

Colloid Chemical Approach to Nanotechnology

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Abstract – Colloid chemical methods for the preparation of nanoparticles and their self-assembly and organization into 2-dimensional arrays and three dimensional networks are surveyed. Potential applications of nanoparticles and nanostructured materials, fabricated by the wet colloid chemical approach, are also illustrated.

Key words: Colloids, Nanotechnology, Nanostructured Materials, Self-assembly, Nanoparticles

INTRODUCTION

The National Nanotechnology Initiative has been formally implemented in the United States in July 2000, with a \$495 million budget request for fiscal 2001 [Schulz, 2000]. "The Initiative will develop the capacity to create affordable products with dramatically improved performance through gaining a basic understanding of ways to control and manipulate matter at the ultimate frontier - the nanometer - and through the incorporation of nanostructures and nanoprocesSES into technological innovations. In addition to producing new technologies, the study of nanoscale systems also promises to lead to fundamentally new advances in our understanding of biological, environmental, and planetary systems" [http://www.nano.gov]. Efforts similar to the US National Nanotechnology Initiative are underway in China, the European Community, Japan, Korea and other Countries.

Nanosized and/or nanostructured materials have dimensions, as their name implies, in the 1-100 nm range. Size quantization occurs in this region which manifests itself in physical and chemical properties which are distinctly different from those in the same bulk materials [Ozin, 1992; Weller, 1993; Markovich, 1999]. Exploitation of the size quantized nanoparticles and nanostructured materials is expected to lead to "breakthroughs in areas such as materials and manufacturing, nanoelectronics, medicine and healthcare, environment, energy, chemical, biotechnology, agriculture, information technology and national security [http://www.nano.gov]. There are two fundamentally different approaches to the fabrication of nanoparticles and nanostructured materials: "top down" and "bottom up" [Fendler, 1998]. Exhaustive grinding of bulk materials down to submicron particles illustrates the "top down" approach. Such industrial products as ferrofluids (liquid magnets) and components for photography are still fabricated by the ball-milling of bulk materials. The "bottom up" approach, based on the atom-by-atom or molecule-by-molecule assembly of nanoparticles, has the advantage of versatility and economy. Only the lack of our chemical knowledge and ingenuity limit the construction of nanoparticles and nanostructured materials by the "bottom up" method.

Colloid chemistry is particularly well suited for the "bottom up" fabrication of nanoparticles and nanostructured materials. It has suf-

ficiently matured to become quantitative and predictive thanks to recent instrumental and theoretical advances [Evans and Wennerstrom, 1994]. Furthermore, nanoparticles, by definition, are colloids and association colloids (micelles, microemulsions, vesicles, monolayers, bilayers) are often employed as templates and/or nanoreactors for the *in situ* generation of nanoparticles. Equally importantly, biomineralization, Mother Nature's construction of nanostructured materials, can be considered to be a colloidal process [Addadi and Weiner, 1991; Weiner and Addadi, 1997]. Indeed, the mimicking biomineralization has often provided a viable approach to the fabrication of nanoparticles and nanostructured materials [Fendler, 1992; Mann, 1996].

Attention is focused in the present review on the colloid chemical approach to nanotechnology. Specifically, nanoparticle preparations and their organization into two-dimensional arrays and three dimensional networks will be examined. Examples of potential applications of the nanoparticles and nanostructured materials, fabricated by a colloid chemical approach, will also be provided. No attempts will be made to cover the literature exhaustively. Instead, emphasis will be placed on general methodologies and on guiding the neophyte through the vast and diffuse literature.

COLLOID CHEMISTRY OF NANOPARTICLES

Dispersed colloidal particles have been around for over a century. Samples of beautiful deeply red colloidal gold dispersions prepared by Michael Faraday sometime in the eighteen-fifties are still stable and proudly displayed at the Royal Institution in London. The longevity of Faraday's colloidal gold dispersions rests upon the stabilization of the particles, probably by gelatin. In the absence of stabilizers the particles are attracted to each other by van der Waals forces (which increase inversely with the sixth power of the distance between the particle surfaces) and coagulate. Understanding the forces governing colloidal stabilities [Israelachvili, 1992] is an essential requirement for the preparation of colloidal nanoparticles. Stabilization of colloidal particles is, in fact, intimately involved in the preparation procedures.

Particles can be stabilized electrostatically and sterically (Fig. 1). The synergistic and concurrent particle preparation and electrostatic stabilization is illustrated by classical synthesis of 12 nm diameter gold particles [Turkevich et al., 1951]. The method involves the reduction of an aqueous gold chloride solution by sodium cit-

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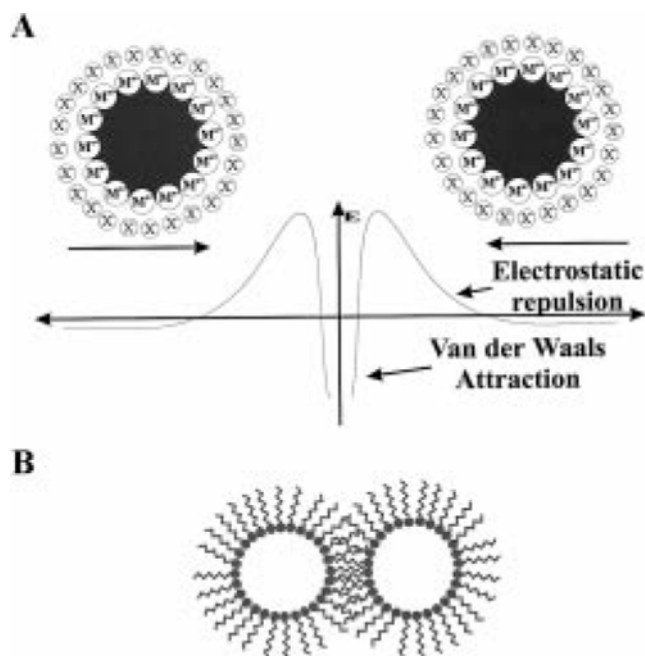


Fig. 1. Schematics of electrostatic (top) and steric (bottom) stabilization of particle dispersions. In the electrostatic stabilization attractive van der Waals forces are overcome by repulsive interactions between the ions (and associated counterions) adsorbed on the particles. Restricted motions of the polymers (adsorbed onto the particles) particles are responsible for their steric stabilization.

rate. The gold particles formed are coated by an electrical double layer (composed of bulky citrate ions, chloride ions and the cations attracted to them) responsible for the Coulombic repulsions which decays exponentially with increasing interparticle separations. There is a weak minimum in the van der Waals energy at an interparticle separation which approximately corresponds to the diameter of the stabilized gold nanoparticle. This minimum (where the attractive van der Waals forces are overcompensated by the repulsive electrostatic interactions) is responsible for the electrostatic stabilization of the gold colloids. However, compression of the electrical double layer (by increasing the ionic strength of the medium, or displacing the added ionic stabilizers) results in particle aggregation.

