

# Comparative Study of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> Photoanodes for Nitro-Substituted Naphthoquinone Photosensitizer-Based Solar Cells

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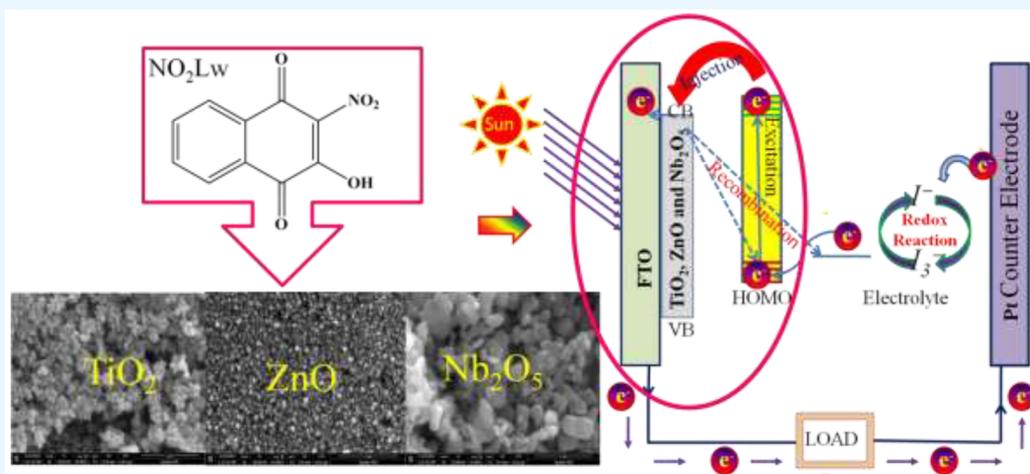
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**ABSTRACT:** This research focuses on the first demonstration of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw (2-hydroxy-3-nitronaphthalene-1,4-dione) as a photosensitizer and TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> as photoanode materials for dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs). The metal-free organic photosensitizer (i.e., nitro-group-substituted naphthoquinone, NO<sub>2</sub>Lw) was synthesized for this purpose. As a photoanode material, metal oxides, such as TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, were selected. The synthesized NO<sub>2</sub>Lw contains an electron-withdrawing group (–NO<sub>2</sub>) and anchoring groups (–OH) that exhibit absorption in the visible range. The UV–visible absorbance spectrum of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw demonstrates the absorption ascribed to ultraviolet and visible region charge transfer. The NO<sub>2</sub>Lw interacts with the TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode, as shown by bathochromic shifts in wavelengths in the photosensitizer-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes. FT-IR analysis also studied the bonding interaction between NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode material. The TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes loaded with NO<sub>2</sub>Lw exhibit a shift in the wavenumber of the functional groups, indicating that these groups were involved in loading the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photosensitizer. The amount of photosensitizer loading was calculated, showing that TiO<sub>2</sub> has higher loading than ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes; this factor may constitute an increased *J*<sub>SC</sub> value of the TiO<sub>2</sub> photoanode. The device performance is compared using photocurrent–voltage (*J*–*V*) curves; electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurement examines the device’s charge transport. The TiO<sub>2</sub> photoanode showed higher performance than the ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes in terms of photoelectrochemical properties. When compared to ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes-based DSSCs, the TiO<sub>2</sub> photoanode Bode plot shows a signature frequency peak corresponding to electron recombination rate toward the low-frequency region, showing that TiO<sub>2</sub> has a greater electron lifetime than ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes based DSSCs.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Energy becomes sustainable when it is harvested from naturally occurring sources without having a negative impact on the environment.<sup>1</sup> Sustainable energy includes all renewable energy sources like geothermal, biomass, wind, tidal, and solar, apart from others.<sup>2</sup> It helps in maintaining the natural environment by using eco-friendly materials to serve the ever-increasing needs of the growing world population.<sup>3</sup> It is a viable energy source compared to the traditional sources,

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**Table 1. DSSCs Performance of Different Semiconducting Oxides as Photoanode Material with Several Synthesized Derivatives of Quinone-based Photosensitizer from the Literature along with NO<sub>2</sub>Lw Photosensitizer**

Photoanode Material	Photosensitizer	$\lambda_{\max}$ (nm)	$E_{0-0}$ (eV)	$V_{oc}$ (V)	$J_{sc}$ (mA/cm <sup>2</sup> )	FF	PCE (%)	Ref.
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-chloro-3[(pyridine-2-ylmethyl)amino]naphthalene-1,4-dione (2AMP)	458	2.42	0.54	0.69	61	0.22	59
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-chloro-3[(pyridine-3-ylmethyl)amino]naphthalene-1,4-dione (3AMP)	460	2.33	0.51	0.65	83	0.27	59
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-chloro-3[(2-pyridine-2-ylethyl)amino]naphthalene-1,4-dione (2AEP)	466	2.37	0.50	0.53	54	0.14	59
ZnO	2-chloro-3[(pyridine-2-ylmethyl)amino]naphthalene-1,4-dione (2AMP)	458	2.42	0.53	0.68	60	0.22	59
ZnO	2-chloro-3[(pyridine-3-ylmethyl)amino]naphthalene-1,4-dione (3AMP)	460	2.33	0.52	0.64	69	0.23	59
ZnO	2-chloro-3[(2-pyridine-2-ylethyl)amino]naphthalene-1,4-dione (2AEP)	466	2.37	0.30	0.57	66	0.11	59
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-hydroxy-3-[phenyl(phenylamino)methyl]naphthalene-1,4-dione (4a)	411	2.68	0.29	0.035	50	–	57
ZnO	4-(3-chloro-1,4-dioxo-1,4-dihydronaphthalen-2-ylamino) benzoic acid	482	2.75	0.392	3.196	60	0.75	60
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-hydroxy-3-[(4-methoxyphenyl)(p-tolylamino)methyl]naphthalene-1,4-dione (4-OMe)	456	2.20	0.36	0.053	57	0.01	58
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-hydroxy-3-[p-toly (p-tolylamino)methyl] naphthalene-1,4-dione (4-Me)	444	2.20	0.37	0.045	56	0.009	58
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-[(4-Bromophenyl) (p-tolylamino)methyl]-3-hydroxy naphthalene-1,4-dione (4-Br)	454	2.30	0.34	0.034	58	0.007	58
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-[(2-Chlorophenyl) (p-tolylamino)methyl]-3-hydroxy naphthalene-1,4-dione (2-Cl)	433	2.30	0.31	0.026	54	0.004	58
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-[(2,4-Dichlorophenyl) (p-tolylamino)methyl]-3-hydroxy naphthalene-1,4-dione (2,4-diCl)	455	2.30	0.26	0.022	46	0.003	58
TiO <sub>2</sub> NR (300 °C)	2-bromo-3-(methylamino)naphthalene-1,4-dione (BrA1)	471	2.33	0.50	0.48	44	0.10	61
TiO <sub>2</sub> NR (400 °C)	2-bromo-3-(methylamino)naphthalene-1,4-dione (BrA1)	471	2.33	0.55	0.60	48	0.16	61
TiO <sub>2</sub> NR (500 °C)	2-bromo-3-(methylamino)naphthalene-1,4-dione (BrA1)	471	2.33	0.52	0.63	46	0.15	61
TiO <sub>2</sub> NR (600 °C)	2-bromo-3-(methylamino)naphthalene-1,4-dione (BrA1)	471	2.33	0.51	0.55	40	0.11	61
ZrO <sub>2</sub>	6-methyl-5H-benzo[ $\alpha$ ]phenothiazin-5-one	477	1.88	0.42	3.01	20	1.64	62
ZnO	2-hydroxy-1,4-naphthoquinone	462	–	0.52	1.80	62	0.56	63
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-hydroxy-1,4-naphthoquinone	410	2.70	0.54	0.92	50	0.31	64
TiO <sub>2</sub>	3-hydroxy-4-(hydroxyimino) naphthalen -1 (4H)-one (LwOx)	407	2.85	0.41	0.28	37	0.04	65
TiO <sub>2</sub>	3-hydroxy-4-(hydroxyimino)-2- methylnaphthalen -1(4H)-one (PthOx)	413	2.71	0.28	0.15	32	0.01	65
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-chloro-3-hydroxy-4-(hydroxyimino) naphthalen-1(4H)-one (Cl_LwOx)	402	2.87	0.47	0.78	38	0.14	65
ZnO	2-propylamino-1,4-naphthoquinone (HA3)	452	–	0.29	1.21	35	0.12	66
ZnO	2-butylamino-1,4-naphthoquinone (HA4)	452	–	0.32	0.71	38	0.09	66
ZnO	2-bromo-3-propylamino-1,4-naphthoquinone (BrA3)	471	–	0.33	1.01	39	0.13	66
ZnO	2-bromo-3-butylamino-1,4-naphthoquinone (BrA4)	471	–	0.31	1.66	38	0.20	66
TiO <sub>2</sub>	10-Chloro-6-methyl-5H benzo[ $\alpha$ ]phenoxazin-5-one (BPO_Cl)	451	2.49	0.56	0.430	–	–	67
TiO <sub>2</sub>	6-methyl-5H-benzo[ $\alpha$ ]phenoxazin-5-one (BPO)	440	2.52	0.53	0.440	–	–	67
TiO <sub>2</sub>	6-methyl-5H-benzo[ $\alpha$ ]phenothiazin-5-one (BPT)	474	2.33	0.49	0.240	–	–	67
ZnO	2-((thiophen-2-yl)methylamino)-3-chloro-naphthalene-1,4-dione (AMT)	464	–	0.21	0.17	60	0.02	68
ZnO	2-((thiophen-2-yl)ethylamino)-3-chloro-naphthalene-1,4-dione (AET)	469	–	0.22	0.22	59	0.03	68
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-((thiophen-2-yl)methylamino)-3-chloro-naphthalene-1,4-dione (AMT)	464	–	0.41	1.73	33	0.23	68
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-((thiophen-2-yl)ethylamino)-3-chloro-naphthalene-1,4-dione (AET)	469	–	0.42	1.73	44	0.32	68
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-hydroxy-1,4-naphthoquinone	–	–	0.66	2.21	63	0.93	69
P-type NiO	KuQCH <sub>3</sub>	–	2.17	0.90	0.74	35	0.02	70
P-type NiO	KuQ <sub>3</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> H	–	2.21	0.92	0.74	35	0.02	70
P-type NiO	KuQ <sub>8</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> H	–	2.19	0.99	0.63	36	0.02	70
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2-hydroxy-3-nitronaphthalene-1,4-dione (NO <sub>2</sub> Lw)	391	2.87	0.44	0.82	40	0.14	present study
ZnO	2-hydroxy-3-nitronaphthalene-1,4-dione (NO <sub>2</sub> Lw)	391	2.87	0.23	0.31	32	0.02	present study
Nb <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	2-hydroxy-3-nitronaphthalene-1,4-dione (NO <sub>2</sub> Lw)	391	2.87	0.24	0.16	42	0.01	present study

which are causing a tremendous load on Earth's ecosystem.<sup>4</sup> The entire world is already witnessing global warming and ever-increasing carbon emissions, leading to a pressing need of fulfilling global energy demand by using sustainable sources.<sup>5</sup>

