

SYNTHESIS, CHARACTERIZATION, AND LIGHTING APPLICATIONS OF  
GROUP 11 METALLOPOLYMERS WITH TUNABLE  
PHOSPHORESCENCE

A THESIS

SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE  
DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE  
IN THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF THE  
TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES

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DECEMBER 2009

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August 21, 2009

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## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Thanks foremost are due to God, the most merciful, and the compassionate, for all the blessings that He has given me. My special thanks go to Dr. Manal Omary, my MS dissertation advisor, for her guidance, tutelage, patience and support throughout this endeavor. Her wisdom, enthusiasm, and encouragement only add to the great scientific experience that Dr. Omary has. She is like a big sister to whom I will always be appreciative of her scientific advice and personal friendship. I would like to thank the Omary group members for their support and friendship. I also thank my advisory committee for their feedback and suggested corrections and improvements for the dissertation. Special thank goes to Dr. Mohammad Omary for his support and advice throughout this thesis. I wish to thank all of Dr. Mohammad group for their help especially Gustavo Salazar and Roy MacDonald. Also special thanks to Prof. Khalil Alasali (Jordan University of Science and Technology) because of whom I pursued my graduate study. I would like to thank my colleague and good friend Priya vasabhaktula for her friendship, special thanks to Dr. Oussama elbjermi and his wife suha and lovely children Sarah and Yousef, but certainly not last, my deepest gratitude goes to my parents (Daifalla and Amina), my brothers and sisters along with their families, for their constant encouragement and ample compassionate support in my attainment of this goal to obtain a MS in chemistry.

## ABSTRACT

MAHIR ALRASHDAN

### SYNTHESIS, CHARACTERIZATION, AND LIGHTING APPLICATIONS OF GROUP 11 METALLOPOLYMERS WITH TUNABLE PHOSPHORESCENCE

DECEMBER 2009

This thesis with it 66 pp., 3 tables, 26 Figures and references is a study of group 11 monovalent metallopolymers. Three major chapters that involve synthetic strategies to obtain and enhance the phosphorescence of luminescent metallopolymer have been investigated. The first chapter includes an introduction to photoluminescence, luminescent group 11 monovalent complexes, metallopolymers and their application as light emitting diodes. The second chapter includes the photophysical properties of the gold (I) metallopolymers, which have been investigated and found to exhibit Au-centered tunable phosphorescence. The third chapter includes the photophysical properties of the silver (I) and copper(I) metallopolymer, which have been investigated as less-expensive alternatives to Au(I) analogues and found to exhibit metal-centered phosphorescence. The spectroscopic and materials properties of all metallopolymers are compared and contrasted versus the metal ion, ligands in the metal precursor.

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## CHAPTER I

### Introduction

This thesis is a study of the synthesis and spectroscopic features of group 11 based metallopolymers. Chapter one presents a literature review of the relevant topics. Section 1.1 describes the photoluminescence processes. Section 1.2 addresses the spectroscopy of small coordination compounds of group 11 monovalent ions (Au(I), Ag(I) and Cu(I)) in general. Section 1.3 is an overview of metallopolymers and their advantages in luminescent devices. Section 1.4 emphasizes on the role of group 11 metallopolymers in fabrication of polymer light emitting diodes (PLEDs). Finally section 1.5 discusses how this thesis attempts to address the approach used to synthesize the group 11 monovalent luminescent metallopolymers and possibly incorporate them into devices.

#### *1.1 Introduction to Photoluminescence.*

Photoluminescence is a radiative photophysical process that includes fluorescence and phosphorescence emissions of light, due to photophysical process whereby the molecule returns to its ground structure intact (as opposite to photochemistry where a permanent structural change takes place), Fluorescence results from a radiative transition between two electronic states of the same spin multiplicity<sup>1-4</sup>, while phosphorescence occurs due to the radiative transition between two states of different spin multiplicity<sup>1,5,6</sup>. For a photophysical transition to occur, a discrete quantity of light (photon) of the appropriate wavelength and energy should be absorbed. This will cause the molecule to

gain an excess energy, and result in the formation of an energetically unstable state (electronic excited state) relative to the ground state of the molecule. The excited molecule may consequently undergo a chemical reaction, or just use its energy by a photophysical sequences of deactivations by non-radiative and radiative processes<sup>7</sup>. Figure1 represents a Jablonski diagram which illustrates all possible non-radiative and radiative routes of phototransition processes of typical organic molecular. The excited molecule can go in an internal conversion process that involves the dissipation of energy of the molecule to the surrounding in a nonradiative process.

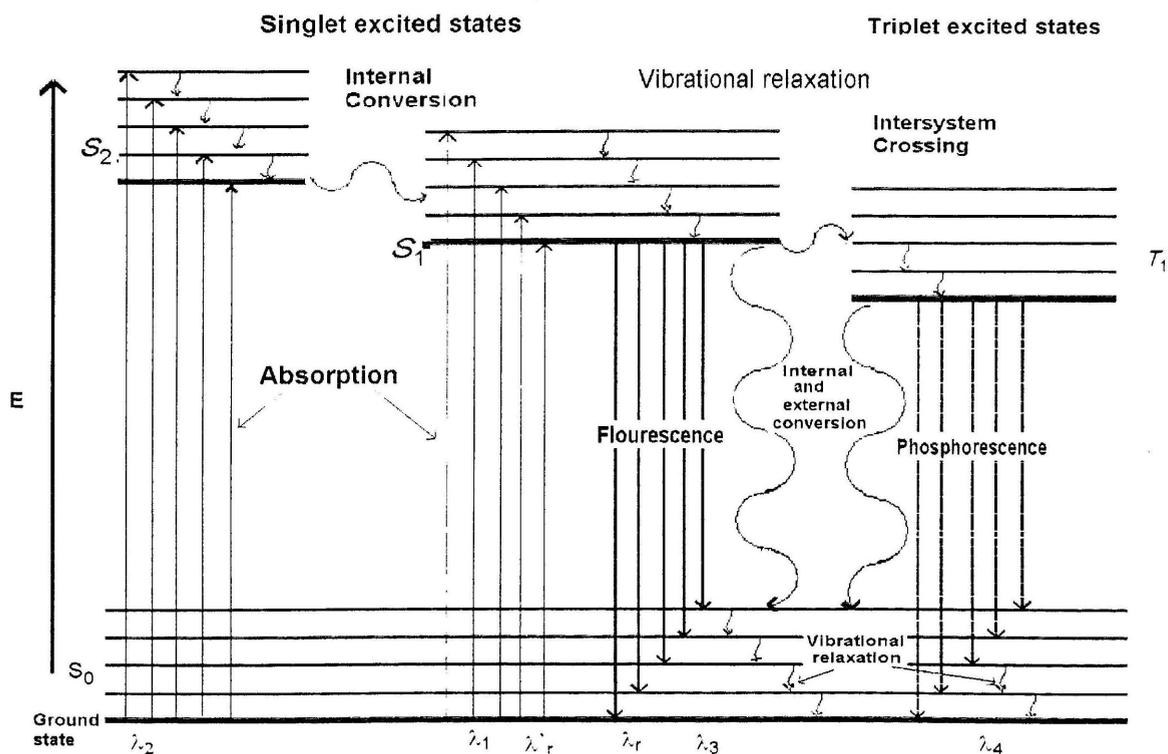


Figure 1. Partial energy level diagram for a photoluminescent system. It illustrates all possible non-radiative and radiative routes of phototransition processes of typical organic molecules.<sup>8</sup>

The radiative transitions that result are allowed, or forbidden, depending on whether they obey certain factors known as the selection rules. In general, the selection rules are governed by spin multiplicity; for example, the forbidden transition is relatively slow and is featured by its relatively long lifetime, which can continue for several seconds for typical organic molecules in a process called phosphorescence. Spin selection rules (by which phosphorescence is forbidden and fluorescence is allowed) can be violated in the presence of significant spin-orbit coupling as is observed for group 11 monovalent ions. A spin forbidden triplet to singlet transition is quite common in multiple classes of gold compounds and other heavy metal complexes that exhibit bright phosphorescence<sup>7,9</sup>. It can be dramatically accelerated for Au (I) heavy metal complexes<sup>5</sup> due to the large spin-orbit coupling in this very heavy molecule ( $\xi = 5100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ).

The efficiency of the luminescent transitions is measured by the quantum yield value (QY)<sup>10,11</sup>, which is defined as the ratio of the emissive photons to excited ones<sup>10</sup>(see Eq.1). The importance of this value is considered to be highly profound<sup>12</sup> because not only does it determine the relative brightness among different luminescent materials, but is also involved in calculating of quenching rate constants ( $k_q$ ), energy transfer rate, and radiative and nonradiative rate constants ( $k_r$  and  $k_{nr}$ , respectively)<sup>12</sup>. This determination gives more comprehensive quantitative assessment of the photophysical behavior of a given luminescent material. The photoluminescence (PL) value can be influenced by several factors such as temperature, rigidity of the system, presence of water, molecular oxygen, transition metals and/or other quenchers or sensitizers<sup>10,13</sup>. When measuring the QY, one should take into consideration the inner

filter effect, the purity of the sample, complete solubility of liquid samples and uniformity of solid samples, polarization, scattering and finally the photostability of the luminescent compound<sup>3,14</sup>, due to which erroneous and miscalculated values of the QY could be obtained. Equation 1 permits a qualitative interpretation of many of the structural and environmental factors that influence QY value ( $\Phi$ ).

$$\Phi = \frac{\text{number of photons emitted}}{\text{number of photons absorbed}} = \frac{k_r}{(k_r + k_{nr})} \quad \text{Eq. 1}^8$$

### *1.2 Spectroscopic Properties of Group 11 Monovalent Ions.*

Group 11 monovalent complexes have gained interest among researchers, due to their remarkable photochemistry and further application in the areas of photonics<sup>15,16,17</sup>. Group 11 transition metals have the tendency of forming metallophilic interactions between the metal ions generally named M—M interactions<sup>18</sup>. This has proven to be responsible for many electronic properties of group 11 monovalent ions compounds. These metal ions form a triplet excited state which can be attributed to the fact that their heavy atomic mass allows the spin-orbital coupling<sup>19</sup>. It is hard to determine whether the low energy electronic transitions in group 11 are due to M—M interaction or to low lying excited states of the metal especially for Au(I) and Cu(I). In either case, significant mixing with ligand orbitals usually takes place in such primarily metal-centered transition. Ligand –centered transition can also take place in some instances whereby the role of the metal is to provide spin-orbital coupling sensitization for the structured ligand phosphorescence<sup>20-22</sup>.

The van der Waals radii values are used to determine whether M—M interactions exist in coordination compounds of group 11 monovalent ions. Table 1 lists the values of the van der Waals and covalent radii for the three metal ions of group 11. If the experimental M—M distance is lower than the value of summed van der Waals radii of the two metals, then it is an indication of the presence of M—M interaction, as rule of thumb. However, it has often been suggested that these radii are not strict requirements for the presence of metallophilic interaction<sup>23,24</sup>. In general, intermolecular distances between M<sup>I</sup> centers up to 3.6-3.8 Å may qualify as metallophilic interactions in term of a lower limit. While such long distances may not significantly influence the absorption energies, they can cause significant red shifts in the phosphorescent excited state on which excimeric bonding leads to shrinking of the ground state M—M distances<sup>23,25,26</sup>.

Table 1.

*Values of van der Waals  $r_{vdw}$  and covalent  $r_{cov}$  radii of group 11 M<sup>I</sup> ions<sup>27</sup>.*

Element	$r_{vdw}^{16}, \text{Å}$	$r_{cov}^{22}, \text{Å}$
Cu	1.4	1.11
Ag	1.7	1.34
Au	1.7	1.25

The geometry of group 11 monovalent complexes is considerably profound in their photophysical properties. For example, Au(I) complexes most commonly exist as linear Au(I)L<sub>2</sub> (L = ligand) species; however Au(I)L<sub>3</sub> and Au(I)L<sub>4</sub> species are also known<sup>28</sup>, the photoluminescence properties of these species differ from one coordination mode to

another. For example, Au(I)L<sub>2</sub> complexes display luminescence only in the presence of Au...Au (aurophilic) interactions<sup>29,30</sup>, while Au(I)L<sub>3</sub> complexes exhibit luminescence with or without Au...Au interactions<sup>30</sup>.

Rawashdeh-Omary and coworkers<sup>23,31,32</sup> illustrated that varying the metal in cyclic trinuclear complexes of Cu(I), Ag(I) and Au(I) led to distinct variation in the solid state stacking and photophysical properties of those complexes. Some of them show remarkable photoluminescence tuning across the entire visible region; this tuning can be caused by exposure to a volatile organic solvent, varying the temperature, medium rigidity, concentration and/or excitation wavelength. For example, the {[3,5-(CF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>Pz]Cu}<sub>3</sub><sup>32</sup> complex exhibits bright orange luminescence at room temperature in solid state. The crystal structure of the complex reveals two types of M—M distances, namely inter- and intra-molecular averaging 3.232 and 3.886 Å, respectively, and infinite zigzag chains of copper trimer due to the weak intermolecular interaction. Only the long intermolecular interaction between the copper trimer units is responsible for the luminescence activity despite the van der Waals summed radii indicating metal centered (<sup>3</sup>MC) excimeric triplet state, as initially hypothesized based on spectroscopic data by Rawashdeh-Omary et al<sup>33,34</sup> and then later substantiated both computationally<sup>35</sup> and experimentally<sup>36</sup> via excited state crystallography. The complex [Au<sub>3</sub>(CH<sub>3</sub>N=COCH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub>], on other hand, exhibits low-energy yellow luminescence that can be exhibited upon solvent contact without light in previously irradiated samples (called “solvo luminescence”)<sup>37,38</sup>. This phosphorescence is due to intermolecular Au—Au distance close in value to the van der Waals distance in oligomers and extended stacks<sup>37</sup>. In

another example, Dias et al<sup>39, 40-42</sup> reported several trinuclear silver(I) complexes of fluorinated pyrazolate compounds such as {[3-(CF<sub>3</sub>)Pz]Ag}<sub>3</sub>, {[3-(CF<sub>3</sub>),5-(CH<sub>3</sub>)Pz]Ag}<sub>3</sub>, {[3-(CF<sub>3</sub>),5-(Ph)Pz]Ag}<sub>3</sub>, {[3-(CF<sub>3</sub>),5-(But)Pz]Ag}<sub>3</sub>, and {[3-(C<sub>3</sub>F<sub>7</sub>),5-(But)Pz]Ag}<sub>3</sub>. All of these complexes, crystals show argentophilic intermolecular interaction between the silver atoms with an average distance of 3.390 Å. This distance was slightly longer than the van der Waals distances which seem to be influenced by the steric repulsions between the pyrazolyl ring substituents.

The Lewis acid base chemistry of these complexes is also “interesting” since it has an effect on their photophysical properties and solid state stacking<sup>22,31,43-47</sup> causing the tunable emission across the visible region. For example, facial interface of {[3,5-(CF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>Pz]Ag}<sub>3</sub> complex with naphthalene led to the formation of the adduct Ag-naphthalene, which exhibits phosphorescence corresponding to T<sub>1</sub> monomer emission of naphthalene. Solid samples of this adduct exhibit bright-green phosphorescence at room temperature with an 830 μs lifetime while cooling to cryogenic temperatures shows increases in the intensity, lifetime, and vibronic resolution. The crystal structure of the adduct reveals an Ag-naphthalene distance of 3.00 Å, which is very close to the Ag-C van der Waals summed radii (3.42 Å). The relatively short phosphorescence lifetime of the adduct than the naphthalene alone, is caused by external heavy-atom effect of silver atoms. In another example, the gold trimer [Au<sub>3</sub>((p-tolyl)N=C(OEt))<sub>3</sub>] with Lewis bases like C<sub>10</sub>F<sub>8</sub> leads to the formation of π Lewis acid-base stacking of long-chain structures<sup>48</sup>. The Au—Au distance in the gold-adduct was longer than the gold trimer, alone (3.5 Å versus 3.25 Å, respectively). The resulting phosphorescent emission at room

temperature was assigned to  $T_1$  state monomer emission of the  $C_{10}F_8$ . The reduction of lifetime and the emission energy of naphthalene phosphorescence is caused by the external heavy atom effect of the gold atoms.