Steric stabilization is accomplished by adsorbing polymers and/or surfactants onto the surfaces of colloidal particles. Intertwining of the adsorbed polymers (and/or surfactant) in the interparticle space restricts the conformational motion (entropy effect) and increases local polymer concentration (which has to be compensated by solvation=osmotic effect) which, in turn, results in the stabilization of the particle. It should be pointed out that stabilization of colloidal particles by long chain surfactants and/or polyelectrolytes involves *both* electrostatic and steric effects.

Coating (capping or derivatization) by molecules which form chemical bonds with or chemisorb onto the particles provides an extremely useful method of stabilization [Veinot 1997; Henglein and Meisel, 1998]. Thiols and dithiols have been demonstrated to be highly suitable capping-agents for metallic (particularly gold and silver) and semiconducting (CdSe, for example) nanoparticles (Fig.

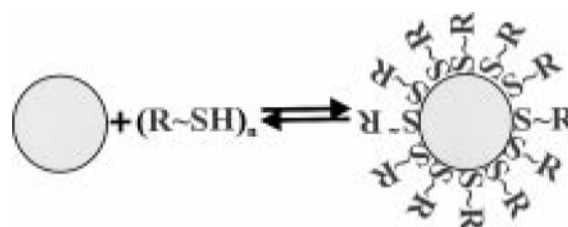


Fig. 2. Schematics of nanoparticle capping by alkylmercaptane molecules.

2). The capped nanoparticles can be separated from the dispersing solvent, stored as dried powders and redispersed on demand in a suitable solvent (polar solvent if the capping agent provides a hydrophilic surface and apolar solvent if the capping agent provides a hydrophobic surface) to form the same sized nanoparticles with the same degree of monodispersity [Steigerwald et al., 1998]. Nucleophilic reagents [Ko et al., 2000; Kim et al., 2000] have also been fruitfully employed as caps for nanoparticles. It should be remembered that capping (and stabilization by large ions, and/or surfactants and/or polymers) changes the surface states and surface properties of the nanoparticles.

Nanoparticles are also stabilized if they are *in situ* generated or trapped in (or on) templates or confined in the restricted volumes of nanoreactors. Once again, this way of stabilization is intimately connected to preparations and will be discussed, therefore, in the subsequent section.

NANOPARTICLE PREPARATIONS

1. Precipitations in Homogeneous Solutions

Precipitation involves the nucleation of crystalline centers and subsequent growth of the incipient crystallites. In the absence of intervention bulk amorphous or crystalline materials are produced upon chemical precipitation. Control of the nucleation and growth is the requirements of forming monodispersed nanoparticles by precipitation [Matijevec, 1994]. In homogeneous solution this is accomplished by the judicious adjustment of the precipitating conditions (type, concentration, order and rate additions of the reagents and stabilizers or capping agents, stoichiometry, temperature, and solvent). Many submicron sized stable particle dispersions have been prepared by using the controlled double (or multi) jet precipitation process. Advantage has also been taken of ultrasonic power to form nanoparticles [Peters, 1996; Matai et al., 1999; Zhu et al., 2000; Kumar et al., 2000]. It is increasingly realized that the shapes as well as the electronic properties of the nanoparticles depend on the structure(s) of the capping (stabilizing) agents [Chemseddine, 1999].

2. Precipitation in and/or Incorporation onto (or into) Surfactant Aggregates and Templates

Such surfactant aggregates as aqueous micelles, reversed micelles, microemulsions (both oil-in-water, O/W and water-in-oil, W/O), surfactant vesicles and polymerized surfactant vesicles have been fruitfully employed as templates (and/or nanoreactors) for the *in situ* generation of nanoparticles [Fendler, 1982, 1992; Fox, 1991]. Alternatively, preformed nanoparticles have also been incorporated into surfactant aggregates. Aggregates referred to as aqueous mi-

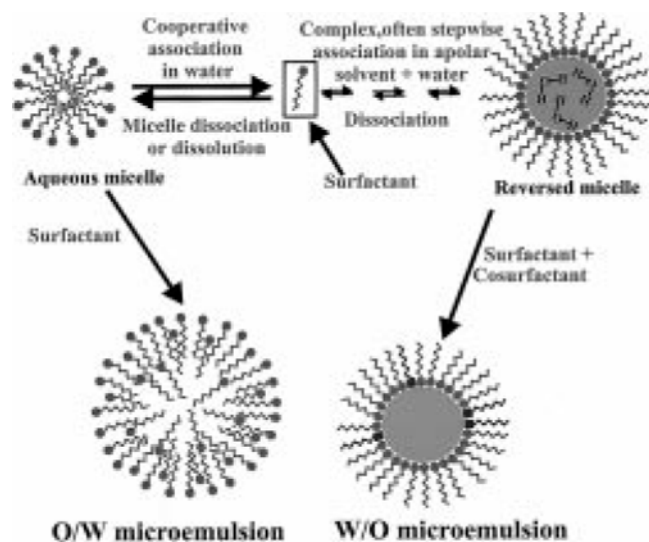


Fig. 3. Schematics of the formation of aqueous micelles, reversed micelles and of transformation, at higher surfactant concentrations, to oil-in-water (O/W) and water-in-oil (W/O) microemulsions.