Most daily activities require tremendous energy usage around the globe, leading to an excessive energy consumption. As the population and industrialization continue to grow, global energy consumption is rising quickly. One of this research's main aims is to meet the increasing global demand for energy consumption.<sup>6,7</sup> As a substitute for fossil fuels, nonfossil energy from clean sources is used. Examples of such sources include wind, water, biomass, geothermal, and solar energy because they are self-sufficient and less harmful to the ecosystem.<sup>8–11</sup> Solar energy is one of the most promising nonfossil options for tackling energy challenges with a less detrimental impact on the ecology.<sup>12,13</sup> Solar cells are an efficient device to convert solar energy into electrical energy<sup>14,15</sup> to meet the rising demand for energy around the globe.

Crystalline silicon performs reliably and efficiently and is considered the main compound in solar cell technology.<sup>16</sup> Still, it would be interesting to find cheaper alternatives due to the high cost of these complex technologies and expensive methods. Solar cells made of crystalline silicon are more costly and have a limited application.<sup>17,18</sup> Perovskite,<sup>19,20</sup> quantum-dot,<sup>21</sup> and dye<sup>22</sup>-sensitized solar cells are examples of third-generation solar cell technology that has met the requirement of a low-cost, straightforward fabrication process.<sup>23–26</sup> Over the past few years, dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) have emerged as promising third-generation solar cell technology.<sup>27,28</sup> DSSCs make use of photovoltaic energy, making use of nontoxic and environment-friendly materials.<sup>29</sup> DSSCs have generated a lot of research attention because of their simple manufacturing process, low cost, ease of scaling up, non-toxicity, lighter weight,<sup>30</sup> and potential usage of the flexible substrate with transparent and colorful nature.<sup>31</sup>

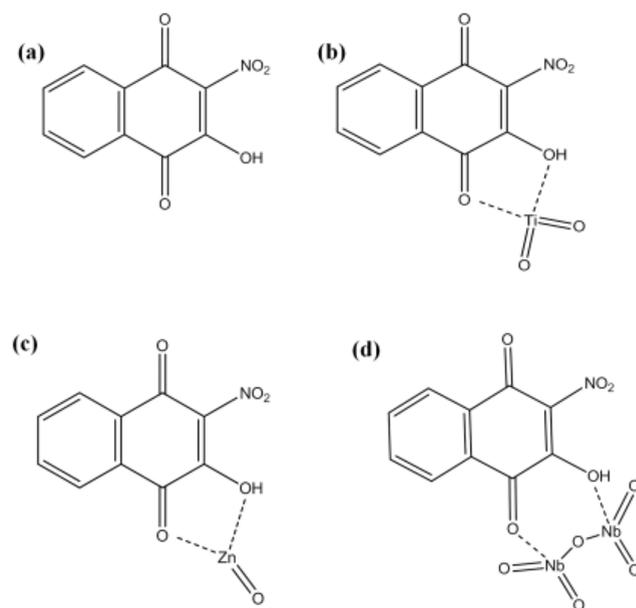
The four main components used in the fabrication of DSSCs are the photoanode material (semiconductor), the dye molecule (a photosensitizer), the redox electrolyte, and the counter electrode.<sup>32–37</sup> In 1991, Grätzel and O'Regan published the first study on DSSCs using N3 dye as a photosensitizer.<sup>38</sup> Numerous studies in this field since the original work on DSSCs have primarily shown that various dyes (photosensitizers) have been molecularly engineered and used in DSSCs.<sup>39–41</sup> The production of novel photosensitizers that can be developed in DSSCs is an essential component affecting device efficiency.<sup>42–44</sup>

In the DSSCs, dyes based on ruthenium metals are primarily used as photosensitizers. In contrast, metal-free organic dyes have begun to take the position of ruthenium-metal-based dye.<sup>45,46</sup> Organic dyes are more affordable and environmentally friendly, with more significant molecular extinction coefficients and easily adjustable photophysical and electrochemical properties than their ruthenium-metal-based dye.<sup>47,48</sup> The compatibility of the photosensitizer is determined by understanding the molecular structures of these organic dyes and connecting them to their optical absorption spectral responses.<sup>49</sup> The photovoltaic performance of fabricated DSSCs can be reorganized following the photophysical, electrochemical, and structure–property relationships.<sup>50</sup> One essential molecular design requirement for DSSCs has been discovered as the donor-bridge-acceptor (*D*– $\pi$ –*A*) system.<sup>51</sup> It showed improved solar spectrum light harvesting in visible

regions.<sup>52</sup> Because it impacts the electrochemical and optical characteristics of the photosensitizer, intermolecular charge transfer (ICT) from donor to acceptor is essential for ensuring that DSSCs function correctly.<sup>53</sup> A photosensitizer's capacity for effective ICT from the HOMO localized donor moiety to the LUMO localized acceptor moiety correlates with enhanced light absorption and a lower HOMO–LUMO gap.<sup>54</sup>

Henna plant leaves are used to extract henna dyes. Henna leaves contain a derivative of naphthoquinone called 2-hydroxy-1,4-naphthoquinone (Lawsone). Using natural photosensitizers like Lawsone in DSSCs could be an eco-friendly and sustainable alternative to commercially available metal-based photosensitizers, often used to fabricate DSSCs. Semiconducting wide band gap materials such as TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, CeO<sub>2</sub>, and SnO<sub>2</sub> are employed as photoanode materials. These materials do not have an environmental impact during their manufacture and disposal process.<sup>55</sup> Metal-free organic photosensitizers such as coumarin and triphenylamine-, indoline-, and quinone-based photosensitizers are environmentally friendly compared to metal-containing photosensitizers.<sup>56</sup> Organic photosensitizers based on a naphthoquinone derivative has been used as an environmentally safe photosensitizer.<sup>57</sup> Naphthoquinone derivatives have an extensive range of molecular structures which could be used as photosensitizers.<sup>58</sup> Table 1 shows the DSSCs performance of different semiconducting oxides as photoanode materials with several synthesized derivatives of quinone-based photosensitizers from the literature along with NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photosensitizer.

In the present investigation, a nitro-substituted naphthoquinone (NO<sub>2</sub>Lw)-based photosensitizer was synthesized and has the molecular structure depicted in Figure 1a. NO<sub>2</sub>Lw was synthesized with electron-withdrawing groups (–NO<sub>2</sub>). On the moiety part, the impact of electron-withdrawing (–NO<sub>2</sub>) substitutions is investigated concerning the photovoltaic performance of DSSCs. Specific appropriate peripheral



**Figure 1.** Molecular structure of photosensitizer (a) NO<sub>2</sub>Lw (2-hydroxy-3-nitronaphthalene-1,4-dione) and schematic of the possible structure interfacial contact between (b) NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and TiO<sub>2</sub>, (c) NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and ZnO, and (d) NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>.

(-OH) functional groups for adsorption on the TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> surface are present in the photosensitizer.<sup>71,72</sup>

The lone pair of oxygens (hydroxyl group and carbonyl group) forms the bidentate complex by creating a five-member ring. Thus, the interface between the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> is developed. The possible schematic interfacial contact structures of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> are shown in Figures 1b, c, and d, respectively. The interaction of the hydroxyl group of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw molecules with the valence-unfilled TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> surface facilitates the adsorption of the hydroxyl group of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw molecules on the TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> surface. As a result of our investigation into naphthoquinone-based photosensitizers, the NO<sub>2</sub>-substituted naphthoquinone-based photosensitizer has been reported by using the approach described in this article. This is the first demonstration of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> as photoanodes and NO<sub>2</sub>Lw as a photosensitizer for the DSSC application. Depending upon the energy levels of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw, the conduction bands (CBs) of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, and the amount of photosensitizer loading, we have successfully demonstrated the photovoltaic effect.

## 2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

### 2.1. Preparation of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> Pastes.

Using commercial TiO<sub>2</sub> (P25 Degussa, Nanoshel LLC, USA), ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (Merck) nanopowders, TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> pastes, respectively, were prepared by homogenizing each sample with ethylcellulose (SDFCL) and anhydrous  $\alpha$ -terpineol (Kemphasol Ltd., India) as follows. First, the respective TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> nanopowders and ethylcellulose were introduced to a mortar and continuously ground for 15 min while adding ethanol (Changshu, China) gradually. Each mixture was then homogenized for 2 h in an ultrasonic bath before adding  $\alpha$ -terpineol. Two to three drops of acetylacetone (HPCL, India) were added to the (TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) dispersions, and homogenization was carried out in an ultrasonic bath for 3 h.<sup>36,63,67</sup>

**2.2. Preparation of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> Photoanodes and Fabrication of DSSCs.** Using the chemical bath deposition technique (CBD), the compact TiO<sub>2</sub> layer was first deposited before the porous (TiO<sub>2</sub> and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) layer, as similarly reported.<sup>73,74</sup> Before the porous (ZnO) layer was deposited, the compact ZnO layer was prepared using successive ionic layer adsorption and reaction (SILAR) techniques similarly reported.<sup>37</sup> The as-deposited compact ZnO and TiO<sub>2</sub> film was annealed at 450 °C for 1 h. Compact TiO<sub>2</sub>-deposited FTO (fluorine-doped tin oxide) deposits a porous layer of (TiO<sub>2</sub> and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>), while compact ZnO-deposited FTO deposits a porous layer of (ZnO). On compact TiO<sub>2</sub>-deposited FTO, (TiO<sub>2</sub> and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) paste was coated; in compact ZnO-deposited FTO, (ZnO) paste was coated using the Doctor blade method. All the (TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) photoanodes were dried using an incubator and air-annealed at 450 °C for 1 h.

