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# Enhancing thermochromic performance of  $VO<sub>2</sub>$  films via increased microroughness by phase separation

Jing Du <sup>a,b</sup>, Yanfeng Gao <sup>a,c,</sup>\*, Zhang Chen <sup>a,b</sup>, Litao Kang <sup>a,b</sup>, Zongtao Zhang <sup>a,b</sup>, Hongjie Luo <sup>a,c</sup>

a State Key Laboratory of High Performance Ceramics and Superfine Microstructure, Shanghai Institute of Ceramics (SIC), Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS),

Dingxi 1295, Changning, Shanghai 200050, China

<sup>b</sup> Graduate University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Yuquanlu 19, Beijing 100049, China

<sup>c</sup> School of Materials Science and Engineering, Shanghai University, Shangda 99, Baoshan 200444, China

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### ABSTRACT

Application of VO<sub>2</sub> to smart windows calls for an enhancement of both luminous transmittance ( $T_{\text{lum}}$ ) and solar transmittance modulation  $(\Delta T_{sol})$ . These two properties are related to optical constants, microstructure and film thickness. In this article,  $VO<sub>2</sub>$ -based films with increased microroughness are prepared by polymer assisted deposition, and  $ZnCl<sub>2</sub>$  is added to the precursor solution to control the microstructure of the films. Addition of  $ZnCl<sub>2</sub>$  increases the microroughness of films through phase separation, which largely decreases the refraction index and the reflectivity of the films, resulting in enhanced luminous transmittance and solar transmittance modulation; two films with balanced optical performance show  $T_{\text{lum}}$ =50.5% and  $\Delta T_{\text{sol}}$ =11.3%, and  $T_{\text{lum}}$ =59.3% and  $\Delta T_{\text{sol}}$ =10.5%, respectively. Moreover, this kind of microstructure control has no influence on doping  $VO<sub>2</sub>$ , which is proven by the deposition and characterization of W-doped VO<sub>2</sub>-based films. By the formation of a W-doped VO2/F:SnO2/glass multilayer stack, a film shows excellent thermochromic properties and low emissivities; typically, a film with a phase transition temperature,  $T_{\text{lum}}$ ,  $\Delta T_{\text{sol}}$  of 43.4 °C, 30.0%, 8.82%, respectively, and emissivity of 0.20 for monoclinic and 0.33 for rutile phase is successfully prepared.

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# 1. Introduction

Reducing carbon dioxide emissions is necessary to solve the global warming problem and calls for new technologies that increase energy savings and generation [\[1\].](#page--1-0) Buildings consume 30–40% of the primary energy in the world, mainly due to heating, cooling, lighting and ventilation [\[2\]](#page--1-0). Energy-saving windows, which have spectrally selective coatings to control the transmittance of solar radiation, are of particular importance to decrease energy consumption in buildings. Thermochromic smart windows are one kind of energy-saving windows and help to increase the energy efficiency of buildings as they function to selectively regulate infrared transmittance in response to the environmental temperature [\[3,4](#page--1-0)].

Vanadium dioxide is a well-known thermochromic material  $[5-12]$ . VO<sub>2</sub> undergoes a first-order semiconductor-metal transition (SMT) at a critical temperature  $\tau_c$  (68 °C for bulk VO<sub>2</sub>), which is accompanied by a structural change between a high-temperature rutile phase ( $P4<sub>2</sub>/mm$ , R) and a low-temperature monoclinic phase ( $P2<sub>1</sub>/c$ , M<sub>1</sub>) [\[5\].](#page--1-0) The distortion in the crystal structure results in severe changes in the optical properties. Monoclinic-phase  $VO<sub>2</sub>$ is semi conductive and is generally transparent to infrared solar radiation, whereas the rutile phase is metallic and reflects infrared solar radiation [\[13\]](#page--1-0).

