

LAWRENCE LIVERMORE NATIONAL LABORATORY

Iron-Doped Carbon Aerogels: Novel Porous Substrates for Direct Growth of Carbon Nanotubes

S. A. Steiner, T. F. Baumann, J. Kong, J. H. Satcher, M. S. Dresselhaus

February 20, 2007

Langmuir

Disclaimer

This document was prepared as an account of work sponsored by an agency of the United States Government. Neither the United States Government nor the University of California nor any of their employees, makes any warranty, express or implied, or assumes any legal liability or responsibility for the accuracy, completeness, or usefulness of any information, apparatus, product, or process disclosed, or represents that its use would not infringe privately owned rights. Reference herein to any specific commercial product, process, or service by trade name, trademark, manufacturer, or otherwise, does not necessarily constitute or imply its endorsement, recommendation, or favoring by the United States Government or the University of California. The views and opinions of authors expressed herein do not necessarily state or reflect those of the United States Government or the University of California, and shall not be used for advertising or product endorsement purposes.

Iron-Doped Carbon Aerogels: Novel Porous Substrates for Direct Growth of Carbon Nanotubes

Stephen A. Steiner III¹, Theodore F. Baumann^{*2}, Jing Kong³, Joe H. Satcher, Jr.² and Mildred S.

Dresselhaus⁴

¹Department of Materials Science and Engineering, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139

²Chemistry, Materials and Life Sciences Directorate, Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, Livermore, California 94551

³Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139

⁴Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science and Department of Physics, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139

AUTHOR EMAIL ADDRESS: baumann2@llnl.gov

RECEIVED DATE (to be automatically inserted after your manuscript is accepted if required according to the journal that you are submitting your paper to)

Abstract

We present the synthesis and characterization of Fe-doped carbon aerogels (CAs) and demonstrate the ability to grow carbon nanotubes directly on monoliths of these materials to afford novel carbon aerogel-carbon nanotube composites. Preparation of the Fe-doped CAs begins with the sol-gel polymerization of the potassium salt of 2.4-dihydroxybenzoic acid with formaldehyde, affording K^+ doped gels that can then be converted to Fe^{2+} or Fe^{3+} -doped gels through an ion exchange process, dried with supercritical CO₂ and subsequently carbonized under an inert atmosphere. Analysis of the Fe-doped CAs by TEM, XRD and XPS revealed that the doped iron species are reduced during carbonization to form metallic iron and iron carbide nanoparticles. The sizes and chemical composition of the reduced Fe species were related to pyrolysis temperature as well as the type of iron salt used in the ion exchange process. Raman spectroscopy and XRD analysis further reveal that, despite the presence of the Fe species, the CA framework is not significantly graphitized during pyrolysis. The Fedoped CAs were subsequently placed in a thermal CVD reactor and exposed to a mixture of CH_4 (1000 sccm), H₂ (500 sccm), and C₂H₄ (20 sccm) at temperatures ranging from 600 to 800°C for 10 minutes, resulting in direct growth of carbon nanotubes on the aerogel monoliths. Carbon nanotubes grown by this method appear to be multiwalled (~25 nm in diameter and up to 4 μ m long) and grow through a tipgrowth mechanism that pushes catalytic iron particles out of the aerogel framework. The highest yield of CNTs were grown on Fe-doped CAs pyrolyzed at 800°C treated at CVD temperatures of 700°C.

