

# Stable and Recyclable Photocatalysts of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs Nanocomposites for Photoinduced Electron Transfer RAFT Polymerization

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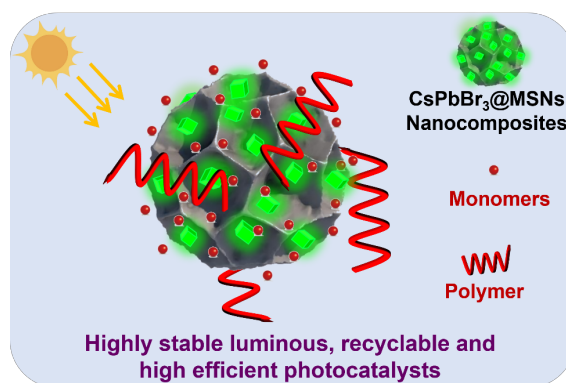
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**ABSTRACT:** All-inorganic metal halide perovskite CsPbX<sub>3</sub> (X = Cl, Br, I) nanocrystals (NCs) have demonstrated attractive optoelectronic characteristics. However, their photocatalytic properties are limited by their poor stability and easy recombination of photogenerated carriers.

Herein, we introduced the CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposite (CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> NCs embedded in dendritic mesoporous silica nanospheres-MSNs) as photocatalysts for efficient photo-induced electron transfer reversible addition-fragmentation chain transfer (PET-RAFT) polymerization. The CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals (~8.1 nm; PLQY of 62±2.1%) were embedded in dendritic MSNs using a nano-confinement strategy. PET-RAFT polymerization was successfully initiated using the CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposite as the photocatalyst. Reaction variables such as catalyst loading, monomer composition, and excitation light wavelengths, were varied to yield polymers with desired control of molecular weight and dispersity as well as block copolymers with high chain-end fidelity. In addition, perovskite-based photocatalysts could be readily separated and purified, which allowed effective and rapid recycling of the nanocomposites for multiple polymerization cycles.

## TOC GRAPHICS



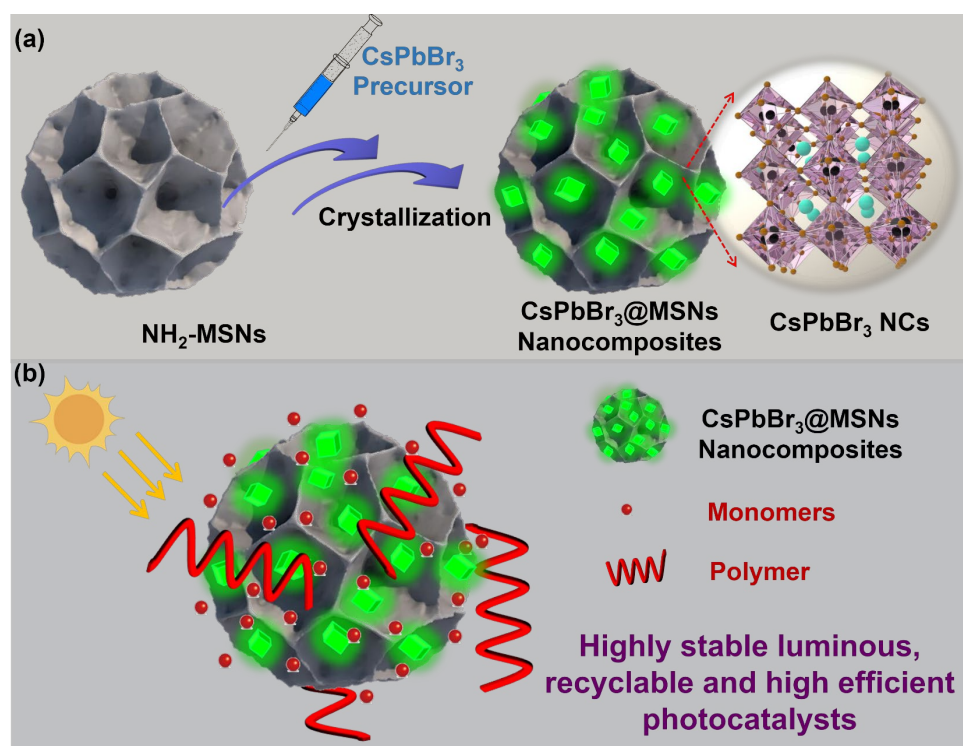
All-inorganic lead halide perovskite CsPbX<sub>3</sub> (X = Cl, Br, I) nanocrystals (NCs) have emerged as one of the promising candidates for optoelectronic applications, such as solar cells, light-emitting diodes, photodetectors, and lasers, which inspired growing interests to understand their excellent optoelectronic characteristics<sup>1-5</sup>. Aside from optoelectronic applications, the excellent

charge carrier transport properties, large absorption coefficients and adjustable band gaps render the perovskites as promising photocatalysts for chemical transformations, such as hydrogen generation, organic synthesis, CO<sub>2</sub> reduction, and radical polymerizations.<sup>6-10</sup>

