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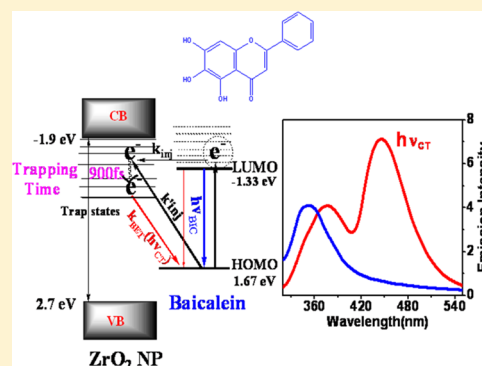
Ultrafast Electron-Transfer and -Trapping Dynamics in the Inter-Band-Gap States of ZrO<sub>2</sub> Nanoparticles Sensitized by Baicalein

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## Supporting Information

**ABSTRACT:** Charge-transfer dynamics of baicalein (BIC) adsorbed on TiO<sub>2</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles have been studied by steady-state and time-resolved emission spectroscopy and femtosecond transient absorption spectroscopy. Steady-state absorption and emission studies indicate that the BIC molecule forms a charge-transfer (CT) complex with both TiO<sub>2</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles through its pyrogallol moiety and quinone moiety, respectively. On exciting the CT complex a new charge-transfer emission band was detected only in the BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> system not from the BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> system. On photoexcitation of BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> and BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> systems by an ultrafast laser pulse, electron injection into the nanoparticles has been confirmed for both systems by direct detection of the electron in the nanoparticle and cation radical of BIC (BIC<sup>•+</sup>) in the transient spectra. Ultrafast transient decay kinetics of the BIC<sup>•+</sup> cation radical suggests that back electron transfer (ET) dynamics is multiexponential on both nanoparticle surfaces. Due to the fact that the first excited state (S<sub>1</sub>) state lies below the conduction band edge of ZrO<sub>2</sub>, our measurements suggest that in the case of ZrO<sub>2</sub> electrons are directly injected into the surface states and getting trapped in different surface states with a time constant of 900 fs before slow recombination with BIC cation radical. From the above investigation we suggest that electron injection into the surface states of nanoparticles is only feasible or facilitated when the adsorbate forms a strong CT complex with the nanoparticles.



## 1. INTRODUCTION

Interfacial electron transfer plays a major role in several physical and physico-chemical processes.<sup>1–4</sup> Interest in this field has grown daily due to diverse applications like photocatalysis, photovoltaics, molecular electronics, etc.<sup>5–7</sup> One of the main applications is development of dye-sensitized solar cells (DSSCs), which has emerged as a promising class of photovoltaic device with potential of low-cost production.<sup>8–10</sup> The highest efficiency of DSSC was reported to be 12.3% employing a mesoporous TiO<sub>2</sub> electrode cosensitized with Zn-porphyrin and cyclopentadithiophene dyes and a cobalt(II/III)-based redox electrolyte.<sup>11,12</sup> The basic photophysical process in a solar cell device is electron injection from the electronically excited state of the adsorbed dye into the conduction band of the nanoparticle, which takes place on a fast and an ultrafast time scale.<sup>13–26</sup>

In dye–semiconductor nanoparticle systems electron injection is in competition with both emissions of the excited state of the dye and a radiationless transition to the ground state. In addition, the excited state can also inject an electron in the inter-band-gap states of nanoparticles.<sup>27–32</sup> The electron injected in the nanoparticles can either diffuse to the electrode, which is part of the electrical circuit, or undergo a deleterious energy wasteful step such as recombining with the dye cation. It is a well-accepted phenomenon that once the electrons are moved or injected into the defect states they cannot be used any more for the energy conversion process. However, very

recently, Greenwald et al.<sup>33</sup> reported CdSe quantum dot solar cell based on a porous ZrO<sub>2</sub> film where they have indicated electron injection from a photoexcited quantum dot into a ZrO<sub>2</sub> film which is unexpected due to the much higher conduction band edge (closer to the vacuum level) of bulk ZrO<sub>2</sub> as compared to TiO<sub>2</sub>. This observation clearly indicates in many systems where the photoexcited energy level of sensitizers lies below the conduction band, still electron injection takes place in the inter-band-gap states and also can contribute to conversion of solar energy.

A majority of the investigations on interfacial ET dynamics discuss electron injection into the conduction band of a semiconductor as most of the sensitizer has a LUMO level higher than that of the conduction band of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. Over the years it has been realized that inter-band-gap states play an important and active role in the interfacial electron-transfer dynamics in dye-sensitized semiconductor nanoparticles. However, reports are available mostly for injection to the conduction band (high density of states) of the nanoparticles.<sup>13–26</sup> Nevertheless, Huber et al.<sup>27</sup> and we<sup>28–32</sup> reported electron injection into the surface states of wide-band-gap ( $E_g > 4.5$  eV) semiconductor ZrO<sub>2</sub> sensitized by alizarin,<sup>27</sup> quinizarin,<sup>28,29</sup> quinizarin derivatives,<sup>30</sup> and osmium polypyridyl

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complex<sup>31</sup> and ZnS sensitized by quinizarin.<sup>32</sup> In all the wide-band-gap semiconductors the electrons are injected into the surface states and can be easily trapped depending upon the trapping depth. It is very important to have knowledge of trapping dynamics before charge recombination with the parent cation. Theoretical studies have indicated that BET dynamics in dye-sensitized nanoparticles is often controlled by trapping, detrapping, and delocalization dynamics of the injected electrons.<sup>34,35</sup> In all the earlier experimental studies charge-transfer dynamics on ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles were carried out by exciting the sensitizer, where the photoexcited (S<sub>1</sub>) state injects an electron into the surface states. In those studies it was difficult to monitor only ET dynamics into the surface states as the excited states of the sensitizers show transient absorption in the same spectral region where both electron and cation radicals have transient absorption. Thus, it is very important to study interfacial ET dynamics on a wide-band-gap semiconductor (ZrO<sub>2</sub>) where excited dynamics of the adsorbate does not interfere with ET dynamics (both electron injection and back ET).

