

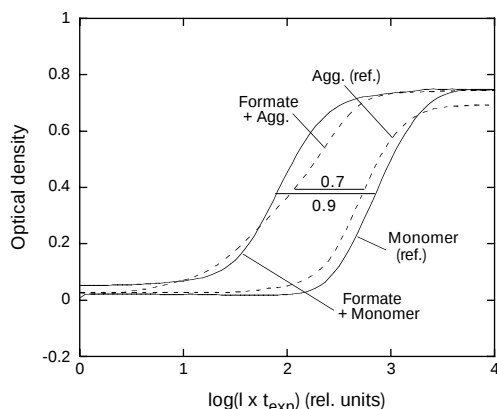


Figure 4 Effect of formate doping on the sensitivity of AgBr emulsions sensitized with carbocyanine dye. After the precipitation and doping (10^{-6} mol $\text{HCOO}^-/\text{mol Ag}^+$) by formate as in Fig. 2, the AgBr crystals were sensitized by the dye (3-(2-(3-(5-chloro-3-(3-sodium-sulpho-propyl)-benzoxazol-2-yl)-2-ethyl-allylidene)-5-chloro-benzoxazolium-3-yl)-propane-1-sulphonic acid betaine) in the monomeric form ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 480$ and 500 nm, surface coverage = 0.2) and excited at $\lambda_{\text{exp}} \geq 477$ nm, or in the J-aggregate form (additional λ_{max} at 552 nm, surface coverage = 0.8) and excited at $\lambda_{\text{exp}} \geq 519$ nm. Development by M-AA-1 is delayed for 20 min, after $t_{\text{exp}} = 10^{-2}$ s.

also be transferred from the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) of the dye to the Fermi level of the dopant formate, so blocking electron-hole recombination³. Our results from emulsions sensitized by a carbocyanine thought to fulfill the above criterion indicate that the sensitivity is indeed increased (Fig. 4), compared to emulsions without formate supposed to absorb the same quantity of photons. Depending on the surface coverage by dye molecules, these are in the form of either monomers or J-aggregates, which are two-dimensional arrays of edged-on adsorbed dye molecules with a large slip angle. The difference is about $\Delta \log(I \times t_{\text{exp}}) = 0.9$ for emulsions sensitized by dye monomers ($\lambda_{\text{max}} = 480$ and 500 nm), excited at $\lambda_{\text{exp}} \geq 477$ nm; for emulsions sensitized by J-aggregates (additional λ_{max} at 552 nm), excited at $\lambda_{\text{exp}} \geq 519$ nm, we obtain $\Delta \log(I \times t_{\text{exp}}) = 0.7$. This enables us to assess the effect of aggregates only without coexisting monomers. The sensitivity enhancement that is systematically observed in the presence of formate ion therefore attests to efficient hole transfer to the dopant formate from the HOMO level of the dye, in both the monomer and the J-aggregate forms. This mechanism is comparable with the scavenging of the intrinsic hole created by direct AgBr excitation, and results in a marked inhibition of recombination. □

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Periodic mesoporous organosilicas with organic groups inside the channel walls

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Surfactant-mediated synthesis methods have attracted much interest for the production of inorganic mesoporous materials, which can, on removal of the surfactant template, incorporate polymeric, organic, inorganic and organometallic 'guests' in their pores^{1,2}. These materials—initially made of silica^{3–5}, but now also available in the form of other oxides^{6–9}, sulphides^{10,11}, phosphates¹² and metals¹³—could find application in fields ranging from catalysis, adsorption and sensing technology to nanoelectronics. The extension of surfactant-mediated synthesis to produce inorganic-organic hybrid material (that is, materials that contain organic groups as an integral part of their framework structure) promises access to an even wider range of application possibilities. Such hybrid materials have been produced in the form of amorphous silicates (xerogels) that indeed display unique properties different to those of the individual components^{14–20}, but their random networks with broad pore-size distributions severely limit the shape and size selectivity of these materials. Mesoporous hybrid materials with periodic frameworks have been synthesized, but the organic groups are all terminally bonded to the pore surface, rather than incorporated into the pore walls^{21–26}. Here we describe a periodic mesoporous organosilica containing bridge-bonded ethene groups directly integrated into the silica framework. We are able to solvent-extract and ion-exchange the surfactant templates to create a stable and periodic mesoporous ethenesilica with high surface area and ethene groups that are readily accessible for chemical reaction. Recent syntheses of similar periodic mesoporous organosilicas^{27,28} and the ability to incorporate a variety of bridging organic and organometallic species raise the prospect of being able to fuse organic synthesis and inorganic materials chemistry to generate new materials with interesting chemical, mechanical electronic, optical and magnetic properties.