Great interests have been devoted to advance photoinduced reversible-deactivation radical polymerizations (RDRP) for the preparation of macromolecules with multi-architectures, high spatial and temporal resolution, and precise chemical composition under mild reaction conditions.<sup>11-14</sup> Recent efforts in utilizing lead halide perovskite and perovskite-based nanocomposites for photo-driven radical polymerization have demonstrated comparable or superior catalytic properties to the traditional organic photocatalysts, metal complexes, and emerging semiconductors.<sup>15-18</sup> For example, the reductive potentials of excited CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> NCs and typical activated reversible addition-fragmentation chain transfer (RAFT) agents were -1.3 V and -0.3 to -0.8 V, respectively (versus a saturated calomel electrode, SCE).<sup>15, 19, 20</sup> The reductive potential of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> was sufficiently negative to activate typical RAFT agents, allowing the transfer of photogenerated electrons from NCs to the RAFT agents to induce RAFT polymerization.<sup>15, 21</sup> Therefore, CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> can be a potent photocatalyst for photo-induced electron transfer RAFT (PET-RAFT) polymerization. However, the instability of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> toward ultraviolet (UV) light, heat, and moisture led to NC degradation, PL loss, and poor optoelectronic efficiencies, which prevent its practical applications.<sup>22-25</sup>

To circumvent the inherent issues of perovskite nanocrystals, many approaches have been developed to encapsulate CsPbX<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals in protective matrices to improve their chemical and photostability.<sup>22, 26, 27</sup> Examples involve both inorganic constituents (such as Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, zeolite-Y, or silica) and polymer matrices (such as polyvinylidene fluoride, polymethylmethacrylate, polystyrene, or tailored block copolymers).<sup>28-31</sup> Among those, porous materials have attracted

particular interests for their ability to host inorganic perovskite nanocrystals inside porous matrices, such as the mesoporous TiO<sub>2</sub> framework, SiO<sub>2</sub> nanospheres (MSNs), and metal–organic frameworks (MOF).<sup>28, 32-34</sup> The fascinating characteristics of facile synthesis, controllable surface functionalization, tunable porous sizes, nontoxicity, and excellent stability render MSNs a promising matrix for hosting the confined growth of perovskite nanocrystals. It is envisioned that the use of MSNs host will not only facilitate the growth of surfactant-free perovskite NCs with controllable sizes and diverse compositions on a larger scale, but also imbue high photostability by effective spatial confinement and separation of the NCs.<sup>35-38</sup>



**Scheme 1.** (a) Schematic illustration of the *in-situ* formation and crystallization strategy of the CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites. (b) Illustration of PET-RAFT polymerization catalyzed by CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites.

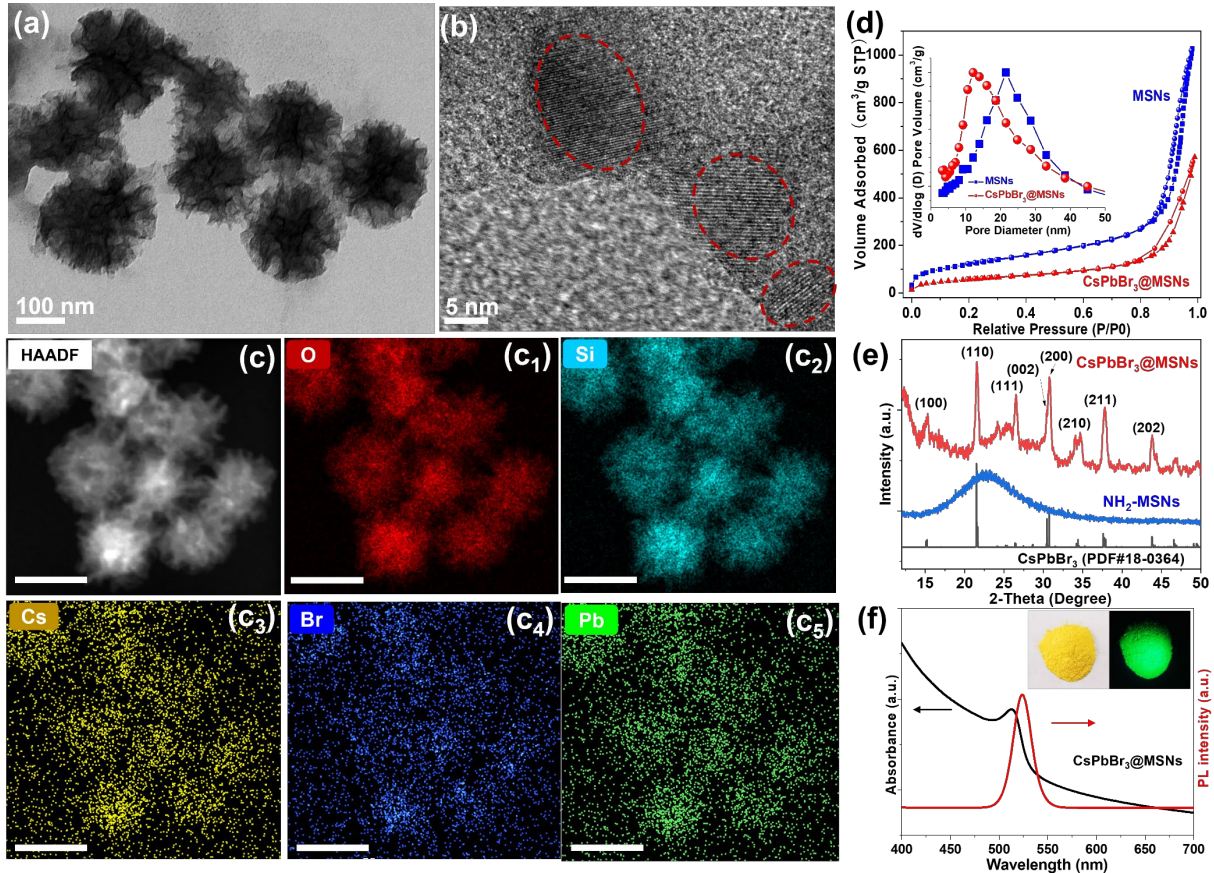
Herein, we have explored the use of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites as the photocatalysts for PET-RAFT polymerization (**Scheme 1**). The CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals were grown *in situ* in