KEYWORDS: aerogel, carbon nanotube, chemical vapor deposition

Introduction

Carbon aerogels (CAs) are novel mesoporous materials with many interesting properties, such as low mass densities, continuous porosities, high surface areas and high electrical conductivity.¹⁻⁴ These properties are derived from the aerogel microstructure, which is a network of interconnected primary particles with characteristic diameters between 3 and 25 nanometers. CA's are typically prepared through the sol-gel polymerization of resorcinol with formaldehyde in aqueous solution to produce organic gels that are supercritically dried and subsequently pyrolyzed in an inert atmosphere. To expand the potential application for these unique materials, recent efforts have focused on the introduction of transition metals into CAs with the goal of modifying the structure, conductivity or catalytic activity of the aerogel.⁵⁻¹³ We previously reported the synthesis, characterization and physical properties of a variety of metal-doped CAs.¹⁴⁻¹⁸ These materials were prepared through the sol-gel polymerization of resorcinol derivatives containing metal-binding sites that allow for the uniform incorporation of metal ions into the organic gel structure. One of the interesting aspects of this approach is that certain transition metal ions, such as Co^{2+} , Ni^{2+} and Cu^{2+} , are reduced during the carbonization process, leading to the formation of nanometer-sized metallic particles distributed throughout the carbon matrix. In addition, for the Co- and Ni-doped systems, these nanoparticles were found to catalytically induce a solid-state restructuring of the surrounding carbon framework into graphitic nanoribbons and other graphitic nanostructures. These observations led us to investigate the possibility of utilizing these supported metal nanoparticles as catalysts for the growth of carbon nanotubes (CNTs) within the porous CA structure. Such an approach could provide a new route to novel carbon-based composites with enhanced thermal, electrical and mechanical properties. Unfortunately, for the Co- and Ni-doped CAs, the metal nanoparticles become encased in graphitic carbon during the carbonization process and, therefore, are unable to function as catalysts for CNT growth. As a result, we sought alternative metal catalysts that could be prepared using our sol-gel method and that would remain active following carbonization. In this paper, we present the synthesis and characterization of Fe-doped CAs and demonstrate their effectiveness as catalysts for the formation of CNTs by chemical vapor deposition (CVD). Although the growth of CNTs on inorganic aerogel substrates has been previously reported.¹⁹⁻³⁰

our materials represent the first reported example of CNTs grown directly from CAs. We will describe the effect of CA preparation on the catalytic activity of the Fe nanoparticles as well as the influence of CVD conditions on nanotube growth.

Experimental Section

Sample Preparation. The Fe-doped CAs were prepared by modification of our previously reported method.¹⁴ In a typical experiment, a suspension of 2,4-dihydroxybenzoic acid (2.9 g, 18.8 mmol) in distilled water (100 mL) was treated with K₂CO₃ (1.29 g, 9.4 mmol) with vigorous stirring. The reaction solution became clear after 0.5 h, when all of the acid was neutralized. Formaldehyde (2.98 g 37% w/v in water, 37 mmol) was then added along with an additional amount of K₂CO₃ (26 mg, 0.188 mmol) to serve as a polymerization catalyst. The solution was then stirred for 24 h, after which it was transferred to glass vials, sealed, and cured in an oven at 80°C for 72 h. The resulting K⁺-loaded gels were obtained as dark red, transparent monoliths. The gels were then removed from the molds, sliced into discs with a razor blade, and soaked in a solution of 0.1 M aqueous Fe(NO₃)₃, FeCl₃, FeSO₄, or $(NH4)_2Fe(SO_4)_2$ for a total of 72 h, with fresh solution exchanged in every 24 h. The undoped gels were prepared by ion exchange of the K⁺-doped gels with 0.1 M HCl. Ion-exchanged gels were washed in deionized water for 72 h to remove any unbound iron species from the gels and then with acetone for 72 h to remove all water from the pores of the gel network. The wet gels were subsequently dried with supercritical CO₂ (31.1°C and 7.38 MPa). The resulting undoped and Fe-doped organic aerogels were carbonized by pyrolysis at 600°C, 800°C, and 1050°C under an N₂ atmosphere for 10.5 hrs. Pyrolyzed samples are denoted as DT_c, where D is the dopant (Fe or H) and T_c is the carbonization temperature. For CVD growth of CNTs, the Fe-doped CAs were placed in a 2.5-cm long segment of 1-cm diameter quartz tubing and inserted into the middle of a 2.7-cm inner diameter quartz process tube. The tube was flushed with Ar at a rate of 200 sccm for 20-40 minutes and then placed into a clamshell furnace preheated to a temperature ranging from 800-950°C. The CVD treatment was then performed by exposure of the CA monoliths to a flow of 500 sccm H₂, 30 sccm CH₄ and 20 sccm C₂H₄, for 10 min performed at temperatures of either 600°C, 700°C, or 800°C. The tube was then taken out of the furnace and allowed to cool under a flow of Ar (500 sccm). Each sample having undergone CVD is denoted as DT_c-T_d , where T_d is the CVD temperature.

