

Review paper: Toward highly efficient quantum-dot- and dye-sensitized solar cells



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ABSTRACT

Dye- and quantum-dot-sensitized solar cells have attracted tremendous attention as one of the potential low-cost alternatives for p – n junction silicon solar cells. However, the conversion efficiencies of sensitized solar cells are still lower than those of silicon-based solar cells. Numerous research efforts have been made to enhance the sensitized solar cell efficiency over the past decades. Among the various attempts to improve the photovoltaic properties, the control of interface for reducing the charge recombination and the smart management of the light harvesting have proven to be most effective. Moreover, the p – n junction structure can offer higher open-circuit voltage than the conventional n -type sensitized solar cell. In this review paper, recent developments in sensitized solar cells and the underlying mechanisms will be briefly introduced.

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1. Introduction

The vast uses of fossil fuels, causing environmental pollution and global warming, have led us to focus on the renewable energy sources for the future [1,2]. Among the renewable energy sources, solar cells have attracted a great interest as a solution to this situation [3–5]. To date, the silicon-based photovoltaic devices have power-conversion efficiencies over 20% [6]. However, the issues of high cost and environmentally-harmful waste in the processing technologies of silicon-based solar cells should be resolved [7].

Dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) have been considered as one of the most promising photovoltaic technologies because they are generally made from inexpensive and nontoxic components, and can be designed in a diversity of colors and transparencies [8–11]. Since the pioneering work of Grätzel and O'Regan in 1991 [9], tremendous efforts have been made to improve the performance of DSSCs. However, the development of DSSCs has been sluggish over the last ten years, with the highest record of 12% ever reported [12]. To overcome the limited DSSCs efficiency, inorganic semiconductors have been considered as ideal next-generation sensitizers because of their bandgap tunability by controlling the quantum-dot size and high absorption coefficient (10^5 – 10^6 /M cm)

[13–16]. Moreover, quantum dots can generate more than two electrons from a single photon when they absorb light with higher energy than the bandgap of quantum dot (multiple-carrier generation) [17]. This may open up the possibility for exceeding the Schottky–Queisser limit. Nevertheless, the achieved conversion efficiencies of quantum-dot-sensitized solar cells (QDSCs) have been ~5% so far [18–21].

One of the main reasons for the efficiency deterioration in QDSC is the charge recombination, caused by porous nature of working electrode. In the conventional construction of sensitized solar cells, the charge recombination takes place dominantly at three possible interfaces: working electrode/electrolyte, quantum-dot-sensitizer/electrolyte, and transparent-conducting oxide (TCO)/electrolyte. Therefore, the control for these interfaces is the key issue for enhancing charge collection efficiencies. To reduce interfacial recombination, nanoscale coating with various materials on the surface of working electrode [22–33], quantum-dot semiconductor [34–38], and/or TCO [39–55] has been proven as an effective method. These nanoscale-passivation ideas have been effectively explored in the field of Li-ion batteries [56–84] and low-temperature fuel cells [85–98].

Another approach to improve efficiency of solar cell is light managements by utilizing light scatterers [99–105] and surface-plasmon resonances [106–111]. The scattering component modifies the photon paths, and extends the traveling distance of the incident light in the photoelectrodes, thereby enhancing the

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probability of photons being captured by the sensitizers. Metal nanoparticles can also contribute to the effective light absorption, both by field enhancement through the localized surface-plasmon resonance and by light scattering leading to prolonged optical-path lengths [112–115].

Meanwhile, *p*-type sensitized solar cell, which is the inverse mode of *n*-type counterpart, has attracted much attention as a component for the tandem DSSCs [116–120]. The combination of an *n*-type photoanode (TiO_2) with a *p*-type photocathode (NiO), in a tandem configuration can offer improved open-circuit voltage (V_{oc}). Generally, theoretical efficiency of tandem DSSCs is reported to be $\sim 43\%$, well beyond that of single-junction DSSCs ($\sim 31\%$) [121–123].

This paper highlights recent progresses in sensitized solar cell in pursuit of the high conversion efficiency. Especially, this article focuses mainly on the nanoscale surface modification with various materials, light-harvesting management with scattering layer and surface-plasmon resonance, and tandem-sensitized solar cells.

2. Interface control for reducing charge recombination

2.1. Transparent-conducting-oxide/electrolyte interface

In DSSCs and QDSCs, the TiO_2 compact layer has been used to prevent the backward electron transfer from TCO to the electrolyte [41–47]. My group reported the correlations between photovoltaic properties and TiCl_4 -treated compact-layer thickness in DSSCs system [41]. The physically-blocked FTO/electrolyte interface effectively prohibits injected electrons in FTO from recombining with the redox couple in electrolyte. As shown in Fig. 1, higher V_{oc} is obtained compared to the bare cell, and the short-circuit current (J_{sc}) is also increased. In particular, the 25 nm-deposited cell exhibits $\sim 32\%$ increase in power-conversion efficiency compared to the bare cell. In case of the thicker compact layer, however, the power-conversion efficiency is decreased. The trap states present in the thicker TiO_2 compact layer account for this phenomenon because these trap states tend to block the pathway of photoexcited electrons from the nanoporous TiO_2 layer to the FTO electrode [124,125].

The suppressed charge recombination at the FTO/electrolyte interface was analyzed by the open-circuit voltage decay, as shown in Fig. 2(a). The slow decay responses of the TiO_2 compact layer

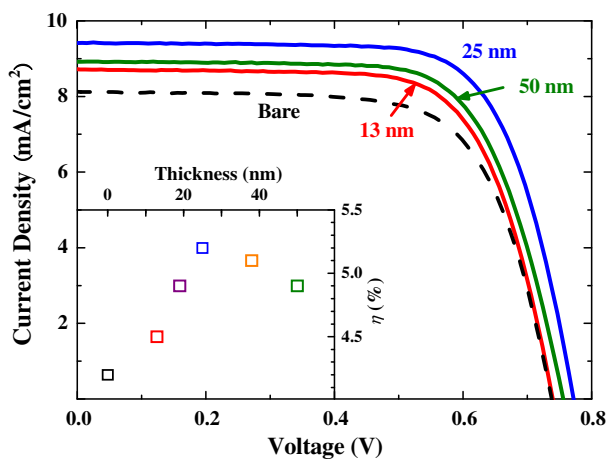


Fig. 1. Photocurrent–voltage curves of DSSCs with various TiO_2 compact-layer thicknesses. The inset shows power-conversion efficiency of DSSCs as a function of the compact-layer thickness. Reprinted with permission from B. Park et al. [41]. Copyright 2012, Elsevier.