In the present studies we are reporting the interfacial electron-transfer dynamics of baicalein-sensitized ZrO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles where baicalein (BIC) forms a charge-transfer (CT) complex through the quinonoid and catecholite moieties, respectively. Here we chose the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle to compare the ET dynamics with smaller band-gap materials. Charge-transfer luminescence was detected only in the BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> system. Electron injection in both nanoparticles has been confirmed by monitoring the cation radical and injected electron in the nanoparticles as detected by femtosecond transient absorption spectrometry. Cyclic voltammetry and luminescence spectroscopy studies suggest that the LUMO level of the BIC molecule lies far below the conduction band edge of ZrO<sub>2</sub> but well above the conduction band edge of TiO<sub>2</sub>. However, the appearance of BIC cation radical in transient spectra suggests that electron transfer takes place in the inter-band-gap states of ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle. Electron injection was found to be pulsed (<100 fs), and back ET dynamics is multiexponential on both nanoparticle surfaces. Charge recombination dynamics was found to be faster on the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle as compared the ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle surface. On the ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle surface after injection into the surface state the electron goes for a trapping process with a time constant of 900 fs before recombining with the BIC cation radical. Our observation suggests formation of a strong CT complex facilitating electron injection into the inter-band-gap states of ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles.

## 2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

**a. Materials.** Baicalein was obtained from Aldrich and used without further purification. Titanium(IV) tetraisopropoxide {Ti[OCH(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>4</sub>} (Aldrich, 97%), methanol (Aldrich), and isopropyl alcohol (Aldrich) were purified by distillation. Zirconium(IV) isopropoxide isopropanol complex Zr[OCH(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>4</sub>·(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>CHOH (Aldrich, 99.9%) was used without further purification. Nanopure water (Barnsted System, USA) was used for making aqueous solutions.

**b. Sample Preparation.** Nanometer-size TiO<sub>2</sub> was prepared by controlled hydrolysis of titanium(IV) tetraisopropoxide.<sup>13</sup> A solution of 5 mL of Ti[OCH(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>4</sub> (Aldrich, 97%) dissolved in 95 mL of isopropyl alcohol (Aldrich) was added dropwise (1 mL/min) to 900 mL of nanopure water (2 °C) at pH 1.5 (adjusted with HNO<sub>3</sub>). The solution was

continuously stirred 10–12 h until a transparent colloid was formed. The colloidal solution was concentrated at 35–40 °C with a rotary evaporator and then dried with a nitrogen stream to yield a white powder. Again, ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles in aqueous solution were prepared by controlled hydrolysis of zirconium(IV) tetraisopropoxide. In brief, 5 mmol (1.94 g) of Zr[OCH(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>]<sub>4</sub>·(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>CHOH (Aldrich, 99.9%) was dissolved in ~100 mL of isopropyl alcohol (Aldrich) after vigorous stirring and added dropwise (1 mL/min) to ~900 mL of nanopure water at pH 2 (adjusted using conc HNO<sub>3</sub>) with rigorous stirring in about 1 h at 0–2 °C. Stirring was continued for 2 h at that temperature and then at room temperature overnight. The solution was concentrated at 40–50 °C using a rotary evaporator and then finally dried to yield a fine white powder. High-resolution TEM images have been recorded for the newly synthesized ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles where size was found to be ~4 nm and are reported in the Supporting Information. In the present work all colloidal samples were prepared after dispersing the dry TiO<sub>2</sub> or ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles in water (15g/L). A transparent clear colloidal solution was formed. BIC is sparingly soluble in water; however, solubility increases dramatically in the presence of both TiO<sub>2</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. This observation clearly indicates that interactions between BIC and TiO<sub>2</sub>/ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles are quite strong. For all our sensitization experiments we added BIC molecules in TiO<sub>2</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> colloidal solution and sonicated a couple of minutes till we got a clear transparent solution. For the entire measurements sample solutions were deoxygenated by continuously bubbling high-purity nitrogen (99.95 Iolar grade from Indian Oxygen Co. Ltd., India) through the solutions. For ultrafast transient absorption studies the solutions were flowed through a 1 mm path quartz cell during all measurements.

**c. Femtosecond Transient Absorption Studies.** A femtosecond tunable visible spectrometer has been developed based on a multipass amplified femtosecond Ti:sapphire laser system supplied by Thales, France. Pulses of 20 fs duration and 4 nJ energy per pulse at 800 nm obtained from a self-mode-locked Ti:Sapphire laser oscillator (Synergy 20, Femtolasar, Austria) were amplified in a regenerative and two-pass amplifier pumped by a 20W DPSS laser (Jade) to generate 40 fs laser pulses of about 1.2 mJ energy at a repetition rate of 1 kHz. The 800 nm output pulse from the multipass amplifier is split into two parts to generate pump and probe pulses. In the present investigation we used frequency doubled 400 nm as excitation sources. To generate pump pulses at 400 nm one part of 800 nm with 200 μJ/pulse is frequency doubled in BBO crystals. To generate visible probe pulses, about 3 μJ of the 800 nm beam is focused onto a 1.5 mm thick sapphire window. The intensity of the 800 nm beam is adjusted by iris size and ND filters to obtain a stable white light continuum in the 400 to over 1000 nm region. Probe pulses are split into the signal and reference beams and detected by two matched photodiodes with variable gain. We kept the spot sizes of the pump beam and probe beam at the crossing point around 500 and 300 μm, respectively. The noise level of the white light is about ~0.5% with occasional spikes due to oscillator fluctuation. We noticed that most laser noise is low-frequency noise and can be eliminated by comparing the adjacent probe laser pulses (pump blocked vs unblocked using a mechanical chopper). The typical noise in the measured absorbance change is about <0.3%. The instrument response function (IRF) for 400 nm excitation was obtained by fitting the rise time of the bleaching of the

sodium salt of *meso*-tetrakis(4-sulfonatophenyl)porphyrin (TPPS) at 710 nm and was found to be 120 fs.<sup>36</sup> All samples were dissolved in nanopure water. The experimental solution was circulated to avoid sample bleaching during the course of the experiment. Data analysis and fitting at individual wavelengths were carried out by the Lab-View program.

