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Supramolecular Interactions of Chenodeoxycholic Acid Increase the Efficiency of Dye-Sensitized Solar Cells Based on a Cobalt Electrolyte

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2
3 ABSTRACT
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5 A combined experimental and computational study is carried out to understand the nature of the
6 interfaces between dye-sensitized TiO₂ and cobalt-based electrolyte in the presence of a prototype
7 co-absorbent, chenodeoxycholic acid (CDCA), employed in Dye-Sensitized Solar Cells (DSCs). It
8 was recently reported that including CDCA both in the dye *and* in the electrolyte solutions
9 substantially improved the performance of DSCs based on a Fc/Fc⁺ electrolyte (Daeneke et al. *Nat.*
10 *Chem.* **2011**, 3,1755) . Here we evaluate the individual and combined effect of CDCA as a surface
11 co-adsorbent and as an additive in DSCs based on a Co(II)/Co(III) electrolyte, in combination with
12 two prototypical Ru(II) dyes, N719 and Z907. For both dyes, the concomitant use of CDCA in the
13 dye bath and in the electrolyte solution leads to a significant improvement, by ca. a factor 2, of the
14 DSCs photovoltaic performances, allowing us to reach 5.3% efficiency with Z907. FT-IR analyses
15 conducted on the solid and TiO₂-adsorbed CDCA highlight the presence of surface-adsorbed
16 interacting CDCA molecules, possibly creating a bulky insulating network on the TiO₂ surface.
17 Computational analyses have been carried out to gain insight into the nature of the supramolecular
18 aggregates occurring for CDCA on the TiO₂ surface.
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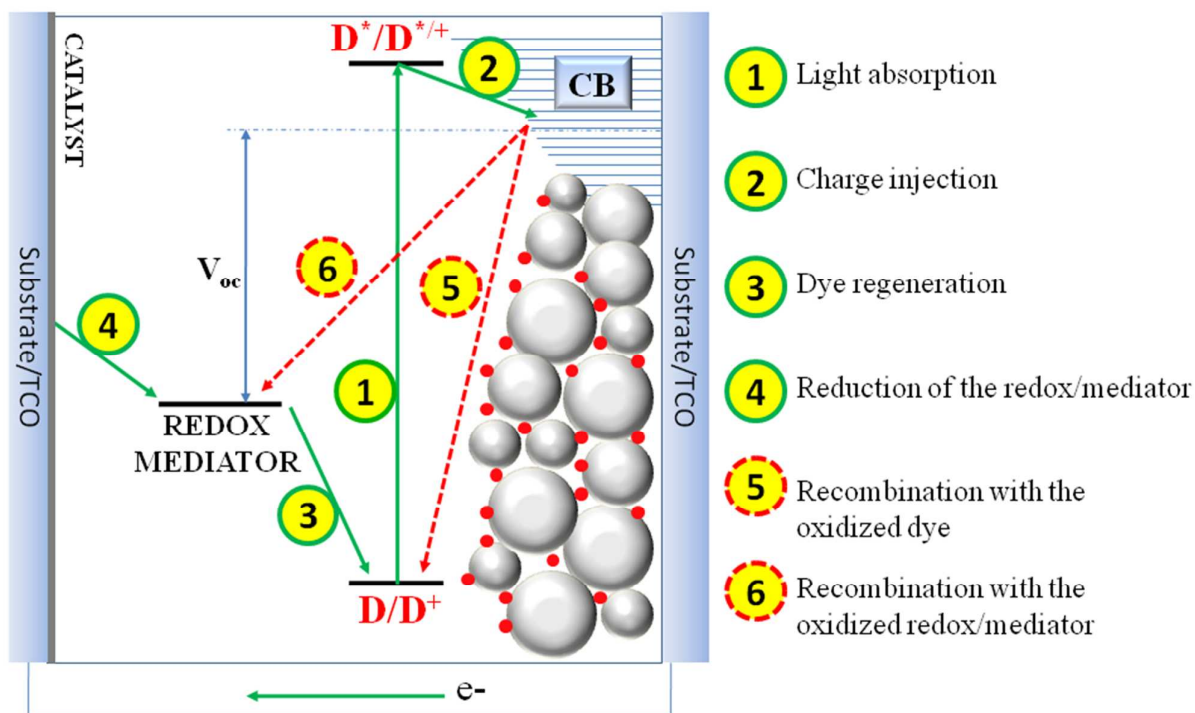
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37 KEYWORDS:
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39 DSCs; CDCA; DFT calculations; recombination
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1. Introduction

Dye-sensitized Solar Cells (DSCs) represent a promising approach to the direct conversion of sunlight into electrical energy at low cost and with high efficiency.^{1 2, 3 4} This has been very recently demonstrated by the launch of the first DSC-based commercial product. DSCs are based on a dye-sensitized mesoporous oxide layer, usually composed by a network of sintered nanoparticles (typically anatase TiO₂ ~20-30 nm diameter), interpenetrated by a liquid redox electrolyte (typically I⁻/I₃⁻ or Co(II)/Co(III)-polypyridine complexes in a volatile organic solvent), Scheme 1. Upon photoexcitation of the chemisorbed dye, charge separation occurs at the dye-sensitized semiconductor interface and electrons are injected into the oxide conduction band (CB); the generated charges travel across the TiO₂ nanoparticle network and can be collected at the transparent conducting glass back contact. The oxidized dye is regenerated by the redox shuttle electrolyte. The circuit is closed by electrolyte regeneration at the counter-electrode, see Scheme 1.

The iodide/triiodide (I⁻/I₃⁻) redox couple has maintained a clear lead in DSCs for many years,⁵ although this system is now being rivaled by the Co(II)/Co(III),⁶⁻⁹ Cu(I)/Cu(II),¹⁰ and Fe(II)/Fe(III)¹¹ redox couples. As a matter of fact, the record DSCs efficiency to date has been obtained by a Co(II)/Co(III) liquid electrolyte.⁸



Scheme 1. Schematic representation of the constituent materials and energy levels of a DSC along with forward (green lines) and backward (dotted red lines) electronic processes. The energy levels roughly correspond to those of a DSC based on the N3 dye (red spots), TiO_2 nanoparticles (grey spheres) and I^-/I_3^- redox mediator (not shown).

The DSCs efficiency is the product of the short-circuit photocurrent density (J_{sc}), the open circuit voltage (V_{oc}) and the cell fill-factor (ff) divided by the intensity of the incident light (I_s), namely:

$$\eta = J_{sc} \times V_{oc} \times FF / I_s \quad (1)$$

The three ingredients of a DSC, namely the dye, the semiconductor oxide and the redox couple, can be individually or simultaneously optimized in search of higher efficiencies. The photocurrent density is directly related to the charge generation and collection efficiency, which in

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3 turn depend upon the dye light-harvesting and the kinetics of electron injection, dye regeneration
4 and charge transport within the cell. As such, a sizable contribution to J_{sc} depends directly on the
5 dye. The DSCs open circuit voltage represents the difference between the quasi-Fermi level of the
6 semiconductor under illumination and the redox potential of the redox shuttle electrolyte, see
7 Scheme 1, the latter being nearly constant under operation conditions due to the high concentration
8 of redox species. The quasi-Fermi level ($E_{F,n}$) of the semiconductor depends “statically” on the
9 semiconductor conduction band (CB) energy and “dynamically” on the charge density (n)
10 accumulated in the semiconductor,⁷ according to the following equation:
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$$E_{F,n} = E_{CB} + k_B T \ln[n/N_c] \quad (2)$$

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27 where N_c is the density of states in the semiconductor. Accordingly, a higher semiconductor CB and
28 charge density accumulation in the semiconductor provide a raise of the quasi-Fermi level and thus
29 of the V_{oc} . At the same time, a more positive redox shuttle potential leads to increased V_{oc} , Scheme
30 1. This aspect is exploited in Co(II)/Co(III) electrolytes and in general in transition metal redox
31 shuttle endowed with a tunable redox potential.¹² It is thus clear that V_{oc} depends only *indirectly* on
32 the dye, which can either exert an effect on the TiO_2 CB energy¹³ or affect the recombination
33 reactions which vary the charge density into the semiconductor.
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43 The dye chemical nature and structure has been the subject of intensive investigations.
44 Various Ru(II) polypyridyl complexes have primarily been employed as dye sensitizers.^{14, 15} The
45 remarkable performance of the N3 dye,¹⁶ of its doubly protonated analogue (N719)¹⁷ and of the so-
46 called black dye^{18, 19} led to significant advances of the DSCs technology, with solar to electric
47 power efficiencies exceeding 11%.^{20, 21} In the last years, a flourishing family of heteroleptic and
48 cyclometalated Ru(II) dyes have been designed and synthesized to provide higher molar extinction
49 coefficient or peculiar supramolecular interactions compared to N719, thus enhancing the overall
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3 stability and / or efficiency of the DSCs.^{19, 22-26} Fully organic sensitizers have also been developed
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5 because of their increased molar extinction coefficient, compared to Ru(II)-dyes, spectral tunability
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7 and reduced environmental impact,^{27, 28} and showed very high photovoltaic efficiencies, exceeding
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9 10%.²⁹ Finally, functionalized donor-acceptor Zn(II)-porphyrins have recently emerged as a new
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11 class of dye sensitizers with high performance, due to the extended absorption spectrum in the red
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13 to near IR, region.^{30, 31}