### *1.3 Overview of Metallopolymers and their Advantages.*

The first attempt to use polymer in light emitting devices was initiated by the discovery of the first luminescent polymer in 1989 at Cambridge University<sup>49</sup>. However, the efficiency of the initial devices was very low<sup>50</sup>. Since then metallopolymers have attracted the interest of many researchers because they combine the physical and mechanical characteristics of polymers with the electrical and optical properties of transition metal complexes<sup>51</sup>. For example, using phosphorescent metal complexes instead of organic fluorophores in organic light emitting diodes (OLEDs)<sup>52-54</sup> has revolutionized that technology so the hope is that a transformational change upon using phosphorescent metallopolymers instead of fluorescent polymer in PLEDs. Particularly, the potential use of these materials in light-emitting diodes, photovoltaic cells, and other optoelectronic devices has motivated the development of synthesis of metallopolymer materials with unique properties<sup>55</sup>. The electronic characteristics of these materials are primarily controlled by the nature of the molecular conjugation, but intermolecular interactions also exert a significant influence on the macroscopic material properties<sup>53</sup>.

The typical methods of synthesizing metallopolymers was by using a doped polymer with luminophorous transition metals<sup>49,56</sup>. Recently, a new development has been introduced to the field by coupling transition metal complexes to backbone of

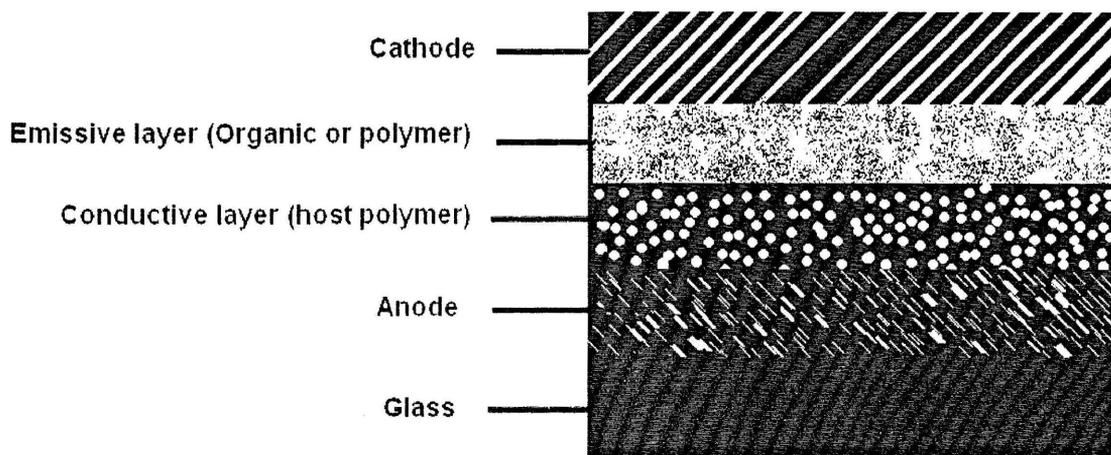
polymers to give hybrid materials in which the properties of the metal complex may be joined to those of the conjugated polymers<sup>57</sup>. This high charge carrier mobility of the polymer may be coordinated with emitting metal groups. This can result in enhanced photophysical properties and superior device performance<sup>58</sup>.

Metallopolymers have a number of advantages over small molecules in the fabrication of electroluminescent devices. For instance, they are mechanically flexible, and can be easily fabricated by techniques such as ink-jet printing versus sublimation methods used for fabrication of OLEDs, where a layer of small molecule emitters have to be vapor deposited onto devices at high temperatures. This can result in undesirable decomposition of the materials or crystallization problems. Furthermore, the color emitted from the polymeric materials can be readily customized by modifying the chemical structure, and this offers a distinct advantage over the use of traditional inorganic semiconductors.

#### *1.4 Polymer Light Emitting Diodes.*

The superior performance of Polymer Light Emitting Diodes (PLEDs) in terms of contrast, thinness, brightness, low power consumption, response speed, and viewing angle has been attracting scientist's attention in recent years. The technology is very energy efficient and lends itself to the creation of ultra-thin lighting displays that will operate at lower voltages. They have simpler device structures making it easier to fabricate by simple methods like room temperature processing with inkjet printing or spin coating versus high-vacuum

and high-temperature sublimation methods use for OLEDs. In addition, they have better performance in aspect of both charge transport and charge injection. Their technology is set to transform the display industry with its superior imaging performance<sup>15,17,59</sup>, compact and lightweight properties<sup>60</sup>. It looks set to replace liquid crystal displays (LCDs) and cathode ray tubes (CRTs) in many existing applications. Figure 2 is an illustration of the basic structure of a PLED device which consists of several layers, each performing a specific function such as charge injection, charge transport and emissive light layer.



*Figure 2.* Basic Structure of PLEDs devices. Layers from top to bottom Cathode, Emissive Layer, Conductive Layer, Anode and Substrate<sup>58</sup>.

Existing PLEDs often make use of electronically luminescent polymers which have inherent fluorescence. Typical organic materials have the non-luminescent triplet state. The presence of metal complexes (due to a strong spin orbit coupling) can display

a rapid intersystem crossing from lowest excited singlet state to lowest triplet state which often has a significantly short phosphorescence lifetime. Thus, we can observe the formation of excited singlet and triplet states thus resulting in luminescence<sup>55,61</sup>.

A typical PLED consists of a thin layer of an undoped fluorescent conjugated polymer sandwiched between two electrodes on top of a glass substrate. The polymer is spin coated on top of a patterned indium-tin-oxide(ITO)bottom electrode which forms the anode and an evaporated Ca\Al metals layer is used as a cathode<sup>62</sup>. Appreciable efficiencies have been obtained by using transition metal complexes as emissive species. In hydrocarbon materials, the excited triplet states are typically nonemissive due the spin-forbidden nature of  $T_1 \leftrightarrow S_0$  transitions, thereby limiting the internal electroluminescence efficiency to a maximum of 25%<sup>63,64</sup>. In principle, this major drawback can be overcome by significant spin-orbit coupling due to a heavy atom. Applying transition-metal complexes and organic luminophores into solid-state OLED devices has become an exciting field in recent years<sup>65-67</sup>. OLED designs are typically based on small molecules, like polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, or some polymers. The advantage of phosphorescent light-emitting materials is that they harness emission from both the singlet and triplet excited states generated via electroluminescence so it is possible to achieve OLEDs with 100% internal quantum efficiency whereas in fluorescent material there is a four-fold loss in the efficiency if photoluminescence efficiency was the same as that of the a phosphorescent molecule.<sup>17,52 68</sup>.

### *1.5 The Rationale of This Thesis.*

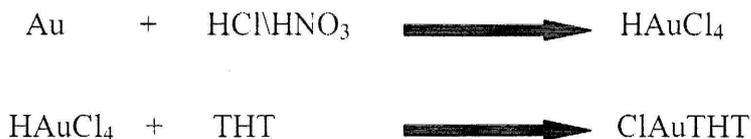
Throughout the duration of this research, we have made an effort to synthesize and characterize strongly luminescent metallopolymers for the goal of use in PLEDs or other optoelectronic applications. The presence of a transition metal will activate the triplet state. Thus, instead of physical doping, we will focus on coordinating the metal to polymer to activate the triplet state and increase efficiency. Our strategy mainly focuses on coordination of  $\sigma$  donor polymer to  $\sigma$  acceptor metal complex which may lead to novel class of phosphorescent metallopolymers. By altering the ligands, the metal and the polymer, we will be able to control their electronic and photophysical properties. In this thesis, we have tried coordinating a polymer like Poly(4-vinylpyridene) to various metal complexes with various ligands to obtain the new phosphorescent metallopolymers. A direct  $\sigma$ -coordination to a heavy metal takes place for suitable polymer of heterocyclic aromatic chromospheres, as they can undergo direct bonding to metal through the available lone pair on the N atoms. The resulting phosphorescent metallopolymers may have the interesting spectral properties of the small metal complexes mentioned earlier in section 1.2, along with the desirable photophysical and material properties of the polymer.

CHAPTER II  
THE SYNTHESIS, CHARACTERIZATION, AND SPECTROSCOPIC  
MEASUREMENTS OF MONOVALENT GOLD (I)  
METALLOPOLYMERS

Direct coordination of gold (I) moieties to a  $\sigma$  donating polymer leads to a new class of monovalent gold(I) metallopolymers with fascinating photophysical properties, attributed in part to the ability of gold to form aurophilic bonding. The following chapter discusses the synthesis and the photophysical characterization of this new class of monovalent gold(I) metallopolymers. Section 2.1 covers in detail the synthetic methods of the gold(I) metallopolymers. Section 2.2 contents a description of the instruments used to characterize and collect the photophysical spectra of the gold(I) metallopolymers and present the chemical and materials used in the synthesis. Section 2.3 discusses the spectroscopic measurements obtained for the gold(I) metallopolymers in terms of emission, excitation, lifetime and QY for some of gold(I) metallopolymers. Finally section 2.4 summarizes the main conclusions and the prospective future directions about this project.

## 2.1 Synthesis

### 2.1.1 Synthesis of ClAuTHT



With slight modification to literature methods<sup>69-71</sup>, 12 ml of aqua regia ( 9 ml of HCl and 3 ml of HNO<sub>3</sub> ) was added to 1.8 g of gold metal and stirred until complete dissolving . While the temperature was maintained at 70°C, four measured additions of 1 mL of concentrated HCl were added every 30 min. After 2 h the solution was cooled to room temperature by addition of 50 mL mixture of 20 ml of ethanol and 30 ml of water. Four ml of tetrahydrothiophene was added to the solution and stirred for 30 min. The color change from golden yellow to orange solution was followed by the formation of white precipitate. The reaction mixture was filtered and washed with 30 ml of cold methanol and 30 ml of cold diethylether. It was finally dried by reduced pressure for 2 hours, A white crystalline solid was collected (90% yield ) . The product was kept in the refrigerator and stored in a dark place. This gave us a white solid (yield 92 %) mp 60°C.

### 2.1.2 Synthesis of PVP AuCl.



PVP AuCl was prepared by reacting ClAuTHT with a corresponding stoichiometric ratio with PVP in dichloromethane at room temperature. The reaction occurs instantly and as clearly evidenced by the formation of a white precipitate and the

appearance of a bright green-blue luminescent product upon mixing the non-luminescent starting materials. The product was filtered and washed with dichloromethane to remove any unreacted PVP. FT-IR (KBr pellet):  $\nu = 1615 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=N),  $\nu = 3040 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=C-H aromatic). The gold content in the metallopolymer was determined via thermal gravimetric analyses (TGA). Thus, gold content was found to be 53% which corresponds to 91% of PVP occupied.

### 2.1.3 Synthesis. Of $[Au(C_6F_5)PVP]$ Metallopolymer.



$[Au(C_6F_5)THT]$  was prepared according to literature method<sup>72</sup>. PVP (0.046 g, 0.442 mmol) was added to a solution of  $[Au(C_6F_5)THT]$  (0.200 g, 0.442 mmol) in dichloromethane (20 mL). The reaction occurs instantly and as clearly evidenced by the formation of a white precipitate. The reaction mixture was stirred for 2 h and evaporated to dryness under vacuum. Addition of 20 mL of diethylether followed by filtration led to a white solid (yield 59 %). Gold analysis (% wt): 35.55 %, that corresponds to 84% of occupied positions in the polymer. <sup>1</sup>H NMR (400 MHz, d<sub>6</sub>-DMSO),  $\delta$  1.48 (bs, 2H, -CH<sub>2</sub>-), 6.97 (bs, H3, H5 Py ring) and 8.37 ppm (bs, H2, H6, Py ring) FT-IR (Nujol mulls):  $\nu = 1615 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=N),  $\nu = 1504, 955, 806 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Au-C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>5</sub>).

### 2.1.4 Synthesis. Of $[Au(C_6Cl_5)PVP]$ Metallopolymer.



[Au(C<sub>6</sub>Cl<sub>5</sub>)THT] was prepared according to literature method<sup>72</sup>. PVP(0.052 g, 0.493 mmol) was added to a solution of [Au(C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>5</sub>)THT] (0.263 g, 0.493 mmol) in dichloromethane (20 mL). The reaction occurs instantly and as clearly evidenced by the formation of a white precipitate. The reaction mixture was stirred for 2 h and evaporated to dryness under vacuum. Addition of 20 mL of diethylether followed by filtration led to a white solid (yield 60 %). Gold analysis (% wt): 29.8 % that corresponds to 83% of occupied positions in the polymer. FT-IR (Nujol mulls):  $\nu = 1614 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=N),  $\nu = 829, 630 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Au-C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>5</sub>).

### 2.1.5 Synthesis of C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>CCAuTHT.



At -40° C (dry ice/acetonitrile), 0.66 mL of n-BuLi was added drop wise ( 1.05 mmol, 1.6 M in hexanes) to 0.100 mL solution of phenylacetylene (1.05 mmol Mw't 102.14 g/mol d .93g/ml ) in 5 ml of dry THF to Schlenk flask. Then stirred for 2 hours, then 0.336 g of ClAuTHT (1.05 mmol , Mw't 320g / mol) was added to the flask under positive pressure and then stirred for another 2 hours at -40° C, and 1 hour at RT .We observed the change in color from a colorless to a yellow colored solution. The solvent then removed under reduced pressure. A yellow solid with orange luminescence was obtained. The solid was washed with methanol and dried under vacuum for 2 hours, kept in refrigerator, mp was 80°C (deco). 1H NMR (500 MHz, d6- Acetone),  $\delta$  2.10 (bs, 2H, -

CH<sub>2</sub> -), 3.20 (bs 2H, S-CH<sub>2</sub>-), 7.2-7.4 (Py ring). FT-IR (KBr pellet):  $\nu = 1615 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=N),  $\nu = 3040 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=C-H aromatic). Gold analysis (% wt): 64.0 %.

### 2.3.6 Synthesis of Metallopolymer C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>CC-Au-PVP.

#### Method A



Metallopolymer [C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>CC-Au-PVP] was prepared by reacting the stoichiometric molar ratio of C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>CCAuTHT with PVP (MW = 60,000 as obtained from Aldrich) in dichloromethane at room temperature. The reaction was stirred for 1 hour. The solid was filtered and washed with DCM to obtain a pale yellow solid (mp 120°C).

#### Method B



Metallopolymer [C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>CC-Au-PVP] was prepared by addition of stoichiometric mass of C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>CCLi (see synthesis of C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>CCAuTHT) to ClAuPVP in THF at -40°C. The reaction allowed to stir for 1 hour. After filtering, the solid was washed with DCM to obtain a pale yellow solid mp of 120°C. FT-IR (KBr pellet):  $\nu = 1615 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=N),  $\nu = 3040 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=C-H aromatic),  $\nu = 2950 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C-C-H alkanes). Gold analysis (% wt): 64.0 %. The gold content in the metallopolymer was determined via thermal gravimetric analyses

(TGA). Thus, gold content was found to be 38.5% that corresponds to 78.7% of PVP occupied.