In a typical synthesis, a mixture of bis(triethoxysilyl)ethene (BTE) and tetraethylorthosilicate (TEOS) was added to a solution of cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTABr), NH_4OH and H_2O . Samples were prepared containing BTE:TEOS in mole fractions of 1:0 (BTE100), 0.75:0.25 (BTE75), 0.50:0.50 (BTE50), 0.25:0.75

(BTE25) and 0:1 (BTE0) based on Si contribution. After ageing for 4 days, the products were isolated and washed carefully with water. The surfactant was removed from the pores by mild solvent extraction or ion exchange that leave intact the mesopores and the framework. After a single extraction, the amount of surfactant collected was ~ 30 wt% of the initial material.

To prove that the ethene moiety was incorporated into the material as a bridge-bonded group, and that the materials were well-ordered and mesoporous, a series of samples was examined by powder X-ray diffraction, transmission electron microscopy (TEM), FT-Raman spectroscopy, ^1H magic angle spinning (MAS) NMR, ^{13}C and ^{29}Si cross-polarization (CP) MAS NMR spectroscopies, differential thermogravimetric analysis (DTGA), and N_2 gas adsorption (see Figs 5–11 in Supplementary Information).

Powder X-ray diffraction patterns for as-synthesized samples containing different proportions of BTE to TEOS are shown in Fig. 1a. Four peaks were observed for samples BTE50, BTE25 and BTE0, which could be indexed as the (100), (110), (200) and (210) reflections of a hexagonal symmetry lattice with a unit cell dimension $a \approx 47$ Å (see Figs 6 and 7 in Supplementary Information). Samples BTE100 and BTE75 showed the (100) diffraction peak, but the other three peaks were less intense. These results suggest the presence of a periodic arrangement of channels in a hexagonal geometry. We note that the intensities of the peaks become less intense as the relative amount of BTE to TEOS increases. As more SiO_2 is replaced with ethene groups, the electron density of the framework decreases relative to that of the surfactant-containing

pores. Moreover, removing surfactant from the pores increases the electron density of the framework relative to the pores²⁹, and increases the intensity of the diffraction pattern for all samples (Fig. 1b). Together these data demonstrate that ethene functionality has been incorporated into the framework of the periodic mesoporous silica.

TEM images of the materials are consistent with the powder X-ray diffraction results, showing hexagonal symmetry mesopores throughout the sample and a pore centre-to-centre distance of ~ 45 – 50 Å (Fig. 1c–e). The TEM image of as-synthesized BTE100 (Fig. 1c) shows that the material is as well ordered as BTE0 (MCM-41), even though a slight difference between their powder X-ray diffraction patterns was observed (see Fig. 8 in Supplementary Information). The quality of the hexagonal mesostructure is retained following a series of surfactant extractions (Fig. 1d). A TEM image of twice-extracted BTE100 viewed parallel to the channel axis is displayed in Fig. 1e.

