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## Approaching truly sustainable solar cells by the use of water and cellulose derivatives

Original Citation:	
Availability:	
This version is available http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1634323	since 2017-05-26T15:10:06Z
Published version:	
DOI:10.1039/c6gc02625g	
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This is the author's final version of the contribution published as:

Bella, Federico; Galliano, Simone; Falco, Marisa; Viscardi, Guido; Barolo, Claudia; Grätzel, Michael; Gerbaldi, Claudio. Approaching truly sustainable solar cells by the use of water and cellulose derivatives. GREEN CHEMISTRY. 19 (4) pp: 1043-1051. DOI: 10.1039/c6gc02625g

The publisher's version is available at: http://pubs.rsc.org/en/content/articlepdf/2017/GC/C6GC02625G

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17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28	Abstract: Aqueous dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs) are emerging as the first truly safe, cheap and eco-friendly photovoltaic technology, at the same time overcoming the well-known instability upon moisture/water contamination typical of many solar cells. While many aqueous DSSCs recently proposed still contain little amounts of organic solvents or oil-derived polymeric matrices, here we propose the first 100% hydrogel electrolyte, consisting of carboxymethylcellulose as green jellifying agent, water and iodide/triiodide redox mediator. Electrochemical and photoelectrochemical properties of the resulting electrolytes and solar cells are thoroughly investigated, with a special focus on the long-term stability of the aqueous devices under different operating and aging conditions. The obtained promising efficiencies and stabilities, combined with a metal-free sensitizer, lead here to sustainable, stable, transparent and building-integrable solar cells, without suffering any safety and/or toxicity issues.	
30 31	<b>Keywo</b> Sustain	rds: Dye-sensitized solar cells; Aqueous electrolyte; Gel electrolyte; Cellulose; ability.
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33	Introdu	uction
34 35 36 37 38	About 25 years ago O'Regan and Grätzel developed the dye-sensitized solar cell (DSSC), which was the first photovoltaic device based on (photo)electrochemical reactions. DSSC represented a sparkling revolution for the photovoltaic scientific community in terms of novel approaches for solar energy conversion $[^1,^2]$ . An enormous research and development work has been carried out in the last decades $[^3,^4]$ , and DSSCs are now the best choice for high efficiency solar	

Approaching truly sustainable solar cells by the use of water and cellulose derivatives

39 cells at low cost, having aesthetic features suitable for architectural integration, and providing

40 full performance even under low irradiance conditions and/or indoor environments [5,6].

41 However, two main aspects have been not yet properly addressed so far, which is indeed

rather surprising if one considers that the DSSC was originally conceived to be an eco-friendly

43 bioinspired technology mimicking artificial photosynthesis [7,8,9]. First, the standard electrolyte

system is based on volatile organic solvents, such as acetonitrile, methoxypropionitrile, being

45 also flammable and toxic, which certainly affects safety requirements upon module/panel

installation in real operating environment [10]. Secondly, either solid or quasi-solid polymer

electrolytes introduced so far for targeted stability enhancements are typically oil-derived

48 [11, 12, 13, 14], which in fact definitely clashes the original green and sustainable address for the

49 DSSC technology.

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Recently green chemistry has contributed significantly to the step forwards of DSSC systems into sustainability by developing devices operating in truly aqueous electrolyte environment

[10,15]. The use of water as the only solvent for the redox mediator would assure the

realization of safe, cheap and eco-friendly solar cells  $[^{16}, ^{17}]$ , at the same time overcoming the

well-known instability of DSSC upon moisture/water contamination [18,19]. Aqueous DSSCs

55 have recently scored an interesting 5.97% efficiency [20]. Presently, research efforts are

focused on developing new water-soluble redox mediators [21,22], improving the photoanode

57 wettability [23], and synthesizing water-resistant organic sensitizers [24,25]. Another

58 fundamental step towards stability enhancement is represented by the replacement of the

59 common liquid electrolytes by quasi-solid systems. To this purpose, different polymeric

60 matrices (pure gelatin [26], acrylic acid/gelatin [27] and xanthan gum [28]) are now investigated

by several research groups to jellify the aqueous redox mediator. Unfortunately, the acrylic

acid/gelatin-based electrolyte demonstrated rather limited stability of the initial power

conversion efficiency (PCE) (20% loss in the first 2 h of cell operation) [27], while the xanthan

gum-solidified solution cannot be classified as truly aqueous system as it contained 50% of

methoxypropionitrile [28]. To our knowledge, Spiccia's group proposed the best jellified

66 system so far, where gelatin (with a 1 wt% addition of PEG-300) was used to prepare a quasi-

67 solid electrolyte providing 4.1% PCE, stable (80%) after 35 days under dark at room

temperature [26]. However, even if gelatin represents a suitable and sustainable matrix for

69 aqueous DSSCs, being a polypeptide made by hydrolytic degradation of collagen, this

70 electrolyte also contained polyethylene glycol (oil-derived), 1-methylimidazole (oil-derived,

71 harmful and corrosive) and a heavy metal (cobalt) based redox couple.