### 2.1.7 Synthesis of $C_6F_5CCAu-THT$ .



At  $-40^\circ\text{C}$  (dry ice/acetonitrile) 0.320 mL of n-BuLi was added drop wise ( $5.10 \times 10^{-4}$  mmol, 1.6 M in hexanes) to 0.100 mL solution of pentafluorophenylacetylene ( $5.10 \times 10^{-4}$  mmol Mw't 102.14 g/mol d .93g/ml ) in 5 ml of dry THF to Schlenk flask and stirred for 2 hours. Then  $5.10 \times 10^{-4}$  was added to the flask under positive pressure and stirred for another 2 hours at  $-40^\circ\text{C}$ , and 1 hour at RT. We observed the change from a colorless solution to a yellow colored solution. The solvent then removed under reduced pressure. A yellow solid with green luminescence was obtained. The solid was washed with methanol and dried under vacuum for 2 hours, kept in refrigerator, mp was  $82^\circ\text{C}$  (deco).  $^1\text{H NMR}$  (500 MHz,  $d_6$ - Acetone),  $\delta$  2.10 (bs, 2H,  $-\text{CH}_2-$ ), 2.90 (bs 2H,  $\text{S}-\text{CH}_2-$ ). FT-IR (KBr pellet):  $\nu = 1610\text{ cm}^{-1}$  ( $\text{C}=\text{N}$ )  $\nu = 2950\text{ cm}^{-1}$  ( $\text{C}=\text{C}-\text{H}$  alkane). Gold analysis (% wt): 27.0 %.

### 2.1.8 Synthesis of the Metallopolymer $C_6F_5CCAu-PVP$ .



Metallopolymer [ $C_6F_5CCAu-PVP$ ] was prepared by reacting the stoichiometric amount of  $C_6F_5CCAuTHT$  with PVP (MW = 60,000 as obtained from Aldrich) in

dichloromethane at room temperature. The reaction allowed to stir for 1 hour. After filtering, the solid was washed with methanol to obtain a pale-yellow solid (mp 105°C), FT-IR (KBr pellet):  $\nu = 1610 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=N)  $\nu = 2950 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  C-H Alkanes). Gold analysis (% wt): 38.4 %.

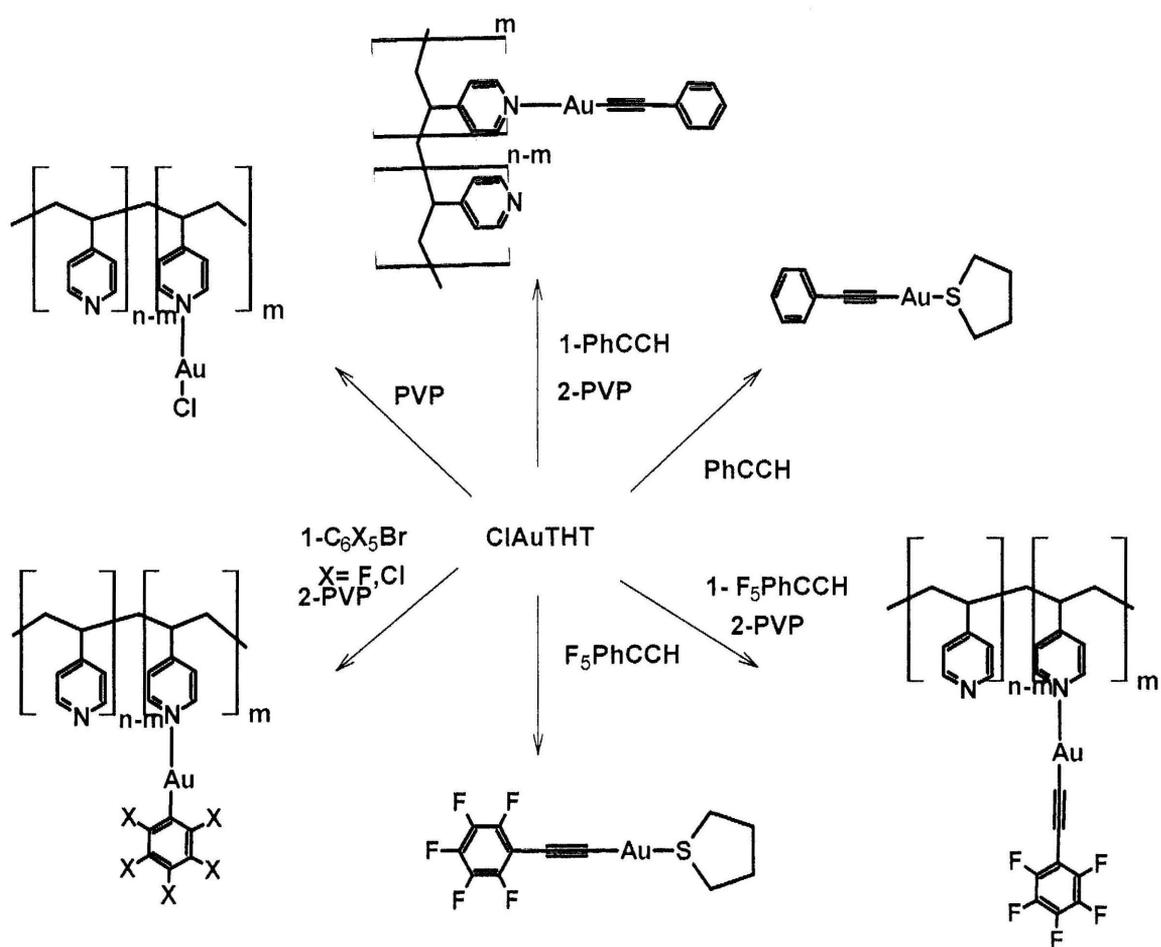


Figure 3. Illustration of synthesis routes of Gold (I) Metallopolymers

## 2.2 Instrumentation\ Chemicals and Materials

Steady-state photoluminescence spectra were acquired with a PTI QuantaMaster Model QM-3/2006SE scanning spectrofluorometer equipped with a 75-watt xenon lamp, emission and excitation monochromators, excitation correction unit, and a PMT detector. The emission spectra were corrected for the detector wavelength-dependent response. The excitation spectra were also corrected for the wavelength-dependent lamp intensity. Temperature-dependent studies were acquired with an Oxford optical cryostat using liquid nitrogen as a coolant. Lifetime data were acquired using a high speed pulsed xenon lamp source interfaced to the PTI instrument along with an autocalibrated "QuadraScopic" monochromator for excitation wavelength selection. Direct quantum yield measurements were performed for solid samples at an ambient temperature with an integrating sphere from LabSphere that is interfaced to the PTI instrument. To verify the reliability and accuracy of our techniques, we determined the direct quantum yield of quinine sulfate solution using this setup and attained the correct value of 0.53. The temperature-dependent quantum yields were determined from the relative peak areas of the emission bands at different temperatures at the same wavelengths used in the direct quantum yield measurements at ambient temperature. The luminescence titrations data were recorded with a Jobin-Yvon Horiba Fluorolog 3-22 Tau-3 spectrofluorometer, all other photophysical data were generated with the aforementioned PTI systems. Absorption spectra were acquired with a Perkin-Elmer Lambda 900 double beam and UV/VIS/NIR detector. The  $^1\text{H}$ NMR was carried out on a Varian Mercury 500MHz NMR spectrometer. The chemical shift expressed as  $\xi$  values in parts per million from

tetramethylsilane as an internal standard. Melting points were determined on Mel-Tem capillary melting point apparatus. Infrared spectra were determined with a Nicolet 380 FT infrared spectrometer. Thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) was determined by TA Q50 TGA, equipped with high sensitivity balance, Integrated Mass Flow Controllers and Integrated Mass Flow Controllers.

HPLC grade acetone, acetonitrile, tetrahydrofuran (THF), dichloromethane (DCM), methanol, toluene and benzene were purchased from Aldrich, and used after drying with conventional methods. phenylacetylene ( $C_6H_5CCH$ ), n-butyllithium (1.6M in hexane), hydrochloric acid 37% , nitric acid 65%, tetrahydrothiophene (THT) and poly-(4-vinylpyridene) (PVP) (AMW =60,000 ) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich and used as is. Pentafluorophenylacetylene ( $C_6F_5CCH$ ) was purchased from Paragos-Germany; high purity gold coins were purchased from Nasr Jewelry, Denton, TX.

All reactions were carried out by Schlenk technique under inert atmospheric conditions unless indicated otherwise.

## 2.3 Results and Discussion

We will start this discussion with the metallopolymer PVP-Au<sup>I</sup>Cl since chloride ion is the simplest and the hardest ligand of all of the ligands we have used in this chapter. The halide Cl<sup>-</sup> has a relatively small size compared to the other ligands used and it is considered a good  $\pi$  donor, leading to a possible transition as ligand to metal charge transfer (LMCT) upon binding to gold. The PVP-Au<sup>I</sup>Cl metallopolymer is formed from mixing equal molar ratios of PVP and THTAuCl. It exhibited bright blue photoluminescence (PL) in the solid state at room temperature and 77 K. Temperature-dependent PL and PL excitation (PLE) spectra and lifetimes are shown in Figure 4. In the spectra, four emission maxima with  $\lambda_{em}$ =480, 500, 520 and 540 nm and two excitation maxima 330 and 370 nm at 77 K were observed. At RT one red shifted excitation band at 375 nm and two emission bands at 500 and 515 nm were observed. Also, the 9.7  $\mu$ s emission lifetime at 77 K dropped to 7.8  $\mu$ s at room temperature (RT), indicating only minor increase in the nonradiative decay constant and thus very high phosphorescence quantum yield at RT. These data reveal remarkable sensitivity of the luminescence energies and intensities to both excitation wavelength and temperature. The emission can be fine-tuned between four emission maxima by varying  $\lambda_{exc}$  especially at cryogenic temperature. The tunable PL of the PVP-Au-Cl lie in the range of 60 nm at 77 K, that is from blue emission ( $\lambda_{em}$ =450 nm) to green emission ( $\lambda_{em}$ =570 nm). At room temperature, less resolvable peaks in the PL were observed as the peaks coalesce into one broad peak and become less dependent on the excitation energy. On the other hand, 1:10 gold to

polymer molar ratio has also been synthesized to study the effect of the gold content on the photoluminescence and solubility properties. Figure 5 represents the PL and PLE of the metallopolymer PVP-Au<sup>I</sup>Cl with 1:10 molar ratio. The bright blue emission of the metallopolymer using this ratio gives similar photophysical properties to that stoichiometric ratio of 1:1. It showed analogous spectral profile with tunable bright blue triplet state metal centered photoluminescence with a lifetime of 9.8  $\mu$ s and 7.9  $\mu$ s at 77 k and room temperature, respectively. Although the 1:10 molar ratio were strongly luminance which reduce the cost of synthesis, reducing the metal ratio led to low effect in the solubility property.

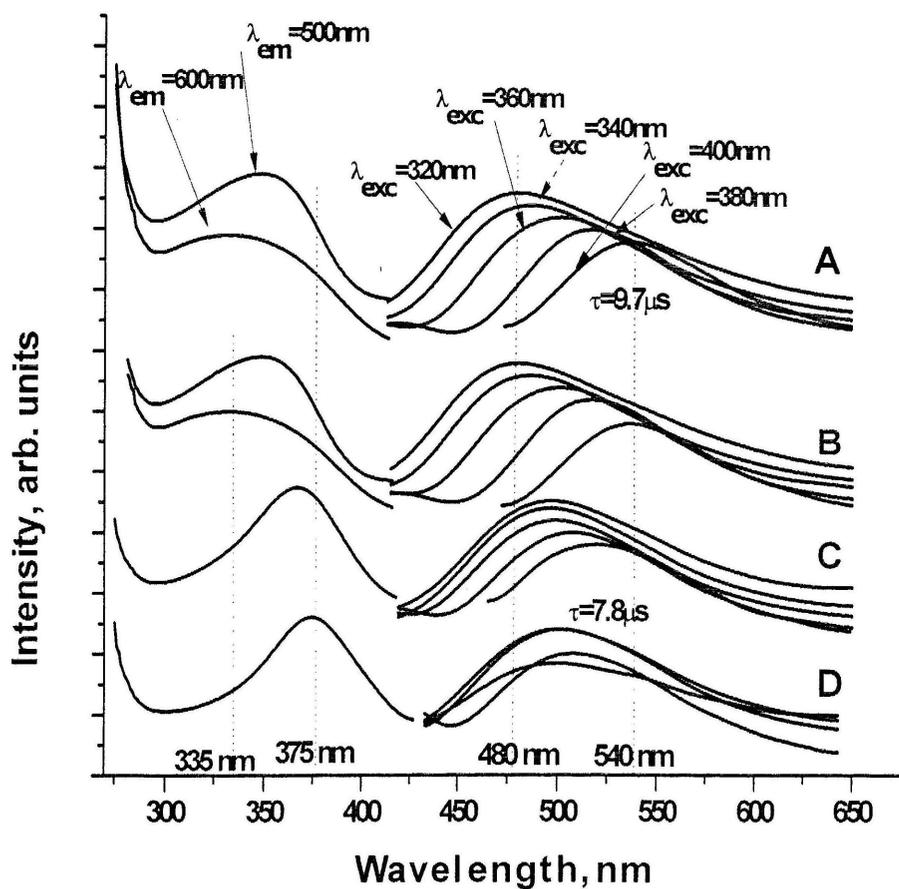


Figure 4. Solid state photoluminescence excitation (left) and emission (right) spectra at (A) 77K (B) 150K (C) 230K and (D) 298K of PVP-Au<sup>I</sup>-Cl in ratio of 1:1. The labeled spectra show the emission is red shifted upon varying excitation (320, 340, 360, 380, and 400 nm respectively). The dotted lines represent the min and max peaks maxima for both excitation and emission spectra.

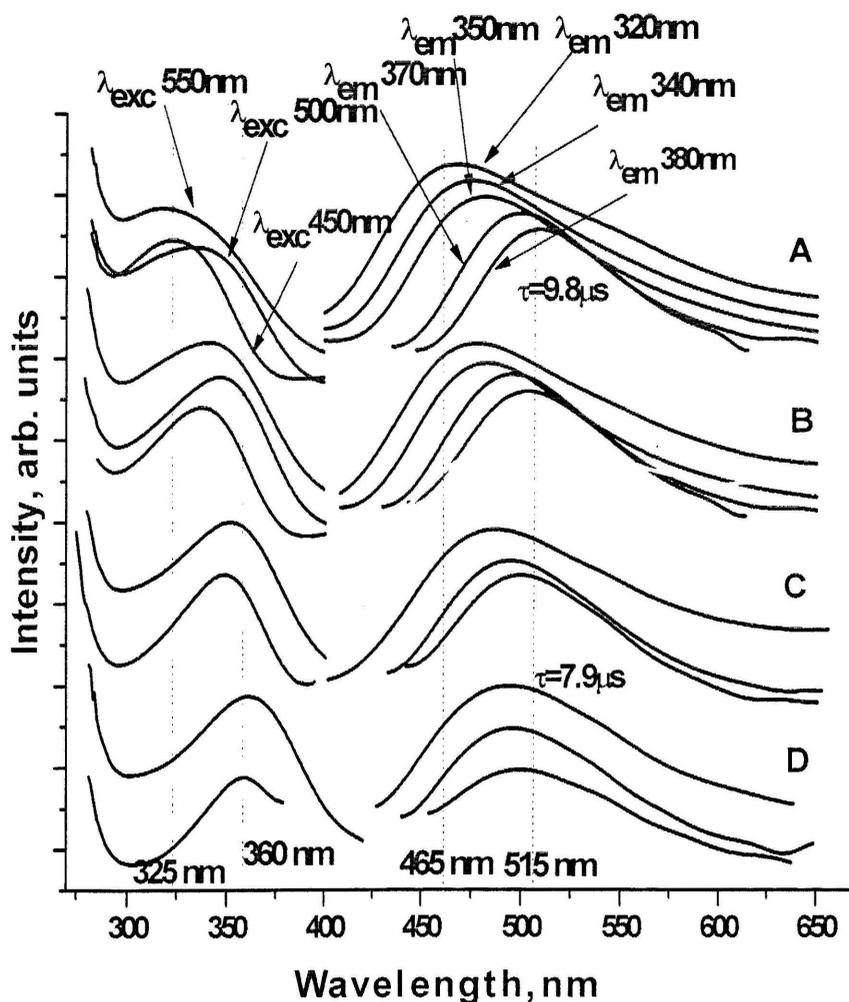
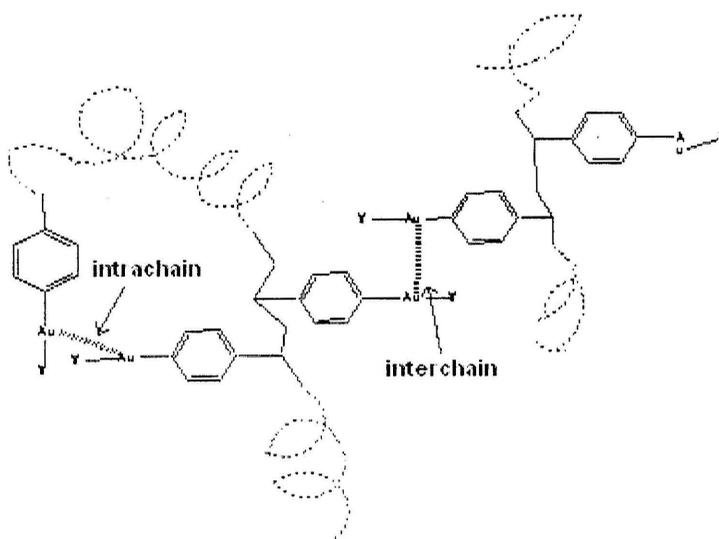


Figure 5. Solid state photoluminescence excitation (left) and emission (right) spectra at (A) 77K (B) 150 K (C) 230K and (D) 298K of PVP-Au<sup>I</sup>Cl in ratio of 10:1. The labeled spectra show the emission is red shifted upon varying excitation (320, 340, 350, 370, and 380 nm respectively). The dotted lines represent the min and max peaks maxima for both excitation and emission spectra.