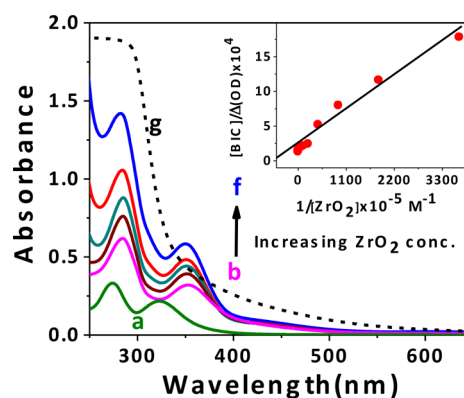
**d. Cyclic Voltammetry.** Voltammetric experiments were performed with Auto Lab PGSTAT 20 (Manufactured by Eco-Chemie, Netherlands) coupled to a Metrohm 663 VA stand electrode system comprising of glassy carbon (GC)/Pt/Ag/AgCl. The PG STAT was driven by Autolab software. The temperature of the solution was maintained at  $25 \pm 0.1$  °C. Measurements were done in acetonitrile solution with TBAHP (tetrabutylammonium hexafluorophosphate) as a supporting electrolyte and in  $N_2$  atmosphere. The redox potential of the BIC molecule has been determined to be 1.45 V against Ag/AgCl electrode.

**e. Steady-State Optical Absorption and Emission Spectrometer.** Steady-state absorption spectra were recorded on a Thermo-Electron model Biomate spectrophotometer. Fluorescence spectra, which were corrected for the wavelength dependence of the instrument sensitivity, were recorded using a Hitachi model 4010 Spectrofluorometer.

**f. Time-Resolved Emission Spectrometer.** Time-resolved fluorescence measurements were carried out using a diode laser-based spectrofluorimeter from IBH (UK). The instrument works on the principle of time-correlated single-photon counting (TCSPC). In the present work, 280, 374, and 405 nm laser pulses were used as the excitation light sources and a TBX4 detection module (IBH) coupled with a special Hamamatsu PMT was used for fluorescence detection.

### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

**a. Dye Binding and Formation of Charge-Transfer Complex.** The main aim of this investigation is to monitor electron-transfer processes in the mid-band-gap states of a wide-band-gap semiconductor. We observed in our earlier studies that it is a prerequisite condition for electron injection in the surface states (inter-band-gap states) of a wide-band semiconductor, where dye and semiconductor nanoparticles have to interact very strongly in the ground state with formation of a charge-transfer complex.<sup>28–32</sup> We carried out steady-state absorption measurements of baicalein molecules in  $ZrO_2$  colloidal solutions. Figure 1 shows the optical absorption of free BIC in water and also those adsorbed on the  $ZrO_2$  nanoparticles. The absorption maxima of the optical absorption spectra of BIC in water at pH 2.5 appear at 273 and 323 nm. However, upon addition of  $ZrO_2$  nanoparticles, the absorption spectra shifted to longer wavelengths, with the appearance of a new peak at 352 nm. The effect of increasing  $ZrO_2$  concentration on the absorption spectrum is also shown in Figure 1. The color of the solution changes from colorless to dark yellow on addition of  $ZrO_2$ . The increment of optical absorbance and appearance of a new red-shifted absorption band indicate electronic coupling between BIC and  $ZrO_2$  nanoparticle is very strong and can be attributed to a CT-type of interaction. This red shift in absorption studies also might be due to aggregate formation on the nanoparticle surface. We recorded optical absorption spectra of BIC in different solvents where we can get maximum solubility in that particular solvent. It is clearly seen that even at very high concentrations optical absorption spectra of BIC are unchanged (Supporting Information). This observation clearly suggests

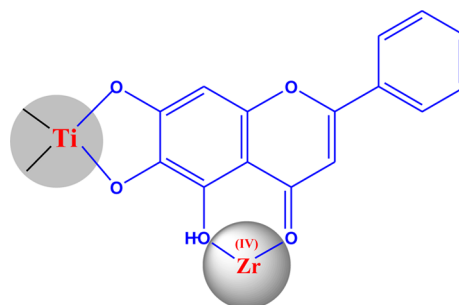


**Figure 1.** Absorption spectra of (a) free baicalein (56  $\mu$ M) and (b–f) BIC– $ZrO_2$  complex. Concentrations of  $ZrO_2$  in BIC– $ZrO_2$  complex are (b) 0.078, (c) 0.625, (d) 1.25, (e) 2.5, and (f) 5 g/L. (g) BIC– $TiO_2$  complex [ $TiO_2$ ] = 0.25 g/L. (Inset) B–H plot of the BIC– $ZrO_2$  system.

that the possibility of aggregate formation on  $ZrO_2$  surface is negligible. The red shift in absorption spectra of the complex is due to formation of a six-membered binding (quinol binding)<sup>28–32</sup> between baicalein and  $ZrO_2$  NPs. We kept the pH of the solution  $\sim 2.5$  to avoid change of optical spectra of BIC due to pH changing. We observed that optical spectra of BIC do not change at lower pH (pH 1–6).