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16 TiO₂ is essentially established as the most performing semiconductor metal oxide in DSCs,
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18 both in the form of the commonly employed sintered nanoparticles or nanotubes,³²⁻³⁴ although
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20 research on alternative oxides is also actively pursued.³⁵⁻³⁹

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23 The I⁻/I₃⁻ redox couple in an organic solvent has been considered as the standard high-
24
25 performance electrolyte in DSCs for many years; all champion DSCs reported up to 2010 were
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27 based on such redox couple.^{19, 26} Solid state DSCs based on the spiro-OMeTAD solid hole
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29 conductor are also actively investigated, delivering top efficiencies of about 7%.^{40, 41} Although
30
31 highly performing, the I⁻/I₃⁻ redox couple has several disadvantages, including its high corrosivity
32
33 towards most of noble metals, except gold, which imposes stringent requisites to DSCs module
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35 fabrication. Also, the unfavorable thermodynamics of its complex two-electron redox cycle implies
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37 DSCs voltage losses of ca. 600 mV,⁵ mainly related to the dye regeneration process.⁴² The two-
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39 electron / bimolecular nature of the recombination pathway between injected electrons and the
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41 oxidized dye or oxidized species in the electrolyte is a key to suppress such parasitic processes,
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43 which would reduce both V_{oc} and J_{sc}.^{5, 43}

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47 Various attempts have been made to replace the I⁻/I₃⁻ redox couple by alternative electrolytes
48
49 based on simpler one-electron redox couples, although the high recombination rates typical of such
50
51 systems has prevented for a long time to achieve high photovoltaic performances. Among the
52
53 systems which have been experimented, we mention Co(II)/Co(III) polypyridyl complexes,^{6-9, 44-50}
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55 Fe(II)/Fe(III) ferrocene/ferrocenium complexes,^{11, 40, 51, 52} Cu(I)/Cu(II) complexes,^{10, 53} organic
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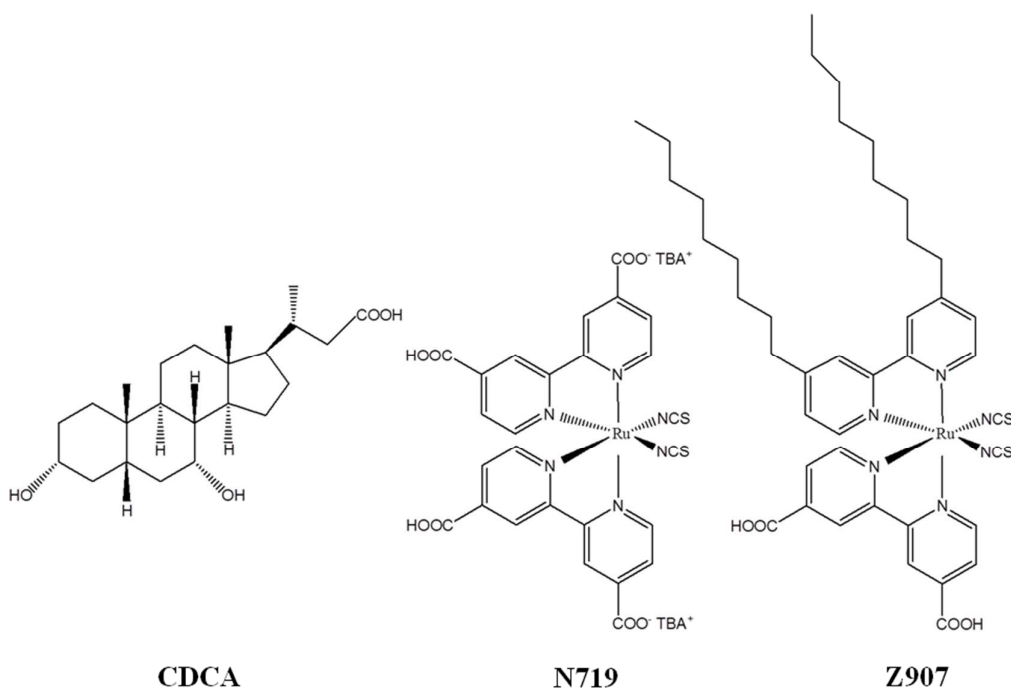
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3 redox couples,^{54, 55} CuNCS^{56, 57} and S⁻/S₂⁻ redox couples, the latter being largely employed in
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5 quantum dot-based DSCs.^{58, 59} Very interestingly, the investigated transition metal complexes have
6
7 tunable redox potentials which can be pushed up to ca. 1 V vs. SHE, so that if efficient charge
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9 collection can be achieved, a correspondingly higher V_{oc} might be extracted. Maintaining the same
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11 J_{sc} and FF of champion DSCs based on I⁻/I₃⁻, this readily translates into overall device efficiencies
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13 approaching 15%.

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16 Despite the great potential for alternative redox couple, only very recently these systems
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18 have started delivering high DSCs efficiencies. An emblematic case in this respect is that recently
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20 reported by Daeneke *et al.* for the ferrocene/ferrocenium (Fc/Fc⁺) electrolyte,¹¹ which in
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22 conjunction with a specifically tailored organic dye, reached 7.5 % efficiency. The key to such a
23
24 high efficiency was the peculiar dye structure, which probably prevented the oxidized Fc⁺ to
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26 approach the TiO₂ surface, thus substantially reducing parasitic recombination reactions. Also in the
27
28 case of Co(II)/Co(III) electrolytes it is evident in the literature the key role of the blocking dye
29
30 chains in shielding the TiO₂ surface and limiting the recombination of the injected electrons with
31
32 the oxidized form of the redox couple.⁶⁰ All the most performing dyes in the cobalt-based DSCs are
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34 now designed with bulky alkyl or alkoxy chains.^{6, 8, 9}

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37 A further interesting aspect of the work by Daeneke *et al.*¹¹ lies in the observation that
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39 including the prototype chenodeoxycholic acid co-adsorbent both in the dye *and* in the electrolyte
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41 solution substantially improved the DSCs performance, both in terms of V_{oc} and J_{sc}. This
42
43 unprecedented observation deserves, in our opinion, further attention, since it might be a key to
44
45 further expanding the applicability of alternative redox couples for high performance DSCs.
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50 Chenodeoxycholic acid, Scheme 2, hereafter CDCA, is widely used as an anti-aggregant co-
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52 adsorbent in DSCs.⁶¹⁻⁶⁷ CDCA is employed in variable concentrations in the semiconductor dyeing
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54 process and is co-adsorbed on the TiO₂ surface along with the dye to minimize dye/dye
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56 intermolecular interactions which may negatively affect the DSCs performances.⁶⁸⁻⁷¹ It was also
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proposed that acidic co-adsorbents, such as CDCA, may act as a proton buffer for the dye, thus “regulating” the dye proton content and assisting dye adsorption onto the semiconductor surface.⁷²



Scheme 2. Molecular structure of Chenodeoxycholic acid (CDCA), N719 and Z907 dyes.

To the best of our knowledge, the effect of CDCA in the electrolyte has not been investigated beyond the work by Daeneke *et al.* in Ref. ¹¹, where a “hermetic protection through the establishment of a steady-state equilibrium between surface adsorbed and electrolyte-borne molecules” was invoked to explain the improved performances. Considering the need to block the approach of Fc^+ to the semiconductor surface to obtain high performances, a tentative explanation of this behavior may lay in supramolecular interactions occurring between CDCA molecules co-adsorbed along with the dye onto the semiconductor surface, and free CDCA molecules present in the electrolyte solution. Inspection of the CDCA chemical structure, Scheme 2, reveals the presence of two OH groups in positions 3a and 7a, which might undergo hydrogen bonding with the carboxylic group and / or with the same OH groups of a different CDCA molecule. The existence of

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3 this kind of interactions, involving a large number of molecules, is confirmed in the solid state by
4 XRD structural determination.⁷³⁻⁷⁶ Furthermore FT-IR and Raman investigations on CDCA,
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6 demonstrated the permanence of a similar kernel of interacting molecules, bound via hydrogen
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8 bonding, also in CHCl₃ solution.^{77,78}
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12 As already reported by Planells et al.^{79, 80} supramolecular chemistry can be used to control
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14 charge recombination and other reactions in DSCs. Motivated by the observations above, in this
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16 paper we evaluate the combined effect of CDCA as a surface co-adsorbent and as an additive in
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18 DSCs based on a Co(II)/Co(III) electrolyte, in combination with two prototypical Ru(II) dyes, i.e.
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20 N719 and Z907 (Scheme 2). The Z907 dye, which has nonyl chains on one bipyridine ligand, is
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22 more effective in shielding the TiO₂ surface from the Co(III) approach, and has shown better
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24 performances than N719 in Co(II)/Co(III)-based DSCs.⁷ For both dyes, the concomitant use of
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26 CDCA in the dye bath and in the electrolyte solution leads to a significant improvement, by ca. a
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28 factor 2, of the DSCs photovoltaic performances, allowing us to reach 5.3% efficiency in Z907-
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30 based DSCs. FT-IR analyses conducted on the solid and TiO₂-adsorbed CDCA have confirmed the
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32 presence of surface-adsorbed interacting CDCA molecules, possibly creating a bulky network also
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34 on the TiO₂ surface. A computational model of CDCA adsorption on the TiO₂ surface was then
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36 developed to quantify the entity of these supramolecular interactions, in relation to the reported
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38 photovoltaic results.
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45 **2. Experimental**