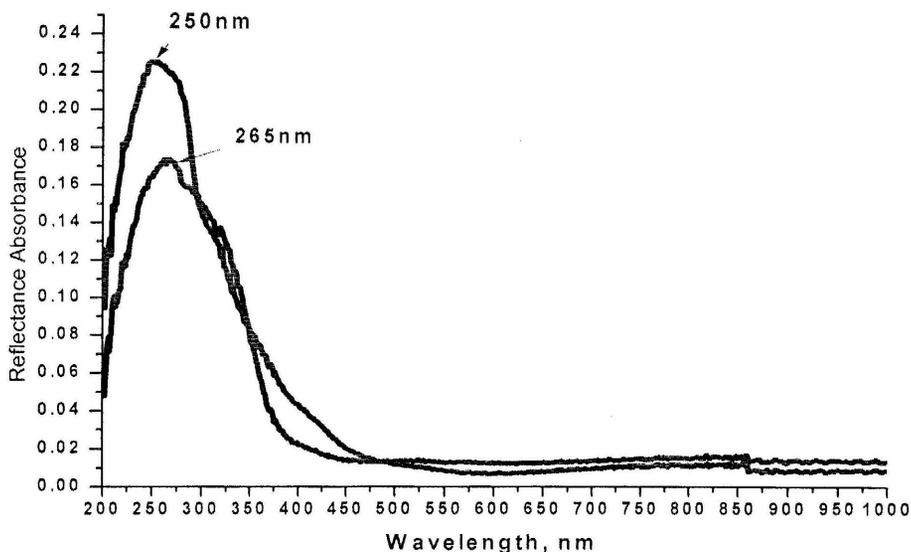
We attribute this emission to aurophilic interaction (Au<sup>I</sup>----Au<sup>I</sup>), based on the literature reviews for linear two coordinate complexes of Au(I) system<sup>73</sup>. Gold-gold interactions can be intrachain or interchain interaction within the metallopolymer. Figure 6. Illustrates of the possibilities in which we expect multiple site interactions to occur

with difference in  $Au^I \cdots Au^I$  distance. This leads to the corresponding temperature dependent excitation and emission obtained for these systems, as the different site interactions should have different excitation energies. The increase in temperature led to higher  $k_{nr}$  value leading to the different emission states to be quenched or peak broadening.



*Figure 6.* General suggested structural model shows interchain and intrachain aurophilic interaction.

Figure 7 shows the solid state diffuse reflectance of both the polymer PVP and the metallopolymer PVP AuCl. The PVP diffuse reflectance spectra showed absorption maximum at 255 nm. This suggests  $\pi$  to  $\pi^*$  transition which is a feature of conjugated aromatic organic compounds. Upon coordination of the  $ClAu^I$  moiety to the PVP polymer, this absorption maximum shifted to 265 nm, but the overall spectra look very similar, indicating that PVP is the main chromophore for possible light absorption (Figure 7).



*Figure 7.* Solid state diffuse reflectance spectra of the metallopolymer PVPAu<sup>I</sup>Cl ( black) and the polymer PVP ( red).

Time resolved measurements (Figure 8) is strong evidence for the presence of interchain and intrachain interaction and site-selective excitation of the metallopolymer. Initially at 0.00 delay, an emission peak was observed in both 1:1 and 1:10 metal to polymer ratios with  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  at 470 nm. Upon increasing the delay time, this blue peak fade away and a new 560 nm yellow peak was seen after 70.0  $\mu\text{s}$  delay for the ratio of 1:1 and 50.0  $\mu\text{s}$  delay for the 1:10 metal to polymer molar ratio. The change accrued gradually with good correlation between the delay of the blue peak and the rise of the yellow peak, remarkably manifesting energy transfer between the multiple color sites in the metallopolymer.

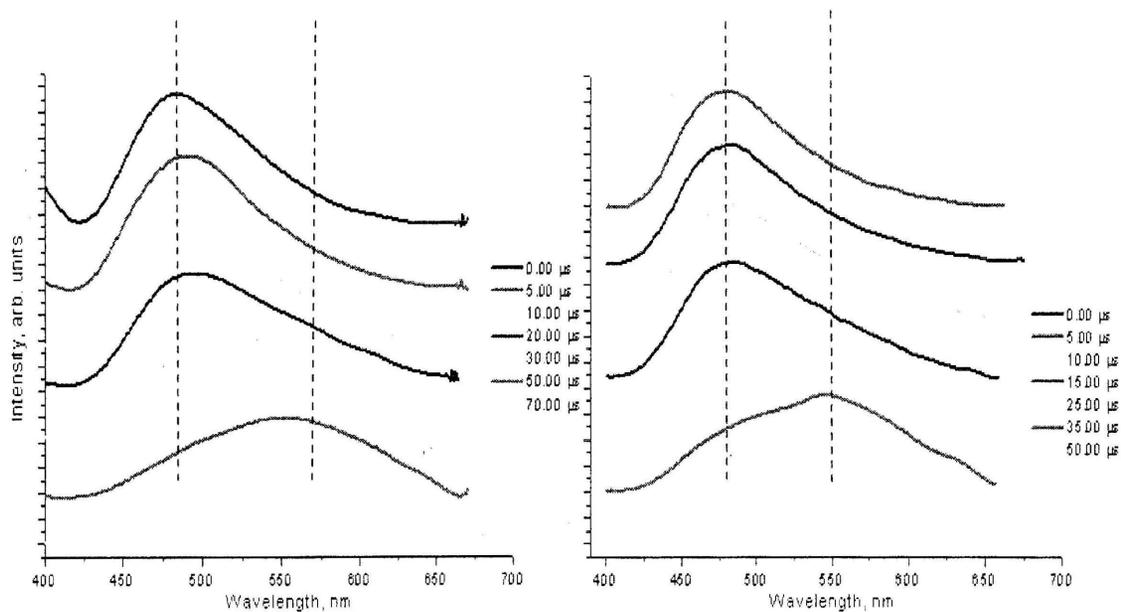


Figure 8. room temperature solid state time resolve PL of the metallopolymer 1:1 PVP-Au<sup>I</sup>Cl (left) and 10:1 PVP-Au<sup>I</sup>Cl (right).

Figure 9 shows <sup>1</sup>HNMR titration measurement is an interesting illustration of formation of the golden metallopolymer. We observed the drop of the <sup>1</sup>H signals of the free polymer as we increased the gold content, which can be an evidenced in the formation of the insoluble metallopolymer PVP-Au<sup>I</sup>Cl.

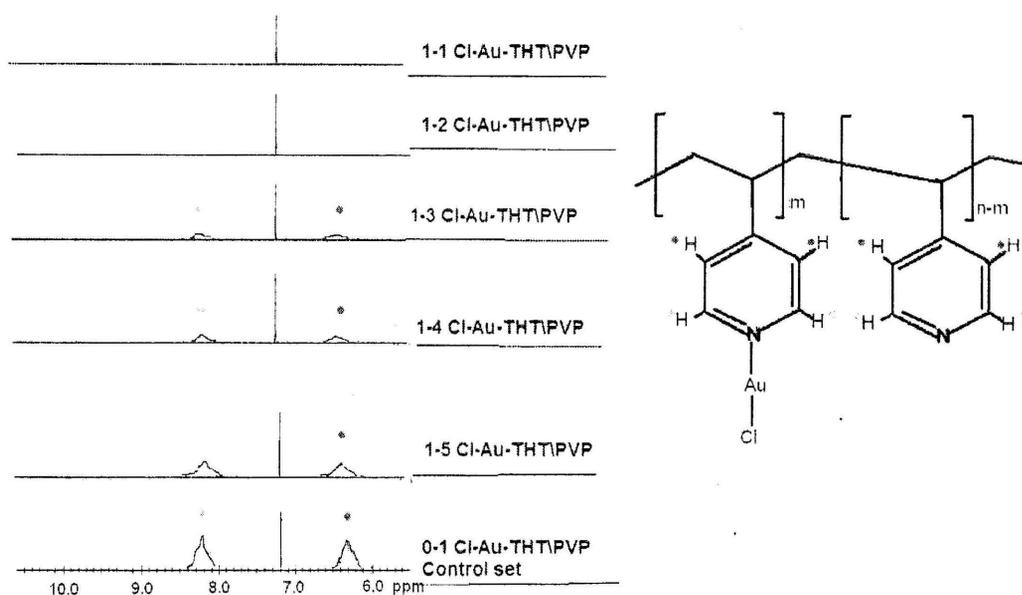


Figure 9.  $^1\text{H}$ NMR spectra of the reaction of THT-Au $^{\text{I}}$ Cl and PVP vs molar ratio in  $\text{CDCl}_3$ .  $^1\text{H}$  NMR shift Values are 6.40 and 8.3 ppm, respectively.

Altering the chloride-ligand with the chromophoric electron withdrawing moiety  $\text{C}_6\text{X}_5$  ( $\text{X} = \text{F}, \text{Cl}$ ) is expected to affect the energy levels and the transition probability (excitation coefficients and quantum yield) causing a change in both the excitation and emission spectra from these of the metallopolymer PVP-AuCl. That is, the blue emission changed to greenish emission at RT while a red shifted in the excitation maximum were observed ( $\lambda_{\text{exc}}(\text{C}_6\text{F}_5\text{AuPVP})=410\text{nm}$ ). This shift is probably partially due to the decrease in the metal back bonding capability towards the  $\sigma$ -donating polymer. Temperature-dependent PL spectra and lifetimes of  $\text{C}_6\text{F}_5\text{Au}^{\text{I}}$ PVP are shown in Figure 10. The bright PL of  $\text{C}_6\text{F}_5\text{AuPVP}$  in the solid state was fine tuned between four emission maxima ( $\lambda_{\text{em}}=510, 530, 550$  and  $570$  nm) by varying  $\lambda_{\text{exc}}$  at all temperatures. This PL showed sensitivity of the luminescence energy, intensity and QY of the metallopolymer to the

temperature and site selective excitation. Upon raising the temperature to RT, the emission spectra was blue shifted to have maximum peak at 520 nm and become less sensitive to the excitation. Altering the fluoride ions in the phenyl group by the chloride ions led to the bright luminescent  $C_6Cl_5Au^I$ PVP. Figure 11 represents temperature-dependent PL and PL spectra and lifetimes of  $C_6Cl_5Au^I$ PVP which can be fine tuned from the blue emission ( $\lambda_{em}=480nm$ ) at 77K to yellow emission( $\lambda_{em}=570nm$ ) at RT. The unstructured emission with the microsecond lifetime obtained in both cases is consistent with metal-centered phosphorescence emission. However, the emission of  $C_6Cl_5Au^I$ PVP blue shifted from the emission of  $C_6F_5Au^I$ PVP, while the 480 nm peak diminished at higher temperature and the 550 nm peaks increased in intensity upon varying excitation. The energy of emission bands of  $C_6X_5Au^I$ -PVP in general were red shifted from those of PVP- $Au^I$ Cl metallopolymer probably due to a change in Au—Au interaction and/or other steric and electronic effect of the different ligands. The larger size of the chlorinated phenyl ligand than the fluorinated phenyl causes steric interference which may lead to different Au--Au interactions. Our intuitive premise that stronger  $\pi$ -donor ligands will have lower absorption energy and X = Cl makes  $C_6X_5$  a better  $\pi$ -donor than X=F since the assignment involved charge transfer from  $C_6X_5$  to pyridine. Furthermore, Table 2 and 3 represent the photophysical measurements for  $C_6F_5Au^I$ -PVP and  $C_6Cl_5Au^I$ -PVP, respectively. In comparing Tables 2 and 3 data,  $C_6F_5Au^I$ -PVP shows higher QY value (63%) versus  $C_6Cl_5Au^I$ -PVP (28%) at 298 K and  $\lambda_{exc} = 410nm$ . The small increase in the lifetime and intensity of  $C_6F_5Au^I$ -PVP upon cooling to cryogenic temperature suggests

slight diminishing of nonradiative decay rate constant ( $2.58 \times 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) versus the radiative decay rate constant ( $4.46 \times 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) at RT.

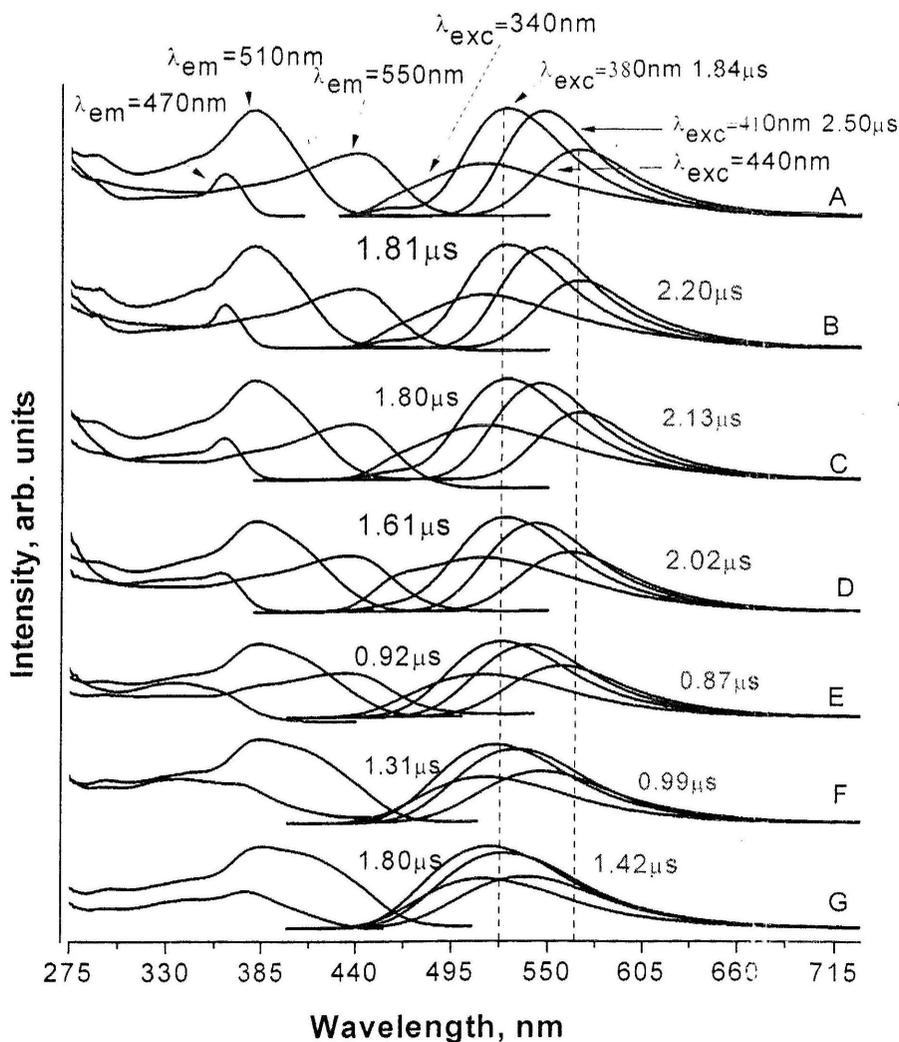


Figure 10. Solid state photoluminescence excitation (left) and emission (right) spectra at (A) 77K (B) 90K (C) 120K (D) 150K (E) 180 K (F) 235K and (G) 295K of PVP-Au<sup>1</sup>-C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>5</sub>. The labeled spectra show the emission is red shifted upon varying excitation (340, 380, 410, and 440 nm respectively).