Figure 2 shows DTGA traces of as-synthesized and solvent-extracted (once and twice) BTE100, and as-synthesized BTE0. A small mass loss of adsorbed water occurs in the range 40 – 80 °C. A weight loss of $\sim 30\%$ between 150 and 350 °C corresponds to surfactant and some ethene. ^{13}C CP-MAS NMR of a sample of BTE100, calcined in air at 350 and 400 °C for 6 hours, showed complete loss of surfactant and some ethene at 350 °C with complete removal of ethene by 400 °C. Variable-temperature powder X-ray diffraction (room temperature to $1,000$ °C) showed a decrease of ~ 10 Å in the d_{100} spacing of BTE100, roughly twice that of BTE0 despite similar initial unit-cell dimensions. This distinction probably

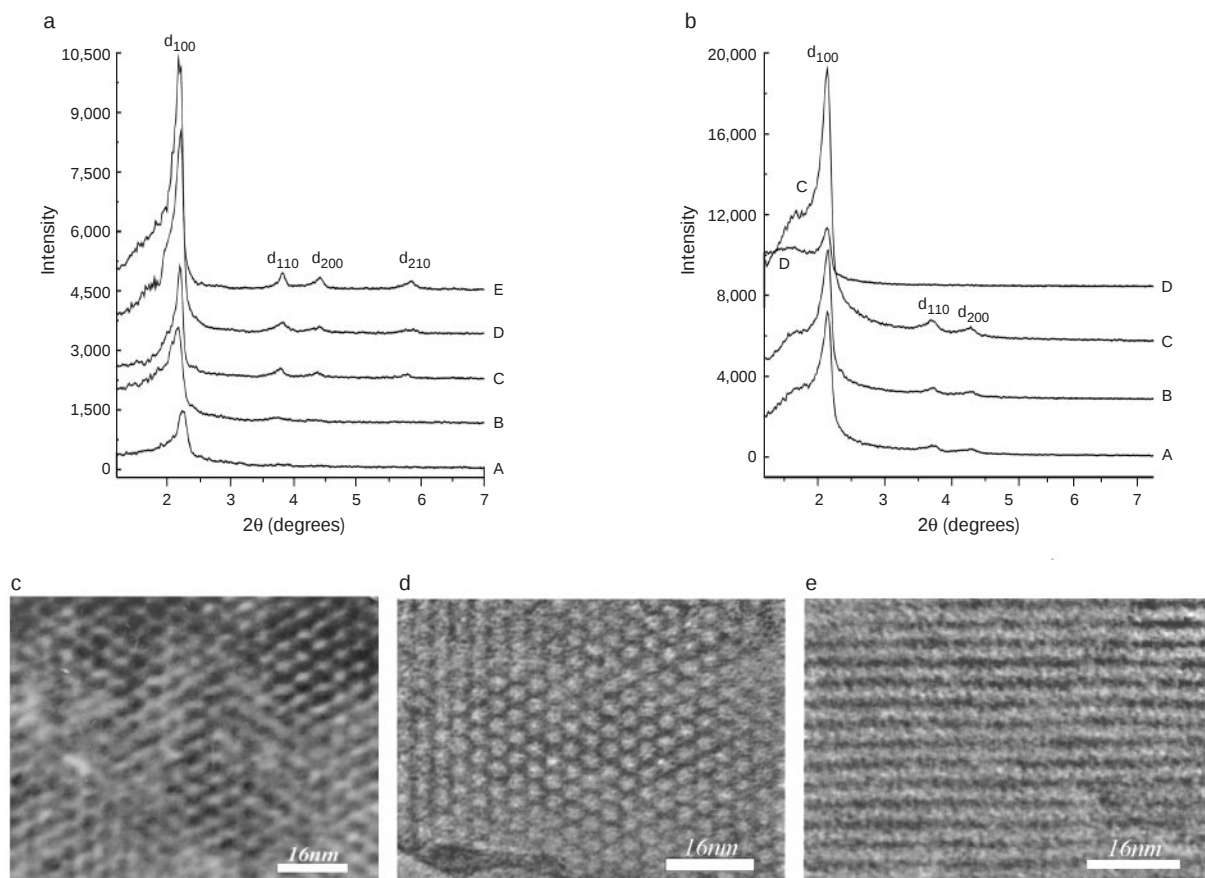


Figure 1 Powder X-ray diffraction patterns and TEM images of mesoporous ethenesilica. (See Figs 6–8 in Supplementary Information.) **a**, Powder X-ray diffraction (PXR) patterns for as-synthesized samples containing different proportions of BTE and TEOS. Shown are the diffraction patterns for BTE100 (trace A), BTE75 (B), BTE50 (C), BTE25 (D) and BTE0 (E). The patterns confirm the hexagonal symmetry of the materials. **b**, Comparison of PXR patterns of BTE100; after solvent-extraction (trace A), after ion-exchange (B), after additional solvent-extraction (C), and as-synthesized (D). The (110) and (200) reflections

