until 8-SC. In particular, the Jsc value increased significantly from 11.40 mA cm–2 to 17.10 mA cm–2 for 8-SC due to the efficient light backscattering of SnO2 layer in the cell. However, when SnO2 layer becomes too dense (10-SC and 12-SC), the Jsc values of the DSSC drop significantly despite the photoanodes having high reflectance. We attribute this decrease in the Jsc to the limited infiltration of the electrolyte into the photoanode of the cell.

To confirm this explanation, a simple experiment was carried out by comparing electrolyte infiltration into the following two different spin coated SnO2 films on FTO substrate: (i) 4 cycles (Figure S4a); and (ii) 12 cycles (Figure S4b). Briefly, two dummy cells were fabricated using the SnO2 films. Then the same volume of electrolyte solution was injected into each cell via a vacuum filling method. Digital photographs (taken from the FTO side) of the SnO2 films after electrolyte injection are shown in Figure S4a and S4b. The electrolyte was well infiltrated into the SnO2 film prepared with 4 spin coating cycles (Figure S4a), while the dense SnO2 film (12 spin coating cycles) showed little of the electrolyte at the bottom of the film clearly indicating poorer electrolyte diffusion into the denser film (Figure S4b) which will lead to poorer cell performance. Therefore, it is clear that the dense SnO2 films partially blocks the electrolyte infiltration into the nanocrystalline TiO2 layers in our DSSCs and thus resulted in decreased Jsc. Indeed, the highest PCE was achieved for the 8-SC (8 spin coating cycles of SnO2). In particular, the measured Jsc, Voc and FF values for this DSSC (8-SC) were 17.10 mA cm–2, 0.73 V and 0.57, respectively, yielding a PCE of 7.20%. Based on the achieved PCE results, 8 spin coating cycles produces the best solar cells and was further used for the fabrication of other DSSCs.

### Table 2. PV parameters and PCE (η) of DSSCs fabricated with different SnO2 on ~15.5 μm TiO2, photoanodes. Reflectance (R, %) values at λ=520 nm (max IPCE (%) at this wavelength) are shown. Parameters of the best cells are also highlighted in bold.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Device</th>
<th>R (%) @ 520 nm</th>
<th>Jsc (mA cm–2)</th>
<th>Voc (V)</th>
<th>FF</th>
<th>η (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-SC</td>
<td>52.0</td>
<td>11.40 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.73 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.61 ± 0.01</td>
<td>5.10 ± 0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-SC</td>
<td>4.10 ± 0.26</td>
<td>12.8 ± 0.26</td>
<td>0.74 ± 0.02</td>
<td>0.59 ± 0.01</td>
<td>6.45 ± 0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-SC</td>
<td>6.45 ± 0.26</td>
<td>15.1 ± 0.26</td>
<td>0.74 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.57 ± 0.01</td>
<td>7.20 ± 0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-SC</td>
<td>5.10 ± 0.26</td>
<td>15.63 ± 0.26</td>
<td>0.73 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.59 ± 0.01</td>
<td>6.73 ± 0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-SC</td>
<td>7.50 ± 0.26</td>
<td>17.08 ± 0.26</td>
<td>0.73 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.57 ± 0.01</td>
<td>7.20 ± 0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-SC</td>
<td>6.45 ± 0.26</td>
<td>17.10 ± 0.26</td>
<td>0.73 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.57 ± 0.01</td>
<td>7.20 ± 0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-SC</td>
<td>5.10 ± 0.26</td>
<td>11.7 ± 0.26</td>
<td>0.73 ± 0.01</td>
<td>0.57 ± 0.01</td>
<td>7.20 ± 0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Optimization of TiO2 thickness in the photoanodes for DSSC performance