In our earlier investigation we observed that quinizarin (QZ), which has a keto and hydroxyl group in similar positions of BIC, forms intramolecular H bonding. However, in the presence of  $ZrO_2$  or  $ZnS$  particles intramolecular H bonding in the QZ molecule breaks and forms a 6-membered chelate-type complex with the nanoparticle.<sup>28–32</sup> Similarly, we can envisage a similar 6-membered chelate-type complex between BIC and  $ZrO_2$  nanoparticles (Scheme 1). We also observed in

**Scheme 1. Molecular Structure of the Baicalein Coupled with  $ZrO_2$  and  $TiO_2$  Nanoparticles**



Supporting Information Figure S2 that on addition of  $TiO_2$  nanoparticles to an aqueous solution of BIC, the optical absorption spectrum becomes broad and shifts to longer wavelength and the optical density increases. This phenomenon can also be attributed to formation of a CT complex between BIC and  $TiO_2$ . The BIC molecule has a pyrogallol moiety, i.e., three consecutive OH groups in the benzene ring, and can form a stable charge-transfer complex. Attribution of the CT complex between BIC and  $ZrO_2$  nanoparticles has also been confirmed by steady-state emission studies, which we report in the next section. Earlier we reported that pyrogallol red (PGR) and bromo-pyrogallol red (Br–PGR), which have a pyrogallol moiety, can form a strong CT complex with  $TiO_2$  nano-



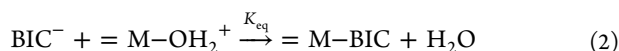
particles.<sup>14</sup> Rajh et al.<sup>37</sup> already reported by that six-membered ring complexes are more stable on the ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle surface and five-membered ring complexes are more stable on the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle surface for <20 nm particles. It is seen in the scheme that oxygen is bonded to the central ring in the keto (quinoid) form along with one OH group binding to the Zr (IV) atom, which can sit on the surface of the nanoparticle.

Earlier formation of a CT complex between TiO<sub>2</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle and the organic dyes<sup>13,14,26–30</sup> as well as inorganic molecules was observed by us and others.<sup>21–25</sup> Formation of a CT complex can be explained by the following equation



where M is Zr and Ti.

The experimental observation can be explained in the following manner. When BIC molecules are adsorbed on the surface, a fraction of the dye molecules just get adsorbed on the surface of the nanoparticle and a major fraction of the molecules form CT complex. A modified Benesi–Hilderband equation<sup>38</sup> has been used to determine  $K_{\text{eq}}$  (equilibrium constant). For a CT interaction it can be represented as

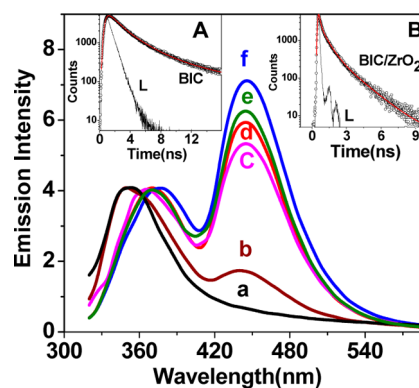


Since the particle concentration is proportional to the concentration of surface hydroxyl groups ( $\equiv \text{M-OH}_2^+$ ), we can define the equilibrium constant as

$$K_{\text{eq}} = \frac{[\text{M-BIC}]}{[\text{BIC}][\text{MO}_2]} \quad (3)$$

where [BIC] is the concentration of the adsorbed dye which does not form a complex, [MO<sub>2</sub>] is the particle concentration, and [M–BIC] is the concentration of the complex. In the inset of Figure 1 we have shown the Benesi–Hilderband plot for the BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> system. From the Benesi–Hilderband plot the equilibrium constant and molar extinction coefficient of the ZrO<sub>2</sub>–BIC complex has been determined to be  $8.06 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}$  and  $19\,230 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$ , respectively. Similarly, we also determined equilibrium constant and molar extinction coefficient for the TiO<sub>2</sub>–BIC complex from the Benesi–Hilderband plot (Supporting Information), and it was found to be  $1.95 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1}$  and  $2267 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$ .

**b. Steady-State and Time-Resolved Emission Spectroscopy.** To understand the charge-transfer behavior of BIC-sensitized ZrO<sub>2</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles it is important to understand the excited-state properties of the BIC molecule by monitoring the photoluminescence properties in the absence and presence of the nanoparticles. BIC is known to be very important molecule for its enormous biological applications;<sup>39–41</sup> however, detailed photoluminescence properties of BIC are not reported in the literature. Figure 2 shows the normalized emission spectra of BIC in the absence and presence of different concentration of ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. Emission spectra of pure BIC show an emission band with a peak at 355 nm with low quantum yield ( $\phi_f = 0.045$ ) (Figure 2a). However, in the presence of ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles emission spectra changes with increasing ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle and we observed that the intensity of the emission peak at 355 nm decreases with the appearance of a new emission band 445 nm ( $\phi_f = 0.06$ ) (Figure 2f). It is very clear that at higher concentrations of ZrO<sub>2</sub> particles the second emission band at 445 nm dominates over the original BIC emission. It is also interesting to see that with increasing concentration of ZrO<sub>2</sub>



**Figure 2.** Emission spectra of (a) free baicalein (56  $\mu\text{M}$ ) and (b–e) BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> complex. Concentrations of ZrO<sub>2</sub> in BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> complex are (b) 0.078, (c) 0.625, (d) 1.25, (e) 2.5, and (f) 5 g/L. (Inset) Emission decay trace of (A) BIC in water after exciting at 280 nm and monitoring at 350 nm, (B) BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> [ $[\text{ZrO}_2] = 5 \text{ g/L}$ ] complex in water after exciting at 374 nm and monitoring at 450 nm. L stands for the excitation profile of the laser.

NP the original peak of BIC changes from 355 to 377 nm. However, the second emission peak does not change its position. The second emission band can be attributed to charge-transfer emission.