46 **2.1 Materials**

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48 All the materials used in this work were used as received, without further purification, if not stated
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50 otherwise. The N719 and Z907 dyes and were purchased from Solaronix, the TiO₂ pastes from
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52 Dyesol. Co[(bpy)₃][PF₆]₂ and [Co(bpy)₃][PF₆]₃ were synthesized following a previously reported
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54 procedure.⁶ CoCl₂ × 6H₂O (1.19 g) was dissolved in methanol (15mL). A methanol solution of the
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3 2-2'bipyridine ligand (2.57g in 10mL) was added dropwise while stirring, then the solution was
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5 heated (70°C) at reflux for 2h. An excess of ammonium hexafluorophosphate (NH₄PF₆), (1.8g), was
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7 added to the solution to form the precipitate. The resulting Co(II) tris-bipyridine complex was
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9 finally filtered, washed with ethanol and methanol and dried under vacuum. Elemental analysis
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11 calculated for C₃₀ H₂₄ Co F₁₂ N₆ P₂: C, 44.08; H, 2.96; N, 10.28%. Found: C, 43.82; H, 3.35; N,
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13 10.37%. Oxidation of the Cobalt(II) complex was performed by adding a slight excess of NOBF₄
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15 (10% exceeding the stoichiometric quantity) to an acetonitrile solution of [Co(bpy)₃][PF₆]₂. The
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17 solvent was then removed by rotary evaporation. The complex was then re-dissolved in acetonitrile,
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19 and a large amount of NH₄PF₆ was added to the solution. The final product was precipitated with
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21 diethyl ether, filtered and dried under vacuum. Since this is usually a quantitative reaction the
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23 product was used without further purification and characterization.
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28 Z907 dye powders were purified by using HPLC (Waters 996, equipped with a photodiode
29
30 array detector). The dye powder was solubilized in ethanol and injected in the chromatographic
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32 column (Phenomenex Jupiter, 10µm, C18, 250mm x 21mm). The mobile phase consisted of
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34 distilled acetonitrile with 0.1% of trifluoroacetic acid (CF₃COOH).
35

36 2.2 Solar cells fabrication

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38 FTO glass (TEC-15, 2.2 mm thickness, Solaronix) was used for transparent conducting electrodes.
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40 The substrate was first cleaned in a ultrasonic bath using a detergent solution, acetone and ethanol
41
42 respectively (each step 15 min. long). The FTO glass plates were immersed into a 40mM aqueous
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44 TiCl₄ solution at 70 °C for 30 min and washed with water and ethanol. A layer of transparent TiO₂
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46 paste (18NR-T, Dyesol) was spread on the FTO glass plates by doctor blade. The TiO₂ layer was
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48 treated in a ethanol chamber and dried for 5min at 120°C. Then a scattering layer (WER 2.0,
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50 Dyesol) was deposited over the transparent layer, by using the same deposition process. The TiO₂
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52 coated electrodes (active area 0.2 cm²) were gradually heated under air flow at 325 °C for 5 min, at
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54 375 °C for 5 min, at 450 °C for 15 min, and 500 °C for 15 min. After the sintering process, the TiO₂
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3 film was treated with 40mM TiCl_4 solution, then rinsed with water and ethanol. The electrodes were
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5 heated at 500 °C for 30 min and after cooling (80 °C) were immersed for 20 hours into sensitizing
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7 baths. These consisted of EtOH solutions of the N719 and Z907 dyes (Solaronix) in 0.2 mM
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9 concentration, and when required with 20.0 mM of 3a,7a-dihydroxy-5b-cholic acid (CDCA) added.
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12 Counter electrodes were prepared by coating with a drop of H_2PtCl_6 solution (2 mg of Pt in
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14 1 mL of ethanol) a FTO plate (TEC 15/2.2 mm thickness, Solaronix) and heating at 400 °C for 15
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16 min. The TiO_2 sensitized photoanode and Pt counter electrode were assembled into a sealed
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18 sandwich-type cell by a hot-melt ionomer film (Surlyn, 25 μm thickness, Dyesol). The electrolyte
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20 solution was inserted by vacuum backfilling. Then, the hole was sealed by using additional Surlyn
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22 patch and a cover glass and finally a conductive Ag-based paint was deposited at the electrical
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24 contacts.
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28 The Iolitech ES-0004 HP electrolyte, containing 1butyl-3methylimidazolium iodide, iodine,
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30 guanidinium thiocyanate and *tert*-butylpyridine, in a mixture of valeronitrile and acetonitrile was
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32 used for the I^-/I_3^- electrolyte reference cells. The effect of 0.1M of LiClO_4 was also tested. The
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34 cobalt-based electrolyte contains 0.2M $[\text{Co}(\text{bpy})_3](\text{PF}_6)_2$, 0.02M $[\text{Co}(\text{bpy})_3](\text{PF}_6)_3$, 0.1 M LiClO_4 ,
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36 and 0.5 M 4-*tert*-butylpyridine in acetonitrile. Where required, CDCA (Solaronix) was added to the
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38 electrolyte in 0.01M concentration. The employed amount of CDCA was not totally soluble in the
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40 cobalt electrolyte solution, so the mixture was stirred for 2h and the liquid fraction on the solution
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42 surface was used for the DSCs fabrication.
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47 **2.3 Photovoltaic Characterization**

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49 Photovoltaic measurements were recorded by means of AM 1.5 solar simulator equipped with a
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51 Xenon lamp (LOT-ORIEL LS 0106). The power of incoming radiation, set at 100 mW/cm^2 , was
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53 checked by a piranometer. J–V curves were obtained by applying an external bias to the cell and
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55 measuring the generated photocurrent with a Keithley model 2400 digital source-meter, under the
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3 control of dedicated LabTracer 2.0 software. A black shading mask was employed to avoid the
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5 overestimation of the measured parameters.⁸¹
6

7 8 **2.4 FT-IR measurements**

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10 All the experimental spectra were recorded using a μ -FTIR instrument consisting of a JASCO®
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12 FTIR 4100 spectrometer, equipped with a liquid nitrogen cooled MCT detector coupled with an
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14 IMV-4000 optical microscope. Measurements were performed in transmission mode (through a
15
16 Cassegrain 16X objective) on a micro diamond cell, scanning an energy range of 6000-600 cm^{-1} and
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18 with a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} . The spectra were recorded using 5000 scans; background correction was
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20 adopted by means of a spectrum collected on the empty micro diamond cell. TiO_2 precoated
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22 photoanodes, from Dyesol, were heated for 30min at 500°C. They were then dipped in a 2×10^{-2} M
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24 solution of CDCA in solvent (EtOH, CHCl_3 , Acetonitrile, from Baker, HPLC purity), overnight.
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26 After 20h they were rinsed with acetonitrile and a μ -FTIR spectrum of each sample was recorded
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28 directly on powders.
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34 35 **2.5 Computational details**

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37 The simulation of CDCA adsorption on the TiO_2 surface, was performed by means of the
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39 Car-Parrinello code, as implemented in the Quantum-Espresso package,⁸² employing the GGA-
40
41 PBE exchange-correlation functional⁸³ in combination with a plane wave basis set and ultrasoft
42
43 pseudopotentials. Plane wave basis set cutoffs set for the smooth part of the wave functions and the
44
45 augmented density are 25 and 200 Ry, respectively. The dimensions of the simulation supercells
46
47 have been defined by adding 7 Å of vacuum to the largest dimension in each direction. Geometry
48
49 optimization has been performed with a damped dynamics setting the atomic masses and the
50
51 electronic fictitious to a value of 5 amu and 1500 a.u. with a time step simulation of 10 a.u. The
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53 electronic and ionic frictions have set to a values of 0.05 and 0.0007 a.u., respectively. The CP
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3 geometries are further optimized with the ADF program package with the TZP basis-set for Ti
4 atoms and DZP basis-set for the other atoms.

5
6
7 To model the TiO₂ surface, we consider a (TiO₂)₈₂ cluster, obtained by appropriately
8
9 “cutting” an anatase slab exposing the majority (101) surface.⁸⁴ Following the work by Persson *et*
10
11 *al.*,⁸⁵ we consider a neutral stoichiometric TiO₂ cluster with no saturating atoms or groups at the
12
13 cluster border. These models have been shown to accurately reproduce the electronic and structural
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15 properties of TiO₂ anatase.⁸⁴ The calculated dipole moment for our (TiO₂)₈₂ cluster is correctly
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17 found to be almost vanishing in all directions (0.5, 0.7, and 0.8 D for x, y, and z, the latter
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19 corresponding to the surface normal). The employed (TiO₂)₈₂ model is an almost square TiO₂ (101)
20
21 two-layer anatase slab of ~2 nm side, with three rows of five- and sixcoordinated surface Ti sites,
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23 which is large enough to avoid possible spurious dye/titania interactions at the cluster border due to
24
25 the finite cluster size. Furthermore, Martsinovich *et al.* pointed out that TiO₂ anatase surface models
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27 are rather insensitive to the thickness of the TiO₂ layer,⁸⁶ with two layer slabs accurately
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29 reproducing the electronic and structural features of larger models. In addition to the vanishing
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31 dipole moment, the adequacy of the employed cluster model against periodic surface slabs has been
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33 further checked here by performing comparative CP calculations employing the same GGA
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35 functional employed for geometry optimizations.