are clearly visible after the surfactant was extracted. **c, d**, TEM images of the well-ordered hexagonal mesostructure of BTE100 as-synthesized and after two solvent-extractions, respectively. **e**, View parallel to the channel axis of the BTE100 sample (twice solvent-extracted). PXR patterns were measured with a Siemens D5000 diffractometer using Ni-filtered $\text{Cu-K}\alpha$ radiation with $\lambda = 1.54178$ Å. TEM images were recorded on a Philips 430 microscope operating at an accelerating voltage of 100 kV.

arises from the 'elastic response' of the channels to loss of ethene from the silica walls. The mesostructure of BTE100 is maintained to over 1,000 °C, well after the ethene groups have been eliminated from the framework. This implies that the material 'healed' during the thermal elimination of the ethene moiety via condensation of silanol groups.

FT-Raman spectroscopy showed the presence of the ethene groups in as-synthesized and solvent-extracted samples (Fig. 3a, b). A spectrum for ion-exchanged BTE100 is shown in Fig. 3c. A C=C stretching mode at 1,580 cm⁻¹, absent in BTE0, remains after surfactant extraction. Its intensity increases with the amount of BTE in the framework. Bands around 2,800–3,200 cm⁻¹ and 1,300 cm⁻¹ are assigned to C–H stretching and C–H deformation modes of the surfactant and ethene groups.

Confirmation of incorporation of ethene groups directly inside the framework was obtained by NMR spectroscopy. The ¹H MAS NMR spectra of as-synthesized, solvent-extracted and ion-exchanged BTE100 samples are shown in Fig. 4a. Each sample shows a resonance at ~2 p.p.m. due to alkyl hydrogens of the surfactant, which decreases after surfactant extraction. Peaks at ~4 and 7 p.p.m. are attributed to silanol and ethene hydrogens, respectively. Upon solvent extraction, the ratio of silanol:ethene proton resonances increases, consistent with the replacement of cationic surfactants with protons to form silanol groups. ¹³C CP-MAS NMR shows a resonance at 144 p.p.m. attributed to ethene carbons, and resonances below 70 p.p.m. correspond to the carbons of the surfactant (Fig. 4b). An increase in ethene:surfactant intensity was observed after samples underwent solvent extraction and ion exchange.

²⁹Si CP-MAS NMR of as-synthesized samples show mostly T₃ (C=C)-Si-(OSi)₃ sites and some T₂(C=C)-Si-(OSi)₂(OH) sites at approximately -83 and -73 p.p.m., respectively (Fig. 4c). For comparison, Q₄ Si-(OSi)₄ and Q₃ (HO)-Si-(OSi)₃ sites of mesoporous silica (BTE0) were observed at -111 and -102 p.p.m., respectively. After solvent-extraction an increase in T₂, and the appearance of a small amount of T₁ (C=C)-Si-(OSi)(OH)₂ (about