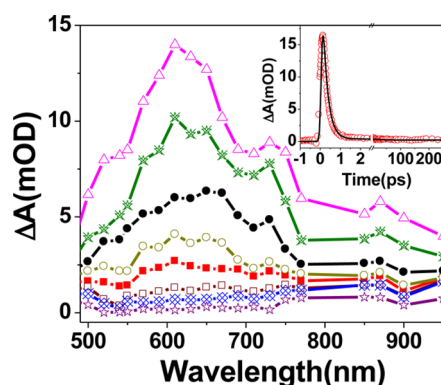
Earlier we reported CT emission in dye–semiconductor composite materials where TiO<sub>2</sub>,<sup>13</sup> ZrO<sub>2</sub>,<sup>29,30</sup> and ZnS<sup>32</sup> nanoparticles were used as semiconductor materials. In general, in dye–semiconductor systems, where an electron-transfer reaction takes place from the photoexcited dye to the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle, the emission intensity of the composite system reduces drastically. Interestingly, it has been observed that the emission quantum yield increases with nanoparticles (ZrO<sub>2</sub>) concentration (Figure 2), which includes both pure BIC emission and CT emission. In neat water the BIC molecule has three consecutive OH groups, which can form an intermolecular H bond with bulk water molecules; as a result, nonradiative pathways from photoexcited BIC are more favorable. However, when the molecules adsorb on the ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle surface or make a complex with ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles the nonradiative decay of the excited state is less efficient.

On the other hand, when the molecule is adsorbed on the surface, it will be rigidified on the surface, resulting in decrease in internal conversion. As a result, the emission quantum yield of BIC molecules, which does not inject an electron into the nanoparticles, is more than that in the bulk. We also carried out steady-state emission measurements in the BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> system. BIC emission was completely quenched in the presence of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, and no CT emission was observed in the BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> system.

Here we observed a very interesting feature of the CT emission in the BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> complex system. To address the emissive nature of the CT complex, we also carried out time-resolved emission studies in the above systems by exciting pure BIC and BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> complex at different wavelengths. In Figure 2 (Inset A) the emission decay trace of BIC in water after exciting at 280 nm and monitoring at 350 nm is shown. The emission decay trace can be fitted multiexponentially with time constants of  $\tau_1 = 0.34 \text{ ns}$  (69%),  $\tau_2 = 2.37 \text{ ns}$  (27%), and  $\tau_3 = 9.4 \text{ ns}$  (4%) with  $\tau_{\text{av}} = 1.25 \text{ ns}$ . Figure 2 (Inset B) shows the emission decay trace of BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> in water after exciting at 374 nm and monitoring at 450 nm. Here we monitored pure CT at

450 nm, where the contribution due to pure BIC emission is negligible. The emission decay trace can be fitted multi-exponentially with time constants of  $\tau_1 = 0.09$  ns (70%),  $\tau_2 = 0.56$  ns (23%), and  $\tau_3 = 1.69$  ns (7%) with  $\tau_{av} = 0.31$  ns. In our earlier investigation we determined the charge recombination (back ET) time by monitoring the CT emission lifetime in coumarin/TiO<sub>2</sub>,<sup>13</sup> xanthenes dyes/TiO<sub>2</sub>,<sup>42</sup> QZ/ZrO<sub>2</sub>,<sup>29,30</sup> and QZ/ZnS<sup>32</sup> systems. It is clearly seen that the lifetime of the CT emission, which indirectly determined the back ET time constant, is too fast to measure by time-resolved emission spectroscopy with subnanosecond time resolution. To understand the charge-transfer dynamics on a shorter time scale it is very important to investigate these processes with femtosecond time resolution. In the next section we carried out transient absorption spectroscopy in both BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> and BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> systems and monitored the charge-transfer dynamics on an ultrafast time scale.

**c. Excited-State Dynamics of Free Baicalein.** In an earlier section we observed that the emission quantum yield of BIC is very poor and that it also has a shorter emission lifetime. The low quantum yield of emission suggests that a majority of the de-excitation process takes place through a nonradiative transition. To monitor the overall excited-state dynamics of the BIC molecule femtosecond transient absorption spectroscopic measurements have been carried out in acetonitrile, exciting at 400 nm laser light. The solubility of the BIC molecule in water is poor, so to study the excited-state dynamics of free BIC, we chose acetonitrile as a solvent. Figure 3 shows transient

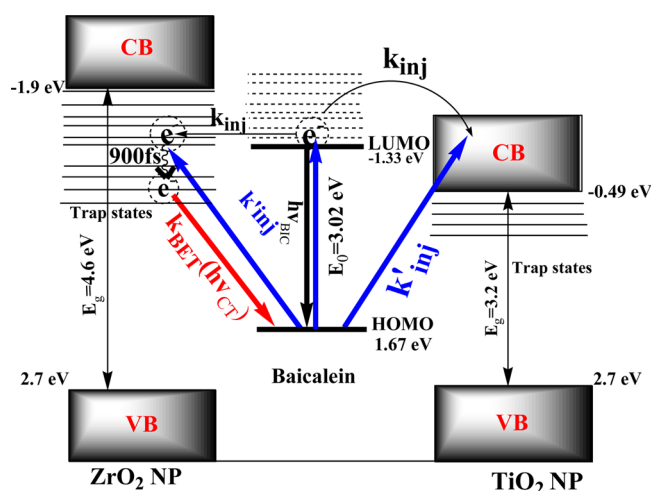


**Figure 3.** TA spectra of the BIC–ACN system recorded at different time delays (from top to bottom 200 fs, 300 fs, 400 fs, 500 fs, 600 fs, 800 fs, 1 ps, and 20 ps) after exciting at 400 nm laser pulse. (Inset) Transient kinetics monitored at 610 nm.

absorption spectra at different time delays, which consist of broad absorption in the 500–900 nm wavelength range with a transient peak at 610 nm. Transient decay kinetics can be fitted with time constants with  $\tau_1 = 250$  fs (98.5%),  $\tau_2 = 30$  ps (0.6%), and  $\tau_3 > 1$  ns (0.9%). Such a comprehensive decay profile is very uncommon among organic sensitizer molecules and can be attributed to the occurrence of a nonradiative decay channel of photoexcited BIC due to the presence of three OH groups. However, it has been observed that the emission life of BIC is 1.25 ns ( $\tau_{av}^{em}$ ), which is quite longer as compared to very fast transient decay kinetics as observed at 610 nm wavelength. This observation clearly indicates that a majority of the de-excitation process takes place through a nonradiative channel. It would be really interesting to monitor the photoexcited behavior of BIC on a semiconductor surface on an ultrafast time scale.