36
37
38 CDCA molecules were adsorbed on TiO₂ in a bridged bi-dentate configuration.¹³ To
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40 evaluate the possibility of CDCA aggregation in solution and on the semiconductor surface, we
41
42 investigated the possible CDCA dimer and trimer formation calculating the association energy with
43
44 the GGA-PBE approach and with the B3LYP hybrid functional⁸⁷ and solvation effects with the
45
46 continuum polarizable model (PCM)^{88, 89} as implemented in the Gaussian09⁹⁰ package program.
47
48 The 6-31G* basis set⁹¹ was used in all Gaussian calculation if not otherwise specified. Geometry
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50 optimization of the CDCA dimers have been also performed in solvent. The adsorption energy of
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52 the CDCA on to the TiO₂ cluster is calculated, from the total free energies in solution, as $\Delta E_{\text{ads}} =$
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3 E(CDCA@TiO₂) – E(TiO₂) – E(CDCA) and the aggregation energy between two CDCA molecules
4
5 is $\Delta E_{\text{dim}} = E(\text{CDCA}_2) - 2 * E(\text{CDCA})$.
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7 **3. Results and discussion**

8 **3.1 Photovoltaic Data**

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10 We start our discussion by a comparative investigation of the photovoltaic properties of DSC
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12 devices fabricated with the same photoanode/cathode but varying the dye (N719 or Z907) and the
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14 nature and composition of the electrolytes, see Table 1, Figures 1 and 2 and Supporting
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16 Information.
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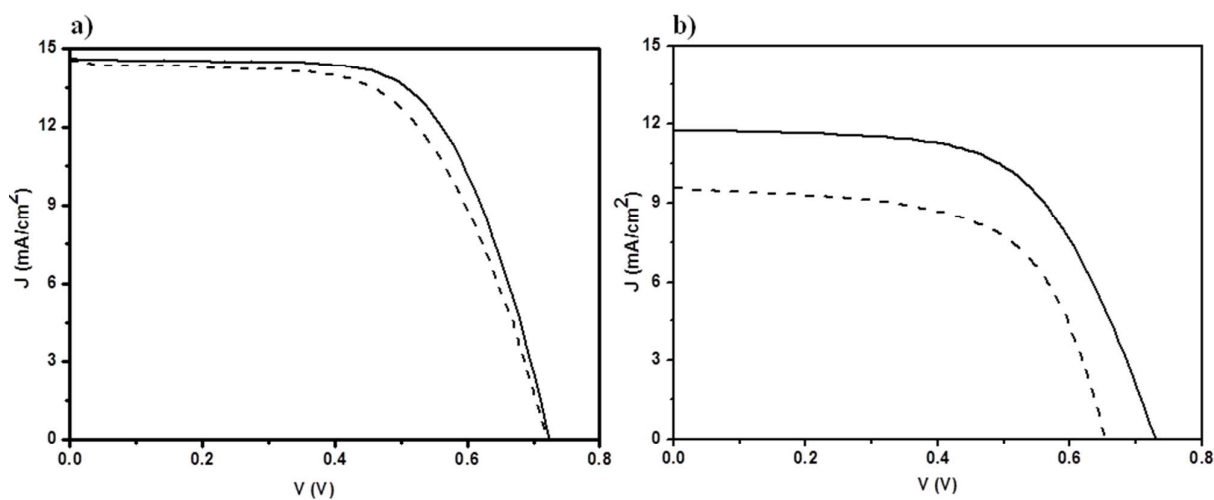
20 For devices based on the I⁻/I₃⁻ reference electrolyte, the photovoltaic results with N719 and
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22 Z907 dyes are in line with the literature.⁷ Notice that our fabrication protocol and the employed
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24 materials allow us to reproducibly obtain ~7% efficiency with ruthenium dyes and the I⁻/I₃⁻
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26 electrolyte, which therefore represents our benchmark performance.
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Table 1. Photovoltaic parameters for DSCs employing different electrolytes and sensitizing dyes, measured under simulated AM 1.5 1 Sun illumination.

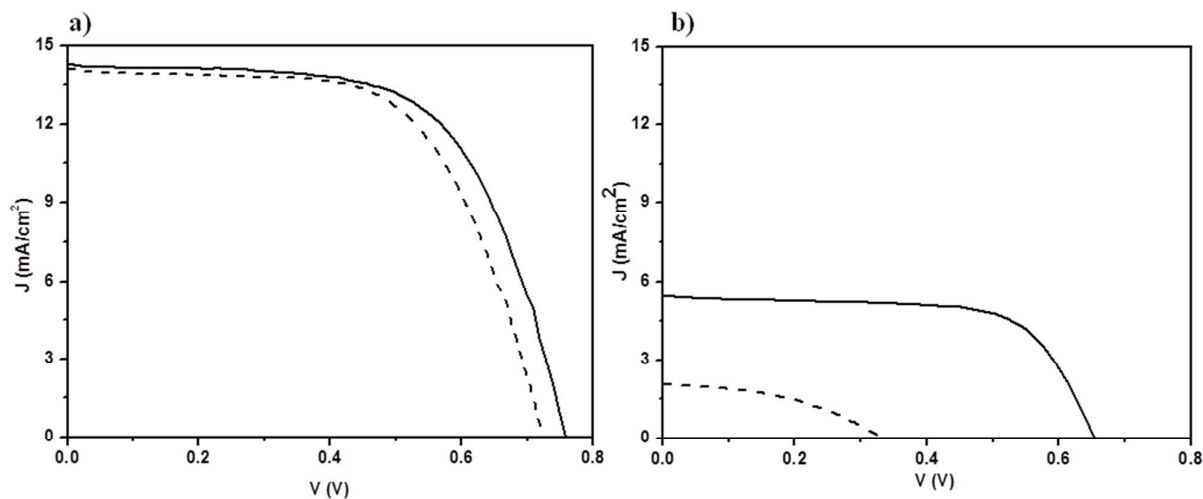
Cell	CDCA (dye)	CDCA (electrolyte)	LiClO ₄	J _{sc} (mA/cm ²)	V _{oc} (mV)	FF	η (%)
I-Z907-1	No	No	No	13.0	780	0.64	6.5
I-Z907-2	0.02 M	0.01 M	No	12.3	780	0.69	6.6
I-Z907-3	No	No	0.1 M	14.5	721	0.61	6.4
I-Z907-4	0.02 M	0.01 M	0.1 M	14.6	724	0.65	6.9
Co-Z907-1	No	No	0.1 M	9.6	653	0.62	3.9
Co-Z907-2	0.02 M	0.01 M	0.1 M	11.8	732	0.61	5.3
Co-Z907-3	0.02 M	No	0.1 M	7.8	660	0.49	2.5
Co-Z907-4	No	0.01 M	0.1 M	7.6	669	0.57	2.9
I-N719-1	No	No	No	14.0	758	0.64	6.8
I-N719-2	0.02 M	0.01 M	No	13.2	780	0.67	6.9
I-N719-3	No	No	0.1 M	14.0	726	0.63	6.4
I-N719-4	0.02 M	0.01 M	0.1 M	14.2	758	0.63	6.8
Co-N719-1	No	No	0.1 M	2.1	332	0.43	0.3
Co-N719-2	0.02 M	0.01 M	0.1 M	5.4	651	0.68	2.4

Slightly better performances were obtained with N719 (I-N719-1) compared to the Z907 dye (I-Z907-1), due to a better photocurrent developed by N719-sensitized devices. By adding to the electrolyte the LiClO₄ additive (I-Z907-3 and I-N719-3), that is known to down-shift the TiO₂ conduction band,^{92, 93} we note the expected increase of the short circuit photocurrent and a considerable reduction of the photovoltage, particularly in the case of DSCs sensitized with the

