

Progress in Photovoltaic Technology:
The Advent of Dye Sensitized Semiconductors

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The production of electrical energy is one of the largest industries in the United States (2.8×10^{12} kWh in 1991). Power production is limited by the availability of natural resources, environmental concerns, and poor energy conversion efficiencies [1]. The only truly inexhaustible source of energy is solar radiation. The flux of solar energy incident with the atmosphere amounts to approximately 1.7×10^{17} W per year, 2.7×10^4 times human consumption [2]. The possibility of the direct conversion of light to electrical energy was first recognized in the photoelectrochemical cell reported by Edmond Becquerel in 1839. The study of modern photovoltaic systems began in 1954 with the work of Chapin, Pearson, and Rappaport [3]. These solid state photovoltaic cells are based on 1) p- or n-type doping to redistribute the charge density across the band gap and 2) semiconductors with narrow band gaps, i.e. GaAs (1.4 eV), CdSe (1.7 eV), c-Si (1.1 eV), [4] which absorb the majority of incident light.

The cell efficiency is dependent upon the ability of the cell to absorb incident light and preserve charge separation. The wavelength of light absorbed is directly dependent upon the width of the band gap [4]. The maximum theoretical efficiency for a single band gap material is dependent upon the absorption overlapping with solar radiation, i.e. for $E_g=1.5$ eV and an air-mass ratio of 0, the maximum efficiency is only 40.7% [5,6]. The doping of a semiconductor changes the potential energy of the Fermi level. Dopants change the concentration of holes in the valence band and electrons in the conduction bands by localizing charge on the dopant. When a hole-doped material is brought in contact with an electron-doped material, a p-n junction is formed and a potential develops across the interface of the two materials. A similar event occurs in Schottky-type junctions, where a semiconductor is in contact with a metal or an electrolytic solution [Figure 1].

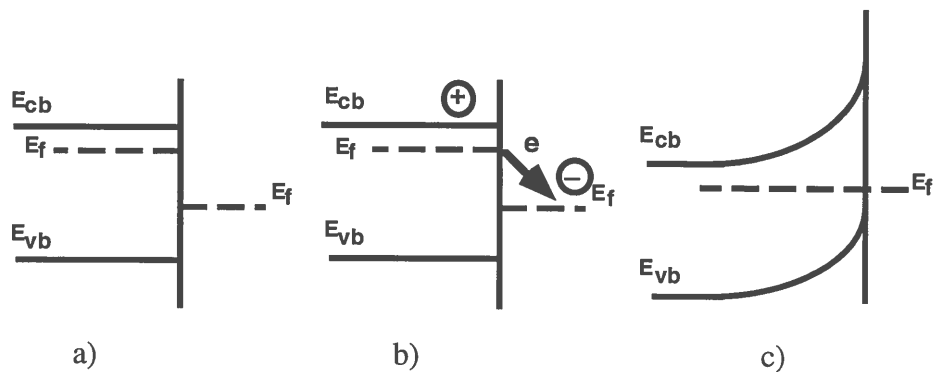


Figure 1. The formation of a Schottky-type barrier, a) n-type semiconductor and metal (or electrolyte) before junction formation, b) Immediately after junction formation electrons flow out of the semiconductor into the lower energy Fermi level of the metal, c) the equilibrium potential at the junction bends the conduction and valence bands.

The photoelectrochemical cell is based on a semiconductor-electrolyte Schottky-type junction [Figure 2a]. Such devices are easier to manufacture than the purely solid state cell but the instability of the semiconductor limits their practical use in photovoltaic arrays [7]. The photodecay of the semiconductor is related to the rate of charge capture by the intended agent in solution. The rate constant for the heterogeneous charge transfer (charge capture), by the Marcus/Gerischer theory, is dependent upon the reorganization energy for the donor and acceptor species and the diffusion of the solution species to the surface [8]. These factors, which limit the rate of the regeneration of the photoaccepting species, are important in all “wet” photovoltaic cells.