Characterization. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) of Fe-doped carbon aerogels and derived nanotube composites was performed on a JEOL JEM-200CX operating at 200 keV. X-ray diffraction (XRD) spectra were obtained using a Rigaku 300 X-ray diffractometer operating with the following measurement parameters: high voltage = 60 kV; current = 300 mA; divergence slit = 1°; scatter slit = 2°; receiving slit = 0.6° ; scan mode = continuous; scan type = standard; axis = $2\theta/\theta$; scan = 10° to 80° ; scan speed = 0.25° min-1; sampling interval = 0.03° . Phase identification was made using MDI Jade 7 equipped with the ICSD and NIST databases of XRD spectra. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra were obtained on an AXIS HIS 165 and ULTRA Spectrometer (Kratos Analytical Limited, England) using Al K radiation (energy = 1486.6 eV) in a vacuum of 5 x 10^{-9} torr. Samples were prepared by grinding the CA material into a fine powder, adhering to adhesive copper tape, and mounting the copper tape on a sample holder using double-sided adhesive tape. X-ray slots of 750 by 350 µm, an x-ray power of 150 W (15 kV and 10 mA), and a pass energy of 80 eV for 100 sweeps were used for all measurements. Charge correction was performed for Fe600 samples, which were the only samples to exhibit any kind of charging effect. High-resolution scanning electron microscopy (HRSEM) was performed with a JEOL 6320 microscope operating at 5 kV. Raman spectra were obtained using a custom-built micro-Raman spectrometer operating at excitation wavelengths of 785 nm, 676 nm, 752 nm, and 514 nm.

Results and Discussion

Iron-doped Carbon Aerogels. Our objective in this work was to design a novel CA material that could support a catalyst for the CVD growth of CNT. In our previous work with the Co- and Ni-doped CAs, the metal nanoparticles in these materials become encased in graphitic carbon during the carbonization process¹⁸ and, as a result, the catalytic sites are inaccessible to CVD gases. Iron was selected as the catalyst for this study because, like Co and Ni, iron-based compounds are known to efficiently catalyze the growth of carbon nanotubes.³¹ In additional, since iron-carbon systems are rich in phases³² (more so than cobalt or nickel), we hoped that this process would generate catalytic iron-



Figure 2. X-ray diffraction patterns for Fedoped CAs prepared with Fe(NO₃)₃ and the peak positions expected and relative intensities for iron metal and the cementite phase of iron carbide (unlabeled gray peaks).

CAs. Specifically, the base-catalyzed sol-gel polymerization of a resorcinol derivative, the potassium salt of 2.4-dihydroxybenzoic acid, with formaldehvde afforded K^+ -doped wet gels that could then be doped with iron through our ion exchange process with the following Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} salts: FeSO₄, (NH₄)₂Fe(SO₄)₂, Fe(NO₃)₃ or FeCl₃. After supercritical drying of the wet gels, the Fe-doped organic aerogels were then

containing nanoparticles, either iron metal or iron carbide, that would still be accessible and active after the carbonization process. The Fe-doped CAs investigated in this study were prepared by the same method used to synthesize the Co- and Ni-doped



Figure 1. TEM micrographs of an undoped CA (H1050) and Fe-doped CAs pyrolyzed at temperatures (Fe600, Fe800 and different Fe1050).

carbonized at temperatures ranging from 600°C and 1050°C.

To determine the types of Fe species that form during carbonization as well as their effect on the surrounding carbon network, the structure and composition of the Fe-doped CAs were evaluated using transmission electron microscopy (TEM), powder x-ray diffraction (XRD), Raman spectroscopy, and xray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). TEM images of the Fe-doped CAs show that the aerogel structure consists of an interconnected network of primary carbon particles with diameters between 10 to 15 nanometers (Figure 1). In addition, metallic nanoparticles are evident throughout the carbon framework of the Fe-doped CAs, most easily seen in materials pyrolyzed above 800°C. As with the Coand Ni-doped CAs, the size distribution of the Fe nanoparticles is intimately tied to the carbonization temperature, with higher pyrolysis temperatures yielding a wider distribution of sizes. The composition of these metallic nanoparticles was examined using XRD. Interestingly, the type of Fe species that form during pyrolysis appears to be related to the type of salt used for ion exchange. The XRD pattern for CA's doped with $Fe(NO_3)_3$ exhibited diffraction lines attributable to the presence of both metallic iron as well as Fe_3C (cementite phase iron carbide) (Figure 2). The XRD patterns for the CAs doped with the other iron salts, by contrast, showed reflections consistent with the formation of austenite-phase iron carbide ($Fe_{15.1}C$) in addition to metallic iron (Figure 3). In all cases, the diffraction lines become much more pronounced with increasing carbonization temperature, indicating particle coarsening with increasing temperature. We also noted variations in the relative ratios of iron metal to iron carbide for the different Fe-doped CAs. The observed differences in carbide stoichiometry and the relative ratio of iron to iron carbide may arise from the influence that the anion of the Fe salt has on the efficacy of the ion-exchange process. The amount of iron incorporated into the aerogel during ion exchange likely determines the amount of metallic iron that evolves during pyrolysis as well as the stoichiometry of iron carbide. This scenario is perhaps substantiated by the observation that the mean crystallite size for the