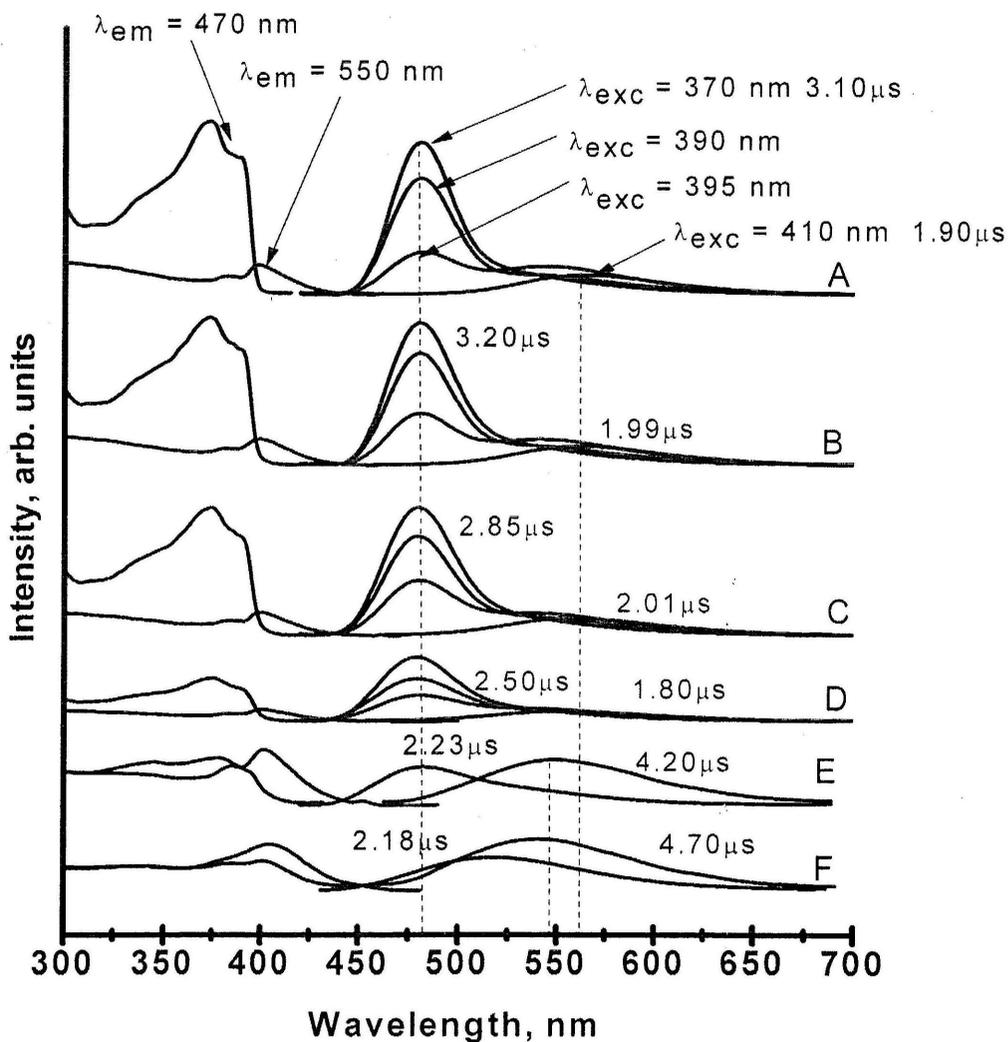


Figure 11. Photoluminescence excitation (left) and emission (right) spectra at (A) 77K (B) 90K (C) 120K (D) 150K (E) 210 K and (F) 295K for solid of PVP-Au<sup>I</sup>-C<sub>6</sub>Cl<sub>5</sub>. The intensity of 480 nm peak is diminished at higher temperature while the peak at 550 nm grows upon varying excitation (370, 390, 395, and 410 nm respectively).

Table 2.

*Temperature Dependent Photophysical Parameters of Solid Samples of [Au<sup>I</sup>(C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>5</sub>)PVP].*

T(K)	Peak Area	Φ(%)	τ (μs)	k <sub>r</sub> (s <sup>-1</sup> )	k <sub>nr</sub> (s <sup>-1</sup> )
[Au <sup>I</sup> (C <sub>6</sub> F <sub>5</sub> )PVP] 410nm					
295	5.78E+08	63.4	1.42	4.46E+05	2.58E+05
235	5.29E+08	58	0.99	5.86E+05	4.24E+05
190	4.73E+08	51.9	0.87	5.96E+05	5.53E+05
150	5.56E+08	61	2.02	3.02E+05	1.93E+05
120	5.85E+08	64.2	2.13	3.01E+05	1.68E+05
90	5.79E+08	63.5	2.2	2.89E+05	1.66E+05
77	5.82E+08	63.8	2.5	2.55E+05	1.45E+05
[Au <sup>I</sup> (C <sub>6</sub> F <sub>5</sub> )PVP] 270nm					
295	6.18E+08	59.8	1.8	3.32E+05	2.23E+05
235	5.66E+08	54.8	1.31	4.18E+05	3.45E+05
190	5.18E+08	50.2	0.92	5.45E+05	5.42E+05
150	6.28E+08	60.8	1.61	3.78E+05	2.43E+05
120	6.54E+08	63.3	1.8	3.52E+05	2.04E+05

Table 3.

*Temperature Dependent Photophysical Parameters of Solid Samples of [Au<sup>I</sup>(C<sub>6</sub>Cl<sub>5</sub>)PVP].*

T(K)	Peak Area	Φ(%)	τ (μs)	k <sub>r</sub> (s <sup>-1</sup> )	k <sub>nr</sub> (s <sup>-1</sup> )
[Au <sup>I</sup> (C <sub>6</sub> Cl <sub>5</sub> )PVP] 410nm					
295	1.51E+08	28.3	4.7	6.02E+04	1.53E+05
210	1.43E+08	24.7	7.2	5.89E+04	1.79E+05
150	1.72E+08	5.4	1.8	2.99E+04	5.26E+05
120	3.17E+08	9.3	2.01	4.63E+04	4.51E+05
90	3.32E+08	10	1.99	5.01E+04	4.52E+05
77	3.34E+08	10	1.9	5.26E+04	4.74E+05
[Au <sup>I</sup> (C <sub>6</sub> Cl <sub>5</sub> )PVP] 280nm					
295	1.51E+08	26.7	2.18	1.22E+05	3.36E+05
210	1.43E+08	25.4	2.23	1.14E+05	3.35E+05
150	1.72E+08	30.4	2.5	1.22E+05	2.78E+05
120	3.17E+08	56.2	2.85	1.97E+05	1.54E+05
90	3.32E+08	58.9	3.2	1.84E+05	1.29E+05
77	3.34E+08	59.2	3.1	1.91E+05	1.32E+05

Figure 12 represents the diffuse reflectance spectra of the metallopolymer  $C_6F_5Au^I$ PVP in the solid state which exhibits several intense absorption bands between 240-350 nm and a weak band at 410 nm. The absorption band at 240 nm stems most likely from  $\pi$ - $\pi^*$  transition of the coordinated PVP polymer which shows a similar band between 250 -300 nm. The additional red shifted absorptions in  $C_6F_5Au^I$ PVP vs. PVP or Cl-Au-PVP are caused by the  $\pi$ -conjugated chromophoric ligand,  $C_6F_5$ , and its mixing with Au(I) orbitals( $d_{xz}$ ,  $d_{yz}$ ). Following the literature reviews of small two coordinate linear gold(I) system ( $C_6F_5AuPy$ )<sup>73</sup>, we assigned the band at 350 nm to charge transfer from the  $F_5C_6Au$  to PVP that is LMLCT.

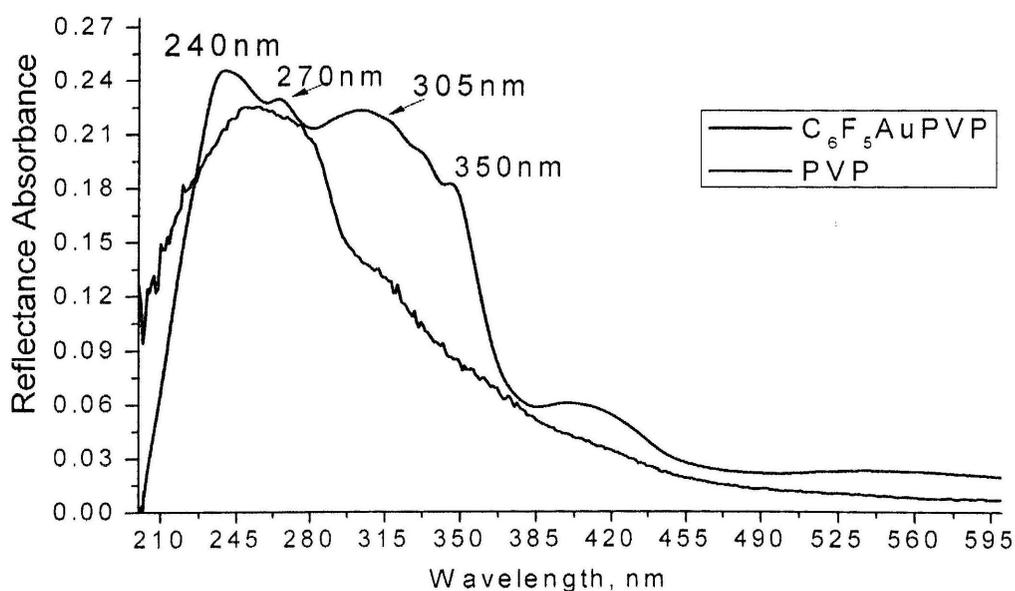


Figure 12. Solid state diffuse reflectance spectra of the metallopolymer  $F_5C_6Au^I$ PVP (black) and the polymer PVP (red).

Shifting the electronic properties of the ligand from the electron poor  $C_6X_5^-$  moiety to the electron rich ligand phenylacetylene led to a red shifted photoluminescent  $C_6H_5CCAu^I$ -PVP metallopolymer. In addition to the photoluminescence activity of the metallopolymer, the new starting material  $C_6H_5CCAu^I$ THT was also luminescent by itself. Figure 13 represents temperature dependent PL of the complex  $C_6H_5CCAu^I$ THT in which tunable emissions were obtained versus temperature with a lifetime emission of  $6.31\mu s$  at cryogenic temperature and  $4.21\mu s$  at room temperature. The bright PL of  $C_6H_5CCAu^I$ THT in the solid state was fine tuned between four emission maxima ( $\lambda_{em}=570, 585, 610$  and  $630nm$ ) by varying  $\lambda_{exc}$  (Figure 13). The unstructured emissions with microsecond lifetimes reveal triplet state phosphorescent emission. On the other hand, coordination of  $C_6H_5CCAu^I$ THT to the PVP polymer resulted in a metallopolymer with interesting PL spectra. Figure 14 represents temperature-dependent PL spectra of the metallopolymer  $C_6H_5CCAu^I$ PVP. The PL of  $C_6H_5CCAu^I$ PVP was fine tuned over a 50 nm range within the visible region, that is from green ( $\lambda_{em}= 520$  nm) at 77 K to yellow luminescence ( $\lambda_{em}=630nm$ ) at room temperature. This emission significantly red-shifted from the emission observed for metallopolymer PVP-AuCl,  $C_6F_5Au$ PVP, and  $C_6Cl_5Au$ PVP, corresponding with the new electron-releasing ligand  $C_6H_5CCAu$ .  $C_6H_5CC$  is a strong  $\pi$ -donor group causing red-shifted electronic transitions due to destabilized  $d\pi$  orbitals. The unstructured profile of the emission is consisting with Au-centered emission due to clustering of monomeric units.

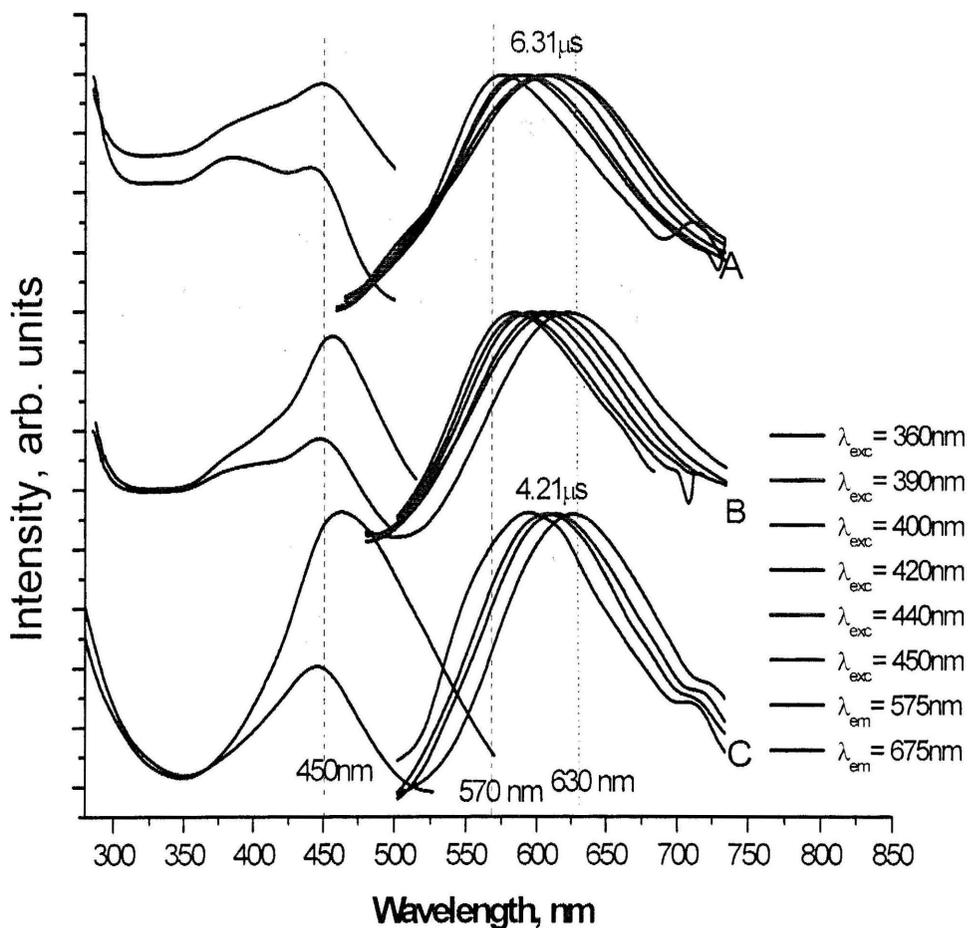


Figure 13. Photoluminescence excitation (left) and emission (right) spectra at (A) 77K (B) 180 K and (C) 295K of solid  $C_6H_5CCAu^1THT$ . The spectra show the emission is red shifted upon varying excitation (360, 390, 400, 420, 440 and 450 nm, respectively).