72 Considering such a scenario, here we present the first example of truly oil-derived, toxic,

corrosive and/or heavy metal-based components free biopolymer electrolyte for aqueous

DSSCs. In particular, we make use of the sodium salt of carboxymethylcellulose (CMC) as a

75 green jellifying agent for a 100% aqueous electrolyte based on the iodide/triiodide redox

mediator. The effect of the CMC-based gel composition on the electrochemical and

photoelectrochemical properties of the resulting electrolytes and solar cells is thoroughly

investigated, as well as the long-term stability of the aqueous devices under different

79 operating and aging conditions. We demonstrate how this newly proposed electrolyte system,

in conjunction with a metal-free sensitizer, easily leads to sustainable, stable, transparent and

building-integrable solar cells, without suffering any safety and/or toxicity issues.

### **Materials and Methods**

84 Materials

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- 85 Sodium iodide (NaI), potassium iodide (KI), iodine (I<sub>2</sub>), sodium carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC,
- 86  $M_{\rm w} = 250000 \, {\rm g \, mol^{-1}}$ , chenodeoxycholic acid (CDCA), ethanol, acetone, t-butanol (t-BuOH)
- 87 and acetonitrile (ACN) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Deionized water (DI-H<sub>2</sub>O, 18 MΩ
- 88 cm at 25 °C) was obtained with a Direct-Q 3 UV Water Purification System (Millipore).
- 89 Sensitizing dye 2-[{4-[4-(2,2-diphenylethenyl)phenyl]-1,2,3,3a,4,8b-
- 90 hexahydrocyclopento[b]indole-7-yl}methylidene]-cyanoacetic acid (D131) was purchased from
- 91 Inabata Europe S.A.
- 92 Fluorine-doped tin oxide (FTO) glass plates (sheet resistance 7  $\Omega$  sq<sup>-1</sup>, purchased from
- 93 Solaronix) were cut into 2 cm × 1.5 cm sheets and used as substrates for the fabrication of
- 94 photoanodes and counter electrodes.

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- 96 Electrolytes: preparation and characterization
- 97 The experimental work related to the proposed aqueous electrolyte can be summarized in
- 98 three sections.
- 99 In the first one, gel electrolytes containing aqueous NaI 0.50 M and various weight
- percentages (3.5 5 7.5 10 12.5 15 20) of CMC were prepared by weighting the
- polymer in a vial and adding dropwise the proper amount of the iodide stock solution (NaI 0.50
- 102 M). Gel electrolytes were gently stirred overnight (18 h). In the case of the sample containing
- 20 wt% CMC, the gel was stirred in a warm bath setting the hot plate at 50 °C to get an
- 104 homogeneous mixture.
- The resulting gels were tested for their ionic conductivity ( $\sigma$ ) in lab-scale cells (ECC-Std, EL-CELL
- 106 GmbH) by means of electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS), using a potentiostat
- 107 (PARSTAT 2273, Princeton Applied Research) in the range of frequencies between 10 kHz and 1
- 108 Hz. Gels were sandwiched between two stainless steel blocking electrodes separated by a 100
- 109 μm-thick spacer featuring a round shape (14 mm inner diameter). The amplitude of the AC
- 110 signal was 10 mV. The reference electrode was short-circuited with the counter-electrode in all
- cases. The ionic conductivity was calculated according to:

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113  $\sigma = \frac{l}{A \cdot R_h}$  (Eq. 1)

- where I stands for the cell thickness, A is the area of the electrode in contact with the gel
- electrolyte, and  $R_b$  is the bulk-resistance to ion diffusion.  $R_b$  was determined directly as the
- value on the  $Z_{re}$  axes at  $Z_{im} = 0$  in the Nyquist plot. For ionic conductivity measurements at
- 118 different temperatures, ECC-Std cells were placed in a climatic chamber (MK 53, BINDER
- 119 GmbH). After proper cell equilibration at 70 °C, the temperature was decreased by 10 °C
- stepwise in the range from 70 to −25 °C. Each measurement was made 1 h and 30 min after