0.05 M NO<sub>2</sub>Lw solutions were prepared in ethanol, and the annealed (TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) photoanode were immersed for 72 h. This (TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) photoanode was utilized to fabricate DSSCs after photosensitizer loading.

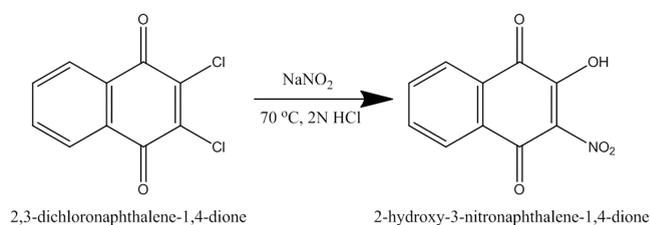
A 4  $\mu$ m spacer was added between the platinum-coated FTO counter electrode and the (TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) photoanode to avoid direct contact. The redox electrolyte solution was utilized as a liquid electrolyte. It contained 0.5 M lithium iodide (SRL, India), 0.05 M iodine (Fisher Scientific, USA),

and 0.5 M tertiary butylpyridine (ACROS Organics, Belgium) solution in acetonitrile (SDFCL, India, used as received).<sup>36</sup>

**2.3. Characterization.** By using X-ray diffraction (Bruker D8, with Cu K $\alpha$   $\lambda$  = 0.154 nm) at 20–80°, the crystal structure and crystalline size of the photoanodes were studied. JEM-2010 field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) (SUPRA40VP, Germany) was employed to examine the surface morphologies of photoanodes. The shape and size of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> nanoparticles and selective area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns were studied using transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (TECNAI 12 G2 TEM). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy analysis of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> was used to characterize the elemental composition with chemical states (XPS: M/s Thermo Fisher Scientific Instrument UK, K Alpha+) with Al K $\alpha$  monochromator radiation at 12 kV and 6 mA beam current. The UV–visible absorption spectra of the photosensitizer were measured (SHIMADZU UV 1650), and emission spectra were obtained using a spectrofluorometer (JASCO FP-8300). The Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) spectra of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode were measured (BRUKER VERTEX by SHIMADZUFT 8400 Spectrometer). The Raman spectra are recorded by Renishaw with a He–Ne laser at 785 nm as the excitation source. Using CH equipment with an electrochemical analyzer (CHI 6054E), the photosensitizer cyclic voltammetry (CV) measurement was carried out in ethanol as the solvent. Using a potentiostat (Vertex IVIUM Technologies Netherlands), EIS measurement performs over the frequency range of 10<sup>6</sup>–10<sup>0</sup> under dark illumination at the voltage that corresponds to open-circuit voltage. Keithley 2400 source meter and solar simulator (ENLITECH model SS-F5–3A) were used to analyze the photocurrent density–voltage ( $J$ – $V$ ) characteristic curve of the fabricated DSSCs under 100 mW/cm<sup>2</sup> illumination.

**2.4. Synthesis of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw (2-Hydroxy-3-nitronaphthalene-1,4-dione).** Using Scheme 1, NO<sub>2</sub>Lw (2-hydroxy-3-

**Scheme 1. Synthesis of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw (2-Hydroxy-3-nitronaphthalene-1,4-dione)**



nitronaphthalene-1,4-dione) was synthesized. This procedure involved dissolving 0.03 mol (6.81 g) of dichlorone (2,3-dichloronaphthalene-1,4-dione) in 38 mL of methanol and 0.10 mol (6.90 g) of sodium nitrite (NaNO<sub>2</sub>) in 52 mL of water and mixing both solutions in a round-bottom flask. The mixture was warmed at 70 °C continuously for 2.5 h. After heating the solution, the mixture was kept aside for 1 h. A red-colored precipitate was formed, which was then dissolved in warm water. After the reaction mixture was neutralized with 2 N hydrochloric acid, a residue of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw (2-hydroxy-3-nitronaphthalene-1,4-dione), which was yellow, was produced.<sup>75</sup>

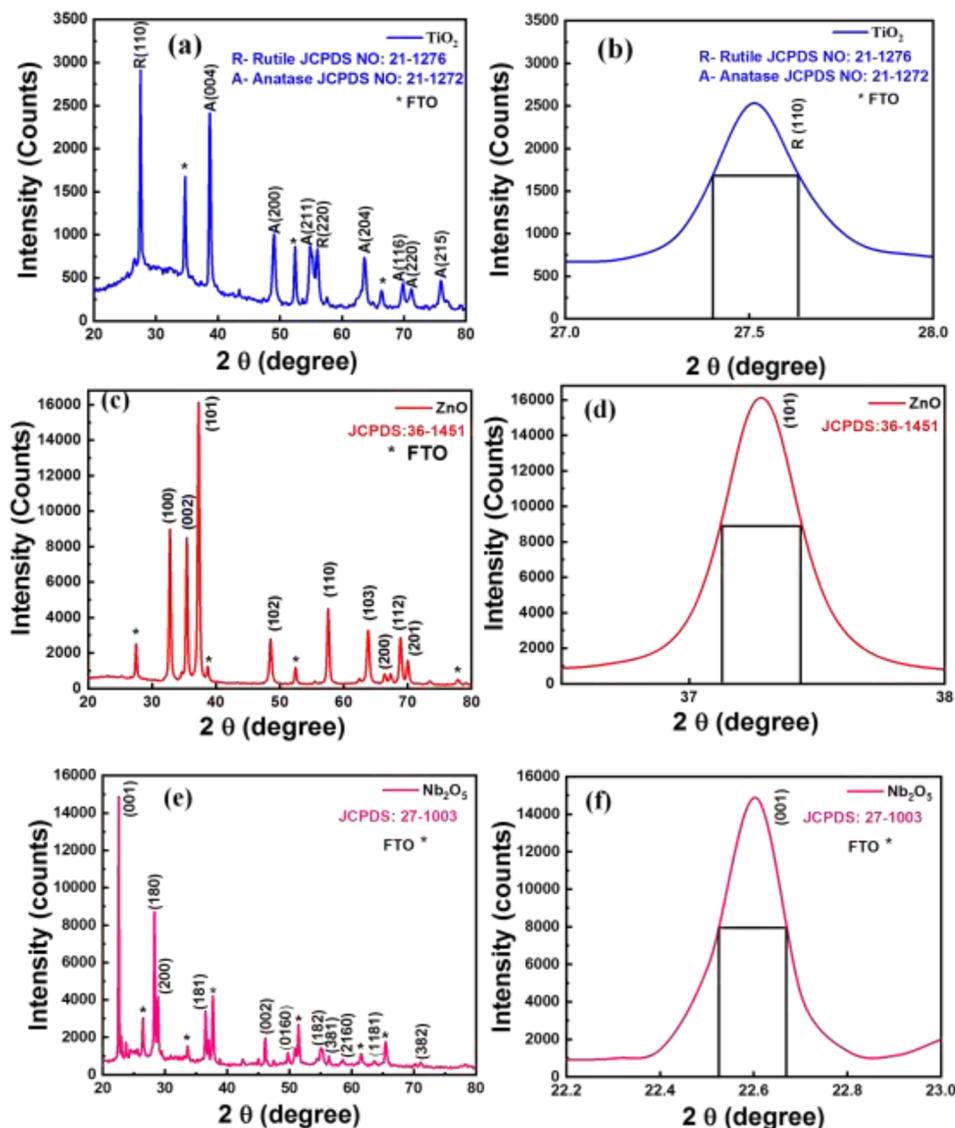


Figure 2. X-ray diffraction patterns and crystallite size calculation of (a, b)  $\text{TiO}_2$ , (c, d)  $\text{ZnO}$ , and (e, f)  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  photoanodes.

### 3. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

**3.1. Structural Properties of  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ , and  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  Photoanode.** The  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ , and  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  photoanode crystal structure and crystalline size were determined using the X-ray diffraction pattern, as shown in Figures 2a/b, c/d, and e/f, respectively.

The  $\text{TiO}_2$  photoanode deposited on FTO is depicted in Figure 2a/b with its X-ray diffraction pattern and the full width at half-maximum (fwhm) of (110) peaks. The obtained XRD pattern was compared to the standard data, and it was found that the crystal planes of the anatase phase were confirmed by comparison with JCPDS card no. 21–1272, while the rutile phase<sup>76</sup> was verified by comparison with JCPDS card no. 21–1276. The Scherrer formula<sup>77,78</sup> was used to determine the crystallite size of  $\text{TiO}_2$ . The crystallite size of the  $\text{TiO}_2$  was determined to be  $\sim 37$  nm.

The X-ray diffraction patterns and the fwhm of (101) peaks of the  $\text{ZnO}$  photoanode deposited on FTO are displayed in Figure 2c/d. The obtained XRD pattern was compared to the available data and found to match the JCPDS card no. 36–1451 for  $\text{ZnO}$ , confirming the formation of the wurtzite