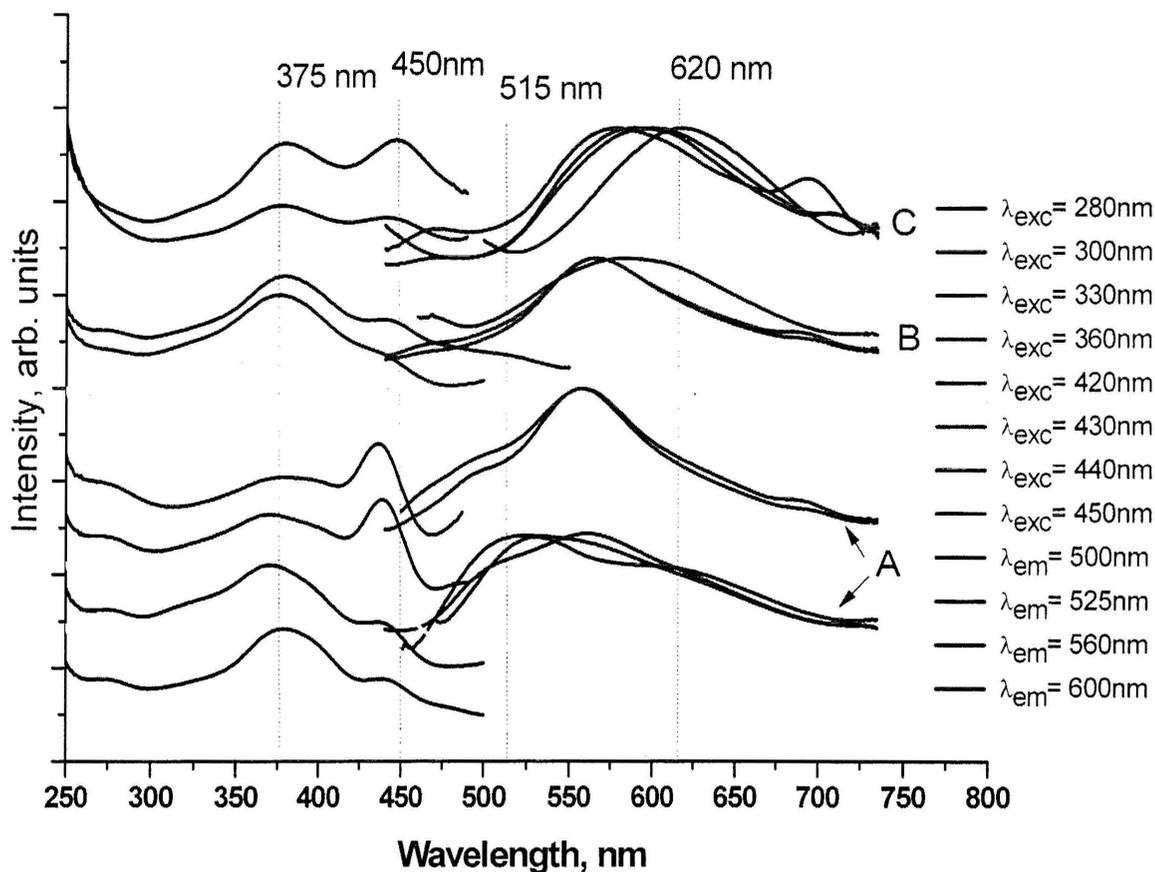


Figure 14. Photoluminescence excitation (left) and emission (right) spectra at (A) 77K (B) 180 K and (C) 295K of solid  $C_6H_5CCAu^I$ -PVP. The spectra show the emission is red shifted upon varying excitation (330, 360, 420, 430, 440 and 450 nm respectively).

Figure 15 represents the solid state diffuse reflectance spectra of the complex  $C_6H_5CCAu^I$ THT in which the peak at 290 nm corresponds to intraligand  $\pi$ - $\pi^*$  transition. The peak at 400 nm is likely due to ligand to metal charge transfer, that is from the  $\pi$  orbitals of the phenylacetylene to the gold atom's vacant 6p orbitals. On the other hand, the solid state diffuse reflectance spectra of the metallopolymer  $C_6H_5CCAu^I$ PVP is represented in Figure 15. Following the literature reviews of small molecular regime

$t\text{BuCCAuCl}^{74,75}$ , the HOMO has a CCAu mixed acetylide-metal character. Therefore, for  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CCAu}^{\text{I}}\text{PVP}$ , we assign the electronic transition bands at 400 nm and 560 nm to LMLCT, from a  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CCAu}$  HOMO to a PVP LUMO.

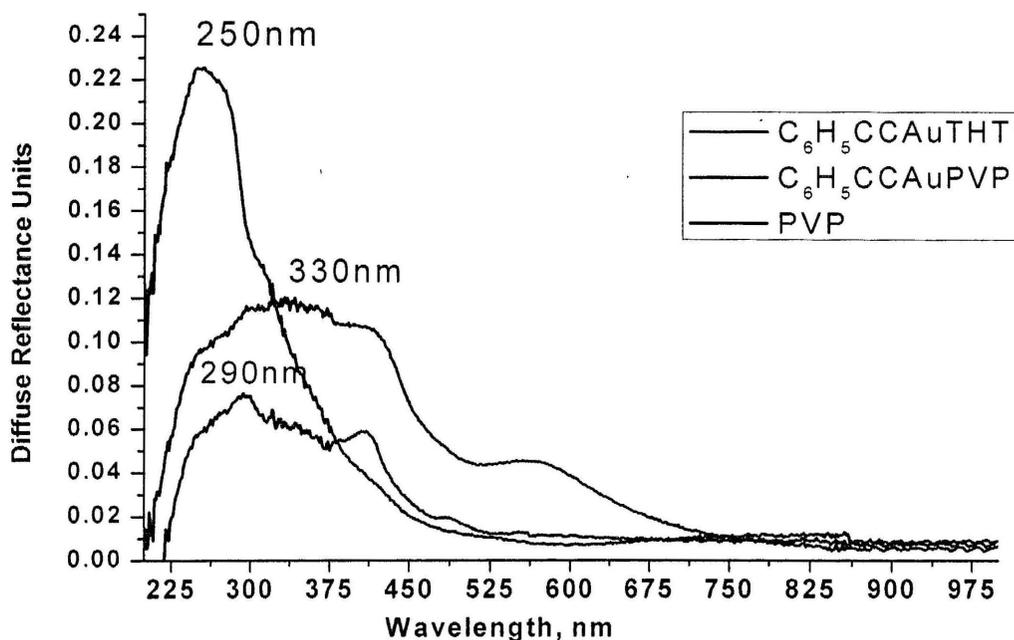


Figure 15. Solid state diffuse reflectance spectra of the complex  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CCAu}^{\text{I}}\text{THT}$  (black) metallopolymer  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CCAu}^{\text{I}}\text{PVP}$  (red) polymer PVP (blue).

In subsequent experimentation with the metallopolymer  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CCAu}^{\text{I}}\text{PVP}$ , we changed the ligand  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CC}$  to the electron poor ( $\text{C}_6\text{F}_5\text{CC}$ ), which caused a blue shift in the absorption and emission bands of the metallopolymer  $\text{C}_6\text{F}_5\text{CCAu}^{\text{I}}\text{PVP}$  when compared to the  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CCAu}^{\text{I}}\text{PVP}$ . Figures 16 and 17 represent the PL and PLE spectra of both the complex and the metallopolymer  $\text{C}_6\text{F}_5\text{CCAu}^{\text{I}}\text{THT}$  and  $\text{C}_6\text{F}_5\text{CCAu}^{\text{I}}\text{PVP}$ , respectively. The small complex  $\text{C}_6\text{F}_5\text{CCAu}^{\text{I}}\text{THT}$  shows two emission peaks at  $\lambda_{\text{max}} =$

530 nm and 575 nm in the green to yellow regions of the spectra. On other hand the metallopolymer  $C_6F_5CCAu^I PVP$  exhibits a bright green PL in the solid state. Temperature-dependent PL spectra are shown in Figure 17. This PL emission is blue shifted ( $\lambda_{em}=540$  nm and lifetime of 2.0  $\mu s$ ) from that of  $C_6H_5CCAu^I PVP$  due to the electronic nature of the new fluorinated phenylacetylene ligand, wherein  $C_6F_5CC$  is a poorer  $\pi$ -donor than  $C_6H_5CC$  and thus has a lower HOMO. Microsecond lifetimes and unstructured emission spectra suggest triplet state phosphorescence from Au—Au bonded moieties ( intrachain and/or interchain interaction).

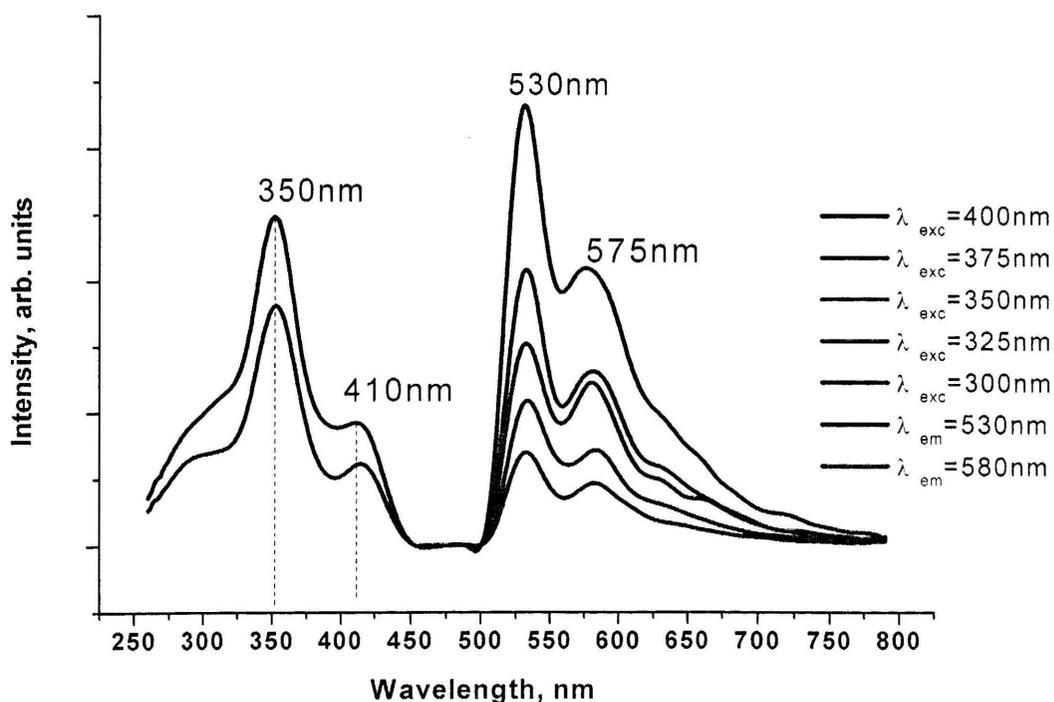


Figure 16. Photoluminescence excitation (left) and emission (right) spectra at 295K for solid  $C_6F_5CCAu^I THT$ .

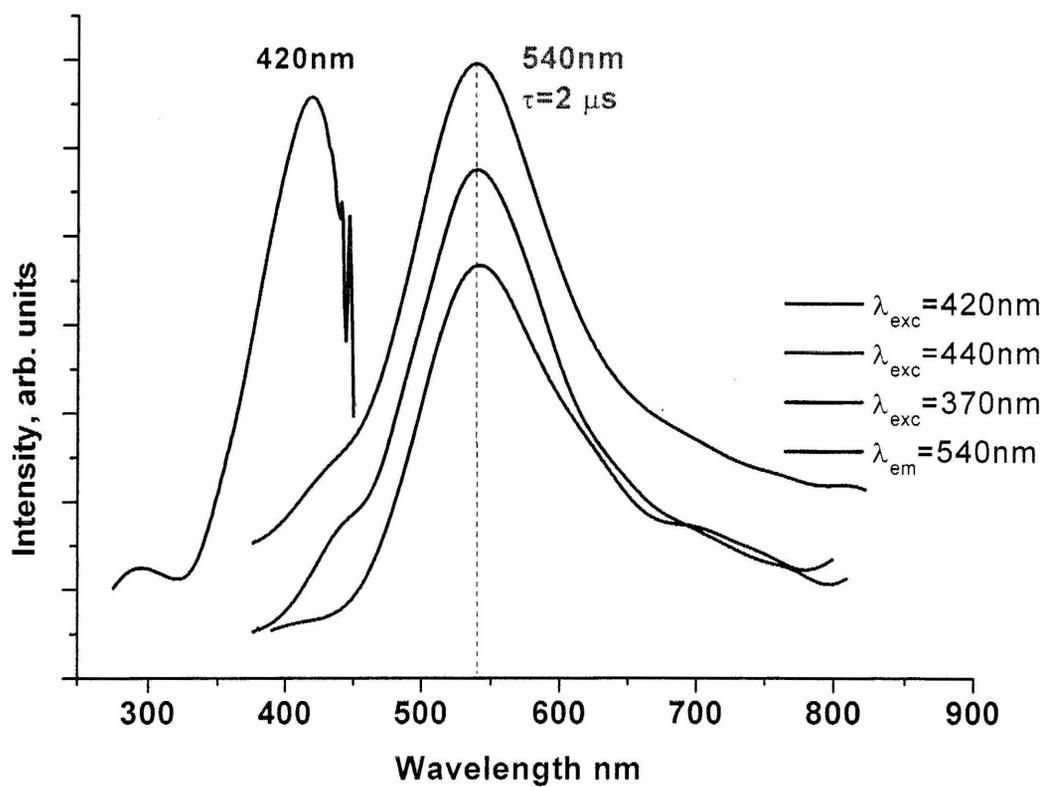
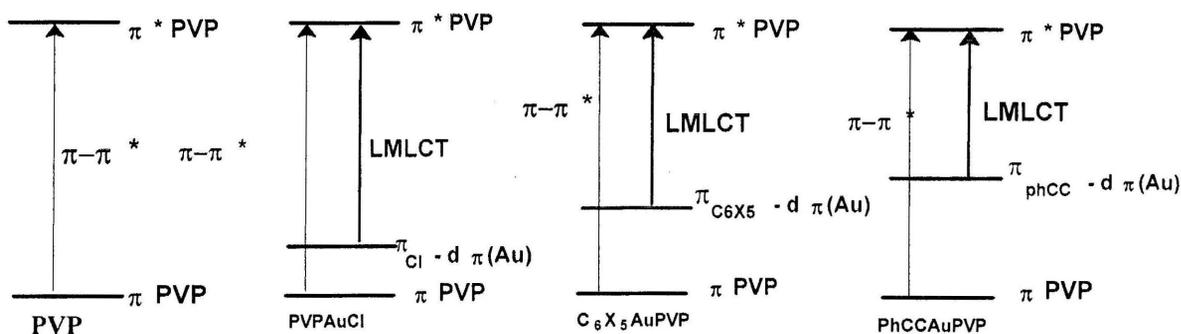


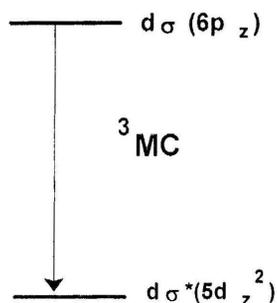
Figure 17. Photoluminescence excitation (left) and emission (right) spectra at 295K for solid  $C_6F_5CCAu^I PVP$ .

## 2.4 Conclusions

Direct coordination of small monovalent gold complexes to the polymer PVP led to a new class of luminescent metallopolymers with phosphorescent metal centered emissions at room temperature. Our focus was on studying the PL of the golden metallopolymers vs. ligand, temperature, and polymer:metal molar ratio and understanding how these factors influence the PL and other properties, as well as assessing the suitability of the new metallopolymers for potential PLED applications.



Absorption/ excitation energy levels( monomeric units)



Emission energy levels ( excimerics Au -- Au units)

Figure 18. Illustration of the HOMO LUMO absorption/excitation of the monomeric units (top) and emission energy levels of the excimeric Au – Au units (bottom).