- the chamber had reached the thermal equilibrium at the set temperature. The ionic
- 122 conductivity of aqueous NaI 0.50 M was also measured for comparison.
- 123 In a second phase of the study, and for a more in depth investigation of both the electrolyte
- and the cathode/electrolyte interfaces, symmetrical (dummy) cells were assembled. Gel
- electrolytes containing aqueous NaI 0.50 M, I<sub>2</sub> 30 mM and CMC 10 wt% (this value was chosen
- as intermediate value within the investigated experimental domain) were prepared by
- weighing the polymer in a vial and adding dropwise the proper amount of the aqueous
- 128 electrolyte solution. The gel electrolyte was gently stirred overnight (18 h) in a warm bath at
- 129 50 °C. The FTO-coated glass plates used for dummy cell assembly were platinized by a sputter
- coater (Q180T ES by Quarum Technologies Ltd). A small amount of gel electrolyte was casted
- onto one platinized electrode using a spatula. The dummy cell was then assembled clamping
- the two electrodes separated by a spacer (with an internal round area of 0.785 cm<sup>2</sup> and a 70
- 133 μm thickness).
- 134 In the final part of the work, the cellulosic matrix was also used to jellify solutions with
- optimized I<sup>-</sup>/I<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> content for aqueous DSSC application [<sup>29</sup>]. In detail, both potassium- (KI 5.5 M
- and I<sub>2</sub> 50 mM) and sodium-based (NaI 4.5 M and I<sub>2</sub> 50 mM) mixtures were used to prepare gel
- electrolytes. For DSSCs application, these quasi-solid electrolytes were obtained by weighing
- the redox mediator aqueous solution in a vial and adding the proper amount of biopolymer
- under gentle stirring. CMC was added in 3.5, 4.5, 5.5, 6.5 and 7.5 wt% weight percentages.
- 140 After gelation, samples were left in a bath at 30-40 °C for 20 min to allow a proper
- homogenization. Besides DSSCs fabrication, a dummy cell assembled as previously described
- was used to measure the diffusion limited current by steady state cyclic voltammetry. The gel
- electrolyte tested contained aqueous KI 5.5 M, I<sub>2</sub> 50 mM and CMC 6.5 wt%. Its liquid
- 144 counterpart was tested under the same conditions for comparison. The diffusion coefficient D
- of triiodide was calculated according to:

147  $D = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{nFc_i} J_{\lim}$  (Eq. 2)

148

- where d is the distance between the two electrodes, n is the number of electrons involved in
- the electrode reaction, F is the Faraday constant,  $c_i$  is the initial concentration of  $I_3^-$  and  $J_{lim}$  is
- the diffusion-limited current density.
- 152 All electrolyte samples and cells were freshly prepared before each single testing and each of
- the experiments was repeated at least three times.

- 155 DSSC devices: fabrication and characterization
- 156 FTO covered glasses were rinsed with acetone and ethanol in an ultrasonic bath for 10 min.
- 157 Then, all traces of solvents were removed by a compressed air gun. Front electrodes were
- prepared by depositing a single layer of porous TiO<sub>2</sub> on top of conductive substrates using a
- screen printer equipped with a 43T mesh frame. After paste (18NR-T, Dyesol) deposition and
- 20 min rest to let the paste relax, the TiO<sub>2</sub> layer was dried at 80 °C for 20 min and sintered

161 increasing the temperature up to 480 °C in 45 min. The fabricated photoanodes (with a 162 thickness of ≈6 µm and a covered area of 0.25 cm<sup>2</sup>) were finally activated by heating at 450 °C 163 for 20 min and, after cooling, soaked into a D131 dye solution (0.50 mM in t-BuOH:ACN 1:1). 164 CDCA 0.90 mM as coadsorbent in the dye solution was added. Dipping in dye solutions was 165 carried out at 22 °C for 5 h in the dark under shaking in a Buchi Syncore platform equipped 166 with a cooling plate. After dye-loading, the photoanodes were washed in acetone to remove 167 residual dye not specifically adsorbed on the TiO<sub>2</sub> layer. As regards the preparation of the 168 counter electrodes, FTO conductive glasses were platinized by spreading a H₂PtCl<sub>6</sub> solution (5 169 mM in ethanol) on the plate surface and heating. A thermoplastic Surlyn frame (3-4 mm large 170 and with an internal area of 0.8 cm × 0.8 cm) was used as spacer. The amount of gel electrolyte 171 required to fill a cell was determined assembling several trial cells. For each DSSC, a drop of gel 172 electrolyte (5.4-5.6 mg) was casted onto the platinized counter-electrode by a spatula. The 173 complete DSSC was then assembled by hot-pressing at 100 °C for 20 s. All DSSCs assembled in 174 this phase were stored in the dark for six days. After this period, one cell for each electrolyte 175 experimented was stored at 60 °C under dark condition. I-V curves of these cells were 176 periodically recorded right after the extraction from the oven and after 24 h of cooling at RT. 177 The photovoltaic performances were evaluated recording three consecutive I-V curves using a 178 Keithley 2420 Source Measure Unit. Cells were irradiated under simulated sun light at 1 sun 179 (AM 1.5G) after calibration using a silicon diode.