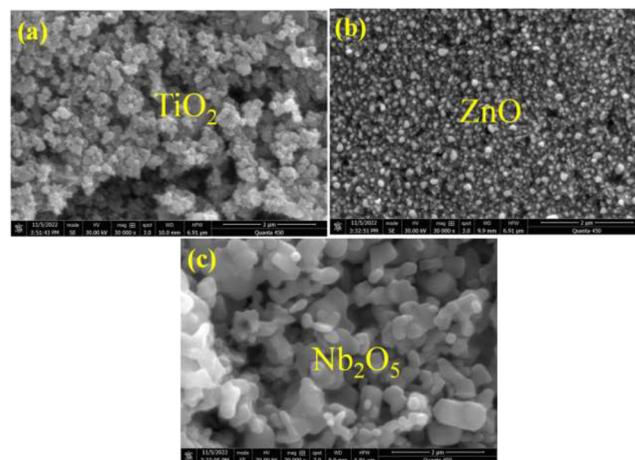
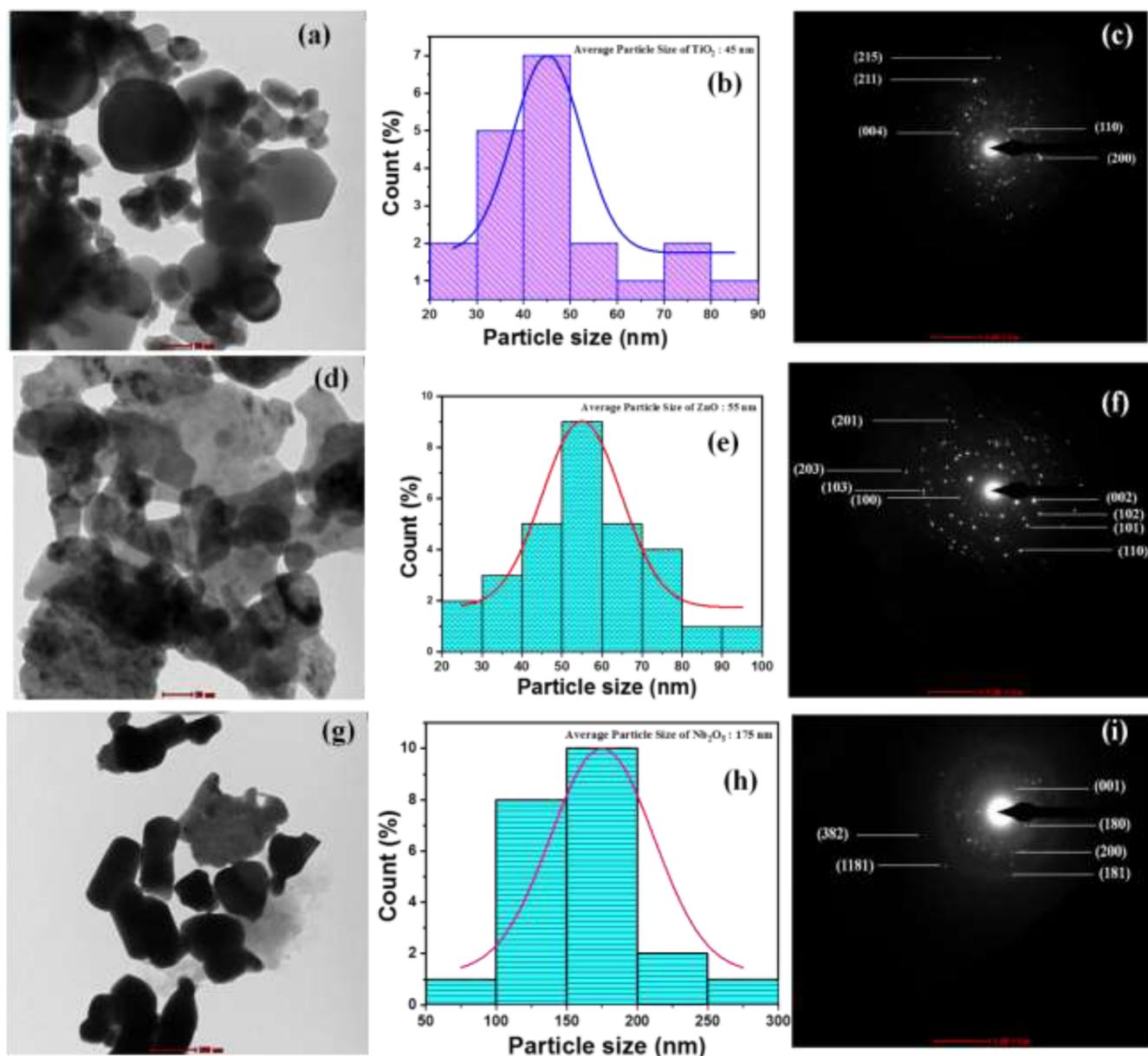


Figure 3. Surface morphology of (a)  $\text{TiO}_2$ , (b)  $\text{ZnO}$ , and (c)  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  photoanodes.

structure showing a hexagonal phase for  $\text{ZnO}$ .<sup>79</sup> The crystallite size of the  $\text{ZnO}$  was found to be  $\sim 52$  nm.



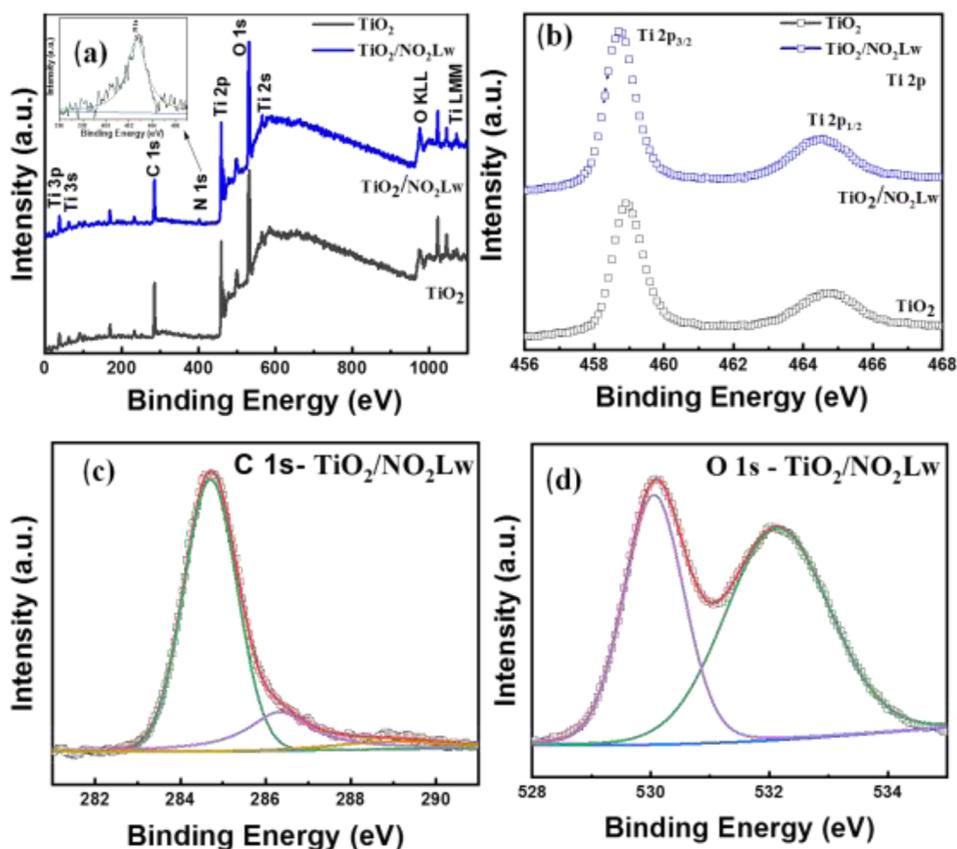
**Figure 4.** (a, d, g) TEM micrographs, (b, e, h) particle size histogram, and (c, f, i) selective area electron diffraction pattern of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, ZnO nanoparticles, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> submicron-particles, respectively.

The Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode deposits on FTO are depicted in Figure 2e/f, which shows the X-ray diffraction patterns and the fwhm of (001) peaks. According to JCPDS card no. 27-1003, the orthorhombic structure of the Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode is confirmed by its X-ray diffraction patterns.<sup>80,81</sup> The crystallite size of the Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> was found to be ~56 nm.

**3.2. Morphological Surface Analysis of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> Photoanodes.** The FE-SEM technique was used to examine the surface morphologies of the TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes. FE-SEM images of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes are shown in Figure 3a–c. The spherical shape and porous morphology of the high-density TiO<sub>2</sub> clusters are depicted in Figure 3a. The TiO<sub>2</sub> photoanode porous structure boosts the quantity of photosensitizer loading by offering a high surface area resulting in increased fabricated device efficiency.<sup>66,82–84</sup> The ZnO photoanode surface morphology shown in Figure 3b, deposited by using the

Doctor blade technique, exhibits uniformly distributed nano-grains with porous morphology. Pores of submicrometer size are seen to be evenly dispersed across the entire ZnO photoanode surface. Since light harvesting efficiency depends on the amount of efficient photosensitizer adsorbed on the photoanode surface,<sup>68</sup> ZnO photoanode's porous characteristic is crucial to achieving improved light harvesting.<sup>85,86</sup> Figure 3c FE-SEM image shows the surface morphology of the Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode presented. The Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode deposited by the Doctor blade technique reveals irregular spherical particles of well-defined shape.<sup>87–90</sup>

The porosity observed in the TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes facilitates the adsorption of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw molecules, which allows the photosensitizer molecules to penetrate the porous TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode so that they get attached to the interfacial surface.<sup>91–93</sup>



**Figure 5.** (a) XPS survey spectra and (b) core level XPS spectra of Ti 2p of TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanodes. Core level XPS spectra of (c) C 1s and (d) O 1s of TiO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanode.

**3.3. Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM).** Figure 4a–i displays TEM micrographs, particle size histograms, and selective area electron diffraction (SAED) patterns of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles (Figure 4a–c), ZnO nanoparticles (Figure 4d–f), and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> submicron-particles (Figure 4g–i).