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3 Z907 dye (see Figure 1a, 2a). Notice that, in line with the results of Ref. ¹¹, addition of CDCA to the
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5 electrolyte solution does not have any particular influence on the photovoltaic performances of
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7 devices based on the I^-/I_3^- electrolyte.
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28 **Figure 1.** J-V characteristic of a) I-Z907-3 cell (dashed line) and I-Z907-4 (solid line) and b) Co-
29 Z907-1 cell (dashed line) and Co-Z907-2 (solid line). Solid lines are referred to cells with CDCA
30 additive both in dye solution (0.02M) and in the electrolyte (0.01M).
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3 **Figure 2.** J-V characteristic of a) I-N719-3 cell (dashed line) and I-N719-4 (solid line) and b) Co-
4 N719-1 cell (dashed line) and Co-N719-2 (solid line). Solid line are referred to cell with CDCA
5 additive both in dye solution (0.02M) and in the electrolyte (0.01M).
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11 Moving to the $[\text{Co}(\text{bpy})_3]^{2+/3+}$ electrolyte, the photovoltaic parameters were strongly
12 influenced both by the dye and the electrolyte composition. The Z907 dye (Co-Z907-1, Figure 1b)
13 shows much better performances than N719 (Co-N719-1, Figure 2b) as previously found.^{7, 60} This is
14 mainly due to the steric hindrance introduced by the nonyl chains, which effectively insulate the
15 TiO_2 surface reducing the recombination reactions. The poor performances of N719 highlight the
16 important contribution of parasitic recombination reactions in limiting the device performance.⁶⁰
17 Since to obtain good results in combination with the $[\text{Co}(\text{bpy})_3]^{2+/3+}$ electrolyte it seems of great
18 importance to effectively shield the TiO_2 surface from the oxidized form of the redox couple, we
19 tested the effect of the CDCA as an electrolyte additive, to check if the beneficial effect noted in the
20 Fc/Fc^+ case¹¹ is verified also in the cobalt-based electrolyte.
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34 For both Z907 and N719 dyes, when the CDCA was used both in the dye solution (0.02M)
35 and in the electrolyte (nominally 0.01M), we obtained an impressive improvement of the device
36 performances (Co-Z907-2 and Co-N719-2). In particular for the Z907 dye we were able to reach ~
37 80% of the efficiency obtained for I^-/I_3^- based devices, passing from 3.9% to 5.3% conversion
38 efficiency (see Table 1 and Figure 1). A significant gain of about $2 \text{ mA}/\text{cm}^2$ in J_{sc} and 80 mV in V_{oc}
39 was obtained, testifying the effectiveness of the CDCA additive in reducing the recombination
40 losses. It is worth noting that the extracted photovoltage in this case is slightly higher than that of
41 the corresponding iodine-based DSCs using the same concentration of LiClO_4 (732 vs. 724 mV), in
42 line with the higher (more positive) redox potential of $[\text{Co}(\text{bpy})_3]^{2+/3+}$ electrolyte with respect to the
43 I^-/I_3^- .⁷ Obviously, our V_{oc} increase is still below the ideal ~ 100 mV gain that one would expect
44 based on the difference in redox potentials of the two redox shuttles due to the possibly different
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3 recombination kinetics in the two types of cells. Employing CDCA in the electrolyte solution, the
4 photovoltaic performances of N719 still remain much lower compared to the corresponding Z907-
5 based devices, although J_{sc} values of over 5 mA/cm^2 and V_{oc} of 0.65V were obtained, leading to an
6 efficiency of 2.4% with this dye (Figure 2b). Slightly improved performance for N719-based DSCs
7 (2.6 %) have been obtained using an opaque TiO_2 paste, which however led to a reduced efficiency
8 (4.5 %) for Z907-based DSCs, see Supporting Information.

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16 Further tests were conducted with the Z907 dye and the $[\text{Co}(\text{bpy})_3]^{2+/3+}$ electrolyte, using
17 CDCA alternatively in dye bath and in electrolyte solutions. In this case we obtained similar or
18 reduced efficiency compared to devices not employing CDCA (Co-Z907-3 and Co-Z907-4). In
19 both cases we noted a lower J_{sc} value, probably due to the competition of the CDCA with the dye
20 for TiO_2 binding sites. The decrease of both parameters, added to quite poor FF values, led to a drop
21 of the conversion efficiency of about 25% compared to the devices with no CDCA.
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30 The fact that the improvement in photovoltaic efficiency has been obtained exclusively
31 combining the CDCA additive in the dye bath *and* in the electrolyte solutions, is consistent with the
32 formation of an equilibrium between the surface-adsorbed CDCA and the CDCA molecules in
33 solution, as proposed by Daeneke *et al.* for the Fc/Fc^+ redox couple.¹¹ The presence of bulky
34 CDCA assemblies onto or close to the TiO_2 surface, due to the possible establishment of
35 supramolecular interactions among CDCA molecules, see below, could effectively limit the Co(III)
36 ions approach to the semiconductor surface and the subsequent recombination with the injected
37 electrons.
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49 3.2 FT-IR spectra

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51 As previously reported,⁷³⁻⁷⁸ CDCA shows a strong intermolecular hydrogen bonding leading to an
52 extended crystalline network in the solid state, see Figure 3. In particular, FT-IR measurements
53 showed a characteristic peak of the hydrogen bonded C=O stretching, located at 1709 cm^{-1} .^{77, 78}
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Moving to the IR spectra in CHCl_3 solution, two signals at 1708 and 1742 cm^{-1} associated to the carbonyl group can be distinguished. Since the 1742 cm^{-1} signal is associated to the free $\text{C}=\text{O}$ stretching, it has been proposed that, despite the solvent may break some intermolecular interactions, a kernel of CDCA molecules associated by hydrogen-bonding is present also in solution, showing the characteristic signal at 1709 cm^{-1} as in the solid state.^{77, 78}

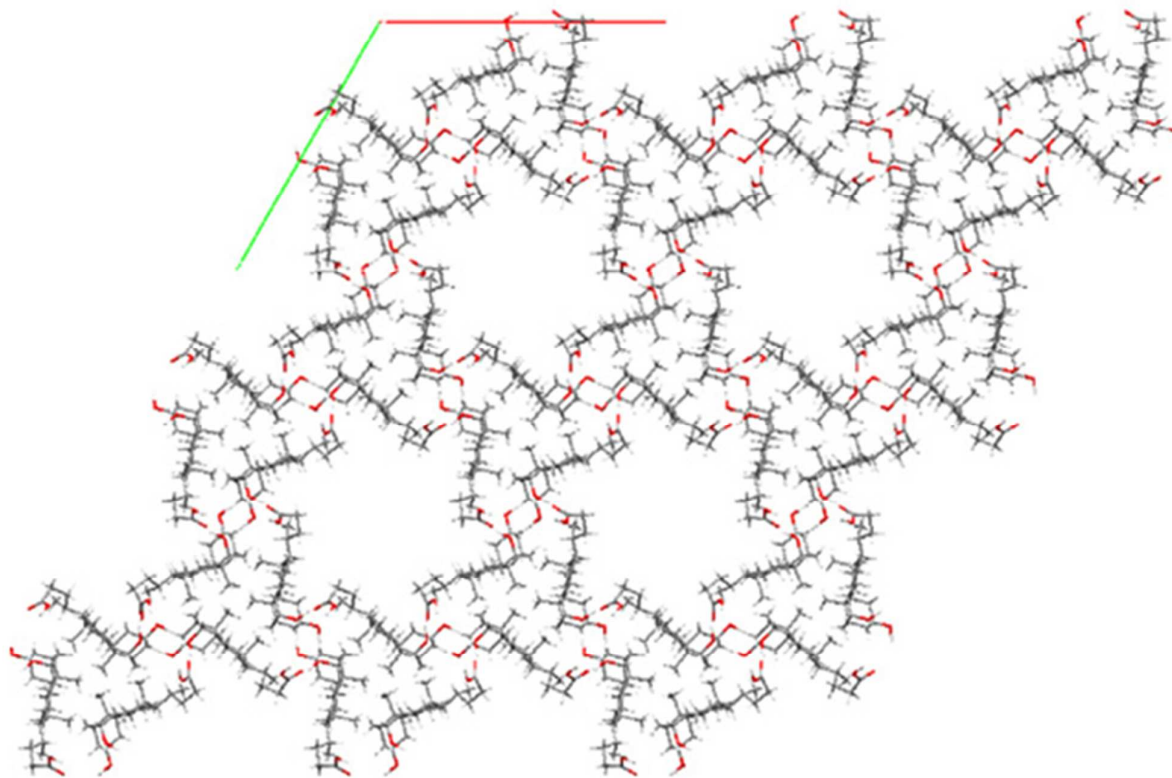


Figure 3. Crystal packing of CDCA molecules. Reprinted from Ref. ⁷⁵, *Steroids*, 72, Alvarez, M.; Jover, A.; Carrazana, J.; Meijide, F.; Soto, V. H.; Tato, J. V. z., Crystal structure of chenodeoxycholic acid, ursodeoxycholic acid and their two 7 α -dihydroxy epimers. Pages No. 535-544, Copyright (2007), with permission from Elsevier.

To check whether a similar aggregate structure could be maintained in our DSCs and to gain insight into the nature of these interactions at the TiO_2 surface, FT-IR measurements have been

carried out on solid CDCA and for CDCA adsorbed onto the semiconductor surface by applying the same procedure used for the DSCs device preparation.