Properties of  $VO<sub>2</sub>$  can be adjusted to meet the application requirement of smart windows. SMT temperature can be effectively lowered to the vicinity of room temperature through doping, for example, tungsten [\[14,15\]](#page--1-0). The hysteresis loop width of a VO<sub>2</sub> film can also be narrowed down to 3 °C by doping of metal ions [\[13\]](#page--1-0). Still one lingering problem exists. For thermochromic  $VO_2$ -based films, it is difficult to achieve a sufficiently high luminous transmittance with preserved solar transmittance modulation [\[1\]](#page--1-0). Various methods have been applied to solve this problem. Anti-reflection coatings can effectively enhance both the luminous transmittance and solar transmittance modulation. Using reactive DC magnetron sputtering, Mlyuka et al. deposited a five-layer TiO<sub>2</sub>/VO<sub>2</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>/VO<sub>2</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> film with luminous transmittance of 45% and solar transmittance modulation of 12% [\[16](#page--1-0),[17\]](#page--1-0). Through an all-solution process, we have deposited a two-layer  $TiO<sub>2</sub>/VO<sub>2</sub> film with a luminous transmitter of 49.5% and a solar$ transmittance modulation of 15.1% [\[18\].](#page--1-0) Calculations and experiments of Kang et al. suggest that porosity can also enhance the

<sup>n</sup> Corresponding author at: State Key Laboratory of High Performance Ceramics and Superfine Microstructure, Shanghai Institute of Ceramics (SIC), Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS), Dingxi 1295, Changning, Shanghai 200050, China. Tel./fax:  $+86$  21 6990 6213.

E-mail addresses: [yfgao@mail.sic.ac.cn](mailto:yfgao@mail.sic.ac.cn), [gaosic@gmail.com \(Y. Gao\).](mailto:gaosic@gmail.com)

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optical performance of  $VO<sub>2</sub>$  by lowering optical constants and the achievement of porosity is convenient with polymer assisted deposition [\[19\].](#page--1-0) Moreover, calculations using effective medium approximation method suggest that the solar transmittance modulation of  $VO_2$ -based nano-composites could reach 20% with acceptable luminous transmittances [\[20\]](#page--1-0).

In this work, microstructure of films is controlled to enhance the optical performance of  $VO<sub>2</sub>$  films deposited by polymer assisted deposition [\[11\].](#page--1-0) We utilize the compatibility difference of inorganic salts with polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) to introduce phase separation and obtain films with large microroughness. The obtained films can be simply prepared and exhibit excellent optical performance. Doping can also be applied in this deposition process. By tungsten doping, we successfully lower down the SMT temperature to  $25.4$  °C. Moreover, emissivity of films is lowered 0.20 for monoclinic and 0.33 for rutile phase to by depositing  $VO<sub>2</sub>$ -based films onto F:SnO<sub>2</sub> (FTO) glass.

# 2. Experiments

#### 2.1. Starting materials

Vanadium oxide sulfate hydrate (VOSO $_4\cdot$ xH $_2$ O, VOSO $_4$ , 68% pure), ammonium tungstate  $((NH_4)_{10}H_2(W_2O_7)_6$ , analytically pure), zinc chloride (ZnCl<sub>2</sub>, analytically pure), and hydrogen peroxide solution ( $H_2O_2$ , 30% pure) were used as starting materials to prepare vanadium, tungstic, and zinc solution, respectively. Polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP, K90) was added as a film-formation promoter. All the reagents were purchased from the Aladdin Reagent Co. Ltd. and were used without further purification.

## 2.2. Preparation of precursor solutions

# 2.2.1. Preparation of vanadium solution

The precursor solution of vanadium with PVP as an additive was prepared by adding 23.97 g of VOSO $_4$   $\cdot$  xH $_2$ O and 4 g of PVP to a 100-mL beaker containing 50 mL of deionized water. After stirring for 1 h, the solution was transferred to a 100 mL volumetric flask and then the volume was set to the mark using deionized water. The final concentration of the stock solution was 1 M for vanadium and 4 wt% for PVP.

# 2.2.2. Preparation of  $ZnCl<sub>2</sub>$  solution

 $ZnCl<sub>2</sub>$  (13.63 g) was carefully added to a 100-mL beaker containing 50 mL of deionized water. After stirring for 1 h, the solution was transferred to a100 mL volumetric flask and then the volume was set to the mark using deionized water. The final concentration of  $ZnCl<sub>2</sub>$  was 1 M.

### 2.2.3. Preparation of tungstic solution

 $(NH_4)_{10}H_2(W_2O_7)_{6}$  (2.580 g) was carefully added to a 100 mL breaker containing 50 mL of deionized water, and then 3 ml of hydrogen peroxide solution was slowly added to the breaker. After stirring and cooling down, the solution was transferred to a 100 mL volumetric flask and then the volume was set to the mark using deionized water. The final concentration of tungsten was 0.1 M.