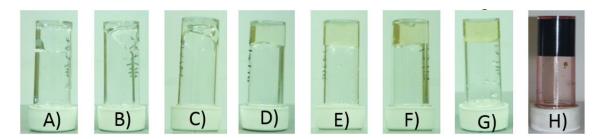
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### **Results and Discussion**

- Electrochemical characterisation of CMC as jellifier for aqueous electrolytes
- Here we attempt to exploit CMC, often cited as "cellulose gum", as a green jellifying agent for
- agueous DSSC electrolytes, which assure quasi-solid-like features. In CMC the hydroxyl groups
- of the glucopyranose monomers of cellulose are bound with carboxymethyl groups; the
- 186 functional properties of the resulting product depend on the degree of substitution of the
- initial cellulose structure (0.9 in the present study).
- 188 As a first experiment when proposing a novel macromolecular matrix for polymer electrolytes,
- we assessed whether CMC at  $M_w = 250000 \text{ g mol}^{-1}$  could behave as a proper jellifier for
- 190 aqueous electrolytes. To this purpose, an aqueous solution containing NaI 0.5 M was jellified
- by CMC in various amounts up to 20 wt% (Fig. 1A-G). In this phase, I<sub>2</sub> was not yet introduced
- since our aim was that of investigate the proposed hydrogel step-by-step by adding a
- 193 component at a time. All samples were clearly homogeneous, and showed enhanced
- viscoelastic characteristics upon increasing the jellifier content; above 5 wt%, we clearly
- 195 experienced the proper gelation of the electrolytes that formed a homogeneous sticky gel well
- consistent and self-standing even when overturning the vessel (Fig. 1C). The homogeneity was
- retained up to 20 wt%; samples at higher CMC content were excluded from our investigation.

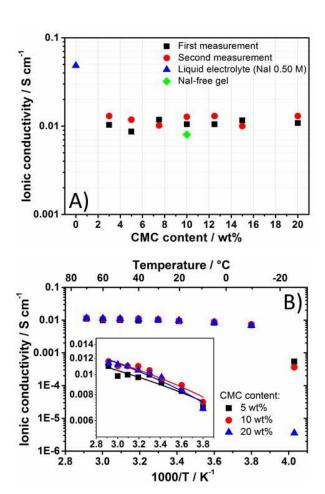


**Fig. 1**. Gel electrolytes containing aqueous NaI 0.5 M and 3 (A), 5 (B), 7.5 (C), 10 (D), 12.5 (E), 15 (F) and 20 wt% (G) CMC. The image of a gel electrolyte containing aqueous NaI 0.5 M,  $I_2$  30 mM and CMC 10 wt% is also shown (H).

The promising prospects of the obtained materials as electrolytes for DSSCs were determined by ionic conductivity ( $\sigma$ ) measurements through EIS analysis. Gels containing CMC in the 2.5-20 wt% range displayed very similar  $\sigma$  values, in the range of 10 mS cm<sup>-1</sup> at ambient temperature (**Fig. 2A**, **Table S1**). This value is lower with respect to that (48.4 mS cm<sup>-1</sup>) of the liquid counterpart, which suggests, as expected, a slightly restricted ion mobility in the gel electrolytes. Anyway, it is worth noting that our hydrogel electrolyte shows room temperature  $\sigma$  values one order of magnitude higher than pure ionic liquids, such as 1-hexyl-3-methylimidazolium iodide (HMII), which was successfully proposed in efficient DSSCs [ $^{30}$ ].

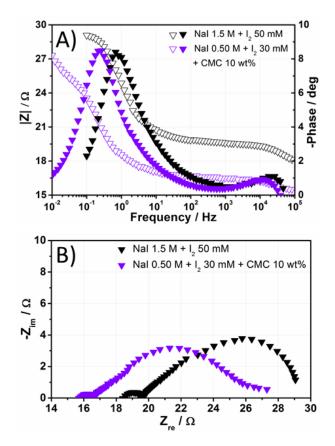
Gels containing 5, 10 and 20 wt% of CMC were further tested for their ionic conductivity between 70 and -25 °C (**Fig. 2B**, **Table S2**), to cover the practical operational conditions of a DSSC. The variation of Log $\sigma$  as a function of  $T^{-1}$  in the range from 70 to -10 °C was barely compatible with the linear correlation predicted by the Arrhenius model. On the other hand, a dramatic decrease of  $\sigma$  was observed below -10 °C, likely ascribable to water solidification. As a result, we can confidently assume that our proposed biosourced aqueous electrolyte can be safely employed in DSSCs operating in places where the temperature frequently drops below zero, without affecting the charge transport properties up to -10 °C.

