

Nanoscale

Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this *Accepted Manuscript* with the edited and formatted *Advance Article* as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



Journal Name

COMMUNICATION

Direct Coating of Mesoporous Titania on CTAB-capped Gold Nanorods

Received 00th January 20xx,
Accepted 00th January 20xx

Junwei Zhao,^{a,b} Pengyu Xu,^a Yue Li,^a Jian Wu,^a Junfei Xue,^a Qiannan Zhu,^a Xuxing Lu,^a Weihai Ni^{a*}

DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

www.rsc.org/

We demonstrate a CTAB-templated approach towards direct coating of mesoporous titania on gold nanorods in aqueous solutions. The formation of the mesoporous shell is found to be closely correlated with CTAB concentration and amount of the titania precursor. This approach can be readily extended to form mesoporous titania shells on other CTAB-capped nanoparticles.

Titania (TiO₂) is a widely used semiconductor photocatalyst for a variety of solar-driven energy and environment applications. Unfortunately, the wide band gap of TiO₂, 3.2 eV, places a limit on the conversion efficiency of the solar energy because only ultraviolet (UV) part of sunlight can be absorbed. Over the years, significant efforts have been made in developing visible light-absorbing TiO₂-based photocatalysts.¹ Promising strategies can be the development of localized surface plasmon resonance photosensitization or electromagnetic field enhancement using noble metal nanoparticles.^{2–7} Electrons excited in the noble metal can be transferred through the interface to the conduction band of TiO₂ in a composite nanomaterial, and therefore, visible light can be utilized. Alternatively, the excitation efficiency of TiO₂ is enhanced by the electromagnetic field of metal particles. In both scenarios, a closed interface between the metal and TiO₂ is greatly favorable.

Core-shell composite architecture can be a perfect option for offering such interface.^{8,9} The noble metal core possesses plasmonic properties that can be well tailored by designing the composition and shape, while the composition, thickness, and structure of the semiconductor shell can also be finely tuned. Moreover, strong interactions between the core and shell endow the core-shell structure with new properties,¹⁰ and the

photocatalytic properties of TiO₂ can be greatly enhanced.⁶ Since the pioneer work of silica coating by Liz-Marzan et al.,¹¹ approaches towards the synthesis of metal-oxide core-shell composite nanostructures have attracted a great deal of attention in recent years.¹² Pastoriza-Santos et al. introduced one-pot method for the synthesis of Ag@TiO₂ core-shell nanoparticles.¹³ Mayya et al. successfully coated TiO₂ on gold nanoparticles in aqueous solutions through a sol-gel method.¹⁴ The sol-gel approach was further improved and modified by many groups by varying the capping agents, TiO₂ precursor, solution mixture, and temperature to achieve desired core shell structures.^{15–18} However, these approaches generally involve multistep processes which require additional steps for the ligand exchange or encapsulation of an intermediate coating layer.

Mesoporous structure is of particular significance in photocatalysis because enhanced charge separation,⁴ high surface area, and high surface-to-volume ratio brought by the porous structure is beneficial to the photocatalytic performance.⁸ Hydrothermal method was employed to achieve porous structure of the TiO₂ shell.¹⁹ The shell is usually very rough, which is related with the disordered mesophases of TiO₂. Mesoporous TiO₂ shell was also obtained by using a sol-gel method.^{20,21} However, these modified Stöber methods are not directly applicable to cetyl-trimethylammonium bromide (CTAB)-capped nanoparticles because those are not stable in alcoholic solutions. Ligand exchange or surface encapsulation in such cases is necessary. Soft template method has been widely used to synthesize mesoporous TiO₂ (mTiO₂) nanomaterials, where the formation of TiO₂ networks usually involve the using of structure-directing agents, including block copolymers²² and charged surfactant molecules, such as CTAB.²³ It is advantageous because the mesostructures can be easily controlled by the template molecules. Gorelikov et al. introduced the template method for the mesoporous silica coating of gold nanorods (AuNRs).²⁴ Previous attempts succeed in direct coating TiO₂ on CTAB-capped metal nanoparticles. However, usually a thin TiO₂ layer without