It is well established that the PV performance of DSSCs strongly depends on the thickness of the nanocrystalline TiO2 layer. For instance, thick TiO2 films provide higher absolute surface area for dye adsorption and demonstrate good charge generation; but they suffer from slow electron transport caused by a large number of grain boundaries. In contrast, poor charge generation rate caused by insufficient dye loading is the main issue of thin TiO2 films, although they can rapidly transfer the electrons into the external circuit. It is worth noting that the light backscattering layer on top of thin nanocrystalline TiO2 layer could enhance the light harvesting ability of the DSSC without altering the rapid electron transfer rate. To investigate this, six DSSC devices fabricated without and with SnO2 backscattering layers on different thickness of TiO2 layers were investigated. Cross sectional SEM images of the photoanodes prepared using 8 spin coating cycles of SnO2 on top of TiO2 layers with thicknesses of ~7.4 μm, ~10.8 μm and ~15.1 μm are illustrated in Figure 5a, Figure 5b and Figure 5c, respectively. The corresponding J–V characteristics and PCEs of these DSSCs are shown in Figure 5a′, Figure 5b′ and Figure 5c′. Among the three SnO2-free photoanodes based DSSCs; the cell fabricated with ~10.8 μm thick nanocrystalline TiO2 film exhibited the highest PCE (5.60%). It can be clearly observed from Figure 5 that the use of SnO2 light backscattering layers improved the cell performance of all three TiO2 photoanodes. Indeed, the SnO2 layer on ~10.8 μm thick TiO2 film showed an impressive enhancement (~38% (relative) increase) in the DSSC efficiency as compared to the same thickness TiO2-only photoanode based cell. Particularly, this best DSSC achieved a PCE of 7.80%.
Overall, a noticeable feature from the J–V characteristics of all devices made without and with SnO2 is that the FF values of the DSSCs decreased after depositing SnO2 on top of the nanocrystalline TiO2 layers. This can be associated with the energy level alignment of TiO2 and SnO2. As shown in Figure 3b, the photoexcited electrons can be injected into both TiO2 and SnO2 as dye molecules are adsorbed on both layers. However, the electrons at the SnO2 conduction band cannot be transferred to the TiO2 and FTO (external circuit) as the conduction band of SnO2 (-4.50 eV) is lower than that of TiO2 (-4.26 eV). This unsuccessful electron transfer between the SnO2 and TiO2 must lead to some charge recombination between the photoexcited electrons and the oxidized electrolyte species, thus resulting in decreased FF value (see red dash lines in Figure 3b).

It can be seen from Figure 6 that the PCE enhancements observed for the SnO2 deposited TiO2 photoanodes based DSSCs are comparable and/or higher than that achieved by other light backscattering layers. The TiO2 backscattering layers have a dual action; namely 1) backscattering light and 2) adsorption of extra dye which can create extra electrons. Thus, it is not surprising that some TiO2 systems show better performance than the SnO2 systems. The fact that the SnO2 systems perform as well as they do indicate just how effective the backscattering is in these systems. Additionally, the possibility that significant PCE enhancement might be achieved by tuning the conduction band of SnO2 by doping with other species points to interesting future work.

Conclusions

SnO2 micro-rods have been synthesized and employed as a light backscattering layer for TiO2 photoanode based DSSCs. The detailed analysis with XRD, FTIR and SEM suggests that the crystallinity of SnO2 structure is of great importance for the light backscattering capability of SnO2 layer to enhance the DSSC efficiency. After optimizing the thickness of SnO2 and TiO2 layers, PCE of the cell was significantly improved to 7.80%,
Demonstrating a ~38% enhancement in the efficiency when compared to TiO₂-only photoanode based DSSC (5.6%). We confirmed that this significant improvement in the efficiency is due mainly to the efficient light backscattering capability of SnO₂.

**Experimental Section**

Materials: Unless otherwise stated, all chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used without further purification. Tin (II) chloride dihydrate (SnCl₂·2H₂O) powder (>99% purity, Merck) was used as a starting material. FTO coated glass electrode with a sheet resistance (Rₛ) of ~12 Ω/□, TiO₂ paste (Ti-Nanoxide T/SP), Ruthenizer 535-bisTBA (N719 dye), iodide/tri-iodide electrolyte (Iodolyte Z-50), DuPont Surlyn® (Meltinone 1170-60) and Platinum catalyst (Platisol T, HS Code. 7110.1900) were purchased from Solaronix, Switzerland.