Overall, the data collected suggest that supply of I $^-$  ions at the photoanode is likely not limited by the slow diffusion through the three-dimensional CMC network in a wide range of temperatures. Indeed, efficient I $^-$  ions supply is a fundamental requirement to ensure fast regeneration, since it is well known that a slow regeneration with respect to the rate of back electron transfer from the semiconductor to the oxidized dye molecules would affect the photovoltaic performance [2, $^{31}$ , $^{32}$ ]. Evidences of this phenomenon ascribed to the low ionic conductivity of some classes of polymer electrolytes were reported by Nogueira *et al.* [ $^{33}$ ], who showed that the ionic conductivity of polymeric systems increased up to  $\approx 10^{-5}$  S cm $^{-1}$  with increasing [NaI] values [ $^{34}$ ]. However, one should consider that this value is lower by two orders of magnitude when compared to the one we obtained here with the water-based NaI/CMC gel electrolytes.



**Fig. 2. A)** Ionic conductivity at ambient temperature of aqueous NaI 0.50 M gelled with different amounts of CMC. The ionic conductivity of pristine aqueous NaI 0.50 M and of a NaI-free gel containing 10 wt% CMC are also shown for comparison; **B)** Ionic conductivity, in the temperature range of -25/+70 °C, of aqueous NaI 0.50 M gels containing different amounts of CMC. The inset shows data points up -10 °C fitted as lines. The corresponding  $R^2$  values are 0.87 (5 wt%), 0.93 (10 wt%) and 0.95 (20 wt%).

A self-standing gel composed of CMC 10 wt%, aqueous NaI 0.50 M and I<sub>2</sub> 30 mM (**Fig. 1H**) was used to fill a dummy cell and investigated in depth by means of EIS analysis. It is worth noting that this gel electrolyte was not fully homogeneous; indeed, small brownish aggregates (also recalled and shown later on in the followings) randomly appeared in the sample likely ascribable to the formation of polymer–I<sub>2</sub> complexes. The formation of polymer–I<sub>2</sub> complexes is common in many cellulose derivatives and other natural and synthetic polymers; indeed, literature studies showed that binding sites were found to be located in the amorphous regions [ $^{35}$ ]. Anyway, the slight inhomogeneity did not affect at all the electrochemical performance of the sample, which remained constant upon time. The value of  $R_{Pt}$  from the impedance measurement was lower than 1  $\Omega$  cm<sup>2</sup>, similarly to what observed in the case of liquid NaI 1.50 M + I<sub>2</sub> 50 mM (**Fig. 3**).



**Fig. 3. A)** Bode (modulus = open triangles; phase = filled triangles) and **B)** Nyquist plots of a dummy cell filled with aqueous NaI 0.50 M,  $I_2$  30 mM and CMC 10 wt%. The spectra of a dummy cell filled with aqueous NaI 1.5 M +  $I_2$  50 mM are shown for comparison.

Effect of CMC content on the photovoltaic performance of aqueous DSSCs

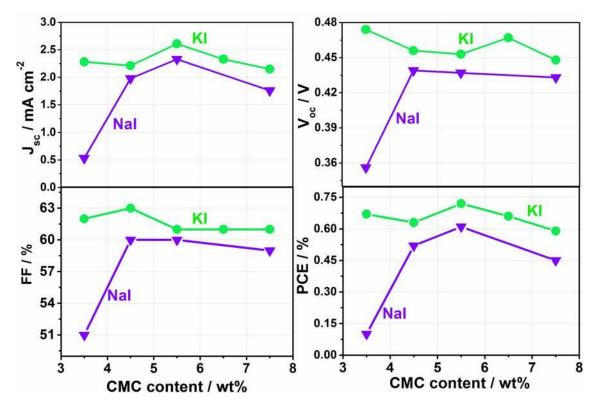
The data reported in the previous paragraph suggest that CMC-containing electrolytes are likely to be successfully applied in truly aqueous DSSCs, and the faint inhomogeneity (brownish spots) in the gels containing both  $I_2$  and NaI does not affect significantly the electrochemical performance.

The most performing aqueous liquid electrolytes (according to our previous work focused in the unravelling of the  $I^-/I_3^-$  chemistry in water [29]) were used to prepare gel electrolytes at various CMC amounts. These starting electrolyte solutions contained  $I_2$  50 mM and NaI 4.5 M or  $I_2$  50 mM and KI 5.5 M. When CMC 10 wt% was introduced in these liquid electrolytes, the gel point was surpassed in both cases. Thus, we added CMC amounts in the range of 3.5 (viscous fluid) to 7.5 wt% (self-standing gel).

The photovoltaic parameters referred to the best performances of the solar cells co-sensitized with D131 and CDCA (D131: CDCA = 1:1.8) are shown in **Fig. 4** and **Table S3**. Data were selected among those recorded during the first week of dark storage at ambient temperature (all results are shown in **Tables S4-S13**). The cells filled with the electrolyte containing CMC 6.5 wt% and NaI were excluded because of massive air infiltration during sealing by hot-pressing.