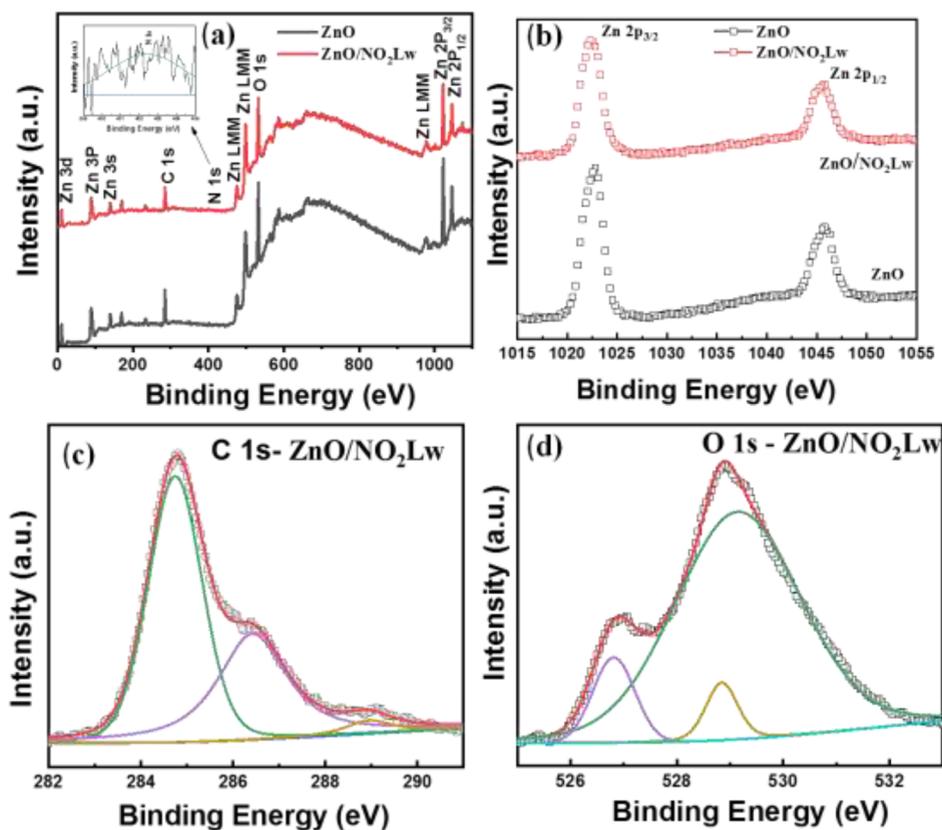
Figure 4a/d/g shows a TEM micrograph of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> with spherical TiO<sub>2</sub> particles.<sup>94</sup> In the instance of ZnO, it was found to have agglomerated nanoparticles,<sup>95</sup> whereas Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> contains irregular submicron-particles.<sup>96</sup> Figure 4b/e/h depict the particle size distribution histogram of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> fitted to Gaussian distribution. According to the histogram, the average particle size for TiO<sub>2</sub> and ZnO nanoparticles was 45 and 55 nm, respectively, whereas Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> submicron-particles were 175 nm. TiO<sub>2</sub> has a lower average particle size than ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. The smaller the nanoparticles, the greater the surface area and the photosensitizer adsorption capacity of the photoanode material.<sup>97</sup> Compared with ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, the TiO<sub>2</sub> photoanode exhibits more NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photosensitizer adsorption. The polycrystalline nature of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> was deduced from the SAED pattern, which reveals the characteristic ring pattern (Figure 4 c/f/i). Using SAED, the *d*-spacing values of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> are computed, and the estimated *d*-spacing value corresponds with the XRD result.<sup>98–100</sup>

**3.4. X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy.** X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) technique was used to analyze the chemical and electronic states of the elements found in TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> as photoanode materials, as well as NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes. The survey spectra displayed in Figure 5a for both TiO<sub>2</sub>/

NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanodes exclusively reveal the existence of Ti, O, and C elements, with TiO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw showing extra N element.

The inset of Figure 5a depicts the spectrum of N 1s observed at 402.65 eV, which exhibits nitrogen peaks attributed to the nitro group present.<sup>101</sup> The binding energy (BE) values for Ti 2p<sub>1/2</sub> and Ti 2p<sub>3/2</sub> were 464.6 and 458.9 eV for TiO<sub>2</sub> and 464.5 and 458.7 eV for TiO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw, respectively, according to the Ti 2p core level spectra shown in Figure 5b, and these two peaks in TiO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw correspond to the Ti<sup>4+</sup> of TiO<sub>2</sub>.<sup>102</sup> Figure 5c and d shows the C 1s and O 1s spectra of the TiO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanode. XPSPEAK 41 software was used for fitting and background subtraction. The main peak in the C 1s spectrum at 284.8 eV is attributed to the sp<sup>2</sup>-hybridized carbon atom fitted by three peaks: the two at 284.70 and 286.35 corresponding to C=C and C–O bonds, and the less intense broader peak near 289.10 eV that is due to the C=O group<sup>103</sup> present in the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw molecule observed for the TiO<sub>2</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanode as shown in Figure 5c. The two peaks at 530.05 and broad peaks around 532.15 in the O 1s spectrum from Figure 5d are ascribed to the TiO<sub>2</sub> lattice oxygen and C=O oxygens in the absorbed NO<sub>2</sub>Lw molecule.<sup>104</sup> The XPS study spectra show Ti is present at a +4 oxidation in a state with oxygen vacancies, allowing an acceptable quantity of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw absorption into the TiO<sub>2</sub> photoanode.

The ZnO and ZnO/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanodes XPS was carried out, and the result is shown in Figure 6. The survey scan spectrum in Figure 6a shows that ZnO and ZnO/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanodes confirm the presence of Zn, O, and C element, and ZnO/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw shows the addition of N element. The inside



**Figure 6.** (a) XPS survey spectra and (b) core level XPS spectra of Zn 2p of ZnO and ZnO/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanodes. Core level XPS spectra of (c) C 1s and (d) O 1s of ZnO/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanode.

of Figure 6a depicts the spectrum of N 1s observed at 402.4 eV.<sup>101</sup> The Zn 2p consists of two peaks, Zn 2p<sub>1/2</sub> and Zn 2p<sub>3/2</sub> positioned at 1045.7 and 1022.75 eV for the ZnO and 1045.75 and 1022.5 eV<sup>105</sup> for the ZnO/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw, as shown Figure 6b, which were observed for both ZnO and ZnO/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw. The binding energy differences between Zn 2p<sub>1/2</sub> and Zn 2p<sub>3/2</sub> for the ZnO and ZnO/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw was 22.95 and 23.25 eV, the characteristic value of ZnO.<sup>106</sup>

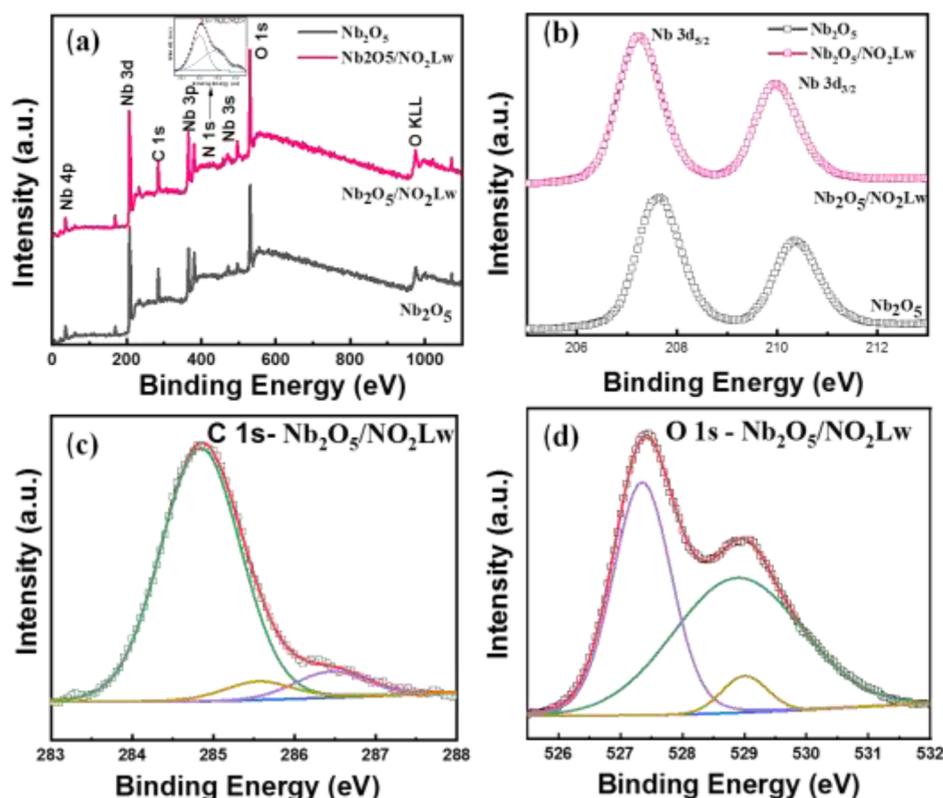
Figure 6c shows that the C 1s can be fitted by three peaks at 284.75, 286.45, and 289 eV corresponding to C=C and C–O bonds ZnO/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw. The less intense broader peak near 289 eV is due to the C=O<sup>103</sup> group in the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw molecule observed for the ZnO/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanode. Figure 6d shows that the O 1s was fitted using XPSPEAK 41 software by three nearly peaks in the ZnO/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanode, indicating three different O species in the ZnO/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanode. The lowest binding energy peaks at 526.8 eV are attributed to oxygen at the lattice site.<sup>106</sup> The middle binding energy, 528.85 eV, is attributed to chemically adsorbed oxygen on the surface<sup>107</sup> of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw. The highest component is attributed to interstitial oxygen in ZnO.<sup>106</sup>

Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanodes were analyzed using XPS. Figure 7a depicts the XPS survey spectra of the Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanodes. Figure 7a inset shows the core level spectrum of N 1s observed at 403.05 eV.<sup>101</sup> The core level XPS spectra of Nb 3d of the Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanodes are shown in Figure 7b. The BE values for the Nb 3d<sub>3/2</sub> and Nb 3d<sub>5/2</sub> were, respectively, 210.35 and 207.65 eV for the Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and 209.95 and 207.25 eV for the Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw; these two peaks in Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw correlate to pentavalent niobium.<sup>108</sup> The core level

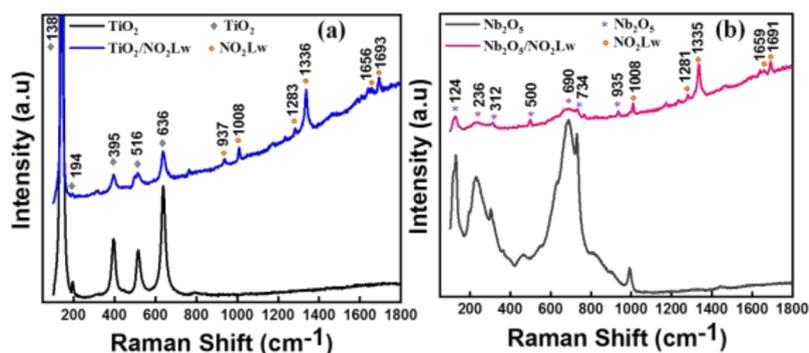
XPS spectra of C 1s are shown in Figure 7c. The sp<sup>2</sup>-hybridized carbon atom is responsible for the main peak in the C 1s spectrum at 284.8 eV. The C 1s peak is fitted by three peaks at 284.85, 285.55, and 286.45 eV corresponding to C=C, C–O, and C=O bonds.<sup>103</sup> These functional groups facilitate the formation of chemical bonds in the Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> lattice. Figure 7d depicts the core level XPS spectra of O 1s from an Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photoanode. The three peaks occurring at 527.35 and 529 eV, and wide peaks at 528.9 correspond to the lattice oxygen in the Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and C=O oxygens<sup>104</sup> in the absorbed NO<sub>2</sub>Lw molecules.