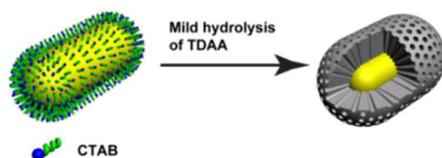
^a Division of *i*-Lab & Key Laboratory for Nano-Bio Interface Research, Suzhou Institute of Nano-Tech & Nano-Bionics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Suzhou, Jiangsu, 215123, China

^b Materials Science and Engineering School, Luoyang Institute of Science and Technology, Luoyang, Henan, 471023, China

* Corresponding author: whni2012@sinano.ac.cn

Electronic Supplementary Information (ESI) available: Experimental details including chemicals, sample preparation, and characterization methods. UV-Vis extinction spectra, SEM images, and TEM images of AuNR@mTiO₂ nanostructures are included. See DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

mesoporous structure was obtained.^{25, 26} Direct coating of mTiO₂ on metal nanoparticles is rarely reported in literature.



Scheme 1. Schematic illustration of the template-mediated mTiO₂ coating on the CTAB-capped AuNR.

Herein, we demonstrate a CTAB-templated approach towards direct coating of mTiO₂ on AuNRs in aqueous solutions through finely controlling the reaction rate. CTAB concentration is proved very critical to the formation of mesoporous structure. The mTiO₂ shell thickness can be readily tuned. The approach is very reproducible and does not involve any intermediate coating procedures, which drastically improves the interfacial contact as well as the overall yield. The approach can be readily extended to form mTiO₂ shells on other CTAB-capped nanoparticles. The mTiO₂ shell is uniform, smooth, and characteristic of mesoporous structure, while the AuNR core possesses a longitudinal surface plasmon resonance (LSPR) that can be finely tuned from visible to near infrared range. Furthermore, efficient generation of ¹O₂ is observed on the AuNR@mTiO₂ nanostructures under resonant plasmon excitation. These highly uniform nanostructures with tunable LSPR photosensitization wavelength can be of great potential in a variety of energy and environment applications.

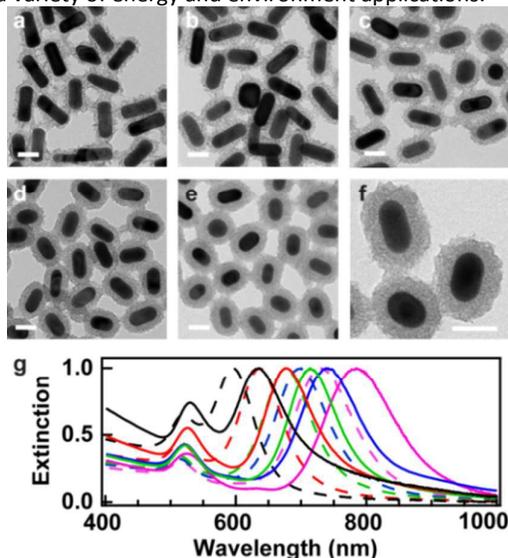


Fig. 1. AuNR@mTiO₂ nanostructures with various AuNR aspect ratios. (a–e) TEM images of AuNR@mTiO₂ nanostructures with decreasing AuNR aspect ratios. (f) Magnified TEM image of (e) clearly showing the mesoporous structure of the mTiO₂ shell. The scale bars are 50 nm. (g) Corresponding normalized extinction spectra of AuNR samples before (dashed lines) and after (solid lines) the mTiO₂ coating.

AuNRs were synthesized using the seed-mediated method.²⁷ Their sizes are relatively uniform as shown in the transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image (Fig. S1a). Five

AuNR samples with ensemble LSPR wavelengths 730, 698, 675, 637, and 597 nm (Fig. S1) were prepared by using the hydrogen peroxide-method introduced in our previous work.^{28, 29} Scheme 1 illustrates the CTAB-templated approach towards direct coating of mTiO₂ on AuNRs. Briefly, the CTAB concentration of the reaction solution was finely controlled and optimized at around 0.18 mM, and the pH was tuned to around 10.5. The coating was performed using titanium diisopropoxide bis(acetylacetonate) (TDAA), a TiO₂ precursor with slow hydrolysis rate. To maintain a very mild hydrolysis, 100 μ L of TDAA methanol solution ($V_{\text{TDAA}}: V_{\text{MeOH}} = 1: 100$) was carefully added (every 0.5–1 hr, 10–15 μ L at a time) to 6.7 mL of the reaction solution under vigorous stirring. The mild hydrolysis and condensation of TDAA resulted in uniform core–shell AuNR@mTiO₂ nanostructures (Fig. 1a–e). Our method is very reproducible, and the product is well monodispersed as shown in the scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images (Fig. S2).