Synthesis of SnO₂ structures: Three different SnO₂ structures were synthesized from SnCl₂·2H₂O. In a typical process, 1.5 g of SnCl₂·2H₂O powder was added into 200 mL of 0.02M HCl solution, followed by stirring the solution for 45 min in air. Under these conditions, precipitation of SnO₂ rods is achieved. 50 mL of the resultant product was dissolved in an oven at 80°C after complete washing with DI water. The dried sample is called “as prepared” SnO₂ (AP-SnO₂). The remaining solution was then reacted using a microwave technique (StartSYNTH Microwave Synthesis Labstation, Milestone s.r.l.) for 5 min under 600 W power. The temperature was controlled at 90°C during the microwave treatment. The obtained precipitate was washed several times with DI water and then dried overnight at 80°C. The resultant product is termed ‘microwaved’ SnO₂ (MW-SnO₂). Then the MW-SnO₂ sample was calcined using a muffle furnace at 500°C for 3 h in air. The final product is named ‘calcined’ SnO₂ (C-SnO₂) sample.

DSSC fabrication: FTO coated substrates were cleaned by a detergent (Pyroneg) followed by washing with acetone, ethanol and Milli-Q water under ultrasonication for 10 min each and subsequently dried with a nitrogen gas. The cleaned FTO electrodes were soaked in a 40 mM TiCl₄ aqueous solution for 30 min at 70°C. Nanocrystalline TiO₂ films (5 × 5 mm) were prepared from a commercial TiO₂ paste (Ti-Nanoxide T/SP, Solaronix) by doctor blading technique. For the fabrication of different SnO₂ (AP-SnO₂, MW-SnO₂, C-SnO₂ and spin coating cycles) based DSSCs, the thicknesses of the bottom TiO₂ layers (15.1 μm–15.5 μm) were obtained by using two layers of adhesive scotch tape (Magic™ Tape, 3M). 7.4 μm TiO₂ film was prepared using only one layer of 3M tape. Alternatively, for the preparation of 10.8 μm TiO₂ film, two layers of scotch tape (general purpose tape, OfficeMax) were used. After the deposition of TiO₂ paste onto the FTO substrates, TiO₂ films were gradually heated under an air flow at 125°C for 5 min, 325°C for 5 min, at 375°C for 5 min and at 450°C for 30 min, followed by cooling to ~50°C. TiO₂ films were then immersed in 40 mM TiCl₄ solution at 70°C for 30 min, then sintered at 450°C for 30 min. After cooling to room temperature, SnO₂ backscattering layers were deposited on top of nanocrystalline TiO₂ layers. Viscous SnO₂ pastes were prepared from AP-SnO₂, MW-SnO₂ and C-SnO₂ samples according to the established procedures described in the literature.⁷⁻¹⁷ As for the preparation of AP-SnO₂, MW-SnO₂ and C-SnO₂ based photoanodes, the SnO₂ pastes were deposited on TiO₂ coated FTO substrate by doctor blading method using 3 layers of adhesive tape (3M). During doctor blading of SnO₂ paste, adhesive tapes covered the FTO electrode by leaving TiO₂ film; so that the SnO₂ layer overlaps with TiO₂ layer. To optimize the thickness of SnO₂ layer in photoanodes, the previously prepared SnO₂ paste (C-SnO₂ was chosen) were diluted with ethanol (1:4 weight ratio) to obtain a SnO₂ colloidal solution. Then the SnO₂ solution was deposited onto the nanocrystalline TiO₂ by spin coating at 2000 rpm for 30 s. Different spin coating cycles (0–12 cycles) were used to control the density of the SnO₂ layers. Between each spin coating cycle, the films were dried at 150°C in air. The various photoanodes were sintered at 500°C for 1 h and after cooling to ~50°C were immersed into 0.5 mM N719 dye in an ethanol solution for 18 h at room temperature. Afterwards, the photoanodes were washed with ethanol to remove non-adsorbed dye from the films. Platinum (Pt) counter electrodes were prepared by coating liquid Pt precursor (Platisol T, Solaronix), used as received, onto FTO substrates using a brush-painting method followed by heating at 450°C for 20 min on a hot plate in air. The dye-loaded photoanode and Pt counter electrode were assembled into a sealed sandwich-type cell, with a 60 μm thick hot-melt sealing Surlyn between each layer. The electrolyte solution, Iodolyte Z-50, was introduced into the cell via a vacuum-filling method through an injection hole on the counter electrode side. Finally, the hole was sealed with Surlyn and a microscope glass cover.