in the preparation of these materials (Table 1). Alternatively, these differences may be related to the residual presence of anions from the iron salts in the aerogels during pyrolysis that can affect particle nucleation and growth during carbonization. The XPS data for the pre-carbonized materials, however, did not show increased concentrations of the elements associated with the anions (i.e. sulfur, nitrogen, or chlorine) relative to the undoped sample.

iron particles differs depending on the iron salt used



Figure 3. X-ray diffraction patterns for Fedoped CAs prepared with $FeSO_4$ and the expected peak positions and relative intensities for iron metal and austenite phase of iron carbide.

The formation of the Fe species as a function of pyrolysis temperature was examined by XPS (Figure 4). The Fe 2p region of the XPS spectra for CAs pyrolyzed at 600°C exhibited signals attributable to oxidized iron species, such as FeOOH or Fe_2O_3 .³³ Correlating this observation with information



obtained from the XRD spectra for these samples, it is likely that of the iron species in these materials are not yet reduced and are still dispersed in very small clusters. The Fe 2p XPS spectra for materials pyrolyzed at 800°C show the emergence of peaks attributable to metallic iron.³³ As the carbonization temperature is increased to 1050°C, the metallic peaks become more prominent and the oxide peaks shift to a lower binding energy, suggesting the presence of a reduced oxide such as FeO.³³ Based on these trends, the growth of iron and iron carbide nanoparticles likely proceeds through the formation of oxidized intermediates, such as FeOOH and Fe₂O₃.

Figure 4. Fe 2*p* XPS spectra and peak fittings for the unpyrolyzed and pyrolyzed Fe-doped CAs.

The XRD spectra for each of the Fe-doped CAs also exhibited a broad diffraction line centered at $\sim 21^{\circ}$, corresponding to the presence of carbon

crystallites. The broad nature of the line reflects the low degree of crystallinity in the aerogel framework for all of the Fe-doped materials. The mean carbon crystallite sizes calculated using the Scherrer equation were found to be between 0.9-1.0 nm, independent of pyrolysis temperature or incorporated iron salt (Table 1). Thus, it appears that, despite the presence of iron species, the CA framework does not graphitize appreciably over the range of pyrolysis temperatures investigated. Examination of the carbon structure by Raman spectroscopy supports this observation as well. Raman spectra for carbon aerogels typically show two main features, the ubiquitous G-band (located at ~1580 cm⁻¹) and the disordered-induced D-band (located at ~1360 cm⁻¹).³⁴ For Fe-doped carbon aerogels, the line widths for these two modes are quite broad, indicating low overall crystallinity of the carbon structure. The approximate carbon crystallite size was calculated from the integrated areas of the D- and G-bands using Knight's formula,³⁵ $L_{\alpha} = C_{\lambda}(I_D/I_G)^{-1}$, where L_{α} is the integrated area of the D-band to that of the G-band the laser wavelength used to generate the spectrum.³⁶ were found to be ~ 2.5 nm for each sample, in reason calculated from the XRD results. As with the XRD da size as a function of pyrolysis temperature, providing aerogel is not significantly graphitized or otherwise ord the temperature range investigated. These results are co doped CAs that showed significant graphitization of 800°C. These results also indicate that, unlike the mo containing nanoparticles present in these materials materials CNTs.

Growth of CNTs. The CVD growth of CNTs on t the Fe-doped CAs to a flow of CH₄, C₂H₄, and H₂ for from 600 to 800°C. To determine the Fe-doped CA optimal CVD conditions for CNTs growth on the CAs, was tested under a variety of CVD conditions. From highest yield of CNTs were grown on Fe-doped temperatures of 700°C (Fe800-700). Examination b treatment clearly shows the growth of a grass-like ca monolith (Figure 5). The CNTs grown on the Fe80(

diameters of ~25 nm and lengths up to 4 μ m. Analysis (multiwall CNTs from the CA surface.