Although TDAA amount was kept the same for the five samples, the thickness of the mTiO₂ shells increases from 11 to 28 nm with the decrease of AuNR aspect ratio, which is due to the decreasing surface area of the AuNRs. The mesoporous structure of the shell can be clearly observed in a magnified TEM image (Fig. 1f). It is surprisingly similar to that of the mesoporous silica shell shown in the previous report,²⁴ where one can hardly distinguish them solely from the TEM images. This similarity suggests the same role of CTAB molecules as the soft template in the formation of the mesoporous structures. As shown in the UV–vis spectra (Fig. 1g), the LSPR shifts toward a longer wavelength as the shell is grown due to the refractive index change around the AuNRs. The index change-induced plasmon shift increases from 37 to 54 nm with the increase of the aspect ratio (Table S1), which can be attributed to the increasing index sensitivity of AuNRs.³⁰

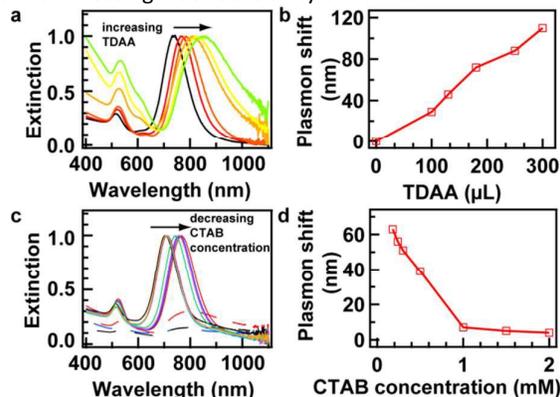


Fig. 2. Effects of TDAA and CTAB on the formation of mTiO₂ shell. (a) Normalized extinction spectra of AuNR@mTiO₂ samples prepared with various TDAA amount. (b) Plasmon shift as a function of TDAA amount. (c) Those prepared with various CTAB concentration. CTAB below 0.122 mM (dashed lines) and from 0.18 to 2 mM (solid lines) are shown. (d) Plasmon shift as a function of CTAB concentration.

The thickness of the mTiO₂ shell can be readily tuned by varying the amount of TDAA added to the reaction solution.

The LSPR peak gradually performs red shift with the increase of the TDAA amount, where a largest plasmon shift 110 nm is observed (Fig. 2a and b). A linear correlation is found between the plasmon shift and TDAA amount (Fig. 2b). The shell thickness increases from 11 to 30 nm when the amount of TDAA is increased from 100 to 300 μL (Fig. S3), suggesting complete hydrolysis of TDAA on AuNR surface. More importantly, CTAB concentration in the reaction solution is found very critical for the formation of the shell. The plasmon shift generally increases with decreasing CTAB concentration (Fig. 2c, d, and Fig. S4). With the decrease of concentration lower than 1 mM, the critical micelle concentration (cmc)³¹ of CTAB molecules, it increases drastically and reaches a maximum of 63 nm at the corresponding CTAB concentration 0.18 mM. Further decrease of the concentration leads to the aggregation of AuNRs during the reaction (dashed lines, Fig. 2c and Fig. S4a–c). Thin shells can be found at relatively high CTAB concentrations (Fig. S4g and h). A control experiment without the Au core was performed, indicating the decrease of TDAA hydrolysis rate with increasing CTAB concentration. It suggests that CTAB stabilizes TDAA and protects it from hydrolysis due to the affinity between CTAB and TDAA molecules. The thickness of the TiO_2 shell is less than 5 nm in the previous reports,^{25, 26} which can be related with the presence of CTAB with relatively high concentration (larger than cmc) in their reaction solutions.