**3.5. Raman Spectra.** Raman spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub>, Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, and NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes are shown in Figure 8. The characteristic Raman absorption bands centered at 138, 194, 395, 516, and 636 cm<sup>-1</sup> are attributed to TiO<sub>2</sub><sup>103</sup> phonon modes, as illustrated in Figure 8a, and the characteristic Raman absorption bands centered at 124, 236, 312, 500, 690, 734, and 935 cm<sup>-1</sup> are attributed to the phonon modes of Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>,<sup>109</sup> as illustrated in Figure 8b. When compared to the Raman spectrum of the TiO<sub>2</sub> and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, the Raman spectra of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> contain more NO<sub>2</sub>Lw photosensitizer NO<sub>2</sub>-group-derived bands (e.g., at 1336 and 1335 cm<sup>-1</sup>).<sup>110</sup> Raman spectra verified the highly ordered TiO<sub>2</sub> and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes, their functionalization via the changes in intensities of the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes, and the interaction between the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw molecule and TiO<sub>2</sub> and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes.<sup>111</sup>

**3.6. Emission Studies.** The photoluminescence (PL) spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> with deconvoluted PL spectra are shown in Figures 9 a, b, and c, respectively. The emission spectra of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes have



**Figure 7.** (a) XPS survey spectra and (b) core level XPS spectra of Nb 3d of  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  and  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5/\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$  photoanodes. Core level XPS spectra of (c) C 1s and (d) O 1s of  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5/\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$  photoanode.



**Figure 8.** Raman spectra of (a)  $\text{TiO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ -loaded  $\text{TiO}_2$  photoanodes and (b)  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  and  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ -loaded  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  photoanodes.

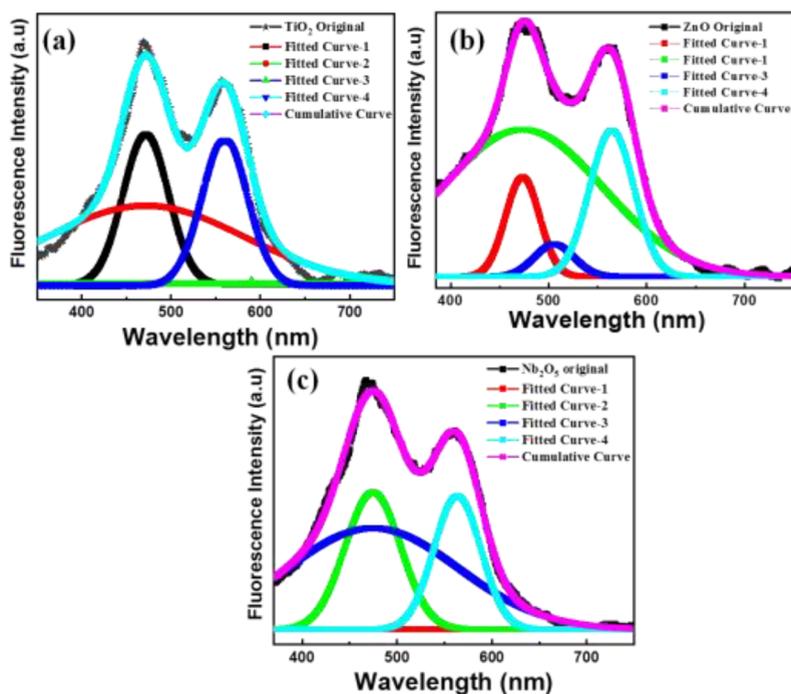
been studied to investigate radiative and nonradiative recombination surface characteristics and defect states.<sup>112</sup> Figure 9a, b, and c shows two emission bands in  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ , and  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$ . The second emission band in  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ , and  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  PL emission spectra represents green emission caused by oxygen vacancies and surface defects. The green emission is quite strong because of radial recombination between photogenerated holes with trap electrons at the oxygen vacancies.<sup>113–116</sup>

**3.7. UV–visible Absorbance of  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ , Photoanodes ( $\text{TiO}_2/\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ ,  $\text{ZnO}/\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ ,  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5/\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ ), and Fluorescence Spectra Measurement of  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ .** Figure 10a, b depicts the UV–visible absorbance spectra of  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$  and  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ -loaded  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ , and  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  photoanodes.

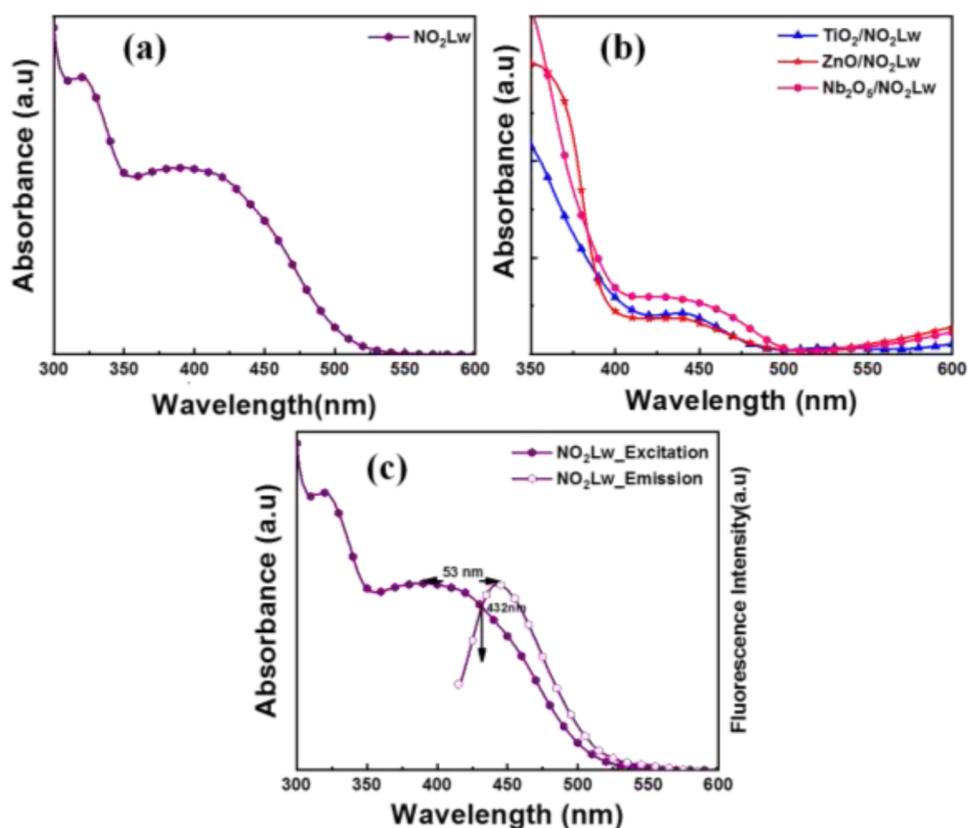
The UV–visible absorbance for  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$  in ethanolic solutions is depicted in Figure 10a as a function of wavelength.

$\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$  was found to have absorptions ranging from 310 to 540 nm. The substituted nitro group electron delocalization effect shows the charge transfer band in  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ . The UV–visible absorbance spectra of  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$  demonstrate the absorption ascribed to ultraviolet and visible region charge transfer.  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$  has a maximum absorption wavelength ( $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ ) of  $\sim 391$  nm.

Figure 10b shows the optical absorbance spectra of the  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ -loaded  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ , and  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  photoanodes. The maximum absorption wavelength ( $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ ) is exhibited at 439, 438, and 427 nm for  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ -loaded  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ , and  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  photoanodes, respectively. The  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ -loaded  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ , and  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  photoanodes show the redshift in the visible region, confirming the formation of complexation between  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$  and  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ , and  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  photoanodes, which



**Figure 9.** Photoluminescence (PL) spectra of (a)  $\text{TiO}_2$ , (b)  $\text{ZnO}$ , and (c)  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  with deconvoluted PL spectra.



**Figure 10.** UV-visible spectra of (a)  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$  and (b)  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ -loaded  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ , and  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  photoanodes. (c) Combination of UV-visible (excitation) and fluorescence (emission) spectra of  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ .

demonstrates the sufficient amount of photosensitizer adsorbed on the  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnO}$ , and  $\text{Nb}_2\text{O}_5$  surfaces.<sup>117,118</sup>

Figure 10c depicts the combined UV-visible (excitation) and fluorescence (emission) spectra of the  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$ . The

fluorescence (emission) spectra were measured, and the fluorescence emission maxima ( $\lambda_{\text{PL}}$ ) value is displayed in Table 2. It exhibits fluorescence emission maxima at ( $\lambda_{\text{PL}}$ )  $\sim 444$  nm, and the Stokes shift for  $\text{NO}_2\text{Lw}$  is 53 nm. The

**Table 2. Photophysical and Electrochemical Data of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw**

Photosensitizer	$\lambda_{\max}$ (nm)	$\lambda_{\text{PL}}$ (nm)	Stokes shift (nm)	$E_{0-0}$ (eV)	$E_{\text{HOMO}}$ (eV)	$E_{\text{LUMO}}$ (eV)
NO <sub>2</sub> Lw	391	444	53	2.87	-6.73	-3.86

combination of UV–visible (excitation) and fluorescence (emission) spectra of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw helps to calculate energy difference,<sup>80,81</sup> i.e., the  $E_0-E_0$  ( $E_{0-0}$ ) difference of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw using the formula,

$$E = h \times \nu = \frac{h \times c}{\lambda} = \frac{1240}{\lambda} \quad (1)$$

Where  $E$  is the energy difference in eV,  $h$  represents the Planck constant,  $\lambda$  represents the intersection of excitation and emission spectra in nm, and  $c$  is the speed of light. The  $E_{0-0}$  of the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw is calculated and equals 2.87 eV.<sup>119,120</sup>

**3.8. Electrochemical Characterization Using Cyclic Voltammetry.** Figure 11a depicts the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw cyclic voltammogram in an ethanol solution. The highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) and lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) energy levels were calculated using the cyclic voltammeter (CV) approach.

