ACS APPLIED MATERIALS & INTERFACES

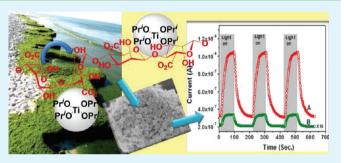
Self-Assembled TiO₂ Nanospheres By Using a Biopolymer as a Template and Its Optoelectronic Application

Saikat Dutta,[†] Astam K. Patra,[‡] Sudipta De,[†] Asim Bhaumik,^{*,‡} and Basudeb Saha^{*,†}

[†]Laboratory of Catalysis, Department of Chemistry, University of Delhi, North Campus, Delhi-110 007, Delhi, India [‡]Department of Materials Science, Indian Association for the Cultivation of Science, Jadavpur, Kolkata-700032, India

Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: Self-assembled TiO₂ nanoparticulate materials with well-defined spherical morphologies were synthesized by using a biopolymer sodium alginate as a template under different synthesis conditions. Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) techniques were used to characterize the TiO₂ nanoparticles. N₂ sorption analysis revealed the moderately good surface area (124.0 m² g⁻¹) and pore volume (0.44 cm³ g⁻¹) of these TiO₂ nanoparticles. The biopolymer templating pathway leads to good-quality self-assembled TiO₂ nanoparticles with dimensions of ca. 10–12 nm within the



synthesis temperature range of 0-60 °C. These porous TiO₂ nanomaterials showed high photogenerated current in the presence of a dye (Rose Bengal), used as a sensitizer for several photo on/off cycles.

KEYWORDS: self-assembly of nanoparticles, photoconductivity, biopolymer templating, mesoporous materials, TiO₂

INTRODUCTION

Titanium dioxide (TiO_2) has excellent chemicophysical properties, and unique applications of this material have been found in several emerging areas, including photocatalysis, gas sensors, solar cells, and Li-ion batteries.^{1–5} Extensive research efforts on controlling the microstructure and morphology of TiO2 to achieve novel and enhanced properties have been witnessed. Furthermore, porous TiO2 nanospheres have attracted great interest in this context, because of their high surface area, surface permeability, and light-trapping effect.⁶⁻⁹ In the recent years, TiO_2 -based materials have been applied extensively in environmental,¹⁰ sensing,¹¹ photocatalytic,^{12–14} and optoelectronic applications.^{15,16} However, the major drawbacks, such as low surface area and high band gap, often restricted TiO₂ nanostructured material for suitable applications. The surface area of TiO₂-based materials can be enhanced significantly by introducing nanoscale porosity at its surface. The supramolecular assembly of ionic or neutral surfactants has been conventionally employed as a template or structure directing agent to design mesoporous materials.¹⁷⁻¹⁹ Moreover, TiO₂ material with desired mesoporosity can be prepared by templating with various agents such as dendrimers,²⁰ polymers,²¹ and aromatic acid.²² In addition, hierarchically anatase mesoporous/nano-porous S- and C-doped TiO_2^{23} and solvothermal method derived TiO₂ microspheres²⁴ have been recently reported for their promising photocatalytic activity.

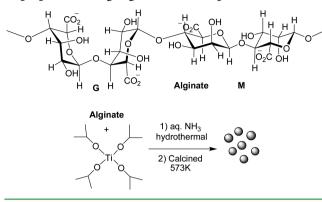
 TiO_2 -based nanostructured materials have been prepared using various synthetic strategies, including the soft-templating pathway, e.g., surfactant micelles as templates^{25,26} and also hard templating.²⁷ Generally, the templating method of preparation of titania nanoparticles involves calcinations at high temperatures to remove the template and leave behind pores in the TiO₂ matrix. During the calcination process, sintering and crystallization also occurs, which can cause collapse of the nanostructure, resulting in a significant loss in surface area. Thus, proper choice of the template molecule and its efficient removal from the surface TiO₂ matrix are highly desirable to achieve TiO₂-based nanostructured materials. Controlled growth of nanostructured TiO₂ using a templating agent that contains carboxylate groups in aromatic and amino acids^{22,28} prompted us to investigate the structure directing ability of biopolymer sodium alginate for the controlled growth of the self-assembled TiO₂ crystallites in nanoscale dimension.