celles are generated by the spontaneous association of *ca.* 50-100 surfactants (cationic, anionic, zwitterionic or neutral) above a characteristic concentration, known as the critical micelle concentration, (Fig. 3). The hydrodynamic diameters of aqueous micelles are on the order of 20-50 Å. Formation of aqueous micelles is a cooperative process. The opposing forces of repulsion between the polar headgroups and attraction between the hydrophobic chains of the surfactants are responsible for micellization. In general, the longer the hydrophobic tails are, the lower the CMC is. Micellar association is dynamic. Aqueous micelles rapidly break up and reform by two known processes. The first one, occurring on the microsecond time scale, corresponds to the release of a single surfactant from the micellar ensemble and subsequent reincorporation of it. The second process, taking place in the millisecond time-frame, corresponds to dissolution and subsequent reformation of the entire micelle. This very dynamic nature of aqueous micelles has limited their use as compartments for nanoparticle generation [Pileni, 1997].

Increasing the concentration of the surfactants in water above their CMC leads to the formation of rod-like micelles, oil in water microemulsions or liquid crystals. All these type of surfactant aggregates have been employed for nanoparticle generation [Tohver, 1997; Guo and Liu, 1997]. Of particular interest are the metallomesogens, the metal complexes of organic ligands which exhibit liquid crystalline behavior [Giroud-Godquin and Maitlis, 1991].

Surfactants having the appropriate hydrophobic - hydrophilic balance (sodium bis(2-ethylhexyl)sulfosuccinate, aerosol-OT or AOT, for example) undergo concentration dependent self-association in apolar solvents (hexane, for example) to form reversed or inverted micelles (Fig. 3) [Fendler, 1982]. Reversed micelles are capable of solubilizing a large number of water molecules ($[H_2O]/[AOT]=w$ up to 60 for AOT, for example). This surfactant entrapped water pools in a bulk hydrocarbon solvent serve as the microreactor for the *in situ* generation of nanoparticles [Fendler, 1992; Pileni, 1997]. Reversed micelles are also dynamic; the water pools and their con-

tents are freely exchanging. This provides an opportunity for convenient nanoparticle preparations by mixing reactant precursors confined in two separate reversed micellar pools (a metal cation such as Cd^{2+} and Na_2S , for example). The possibility of controlling the water pool size (*w*) and the nature of the counterions also provide opportunities for controlling the size, shape and crystallinity of the incipient nanoparticles [Pileni, 1997]. Ultimate control is achieved, of course, by the prompt capping of the nanoparticles generated in reversed micelles.

Increasing the concentration of surfactant entrapped water results in the formation of larger aggregates which eventually become water-in-oil microemulsions (Fig. 3). At high surfactant and water concentrations the aggregate structures are best treated in terms of three (or multi) component phase diagrams.

Closed bilayer aggregates, formed from phospholipids (liposomes) or surfactant (vesicles) have also provided compartments for nanoparticles [Fendler, 1992]. Swelling of a thin lipid (or surfactant) films in water results in the formation of onion-like 100-800 nm diameter MultiLamellar Vesicles (MLV). Sonication of the MLV above the temperature at which they are transformed from a gel into a liquid (phase transition temperature) leads to the formation of fairly uniform Small (30-60 nm diameter) Unilamellar Vesicles (SUV; Fig. 4). SUV can also be prepared by injecting an alcohol solution of the surfactant through a small bore syringe into water, by detergent dialysis, by ultracentrifugation and by gel, membrane and ultrafiltration [Fendler, 1992]. Once formed, the SUV, unlike aqueous micelles, do not break down upon dilution. Surfactant vesicles, depending on composition and temperature of storage, remain stable for weeks to months. SUV can organize many guests in their compartments. Hydrophobic molecules may be distributed among the hydrocarbon bilayers and polar molecules may move relatively freely in the vesicle entrapped water pools, particularly if they are electrostatically repelled from the vesicle inner surface. The binding of small charged ions to the oppositely charged outer and/or inner vesicle surfaces is facile. Species with charges identical to those on the vesicle can be anchored onto the surfaces by

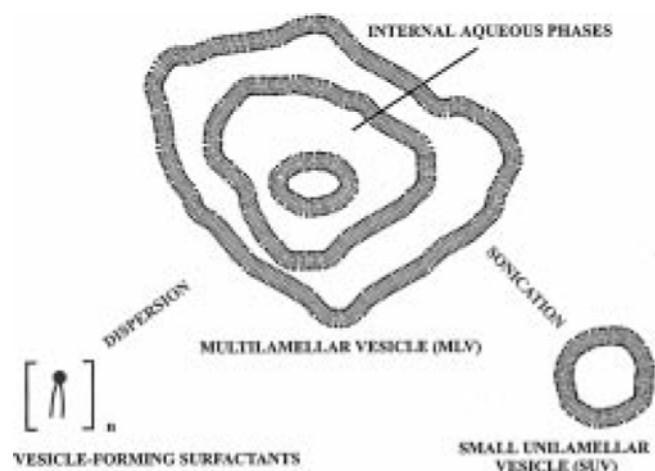


Fig. 4. Schematics of the formation of multilamellar surfactant vesicles (MLV) by the dispersion of a thin films of surfactant in water (by vortexing) and its subsequent transition to small single bilayer unilamellar vesicles (SUV) by sonication.

long hydrocarbon tails. This versatility permits a large variety of different approaches to the *in situ* generation of nanoparticles in SUV. Large (giant, *ca.* 1 μm diameter) Unilamellar Surfactant vesicles (LUV) have also been prepared.

SUVs have been stabilized by polymerization. Vesicle forming surfactants have been functionalized by vinyl, methacrylate, diacetylene, isocyanate and styrene groups in their hydrocarbon tails or headgroups. Accordingly, SUV could be polymerized in their bilayers or across their headgroups. In the latter case, either the outer or the inner or both the outer and inner surfaces could be polymerized. Surfactant vesicles and polymerized vesicles have been extensively employed as compartments for the *in situ* generation of nanoparticles [Fendler, 1992; Kennedy et al., 1998; Correa et al., 2000].