Figure 18 illustrates the electronic transitions in monomeric units and emission energy levels in excimeric Au—Au units. For the monomeric units as we go from left to right the higher destabilization of the ligand orbitals occurs, causing a decrease in the HOMO LUMO energy levels between the metal and the polymer leading to the tunable excitation and absorption profiles discussed earlier. While the emission occurred from the deactivation of the excited triplet state of the excimeric units of gold. Thus from the bonding  $d_{\sigma}$  to antibonding  $d_{\sigma}^*$ . The metallopolymer PVP AuCl, with its bright blue luminescence ( $\lambda_{\text{max}}=480\text{nm}$  at 77K) and relatively low energy excitation ( $\lambda_{\text{max}}=375\text{nm}$ ), could be considered as a good candidate for fabrication of a high energy PLEDs device, but the extremely low solubility of this metallopolymer proved to be a hindrance in achieving this goal. In order to overcome this hurdle, we alternated the metal to polymer molar ratio to study the effects of metal content on the phosphorescence emission and the solubility of the metallopolymer. Although PVP AuCl showed a blue luminescence at low gold content (15.4%w/w based in 1:10 metal to polymer molar ratio), this result did not affect the solubility of PVP AuCl upon testing a variety of organic solvents with different polarity. Thus, even higher PVP:Au ratios than 10:1 and/or other strategies should be investigated to overcome the solubility issue. On the other hand, replacing the Cl- ligand with the more electron poor ligand  $\text{C}_6\text{X}_6$  led to a change in the luminescence and excitation maxima from those of the PVP AuCl. The emission and excitation peak maxima changed from 480 nm and 375 nm for the PVP AuCl, respectively, to 560 nm and 440 nm emission and excitation of  $\text{C}_6\text{F}_5\text{AuPVP}$ , while the  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CCAuPVP}$  showed an orange and yellow photoluminescence at room and cryogenic temperatures. The change

in the luminescence maxima from those of the previous metallopolymers (PVP AuCl and C<sub>6</sub>X<sub>6</sub>AuPVP) by altering the ligand to see if that will achieve further tuning or alter the solubility led to the synthesis of the C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>5</sub>CCAuPVP metallopolymer. C<sub>6</sub>F<sub>5</sub>CCAuPVP showed green metal centered phosphorescence emission centered at 530 nm at room temperature. All of the metallopolymers showed bright photoluminescence at both room and cryogenic temperature with the emission covering most of the visible region (from 480 nm to 630 nm). The photoluminescence emission was assigned to metal centered triplet state phosphorescence emission.

We successfully un-silenced the non-phosphorescent polymer and starting material to obtain a phosphorescent metallopolymer at RT with high QY value for the same. For example, C<sub>6</sub>X<sub>5</sub>AuPVP, QY value of 63% at RT was achieved. the phosphorescent emissions was tuned across the visible region: blue(PVPAuCl), green (C<sub>6</sub>X<sub>5</sub>AuPVP), orange (phCCAuPVP). The combination of these emission colors is considered a recipe for white lighting application and the selective mixing of these metallopolymers leads to other intermediate colors, which is suitable for full-color displays applications (TV, Cell Phones, ect.). Furthermore, the aurophilic bonding in the polymers and the rare Au-N (soft-hard) bond are considerably important in the field of bonding chemistry.

Although the starting materials are highly soluble, the final metallopolymer products do not exhibit enough solubility in common organic solvents to allow spin coating of the material into thin films. Still suitable for sensor applications (temperature, vapor, pressure, etc.) that do not need high solubility. Strategies to circumvent this limitation by multiple chemical and physical means should be investigated. For example,

by introducing other long chain alkyl substituents into the polymer or anionic ligand, altering the d<sub>10</sub> metal to Cu<sub>I</sub> and/or Ag<sub>I</sub>, doping in other non-coordinating polymer, and other means could be assessed.

## CHAPTER III

### THE SYNTHESIS CHARACTERIZATION AND SPECTROSCOPIC

### MEASUREMENTS OF MONOVALENT Ag(I) AND Cu(I)

### METALLOPOLYMERS

In this chapter we will discuss the synthesis, characterization and photoluminescence of silver(I) and copper(I) metallopolymers. The synthesis of silver(I) and copper(I) metallopolymer was attempted as a less expensive alternative to the analogous gold metallopolymers. The following sections cover the relevant topics. Section 3.1 goes over the chemicals and materials used in the synthesis of all the silver(I) and copper(I) metallopolymers. Section 3.2 presents in detail the synthetic methods used of silver and copper metallopolymer. Section 3.3 discusses the spectroscopic measurements obtained for the silver(I) and copper(I) metallopolymers. Finally section 3.4 summarizes the main conclusions and the prospective future direction about this project.

### 3.1 Chemicals and Materials

HPLC grade Acetonitrile, Tetrahydrofuran (THF), Dichloromethane (DCM), Methanol, Toluene and Benzene were purchased from Aldrich, and used after drying with conventional methods. Tetrafluoroboric acid (48% HBF<sub>4</sub>), Silver(I) Oxide (Ag<sub>2</sub>O), copper(I) oxide (Cu<sub>2</sub>O) and poly-(4-vinylpyridene) (PVP) (AMW =60,000 ) were purchased from sigma Aldrich and used as is.

All reactions were carried out by Schlenk technique under inert atmospheric conditions unless indicated otherwise.

### 3.2 Syntheses

#### 3.2.1 Synthesis of the Metallopolymer $[[3,5-(CF_3)_2Pz]Ag]_2\{-Poly(4-Vinyl)pyridine\}_2$ .



With slight modification to literature methods<sup>76-79</sup>. Ag<sub>2</sub>O (0.31 g, 1.35 mmol) and [3,5-(CF<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>Pz]H (0.5 g, 2.45 mmol) were mixed in about 20 ml benzene or toluene. The resulting mixture was protected from light using aluminum foil, and refluxed overnight. After cooling, the solution was filtered over a bed of Celite to remove some insoluble black material. The filtrate was collected and the solvent was removed under vacuum to obtain crude<sup>80</sup> as a colorless solid.

To a solution of  $\{[3,5-(CF_3)_2Pz]Ag\}_3$  (0.200 g, 0.215 mmol) in 20.0ml dichloromethane, the stoichiometric ratio of PVP was added. The reaction mixture was

stirred for 1 hour and a white precipitate was formed and evaporated to dryness. Addition of 20 mL of dichloromethane and filtration led to a white solid (yield 85 %). FT-IR (KBr pellet):  $\nu = 1615 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=N),  $\nu = 3040 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=C-H aromatic)  $2955 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C-H Alkanes). Silver analysis (% wt): 22.00 % that correspond to 85.0% of PVP was occupied.

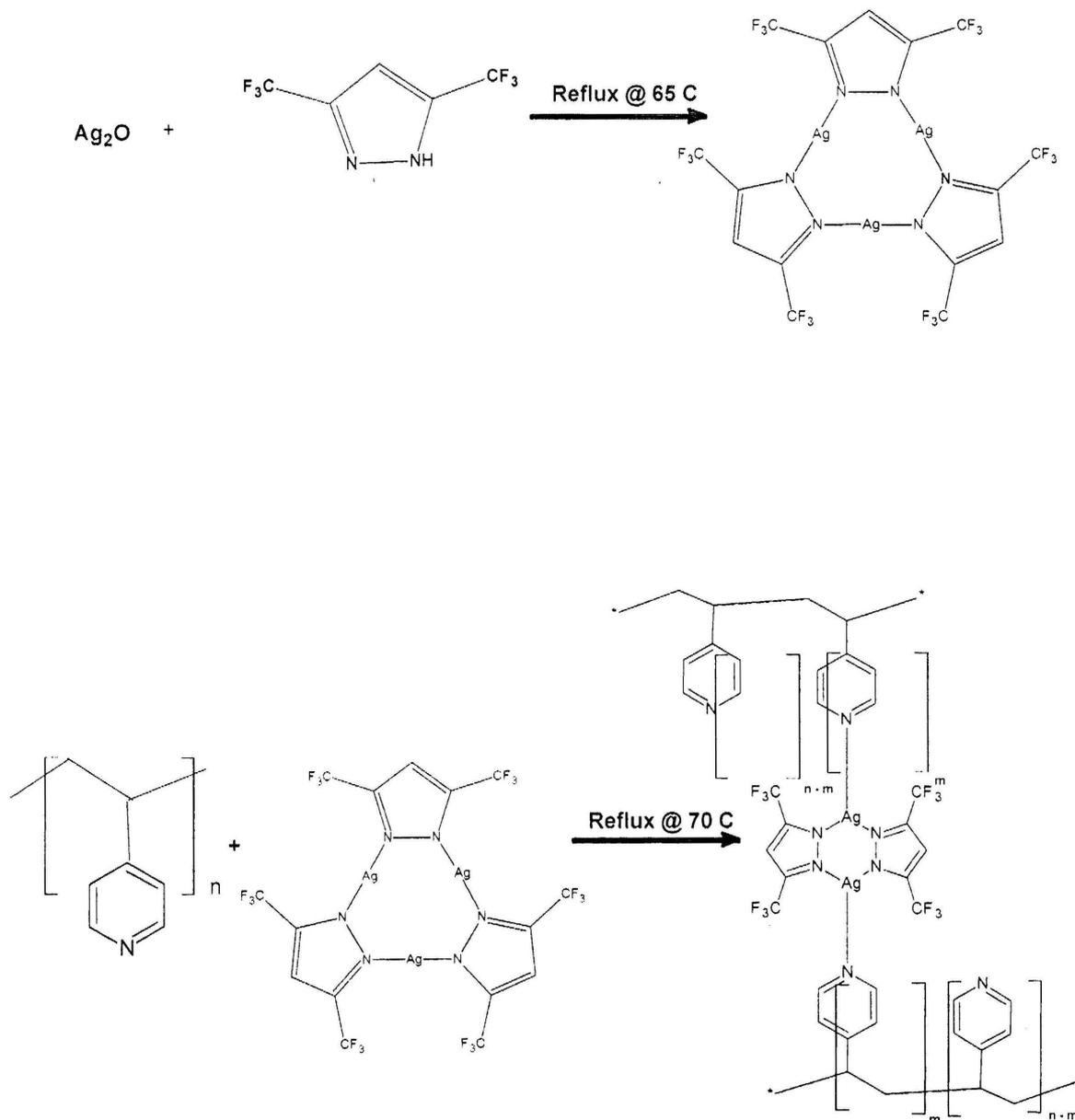


Figure 19. Illustration of synthetic route of  $([3,5 \text{ (CF}_3)_2\text{Pz Ag}^{\text{I}}\text{-PVP}]_2)$ .

### 3.2.2 Syntheses of the Metallopolymer [Cu-(PVP)*n*][BF<sub>4</sub>].



With slight modification to literature methods<sup>81-83</sup>, to a magnetically stirred solution of 4.0g (28 mmol) of Copper (I) oxide in 80 ml of Acetonitrile in a 150 ml schlenk flask is added 8 ml of 48% Tetrafluoroboric acid (HBF<sub>4</sub>)(130 mmol) in 2 ml portions. The solution was stirred for 3 minutes and was then filtered hot through a medium porosity schlenk filter to remove small amounts of undissolved starting materials. To the pale-blue solution 100 ml of diethyl ether was added and cooled to freezing point for several hours, to form white-blue crystals of [Cu(CH<sub>3</sub>CN)<sub>4</sub>][BF<sub>4</sub>]. The solid was collected by filtration, dissolved immediately in acetonitrile, recrystallized using diethyl ether, to obtain white crystals. Several recrystallizations may be needed to get the white crystals. The crystals were collected by filtration and washed with diethyl ether, dried under vacuum.

To a solution of [Cu(CH<sub>3</sub>CN)<sub>4</sub>] BF<sub>4</sub>(0.500 g, 1.590 mmol)(obtained in the reaction mentioned above) in 20 ml of toluene PVP (0.661 g, 6.360 mmol) was added. The reaction mixture was stirred for 2h and evaporated to dryness under vacuum. Addition of 20 mL of dichloromethane and filtration led to a yellow solid (yield 95 %). FT-IR (KBr pellet):  $\nu = 1610 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=N),  $\nu = 3040 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C=C-H aromatic)  $2950 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  (C-H

Alkanes).Copper analysis (% wt): 8.88 %, that corresponds to 81.4% of occupied positions in the polymer.

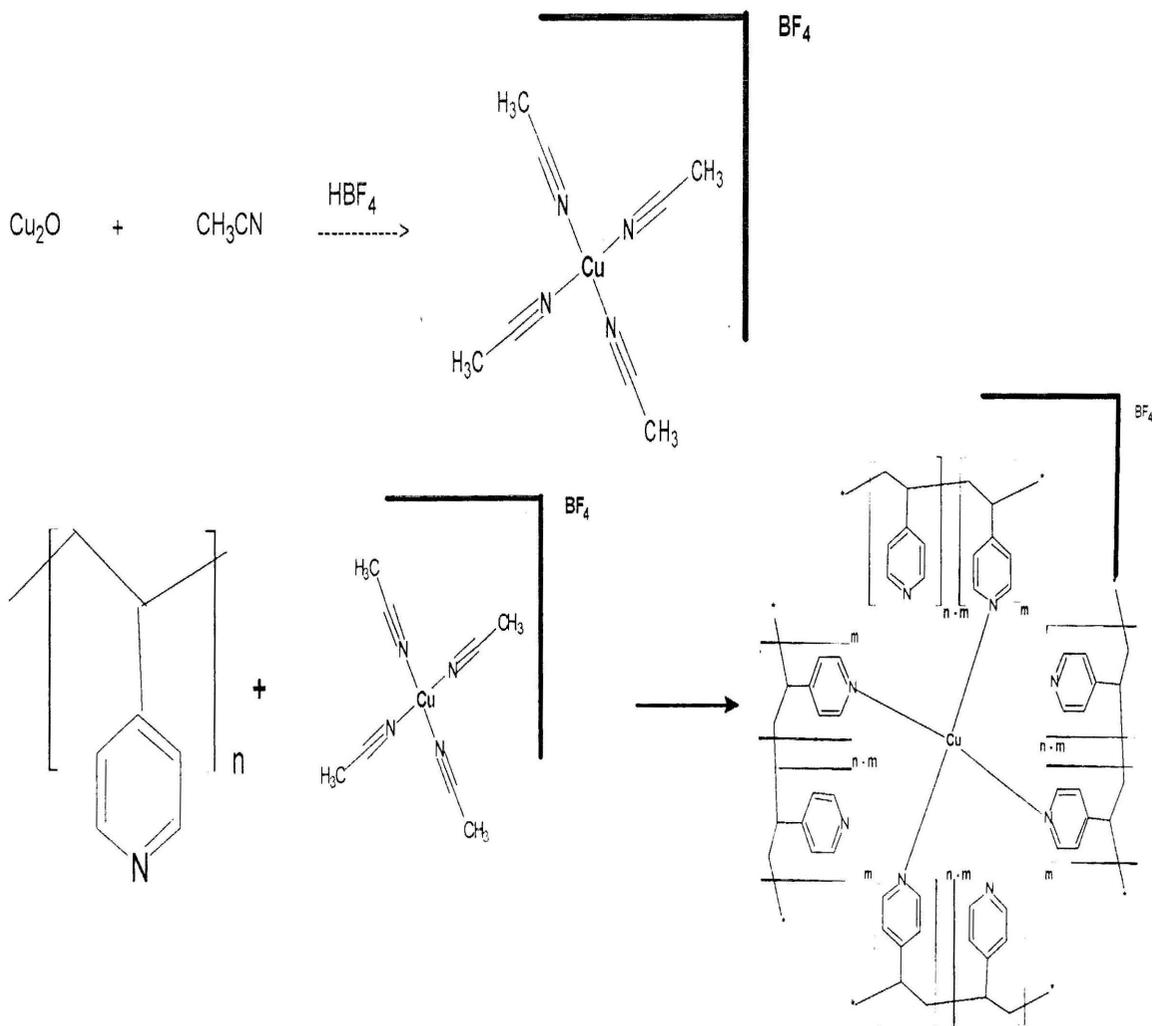


Figure 20. Illustration of the synthesis route of  $[Cu-(PVP)_n]BF_4$  metallopolymer

### 3.3 Result and Discussion

The reaction of the two coordinate small complex  $[3,5 (CF_3)_2PzAg^I]_3$  with the PVP led to three coordinate silver(I) metallopolymer. Figure 18 is illustration of the suggested structure of silver(I) metallopolymer. This structure assumptions of the metallopolymer  $[3,5 (CF_3)_2Pz Ag^I - PVP]_2$  were based on the literature reviews for three coordinate complexes of  $[3,5 (CF_3)_2Pz Ag^I (2,4,6-collidine)]_2$  crystals<sup>84</sup>. The new  $[3,5 (CF_3)_2Pz Ag^I - PVP]_2$  metallopolymer exhibits bright blue photoluminescence (PL) in the solid state. Cryogenic and room temperature 1:3 and 1:8 molar ratio of metal to polymer PL and PL excitation (PLE) spectra and lifetimes are shown in Figure 21 and 22 respectively. These data reveal the sensitivity of the luminescence energies and intensities to both excitation wavelength and temperature. For Ag(I) metallopolymer, the emission can be tuned between two emission maxima ( $\lambda_{em}=460nm$  and  $485nm$ ) by varying  $\lambda_{exc}$  ( $\lambda_{exc}=300nm$  and  $375nm$ ) at the same temperature, that is both ratios of  $[3,5 (CF_3)_2Pz Ag^I - PVP]_2$  metallopolymer shows two emission maxima at  $460nm$  and  $500nm$  upon varying the excitation energy and the temperature. At cryogenic temperature, the lifetime of this phosphorescence emission was calculated to be  $2.4\mu s$  and  $2.2\mu s$  for 1:3 and 1:8 molar ratios, respectively versus  $1.6\mu s$  and  $1.5\mu s$  lifetime at room temperature. The thermochromism luminescence and the microsecond scale unstructured emission indicates metal centered phosphorescence emission.