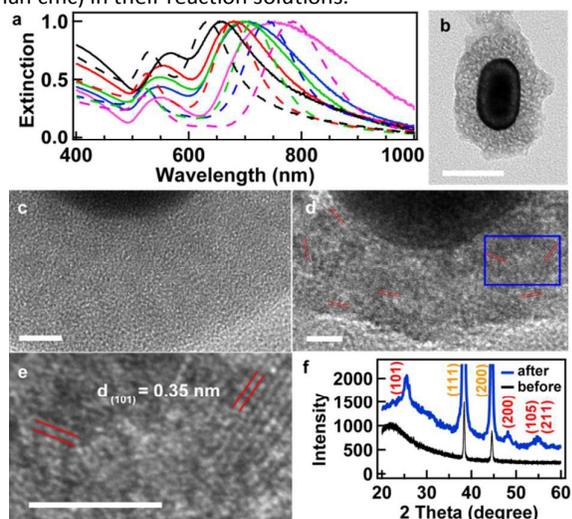


Fig. 3. Calcination of AuNR@mTiO₂ nanostructures. (a) Normalized extinction spectra before (dashed lines) and after (solid lines) calcination. (b) TEM image of a typical AuNR@mTiO₂ nanostructure after the calcination. Scale bar 100 nm. (c) and (d) HRTEM images before and after the calcination, respectively. (e) Zoomed-in image for the area highlighted in (d). The lattice spacing is 0.35 nm (red lines). Scale bars 5 nm. (f) XRD patterns before and after the calcination with Au (orange numbers) and anatase phase of TiO₂ (red numbers) diffraction peaks indexed.

To investigate the crystallinity of the mTiO₂ shells, the synthesized AuNR@mTiO₂ nanostructures were subjected to calcination in air ambiance at 450 °C for 2 hr. Extinction

spectra were obtained from the AuNR@mTiO₂ nanostructure films after the calcination. Interestingly, the thermal treatment has different effects on the core–shell structures with various aspect ratios. The longitudinal plasmon peaks of the sample with small (large) AuNR aspect ratios shift to longer (shorter) wavelengths (Fig. 3a and Table S2). To understand the result, the calcinated nanostructures were sonicated from the substrates to the solutions and deposited on TEM grids. The calcination results in both decrease of the length and slight increase of the width (Table S2) and hence shrinking of the aspect ratio to different extent (Fig. S5), depending on the initial aspect ratio of AuNRs. The shrink of the shell is found together with the core (Fig. 3b), suggesting the elastic nature of the mTiO₂ shell, which is consistent with the observation on mesoporous silica in the previous report.³² Meanwhile, the crystallinity of the mTiO₂ shell is significantly improved as revealed by the high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) and X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements. After the calcination, the amorphous mTiO₂ (Fig. 3c) starts to form polycrystalline particles (Fig. 3d and e). The observed lattice spacing is 0.35 nm, which matches well to the d_{101} of anatase TiO₂.³³ The anatase phases are observable in the XRD pattern after calcination (Fig. 3f). Therefore, the observed plasmon shift can be ascribed to the sum effect of the index increase around the AuNRs due to improved crystallinity of the mTiO₂ shell and the shrink of the aspect ratio whose extent is related with the initial aspect ratio.

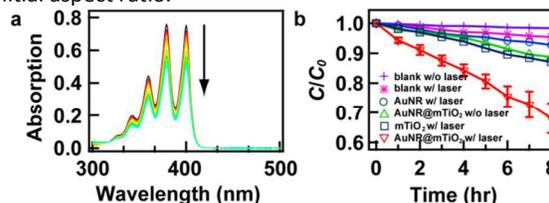


Fig. 4. Generation of ¹O₂ using AuNR@mTiO₂ nanostructures. (a) Time evolution of ABDA absorption spectra under irradiation in the presence of AuNR@mTiO₂. (b) Time-dependent normalized absorbance of ABDA under irradiation. The error bars are a standard deviation from the mean.