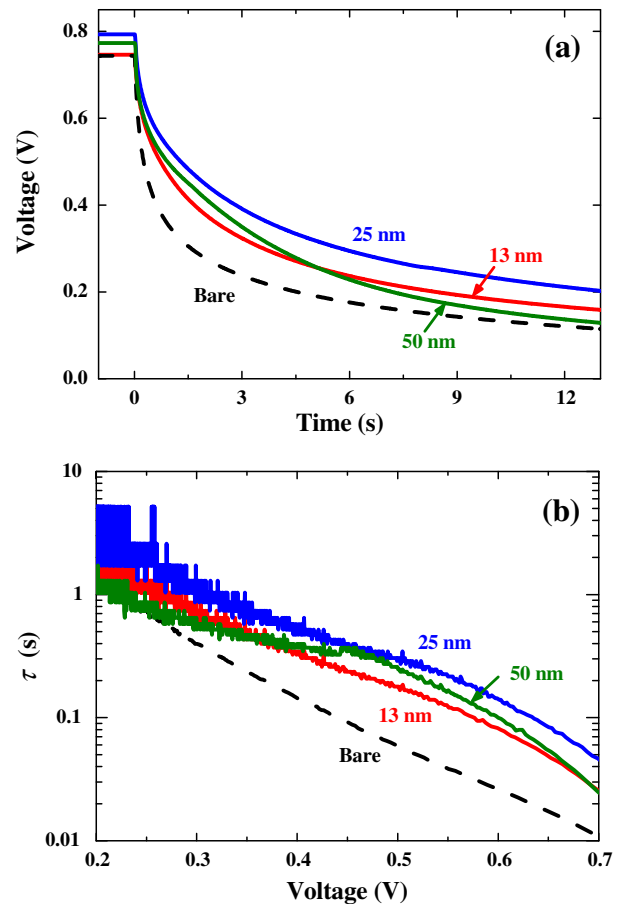


Fig. 2. (a) Experimental decay results of V_{oc} for the bare and compact-layer coated DSSCs. (b) Electron lifetimes as a function of voltage. Reprinted with permission from B. Park et al. [41]. Copyright 2012, Elsevier.

indicates that the recombination between electrons in the FTO and I_3^- in the electrolyte is drastically reduced by the TiO_2 compact layer. From the voltage decay curves, the electron-carrier lifetime (τ) can be calculated as a function of voltage [126,127], and the corresponding electron-carrier lifetime of DSSCs is shown in Fig. 2(b). At all voltages, electron-carrier lifetime of the 25 nm-deposited cell is approximately five times higher compared with the bare cell.

In the case of QDSCs system, the compact layer can also effectively reduce the backward reaction at the FTO/polysulfide-electrolyte interface. However, different from DSSCs system, asymmetric enhancement of incident photon-to-current conversion efficiency (IPCE) is observed for the thicker compact-layer cell (Fig. 3) [53]. In the case of DSSCs, an IPCE near the UV region is mainly affected by the absorption from TiO_2 electrode, because of higher molar absorption coefficient of TiO_2 than that of dye molecules ($\sim 10^4/\text{M cm}$) [128]. In contrast, the CdS quantum dots have similar molar absorption coefficients (10^5 – $10^6/\text{M cm}$), therefore, the values of the IPCE are represented by the sum of the CdS and TiO_2 responses in the UV region. As a result, the thicker compact-layer cell shows lower IPCE value below the ~ 390 nm region compared to the bare cell. Furthermore, the slopes of the IPCE spectra become steeper below the bandgap energy (middle region), since more trap states exist in the thicker compact layer meaning increased absorption near the conduction band. In the higher wavelength region, symmetric enhancement of the IPCE is observed because the absorption through the TiO_2 compact layer becomes negligible, and electron recombination at the FTO/

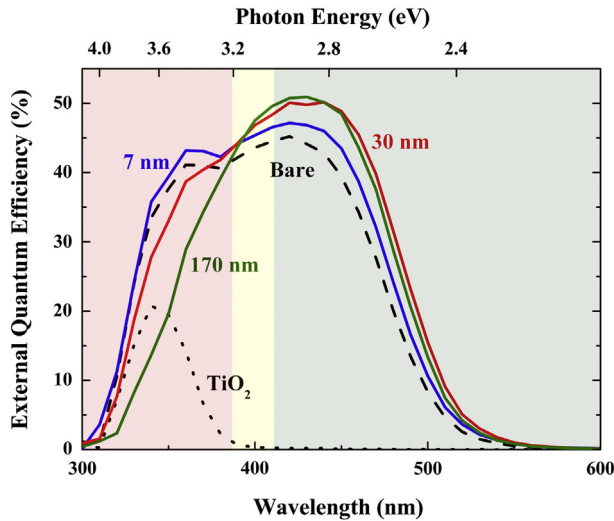


Fig. 3. Incident photon-to-current conversion efficiency (IPCE) spectra of QDSCs with various blocking-layer thicknesses. The IPCE of TiO₂ nanoparticles without CdS sensitizer is shown as a dotted line. Reprinted with permission from B. Park et al. [53]. Copyright 2011, Elsevier.

electrolyte interfaces is effectively suppressed. The thickness effects of TiO₂ compact layer in QDSCs are summarized in Fig. 4.

Another approach to minimize leakage electrons at TCO/electrolyte interface is to introduce potential-barrier layer such as Nb₂O₅, as shown in Fig. 5. Yanagida's group reported that nanoscale Nb₂O₅ layer worked as a remarkable blocking layer when deposited by rf magnetron sputtering [48]. Fig. 6 presents the *J*–*V* curve of the interface-optimized DSSCs by Nb₂O₅ blocking layer under AM 1.5 illumination. The metal oxide blocking layer can remarkably decrease the dark current (without illumination), resulting in higher *V*_{oc} and *J*_{sc} under AM 1.5 compared with the bare cell.

2.2. TiO₂-nanoparticle-electrode/electrolyte and quantum-dot-sensitizer/electrolyte interfaces

For the efficient operation of DSSCs and QDSCs, recombination pathways occurring at the TiO₂/sensitizer/electrolyte interface should also be minimized. The energy band structure at the TiO₂/dye-sensitizer interface is illustrated in Fig. 7 where charge separation processes take place in DSSCs. The generated electrons are able to recombine either with oxidized dye (path (3)) or redox couple (path (5)). In order to reduce these backward reactions, the passivation layer should have wide bandgap and conduction

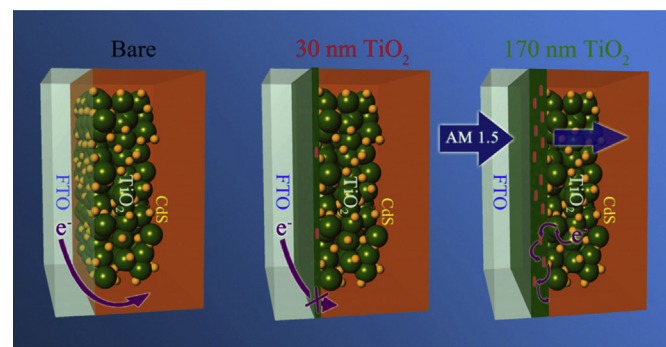


Fig. 4. Schematic figures of the TiO₂ blocking-layer effects on the performance of CdS-sensitized solar cells. Reprinted with permission from B. Park et al. [53]. Copyright 2011, Elsevier.