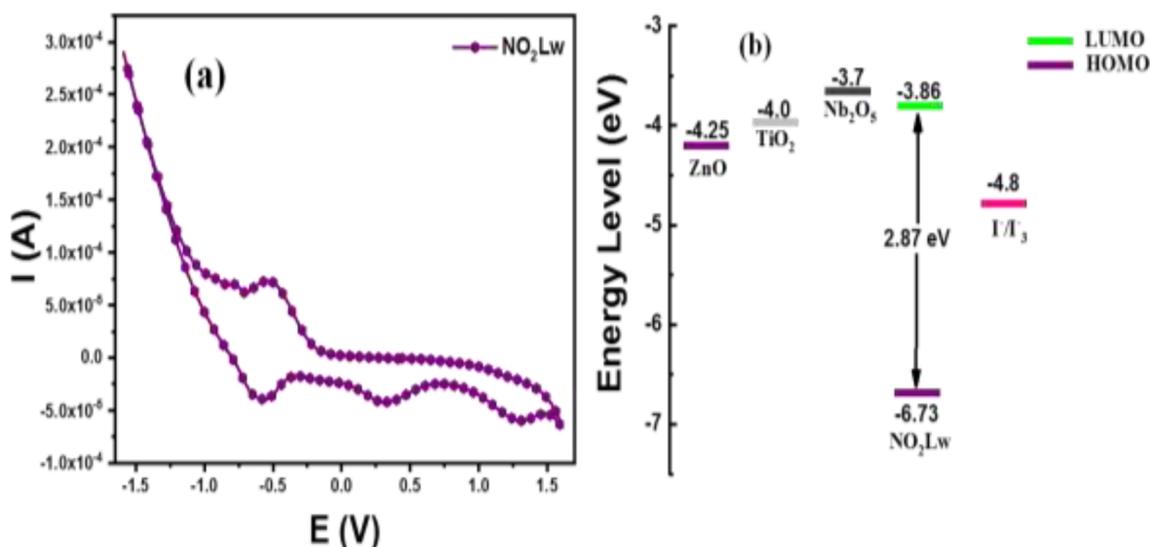
As shown in Figure 11a, the first reduction potential (onset of the first reaction peak) can be used to compute the LUMO.<sup>121,122</sup> The NO<sub>2</sub>Lw has an  $E_{\text{LUMO}}$  of -3.86 eV. The  $E_{\text{HOMO}}$  is -6.73 eV and was calculated using the  $E_{\text{LUMO}}$  and the  $E_{0-0}$  values. Table 2 displays the electrochemical and optoelectrical parameters. Figure 11b depicts the energy level diagram of the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and the conduction band edge of the TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes. TiO<sub>2</sub> and ZnO have conduction bands below the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw LUMO level, but Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> has a conduction band above the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw LUMO level. Iodine/triiodide has a redox potential (-4.8 eV)<sup>123</sup> above the HOMO level of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw. It is possible to regenerate photosensitizers in TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-based DSSCs with a driving force of ~1.93 eV, which is sufficient.

**3.9. FT-IR Analysis.** Figure 12a–c displays the FTIR spectra of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes. When NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>

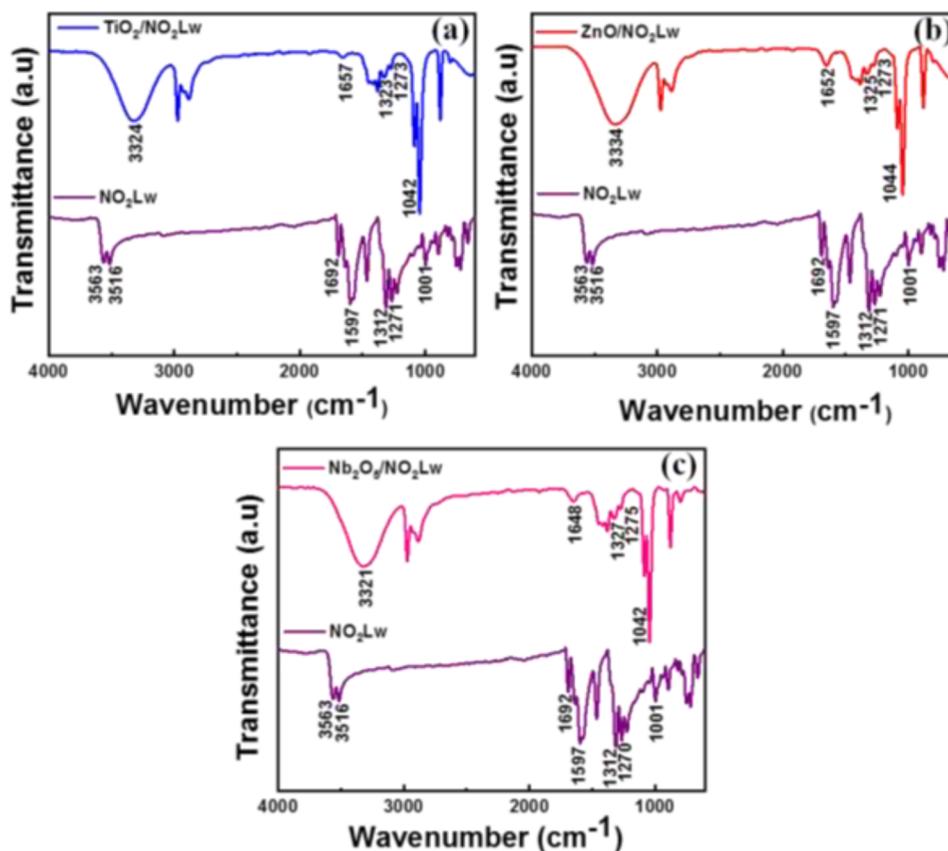
photoanodes were compared to NO<sub>2</sub>Lw, the bonding interaction<sup>124,125</sup> was visible in the frequency range of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes. Table 3 summarizes the characteristics of the frequency band of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and photosensitizer-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes. The stretching frequency of the NO<sub>2</sub> group is attributed to the bands in the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw FTIR spectra that are in the range of 1597 cm<sup>-1</sup> (antisymmetrical) and 1312 cm<sup>-1</sup> (symmetrical).<sup>75</sup> Figure 12a–c depicts the increase in the NO<sub>2</sub> stretching frequency at the photosensitizer-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes from 1312 cm<sup>-1</sup> to 1323, 1325, and 1327 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Due to the frequency of hydroxyl group (O–H) stretching, the peak occurred at 3563 and 3516 cm<sup>-1</sup>, as illustrated in Figure 12a–c. One band is visible in photoanodes made of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> that have been loaded with photosensitizer after coordination<sup>126</sup> at 3324, 3334, and 3321 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively

In photoanodes with photosensitizer-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, the  $\nu_{\text{C=O}}$  frequencies of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw detected at 1692 cm<sup>-1</sup> after coordination are shifted to lower frequencies 1657, 1652, and 1648 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.<sup>120,127</sup> TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> are attached to the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw anchoring site via  $\nu_{\text{OH}}$  and  $\nu_{\text{C=O}}$  bonding. The band observed at 1001 cm<sup>-1</sup> that was noticed as a result of photosensitizers  $\nu_{\text{C=O}}$  stretching frequency of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw is shifted to 1042 cm<sup>-1</sup> in photosensitizer-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode after coordination, indicating a significant interaction between the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes that serves to generate a chain-like structure for the device's facile electrons transfer.

**3.10. Solar Cell Characterization.** In comparison to TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, which have conduction bands (CBs) at -4.25, -4.0, and -3.7 eV, respectively, NO<sub>2</sub>Lw has the LUMO level at -3.86 eV. Thus, based on the energy levels of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw, TiO<sub>2</sub>, and ZnO, the electron injection from the LUMO level of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw into the CB of TiO<sub>2</sub> and ZnO is possible. However, the CB position of Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (-3.7 eV)<sup>36</sup> is above the LUMO level of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw (-3.86 eV). Some unexpected electron injection has been observed in the present case, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode-based DSSCs<sup>128,129</sup> showed lower performance than ZnO and TiO<sub>2</sub>.



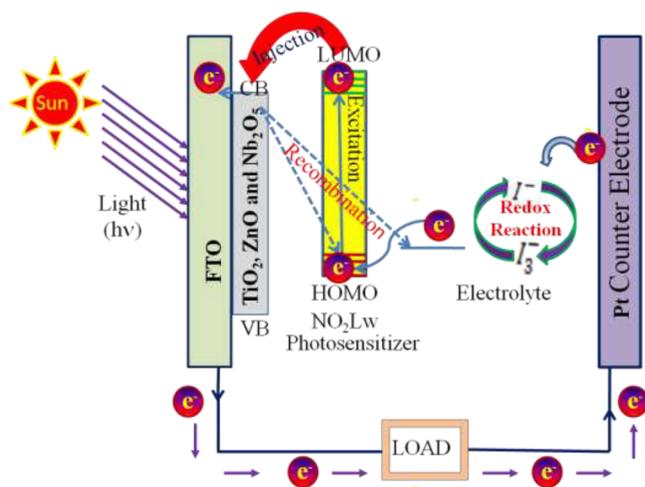
**Figure 11.** (a) Cyclic voltammograms of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw. (b) HOMO–LUMO comparison plot with conduction bands of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and redox potential of I<sup>-</sup>/I<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>.



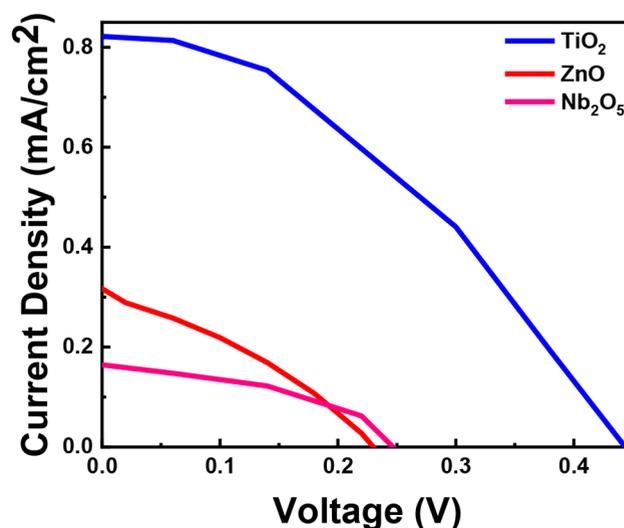
**Figure 12.** FT-IR spectra of (a) NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub> photoanodes, (b) NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-loaded ZnO photoanodes, and (c) NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-loaded Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes.