Cadmium sulfide nanoparticles have also been generated in bacterial S-layer proteins [Shenton et al., 1997]. Nucleation was found to occur within the subunits in the and the resultant CdS nanoparticles arranged themselves in two-tier stacks. The structural diversity of the S-layer proteins opens the door to fabrication of a wide variety of 2D and 3D nanostructured materials.

Polymers have also been used as templates for the *in situ* generation or incorporation of nanoparticles. Particularly significant is the versatile use of dendrimers [Tomalia et al., 1990; Frechet et al., 1996; Percec et al., 1998; Sooklal et al., 1998; Fischer and Vigtle, 1999] and di- and tri-block copolymers [Bates et al., 1999; Leclere et al., 1998; Kane et al., 1999; Wang et al., 1999; Schrock et al., 1999; Spatz et al., 1996; Stupp, 1998; Rudoy et al., 1999; Colfen et al., 1999; Selvan et al., 1999; Nardin et al., 2000; Underhill and Liu, 2000]. Judicious selection of appropriate block copolymers in appropriate concentrations have resulted in the formation of large variety of self-assembled structures including those which resembled aqueous micelles, reversed micelles, microemulsions, surfactant vesicles and. All of these structure can, in principle, be used as templates for nanoparticle generation or incorporation.

The range of templates and/or compartment available for the *in situ* generation or incorporation of nanoparticles in controlled (or controllable) sizes and morphologies is limited only by the imagination and diligence of chemists and material scientists. Both natu-

rally occurring (zeolites, clay minerals, for example), naturally occurring but modified (pillared clay, for example) and artificial (porous glass, for example) have been employed. An interesting example is provided by using liquid crystal templating to form synthetic large pore zeolites (Fig. 5, Kresge et al., 1992): in the presence of silicate ions hexagonal arrays of cylindrical micelles are formed from surfactants with their polar groups in the exterior of the cylinders which are covered by silicates. Calcination results in the burning off the organic surfactants and leaves the inorganic silicate in the form of MCM-41 zeolites.

It should be remembered that rigid compartments and partial entrapment of nanoparticles therein obviate the need for surface coverage (i.e., modification). Nanoparticles can be, therefore, examined (and employed) in their pristine states.

3. Soft Solution Processing-Hydrothermal Synthesis

Preparation of nanoparticles by Soft Solution Processing (i.e., direct fabrication in aqueous solution at moderate temperatures and pressures) has increasing been gaining acceptance [Yoshimura and Livage, 2000]. Hydrothermal synthesis (hydrothermal technique) is a Soft Solution Processing which involves the heterogeneous reaction between powdered solids and water above ambient temperature and at pressure greater than 1 atm in a closed system [Byrappa and Yoshimura, 2000]. The relative ease (appropriate powdered reagents and water are placed in a teflon-lined autoclave and heated without stirring at moderate to high temperatures and pressures for the desired time) and the possibility of predicting optimum reaction conditions by electrolyte thermodynamics (in terms of phase diagrams) are the advantages of the hydrothermal synthesis [Lencka et al., 2000]. Hydrothermal reactions have also been carried out under microwave heating, ultrasonication, and applied electrical potential as well as employing solvent(s) under supercritical or near supercritical conditions [Yoshimura et al., 2000]. BaTiO_3 , SrTiO_3 , LiNbO_3 , LiNiO_2 , LiCoO_2 , and PZT nanocrystalline thin films have been prepared by the hydrothermal synthesis [Yoshimura et al., 1999]. Remarkably, carbon coatings and carbide fibers [Gogotsi and Yoshimura, 1994] and even diamond [Zhao et al., 1997] have been prepared by this method.

4. Nanoparticle Formation in Aerosol Reactors

The term aerosol refers to a colloidal suspension of solid particles in a gas. Reacting nanoparticle precursors as aerosols at ambient and elevated temperature as well as in flames (flame pyrolysis) has been shown to be a suitable technique for the industrial production of metallic, semiconducting and ceramic particles and thin films therefrom [Pratsinis, 1998; Vallett-Regi et al., 1997; Vallettregi et al., 1997; Kruis et al., 1998; Chow et al., 1998; Briesen et al., 1998; Jang and Friedlander, 1998; Kim and Park, 1999; Su and Choy, 2000]. Aerosol reactors have also been employed for the stabilization of nanoparticles by surface coating [Sato and Kimura, 1989; Powell et al., 1997].

5. Electrodeposition

Electrochemical deposition of nanoparticles (or nanostructured films) is attractive since a high degree of control can be achieved by the judicious employment of Faraday's laws ($96,500 \times n$ Coulomb results in the deposition of 1 gram mol of materials, where n is the number of electrons passed in depositing one mole of the deposit). Furthermore, composition, defect chemistry and shapes (along with thickness) is controllable at a reasonable cost. Both anodic and cath-

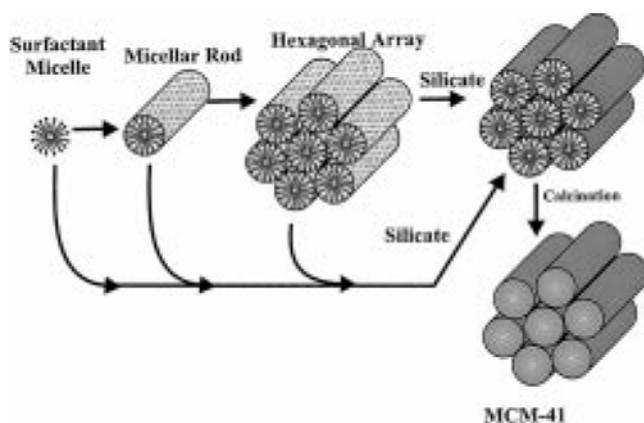


Fig. 5. Schematics of MCM-41 zeolite formation by the calcination of the silicate ions attached to the outer surfaces of hexagonal arrays of surfactants functioning as templates (modified from Kresge et al., 1992).

odic electrodepositions have been demonstrated. Anodic depositions are limited to metallic substrates since the process involves the electrolytic reduction of metal in the presence of the appropriate anions. Cathodic process is more versatile since both components of the semiconductor nanoparticles are both deposited from solution. Thus, for example, cadmium selenide nanoparticles were electrodeposited onto gold electrodes from hot dimethylsulfoxide solutions of Cadmium perchlorate, saturated by selenium at elevated temperatures [Hodes et al., 1998]. The method has been extended to the formation of composite Cd(Se, Te) and (Cd, Zn)Se nanocrystals. Interestingly, the size of the nanocrystallites did not depend on the temperature or current density but was related to mismatch induced strain [Golan et al., 1997]. Electrodeposition of MoS₂ [Ponomarev et al., 1997], ZnS [Mahamuni et al., 1999] nanoparticulate films, and CdS nanowires [Xu et al., 2000] have also been reported.