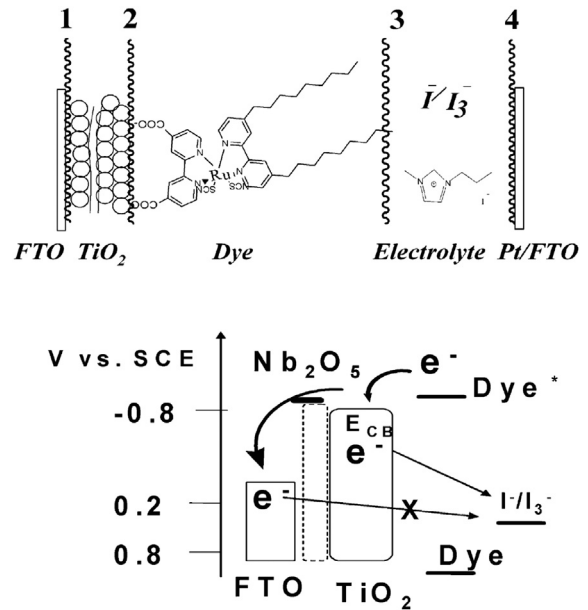


Fig. 5. Schematic views of interfaces in the DSSC device and the electron transfer of the FTO/Nb₂O₅/TiO₂ electrode. Reprinted with permission from S. Yanagida et al. [48]. Copyright 2007, Royal Society of Chemistry.

bandedge above that of TiO₂. At the same time, the surface charge of passivation layer is also important for the attachment of dye. Considering electrostatic interactions between dye and the passivation layer makes several metal oxides (e.g., ZnO, CaCO₃, MgO, and Al₂O₃) more charming, because they bear more positive surface charges than TiO₂, as shown in Fig. 8(a) [22–28].

The effect of Al₂O₃ coating layer thickness on the device performance was examined by varying the number of ALD cycles [27]. The high-resolution transmission electron microscope (HR-TEM) images of ALD samples after 20 and 40 cycles are shown in Fig. 9, respectively. These reveal the uniform shell formation around TiO₂ nanoparticles with a relatively-uniform alumina layer. With increasing number of Al₂O₃ coating cycles, a large increase in *J*_{sc}, *V*_{oc}, and the fill factor, thus enhancement in efficiency is observed up to 20 cycles (Fig. 10(a)). The increase in efficiency is likely to arise from an abundant adsorption of dye (Fig. 8(b)), and reduced carrier recombination at the TiO₂/dye/electrolyte interface.

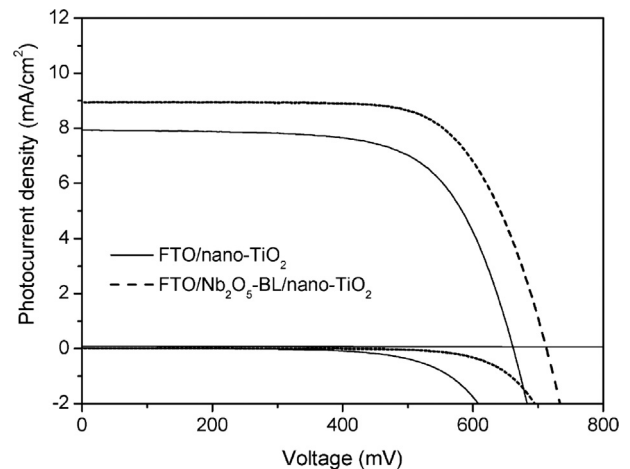


Fig. 6. *J*–*V* curves of cells employing Z-907 sensitized FTO/TiO₂ (solid line) and FTO/Nb₂O₅/TiO₂ electrodes (dashed line) under AM 1.5 illumination. Reprinted with permission from S. Yanagida et al. [48]. Copyright 2007, Royal Society of Chemistry.

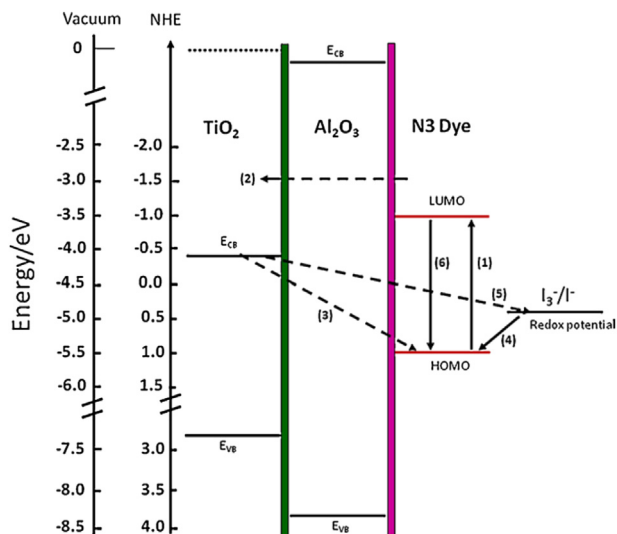


Fig. 7. Schematic diagram of band structure including interfacial charge-transfer processes occurring at TiO₂/dye/electrolyte interface in DSSCs. Reprinted with permission from S.-W. Rhee et al. [27]. Copyright 2010, Elsevier.

The improvement in photo-voltage is attributed to a reduction in dark current of the cells with Al₂O₃ layers, as shown in Fig. 10(b). The *J*_{sc} and *V*_{oc}, however, drop sharply as the coating thickness increases. This clearly indicates that the thickness of Al₂O₃ has

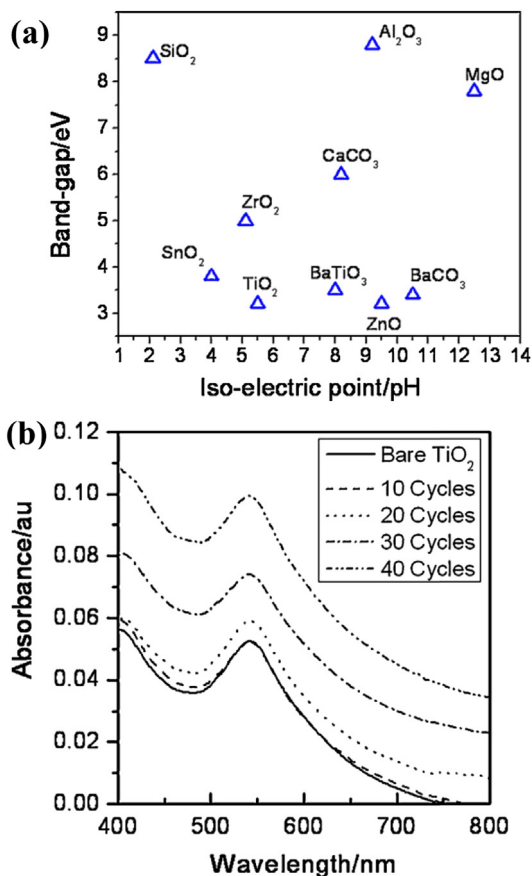


Fig. 8. (a) Graphical representation of isoelectric point and bandgap of various oxide materials. (b) Absorbance spectra of dye desorbed from bare and alumina-coated TiO₂ samples using 0.1 M NaOH. Alumina was deposited by ALD process with deposition cycles between 10 and 40. Reprinted with permission from S.-W. Rhee et al. [27]. Copyright 2010, Elsevier.