dendritic mesoporous silica nanospheres using a nano-confinement strategy.<sup>35, 36</sup> PET-RAFT polymerization was performed with various catalyst loadings, excitation wavelengths, and monomers. The CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs composite has demonstrated excellent catalytic activity and photostability, making it a recyclable photocatalyst for successive PET-RAFT polymerization.

The CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs composites were synthesized following a modified nano-confinement strategy to grow CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> nanocrystals encapsulated within dendritic mesoporous silica nanospheres (MSNs) (**Scheme 1a**).<sup>35, 36</sup> Typically, we soaked the amino-modified mesoporous silica nanoparticles (NH<sub>2</sub>-MSNs) with a precursor solution of PbBr<sub>2</sub> and Cs<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> in DMSO. Surface amino-functionalized MSNs (NH<sub>2</sub>-MSNs) was analyzed by using infrared (IR) and XPS spectroscopy. Compared with the spectrum of MSNs, strong peaks at 2850/2925 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1500/1390 cm<sup>-1</sup> can be clearly observed of NH<sub>2</sub>-MSNs, which were ascribed to respective stretching and bending vibrations of -CH<sub>2</sub>-/-CH<sub>3</sub>, respectively. Besides, the stretching vibration of NH<sub>2</sub> groups can be detected at 3300 cm<sup>-1</sup>. XPS analysis further confirmed that the elemental composition of the final NH<sub>2</sub>-MSNs contained all the elements expected from amino groups and MSNs. IR and XPS spectroscopy verified the successful grafting of amino groups on the surface of MSNs (**Figure S1**). The alkylamine on MSNs served as surface ligands and coordinated the perovskite precursors (Pb<sup>2+</sup> or Cs<sup>+</sup>) to form nucleation points. The pre-saturated powder was heated at 120 °C for crystallization. A yellow powder was obtained and stored after drying under a vacuum. The production of nanocomposites can be facilely scaled up by proportionally increasing the quantity of precursors, from which the product can be obtained in >2 g scale in one pot (**Figure S2**).

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) revealed details of the CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposite morphologies (**Figure 1**). For amino-modified MSNs, a uniform spherical profile

with typical center-radial dendritic pore channels (diameter:  $\sim 200$  nm) was readily observed (**Figure S3**). Compared with pure  $\text{NH}_2$ -MSNs, the dendritic pores were filled with black dots, which demonstrated the occupation of the pore space by  $\text{CsPbBr}_3$  NCs (**Figure 1a**). Similar morphologies were observed at different locations under SEM characterization (**Figure S4**). We performed high-resolution (HR) TEM to confirm the  $\text{CsPbBr}_3$  NC formation inside the MSNs (**Figure 1b**). The resulting NCs (average diameter  $\sim 8$  nm) were observed as being uniformly distributed inside the mesoporous  $\text{SiO}_2$  channels (**Figure 1b**). HR-TEM also revealed that the NCs showed lattice spacings of standard  $\text{CsPbBr}_3$  crystal phases.<sup>1, 39</sup> Furthermore, all elements (O, Si, Cs, Pb, and Br) were readily detected and uniformly dispersed as seen in TEM-EDS elemental mappings, which confirmed  $\text{CsPbBr}_3$  NCs formation inside the mesoporous silica particles (**Figure 1c**).