Recently, biopolymers have been shown to exert a remarkable degree of control over the nucleation and growth of crystalline metal oxides.²⁹ Alginate, for example, is the structural biopolymer found in seaweed and contains blocks of guluronate monomers (Scheme 1) that are readily cross-linked by strong electrostatic bonds to multivalent metal cations. High thermal stability and extended gel network structure in aqueous media made biopolymers capable of maintaining the preorganized dispersion of metal cations to relatively high temperature, i.e., influence the nucleation and growth of crystalline phases.³⁰

On the other hand, since ultraviolet (UV) irradiation at the semiconductor surface is energetically unfavorable, significant research has been directed toward extending the absorption

```
Received:December 12, 2011Accepted:February 15, 2012Published:February 15, 2012
```

Scheme 1. Structure of Alginate Containing Guluronate (G) and Mannuronate (M) Epimers, and Schematic Diagram for the Synthesis of TiO_2 Nanospheres from Titanium Isopropoxide, Using Alginate As a Template



edge of TiO₂-based nanostructured materials toward the visiblelight (Vis) region of the spectrum by doping TiO₂ with metallic,³¹ nonmetallic,³² or organic species³³ at the surface or in the crystal lattice. Electron injection from a photosensitizer molecule trapped inside the pores of the semiconductor surface can facilitate its Visinduced generation of a photocurrent.³⁴ Recent examples of TiO₂based photoconductors are graphene-TiO₂ material³⁵ and frequency-dependent photoconductivity in a TiO₂ nanotube.³⁶

Metal binding and structure directing capacity of the biopolymer alginate, with its ability to reduce metal salts to nanoparticles of desired structures, is something yet to be explored, except a recent work on fabrication of titania microspheres using alginate microdroplets on an oil/hydrogen interface.³⁷ Since the biopolymer alginate forms an extended gel network in aqueous medium and metal cations dispersed through the structure upon heating, preorganization of metal cations within the polymer gel may lead to constrained nucleation of metal oxide nanoparticles. Another advantage of using alginate as template for nanostructured materials synthesis is a minimum quantity of templating agent would be sufficient for the process, instead of using a stoichimetric quantity with metal precursors, because of the extended polymeric network structure. Herein, we report a strategic synthesis of porous TiO₂ nanospheres using alginate biopolymer as the structure directing agent. In the synthesis reaction, primarily TiO₂ nanospheres with mesoscopic void spaces were produced through the hydrolysis of titanium isopropoxide in aqueous media under an alkali treatment method (Scheme 1). To illustrate the effect of the temperature during nucleation of the nanospheres, synthesis was also carried out at various temperatures: low temperature (0 °C), room temperature (25 °C), and at 60 °C. The TiO₂ materials were fully characterized by using scanning electron microscopy (SEM), high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM), and powder XRD. The surface area and pore volume was analyzed using a N2-sorption technique. Pore size was analyzed by using nonlocal density functional theory (NLDFT) on the sorption isotherms. The prospects of the photochemical application of the mesoporous TiO2 nanospheres have been elucidated by using Rose Bengal (RB) dye as a photosensitizer in the dye-TiO₂ nanocomposites and subsequent high photocurrent generation.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Sodium alginate and titanium isopropoxide were supplied by Sigma– Aldrich and were used without further purification. Ammonia solution (25%) were supplied by Spectrochem (India). Unless otherwise stated, distilled water was used as aqueous phase.

A field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) system (JEOL, Model JEM 6700F) was used to determine the particle morphology of the TiO₂ nanoparticles. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM) images were recorded on a JEOL DATUM system (Model JEM1011). Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the TiO₂ samples were recorded on a Bruker D-8 Advance diffractometer operated at a voltage of 40 kV and current of 40 mA, using Cu K α (λ = 0.15406 nM) radiation. Nitrogen sorption isotherms were obtained using a Beckmann Coulter model SA3100 surface area analyzer at 77 K. Prior to the measurement, the samples were degassed at 393 K for 12 h. The DC current between the two electrodes was measured using a Keithley source meter (Model 2420). The photocurrent was measured by illuminating with white light from a 150-W xenon lamp source (Newport Corp., USA; Model 69907).