Measurement and Characterization: SEM images were obtained using an Inspect F50 SEM (FEI) with accelerating voltage of 10 kV. The thicknesses of the films were measured from the cross sectional SEM images. XRD patterns were recorded on a powder X-ray diffractometer at 40 kV and 15 mA in the range of 2θ = 20°–80° using Cu Kα radiation (Model Miniflex 600, Rigaku, Japan). ATR-FTIR spectra were acquired over a wavenumber range of 4000-800 cm⁻¹ in transmission mode using a Frontier FTIR spectrometer (Perkin Elmer, USA) with a germanium crystal. The reflectances of the films on FTO substrates were characterized using a Varian Cary 50 UV-vis Spectrophotometer at wavelengths ranging from 400 to 800 nm. The J–V characteristics (Jᵥ, Voc, FF and η) were studied using a Keithley 2400 SMU instrument and recorded using a custom LabView Virtual Instrument program. A standard silicon test cell with NIST-traceable certification was used to calibrate the power density as 100 mW cm⁻² at the sample plane of the collimated xenon-arc light source, which was passed through an AM 1.5G filter. The active area of each device was 0.25 cm². The J–V curves were measured in the air through reverse-scan direction from 1 V to -1 V. The PCE, η, was calculated from the ratio of output power, Pᵥ, to the power incident per unit area on the solar device (Pᵥ. Pᵥ and therefore, PCE was calculated from following equation:

\[
\eta = \frac{P_{\text{max}}}{P_{\text{in}}} = \frac{I_{\text{SC}} \times V_{\text{OC}} \times FF}{P_{\text{in}}}
\]

For analysis of mirror effect on the PV characteristics of DSSCs, the mirror was placed at the back (counter electrode) of the device during the J–V scan. IPCE measurements as a function of wavelength ranging from 400 nm to 700 nm were taken by passing chopped light from a Xenon source through a monochromator and onto the devices.

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**Photovoltaic cells** based on SnO₂ structures.

**FULL PAPER**

SnO₂ microstructures have been employed as a light backscattering layer for TiO₂ photoanode based dye-sensitized solar cells. SnO₂ structures with high-crystallinity are shown to have a very strong light backscattering capability and significantly enhance the efficiency of photovoltaic cell.
Supporting Information

$SnO_2$ Light Scattering Layer for $TiO_2$ Photoanode in Dye-Sensitized Solar Cells

Munkhbayar Batmunkh,$^{a,b}$ Mahnaz Dadkhah,$^b$ Cameron J. Shearer,$^b$ Mark J. Biggs,$^{a,c}$ and Joseph G. Shapter$^b$*

$^a$ School of Chemical Engineering, The University of Adelaide, Adelaide, SA 5005, Australia
$^b$ School of Chemical and Physical Sciences, Flinders University Bedford Park, GPO Box 2100, Adelaide, SA 5001, Australia
$^c$ School of Science, Loughborough University, Loughborough, Leicestershire LE11 3TU, UK

Corresponding author: joe.shapter@flinders.edu.au
Figure S1 – ATR-FTIR spectra of the prepared samples.

Figure S2 – Effect of mirror on the performance of DSSCs fabricated with (a) TiO₂-only photoanode and (b) TiO₂ + SnO₂ photoanode.
Figure S3 – SEM image of SnO₂ microstructure on nanocrystalline TiO₂. SnO₂ was deposited by spin coating a colloidal solution of SnO₂ for (a) 2 cycles, (b) 4 cycles, (c) 6 cycles, (d) 8 cycles, (e) 10 cycles and (f) 12 cycles.

Figure S4 – Digital photograph of (a) 4 cycles (less dense) and (b) 12 cycles (highly dense) spin coated SnO₂ films before (top) and after (bottom) electrolyte injection.