Particularly significant is the electrodeposition of nanostructured superlattices by pulsing either the applied current or potential of a solution containing precursors of *both* layers [Switzer, 1998]. Nanometer scale Pb-Tl-O ceramic superlattice with a 0.3% mismatch was electrodeposited from aqueous solutions of 0.005 M, 0.005 M Tl(I) and 0.100 M Pb(II) in 5 M NaOH, for example [Phillips et al., 1997]. The defect composition was found to be controllable by the overpotential; high overpotentials favored oxygen vacancies, low overpotential produced cation interstitials [Switzer, 1998].

ORGANIZATION OF NANOPARTICLES INTO 2D ARRAYS AND 3D NETWORKS

1. Generation of Nanoparticles and Nanostructured Materials Under Monolayers

Both chemical and electrochemical routes have been developed for the *in situ* generation of nanoparticles under monolayers [Fendler, 1992]. The experimental set-up used for the chemical generation and *in situ* monitoring of nanocrystalline particulate films is illustrated in Fig. 6. Typically, a surfactant monolayer is spread on an aqueous solution of the metal salt precursor of the nanoparticles and crystallization is induced by the injection of the reactant gas

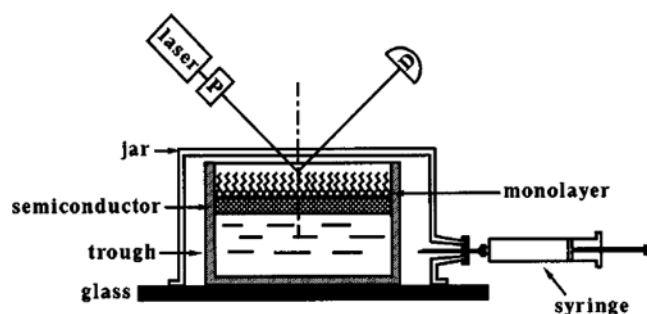


Fig. 6. Schematics of the Langmuir trough used for the *in situ* generation of nanoparticles and nanoparticulate films under monolayers. The aqueous phase contains a dilute aqueous solution of one of the precursors (cadmium perchlorate, for example) while the other precursor (H₂S, for example) is injected by the syringe. The growth of the nanoparticles can be monitored *in situ* (with Brewster angle microscopy using a laser, for example).

into the closed system. Facilities are provided for determining surface pressure vs. surface area and surface potential vs. surface area isotherms in the film balance placed under the glass cover. Reflectivities, angle-dependent reflectivities, Brewster-angle and fluorescence microscopic images and non-linear optical parameters can also be monitored during the nanoparticle formation under the monolayer.

Nanoparticles have also been generated electrochemically under monolayers. A 1.0-mm-diameter, 3-cm-long silver electrode is immersed into the subphase (aqueous silver nitrate solution) and electrical connection is made through a 20- μ m-diameter platinum electrode, floated (subsequent to monolayer formation) on the water surface at the middle of the trough. Ten to twenty minutes subsequent to monolayer formation, a potential of 1.8-1.9 V is applied across the electrodes (keeping Pt negative) by means of a DC power supply. With time, silver particles grow concentrically, forming larger and larger circles at the monolayer-water interface. The rate of this two-dimensional growth is typically 1-2 cm² per hour. Importantly, no silver particles are observed upon the application of the same potential to the water surface in the absence of surfactants or to monolayers prepared from positively charged surfactants. Negatively charged monolayers are essential to the electrochemical generation of silver particles; they provide binding sites for silver ions which are reduced at the cathodic surface. To-date, cadmium-sulfide, zinc-sulfide, lead-sulfide, cadmium-selenide, and lead-selenide semiconductor particulate and silver and gold metallic nanoparticulate films have been chemically grown, *in situ*, under monolayers in our laboratories [Kotov et al., 1993; Zhao et al., 1992; Yang et al., 1994, 1995; Yi et al., 1994; Yang and Fendler, 1995]. The formation of nanoparticulate films under monolayers by employing similar methodologies has been reported by other research groups [Pan et al., 1997; Liu, 1997].

Evolution of a nanocrystalline particulate film, as illustrated by the formation of sulfide semiconductor particulate films (Fig. 7), has been discussed in terms of the following steps: (a) formation of metal-sulfide bonds at a large number of sites at the monolayer-aqueous interface; (b) downward growth of well-separated nanocrystalline metal sulfide particles; (c) coalescence of clusters into interconnected arrays of semiconductor particles; (d) formation of the "first layer" of a porous sulfide semiconductor particulate film composed of 20- to 40- \AA -thick, 30- to 80- \AA -diameter particles; (e) diffusion of fresh metal ions to the monolayer head group area; (f) formation of a "second layer" of the porous sulfide semiconductor particulate film (by using steps a, b, and c); and (g) build-up of "subsequent layers" of the sulfide semiconductor particulate film (by using steps a, b, and c) up to a plateau thickness (ca. 300 \AA for CdS and ca. 3,500 \AA for ZnS) beyond which the film cannot grow.

The presence of a monolayer with an appropriate surface charge is essential to sulfide semiconductor particulate film formation. In the absence of a monolayer, infusion of H₂S over an aqueous metal-ion solution results in the formation of large, irregular, and polydispersed metal-sulfide particles which precipitate in the bulk solution before settling to the bottom of the trough.