Preparation of TiO₂ from Titanium Isopropoxide and Sodium Alginate. Sodium alginate (1.0 g) was dissolved in 300 mL water by stirring at 80 °C. To this solution, titanium isopropoxide (14 mL) was added at room temperature and the pH of the reaction mixture was adjusted to 10.0 via the dropwise addition of an aqueous ammonia (25%) solution and rapid stirring at room temperature. The reaction mixture was then divided into three parts in equal volume and separately stored in a freezer at (0 °C), at room temperature and at 60 °C in hot oven for aging for 24 h. The resultant solids were collected by repeated centrifugation (8000 rpm, 10 min) and washing with distilled water. The solid was dried in oven at 80 °C for overnight (8 h) and then calcined at 300 °C in furnace for 4 h. TiO₂ materials prepared at room temperature, 0 °C, and under hydrothermal (60 °C) condition were designated as TiO2-R, TiO2-F, and TiO2-H, respectively. In another experiment, sodium alginate was not used in the synthesis medium and TiO₂ material was synthesized in the same procedure maintaining the pH = 10 only by using ammonia solution. The detail of the synthesis procedure was described in the Supporting Information

Photoconductivity Measurements with TiO₂. For the electrical measurements, first, pellets of the TiO_2-H sample (1 cm in diameter) were prepared and two gold electrodes (of ca. 50 nm thickness) were thermally evaporated on each pellet in the circular form with a diameter of 2 mm through a shadow mask at a separation of 4 mm.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The wide-angle XRD patterns of the TiO₂ nanoparticles are shown in Figure 1a and Figure S1 in the Supporting Information . Observed crystalline planes agree very well with the anatase TiO₂. The crystalline planes corresponding to the peaks for anatase TiO₂ have been indexed in Figure 1a. All calcined samples show major peaks at 2θ values of 25.3°, 37.8°, 48.0°, 53.7°, 54.9°, and 62.5°, which correspond to anatase (101), (004), (200), (105), (211), and (204) crystal planes (JCPDS File Card No. 21-1272).²² The wide-angle powder XRD results revealed that the alginate templating method and the nontemplating method produced highly stable and crystalline TiO₂ nanoparticles and nanospheres, respectively. A representative TEM image of the mesoporous TiO₂ nanoparticles (TiO₂-F) calcined at 300 °C is shown in Figure 1b, and the HR-TEM images are shown in Figures 1c and 1d. As seen in these figures, a spherical tiny TiO₂ nanoparticle with dimensions of 10-15 nm is assembled by forming a self-aggregated (loose assembly) nanostructure and the (101) plane is quite clear in these image. The selected area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern shown in Figure 1e suggested the diffraction spots for crystalline anatase TiO₂.

Further evidence in support of the self-assembled TiO_2 nanoparticles for samples prepared hydrothermally and at room temperature is obtained from their respective FE SEM images (see Figures 2a and 2b). Both samples are composed of uniform tiny spherical nanoparticles 10-15 nm in size (see

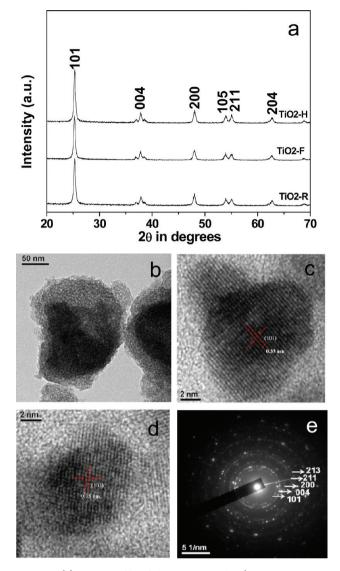


Figure 1. (a) XRD profile of the TiO_2 samples (TiO_2 -R, TiO_2 -F, TiO_2 -H) with indexed peaks. (b) HR-TEM image of typical nanostructure of TiO_2 -F. (c and d) HR-TEM image of typical nanostructure of TiO_2 -F, showing (101) crystalline planes. (e) Selected-area electron diffraction (SAED) pattern of the calcined mesoporous TiO_2 -F.