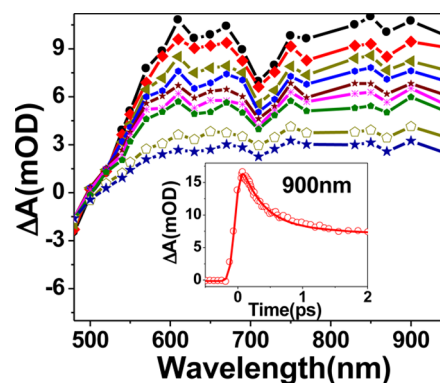
**d. Transient Absorption Measurements in BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> System.** Optical absorption studies indicate that BIC forms a strong complex and BIC luminescence is completely quenched in the presence of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. This observation clearly suggests that photoexcited BIC injects an electron in the conduction band of the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle as the process is thermodynamically viable (Scheme 2). To understand the ET

**Scheme 2. Mechanistic Scheme of Electron-Transfer and -Trapping for the Coupled Systems Baicalein TiO<sub>2</sub> (Right) and BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> (Left)<sup>a</sup>**



<sup>a</sup>Here LUMO is the excited sensitized dye,  $k_{BET}$  is the back-electron-transfer rate,  $k_{inj}$  is the electron injection through the excited state, and  $k'_{inj}$  is direct electron injection (excitation of CT complex). Energy level with respect to NHE (= normal hydrogen electrode).

dynamics on an ultrafast time scale we carried out femtosecond transient absorption studies after exciting the BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> system with 400 nm laser light. Figure 4 shows the time-



**Figure 4.** Transient absorption spectra of BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> complex (from top to bottom 200 fs, 300 fs, 400 fs, 500 fs, 600 fs, 800 fs, 1 ps, 5 ps, and 20 ps) in water at different time delays after 400 nm laser excitation. (Inset) Transient kinetics monitored at 900 nm.

resolved transient absorption spectra of BIC-sensitized TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles in water. The spectrum at each time delay consists of an absorption band with a peak at 650 nm and also a broad absorption band from 700 to 1000 nm. The broad spectral absorption in the 700–1000 nm region is attributed to the conduction band electrons in the nanoparticles ( $e_{CB}^-$ ).<sup>13–15,21–26</sup> Electron injection time has been monitored

Table 1. Life Times of the Transients for BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> and BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> Systems at Different Wavelengths

system	$\lambda_{\text{monitor}}$ (nm)	$\tau_{\text{inj}}$	$\tau_1$ (A <sub>1</sub> %)	$\tau_2$ (A <sub>2</sub> %)	$\tau_3$ (A <sub>3</sub> %)	$\tau_4$ (A <sub>4</sub> %)
BIC–TiO <sub>2</sub>	650	<120 fs	350 fs (45%)	6 ps (20.5%)	120 ps (17.7%)	>1 ns (16.8%)
BIC–TiO <sub>2</sub>	900	<120 fs	300 fs (52%)	6 ps (23%)	120 ps (10%)	>1 ns (15%)
BIC–ZrO <sub>2</sub>	650	<120 fs	5 ps (27%)	100 ps (17%)	>1 ns (56%)	
BIC–ZrO <sub>2</sub>	900	<120 fs	900 fs (33%)	10 ps (19%)	100 ps (30%)	>1 ns (18%)

from the appearance of the signal of the BIC cation radical (BIC<sup>•+</sup>) at 650 nm as well as e<sub>CB</sub><sup>−</sup> at 900 nm and was found to be <120 fs (inset, Figure 4). Assignment of the BIC cation radical (BIC<sup>•+</sup>) has been made on the basis of the results obtained in separate pulse radiolysis experiments, where BIC<sup>•+</sup> was generated by one-electron oxidation reaction of BIC studied in N<sub>2</sub>O-saturated aqueous solution containing  $56 \times 10^{-6}$  mol dm<sup>−3</sup> BIC dyes and NaN<sub>3</sub> ( $5 \times 10^{-2}$  mol dm<sup>−3</sup>) and is shown in the Supporting Information. Back-electron-transfer dynamics (charge recombination) of the above reaction has been determined by monitoring both BIC<sup>•+</sup> at 650 nm (Figure 6a) and the electron in the conduction band at 900 nm (Figure 6b). A recombination reaction in BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> has been found to be a very fast and multiexponential function with time constants of  $\tau_1 = 350$  fs (45%),  $\tau_2 = 6$  ps (20.5%),  $\tau_3 = 120$  ps (17.7%), and  $\tau_4 > 1$  ns (16.8%) as monitored at 650 nm (Table 1). Kinetic data at 900 nm have also been fitted multiexponentially with time constants of  $\tau_1 = 300$  fs (52%),  $\tau_2 = 6$  ps (23%),  $\tau_3 = 120$  ps (10%), and  $\tau_4 > 1$  ns (15%) (Table 1). The long-time offset (which persists to a delay time of  $\tau > 1$  ns of the transients for the BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> system (Figure 6a and Figure 6b) can be assigned to the slow recombination reaction of the long-lived charge-separated state. This process continues to occur on a nanosecond to microsecond time scale. The slow recombination reaction is due to those electrons, which move to different trap sites with a distribution of trap energy and distance from the adsorbate.<sup>14,42</sup>

**e. Transient Absorption Measurements in BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> System.** Due to its larger band gap and higher conduction band energy level ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles are used as a noninjecting surface where the excited-state dynamics of dye molecules are monitored.<sup>13,21,43</sup> However, recent studies indicate that electron injection into ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles is possible by certain photoexcited dye molecules.<sup>27–31</sup> Cyclic voltametry and steady-state luminescence measurements suggest that the energy level of the first photoexcited state (S<sub>1</sub>) of the BIC molecule lies below the conduction band level of ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. However, steady-state and time-resolved emission studies indicate injection of an electron into ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles by a photoexcited BIC molecule. To understand the electron-transfer (both electron injection and back ET) dynamics we carried out femtosecond laser spectroscopic experiments on BIC molecules adsorbed on ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle exciting at 400 nm. Figure 5 shows the time-resolved transient absorption spectra of the BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> system in water. The spectrum at each time delay consists of a positive peak at ~650 nm and a broad positive feature in the 750–1000 nm spectral region. The positive peak at 650 nm has been attributed to combination of a cation radical of the BIC molecule (mentioned in an earlier section), and the broad absorption band in the region of 750–1000 nm can be attributed to the injected electron in ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. The transient absorption of the BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> system in the 450–500 nm region can also be attributed to BIC cation radical (Supporting Information). The peak in the transient absorption spectra that appears at 450–650 nm region