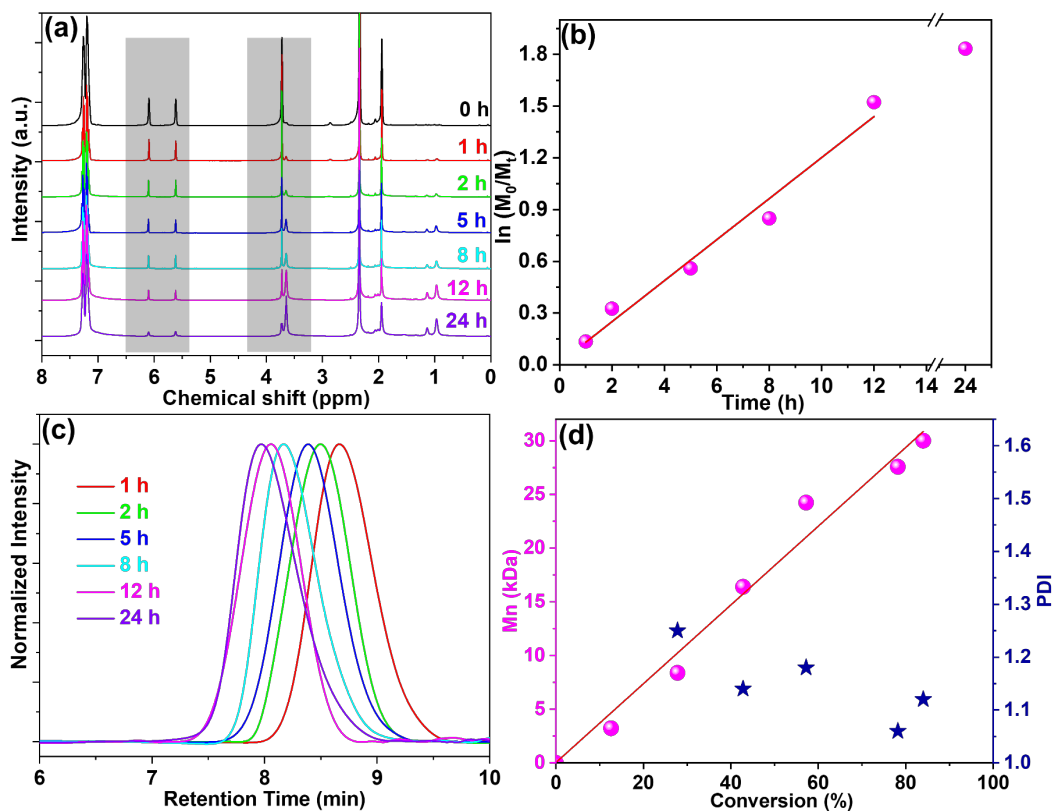
**Figure 1.** (a) TEM and (b) HR-TEM images of the CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites. (c) TEM elemental mapping profiles for O, Si, Cs, Br, and Pb. (d) N<sub>2</sub> adsorption-desorption isotherms of the MSNs and CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites. Inset in (d) shows the pore size distributions. (e) Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns of the CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites and the standard orthorhombic crystal structure of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> (PDF#18-0364). (f) PL and absorption spectra of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites. Insets in (f) are the optical photographs of bulk CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs powders under visible and UV light.

Furthermore, Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) isotherms (**Figure 1d**) indicated the decrease of pore mouth diameter (23 to 12 nm), surface area (484.81 to 132.41 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>) and pore volume (1.27 to 0.36 cc/g) of MSN after NC growth, which agreed well with TEM results to support the successful crystallization of the perovskites inside the NH<sub>2</sub>-MSNs. The crystal structures of the resulting CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites were identified by powder X-ray diffraction patterns (XRD) (**Figure 1e**). The CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs powder exhibited the typical orthorhombic phase structure of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> (JCPDF #18-0364).<sup>1, 40</sup> Notably, a broad peak derived from amorphous SiO<sub>2</sub> was observed between 20 and 27°. <sup>35, 36</sup> The elemental composition of the powder by XPS revealed all expected elements (Cs3d, C1s, Si2s, N1s, Pb4f, and Br3d) from both CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>2</sub>-MSNs (**Figures S5 and S6**). High resolution XPS analysis corresponding to N1s can be fitted with two peaks at 398 and 400 eV, which were attributed to the N-C and N-Pb coordination, respectively. Those results collectively confirmed the successful loading of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> NCs in the MSN matrices (**Scheme 1**).

The optical properties of the CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites were characterized by UV-Vis absorption and photoluminescence (PL) spectra. As expected, the nanocomposites showed bright

green fluorescence (inset in **Figure 1f**), a sharp PL maximum peak at 523 nm, and a  $62\pm 2.1\%$  PLQY value.

We investigated the catalytic performance of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs as a photocatalyst (PC) for PET-RAFT polymerization, using methyl methacrylate (MMA) and 2-(*n*-butyltrithiocarbonate) propionic acid (BTPA) as the prototypical monomer and chain transfer agent (CTA), respectively. The polymerization was conducted with various catalyst loadings (0–2.1 wt.%, **Figure S7**) relative to the monomer, and excitation lights (365 nm, 460 nm, visible light, and sun light, 10 mW/cm<sup>2</sup>) using toluene as the solvent, as shown in **Table 1** and **Figure S8**.



**Figure 2.** (a) <sup>1</sup>H-NMR spectra (solvent: Acetone-*d*<sub>6</sub>) of photopolymerized PMMA over time (7-7.5 ppm: the aromatic peaks from Toluene). (b) MMA monomer conversion kinetics under constant illumination in the presence of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs PC. (c) GPC profiles of the photopolymerized PMMA over time. (d) Molecular weights and polydispersity (PDI) of the photopolymerized



PMMA against monomer conversion.

It was observed that the fluidity of the reaction mixture decreased and the viscosity increased over time, consistent with polymer formation. To confirm chain end fidelity of the polymers, we purified the PMMA product (see details in Supporting Information) at different time interval and analyzed the chemical structure by  $^1\text{H-NMR}$  spectroscopy. In the  $^1\text{H-NMR}$  spectrum of MMA, the chemical shifts observed at 5.5–6.5 ppm and 3.65 ppm were attributed to the double bond and methoxy protons, respectively (**Figures 2a and S11**). As polymerization occurred, the intensity of both C=C and methoxy protons decreased while a new peak at 3.59 ppm, corresponding to the methoxy groups in PMMA, increased over time. The appearance of resonances of the RAFT agent between 7.5–8.2 ppm further confirmed PMMA formation by RAFT polymerization (**Figures S10–S12**).