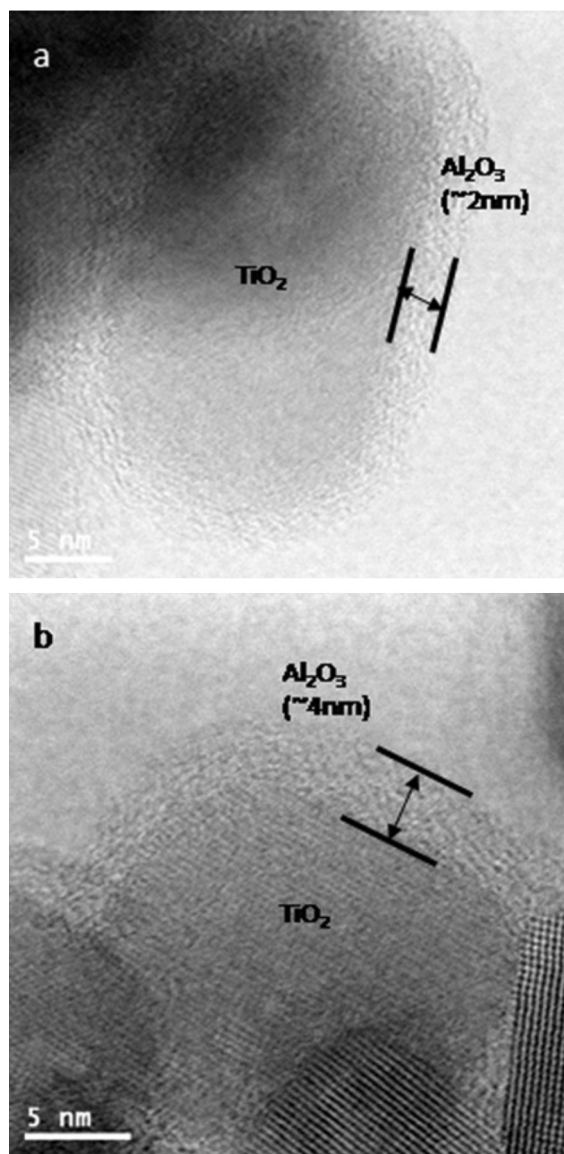


Fig. 9. High-resolution TEM images of TiO₂ porous layer covered with ALD alumina deposited with (a) 20 cycles and (b) 40 cycles. Reprinted with permission from S.-W. Rhee et al. [27]. Copyright 2010, Elsevier.

exceeded the tunneling thickness (~2 nm), and thereby leads to a decrease in device performance. Although the amount of dye adsorption is higher in the thicker Al₂O₃ layer (~4 nm), it results in the poor cell performance because the thick Al₂O₃-barrier blocks electron transport into TiO₂.

In case of the QDSCs system, surface modification of the TiO₂/electrolyte and quantum-dot/electrolyte interfaces is also crucial for high efficiency. My group reported the role of nanoscale TiO₂ passivation on the TiO₂-nanoparticle electrode for the performance of CdS–QDSCs [32]. As shown in Fig. 11, the optimized coating layer enhances the power-conversion efficiency by ~40% compared with the bare CdS-sensitized solar cell. The enhanced efficiency by TiO₂ passivation on the TiO₂ electrode is attributed to the reduction of charge recombination at the TiO₂/CdS/polysulfide-electrolyte interfaces by passivating the surface defects on the TiO₂-nanoparticle layer, as shown in Fig. 12. The effective suppression of recombination was confirmed by impedance analysis at the open-circuit voltage under AM 1.5 illumination (Fig. 13(a)). The charge-transfer resistance shows higher values with TiCl₄ treatment,

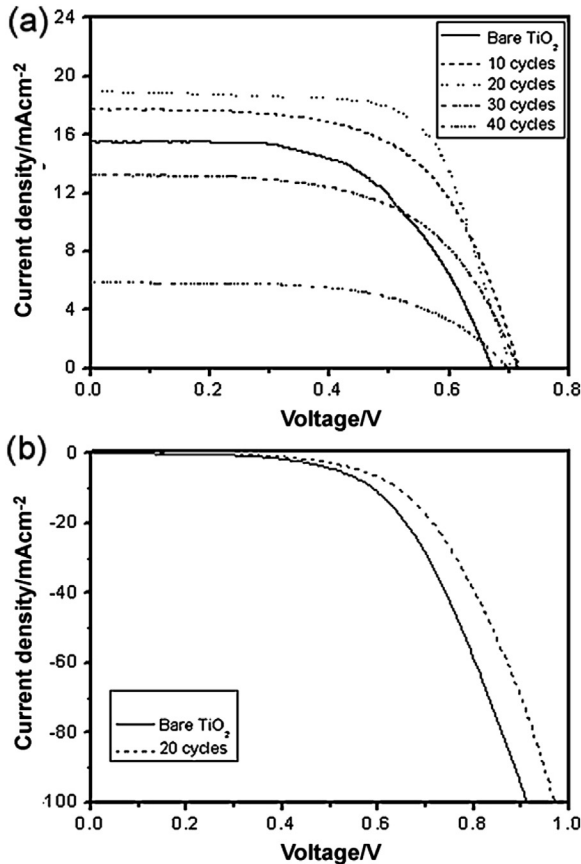


Fig. 10. (a) *J*–*V* characteristics of solar cell with bare and alumina-coated TiO₂ samples measured under one sun illumination. (b) *J*–*V* curves of bare TiO₂ and 20 cycles alumina-coated sample measured in dark. Reprinted with permission from S.-W. Rhee et al. [27]. Copyright 2010, Elsevier.

which means that the TiO₂-coating layer effectively suppresses charge transfer at the TiO₂/electrolyte interface.

As distinct from DSSCs, electrolyte diffusion is one of the factors to consider for the performance of QDSCs. This is because the diffusivity of polysulfide electrolyte without TiO₂ nanoparticles ($\sim 10^{-6}$ cm²/s) is approximately 2 orders of magnitude lower than that of the iodide electrolyte typically used in DSSCs ($\sim 10^{-4}$ cm²/s)

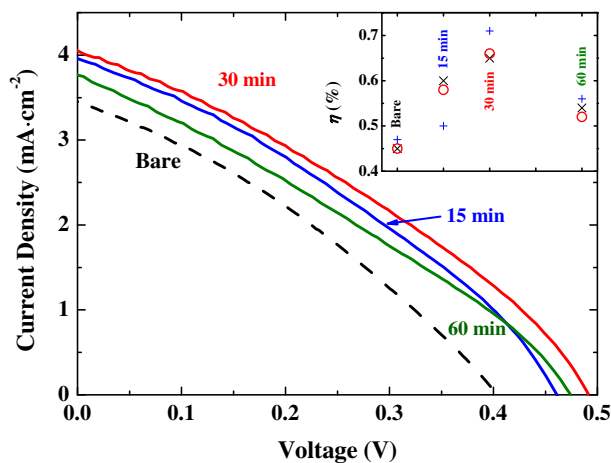


Fig. 11. Photocurrent–voltage curves of CdS quantum-dot-sensitized solar cells with various TiO₂-coating times. The inset shows power-conversion efficiency of QDSCs as a function of the coating time. Reprinted with permission from B. Park et al. [32]. Copyright 2012, Elsevier.

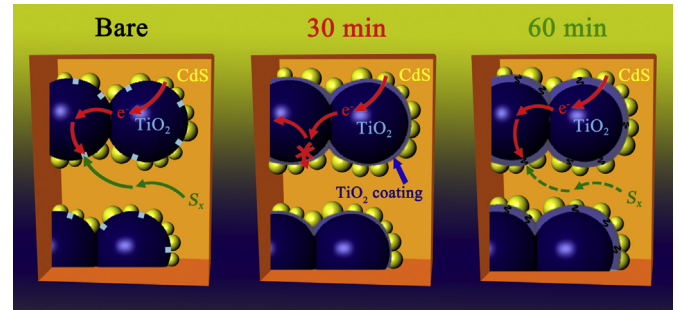


Fig. 12. Schematic figures of the TiCl₄-treatment effects on the performance of CdS-sensitized solar cells. Reprinted with permission from B. Park et al. [32]. Copyright 2012, Elsevier.