Figure 5. SEM micrographs of Fe-800-700 after CVD exhibiting high vield growth of

grown on these CAs are indeed multiwalled (Figure 6). The formation of other tubular graphitic nanostructures, such as nanoribbons and nanoshells, is also observed after CVD treatment (bottom portion of Figure 6a). Both the SEM and TEM images indicate that the CNTs appear to grow through a tip-growth mechanism, as iron-containing catalyst nanoparticles can be seen at their tips. The observed mean CNT diameter of ~25 nm does not imply that nanoparticles in the CA with smaller or larger diameters do not contribute to nanotube growth. In fact, a range of CNT diameters is observed in the SEM and TEM images for these materials. Nevertheless, the large population of CNTs in this size range suggests that the iron-containing nanoparticles with diameters between 20 and 30 nm possess the suitable chemical composition for catalyzing CNT growth.

Examination of cross-sectioned samples of Fe-800-700 by SEM and TEM did not reveal CNT growth beyond a depth of $\sim 1 \mu m$ into the porosity of the aerogel. The shallow depth of CVD growth is most likely due to the short mean free path of diffusion intrinsic to mesoporous materials such as aerogels. To address this issue, we attempted to grow CNTs within the interior porosity of the bulk



Figure 5. TEM micrographs of Fe-800-700 after CVD showing (a) a multiwall CNT attached to the CA framework and (b, c) CNTs containing embedded catalyst particles detached from the CA monolith.

monolith by purging the CAs samples with the CVD gases prior to heating. Unfortunately, TEM and SEM analysis of samples treated by this approach did not show growth of CNTs beyond a depth of about 1 μ m from the monolith surface. Nevertheless, we did find that performing CVD on a freshly exposed surface of a Fe-doped CA monolith that had already been processed by CVD resulted in the growth of CNTs on the new surface. Therefore, the limiting factor for CNT growth with the porosity of the CA is indeed the diffusion of CVD gases rather than the activity of the catalyst particles within the CA monolith. To address this issue, we are currently developing new metal-doped CA supports with controlled pore structures that will facilitate diffusion of CVD gases into the interior of the aerogel monoliths and thus enable growth of CNTs throughout the CA structure.

No CNT growth was observed for the Fe600 CA samples. The lack of CNT growth is likely due to the fact that most of the iron in Fe600 is present as an oxide, as evidenced by the XPS spectrum for this material (Figure 4). While exposure of this material to H₂ at elevated temperatures will eventually reduce these iron oxide particles to iron metal, the exposure time used in our CVD process (10 minutes) was apparently not long enough to produce sufficient amounts of catalytic iron particles. Processing of Fe-1050 samples under various CVD conditions resulted in a reduced yield of defective multiwalled CNTs with larger diameters relative to those grown on Fe800 samples. The larger mean diameter of CNTs grown on Fe1050 monoliths is likely due to the presence of larger diameter iron-containing nanoparticles. Growth at CVD temperatures of 800°C on samples of either Fe800 or Fe1050 resulted in low vields of CNTs (< 3 tubes/ μ m²) with smaller diameters. Varying the ratio of CVD gases was also found to affect the quality of CNTs grown. For example, decreasing the concentration of methane in the CVD process resulted in the formation of longer, larger diameter CNTs. At the CVD temperatures used for these experiments, methane does not thermolytically crack and instead acts as a carrier gas that dilutes ethylene, the main source of carbon in the CVD reaction. Therefore, the increased size of the CNTs grown under these conditions is most likely due to the relative increase in concentration of ethylene in the feedstock gas.

The CVD results for the various Fe-doped CAs indicate that CNT growth in these materials requires catalyst nanoparticles with a particular size and compositional profile. As a result, metal-doped CAs might serve as an interesting platform for developing a better understanding of CNT growth by heterogenous catalysis. While iron-based catalysts are commonly used for the growth of CNTs, the exact nature of the catalytic iron species (metallic iron or iron carbide) and its role in CNT growth is still a matter of debate. The approach presented here allows for the growth of supported catalysts of different sizes and compositions, and, therefore, can provide insight into the mechanisms of CNT growth.