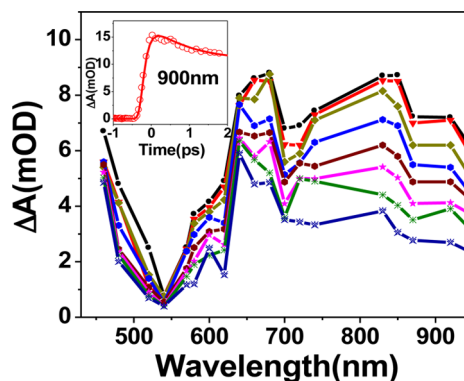
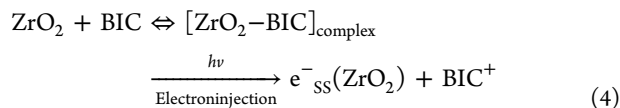


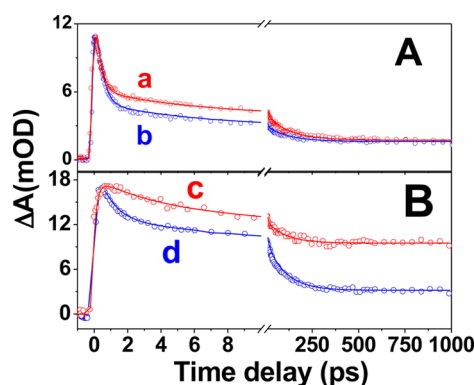
Figure 5. Transient absorption spectra of BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> (from top to bottom 500 fs, 1 ps, 2 ps, 5 ps, 10 ps, 20 ps, 50 ps, and 100 ps) complex in water at different time delays after 400 nm laser excitation. (Inset) Transient kinetics monitored at 900 nm.

is due to bleaching of the ground state of the BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> system. Since the excited singlet state (S<sub>1</sub>) of the BIC molecule is well below the conduction band of ZrO<sub>2</sub> (Scheme 2), the photoexcited BIC molecule will be unable to inject an electron in the conduction band of ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. Interestingly, we observed that the transient spectra and kinetics of the BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> system are very different compared to those of BIC in acetonitrile; however, it somehow matches closely with the BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> system. This observation clearly indicates that although the energy level of the photoexcited state of BIC lies below the conduction band of the ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle still electron injection into the nanoparticles take place. Thus, this injection process can be attributed to injection in the surface states of nanoparticles. The injection process can also be determined by monitoring the appearance time of the injected electron at 900 nm (Inset Figure 5), which was found to be <120 fs. The electron injection process can be described by the following equation



Back-ET reaction of the above reaction can be determined by monitoring either the cation radical at 650 nm or the electron in the conduction band at 900 nm (Figure 6B). The kinetic decay trace at 650 nm can be fitted multiexponentially with time constants of  $\tau_1 = 5$  ps (27%),  $\tau_2 = 100$  ps (17%), and  $\tau_3 > 1$  ns (56%). It is interesting to see that the kinetics at 650 nm has a slow component, which recombines in a much longer time scale and can be assigned to the slow recombination reaction of the long-lived charge-separated state, which occurs on a nanosecond to microsecond time scale. Slow recombination reactions are due to the electrons, which are trapped at different trap depths and different distances from the adsorbate, resulting multiexponential dynamics with many slower components. We also monitored the dynamics at 900 nm,





**Figure 6.** (A) Decay kinetics of (a) cation radical at 650 nm and (b) injected electron at 900 nm in BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> system. (B) Decay kinetics of (c) cation radical at 650 nm and (d) injected electron at 900 nm in BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> system after exciting the samples at 400 nm.

and the kinetic data can be fitted with  $\tau_1 = 0.9$  ps (33%),  $\tau_2 = 10$  ps (19%),  $\tau_3 = 100$  ps (30%), and  $\tau_4 > 1$  ns (18.0%). It is interesting to see that kinetic trace at 900 nm decays much faster compared to that at 650 nm. At 900 nm we primarily monitor the injected electron into the nanoparticle, and at 400 nm excitation in the BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> system electrons are injected directly into the surface states. Thus, before recombining with the cation radical the injected electron will be going through an electron-trapping process. Thus, the 900 fs component which arises at 900 nm can be attributed to an electron-trapping process in the ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle (Scheme 2).

**f. Surface-State Electron-Transfer and Trapping Dynamics.** It is widely reported in the literature that surface states play an important role in any devices made out of semiconductor nanomaterials. It has been reported by us and many other workers that the surface state plays an important and active role in the interfacial electron-transfer reaction. To assess the surface state electron-transfer reaction through the photoexcited state of dye molecules, most of the time ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles are chosen due to its wide-band-gap and conduction band lying above the LUMO level for most of the dye molecules. Photoexcited molecules like alizarin (Alz) and quinizarin (Qz) could still inject an electron into the surface states due to strong coupling with ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles through a 6-membered anthraquinone moiety. Interestingly, in all of the above systems electron injection took place through the photoexcited state, where laser excitation (400 nm) primarily excites the molecules and the excited state ( $S_1$  state) of the sensitizers inject an electron ( $k_{inj}$ ) into the surface states of ZrO<sub>2</sub>. However, in the present studies 400 nm laser excitation primarily excites the charge-transfer complex of BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 1), which on 400 nm laser excitation directly injects an electron ( $k_{inj}'$ ) into the surface states of ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. We observed from time-resolved absorption studies that the electron injection time is  $<120$  fs for both TiO<sub>2</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. Direct excitation of the CT complex facilitates pulse-width-limited electron injection into the surface states. Theoretical calculations carried out by Lego et al.,<sup>44</sup> Wang et al.,<sup>45</sup> Duncan et al.,<sup>46</sup> and Prezhdo et al.<sup>47</sup> suggest a CT mechanism of electron injection in the dye–semiconductor nanoparticle system. It has been suggested that the LUMO in the case of a CT complex is located on the metal center (Ti or Zr) and on excitation the electron gets directly localized on the metal center. Now the localized electron in the metal center diffuses into the conduction band states or surface states of the