[129], and the size of quantum-dot sensitizer (2–6 nm) is larger than that of a dye molecule (~ 1 nm) [128]. From the impedance measured under dark condition [130,131], the diffusivity of electrolyte through the nanoporous TiO₂ electrode was obtained (Fig. 13(b)). The decrease in the diffusivity is associated with the increasing amount of TiO₂ on the nanoparticle electrode because the amount of layer scales with the TiO₂-passivation time. As a result, the pore size within TiO₂-nanoparticle film decreases and, therefore, the electrolyte diffusion through nanopores becomes inevitably difficult. This result is consistent with the increase of series resistance at *V*_{oc} for thicker TiO₂-coated cell (Fig. 11).

A great improvement in photocurrent and conversion efficiency was also reported for QDSCs when the CdS/CdSe-sensitized mesoporous TiO₂ electrode was passivated by ZnS. Lee et al. reported that ZnS layer coated on the TiO₂/CdS/CdSe photoelectrode showed enhanced photovoltaic performance (Fig. 14), due to the passivation of CdSe surface states from the photocorrosion [20]. It was furthermore argued that ZnS layer was able to inhibit the recombination of excited electron at the quantum-dot/electrolyte interface. It should be noted that in order to enhance chemical stability and photovoltaic in QDSCs, the use of nanoscale coatings on the quantum-dot sensitizer is also essential, and further research is necessary for better understanding of the interfacial charge-transport mechanisms.

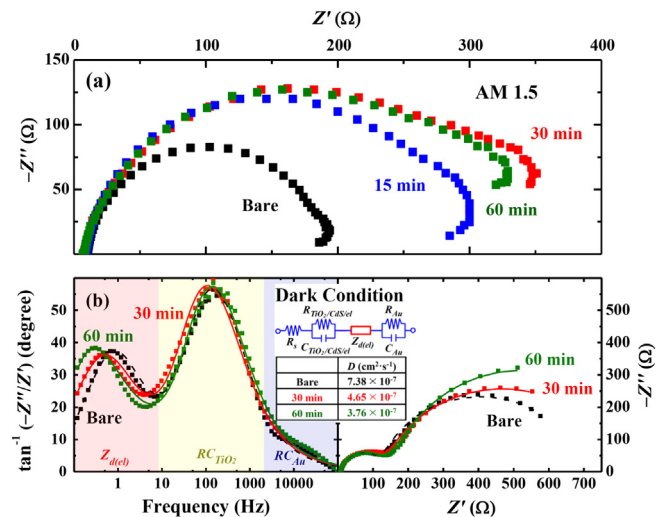


Fig. 13. (a) Electrochemical impedance spectra measured under AM 1.5 illumination, and (b) Bode and Nyquist plots measured under dark conditions at *V*_{oc}. Reprinted with permission from B. Park et al. [32]. Copyright 2012, Elsevier.

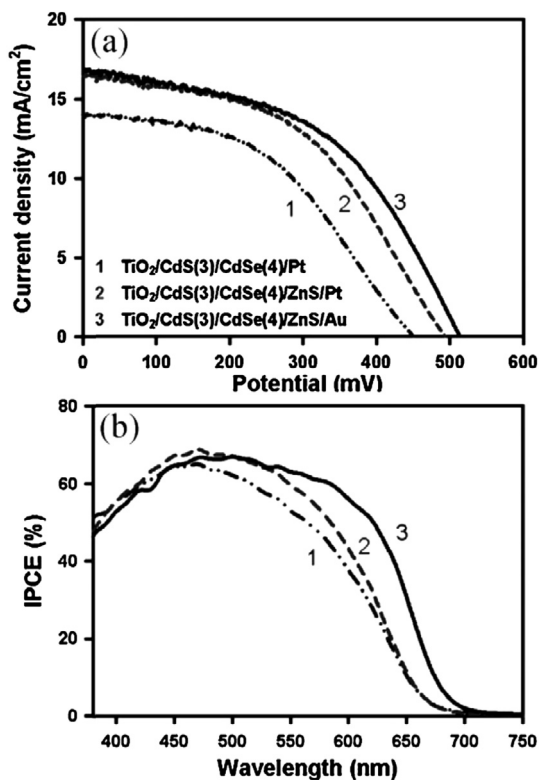


Fig. 14. (a) Effects of ZnS passivation layer and counter electrode on the J – V characteristics of the TiO₂/CdS/CdSe electrode. (b) Incident photon-to-current conversion efficiency spectra measured as a function of wavelength. Reproduced with permission from Y.-L. Lee and Y.-S. Lo [20]. Copyright 2009, Wiley-VCH.

3. Improving light-harvesting efficiency

3.1. Light-scattering effect

Optical effects generated by nanostructures provide opportunities for increasing the performance of sensitized solar cell. The light scattering is considered as another approach that can make an impact on the light-harvesting capability of the photoelectrode by utilizing optical enhancement effects. There have been many studies on enhancing the light-harvesting efficiency of photoelectrodes by adding submicrometer-scale particles as light scatterers, resulting in a significant advance in DSSCs. However, the introduction of large-sized particles into nanocrystalline films has unavoidable effect of lowering the internal surface area of the photoelectrode film [101].

Recently, submicrometer-sized polydisperse aggregates consisting of nanosized crystallites have been utilized for efficient scatterers [100–103], while the nanocrystallites provide the films with the necessary nanoporous structure and large surface area, as shown in Fig. 15(a). From the J – V curves in Fig. 15(b), the conversion efficiency of 5.4% is observed for submicrometer-sized polydisperse aggregates, whereas that of 2.4% is observed for ZnO nanoparticles without submicrometer-sized scatterers. This improved performance of DSSCs can be explained with the significantly extended traveling distance of light within the photoelectrode film.

However, the size of aggregates creates large voids between aggregates in photoelectrode (Fig. 16(a)), and these large voids may result in low connectivity for charge transfer and a decreased electron-diffusion length [132]. Thus, more charge recombination can occur, leading to reduced conversion efficiency. In this respect, Cao's group suggested the use of aggregate/nanoparticle mixtures,