The oriented growth requires the matching of the crystal lattice of the surfactants, constituting the monolayers, with that of the incipient nanocrystallites. Such epitaxial matching has been achieved by growing lead sulfide [12], lead selenide [13], and cadmium sul-

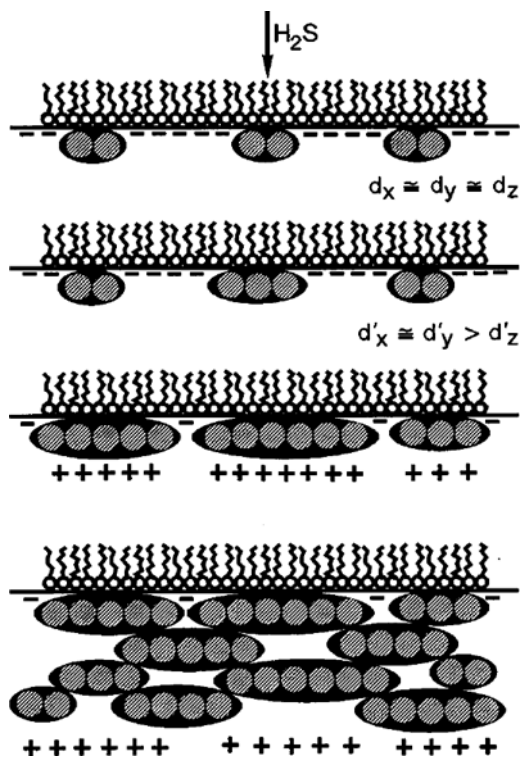


Fig. 7. Schematics of the growth of nanoparticulate films under monolayers. The time of infusion of H_2S gas is increased from top to bottom.

vide [14] under monolayers prepared from arachid acid (AA) and from mixtures of AA and octadecylamine (ODA). Differences in morphology between equilateral-triangular, right-angle-triangular PbS (epitaxially grown under monolayers, prepared from mixtures of AA and ODA in AA : ODA=1 : 0 and AA : ODA=1 : 1), and disk-shaped PbS (non-epitaxially grown under monolayers, prepared from hexadecylphosphate), manifested themselves in different spectroelectrochemical and electrical behavior [Zhao et al., 1992]. An important aspect of generating nanoparticles and nanoparticulate films under monolayers is that they can be transferred to substrates at any stages of their growth for *ex situ* characterizations and use as devices and sensors.

2. Incorporation into and *in situ* Generation of Nanoparticles and Nanostructured Materials between Langmuir-Blodgett Films

Langmuir-Blodgett (LB) films are now routinely and reproducibly formed by moving a clean plate through a monolayer, supported on an aqueous solution [Gaines, 1966; Fendler, 1982]. Hydrophobic substrates preferentially attract the tails of surfactants and the monolayer is transferred during immersion. Conversely, polar substrates favor the surfactant headgroups and monolayer transfer preferentially occurs during the withdrawal process. Repeated withdrawal and dipping of a hydrophilic substrate through the monolayer leads to the buildup of a substrate-head-tail-tail-head-head Y-type multilayer LB film. X-type multilayer deposition, in which the surfactants are organized substrate-tail-head-tail-head, or Y-type deposition, which is characterized by a substrate-head-tail-head-tail arrangement, can be achieved by using alternative dippings.

Apposing surfactant headgroups in LB films, obtained by Y- or

X-type deposition, provide suitable sites for nanoparticles or nanoparticulate films. Indeed, size-quantized CdS [Smotkin et al., 1988; Grieser et al., 1992; Furlong et al., 1993; Xu et al., 1990; Moriguchi et al., 1994; Geddes et al., 1993; Peng et al., 1994; Pike et al., 1994; Luo et al., 1994; Urquart et al., 1994], CdSe [Grieser et al., 1992], CdTe [Grieser et al., 1992], CdS_xSe_{1-x} [Grieser et al., 1992], CdS_xTe_{1-x} [Luo et al., 1994], $CdSe_xTe_{1-x}$ [Grieser et al., 1992], CoS [Luo et al., 1994], PbS [Peng et al., 1992], CdI_2 [Pike et al., 1994; Gao et al., 1994], $CdBr_2$ [Pike et al., 1994], and $CdCl_2$ [Pike et al., 1994], nanoparticles have been *in situ* generated by the exposure of the appropriate metal carboxylate(s) Y-type LB films to H_2S (or H_2Se , or H_2Te , or HI, or HBr, or HCl).

Alternatively, appropriately charged nanoparticle sols, dispersed in the subphase, can be electrostatically attracted to an oppositely charged monolayer surface and, thus, be inserted between LB films [Furlong et al., 1993; Xu et al., 1990; Peng et al., 1992; Tian et al., 1993]. The method is illustrated by the insertion of sodium hexametaphosphate- (HMP) stabilized CdS nanoparticles between the headgroups of LB films, formed from DODAB [Xu et al., 1990; Tian et al., 1993]. Stabilized Fe_3O_4 [64] and $\alpha-Fe_2O_3$ [Zhao et al., 1990] nanoparticles have been similarly introduced into LB films.

3. Formation of Nanoparticles on Aqueous Subphases in a Langmuir Film-balance and their Layer-by-layer Transfer by the Langmuir-Blodgett Technique

Monoparticulate thick films can be formed at the air/water interface by dispersing surfactant-stabilized nanoparticles on an aqueous subphase which was contained in a Langmuir trough [Meldrum and Fendler, 1996]. The technique can be regarded as analogous to monolayer formation from simple surfactants. A similar approach has been applied to form monoparticulate layers from polystyrene microspheres [Pieranski, 1980; Robinson and Eamshaw, 1993; Armstrong et al., 1989], silylated glass beads [Horvolgyi et al., 1993], and organoclay complexes [Kotov et al., 1994]. There are many intrinsic benefits to this method. That the particles are prepared prior to their incorporation into the films enables their dimensions, physical properties, and the particle size distribution to be precisely controlled. Spreading the particles in a Langmuir trough provides a means for defining the interparticulate distances (Fig. 8) and facilitates subsequent transfer of the particulate films to a wide range of solid substrates by using standard Langmuir-Blodgett (LB) techniques. This may be contrasted with deposition techniques, where the quality of the film is highly dependent on the solid substrate itself.