It was noted that the short circuit photocurrent density ( $J_{sc}$ ) was the main factor affecting efficiency. With both NaI- and KI-containing electrolytes, the best photovoltaic performances were achieved at CMC 5.5 wt%. The best efficiencies reached by the gels containing KI were similar at different CMC content. This is likely ascribable to the fact that the ionic conductivity of the gels containing iodide and CMC did not change as a function of the cellulose content. When discussing these PCE values, it must also be noticed that no additives were used to selectively improve the photovoltaic parameters; indeed, our purpose is to evaluate the characteristics of a pure aqueous electrolyte upon addition of the natural cellulose-based jellifier. Moreover, almost none of the additives conventionally used in the DSSC field, such as 4-tert-butylpyridine (TBP) and N-methylbenzimidazole (NMBI), are soluble in water. In this regard, it is rather surprising that some research groups recently proposed TBP- and NMBI-based aqueous DSSCs [ $^{36}$ ,  $^{37}$ ]; in our laboratories we were not able to solubilize them in water, even in the presence of surfactants.

By comparing the photovoltaic parameters of this work with our recent outcomes in the field of aqueous liquid electrolytes [29], it emerges that the efficiency values reached by the cell containing CMC and NaI were about 0.1% lower than those achieved with CMC and KI. We also noticed that the  $J_{sc}$  value achieved by the cell containing NaI and CMC 5.5 wt% was higher than its liquid counterpart, thus confirming the excellent transport properties of the quasi-solid electrolyte proposed in this work. In all of the other cases,  $J_{sc}$  and open-circuit potential ( $V_{oc}$ ) values were lower in gel electrolytes. In particular,  $V_{oc}$  values achieved with CMC and NaI were significantly low. Moreover, such a reduction of  $V_{oc}$  values in the gel electrolytes was somewhat unexpected. Actually, CMC hydrogels are supposed to be basic because of the protonation of carboxylic moieties leading to the release of hydroxyl groups. Under this condition, a shift of the flat band potential of the semiconductor towards negative potentials vs. SHE is expected, with a consequent increase of  $V_{oc}$  values. Anyway, the flat band potential also depends upon the surface dipole moment due to the anchored dye layer, which can be affected by the interactions with the electrolyte. The increase of dark current in the solar cells filled with gel electrolytes would explain the decrease of  $V_{oc}$  when compared to the liquid counterparts. Anyway, under this condition, the fill factor (FF) should be decreased as well, and this was not found to be the case. Sealing problems may have played a role, as well; however, we may almost completely exclude this hypothesis as the long-term stability of these cells is excellent (see the followings).



**Fig. 4.** Photovoltaic parameters referred to the best performance of the DSSCs stored at ambient temperature during the first week after assembly. The solar cells were filled with gel electrolytes containing NaI 4.5 M or KI 5.5 M at various CMC content.  $I_2$  was 50 mM in all cases. All the photoanodes were co-sensitized with D131 and CDCA (D131: CDCA = 1: 1.8). Data refer to the third of three consecutive measurements at 1 sun. Lines just connect data points and have no physical meaning.

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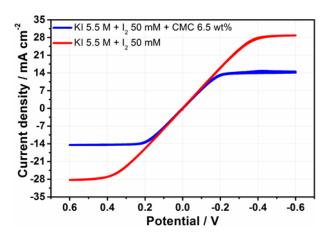
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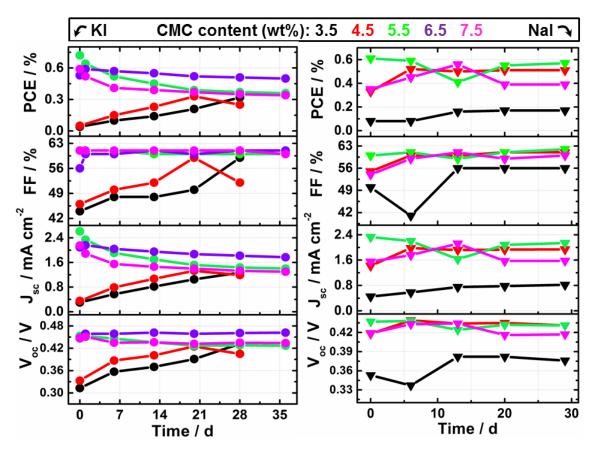
Fig. 5 (blue curve) shows the steady state cyclic voltammogram of the gel electrolyte containing CMC 6.5 wt% and KI, as representative sample that also allowed the solar cells to retain most of their efficiency over time, both at ambient temperature and at 60 °C. The diffusion limited current density in the gel electrolyte is nearly halved as compared to that of the liquid electrolyte (red curve). Anyway, its value is much higher (≈ 15 mA cm<sup>-2</sup>) than the photocurrent generated by the cells. This result suggests that mass transport through the electrolyte is not supposed to limit the photocurrent, unless diffusion is somewhat restricted inside the nanostructured semiconductor layer. The diffusion coefficient of triiodide was calculated assuming  $[I_3^-] = 50 \text{ mM}$  is  $5.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . It is comparable with the values reported by Hauch and Georg for liquid nitrile-based electrolytes [38] and, in fact, one order of magnitude higher to those obtained with aqueous gels based on amphiphilic copolymers such as Pluronic F77 and P123 mixed with an aqueous solution of 1-butyl-3-methyl imidazolium iodide (BMII) [37]. Such a high value can be also due to the fact that, at high I⁻ concentration such as those experimented here, sizeable amounts of polyiodides are supposed to be present in the electrolyte solution. This fact may promote the Grotthuss-type charge transfer mechanism in the gel electrolytes [39].