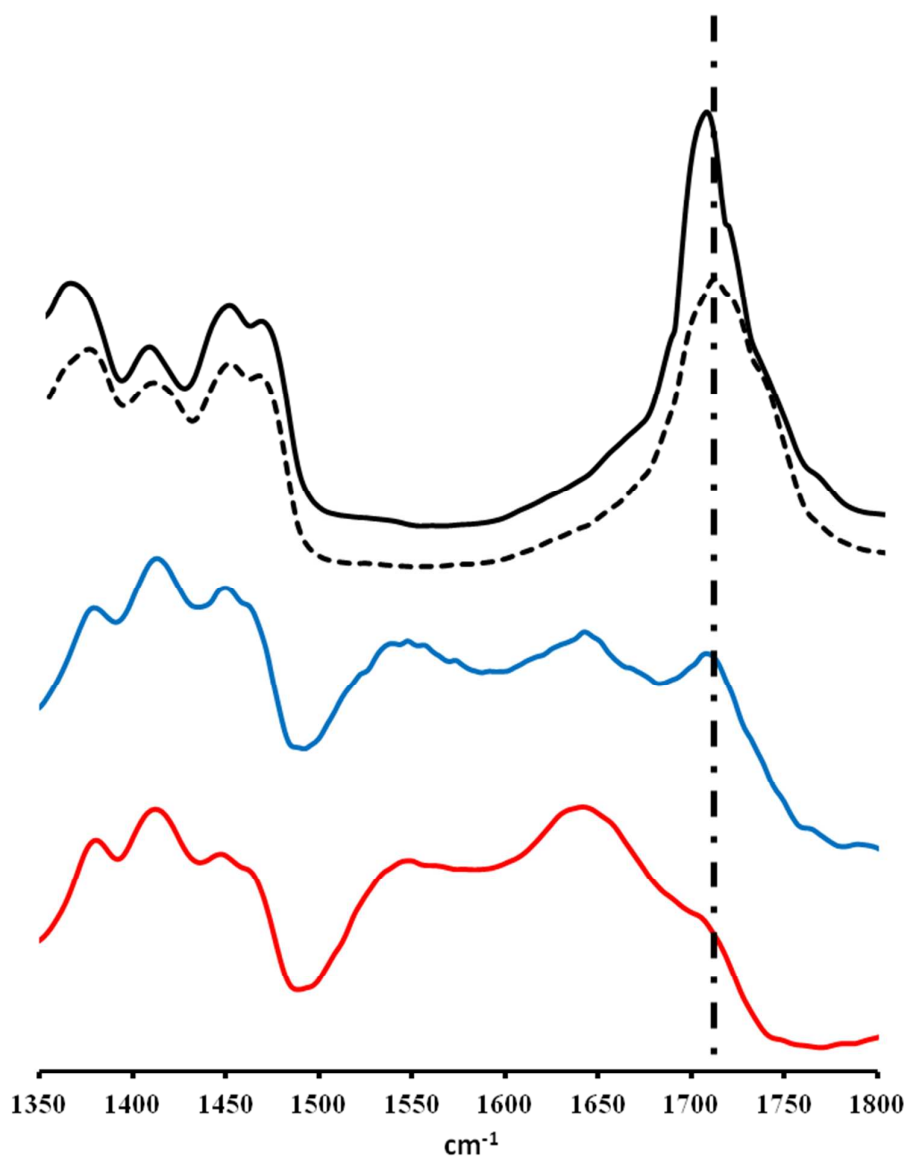


Figure 4. FT-IR absorption spectra of solid CDCA (black line); solid CDCA heated at 130 °C for 4 hours (black dashed line); CDCA adsorbed on TiO₂ from 0.02 M solutions in CH₃CN (blue line) and from EtOH (red line).

As we can see in Figure 4, the signals located at 1710 cm^{-1} , associated to the hydrogen bonded carboxylic stretching, are consistently found for the solid CDCA and for the TiO_2 surface-adsorbed CDCA, both from ethanol and acetonitrile solutions. The signals comprised in a range between 1550 to 1420 cm^{-1} are typical of the asymmetric and symmetric stretching of the TiO_2 surface-adsorbed CDCA carboxylate.¹³ This presence of the signals of the surface-adsorbed carboxylate stretching and free carboxylic group confirms the permanence of an intermolecular aggregation pattern upon CDCA adsorption on TiO_2 , of similar nature to what found in solid CDCA.

3.3 Computational analyses: Aggregate formation and interaction with TiO_2

Computational investigations have been carried out to tentatively assign the nature of the aggregates occurring for CDCA on the TiO_2 surface. In particular, the formation of CDCA hydrogen-bonded assemblies involving both the carboxylic acidic and the hydroxyl groups have been investigated. Here we adopt a stepwise procedure, and we initially simulate the aggregation of two CDCA molecules. On overall, we found four dimeric CDCA structures, Figure 5, characterized by the following interactions: i) hydrogen bonding between the two acidic (A) carboxylic moieties, $\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{A/A}}$; ii) hydrogen bonding between the hydroxyl (O) groups of both molecules, $\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{O/O}}$; iii) hydrogen bond between the carboxylic acid of one molecule and one OH group of the other molecule, $\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{1O/A}}$; and iv) hydrogen bond between the carboxylic acid of one molecule and both OH groups of the other molecule, $\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{O/A}}$.

As we can see in Table 2, the B3LYP binding energy values for the considered dimers are comprised between 19.6 and 13.4 kcal/mol in vacuo; these values reduce to 16.4-11.5 kcal/mol upon geometry optimization in acetonitrile solution. In all cases the $\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{A/A}}$ dimer is calculated as the most stable structure. The $\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{O/O}}$, $\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{1O/A}}$ and $\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{O/A}}$ structures are found within 1-2 kcal/mol, depending on the level of theory, and, considering data in solution, the second most

stable structure is found ca. 3 kcal/mol below the $\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{A/A}}$ dimer. These relevant values of aggregation energy suggest a strong tendency to form intermolecular interactions, in line with the experimental evidence.⁷¹⁻⁷⁴

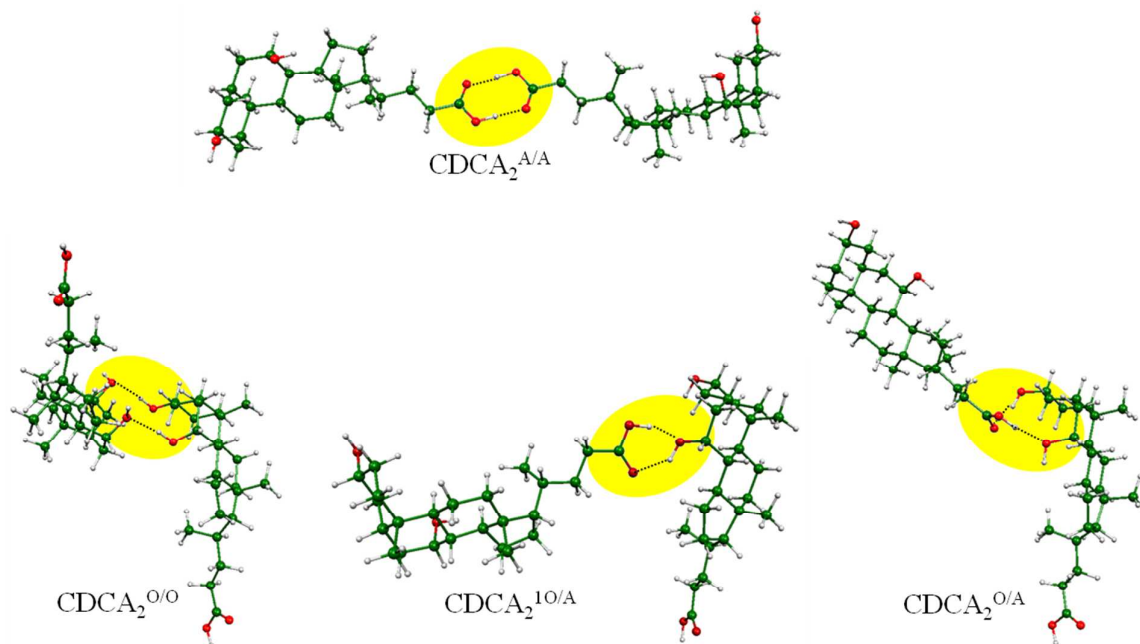


Figure 5. B3LYP-optimized geometries of the investigated CDCA dimers.

Table 2. Adsorption energies of CDCA and NKX2587 (ΔE_{ads}) in the bridged bidentate adsorption mode. Binding energy (ΔE_{dim}) of a series of CDCA dimers are also reported.

	System	ADF Geom.			G09 Geom.		
		PBE-GGA Vac.	B3LYP Vac.	B3LYP Solv.	Vac	Solv.	Opt. Solv.
ΔE_{ads} (kcal/mol)	NKX2587@TiO ₂	-15.19	-22.02	-12.54	-	-	-
	CDCA@TiO ₂	-14.08	-21.85	-15.46	-	-	-
ΔE_{dim} (kcal/mol)	$\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{A/A}}$	-21.65	-21.30	-17.34	-19.60	-15.42	-16.35
	$\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{O/O}}$	-14.73	-16.55	-14.44	-14.30	-11.96	-13.53
	$\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{O/A}}$	-13.30	-14.96	-12.48	-13.04	-10.08	-11.54
	$\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{1O/A}}$	-15.20	-14.52	-11.26	-14.88	-11.27	-12.49

The effect of the PBE-GGA functional on the geometry optimizations is also checked by relaxing the dimers with the ADF program package used for geometry optimizations of TiO₂-