**Table 3.** Selected FT-IR Frequencies of the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw and NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-loaded TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> Photoanodes

Photosensitizer/ Photoanode	$\nu_{\text{O-H}}$ (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	$\nu_{\text{C=O}}$ (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	$\nu_{\text{N-O}}$ (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	$\nu_{\text{C-C}}$ (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	$\nu_{\text{C-O}}$ (cm <sup>-1</sup> )
NO <sub>2</sub> Lw	3563, 3516	1692	1597, 1312	1271	1001
TiO <sub>2</sub> /NO <sub>2</sub> Lw	3324	1657	1323	1273	1042
ZnO/NO <sub>2</sub> Lw	3334	1652	1325	1273	1042
Nb <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> /NO <sub>2</sub> Lw	3321	1648	1327	1275	1042



**Figure 13.** Schematic of the process embedded in DSSCs.

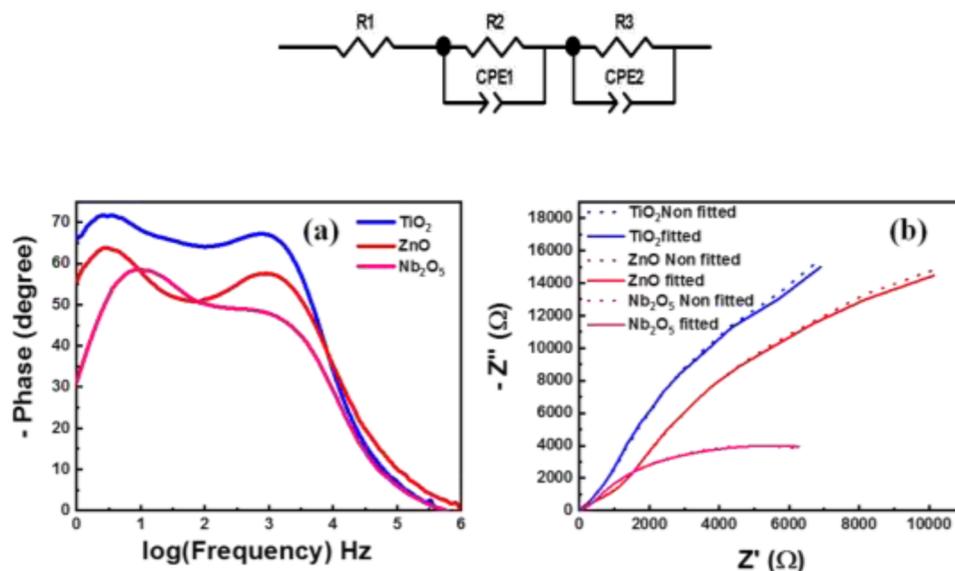


**Figure 14.** *J*-*V* plot characteristic of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode-based devices.

Figure 13 depicts a schematic of the process flow for NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-sensitized TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-based DSSCs. The photon incident excites the electron at the NO<sub>2</sub>Lw, injecting the excited electron into the respective CB of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. The NO<sub>2</sub>Lw HOMO level (−6.73 eV) is below the iodine/triiodide electrolyte redox potential (−4.8 eV), facilitating the active regeneration of the oxidized NO<sub>2</sub>Lw. Due to the removal of an electron in NO<sub>2</sub>Lw, holes are

**Table 4. Photovoltaic Performance of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> Photoanode-based Devices**

Sample/Photosensitizer	Dye Adsorption/10 <sup>-7</sup> (mol cm <sup>-2</sup> )	V <sub>oc</sub> (V)	J <sub>sc</sub> (mA/cm <sup>2</sup> )	FF	R <sub>tr</sub> (Ω)	R <sub>rec</sub> (Ω)	τ <sub>e</sub> (ms)	η (%)
TiO <sub>2</sub> /NO <sub>2</sub> Lw	4.96	0.44	0.82	40	236	102,270	63	0.14
ZnO/NO <sub>2</sub> Lw	3.06	0.23	0.31	32	1053	47,715	52	0.02
Nb <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> /NO <sub>2</sub> Lw	0.57	0.24	0.16	42	275	10,111	17	0.01

**Figure 15.** (a) Bode plot and (b) Nyquist plot of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode-based devices.

produced at the HOMO level. The holes absorb the electrons from I<sup>-</sup>/I<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> redox couple, which causes I<sup>-</sup> to be converted to I<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in the electrolyte. The electrons pass through the counter electrode and are transferred to the external circuit. In an oxidation–reduction reaction, the electrons return to the electrolyte.<sup>130–132</sup>

The characteristic curve of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw-sensitized TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode-based DSSCs is shown in Figure 14 as photocurrent density (J<sub>sc</sub>) versus photovoltage (V). The DSSCs were irradiated with 100 mW cm<sup>-2</sup> light intensity during the photovoltaic analyses; a polyiodide solution was employed as an electrolyte. The photovoltaics characteristic for TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes, including open circuit voltage (V<sub>oc</sub>), short-circuit photocurrent density (J<sub>sc</sub>), fill factor (FF), and efficiency (η), were computed and summarized in Table 4.

It was found that TiO<sub>2</sub> has a higher J<sub>sc</sub> value (J<sub>sc</sub> = 0.82 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>) than ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-based photoanodes. ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> have J<sub>sc</sub> values of 0.31 and 0.16 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>, respectively. On the other hand, the TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes had corresponding V<sub>oc</sub> values of 0.44, 0.23, and 0.24 V, respectively. TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes have FF values of 40, 32, and 42, respectively, and their corresponding power conversion efficiency (PEC) η values are 0.14, 0.02, and 0.01%, respectively. Compared to the ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes, the TiO<sub>2</sub> photoanode-based DSSC performed better in photovoltaic efficiency. This is because the TiO<sub>2</sub> photoanode, compared to ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes, has a significantly more considerable photosensitizer loading amount.

The photosensitizer loading amounts of NO<sub>2</sub>Lw are calculated and summarized in Table 4 for TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes. In addition, compared to ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes, computed J<sub>sc</sub> and V<sub>oc</sub> values for the TiO<sub>2</sub>

photoelectrode are greater. Finally, a power conversion efficiency (PCE) of 0.14% was shown by the TiO<sub>2</sub> photoanode.

**3.11. Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy (EIS) Analysis.** EIS measurement was done at a forward bias of open-circuit voltage under dark illumination conditions in the 1 MHz to 0.1 Hz frequency range to explain the electron transportation resistance and charge recombination resistance at different interfaces and determine the effective electron lifetime of the device.

Figure 15a displays the Bode plot with signature frequency peak corresponding to interfacial electron recombination toward the low-frequency region for the TiO<sub>2</sub> in comparison to ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode-based DSSCs, indicating that the TiO<sub>2</sub> has a greater electron lifetime than ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode-based DSSCs. The average electron lifetime (τ<sub>eff</sub>) of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanode-based devices can be calculated using the equation<sup>133</sup>

$$\tau_{\text{eff}} = \frac{1}{2\pi f_{\text{max}}} \quad (2)$$

Table 4 provides a summary of the values. The average electron lifetime for TiO<sub>2</sub> (63 ms) photoanode-based devices was higher in comparison to those for ZnO (52 ms) and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (17 ms) photoanode-based DSSCs. This indicates that as compared to ZnO and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes, there is reduced electron recombination at the TiO<sub>2</sub> photoanode/electrolyte interface-based DSSCs.

Figure 15b displays the Nyquist plot of TiO<sub>2</sub>, ZnO, and Nb<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> photoanodes-based DSSCs. The electrochemical parameters of all three devices were calculated using Z View fitted software by fitting the measured EIS entities. Table 4 displays the corresponding values. In Figure 15b, the first semicircle depicts the interface between the counter electrode

and an electrolyte, influencing the  $R_2$  ( $R_{tr}$ ) electron transport resistance. At  $TiO_2/ZnO/Nb_2O_5/NO_2Lw/electrolyte$ , the charge recombination resistance of electrons was shown by  $R_3$  ( $R_{rec}$ ).

In the current study, two semicircles in the EIS curves of the  $TiO_2$ ,  $ZnO$ , and  $Nb_2O_5$ -based photoanode are merged. This is because the electron recombination resistance at the  $TiO_2/ZnO/Nb_2O_5/NO_2Lw/electrolyte$  process is significantly greater than the other resistance at the counter electrode and electrolyte interface (electron transport resistance,  $R_{tr}$ ). The smaller semicircle associated with the resistance at the interface between the counter electrode and electrolyte may thus be challenging to detect.

The charge recombination resistance ( $R_{rec}$ ) is seen to increase in the order  $Nb_2O_5 < ZnO < TiO_2$ . Greater  $R_{rec}$  in dark illumination is correlated with a lower recombination rate.<sup>134,135</sup> Compared to  $ZnO$  and  $Nb_2O_5$  photoanode-based DSSCs, the  $R_{rec}$  is greater in  $TiO_2$  photoanode-based DSSCs, indicating a lower recombination rate at the  $TiO_2$  photoanode/electrolyte interface. Thus the optimum values of  $R_{rec}$  led to the highest current density and open circuit voltage for  $TiO_2$  compared to  $ZnO$  and  $Nb_2O_5$  photoanode-based DSSCs.

#### 4. CONCLUSIONS

In the fabrication and development of DSSCs, the performance of three distinct mesoporous semiconducting oxides,  $TiO_2$ ,  $ZnO$ , and  $Nb_2O_5$ , as photoanode materials has been compared. The utilization of  $NO_2Lw$  as a photosensitizer for DSSCs is shown for the first time in this study. We looked into photovoltaic parameters such as the  $V_{OC}$ ,  $J_{SC}$ , and power conversion efficiency (PEC). Due to their higher photosensitizer loading amount, greater electron lifetime, and reduced electron recombination rate, the fabricated DSSCs function better with the  $TiO_2$  photoanode than with  $ZnO$  and  $Nb_2O_5$  photoanodes. The outcomes suggest a role for injecting electrons from higher excited-state energy (LUMO) levels of  $NO_2Lw$  into the conduction band (CB) of the photoanode material, to which the  $NO_2Lw$  is chemically bonded.

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##### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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