Conclusion

In this paper, we described the synthesis and characterization of Fe-doped CAs and demonstrate their effectiveness as substrates for the growth of CNTs by CVD. The Fe-doped CAs were found to contain a

mixture of iron and iron carbide nanoparticles, the composition and size distributions of which are related to carbonization temperature and the iron salt used to prepare the precursor materials. In addition, the Fe-doped CAs exhibited no observable graphitization of the carbon framework for pyrolysis temperatures up to 1050°C. CVD processing of the Fe-doped CAs resulted in the surface growth of CNTs, affording novel monolithic carbon aerogel-carbon nanotube composite materials. The thermal and electrical conductivity for these composite materials is currently being investigated. In addition, we are also developing new sol-gel materials with controlled pore structures that will facilitate diffusion of CVD gases into the interior of the aerogel monoliths and thus enable growth of nanotubes throughout the CA structure. This approach could provide a new route to novel materials with enhanced thermal, electrical and mechanical properties.

Acknowledgements. Work was performed under the auspices of the U.S. Department of Energy by Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory under contract number W-7405-ENG-48. The authors thank Libby Shaw for her assistance and knowledgeable expertise in performing XPS experiments, Joe Adario for his assistance with XRD, Eduardo Barros for his assistance in collecting HRTEM images, Alfonso Reina for his assistance in collecting SEM images, and Hyungbin Son for his assistance in collecting Raman spectra. The authors also acknowledge Aerogel Technologies, LLC for use of their supercritical dryers. This research was supported by LLNL subcontract B518047 and made use of the Shared Experimental Facilities supported by the MRSEC Program of the National Science Foundation under award number DMR 02-13282.

Table 1. Average crystallite sizes of carbon, iron, and iron carbide nanoparticles determined from the XRD spectra and iron content determined by XPS for the undoped and Fe-doped CAs carbonized at 1050°C.

Precursor Salt	Mean Carbon Crystallite Size (nm)	Mean Iron Crystallite Size (nm) ^a	Mean Iron Carbide Crystallite Size (nm) ^b	Percentage of iron by XPS ^c
Fe(NO ₃) ₃	0.9 ± 0.1	25.8 ± 17.6	21.1 ± 1.7	0.75
$(NH_4)_2Fe(SO_4)_2$	1.0 ± 0.1	10.7 ± 1.8	15.0 ± 0.5	0.63
FeSO ₄	1.0 ± 0.1	20.9 ± 2.0	16.9 ± 0.5	1.33
FeCl ₃	1.0 ± 0.1	49.4 ± 14.1	58.9 ± 2.3	0.18
Undoped	1.0 ± 0.1	ND	ND	0.00

ND=Not Detected

^aMean iron crystallite size as determined from the integrated area of the Fe(110) peak

^bMean iron carbide crystallite size as determined from the integrated areas of the $Fe_3C(211)$ peak for cementite-containing sample and from the $Fe_{15,1}C(200)$ peak for austenite-containing samples

^cNormalized to percentage by mass of carbon as detected by XPS

References

- (1) Pekala, R. W. J. Mater. Sci. 1989, 24, 3221.
- (2) Pekala, R. W.; Alviso, C. T.; Kong, F. M.; Hulsey, S. S. J. Non-Cryst. Solids 1992, 145, 90.
- Pekala, R. W.; Alviso, C. T.; LeMay, J. D. in *Chemical Processing of Advanced Materials*;
 Hench, L. L., West, J. K., Eds.; J. Wiley & Sons: New York, 1992; p. 671.
- (4) Kong, F. M.; LeMay, J. D.; Hulsey, S. S.; Alviso, C. T.; Pekala, R. W. J. Mater. Sci. 1993, 8, 3100.
- (5) Bekyarova, E.; Kaneko, K. Adv. Mater. 2000, 12, 1625.
- (6) Bekyarova, E.; Kaneko, K. Langmuir 1999, 15, 7119.
- Maldonado-Hódar, F. J.; Moreno-Castilla, C.; Rivera-Utrilla, J.; Hanzawa, Y.; Yamada, Y.
 Langmuir 2000, 16, 4367.
- (8) Maldonado-Hódar, F. J.; Ferro-García, M. A.; Rivera-Utrilla, J.; Moreno-Castilla, C. Carbon, 1999, 37, 1199.
- Moreno-Castilla, C.; Maldonado-Hódar, F. J.; Rivera-Utrilla, J.; Rodríguez-Castellón, E. Appl. Catal. A 1999, 183, 345.
- (10) Moreno-Castilla, C.; Maldonado-Hódar, F. J. Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys. 2000, 2, 4818.
- (11) Moreno-Castilla, C.; Maldonado-Hódar, F. J.; Carrasco-Marin, F.; Rodriguez-Castellon, E. Langmuir 2002, 18, 2295.
- (12) Miller, J. M .; Dunn, B. Langmuir 1999, 15, 799.
- (13) Fu, R.; Dresselhaus, M. S.; Dresselhaus, G.; Zheng, B.; Liu, J.; Satcher, J. H.; Baumann, T. F. J. Non-Cryst. Solids 2003, 318, 223.