**Figure 2** shows further details of the time-dependent living polymerization of MMA irradiated at 450 nm using  $\text{CsPbBr}_3@\text{MSNs}$  as the photocatalyst. The PMMA was sampled at different polymerization times and characterized by gel permeation chromatography (GPC). The polymerization kinetics was assessed by plotting  $\ln([M]_0/[M]_t)$  against time, which showed a first-order kinetic behavior (**Figure 2b**). Although it is difficult to compare the polymerization rate with that of QDs reported due to the different photocatalytic reaction conditions,  $\text{CsPbBr}_3@\text{MSNs}$  presented satisfying polymerization rate ( $0.126 \text{ h}^{-1}$ ) compared with that of the reported QDs (**Table S1**).<sup>41-44</sup> The MMA monomer conversion exceeded 84% after 24 h irradiation. The corresponding PDI was as low as 1.12, along with a number averaged molecular weight ( $M_n$ ) of 30 kDa as determined by GPC. **Figure 2c** shows GPC chromatograms of PMMA polymers over time (0–24 h), demonstrating symmetrical unimodal distributions. The correlation plot further demonstrated a linear molecular weight increase with MMA monomer conversion. All results validated the well-

controlled living nature of the RAFT polymerization of MMA under light irradiation.

Control experiments confirmed the impact of each reaction component, including various CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs loadings (or lack thereof), excitation light wavelengths (including dark conditions), monomers, as well as the CTAs (**Table 1**). No polymerization occurred in the dark or in the absence of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs, confirming the photocatalytic role of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs. Under the same irradiation time and wavelength, higher PC loading (from 0.6 to 2.1 wt.%) resulted in higher overall conversion rate and molecular weight (**Table 1**). In the absence of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs, polymerization did occur under 365 nm irradiation with 16.1% monomer conversion (Mn=6.0 kDa and PDI=1.41), possibly due to the CTA being photoactivated by UV light. However, the contribution to the polymerization conversion was far below that of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs. Visible light was the least effective for the polymerization (23.2 % and 7.8 kDa) while the highest conversion (92.5%, 32.3 kDa) occurred using 365 nm excitation.

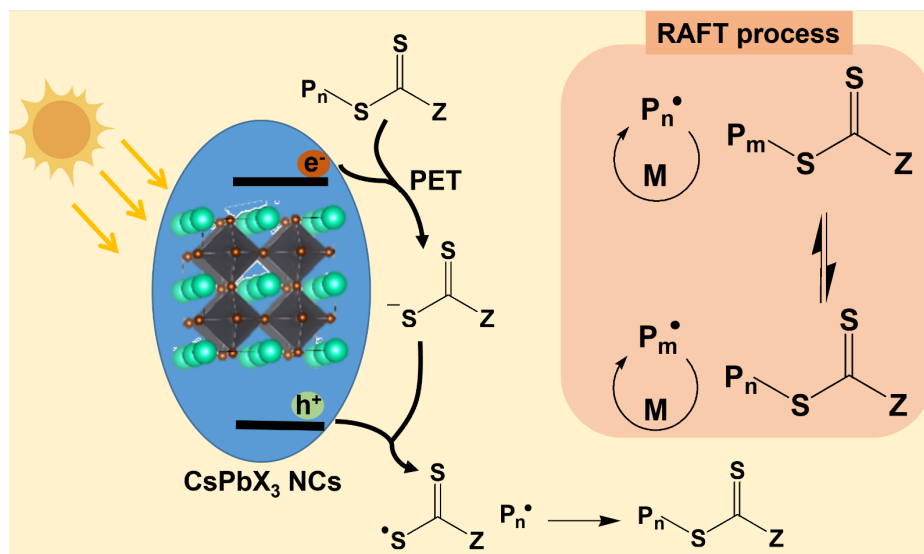
**Table 1.** Summary of polymerization outcomes using CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs catalyst with different monomers, catalyst loadings and light sources.

No.	Monomer <sup>a</sup>	Monomer:CTA	Catalyst (wt%) <sup>b</sup>	Light Sources <sup>c</sup>	Time (h)	Conversion (%) <sup>d</sup>	Mn (kDa) <sup>e</sup>	Mw/Mn (PDI) <sup>e</sup>
0	MMA	250:1	2.1	Dark	24	0	/	/
1	MMA	250:1	2.1	365 nm	24	92.5	32.3	1.13
2	MMA	250:1	0	365 nm	24	16.1	6.0	1.41
3	MMA	250:1	2.1	450 nm	24	84.0	30.0	1.12
4	MMA	250:1	2.1	Visible light	24	23.2	7.8	1.23
5	MMA	250:1	0	450 nm	24	Trace	/	/
6	MMA	250:1	0.6	450 nm	24	38.0	13.3	1.25
7	MMA	250:1	1.2	450 nm	24	52.6	21.5	1.18
8	MMA	250:0	2.1	450 nm	24	18.5	6.7	2.21
9	MMA	250:1	2.1	Sunlight	24	19.8	6.9	1.97
10	Styrene	250:1	2.1	450 nm	24	87.8	30.9	1.15
11	GMA	250:1	2.1	450 nm	24	78.4	31.4	1.21
12	FMA	250:1	2.1	450 nm	24	57.6	25.6	1.32
13	DFHM	250:1	2.1	450 nm	24	24.3	21.8	1.39
14	MA-POSS	250:1	2.1	450 nm	24	19.6	45.7	1.51

<sup>a</sup> GMA: glycidyl Methacrylate; FMA: trifluoroethyl methacrylate; DFHM: dodecafluoroheptane methacrylate; MA-POSS: methacrylate polyhedral oligomeric silsesquioxane. <sup>b</sup> Catalyst loadings were calculated relative to

the monomer (Figure S7). <sup>c</sup> Polymerizations performed in dark, under UV-LED (365 nm), blue-LED (460 nm), white-LED (Visible light) and sunlight. <sup>d</sup> Monomer conversion was calculated based on <sup>1</sup>H-NMR analysis. <sup>e</sup> Mn and Mw/Mn were determined by GPC.