AuNR@mTiO₂ solution sample with LSPR at 784 nm (Fig. 1a) was employed in the photodynamic therapy experiments. A diode laser at 808 nm and 210 mW was chosen as the excitation source. ¹O₂ can be generated by a series of reactions involving photon-generated electrons and holes in Au and TiO₂.¹⁷ 9,10-anthracenediyl-bis(methylene) dimaleonic acid (ABDA) with UV absorption bands was employed as the probe molecule for monitoring the generation of ¹O₂.¹⁷ Its absorption is decreased when ABDA reacts with ¹O₂ to produce endoperoxide. During the measurement, the solution mixture was irradiated in a quartz cuvette at 656 mW cm⁻² under vigorous stirring. The temperature of the solution increased by 2–3 °C from room temperature after 30 min irradiation, suggesting a negligible thermal effect. The absorption spectra of the ABDA solution were recorded every 1 hr after removing the nanostructures by centrifugation (Fig. 4a and Fig. S6). Compared to the blank sample, the AuNR sample (Fig. S7) shows slightly higher rate at resonant plasmon

excitation (Fig. 4b), which can be ascribed to the scattering of incident light by the AuNRs in the solution. The AuNR@mTiO₂ samples exhibit a rate that is 2.5 folds higher than that of the hollow TiO₂ structures (Fig. 4b). This result is consistent with that previously reported.¹⁷ The apparent quantum efficiency^{4, 34} for the AuNR@mTiO₂ sample is evaluated to be 0.072%.

Mechanisms have been proposed for the visible-light photosensitization of Au/TiO₂ structures, which are related with the excitation of LSPR. Hot electrons excited in Au can transfer through the interface to the conduction band of TiO₂.^{2, 4} On the other hand, surface defects on TiO₂ can be electromagnetically coupled with the LSPR of Au nanoparticles.^{3, 16} In both processes, several factors are considered crucial. i) excitation efficiency of the LSPR. The difference between the excitation and LSPR wavelengths determines the final photocatalytic activity. As we have demonstrated, the LSPR of the synthesized nanostructures can be freely tuned from the visible to NIR range, which enables perfect match of the two. ii) contact interface between the semiconductor and the metal. Direct contact between Au and TiO₂ is a prerequisite for efficient transfer of the electrons, which can be realized by the direct coating of TiO₂ on AuNRs. CTAB as a nonconducting material can be removed either by washing in alcoholic solutions or by calcination at high temperatures. iii) mesoporous structure. The mesoporous structure facilitates the charge separation⁴ and efficient exchange of molecules, and also provides the possibility for the core to be involved in the catalytic reactions.²

In conclusion, we have demonstrated a CTAB-templated approach towards direct coating of mTiO₂ on AuNRs through finely controlling the reaction conditions. Effects of TDAA and CTAB on the shell thickness are studied in detail. The crystallinity of the shells is characterized before and after the calcination at elevated temperatures. Efficient generation of ¹O₂ is observed on the AuNR@mTiO₂ nanostructures under resonant plasmon excitation.

Acknowledgement

This work was financially supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (grants 21271181, 21473240, and 11204122), Ministry of Science and Technology of the People's Republic of China (Intergovernmental S&T Cooperation Project, grant 2013-83-6-10), and Thousand Youth Talent Program of China.

References

1. X. Chen and S. S. Mao, *Chem. Rev.*, 2007, **107**, 2891.
2. C. G. Silva, R. Juarez, T. Marino, R. Molinari and H. Garcia, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2011, **133**, 595.
3. T. Tachikawa, T. Yonezawa and T. Majima, *Acs Nano*, 2013, **7**, 263.
4. Z. F. Bian, T. Tachikawa, P. Zhang, M. Fujitsuka and T. Majima, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2014, **136**, 458.
5. M. W. Knight, H. Sobhani, P. Nordlander and N. J. Halas, *Science*, 2011, **332**, 702.