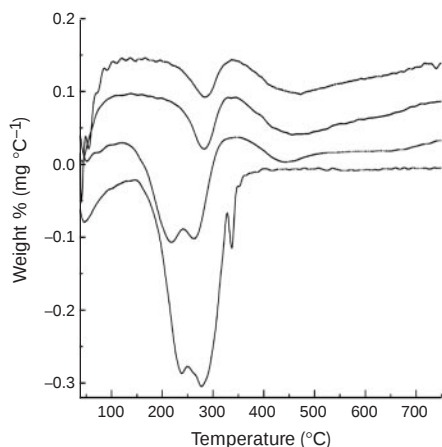


Figure 2 Differential thermogravimetric analysis (DTGA) of mesoporous ethenesilica. Traces a–c, results for BTE100; as-synthesized (trace a), once solvent-extracted (b) and twice solvent-extracted (c). Trace d, as-synthesized BTE0 (MCM-41). A transition around 80 °C corresponds to desorption of water from the channels. A second transition occurring between 150 and 250 °C corresponds to removal of most of the surfactant (space filling) in the material. A third transition occurring between 250 and 350 °C corresponds to the loss of the remaining surfactant (charge balancing) and the loss of some of the ethylene groups. Solid-state NMR of samples calcined at 400 °C did not show any trace of surfactant or ethylene groups, whereas samples calcined at 350 °C showed ethylene and trace amounts of surfactant. In samples containing BTE, a weight loss beyond 350 °C is attributed to loss of some ethylene groups and to loss of water, due to condensation of silanol groups. DTGA data were obtained at a heating rate of 5 °C min⁻¹ under a flow of N₂ on a Perkin-Elmer TGA7 instrument.

–64 p.p.m.) were observed as silanols replaced surfactants (see Figs 10, 11 in Supplementary Information). Minor Q₃ (–101 p.p.m.) and Q₄ (–111 p.p.m.) sites were seen after surfactant extraction. They probably arise from slight hydrolysis of ethene–silicon bonds^{30,31}. Spectra obtained without CP showed similar results.

Nitrogen adsorption isotherms (obtained at 77 K) for BTE100 materials that had been once, twice and thrice solvent-extracted and then vacuum thermally treated were all found to be type IV, which is characteristic of a mesoporous silica material. Analysis of the isotherms for the three samples yielded an average BET surface area of 637 m² g⁻¹, a pore volume of 0.60 cm³ g⁻¹ and a pore diameter of 39.4 Å (see Fig. 9 in Supplementary Information). With the unit-cell size of 47 Å, determined from powder X-ray diffraction, this yields a channel wall thickness of 7–8 Å.

To demonstrate the chemical accessibility of ethene groups, bromination of the ethene groups in BTE100 samples was attempted (see Fig. 5 in Supplementary Information). The sample

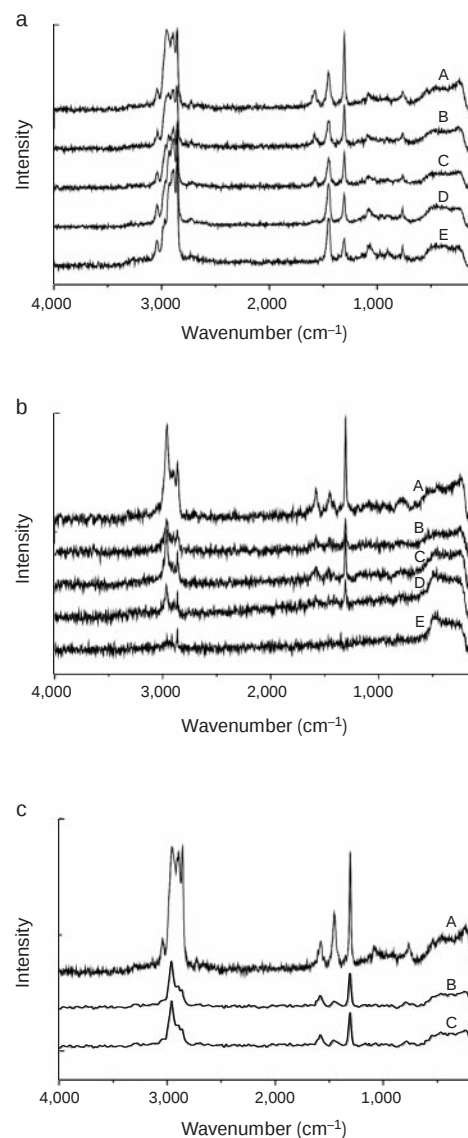


Figure 3 Raman spectra of mesoporous ethenesilica. **a, b**, As-synthesized and solvent-extracted samples, respectively. Each panel shows five spectra: trace A, BTE100; B, BTE75; C, BTE50; D, BTE25; E, BTE0. **c**, Spectra of BTE100: A, as-synthesized; B, after solvent-extraction; C, after ion-exchange. After solvent-extraction and ion exchange, all surfactant peaks disappeared while peaks assigned to ethylene groups remained. Raman spectra of the samples were collected using a Bomem MB-158 Fourier transform (FT) Raman spectrometer with an InGaAs near-IR detector and a Spectra Physics Diode Nd:YLF laser emitting at a wavelength of 1,064 nm and at a 350-kHz repetition rate.