Furthermore, we expanded the monomer scope to explore the versatility and generality of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs-based PCs for catalyzing PET-RAFT polymerization. Using CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs as PCs, polymerizations of styrene, glycidyl methacrylate and trifluoroethyl methacrylate monomers occurred readily with 87.8, 78.4 and 57.6 % conversion, respectively, giving rise to polystyrene, polyglycidyl methacrylate and polytrifluoroethyl methacrylate with Mns of 30.9 kDa (PDI of 1.15), 31.4 kDa (PDI of 1.21) and 25.6 ka (PDI of 1.32) (**Table 1 and Figure S13**). Polymerization of other acrylate monomers such as dodecafluoroheptane methacrylate (DFHM) and methacrylate polyhedral oligomeric silsesquioxane (MA-POSS) was also attempted; however, monomer conversion was lower than 25% with polydodecafluoroheptane methacrylate of a Mn=21.8 kDa (PDI=1.39), polymethacrylate polyhedral oligomeric silsesquioxane of a Mn=45.7 kDa (PDI=1.51), possibly due to the poor monomer activity and large steric demands. Despite those demanding monomers, successful polymerization of various monomers, low PCs loading, and a wide range of irradiation lights supported CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs as efficient PC for PET-RAFT polymerizations.



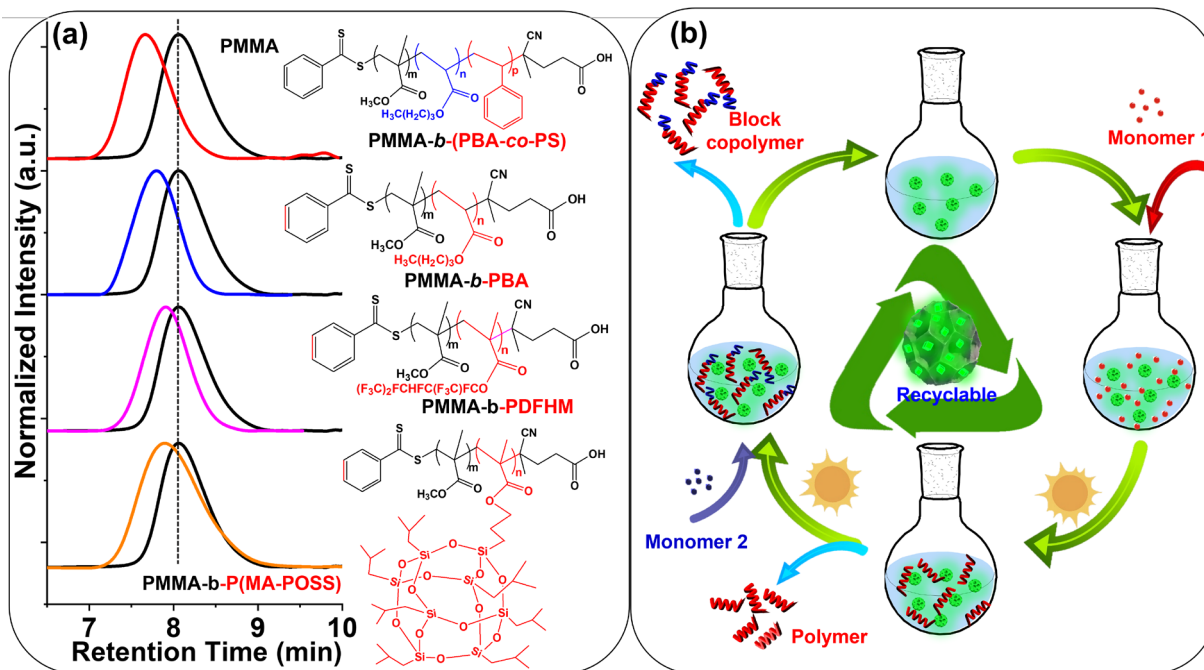
**Scheme 2.** Proposed mechanism for CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposite catalyzed PET-RAFT polymerizations.

To confirm the polymerization mechanism, we studied the fluorescence of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites while introducing RAFT agents. **Figure S9** shows the PL spectra of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites with different RAFT agent concentrations. CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposite alone featured a strong emission peak at 523 nm. However, introduction of RAFT led to the decrease of the corresponding PL intensity to 57% at 2.5% RAFT loading, and 8% at 10% RAFT loading. The PL quenching effect was ascribed to the transfer of photogenerated carriers from CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs to RAFT agents. This was consistent with the sufficiently negative CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> reduction potential (−1.3 V versus SCE) to RAFT agents (−0.3–(−0.8) V versus SCE).<sup>15,</sup>