Figures 2a and 2b), and there are interparticle voids ca. 10 nm in size. However, when the TiO_2 materials were synthesized in the absence of sodium alginate, the size of the particles increased considerably. The FE SEM image in the Supporting Information (Figure S2) shows that the sample is composed of large nanospheres 100–200 nm in size. Li et al. also observed similar particle morphology in the hydrothermally synthesized TiO_2 in the presence of ammonia.³⁸ This experiment explores the templating role of the sodium alginate biopolymer, which controls the particle size of the TiO₂ materials.

The N₂ adsorption/desorption isotherms of the TiO₂ materials obtained by using sodium alginate as the template are shown in Figure 3. Isotherms for TiO₂–H, TiO₂–R (Figure 3), and TiO₂–F (see the Supporting Information and Figure S1) could be classified as type IV isotherms corresponding to the mesoporous materials, based on their behavior at high partial pressures P/P_0 . Hydrothermally prepared TiO₂–H material shows a high surface area among them. The BET surface areas

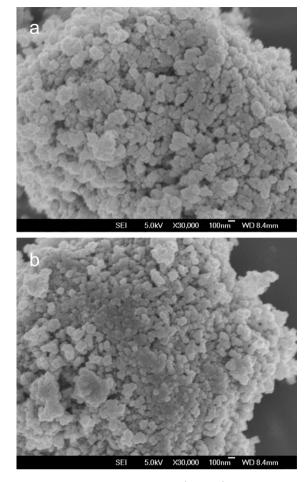


Figure 2. FE-SEM image of calcined (300 °C) mesoporous TiO_2 samples prepared under hydrothermal condition and at low temperature: (a) TiO_2 -H and (b) TiO_2 -F.

of TiO₂–H, TiO₂–R, and TiO₂–F samples were 124.0 m² g⁻¹, 74.02 m² g⁻¹, and 50.21 m² g⁻¹, respectively. The pore volumes of these samples were 0.44 cm³ g⁻¹, 0.21 cm³ g⁻¹, and $0.44 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$, respectively. In the absence of an alginate template, when the synthesis was carried out in the presence of ammonia alone, the TiO₂ materials have comparatively less surface area $(35-60 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$, as shown in Figure S4 and Table S11 in the Supporting Information) and very low pore volume. For the samples synthesized with templates, the isotherm gradually increased between a P/P_0 range of 0.05–0.70.²² A large increase in the adsorption occurred at higher P/P_0 values (0.70-0.85), for all the samples. The pore size distributions of the samples, measured using the nonlocal density functional theory (NLDFT) method (using N₂ adsorption on silica as a reference), suggested that the TiO₂-H synthesized at 60 °C has a larger pore (ca. 11.68 nm; see Figure 3c) than TiO_2-R and TiO₂-F materials. TiO₂-F has an average pore dimension of ca. 9.2 nm. A similar decrease in the dimension of the pores with decreasing synthesis temperature was also observed for our TiO₂ nanoparticles synthesized by using sodium salicylate as a template.²²

The calcined mesoporous TiO_2-H and Rose-Bengal (RB)entrapped TiO_2-H-RB samples were kept in darkness for 12 h before the dark currents were measured. Linear dark current I-V characteristics, as shown in Figure 4A, suggested Ohmic behavior of the gold contacts in the samples. Furthermore, from Figure 4A, it is clear that the dark current is much higher for the

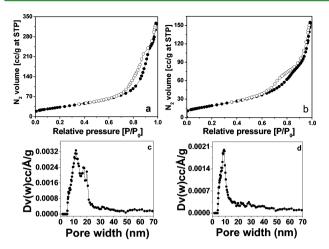


Figure 3. N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherm of (a) the calcined TiO_2-H and (b) TiO_2-R at 77 K ((\bullet) adsorption and (\bigcirc) desorption). Representative pore size distributions using the nonlocal density functional theory (NLDFT) method are shown in panels (c) and (d), for TiO_2-H and TiO_2-R respectively.