- (14) Baumann, T. F.; Fox, G. A.; Satcher, J. H.; Yoshizawa, N.; Fu, R.; Dresselhaus, M. S. *Langmuir* 2002, *18*, 7073.
- (15) Fu, R.; Yoshizawa, N.; Dresselhaus, M. S.; Dresselhaus, G.; Satcher, J. H.; Baumann, T. F. Langmuir 2002, 18, 10100.
- (16) Fu, R.; Lin, Y. M.; Rabin, O.; Dresselhaus, G.; Dresselhaus, M. S.; Satcher, J. H.; Baumann, T. F. J. Non-Cryst. Solids 2003, 317, 247.
- (17) Baumann, T. F.; Satcher, J. H. Chem. Mater. 2003, 15, 3745.
- (18) Fu, R.; Baumann, T. F.; Cronin, S.; Dresselhaus, G.; Dresselhaus, M. S.; Satcher, J. H. *Langmuir*, 2005, *21*, 2647.
- (19) Li, X.; Yuan, G.; Brown, A.; Westwood, A.; Brydson, R.; Rand, B. Carbon 2006, 44, 1699-1705.
- (20) Li, X.; Zuo, X.; Yuan, G.; Brown, A.; Westwood, A.; Brydson, R.; Rand, B. Journal of Physics: Conference Series 2005, 26, 308-311.
- (21) Zhang, D.; Shi, L.; Fang, J.; Li, X.; Dai, K. Materials Letters 2005, 59, 4044-4047.
- (22) Piao, L.; Chen, J.; Li, Y. China Particuology 2003, 1, 266-270.
- (23) Aslam, Z.; Li, X.; Brydson, R.; Rand, B. Institute of Physics Conference Series 2004, 179, 471-474.
- (24) Ward, J. W.; Wei, B. Q.; Ajayan, P. M. Chemical Physics Letters 2003, 376, 717-725.
- (25) Zheng, B.; Li, Y.; Liu, J. Applied Physics A: Materials Science & Processing 2002, 74, 345-348.
- (26) Su, M.; Zheng, B.; Liu, J. Chemical Physics Letters 2000, 322, 321-326.
- (27) Song, X.-Y.; Cao, W.; Ayers, M. R.; Hunt, A. J. Journal of Materials Research 1995, 10, 251-4.

- (28) Song, X. Y.; Cao, W.; Hunt, A. J. Materials Research Society Symposium Proceedings 1994, 349, 269-74.
- (29) Cao, W.; Song, X. Y.; Hunt, A. J. Materials Research Society Symposium Proceedings 1994, 349, 87-92.
- (30) Hu, J.; Bando, Y.; Zhan, J.; Zhi, C.; Xu, F.; Golberg, D. Adv. Mater. 2006, 18, 197-200.
- (31) For a recent review, see: Dupuis, A. *Progress in Materials Science* **2005**, *50*, 929 and references therein.
- (32) Shunk, F. A. Constitution of Binary Alloys, Second Supplement; McGraw-Hill: New York, 1969.
- (33) Moulder, J. F.; Stickle, W. F.; Sobol, P. E.; Bomben, K. D. Handbook of X-Ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy; Physical Electronics Division, Perkin-Elmer Corp.: Eden Prairie, 1992.
- (34) Welsh, I. D.; Sherwood, P. M. A. Physical Review B 1989, 40, 6386-6392.
- (35) Knight, D. S.; White, W. B. Journal of Materials Research 1989, 4, 385-393.
- (36) Matthews, M. J.; Pimenta, M. A.; Dresselhaus, G.; Dresselhaus, M. S.; Endo, M. *Physical Review B* 1999, *59*, R6585-R6588.

Table of Contents Graphic