was treated in refluxing $\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2/\text{Br}_2$ for 8 days. ^{13}C CP-MAS NMR of the product confirmed that the $\text{O}_3\text{Si}-\text{CH}=\text{CH}-\text{SiO}_3$ groups were entirely consumed during the bromination step. The peak originally observed at 147 p.p.m. was replaced with one at 12 p.p.m. In the ^{29}Si NMR spectrum, the T_2 and T_3 resonances at -73 and -83 p.p.m. for

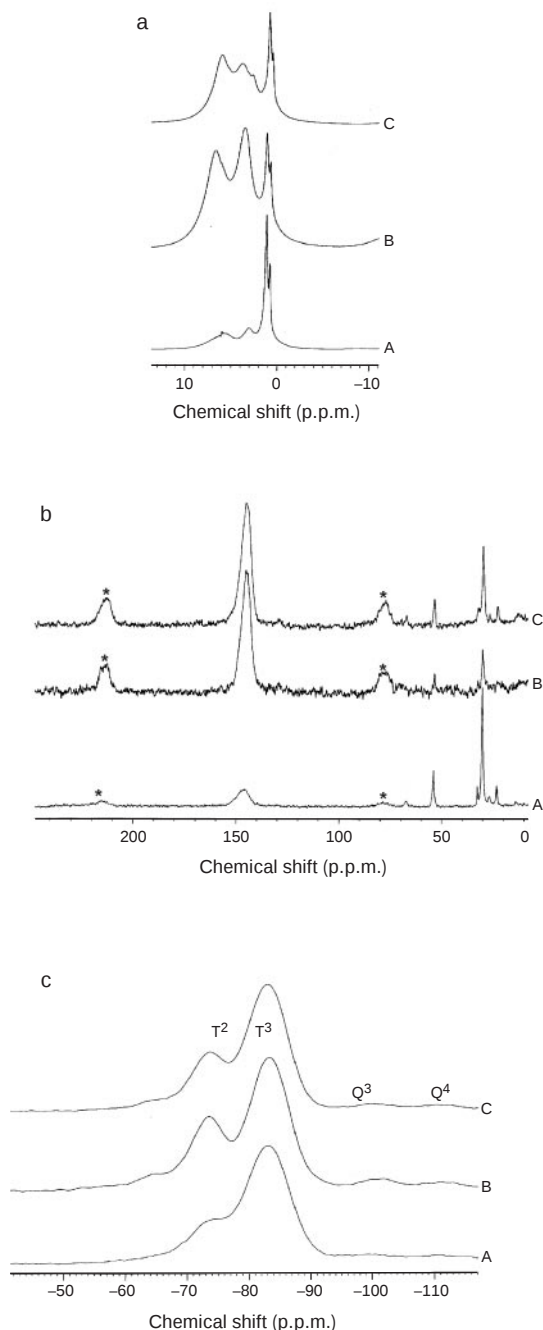


Figure 4 Solid-state NMR spectra of mesoporous ethenesilica, BTE100. (See Figs 10, 11 in Supplementary Information.) **a**, ^1H MAS NMR spectra (3 s recycle delay, 10 scans): trace A, as-synthesized; B, solvent-extracted; and C, ion-exchanged. **b**, ^{13}C CP-MAS NMR spectra (5 ms contact time; 3 s recycle delay; 1,600 scans): trace A, as-synthesized; B, solvent-extracted; and C, ion-exchanged. Both the ^1H and ^{13}C spectra show the disappearance of alkyl groups as the surfactant is extracted leaving the ethylene groups in the materials. Some residual surfactant was also present in the spectrum. **c**, ^{29}Si CP-MAS NMR spectra (10 ms contact time; 4 s recycle delay; 20,000 scans): trace A, as-synthesized; B, solvent-extracted; and C, ion-exchanged. The ^1H (400.1 MHz), ^{13}C CP-MAS (100.6 MHz) and ^{29}Si CP-MAS (79.5 MHz) spectra were obtained with a Bruker DSX400 spectrometer. Samples were spun at a rate of ~ 6.8 kHz, except for trace A in **a**, which was spun at 6 kHz.