nanoparticle takes place depending on the semiconductor. It can be seen in Scheme 2 that electron injection in both BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> and BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> systems can take place via photoexcited BIC molecules ( $k_{inj}$ ) and also direct injection ( $k_{inj}'$ ) to metal centers (Ti or Zr). However, from optical absorption studies (Figure 1) we observed that at 400 nm mostly the CT complex of BIC–MO<sub>2</sub> ( $M = \text{Ti, Zr}$ ) can absorb the laser radiation. Thus, with excitation at 400 nm mostly direct electron injection ( $k_{inj}'$ ) can take place in both systems, where electrons are injected directly into the conduction band of TiO<sub>2</sub> and surface states of ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. Electron injection in both systems was found to be pulse-width limited (BET); however, it will be interesting to monitor back-electron-transfer and electron-trapping dynamics in both systems. To observe back-electron-transfer and carrier-trapping dynamics we monitored both the cation radical at 650 nm and the injected electron at 900 nm (Figure 6). Figure 6A shows the kinetics at 650 and 900 nm in the BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> system, and the data can be fitted multiexponentially (Table 1), which can be attributed to back-ET dynamics. However, it is interesting to see that the kinetics at 900 nm has a higher contribution of the ultrafast (300 fs) component as compared to that of 650 nm. The extra decay of the transient at 900 nm can be attributed to electron-trapping dynamics in the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle. However, the kinetics for the BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> system at 650 and 900 nm are quite different (Figure 6 B). The kinetics at 900 nm decays much faster with an extra 900 fs component as compared to that of at 650 nm. The extra component can be attributed to electron-trapping dynamics in ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle. Unlike the TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle system, electrons are injected into the defect states of the ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle, where trapping dynamics can play a major role. The injected electron can move to different trapping positions like from a shallow trap to deeper trap states. In the present investigation we observed that the BET kinetics in both BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> and BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> systems can be fitted multiexponentially, and it has been observed that the recombination reaction is much slower on the ZrO<sub>2</sub> surface. The strength of the coupling of the dye molecule with both nanoparticles governs the interfacial ET dynamics, both injection and BET. Rego et al.<sup>44</sup> demonstrated charge-transfer dynamics in catechol/TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoclusters after combining ab initio DFT molecular dynamics simulations and quantum dynamics calculations, which suggests that initially charges are localized near Ti<sup>4+</sup> surface ions which bind with the catechol adsorbate and eventually the charges delocalize through the nanocrystalline material. However, due to the strong coupling back-ET reaction can be facilitated. Wang et al.<sup>45</sup> carried out ultrafast transient absorption studies in a catechol/TiO<sub>2</sub> system where they reported a majority of the injected electrons recombine with the parent cation with a time constant  $\approx 400$  fs. Similarly, in the present investigation we also observed a 350 fs back-ET time constant in the BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> system. Interestingly, in the BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> system an ultrafast back-ET time constant is absent. Probably in the BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> system as the electron are injected directly in the trapped state so the injected electrons can also rapidly delocalize in different trapping positions with a distribution of trap energy and distance from the adsorbate. Earlier Hilgendorff and Sundstrom demonstrated that the distribution of energetically different trap sites for electrons could be responsible for multiexponential kinetics.<sup>42</sup> Similarly, we observed a slow multiexponential recombination reaction with time components from pico- to nanosecond.



## 5. CONCLUSION

We carried out ultrafast transient absorption studies (visible and near IR region) to study interfacial electron-transfer (both electron injection and back-ET) dynamics in baicalein-sensitized TiO<sub>2</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles. Steady-state absorption studies indicated the BIC molecule forms a charge-transfer complex with TiO<sub>2</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles through the pyrogallol and quinone moieties. A new red-shifted charge-transfer emission band was detected in the BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> system but not in the BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> system. Electron injection into the TiO<sub>2</sub> and ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles has been confirmed by monitoring the cation radical spectra at ~650 nm and injected electron in the nanoparticles in 750–1000 nm region in real time by transient absorption spectroscopy. The LUMO of BIC lies above the conduction band of TiO<sub>2</sub> but below the conduction band of ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, which has been confirmed by combined techniques of steady-state luminescence and cyclic voltametry. The appearance of a cation radical in the transient absorption spectra confirmed that electron injection can take place into the surface states of the ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticle. Electron injection in both nanoparticles takes place in pulse-width-limited (<120 fs) time. After electron injection in ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles, a majority of the injected electrons move into different trap states (both shallow and deep) with a trapping time of 900 fs. A back-electron-transfer reaction was found to take place much faster in the BIC–TiO<sub>2</sub> system as compared to that in BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub>. The slower back-electron-transfer of the BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> system can be attributed to a recombination reaction between the BIC cation radical and the surface-trapped electron (of different trap depth). In the present investigation we observed that strong CT complex formation facilitates electron injection in the surface states of ZrO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles.

## ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### ■ Supporting Information

High-resolution TEM images of ZrO<sub>2</sub> particle, steady-state optical absorption studies, and BH plot of baicalein in the presence of TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles; transient absorption spectrum of the cation radical of baicalein (uncorrected); steady-state emission spectra of BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> complex after exciting at 400 nm; emission decay trace of BIC–ZrO<sub>2</sub> complex after exciting at 400 nm. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org>.

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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