Surfactant-coated cadmium sulfide, titanium dioxide, the magnetic iron oxide magnetite Fe_3O_4 , ferroelectric barium titanate, lead zirconium titanate, platinum, palladium, and silver nanoparticles have been prepared to-date in our laboratories [Meldrum and Fendler, 1996]. Spreading of tryocetylphosphine-oxide-stabilized, nearly monodispersed CdSe nanoparticles [Daboussi et al., 1994] and Fe_2O_3 [Gao et al., 1994] microgels on water surfaces and their subsequent transfers to substrates by the LB technique have also been reported. In all cases, particulate films were spread on water in a Langmuir trough by dispersing solution aliquots from a Hamilton syringe. Physical properties of the monoparticulate films have been characterized, *in situ* on the water surface and subsequent to transfer to solid substrates, by using a range of physical techniques. The structures of the films on the water subphase have been examined

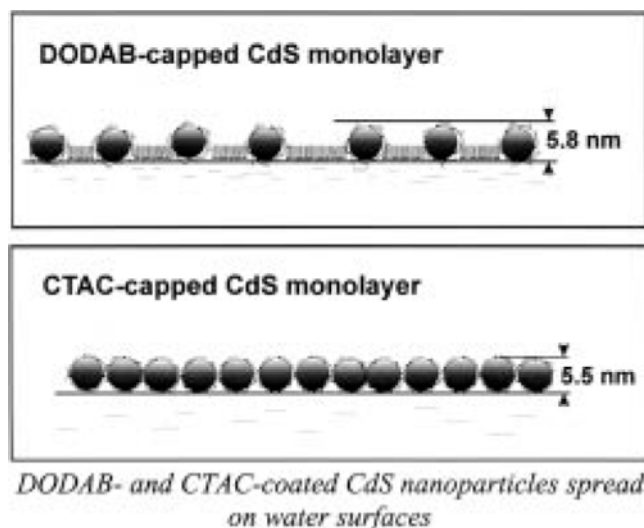


Fig. 8. Schematics illustrating the control of interparticle distances in mono-particulate thick Langmuir films by different coatings.

on the micron scale by Brewster-angle microscopy (BAM) and at higher magnifications by transmission electron microscopy (TEM). Absorption spectroscopy and steady-state fluorescence spectroscopy can also be applied where appropriate and reflectivity measurements permitted the estimation of film thicknesses on water surfaces.

4. Self-assembly of Nanoparticles by Adsorption and Derivatization

Adsorption (either by physisorption or chemisorption) of nanoparticles onto substrate is the simplest method of fabricating self-organized 2D arrays and/or 3D networks. Adsorption is accomplished by dropping a few drops of dilute nanoparticle dispersion onto a suitable substrate (casting) and evaporating the solvent (usually slowly and in a controlled environment) [Brinker et al., 1999; Potter, 1999; Andres et al., 1996]. Alternatively, the substrate is immersed into a dilute nanoparticle dispersion (for a time optimized for the adsorption), withdrawn, rinsed and dried. Depending on the surface modifiers and on the dielectric constant of the medium TiO₂ particles self-assembled into cubic arrays [Brooks and Gratzel, 1998], or rodlike structures [Rajh et al., 1999]. Silver nanoparticles have been similarly deposited onto electrodes [Bright et al., 1998].

Crystallization of suitably derivatized nanoparticles into well ordered arrays have also been demonstrated [Chen et al., 1999; Yin and Wang, 1999; Park and Xia, 1999]. Differently sized alkanethiol derivatized gold nanoparticles, depending on experimental conditions, organized themselves into ordered bimodal arrays, size segregated regions of hexagonal close-packed monodispersed particles and random arrangements of pseudo-hexagonal lattices [Kiely et al., 1998]. Advantage has also been taken of capillary forces [Breen et al., 1999; Wei et al., 2000], temperature control [Boal et al., 2000] and dialysis [Adachi, 2000] to drive millimeter scale objects and gold nanoparticles into three dimensional crystalline arrays.

Nanoparticles can be capped (derivatized) and tethered to a substrate to form ordered two-dimensional networks and three dimensional arrays. Two different approaches have been used. The first

(and historically the earlier, Sagiv, 1980) approach involved the self-assembly of a bifunctional monolayer onto a substrate (ie., formation of a self-assembled monolayer, SAM) and then the subsequent attachment of the nanoparticles to the monolayers [Meldrum et al., 1997; Sato et al., 1997]. Nanoparticles themselves were derivatized by bifunctional molecules and then subsequently connected to each other and to substrates [Brust et al., 1998; Baum et al., 1999]. Thus, the formation of multilayer films have been reported upon the deposition of 6 nm gold particles, stabilized by α,ω -dithiols onto glass substrates [Fan and Lopez, 1997; Brust et al., 1998]. Alternatively, decomposition of AuCl(NH₂R; R=C₈H₁₇; C₁₂H₂₅; C₁₆H₃₃) complexes resulted in the formation of self-organized fibrous material [Gomez et al., 2000].