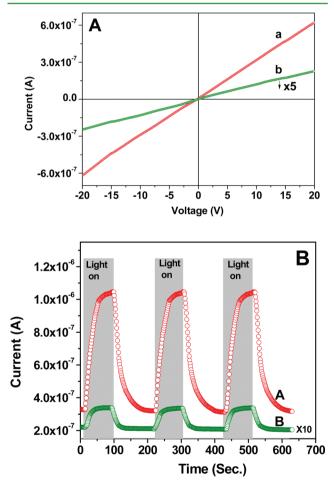


Figure 4. (A) Dark-current I-V plots of template-free TiO₂ (green line, b) and after impregnating rose bengal (RB) in mesoporous TiO₂ (red line, a). (B) The growth/decay of photocurrent with time over calcined TiO₂ (Green B) and RB-trapped TiO₂ (Red A) on white-light illumination. Light on/off points of these samples are shown in three cycles.

RB-entrapped mesoporous TiO_2 , compared to that in the absence of the sensitizer. The dye molecule reduced the bandgap in TiO_2 -H-RB, which could be due to ligand-to-

metal charge transfer, and this could be very helpful for photocurrent generation, since, upon photoexcitation, the dye molecule can easily inject the electrons into the conduction band^{22,39} of the self-assembled TiO₂ nanoparticles and, thus, electronic conduction could proceed smoothly. Figure 4B shows the photocurrent transients of dye-loaded and unloaded self-assembled TiO₂ nanoparticles with a 10 V bias. As soon as visible light is shone upon the samples, the current increases, suggesting that the samples are sensitive to the white light. The maximum current value after Vis illumination to the RBentrapped TiO₂-H-RB sample reaches 1.05×10^{-6} A, while the value for the RB-free TiO₂ sample was only 5.06×10^{-8} A. The value of the photogenerated current ΔI (photocurrent minus dark current) for the RB-entrapped mesoporous TiO₂ sample is 0.74×10^{-6} A, whereas for RB-free TiO₂, it was only 3.27×10^{-8} A. This indicates a large change in the photocurrent generation, which is \sim 22.6 times greater in the dye-doped composite, compared to the RB-free TiO₂. For a TiO₂-RB sample, upon illumination of light energy greater than of its bandgap, electron-hole pairs are generated at the porous surface. These photogenerated electrons then can easily be transferred from the conduction band of RB to the conduction band of TiO₂.⁴⁰ Thus, the RB dye acts as a Vis sensitizer. Furthermore, the higher surface area of these semiconductor nanoparticles could be responsible for higher photon-to-electron conversion efficiency.^{41,42} Thus, this photoconductivity experiments suggested the tunneling of these electron-hole pairs through the self-assembled TiO₂ nanoparticles in the presence of the RB sensitizer, leading to a higher photogenerated current.

When compared with our previous results, a wide difference in surface area (118–326 m^2 g⁻¹) was found for the titania materials synthesized at different temperatures using sodium salicylate as a template.²² In the case of the alginate-templated mesoporous TiO₂ nanospheres, the surface area varied from 50 m^2 g⁻¹ to 124 m² g⁻¹ for the materials prepared in the temperature range of 0-60 °C. The aspartic acid templating route produced titania nanospheres with relatively lower surface area $(51 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1})$.²⁸ The structure directing ability of these soft templates cannot be differentiated from the particle morphology of the titania materials, since, in each case, the resulting particles were uniform spherical in shape, although size of the particles vary from one template to another. Photocurrent generation was found to be directly related to the surface area of the titania material and, hence, on the templating agent. The salicylate-templated TiO₂, having a surface area of 176 m² g⁻¹, produced a photocurrent (ΔI) of 7.6 \times 10⁻⁷ for the RBentrapped mesoporous TiO₂ sample, whereas for TiO₂, it was only 1.1×10^{-7} A.²² Our results showed a very minor decrease in photocurrent (0.74 \times 10⁻⁶ A) for the RB-entrapped crystalline mesoporous titania materials obtained via alginate templating pathway, while the corresponding photogenerated current in the absence of dye is 3.27×10^{-8} A.