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3 adsorbed species. On these GGA geometries a single point energy with the B3LYP functional in
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5 vacuo and in solution has been carried out, demonstrating that the GGA geometries give a similar
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7 association energy if compared to the energy values obtain with the B3LYP optimized geometry,
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9 see Table 2. This observation allows us to optimize the CDCA adsorbed onto the $(\text{TiO}_2)_{82}$
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11 nanocluster by GGA, thus reducing the computational cost, and then to evaluate the adsorption
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13 energies with a single point energy calculation at the B3LYP/PCM level.
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16 The optimized geometries of CDCA adsorbed on TiO_2 is reported in Figure 6, along with
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18 that of the prototypical NKX2587 organic dye bearing a cyanoacrylic anchoring.⁹⁴ The TiO_2
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20 adsorption energy of CDCA is 15.1 kcal/mol, essentially coinciding to the adsorption energy
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22 calculated for the NKX2587 dye (15.2 kcal/mol). This data confirms the possibility of a competition
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24 between the dye and the CDCA in binding to the TiO_2 semiconductor surface.
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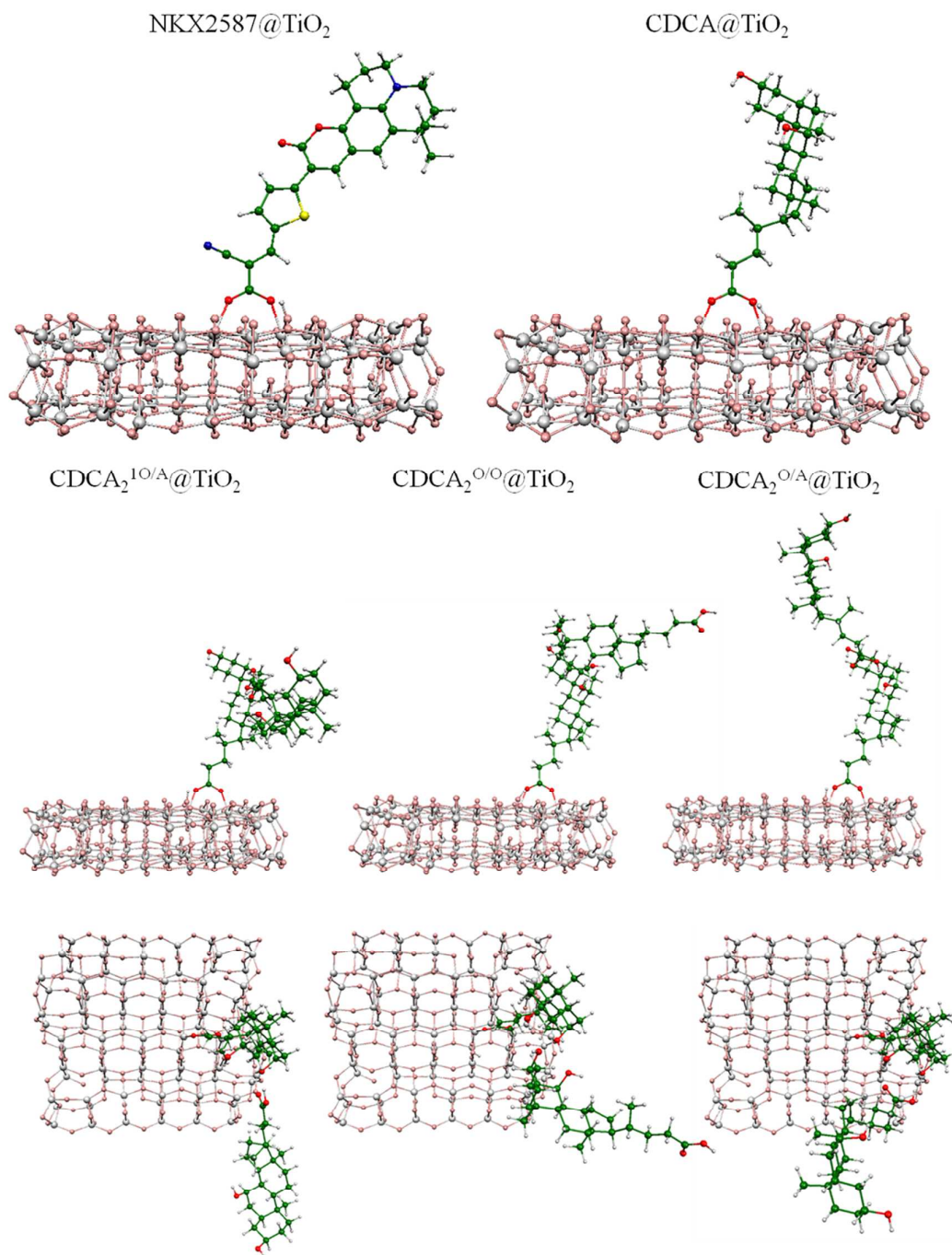


Figure 6. PBE-GGA geometries of the NKX2587, CDCA and CDCA₂ adsorbed on to the (TiO₂)₈₂ nanocluster in the bridged bidentate adsorption mode.

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3 The adsorption energies of the various CDCA-CDCA dimers, apart from $\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{A/A}}$, are
4 similar to the adsorption energy of a single CDCA molecule onto TiO_2 , with values comprised
5 between 13.3 and 15.2 kcal/mol. This data tells us that once one CDCA molecule is adsorbed on
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13 TiO_2 , a comparable driving force occurs to bind a second CDCA molecule by hydrogen bonding or
14 to bind a second CDCA molecule to TiO_2 .

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16 It is also interesting to evaluate the effect of CDCA adsorption on the TiO_2 conduction band
17 (CB). Our data show that the position of the TiO_2 CB is not influenced by the presence of adsorbed
18 CDCA in line with experimental measurements.⁶⁵ On the other hand the presence of the NKX2587
19 organic dye induces an energy up-shift of the TiO_2 CB by 0.08 eV, in line with our recent results.⁹⁵

22 3.4 Simulation of IR spectra

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24 Vibrational frequencies were calculated on the B3LYP optimized geometries for the various
25 optimized aggregate configurations to simulate the IR spectra measured for CDCA in the solid state
26 and in solution. As we can see in Figure 7, the experimental CDCA IR spectra measured after
27 thermal treatment at 130° C for four hours shows a signal at 1705 cm^{-1} and a signal at 1709 cm^{-1} .
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These signals are in agreement with what previously reported in the literature⁷⁸ and are assigned to
the C=O hydrogen bonded stretching of the carboxylic acid. As we can see in Figure 7, the
calculated signal associated to the free C=O is located at ~ 1760 cm^{-1} for all the investigated
species, see also Table 5 for a list of calculated frequencies. The $\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{O/O}}$ clearly shows only the
signal associated to the hydrogen-bonded C=O stretching. On the other hand, the simulated IR
spectra of the $\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{O/A}}$ and $\text{CDCA}_2^{\text{10/A}}$ dimers show two signals with similar intensity. The
signal located at 1705 cm^{-1} is associated to the stretching hydrogen-bonded C=O and the signal at
1762 cm^{-1} is associated the free C=O. The simulated spectra of the $\text{CDCA}_3^{\text{10/A}}$ shows both
hydrogen-bonded and free C=O signals (1709 and 1761 cm^{-1} respectively), where the intensity of
the hydrogen-bonded C=O stretching is doubled with respect to the intensity of the free C=O. As
we can see in Figure 7, going from the monomer to the trimer we have an increase of the intensity

of the hydrogen-bonded C=O stretching (while the intensity of the free C=O stretching decreases) and the simulated spectra seem to converge to the experimental signal of the C=O stretching obtained for the CDCA adsorbed onto the TiO_2 semiconductor. This suggests that a similar supramolecular aggregation may be occurring at the semiconductor surface.

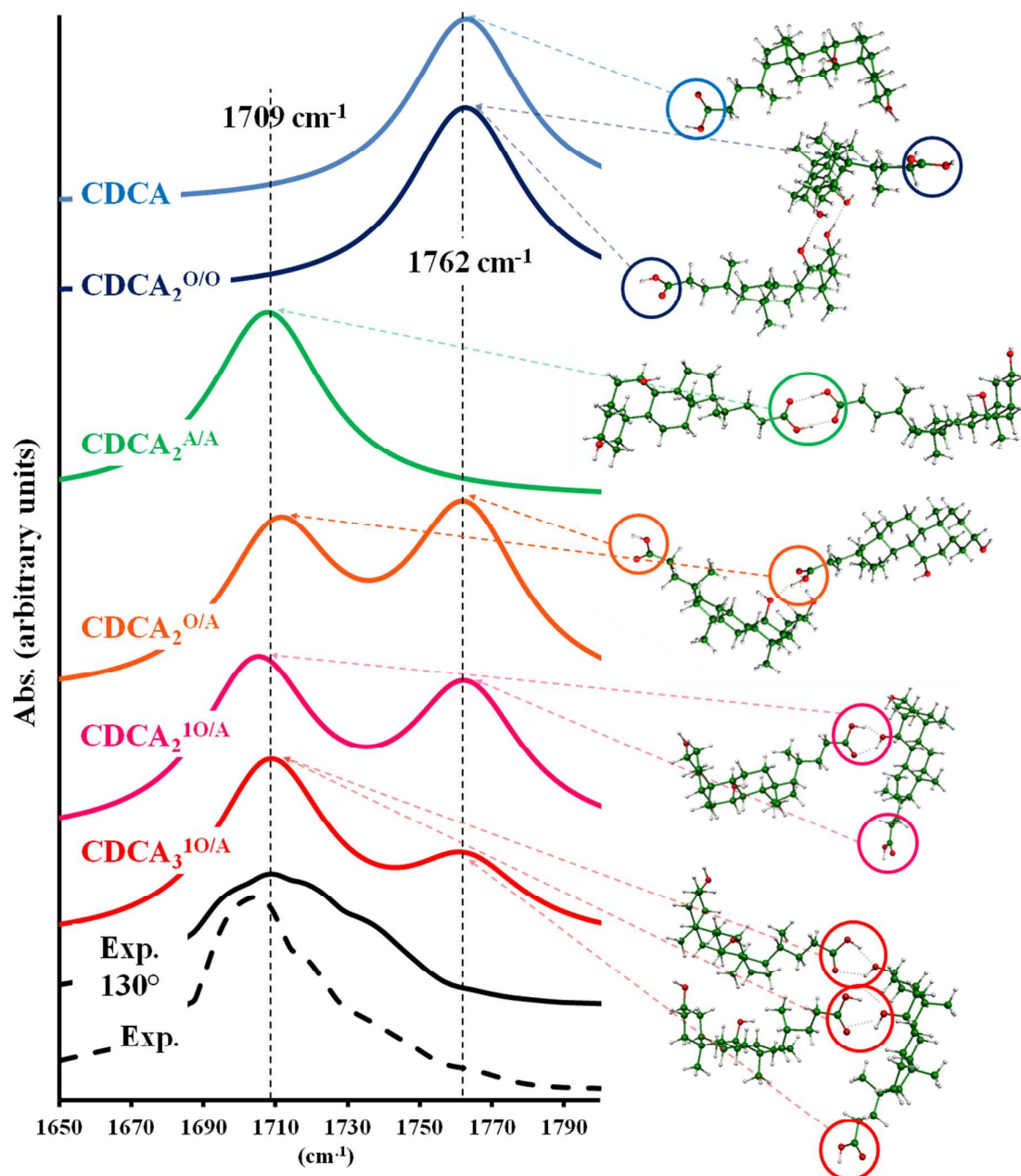


Figure 7. Comparison between the calculated IR spectra of the CDCA monomer (blue line), dimer

(magenta line) and trimer (red line) with the IR spectra measured for the CDCA at the solid state (black line). The calculated vibrational frequencies are scaled by 0.955.