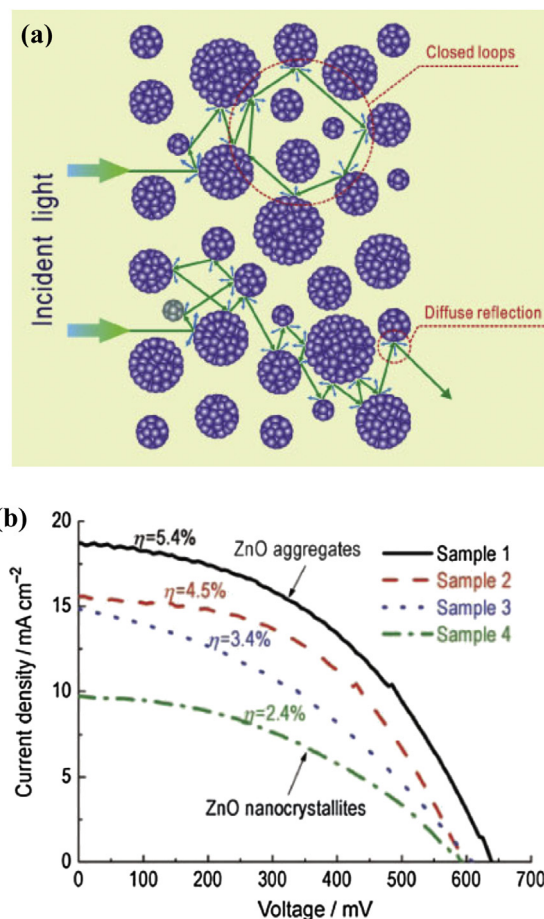


Fig. 15. (a) Schematic of light scattering and photon localization within a film consisting of submicrometer-sized aggregates. (b) Photovoltaic behavior of N₃-dye-adsorbed ZnO-film samples with differences in the degree of nanocrystallite aggregates. Reproduced with permission from G. Cao et al. [103]. Copyright 2009, Wiley-VCH.

as shown in Fig. 16(b) [105]. They have systematically investigated the influences of the aggregate/nanoparticle ratio on the performance of DSSCs. The admixing of TiO₂ aggregates with nanoparticles exhibits an obvious improvement on the performance of DSSCs compared to both pure TiO₂ aggregates (5.35%) and pure TiO₂ nanoparticles (5.80%), as shown in Fig. 17. The TiO₂

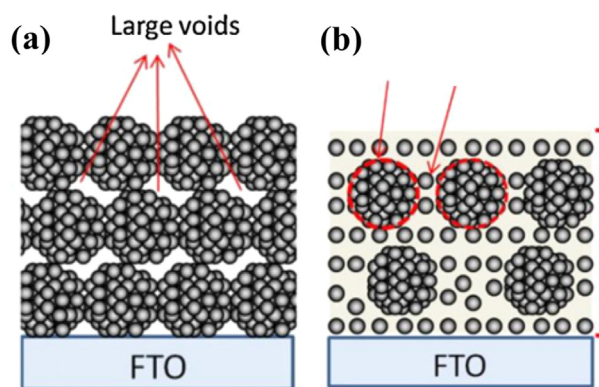


Fig. 16. (a) Films made of nanocrystallite aggregates for both high surface area and light scattering, and (b) with mixed nanoparticles and nanocrystallite aggregates for increased surface area and light scattering. Reprinted with permission from G. Cao et al. [105]. Copyright 2011, Elsevier.

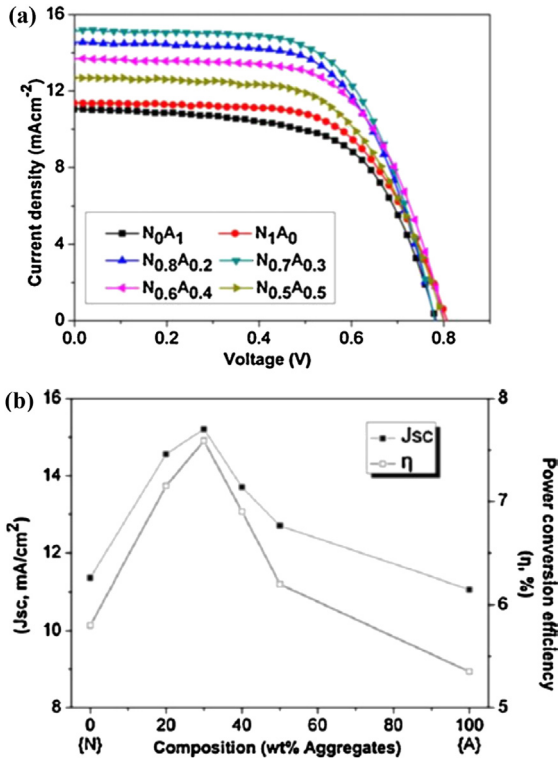


Fig. 17. (a) J - V curves of DSSCs with mixed photoelectrodes. (b) Comparison of the short-circuit current density and power-conversion efficiency as a function of TiO_2 nanoparticle (N) and aggregate (A) fraction. Reprinted with permission from G. Cao et al. [105]. Copyright 2011, Elsevier.

nanoparticles filling large voids among the aggregates lead to the increased amount of dye loading as well as the better connectivity for carrier transport.

3.2. Surface-plasmon resonance

The light-harvesting properties can also be amplified by employing surface-plasmon resonance. Surface plasmons are created when incident light excites oscillations of free electrons in

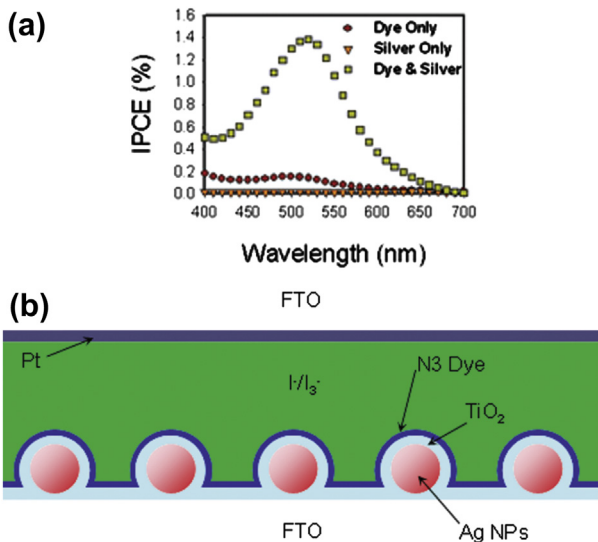


Fig. 18. (a) Incident photon-to-current conversion efficiency spectra of the DSSCs with silver nanoparticles and dye. (b) Configuration of solar cells containing silver nanoparticles and dye. From Ref. [107].