5. Layer-by-layer Electrostatic Self-assembly

Self-assembly of alternating layers of oppositely charged polyelectrolytes and nanoparticles (or nanoplatelets) is deceptively simple (see Fig. 9). Self-assembly is governed by a delicate balance between adsorption and desorption equilibria. In the self-assembly of nanoparticles, for example, the efficient adsorption of one (and only one) mono-particulate layer of nanoparticles onto the oppositely charged substrate surface is the objective of the immersion step. Desorption of nanoparticles forming a second and additional layers (and preventing the desorption of the first added layer) is the purpose of the rinsing process. The optimization of the self-assembly in terms of maximizing the adsorption of nanoparticles from

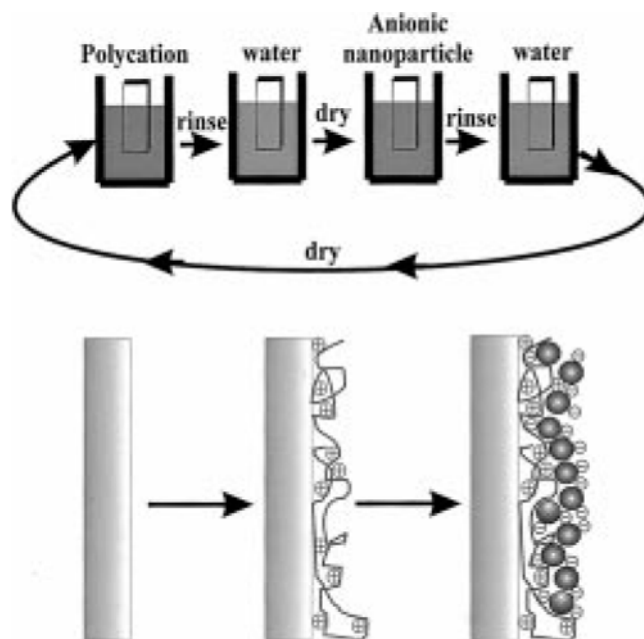


Fig. 9. Schematics of spontaneous self-assembly of a nanostructured film. A well cleaned substrate is immersed into a dilute aqueous cationic polyelectrolyte solution for a time optimized for the adsorption of a 2.0 ± 0.5 thick polymer, rinsed and dried. Next the polycation coated substrate is immersed into a dilute dispersion of negatively charged nanoparticles for a time optimized for adsorption of a mono-particulate layer, rinsed and dried to form an organic-inorganic sandwich unit. Subsequent sandwich units are deposited analogously. The method is amenable to the fabrication of more complex superlattices.

their dispersions and minimizing their desorption on rinsing requires the judicious selection of stabilizer(s) and the careful control of the kinetics of the process.

Forces between nanoparticles (or nanoplatelets) and binder nanolayers (polyions or dithiols, for example) govern the spontaneous layer-by-layer self-assembly of ultrathin films. These forces are primarily electrostatic and covalent (for self-assembled monolayers, SAMs, of dithiol derivatives onto metallic surfaces) in nature, but they can also involve hydrogen bonding, π - π interactions, van der Waals attractions, hydrophobic and epitaxial or other types of interactions. It is important to recognize that polyionic binders must have *displaceable* counterions in order to electrostatically bind them to the oppositely charged surface. The use of dithiols is only relevant with building blocks which incorporate accessible metal atoms, M (Au- and Ag-nanoparticles, for example), or semiconducting nanoparticles (MS and MSe, for example where M=Cd, Zn, Pb) in which covalent M-S bonds can be formed. The properties of the self-assembled multilayers depend primarily on the choice of the building blocks used, their rational organization and integration along the axis perpendicular to the substrate.

Sequential adsorption of oppositely charged colloids was reported in a seminal paper in [Iler, 1996]. Self-assembly was subsequently "rediscovered" and extended to the preparations of multilayers of polycations and phosphonate anions [Lee et al., 1988; Decher and Hong, 1991; Lvov et al., 1993; Fendler, 1996], as well as to the layering of polyelectrolytes [Decher and Hong, 1991]. Construction of electrodes coated by polyelectrolytes, clays and other materials often involved self-assembly [Brumfield et al., 1992; Bard et al., 1992] albeit the method had not been called as such. Self-assembly are now routinely employed for the fabrication of ultrathin films from charged nanoparticles (metallic, semiconducting, magnetic, ferroelectric, insulating, for example) nanoplatelets, (clays or graphite platelets, for example), proteins, pigments, and other supramolecular species [Mallouk et al., 1996; Decher, 1996; Fendler, 1996; Correa-Duarte et al., 1998].

That any of these species in any order can be layer-by-layer adsorbed is the greatest advantage of self-assembly. The oppositely charged species are held together by strong ionic bonds and form long lasting, uniform and stable films which are often impervious to solvents. No special film balance is required for the self-assembly; indeed the method has been referred to as a "Molecular Beaker Epitaxy" [Keller et al., 1994]. Furthermore, self-assembly is economical (dilute solutions and dispersions are used and the materials can be recovered) and readily amenable to scaling-up for the fabrication of large area defect-free devices on virtually any kind and shape of surfaces.

NANOPATTERNING

Substrate patterning to submicroscopic length scale by soft lithography (chemical nanopatterning) have been demonstrated to provide a viable alternative to the fabrication of electronic and memory storage devices [Xia and Whitesides, 1998; Xia et al., 1999]. Attachment of 2D arrays self-organized nanoparticles to substrate provide a valuable lithographic mask [Fery and Herminghaus, 1997; Hayes et al., 1997; Hayes and Shannon, 1998; Brune et al., 1998]. Spinodal dewetting of thin polymer film mediated phase separa-

tion permits patterning without a template [Higgins and Jones, 2000]. Simple rubbing the surface results in patterns of well-aligned polymer lines whose width is controlled by the thickness of the polymer film.

POTENTIAL APPLICATIONS

Application of nanoparticles ranges from catalysts to additives, surface modifiers and controlled delivery agents. Perhaps the greatest benefits of 2D and 3D self-assembled nanoparticles will be in the optical (and electro-optical) and information industry. Well organized 2D and 3D colloidal (photonic) crystals [Shen et al., 2000; Benisty et al., 2000] have been shown to function as periodic materials [Asher, 1994], Bragg diffracting nanosecond optical switches [Pan et al., 1997], single domain spectroscopy [Vlasov et al., 2000] sensors [Holtz et al., 1998] and optical components [Halevi et al., 1999].

The information industry comprises computing, communication, measurement and data storage. According to industry projections computers by 2010 should be 256 times as capable as the current generation. Feature sizes of this computer will have to be well below the 100 nm range. It is increasingly recognized that current technologies will not be able to scale to this level and that the colloid chemical bottom up fabrication will become the only economically feasible approach to components in the 10 nm range. Our approach using nanoparticle self assembly for the fabrication of charge storage and electron transfer devices have been recently reviewed [Casagneau and Fendler, 2001].

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