CONCLUSIONS

The above experimental results prompted us to conclude that self-assembled mesoporous spherical TiO_2 nanoparticles can be synthesized by using a biopolymer sodium alginate as a template under different synthesis temperatures. The alginate biopolymer unit containing CO_2^- can be ligated to the positively charged Ti(IV) centers through covalent interaction, and hydrogen-bonding interactions between the alcoholic -OH groups facilitate to form the supramolecular structure of alginate moieties during the nucleation of particles, which, upon calcinations,

ACS Applied Materials & Interfaces

generates mesopores with dimensions of ~8–11.6 nm, depending on the synthesis conditions. These self-assembled TiO₂ nanoparticles exhibited high surface areas than the corresponding nontemplated materials synthesized under similar pH conditions. The material with the greatest surface area showed drastic enhancement in the photoconductivity on entrapping an organic photosensitizer dye molecule (Rose Bengal) at its nanopores and, thus, the doping of the dye molecule enhances the photon-to-electron conversion process significantly.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

S Supporting Information

Additional figures and a table. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

AUTHOR INFORMATION

Corresponding Author

*Tel.: (+) 91-011-27666646. Fax: (+) 91-011-27667794. E-mails: basudebs@chemistry.du.ac.in (B.S.), msab@iacs.res.in (A.B.).

Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

B.S. is grateful to the University Grant Commission (UGC), India for financial support and University of Delhi. S.D. thanks UGC, India for a D.S. Kothari Postdoctoral Fellowship. S.D. thanks UGC, India for a junior research fellowship. A.K.P. thanks CSIR, India for a senior research fellowship. AB wishes to thank DST, New Delhi for providing instrumental facility through DST Unit on Nanoscience.

REFERENCES

(1) Wu, J. J.; Lu, X. J.; Zhang, L. L.; Huang, F. Q.; Xu, F. F. Eur. J. Inorg. Chem. 2009, 2789–2795.

- (2) Yang, S. C.; Yang, D. J.; Kim, J.; Hong, J. M.; Kim, H. G.; Kim, I. D.; Lee, H. *Adv. Mater.* **2008**, *20*, 1059–1064.
- (3) Lu, X. J.; Mou, X. L.; Wu, J. J.; Zhang, D. W.; Zhang, L. L.; Huang, F.; Xu, F. F.; Huang, S. M. Adv. Funct. Mater. **2010**, 20, 509– 515.
- (4) Luo, M.; Cheng, K.; Weng, W. J.; Song, C. L.; Du, P. Y.; Shen, G.; Han, G. R. *Nanoscale Res. Lett.* **2009**, *4*, 809–813.

(5) Araujo, P. Z.; Luca, V.; Bozzano, P. B.; Bianchi, H. L.; Arturo Soler-Illia, G. J. D. A.; Blesa, M. A. ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2010, 2, 1663–1673.

- (6) Li, H. X.; Bian, Z. F.; Zhu, J.; Die, D. Q.; Li, G. S.; Huo, Y. N.; Li, H.; Lu, Y. F. J. Am. Chem. Soc. 2007, 129, 8406–8407.
- (7) Lee, S.-H. A.; Abrams, N. M.; Hoertz, P. G.; Barber, G. D.; Halaoui, L. I.; Mallouk, T. E. J. Phys. Chem. B 2008, 112, 14415–14421.

(8) Zhang, Y.; Xie, Z.; Wang. ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2009, 1, 2789–2795.

(9) Das, S. K.; Bhunia, M. K.; Bhaumik, A. Dalton Trans. 2010, 39, 4382–4390.

(10) Hoffmann, M. R.; Martin, S. T.; Choi, W. Y.; Bahnemann, D. W. *Chem. Rev.* **1995**, *95*, 69–96.

- (11) Epifani, M.; Diaz, R.; Arbiol, J.; Comini, E.; Sergent, N.; Pagnier, T.; Siciliano, P.; Taglia, G.; Morante, J. R. *Adv. Funct. Mat.* **2006**, *16*, 1488–1498.
- (12) Skorb, E. V.; Shchukin, D. G.; Moehwald, H.; Sviridov, D. V. J. Mater. Chem. 2009, 19, 4931–4937.
- (13) Liu, Z. Y.; Zhang, X. T.; Nishimoto, S.; Murakami, T.; Fujishima, A. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* **2008**, *42*, 8547–8551.

(14) Hartmann, P.; Lee, D. K.; Smarsly, B. M.; Janek, J. ACS Nano 2010, 4, 3147–3154.