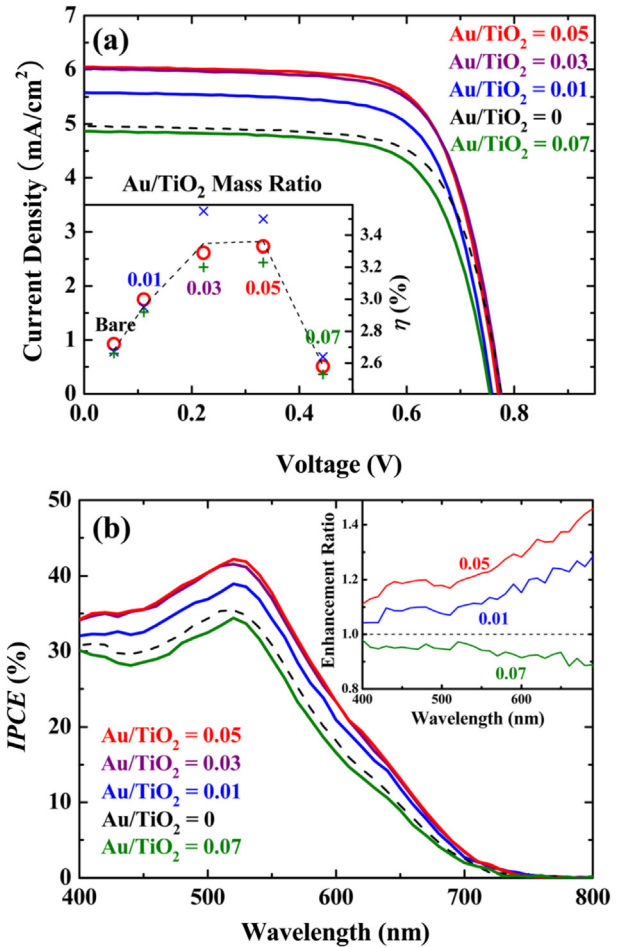


Fig. 19. (a) J - V characteristics of DSSCs at various Au/TiO_2 mass ratios. The inset shows the power-conversion efficiency of DSSCs with respect to the Au/TiO_2 mass ratio. (b) Incident photon-to-current conversion efficiency spectra of DSSCs at various Au/TiO_2 mass ratios. The IPCE enhancement ratios are also shown compared with the bare DSSC ($\text{Au}/\text{TiO}_2 = 0$) in the inset. Reprinted with permission from B. Park et al. [111]. Copyright 2011, American Institute of Physics.

metal nanoparticles, such as gold, aluminum, and silver. Hupp's group investigated the plasmon-enhanced absorption of the dyes by introducing silver nanoparticles [107]. Because the silver nanoparticles are corrosive in iodide electrolyte, they are conformably coated with a protective layer of TiO_2 by ALD (Fig. 18). From the IPCE measurement shown in Fig. 18(a), the cell with both dye and silver

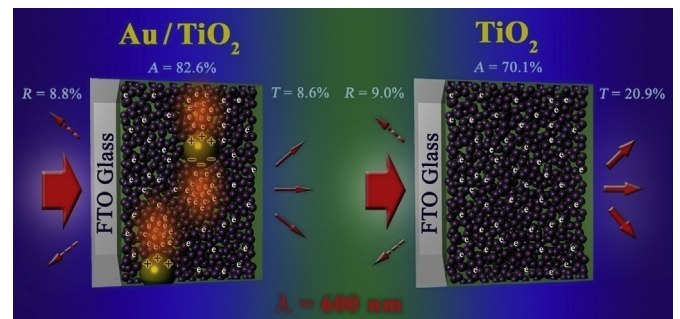


Fig. 20. Schematic figure representing the enhancement of Au/TiO_2 -DSSC. Field enhancement near the Au nanoparticles is depicted as orange-color regions. Reprinted with permission from B. Park et al. [111]. Copyright 2011, American Institute of Physics.

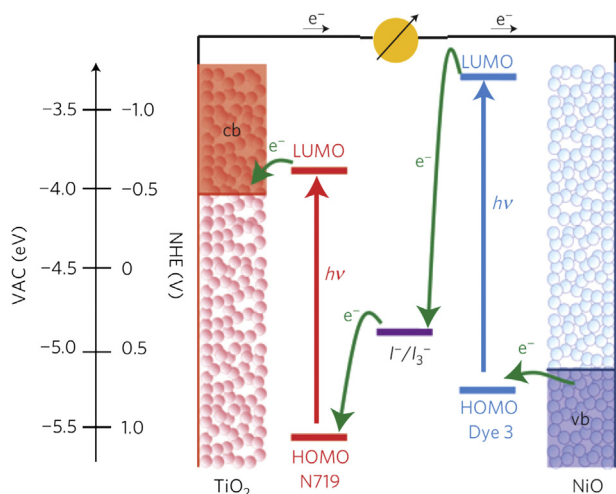


Fig. 21. Scheme for the electron-transfer processes occurring in the tandem-sensitized solar cell. Reprinted with permission from U. Bach et al. [116]. Copyright 2010, Nature Publishing Group.

nanoparticles exhibits higher IPCE peak value (~1.4%) compared to that made of the only dye (~0.2%) or only silver (~0%) samples. These results clearly confirm that spectra overlap between the dye and surface plasmon can give rise to an effective light absorption by the field-enhancement effect.

Recently, less-corrosive gold nanoparticles, as light-harvesting component, are incorporated to DSSCs system, and as a case study, the effects of 100-nm-diameter Au nanoparticles on the solar cell performance were investigated [111]. As shown in Fig. 19, the conversion efficiencies of Au/TiO₂ mixed cells are enhanced, which is mainly attributed to the increased current density. The IPCE enhancement ratio also reveals that the Au/TiO₂ mixed cell absorbs much more photons than the bare cell, particularly in the longer wavelength region (Fig. 19(b)). The electric field of incident light is strongly amplified by the oscillating surface charges in Au nanoparticles, yielding increased light absorption [133,134]. Therefore, more light can be absorbed by dye sensitizers, and more photocurrent can be generated in DSSCs, as shown in Fig. 20.

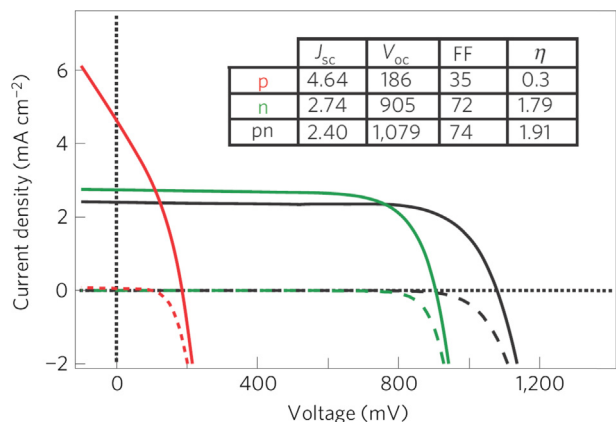


Fig. 22. J – V characteristics of a tandem solar cell (black) as well as p -type DSSCs (red) and n -type DSSCs (green) under illumination (solid lines) and in the dark (dashed lines). (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.) Reprinted with permission from U. Bach et al. [116]. Copyright 2010, Nature Publishing Group.

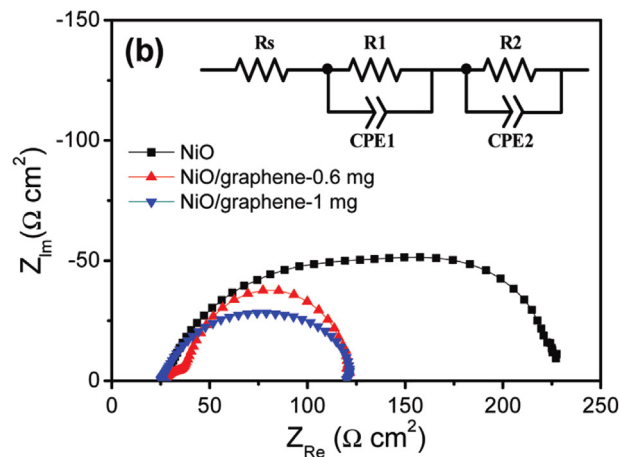
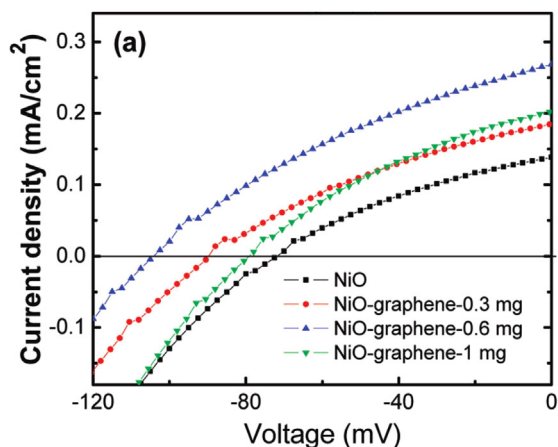


Fig. 23. (a) J – V characteristics of p -type DSSCs based on NiO and NiO/graphene composite films. (b) Nyquist plots of p -type DSSCs based on NiO and NiO/graphene composite electrodes. The inset displays the equivalent circuit of the devices. From Ref. [118].