# 2.3. Deposition of VO<sub>2</sub>-based films and VO<sub>2</sub>-based powders

Certain amounts (0–400  $\mu$ L) of ZnCl<sub>2</sub> solution were added to 2 mL of the vanadium solution to obtain the precursor solutions. The volume of zinc solution was changed to adjust the Zn/V atomic ratio. The precursor solutions were mixed ultrasonically and were aged for 4 h at room temperature before spin coating. To deposit W-doped composite films, an appropriate volume of tungstic solution ( $0-800 \mu L$ ) was added to the precursor solution to adjust the W/V atomic ratio.

The films were deposited on fused-silica substrates (2  $\times$  2 cm<sup>2</sup>) by spin coating the precursor solutions. The spin speed was changed to modulate the film thickness. After drying for 10 min at 60 $\degree$ C to remove the excess solvent, smooth precursor films were formed. The procedure was repeated several times to further regulate the film thickness. After annealing for 1 h at 500  $\degree$ C in a nitrogen atmosphere, the precursor gel films were transformed into thermochromic  $VO_2$ -based films.

VO2-based powders were prepared using the precursor solutions. Precursor solutions were dried at  $100\degree C$  for 30 min to remove the excess solvent. The gel was annealed for 3 h at 500  $^{\circ}$ C under nitrogen atmosphere and transformed into  $VO<sub>2</sub>$ -based powders.

#### 2.4. Measurements

The crystalline phases of the films were determined using an X-ray diffraction (XRD) diffractometer (Philips Corp., Model Xpert, primary monochromatic Cu-K<sub> $\alpha$ </sub> radiation). The optical transmittance was measured from 350 to 2600 nm at temperatures ranging from 25 to 100  $\degree$ C by a spectrophotometer (Hitachi Corp., Model UV-4100). The morphology of the films was determined by a field-emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM, JEOL Corp., Model JSM-6700F). Low- and high-resolution transmittance electron microscopy (TEM) and energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) of films were obtained using a transmission electron microscope (JEOL Corp., Model JEM-2010). The thickness of the film was measured using a surface profilometer (Model Veeco-Dektak 150). The temperature was measured with a PT100 temperature sensor in contact with the film and was controlled by a temperature-control unit. The temperature errors were smaller than  $1.5 \text{ }^{\circ}$ C based on repeated measurements. Hysteresis loops were measured by collecting the transmittance of films at a fixed wavelength (2000 nm) at an approximate interval of 2.0  $\degree$ C. The optical constants of films at 632.8 nm were measured using an ellipsometer (Semilab Corp., Model EP20). Measurements of light scattering were carried out by a laser scatterometer at the wavelength of 632.8 nm, and scattering was characterized using the bidirectional transmittance distribution function (BTDF), which has been described in reference [\[21\]](#page--1-0).

# 3. Results and discussion

# 3.1. Configuration of crystal structures

The XRD pattern of a film with  $Zn/V=0.12$  is shown in [Fig. 1\(](#page--1-0)a). The monoclinic phase of  $VO<sub>2</sub>$  (JCPDF Card no. 72-0514) is identified as the main crystalline phase. Minor phase is not detected due to the weak signal-to-noise ratios (SNRs). The widening of the XRD peaks indicates that the film consists of very fine crystallites. However, due to the weak SNRs, the crystalline size is difficult to calculate from XRD data. Other films with  $0 \le Zn/V \le 0.2$  show similar XRD patterns.

To identify the minor phases,  $VO<sub>2</sub>$ -based powders with similar Zn/V ratios were prepared, and the corresponding XRD patterns are shown in [Fig. 1](#page--1-0)(b). Similar to films, the monoclinic phase of  $VO<sub>2</sub>$  is identified as the main phase within the research range  $(0 \leq Zn/V \leq 0.2)$ . Diffraction peaks for ZnCl<sub>2</sub> (JCPDF Card no. 74-1752) is observed in the sample with  $Zn/V=0.1$ . Diffraction peaks for both  $ZnCl<sub>2</sub>$  and  $Zn<sub>2</sub>VO<sub>4</sub>$  (JCPDF Card no. 73-1632) are detected in the sample with  $Zn/V=0.2$ . However, the weak peak intensities of  $Zn_2VO_4$  and  $ZnCl_2$  suggest that  $VO_2$  is the main phase.

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