Like the photoelectrochemical cell, the photogalvanic cell is based on a solution-semiconductor contact. The major differences in the designs are 1) the electrolytic solution in the photoelectrochemical cell is replaced by a solvated photoactive dye and 2) the small band gap semiconductor is replaced with a wide band gap semiconductor, e.g. TiO_2 , SnO_2 , ZnO [9]. While photocorrosion of the semiconductor is no longer a major inconvenience, the efficiency of photogalvanic cells is severely limited by the inability of the excited molecule to diffuse to the semiconductor surface before undergoing radiative decay.

Recently, strides have been made in the development of a third type of “wet” photovoltaic cell [10], where colloidal TiO_2 (a wide band gap semiconductor) attached to a conducting surface ($\text{SnO}_2:\text{F}$) is sensitized to visible light by an adsorbed inorganic dye [11]. The most efficient dyes are derivatives of the *cis*- $\text{X}_2(2,2'$ -bipyridyl-4,4'-dicarboxylate) $_2\text{M}(\text{II})$ dication ($\text{X} = \text{Cl}, \text{Br}, \text{I}, \text{CN}, \text{SCN}$; $\text{M} = \text{Ru}, \text{Os}$) [12]. These cells have displayed maximum efficiencies of 10% and incident-photon-to-current efficiencies greater than 90%.

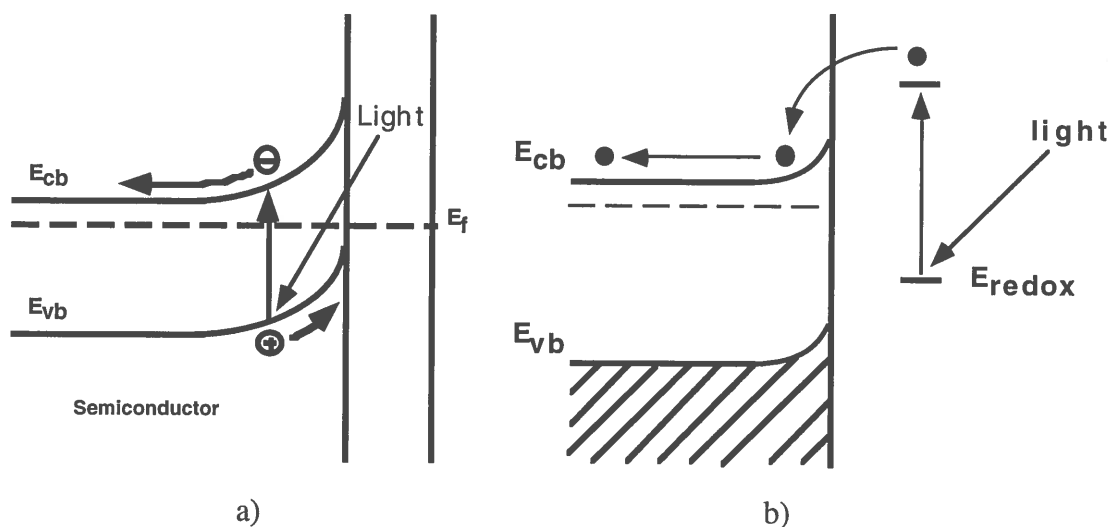


Figure 2. Separation of charges in different types of photovoltaic cells, a) light absorption by semiconductor and separation at a Schottky-type barrier (eg. “Dry” solar cells based on Schottky-type junctions or photoelectrochemical cells), b) light absorption by dye and dye-semiconductor charge separation (eg. photogalvanic cells or dye sensitized semiconductors).

The design of dye sensitized wide band gap photovoltaic cells resulted directly from the observed difficulties in other systems. The use of wide band gap semiconductors is advantageous due to their optical clarity and their resistance to photocorrosion. The design of meso-

porous films greatly increases the surface concentration of the absorbing dye and thereby increases the efficiency of light absorption for the cell. Finally, the adsorption of the photoactive dye on the semiconductor allows for rapid, direct injection of electrons into the surface [Figure 2b] and greatly reduces radiative decay, which is the principal disadvantage of photogalvanic cells. The desire to improve the efficiencies of dye sensitized cells has led to efforts focused on the derivitization of the dye by either ligand augmentation [13] or antenna functionalization [11b] and to investigations of the binding of the dye to the electrode surface [14].

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