As reported in the literature,⁷⁸ the IR spectra measured in CHCl_3 shows a signal at 1742 cm^{-1} which is assigned to the free C=O stretching. As we can see in Table 5, in the IR spectra of the $\text{CDCA}_2^{10/A}$ dimer calculated in vacuo the free C=O stretching are located at higher frequencies ($1761\text{-}1763\text{ cm}^{-1}$) because of the absence of the solvent interactions. We thus also calculated the IR spectra in CHCl_3 solution for the $\text{CDCA}_2^{10/A}$ dimer, which moves the C=O hydrogen-bonded stretching to match exactly with the experimental value (1708 cm^{-1}), see Table 5. By doing so also the C=O free stretching is shifted and is now calculated at 1756 cm^{-1} . This value is still higher compared to the experimental measurements, possibly because the continuum solvation approach does not reproduce the specific interaction with the solvent molecules. To improve the description of solute-solvent interactions, we further added a CHCl_3 solvent molecule close to the free carboxylic acid in the $\text{CDCA}_2^{10/A}$ dimer obtaining a value of the C=O stretching of 1734 cm^{-1} , in closer agreement with the experimental data.

Table 5. Comparison between the calculated and experimental (this study) IR frequencies. ^a Values reported in ref⁷⁸.

Norm. Modes [cm^{-1}]		$\nu(\text{C=O})$		$\nu(\text{O-H})$			
		h. b.	free	h.b. alcol	h. b. acid	free acid	free alcol
Exp.	Solid state	1705-1709	-	3426^a	-	-	-
		1709^a	-	-	-	-	-
Theor. Vac.	CDCA	-	1763	-	-	3519	3565-3587
	$\text{CDCA}_2^{10/A}$	1705	1762	3410	3098	3519	3553-3564- 3588
	$\text{CDCA}_3^{10/A}$	1709	1761	3484-3488	3154-3230	3519	3563-3571- 3589 ⁽²⁾
	$\text{CDCA}_2^{0/0}$	-	1763	3444	-	3520	(3579-3566)
	$\text{CDCA}_2^{0/A}$	1711	1763	3506	3262	3520	3565-3587 (3591)
	$\text{CDCA}_2^{A/A}$	1708	-	-	3078	-	3583 ⁽²⁾ -3585 ⁽²⁾
Exp.	Solution^a	1708	1742	3520		3611	3690

Theor.	CDCA ₂ ^{10/A}	1708	1756	3466	3093	3546	3598-3597-3617
Solv.	CDCA ₂ ^{10/A} (+1 CHCl ₃)	1708	1734	3462	3096	3506	3586-3596-3616

4. Conclusions

We have evaluated the combined effect of Chenodeoxycholic Acid (CDCA) as a surface co-adsorbent and as an additive in Dye-Sensitized Solar Cells based on a Co(II)/Co(III) electrolyte, in combination with the two prototypical Ru(II) dyes, i.e. N719 and Z907.

A comparative investigation of the photovoltaic properties of DSC devices fabricated varying the dye and the nature and composition of the electrolytes was performed. For devices based on the I⁻/I₃⁻ reference electrolyte, the addition of CDCA to the electrolyte solution did not show any particular influence on the photovoltaic performances. Moving to the [Co(bpy)₃]^{2+/3+} electrolyte, for both Z907 and N719 dyes, when the CDCA was used both in the dye solution and in the electrolyte, we obtained an impressive improvement of the device performances. In particular for the Z907 dye we were able to reach ~ 80% of the efficiency obtained for I⁻/I₃⁻ based devices. A significant gain of about 2 mA/cm² in J_{sc} and 80 mV in V_{oc} was obtained, testifying the effectiveness of the CDCA additive in reducing the recombination losses. This results is in agreement with what reported by Daeneke et al.¹¹ for the related ferrocene/ferrocenium electrolyte.

The fact that the improvement in photovoltaic efficiency has been obtained exclusively combining the CDCA additive both in the dye bath *and* in the electrolyte solutions, suggests the possible formation of an equilibrium between the surface-adsorbed CDCA and the CDCA molecules in the electrolyte solution, which may reduce the Co(III) approach towards the TiO₂ surface, thus limiting unwanted recombination processes.

To check whether a CDCA aggregate structure similar to that found in the solid or in CHCl₃ solution could be maintained also in our DSCs and to gain insight into the nature of the supramolecular interaction at the sensitized-TiO₂ interface, FT-IR measurements have been carried

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3 out on solid CDCA and when CDCA is adsorbed onto the TiO₂ semiconductor. Our analysis
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5 revealed the typical signals of the asymmetric and symmetrical stretching of the TiO₂ surface-
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7 adsorbed CDCA carboxylate, confirming that CDCA is anchored to the semiconductor, and at the
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9 same time the signal associated to the hydrogen bonded carboxylic stretching, confirming the
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11 permanence of a similar intermolecular aggregation in solid CDCA as well as upon TiO₂
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13 adsorption.
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16 To further clarify the nature of the supramolecular aggregates occurring for CDCA on the
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18 TiO₂ surface a series of computational investigations have been carried out. In particular, the
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20 formation of CDCA hydrogen-bonded assemblies involving both the carboxylic acidic function and
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22 the CDCA hydroxyl groups have been investigated. The binding energy calculated for the
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24 considered CDCA dimers are evaluated in a range of 19.6-3.4 and 16.4-11.5 kcal/mol in vacuo and
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26 in acetonitrile solution, respectively, suggesting a strong tendency to form intermolecular
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28 interactions. Moreover, the calculated TiO₂ adsorption energy of CDCA essentially coincides to that
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30 of the prototypical NKX2587 organic dye, confirming the possibility of a competition between the
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32 dye and the CDCA in anchoring to the TiO₂ semiconductor. Finally, by simulating the IR spectra of
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34 CDCA aggregates we found an increasing of the intensity of the hydrogen-bonded C=O stretching
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36 with a simultaneous decreasing of the free C=O stretching intensity and the simulated spectra seem
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38 to converge to the experimental measurements obtained for the CDCA adsorbed on to the TiO₂
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40 semiconductor.
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45 The overall picture extracted from our study suggests that the supramolecular aggregation of
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47 CDCA molecules is occurring also at the semiconductor surface, similar to what found in the solid
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49 and, to some extent, in solution. This aspect clearly leads to an increase of the device performance,
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51 which we associate to the formation of a network of CDCA molecules on or above the
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53 semiconductor surface. This CDCA network would probably insulate the TiO₂ surface limiting the
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55 approach of the oxidized Co(III) species and consequentially decreasing the effectiveness of
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3 recombination processes between injected electrons and the oxidized cobalt electrolyte. A similar
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5 effect seems not to be at work in the case of I^-/I_3^- electrolyte, due to its much smaller dimensions
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7 and different chemical nature.
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10 In conclusion, our study has shown that the beneficial effect of CDCA in the electrolyte
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12 solution on DSCs performance is not peculiar to the ferrocene/ferrocenium electrolyte but can be
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14 extended also to cobalt-based electrolytes. Simply by varying the composition of a cobalt-based
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16 electrolyte with a cheap and commercially available additive may further boost the efficiency of
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18 DSCs based on this redox mediator.
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23 **Acknowledgement:** We thank FP7-ENERGY-2011 project 261920 “ESCORT” for financial
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25 support.
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30 **Supporting Information Available.** J-V curves of the devices reported in Table 1, photovoltaic
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32 parameters and J-V curves of devices realized with a different TiO_2 paste. Full reference 90. This
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34 information is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org> .
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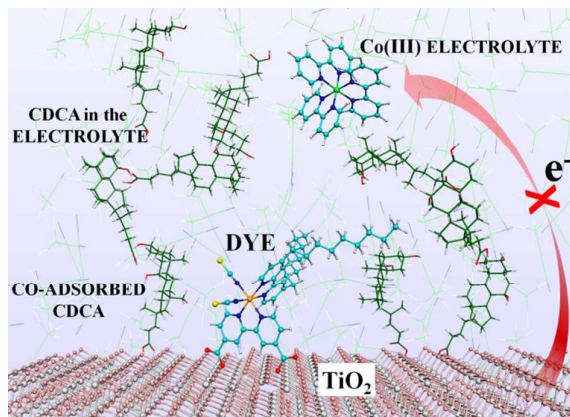
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