19, 20

Combining the kinetic studies above and effective PL quenching of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs by RAFT agent (**Figure S9**), we proposed a photo-induced electron transfer reversible addition-fragmentation chain transfer mechanism to describe photo-polymerization (**Scheme 2**). An excited electron-hole pair initially formed within CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSN nanocomposites upon excitation with

blue light (450 nm). Facilitated by the matching reductive potentials between CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> and the RAFT agent, photoinduced electron transfer (PET) was initiated from the nanocrystal to the RAFT agent to give NC<sup>+</sup>, a radical polymer chain, and a reduced thiocarbonate (RAFT agents). The holes in perovskite nanocrystals deactivate the radicals and return to the ground state as part of the catalytic cycle. RAFT living chain growth polymerization were initiated thereafter.<sup>15</sup>

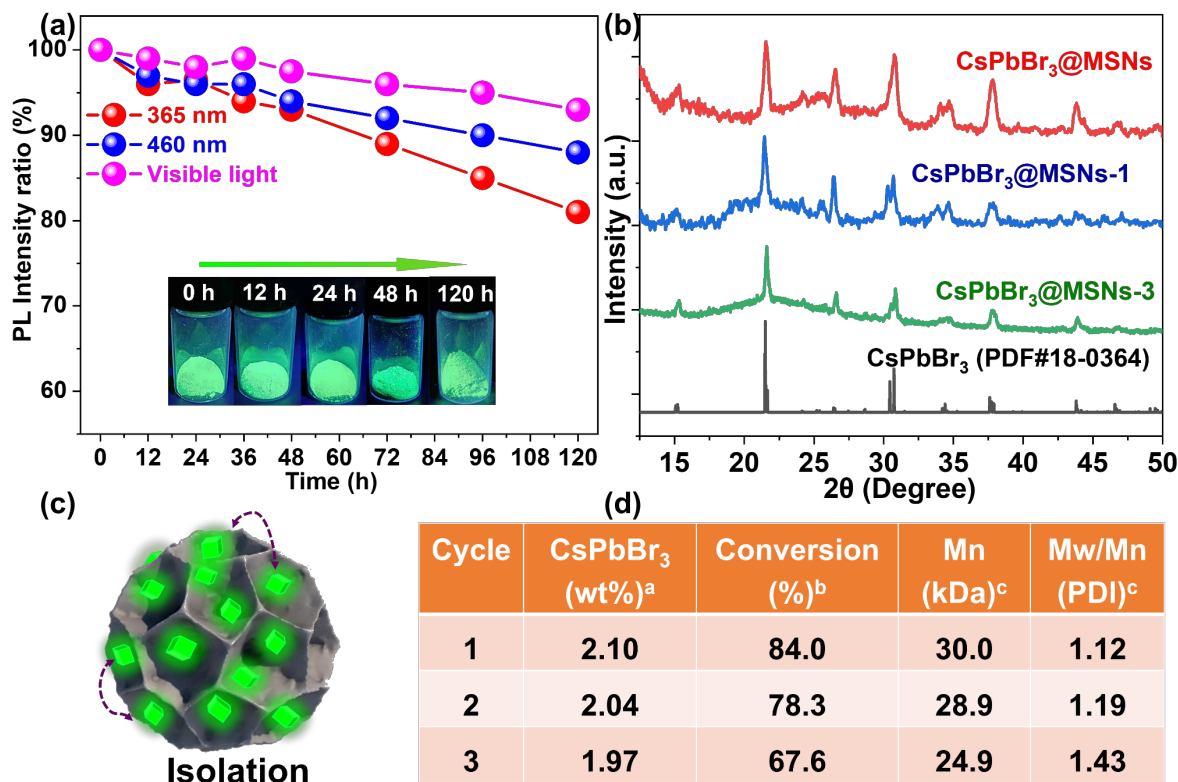


**Figure 3.** (a) GPC profiles of diblock copolymers from the reaction of PMMA macro chain transfer agents with BA, BA/styrene, DFHM, and MA-POSS. (b) Illustration of the procedures involving the easy separation and recycling of the CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs PCs.

To demonstrate polymerization activity, PMMA (M<sub>n</sub> = 16.4 kDa) from the photocatalyzed reaction was used as the macro chain transfer agent to react with styrene, butyl acrylate (BA), dodecafluoroheptane methacrylate (DFHM), or POSS-appended methacrylate monomer (MA-POSS) for the synthesis of di-block copolymers (**Figure 3a**). Copolymers of PMMA-*b*-PBA, PMMA-*b*-P(BA-co-PS), PMMA-*b*-P(MA-POSS), and PMMA-*b*-PDFHM were successfully obtained using CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites as the PCs, with the chemical structures

characterized by  $^1\text{H-NMR}$  spectroscopy (**Figures S14-17**). GPC profiles of all block copolymers clearly indicated chain extension. Compared to the PMMA macroinitiator ( $M_n=16.4$  kDa), the molecular weights of PMMA-*b*-PBA and PMMA-*b*-P(BA-co-PS) were increased to 32.2 kDa and 38.6 kDa, respectively, together with a narrow distribution ( $<1.2$ ), confirming the living character of the PMMA macroinitiator. For reactions with DFHM and MA-POSS monomers, the corresponding PMMA-*b*-PDFHM and PMMA-*b*-P(MA-POSS) polymers had lower  $M_n$  values (26.5 and 28.3 kDa) and larger molecular weight distributions (1.5-1.8), which were attributed to the low polymerization activity of DFHM and large steric demands/hindrances of MA-POSS.