**Fig. 5.** Steady state cyclic voltammograms (scan rate =  $10 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$ ) of dummy cells filled with aqueous liquid and gel electrolytes.

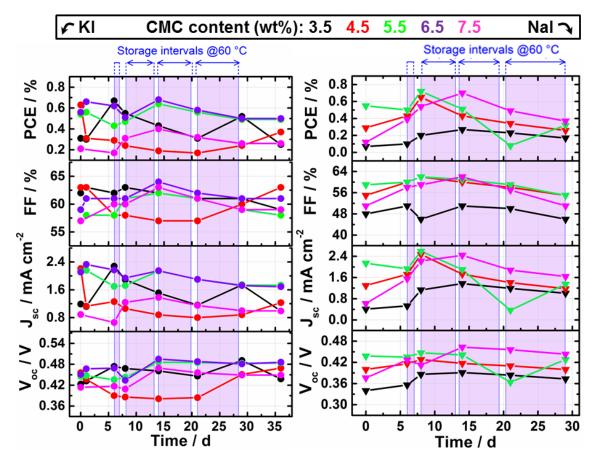
Long-term stability of lab-scale DSSCs based on aqueous gel electrolyte

**Fig. 6** shows the photovoltaic parameters of the solar cells stored at ambient temperature. At low CMC contents of 3.5 and 4.5 wt%, the efficiency values slightly increased over time both in Nal- and KI-based devices. At high CMC contents, the cell performance worsened over time in the case of KI-containing gels. Overall, the most stable cell from the KI pool (CMC 6.5 wt%) retained 85% efficiency after about one month. The conversion efficiency of the cells filled with Nal-based gels at high CMC content fluctuated over time, but the values observed after about one month were similar to those recorded right after cell assembly. The most efficient cell from the Nal pool retained 93% efficiency at the end of the monitoring period. This is a truly impressive result if one considers that other biosourced polymer matrices (e.g., gelatin) reported in the literature showed poor stability, with >20% loss in PCE in about 2 h after cell assembly [27].



**Fig. 6.** Photovoltaic parameters versus time of the solar cells co-sensitized with D131 and CDCA (D131 : CDCA = 1 : 1.8) stored in the dark at ambient temperature. The solar cells contained KI 5.5 M +  $I_2$  50 mM (left panel) or NaI 4.5 M +  $I_2$  50 mM (right panel), jellified with different amounts of CMC. Data points refer to the third of three consecutive measurements at 1 sun. Lines just connect data points and have no physical meaning.

The stability of our aqueous solar cells was more deeply investigated by inducing a thermal stress at 60 °C in a 35 days aging test. The photovoltaic performances of the cells stored at 60 °C fluctuated over time (**Fig. 7**, **Tables S4-S13**). The highest efficiency values after ageing were recorded at 5.5 and 6.5 wt% CMC with KI-containing electrolytes. In most cases, efficiency values peaked during the first week of storage at 60 °C. Exceptions are represented by the cells filled the KI containing electrolytes at 3.5 and 4.5 wt% CMC. This may be due to better pore filling due to both the rearrangement of the biosourced macromolecules and the lowered viscosity of the gel promoted by heat. Actually, the slight inhomogeneity of the gels appeared to be reduced right after cell extraction from the oven. The brownish spots reappeared after cooling at ambient conditions; anyway, their presence surprisingly did not detrimentally affect both the performance and the stability of the cells, as for the data plotted in **Fig. 7**.



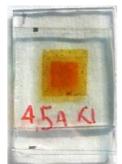
**Fig. 7.** Photovoltaic parameters of the solar cells co-sensitized with D131 and CDCA (D131: CDCA = 1:1.8) stored in the dark at 60 °C versus storage time. The solar cells contained KI 5.5 M +  $I_2$  50 mM (left panels) or NaI 4.5 M +  $I_2$  50 mM (right panels) jellified with different amounts of CMC. The time intervals during which the cells have been stored at 60 °C are represented by filled coloured areas. The cells were cooled at ambient temperature for 24 h before recording the J-V curves. Data points refer to the third of three consecutive measurements at 1 sun. Lines just connect data points and have no physical meaning.