BTE100 were now observed at -58 and -66 p.p.m., respectively. Importantly, no Q_3 or Q_4 environments were observed by ^{29}Si MAS NMR, indicating that Si–C bonds were not cleaved during the reaction. FT-Raman also supported this result, showing elimination of the C=C stretching mode at $1,580\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and appearance of new peaks assigned to C–C and C–Br stretching modes. Powder X-ray diffraction and TEM images of the samples showed that the structural integrity and order of the material is well maintained. On reaction, the hexagonal unit cell of the mesoporous material expanded by 8%, which suggests that these materials may have unusual mechanical properties. This expansion is consistent with the transformation from sp^2 to sp^3 hybridization at the framework C atoms, and the concomitant lengthening of the C–C bond. Adsorption analysis showed a decrease in the BET surface area, pore volume and diameter from $637\text{ m}^2\text{ g}^{-1}$, $0.60\text{ cm}^3\text{ g}^{-1}$, $39.4\text{ \AA}$ to $520\text{ m}^2\text{ g}^{-1}$, $0.46\text{ cm}^3\text{ g}^{-1}$, $35.6\text{ \AA}$. Chemical analysis of the sample indicated that it contained less bromine than expected for 100% bromination. It appears that while some ethene groups ($\sim 10\%$) were brominated, others reacted with the solvent to form ethane bridges. Nonetheless, these results show that ethene groups incorporated into the channel walls are accessible for chemistry.

We now compare these periodic mesoporous organosilicas, containing organic groups inside the walls of mesoporous silica, with mesoporous silica containing tethered vinyl groups inside the channels²¹. While both offer the possibility of functionalization and coordinating species, such as catalysts, there are inherent differences between the two classes. The terminal vinyl groups occupy space inside the channels, which may interfere with adsorption of species. There is also a limit of $\sim 25\%$ loading of terminal vinyl groups in the mesoporous silica before structural order is lost. Also, the reactivity of a bridging ethene that is housed within the silica framework, and attached to two electron-withdrawing O_3Si framework moieties, is expected to be different from that of a terminal vinyl located in the channel space and attached to one O_3Si group. Perhaps the most important difference is that chemical reaction of the organic materials in our materials will result in changes to the properties of the framework. If this process can be extended to conducting or semiconducting materials, the creation of a new generation of chemical sensors, membranes and chemical delivery systems may be facilitated. □

Methods

General synthesis

A typical synthesis procedure required a mole ratio of $1.00\text{ Si} : 114\text{ H}_2\text{O} : 8.0\text{ NH}_4\text{OH}$ (35 wt%): 0.12 CTABr . BTE and TEOS were used as the silica source. BTE (Gelest) was used without further purification. Samples were prepared with BTE:TEOS in Si mole ratios of 1:0 (BTE100), 0.75:0.25 (BTE75), 0.50:0.50 (BTE50), 0.25:0.75 (BTE25) and 0:1 (BTE0). CTABr (0.21 g) was added to a solution of NH_4OH (4.43 g, 30 wt%) and deionized water (8.35 g), and the solution was stirred for 30 min in a closed polyethylene bottle. A mixture of BTE:TEOS corresponding to the mole fraction given above, with a total of 4.8 mmol Si (for example, 0.635 g (1.8 mmol) BTE + 0.250 g (1.2 mmol) TEOS for sample BTE75), was slowly added to the base/surfactant solution with slow stirring. After stirring for 30 min, the solutions were aged at 80°C for 4 d in closed polyethylene bottles. The white powder was collected by filtration, washed thoroughly with water, and air-dried under ambient conditions. A typical yield was 0.690 g for BTE75. BET surface area measurements were obtained for the solvent-extracted samples at McMaster University Powder Processing Facility.