Traditional photocatalysts would not only contaminate polymers with toxic metal ions, but also lead to polymer degradation.<sup>42</sup> Therefore, a vital aim of this study sought to achieve effective separation between the PCs and the final polymer without losing their successive catalytic efficiencies (**Figure 3b**). As a heterogeneous catalyst, the  $\text{CsPbBr}_3@$ MSNs nanocomposites could be easily separated from the polymerization reaction mixture via centrifugation (**Figures S18 and S19**), and be reused for successive polymerization. Another challenge in employing perovskite-based nanocomposites as PCs is their instability upon exposure to ultraviolet (UV) light, which induces NCs degradation or fusion.<sup>2, 22, 45</sup> By *in-situ* growing  $\text{CsPbBr}_3$  NCs inside the mesoporous silica nanospheres (MSNs), the ligand-free NCs embedded in the MSNs were spatially confined inside the MSNs and separated by the pore-wall, avoiding potential sintering between NCs under light irradiation (**Figure 4**).<sup>35, 36</sup>



**Figure 4.** (a) Relative PLQYs as a function of irradiation time under 365 nm, 460 nm, and visible light. Insets in (a) are the photographs of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites under 365 nm light over time. (b) Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites before and after three catalytic cycles, and of the standard crystal structure of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>. (c) Schematic illustration of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs composites. (d) Summary of the photocatalytic performance of the CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs PCs for PET-RAFT polymerization for three cycles. (Catalyst loadings were calculated relative to the monomer. <sup>b</sup> Monomer conversion was calculated based on <sup>1</sup>H-NMR analysis. <sup>c</sup> Mn and Mw/Mn were determined by GPC.)

The photostability of the CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites was evaluated by measuring the relative PL intensity under continuous light irradiation (365 nm, 460 nm, and visible light) over time (**Figure 4a and S20**). The relative PL intensity of fresh, non-encapsulated CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> NCs decreased dramatically, accompanied by a noticeable red-shift and was quenched completely

within 24 h due to the absence of a passivation matrix (**Figure S20**). For the CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites, the relative PL intensity after irradiation at 460 nm maintained 90% of the initial value after 120 h. When irradiated at 365 nm and visible light for 120 h, over 80% and 95% of the initial PL intensities were retained, respectively. The greatly improved stability is consistent with the conceptual design that the perovskite nanocrystals are spatially isolated by the MSN pore-walls, preventing fusion between NCs by heat or light, which has been similarly demonstrated by other encapsulation methods using inorganic or polymer matrixes (**Figure 4c**).<sup>31, 35, 46</sup>

As mentioned, the CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites could be easily separated from the polymerization reaction mixture via centrifugation (**Figures S18 and S19**) and be reused for successive polymerization. After the second cycle polymerization, a slight catalytic efficiency decrease (78.3 % conversion) was observed, resulting in a lower conversion rate with comparable Mn and PDI (**Figure 4d**). A conversion of 67.6 % was observed after the third polymerization cycle, with a PDI of 1.43. PXRD studies revealed that the nanocomposites remained the same crystal structure despite slight decrease of crystallinity after three polymerization cycles (**Figure 4**). Despite the slightly decreased catalytic activity, the demonstrated catalytic conversion and recyclability is superior to other quantum dot based photocatalysts,<sup>42, 43</sup> which again supports the greatly enhanced stability of the CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> NCs via MSN encapsulation.

Perovskite-based CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites were prepared and served as efficient PET-RAFT polymerization photocatalysts. The highly luminescent CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs nanocomposites were synthesized in large-scale by growing CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> NCs in mesoporous silica nanospheres (MSNs), which yielded CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> NCs with a size of ~8.1 nm, and a 62±2.1% PLQY. PET-RAFT polymerizations were successfully achieved using various monomers, excitation lights, and catalyst loadings, to yield polymers with excellent control over dispersity and MWs, as well as



block copolymers with high chain-end fidelity. In addition, the perovskite-based photocatalysts were highly stable to light irradiation. It could be readily separated and purified from the polymerization reaction while retaining high catalytic efficiency, which allowed rapid and effective recycling of the nanocomposites for multiple polymerization cycles. We believe the excellent photocatalytic properties of the perovskite nanocomposites lay the foundation for further exploring their practical applications for polymeric materials synthesis. It is worth noting that, however, there are rooms for further improvement of the photocatalytic performance, such as the environmental stability to humidity, oxygen, and temperature; rational design of effective perovskite-based heterostructures and lead-free perovskites; and exploration of its use in other chemical transformations.

### **Supporting Information**

Materials and chemicals, synthesis approach of MSNs and CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs, photo-polymerization process; stability tests, characterization methods, TEM and SEM images, IR and XPS spectra of MSNs, NH<sub>2</sub>-MSNs, and CsPbBr<sub>3</sub>@MSNs, proposed mechanism for PET-RAFT polymerizations, <sup>1</sup>H-NMR spectra of the RAFT and the photopolymerized PMMA, PS, PGMA, PFMA, PMMA-*b*-PBA, PMMA-*b*-(PBA-*co*-PS), PMMA-*b*-PDFHM, PMMA-*b*-P(MA-POSS), optical photograph of the photocatalytic equipment, the catalysts before and after polymerization, relative PL intensity of CsPbBr<sub>3</sub> NCs. 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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