The efficiency values recorded about one month after cell assembly and ageing at 60 °C were similar to those recorded during the first week in the case of the less performing cells. As regards the photovoltaic performance of the cells that displayed efficiency values  $\geq$ 0.5%, some of them were found to slightly decrease during the same period. Anyway, devices demonstrated proper operation during the whole test, thus accounting for the stable performance of the proposed electrolyte.

Upon observation of the devices subjected to the aging test, dye desorption is likely one of the causes of the slight  $J_{sc}$  decrease observed for some of the cells. Indeed, the discoloration of the active area was clearly observed in the cell filled with the electrolyte containing CMC 4.5 wt% and KI (**Fig. 8**, top). In some other cases, the electrolyte partially depleted over time near the active area (**Fig. 8**, bottom). This typically arises from an unsuitable sealing, which may result in gel deswelling (leading to the leakage of the liquid phase). In the present work, we rarely experienced electrolyte traces out of the active area; therefore, we hypothesised that the

CMC-based gel penetrated the semiconductor pores left unfilled after cell sealing. Indeed, it is well known in the literature that DSSC filling with a gel electrolyte is rather tricky, especially when the gel consistence renders it impossible to introduce it by vacuum-filling. Therefore, electrolyte deposition must be performed manually or by screen-printing, and the proper dosage of gel amount in the first case (like in our study) is difficult to be pursued.

# KI 5.5 M + $I_2$ 50 mM + CMC 4.5 wt%

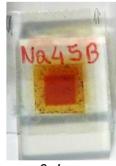


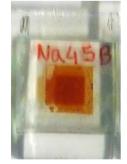


Just assembled

12 days at 60 °C

# NaI 4.5 M + $I_2$ 50 mM + CMC 4.5 wt%





6 days after assembly

12 days at 60 °C

**Fig. 8. Top**: cell K45A filled with aqueous KI 5.5 M +  $I_2$  50 mM + CMC 4.5 wt% after cell assembly and after 12 days of storage at 60 °C. **Bottom**: cell Na45B filled with aqueous NaI 4.5 M +  $I_2$  50 mM + CMC 4.5 wt% 6 days after cell assembly and after 12 days of storage at 60 °C. Both the cells were cosensitized with D131 and CDCA (D131: CDCA = 1 : 1.8).

Overall, the most important outcome of this experiment is the truly impressive stability of the CMC-based aqueous electrolytes upon thermal aging. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report showing the long-term ( $\approx$ 800-875 h) stability of an aqueous DSSC upon thermal aging at 60 °C; the only study on 100% aqueous DSSCs stressed under heat shows an aging test limited at 200 h [ $^{40}$ ]. Thus, we here demonstrate that CMC can successfully jellify the aqueous solution of the redox mediator, at the same time ensuring its effective trapping within the macromolecular matrix without affecting the diffusion of the shuttle ions between the electrodes in the cell.

410

### Conclusions

- 411 CMC hydrogels have demonstrated suitable characteristics as electrolytes in 100% aqueous
- DSSCs. Hydrogels containing both NaI and I<sub>2</sub> allowed for efficient charge transfer at the
- 413 Pt/electrolyte interface. The ionic conductivity of Nal-containing hydrogels and the diffusion
- 414 coefficient of I<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ions were slightly lower than in the liquid counterpart, anyway they were
- comparable and/or higher than the recent literature reports on ionic liquids and water-based
- 416 gel electrolytes. The truly promising electrochemical characteristics suggested that the
- 417 photocurrent generation should not be limited by slow diffusion of I<sup>-</sup> or I<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ions, as for an ionic
- 418 mobility kept constant even down to −10 °C.
- 419 The newly developed biosourced aqueous gel electrolytes were tested in lab-scale solar cells
- and the best photovoltaic performances (0.72%) were achieved in the presence of CMC 5.5
- 421 wt%. In this work, no additives were added to the electrolyte and no surface treatment of the
- 422 photoanodes was performed, in order to keep the whole system as simple, sustainable and
- 423 cheap as possible; this also means that there is much room for improving PCE values. The most
- 424 stable cell demonstrated a remarkable 93% efficiency retention after 29 days of dark storage;
- 425 the CMC-based devices also showed a robust stability when subjected to a further month of
- 426 thermal aging at 60 °C in oven. We found a few difficulties when manually dosing the exact
- amount of quasi-solid electrolyte in the cell, therefore we think that future works should be
- 428 addressed towards in situ gelation of cellulose derivatives, that surely would allow reducing
- 429 the impact of sealing and ensuring an in depth pore filling.
- 430 Overall, we here demonstrated that photovoltaic cells can be fabricated with (heavy) metal-
- 431 free redox shuttles and dye sensitizers, organic solvent-free electrolytes, bioderived cellulosic
- 432 gellifiers by simple and cost-effective preparation procedures, thus opening the way to the
- 433 next-generation of green solar energy conversion.

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