- (15) Long, M. C.; Beranek, R.; Cai, W. M.; Kisch, H. Electrochim. Acta 2008, 53, 4621-4626.
- (16) Pal, N.; Paul, M.; Bera, A.; Basak, D.; Bhaumik, A. Anal. Chim. Acta **2010**, 674, 96–101.
- (17) Kresge, C. T.; Leonowicz, M. E.; Roth, W. J.; Vartuli, J. C.; Beck, J. S. *Nature* **1992**, 359, 710–712.
- (18) Goto, Y.; Inagaki, S. Chem. Commun. 2002, 2410-2411.
- (19) Meynen, V.; Cool, P.; Vansant, E. F. Microporous Mesoporous Mater. 2009, 125, 170–223.
- (20) Mitra, A.; Bhaumik, A.; Imae, T. J. Nanosci. Nanotechnol. 2004, 4, 1052–1055.
- (21) Liu, J.; Liu, F.; Gao, K.; Wu, J. S.; Xue, D. F. J. Mater. Chem. 2009, 19, 6073-6084.
- (22) Patra, A. K.; Das, S. K.; Bhaumik, A. J. Mater. Chem. 2011, 21, 3925–3930.
- (23) Xu, P.; Xu, T.; Lu, J.; Gao, S.; Hosmane, N. S.; Huang, B.; Dai, Y.; Wang, Y. Energy Environ. Sci. **2010**, *3*, 1128–1134.
- (24) Zheng, Z.; Huang, B.; Qin, X.; Zhang, X.; Dai, Y. Chem.-Eur. J. **2010**, *16*, 11266-11270.
- (25) Inaba, R.; Fukahori, T.; Hamamoto, M.; Ohno, T. J. Mol. Catal. A: Chem. **2006**, 260, 247–254.
- (26) Wang, Y. D.; Zhou, A. N.; Yang, Z. Y. Mater. Lett. 2008, 62, 1930–1932.
- (27) Zhang, Z.; Zuo, F.; Feng, P. J. Mater. Chem. 2010, 20, 2206–2212.
- (28) De, S.; Dutta, S.; Patra, A. K.; Bhaumik, A.; Saha, S. J. Mater. Chem. 2011, 21, 17505-17510.
- (29) Schnepp, Z.; Wimbush, S. C.; Mann, S.; Hall, S. R. *CrystEngComm* **2010**, *12*, 1410–1415.
- (30) Said, A. A.; Hassan, R. M. Polym. Degrad. Stab. 1993, 39, 393–397.
- (31) Tada, H.; Kiyonaga, T.; Naya, S. Chem. Soc. Rev. 2009, 38, 1849–1858.
- (32) Park, J. H.; Kim, S.; Bard, A. J. Nano Lett. 2006, 6, 24-28.

(33) Mitra, A.; Bhaumik, A.; Nandi, M.; Mondal, J.; Roy, B. K. J. Solid State Chem. 2009, 182, 1200–1205.

- (34) Ma, T. Y.; Wei, Y. S.; Ren, T. Z.; Liu, L.; Guo, Q.; Yuan, Z. Y. ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces **2010**, *2*, 3563–3571.
- (35) Manga, K. K.; Wang, S.; Jaiswal, M.; Bao, Q.; Loh, K. P. Adv. Funct. Mater. 2010, 22, 5265–5270.

(36) Richter, C.; Schmuttenmaer, C. A. Nat. Nanotechnol. 2010, 5, 769–772.

(37) Aketagwa, K.; Hirama, H.; Moriguchi, H.; Torii, T. In 15th International Conference on Miniaturized Systems for Chemistry and Life Sciences, October 2–6, 2011, Seattle, Washington, USA; pp 1615– 1617.

- (38) Li, C. J.; Xu, G. R. Appl. Surf. Sci. 2011, 257, 4951-4955.
- (39) Zukalova, M.; Zukal, A.; Kavan, L.; Nazeeruddin, M. K.; Laska, P.; Gratzel, M. Nano Lett. 2005, 5, 1789–1792.
- (40) O'Regan, B. B.; Durrant, J. R. Acc. Chem. Res. 2009, 42, 1799–1808.

(41) Ahmed, S.; Du Pasquier, A.; Birnie, D. P.; Asefa, T. ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2011, 3, 3002–3010.

(42) Zhang, Z.-K.; Bai, -L.; Guo, D.-Z.; Hou, S.-M.; Zhang, G.-M. Chem. Commun. 2011, 47, 8439–8441.