Surfactant removal

Solvent extraction of surfactant was carried out by the procedure of Stein *et al.*²¹ An as-synthesized sample (0.5 g) was stirred for 48 h in a refluxing solution of 10 g HCl (36 wt%) and 70 g of methanol. For ion exchange of the surfactant, the sample was stirred in a refluxing solution of 1 g NaCl and 100 g of ethanol.

Bromination

A solvent-extracted sample (0.50 g) was kept under vacuum at 150°C for 2 d, and then treated in refluxing $\text{Br}_2/\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$ solution (7.0 g Br_2 + 150 ml CH_2Cl_2) for 8 d. The product was isolated on a Buchner funnel and washed with dichloromethane. Bromine analysis confirmed that Br was incorporated into the mesostructure, though less than the amount expected for an ideal formula of $(\text{CHBr})\text{SiO}_{1.5-2}(\text{OH})_x$. As we have shown that all of the

ethene groups were consumed, some may have reacted with the solvent. We are investigating the mechanism of the bromination reaction.

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Seismic anisotropy of the Earth's inner core resulting from flow induced by Maxwell stresses

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Seismological observations indicate that the inner core of the Earth is elastically anisotropic¹. Anisotropic structures are likely to be formed by dynamic processes and therefore such observations have the potential to provide constraints on flow in the inner core and on the geodynamo itself. But in addition to the difficulties in estimating the relevant physical properties of iron under inner-core conditions^{2–4}, even the macroscopic processes responsible for generating seismic anisotropy in this region have yet to be determined^{5–9}. As a result, the geodynamic significance of seismic anisotropy in the inner core has remained unknown. Here I propose—based on geodynamic and mineral physics considerations—that flow induced by the stress due to the magnetic field, the Maxwell stress, near the inner-core boundary produces an axisymmetric fabric responsible for the observed seismic anisotropy. The resultant seismic anisotropy reflects the geometry of the magnetic field near the inner-core boundary and therefore seismological observations might provide constraints on the geodynamo. This flow also causes non-uniform release of energy at the inner-core boundary, associated with solidification and melting which may affect the pattern of convection in the outer core.

The seismic anisotropy of the Earth's inner core¹ and the rotation of the inner core with respect to the mantle (“super-rotation”) ^{10,11} suggest that this central portion of our planet is dynamically active. The super-rotation and the observed nearly axisymmetric seismic anisotropy suggest an important interaction between the inner and the outer core. Super-rotation is considered to be due to the interaction between the inner and the outer core through the Maxwell stress^{12,13}, but there has been no consensus as to the likely macroscopic processes that could cause seismic anisotropy. Here I will review some of the previous models of anisotropy in the inner core, and then show that the Maxwell stress could also play a critical role in the formation of the anisotropic fabric in the inner core that causes seismic anisotropy.

As theoretical analysis indicates an effective draining of possible melt from the inner core¹⁴, the most likely cause of seismic anisotropy in the inner core is the lattice preferred orientation (LPO) of iron. In identifying likely macroscopic processes of anisotropic structure formation by LPO, it is important to appreciate that large-strain deformation and/or the long-term action of stress are needed for the development of significant LPO. A plausible macroscopic process must also explain the nearly axial symmetry of anisotropy.

Some previous studies suggested that deformation-induced fabric (that is, LPO) of iron crystals due to thermal convection is the origin of seismic anisotropy^{5,15}, in much the same way as in the upper mantle. However, theoretical analysis of the energy budget and heat transfer strongly indicates that thermal convection is unlikely in the inner core, because of a low concentration of heat-generating elements and the efficient thermal conduction^{16,17}. Furthermore, the axial symmetry of anisotropy is not readily explained by this model.

An alternative model is the texturing of iron crystals during solidification from the liquid outer core^{6,7}. Although this model can explain the axial symmetry of anisotropy, a major problem of this