4. p -type sensitized solar cell

4.1. p – n junction sensitized solar cell for high open-circuit voltage

Sensitized solar cell systems are generally composed of a nanoporous n -type semiconductors, such as TiO₂ and ZnO, coated with photosensitizers acting as an electron donor upon light excitation. In contrast, there is the limited number of studies on the sensitization of p -type semiconductors. The photoinjected hole transports into the valence band of the p -type semiconductor, of which the operating principle is just inverse scheme of the counterpart (n -type). The investigation of p -type sensitized solar cells is especially vital for the construction of tandem-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs and QDSCs). A scheme of tandem structure with the approximate energy levels is shown in Fig. 21. The tandem cell consists of a photoanode (n -type) and a photocathode (p -type) in a sandwich configuration with an intermediate electrolyte [116].

In tandem DSSCs, the maximum open-circuit voltage is determined by the difference between the conduction bandedge of the photoanode and the valence bandedge of the photocathode. The tandem (0.8 μ m TiO₂ and 3.3 μ m NiO) DSSC structure exhibits the V_{oc} of ~1.08 V, closely matching the sum of V_{oc} for n -type DSSC and p -type DSSC with similar short-circuit current to that of the n -type DSSC (Fig. 22). Therefore, the overall efficiency of tandem cell clearly exceeds that of the only n -type DSSC. However, the overall tandem efficiencies [116,121] are still considerably lower than those of conventional TiO₂-based DSSCs [9,10].

4.2. Modifications in *p*-type sensitized solar cell

The efficiencies of only *p*-type DSSCs are far below 0.5%, which limits the efficiency of tandem DSSCs drastically. Therefore, optimizing the power-conversion efficiency of *p*-type DSSCs is a key issue. As a photocathode, NiO has been widely adopted in that it is known as a large bandgap (3.5 eV) semiconductor with *p*-type nature as synthesized [135–137]. The main reason for the low efficiency in *p*-type DSSCs is that NiO has a low hole diffusivity ($\sim 10^{-8}$ cm²/s), which may limit the diffusion length of the hole carriers resulting in the loss of photogenerated holes through recombination [138,139]. Several investigations to reduce fast charge recombination in NiO are currently underway as it is one of the major issues for increasing the performance of *p*-type DSSCs [118–120,123].

To improve the charge-transport properties, Yang et al. suggested the NiO/graphene nanocomposite film [118]. Then, the injected holes in the NiO photocathode can be transferred more rapidly through the graphene nanosheets. The enhanced hole transport by graphene gives rise to the improved J_{sc} and V_{oc} , as shown in Fig. 23(a). They analyzed the charge-transfer kinetics in the NiO/graphene nanocomposite films: the semicircle in the middle frequencies ($1-10^2$ Hz) of the Nyquist plot can be assigned

to the hole-transport resistance in the nanoporous NiO electrode [140]. As shown in Fig. 23(b), the semicircles for the NiO/graphene electrodes are smaller than those of the bare NiO electrode, confirming that the carrier recombination of the composite-based *p*-type DSSCs is significantly suppressed due to the enhanced hole transport by the presence of conducting graphene.

Another approach for reducing hole recombination is the surface modification of NiO electrode with a nanoscale blocking layer of a wide bandgap material (Fig. 24(a)). In this respect, Wu's group coated porous NiO electrodes with Al₂O₃ by ALD. Even though the amount of adsorbed dye on the NiO–Al₂O₃ film is slightly lower than that on the bare NiO film (different from the DSSCs system with Al₂O₃ coating), Al₂O₃-coated NiO cell exhibits higher collection efficiency of injected holes compared to the bare cell (Fig. 24(b)). This nanoscale Al₂O₃ layer has effectively reduced the hole recombination at the NiO/electrolyte interface.

5. Conclusions

This paper has mainly focused on the various approaches in pursuit of developing highly efficient sensitized solar cells, most of which are devoted to nanoscale surface passivation and tailoring desired nanostructures for light-harvesting efficiency. The basic tactics of enhanced photovoltaic properties rely on the reduced carrier recombination at the various interfaces, improved light absorption by photon management, and construction of tandem structures. It is obvious that exploiting intelligent nanoscience/nanotechnology to overcome these prohibitive issues will be the essential for the future work of quantum-dot- and dye-sensitized solar cells.

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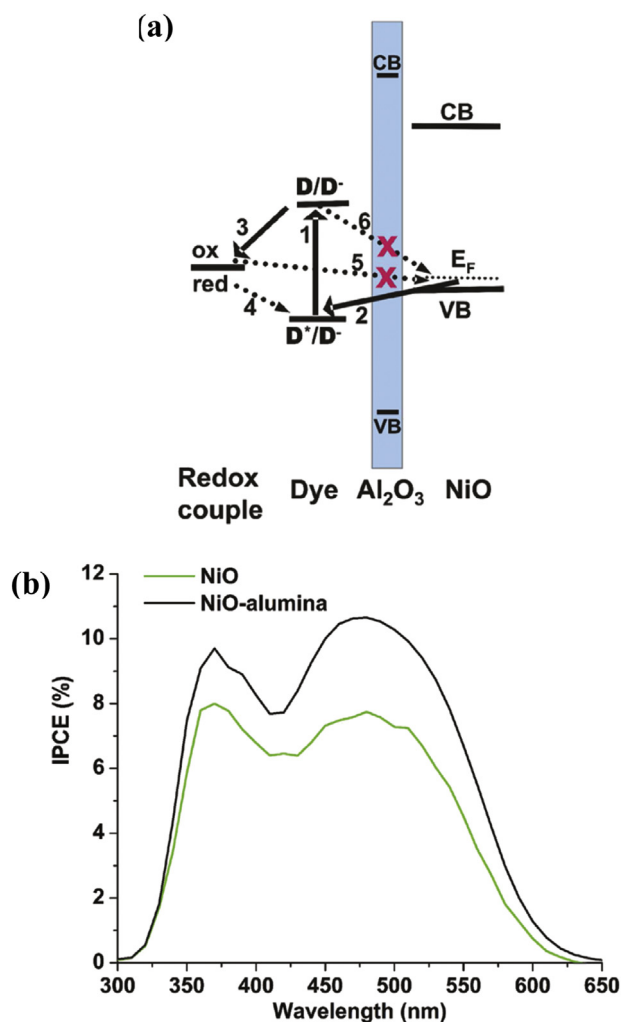


Fig. 24. (a) Schematic representation of the interfacial electron-transfer processes by the alumina-coating effect. (b) IPCE plots of *p*-type DSSCs fabricated from untreated NiO film and from a NiO film treated with 1 ALD cycle of alumina. From Ref. [120].

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