6. K. Awazu, M. Fujimaki, C. Rockstuhl, J. Tominaga, H. Murakami, Y. Ohki, N. Yoshida and T. Watanabe, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2008, **130**, 1676.
7. Q. Zhang, D. Q. Lima, I. Lee, F. Zaera, M. F. Chi and Y. D. Yin, *Angewandte Chemie-International Edition*, 2011, **50**, 7088.
8. Y. P. Xie, Z. B. Yu, G. Liu, X. L. Ma and H. M. Cheng, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2014, **7**, 1895.
9. Y. Q. Yang, C. H. Sun, L. Z. Wang, Z. B. Liu, G. Liu, X. L. Ma and H. M. Cheng, *Advanced Energy Materials*, 2014, **4**, 1400057.
10. T. Hirakawa and P. V. Kamat, *Langmuir*, 2004, **20**, 5645.
11. L. M. Liz-Marzan, M. Giersig and P. Mulvaney, *Langmuir*, 1996, **12**, 4329.
12. A. Guerrero-Martinez, J. Perez-Juste and L. M. Liz-Marzan, *Adv. Mater.*, 2010, **22**, 1182.
13. I. Pastoriza-Santos, D. S. Koktysh, A. A. Mamedov, M. Giersig, N. A. Kotov and L. M. Liz-Marzan, *Langmuir*, 2000, **16**, 2731.
14. K. S. Mayya, D. I. Gittins and F. Caruso, *Chem. Mater.*, 2001, **13**, 3833.
15. Z. W. Seh, S. Liu, S.-Y. Zhang, M. S. Bharathi, H. Ramanarayan, M. Low, K. W. Shah, Y.-W. Zhang and M.-Y. Han, *Angewandte Chemie-International Edition*, 2011, **50**, 10140.
16. X. Zhang, Y. Zhu, X. Yang, S. Wang, J. Shen, B. Lin and C. Li, *Nanoscale*, 2013, **5**, 3359.
17. C. H. Fang, H. L. Jia, S. Chang, Q. F. Ruan, P. Wang, T. Chen and J. F. Wang, *Energy Environ. Sci.*, 2014, **7**, 3431.
18. A. Li, P. Zhang, X. Chang, W. Cai, T. Wang and J. Gong, *Small*, 2015, **11**, 1892.
19. J. Li and H. C. Zeng, *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl.*, 2005, **44**, 4342.
20. W. Li, J. Yang, Z. Wu, J. Wang, B. Li, S. Feng, Y. Deng, F. Zhang and D. Zhao, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2012, **134**, 11864.
21. W. Zhang, Y. Wang, X. Sun, W. Wang and L. Chen, *Nanoscale*, 2014, **6**, 14514.
22. P. D. Yang, D. Y. Zhao, D. I. Margolese, B. F. Chmelka and G. D. Stucky, *Nature*, 1998, **396**, 152.
23. E. Beyers, P. Cool and E. F. Vansant, *J. Phys. Chem. B* 2005, **109**, 10081.
24. I. Gorelikov and N. Matsuura, *Nano Lett.*, 2008, **8**, 369.
25. H. Sakai, T. Kanda, H. Shibata, T. Ohkubo and M. Abe, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, 2006, **128**, 4944.
26. N. Zhou, L. Polavarapu, N. Gao, Y. Pan, P. Yuan, Q. Wang and Q.-H. Xu, *Nanoscale*, 2013, **5**, 4236.
27. T. K. Sau and C. J. Murphy, *Langmuir*, 2004, **20**, 6414.
28. W. H. Ni, X. S. Kou, Z. Yang and J. F. Wang, *Acs Nano*, 2008, **2**, 677.
29. Q. N. Zhu, J. Wu, J. W. Zhao and W. H. Ni, *Langmuir*, 2015, **31**, 4072.
30. W. H. Ni, H. J. Chen, X. S. Kou, M. H. Yeung and J. F. Wang, *J. Phys. Chem. C* 2008, **112**, 8105.
31. X. R. Huang, J. H. Yang, W. J. Zhang, Z. Y. Zhang and Z. S. An, *J. Chem. Educ.*, 1999, **76**, 93.
32. E. Gergely-Fueloep, D. Zambo and A. Deak, *Mater. Chem. Phys.*, 2014, **148**, 909.
33. X. Y. Ma, Z. G. Chen, S. B. Hartono, H. B. Jiang, J. Zou, S. Z. Qiao and H. G. Yang, *Chem. Commun.*, 2010, **46**, 6608.
34. J. M. Buriak, P. V. Kamat and K. S. Schanze, *ACS Appl. Mat. Interfaces* 2014, **6**, 11815.

Journal Name

COMMUNICATION

TOC