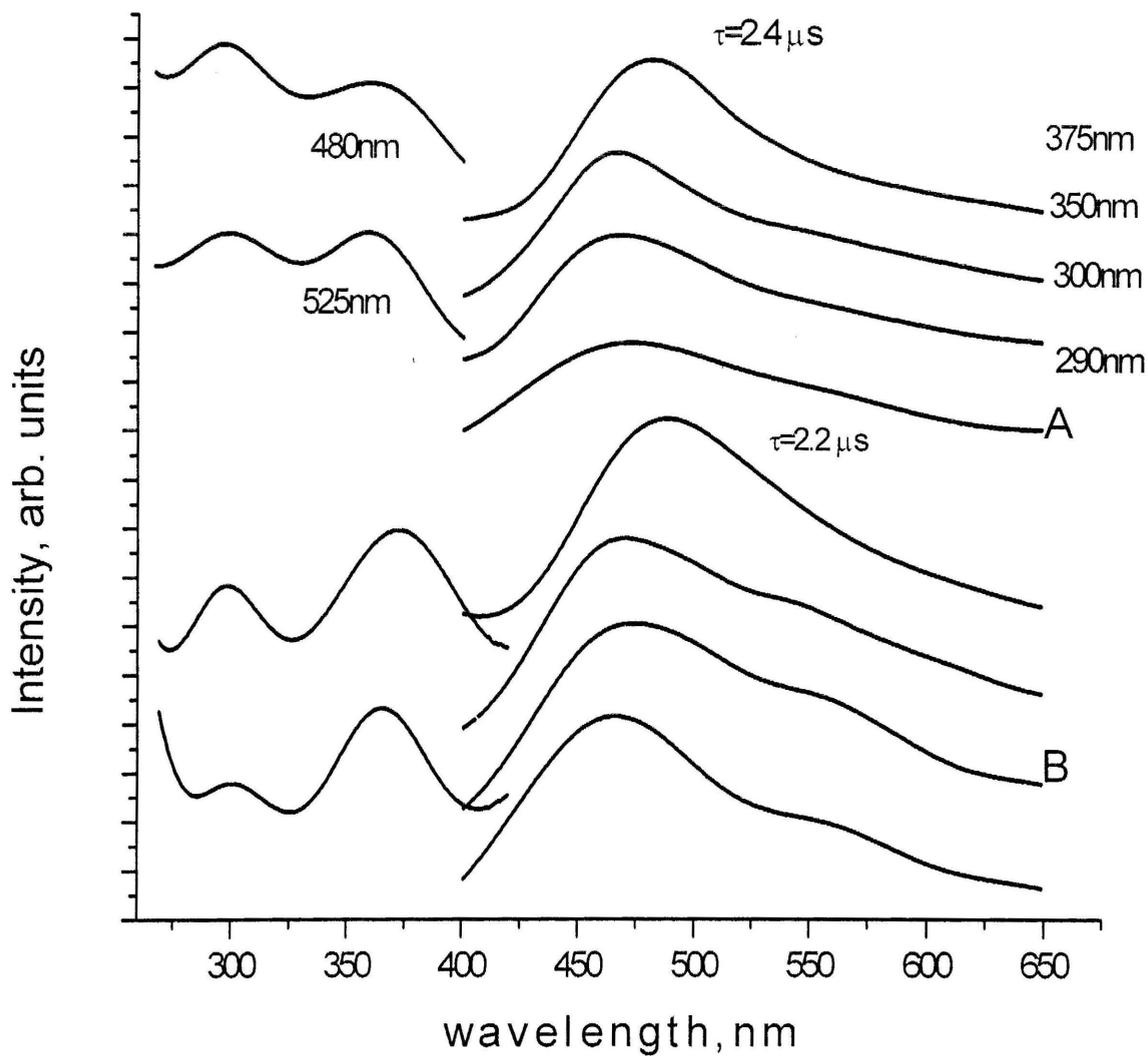


Figure 21. Photoluminescence excitation (left) and emission (right) spectra at (A) 77K ratio 1:3 (B) 77K ratio 1:8 of solid  $[3,5\text{ (CF}_3)_2\text{Pz Ag}^{\text{I}}\text{-PVP}]_2$  solid.

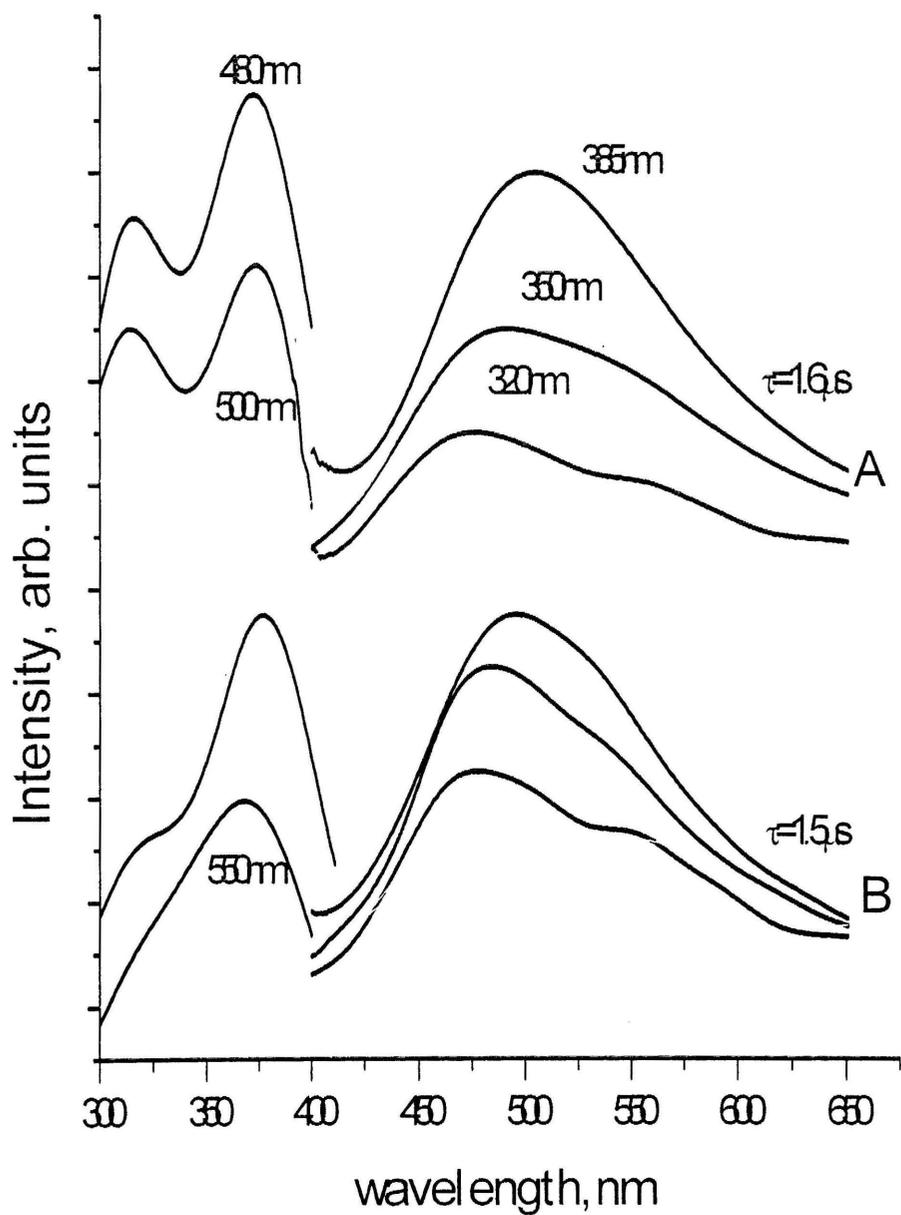


Figure 22. Photoluminescence excitation (left) and emission (right) spectra at (A) 298K ratio 1:3 (B) 298K ratio 1:8 of solid  $[3,5 \text{ (CF}_3)_2\text{Pz Ag}^I \text{- PVP}]_2$  solid.

Solid state diffuse reflectance spectra (figure 23) show two peaks at 250 nm and 350nm. A literature report<sup>84</sup> for three coordinate complexes of silver(I) assigned the electronic transition in the small molecular regime  $[3,5 (CF_3)_2Pz Ag^I (2,4,6\text{-collidine})]_2$  to ligand to metal ( $Pz-Ag^I$ ) charge transfer(LMCT)<sup>84</sup>. However, we prefer the same assignment for the Au(I) metallopolymers to assign the peak at 350nm as ligand metal ( $Pz-Ag^I$ ) to ligand (PVP) charge transfer (LMLCT). Subsequently, we observed that changing the metal:polymer ratio has no significant effect.

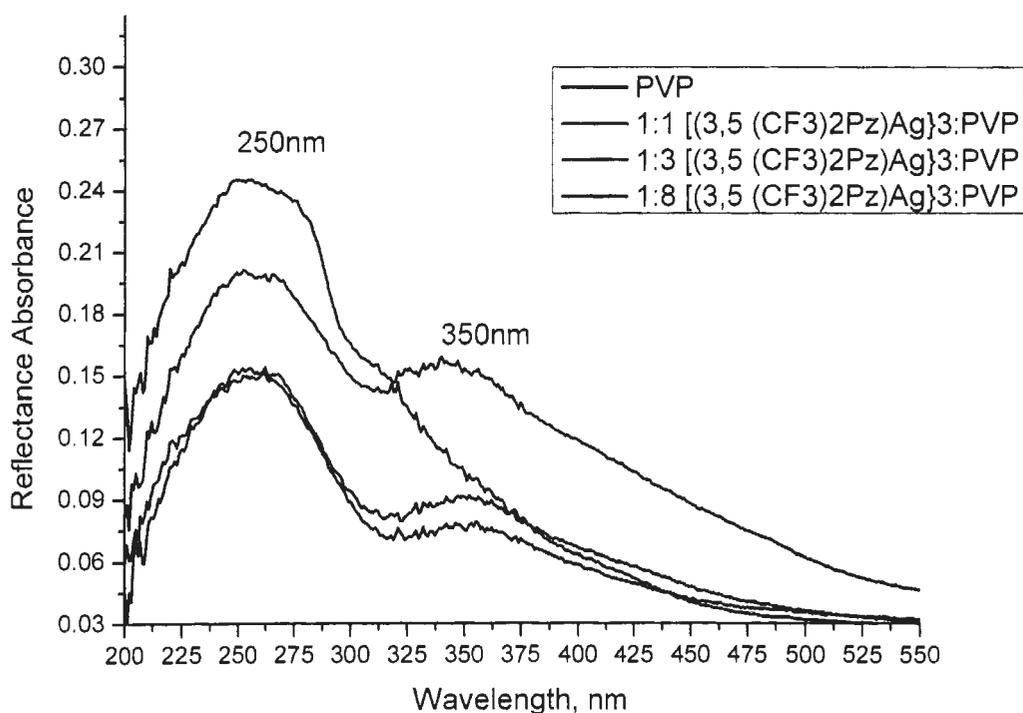


Figure 23. Solid state diffuse reflectance spectra of the metallopolymer  $[3,5 (CF_3)_2Pz Ag^I - PVP]_2$ .

In other route in the research we were able to synthesis four coordinate Cu(I) metallopolymer. The metallopolymer  $[\text{Cu}^{\text{I}}-(\text{PVP})_n].\text{BF}_4$  on the other hand exhibits a yellow ( $\lambda_{\text{em}}= 520\text{-}550\text{nm}$  ) photoluminescence in the solid state. Cryogenic and room temperature PL for such metallopolymer with Cu:PVP molar ratio of 1:4 and 1:12 spectra and lifetimes are shown in Figures 24 and 25, respectively. Both set of spectra show excitation peak maxima at 405nm, emission peak maxima at 560nm and 575nm, and lifetime of 14.0 $\mu\text{s}$  for both molar ratios. These spectra reveal no sensitivity of the luminescence energies and intensities to the excitation wavelength. This metallopolymer was luminescent at cryogenic temperature only and no luminescence was observed at room temperature. While changing the molar ratio has an insignificant effect on the emission and excitation maxima of  $[\text{Cu}^{\text{I}}-(\text{PVP})_n].\text{BF}_4$  metallopolymer (see Figures 24 and 25). The microseconds scale lifetime and unstructured emission indicates triplet state metal centered phosphorescence emission.

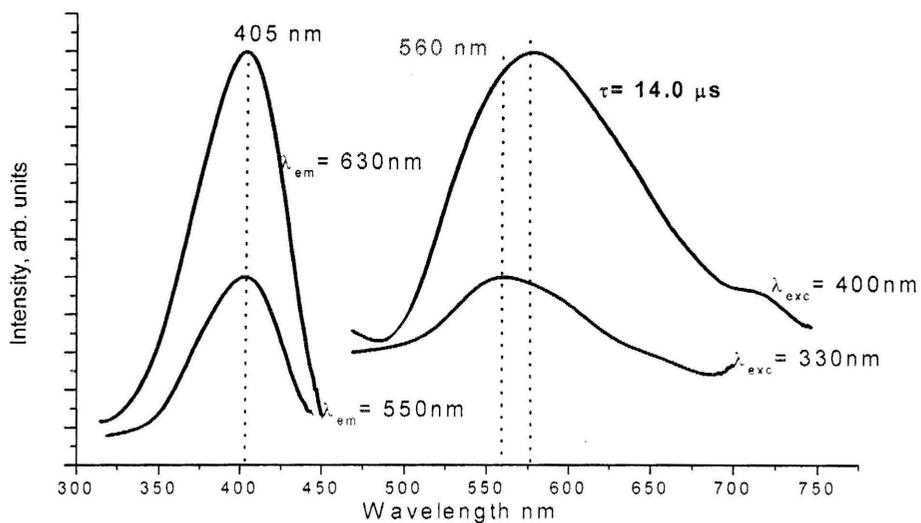


Figure 24. Photoluminescence excitation (left) and emission (right) spectra at 77K of solid  $[\text{Cu}^{\text{I}}-(\text{PVP})_n].\text{BF}_4$  in metal to polymer ratio of 1:4.

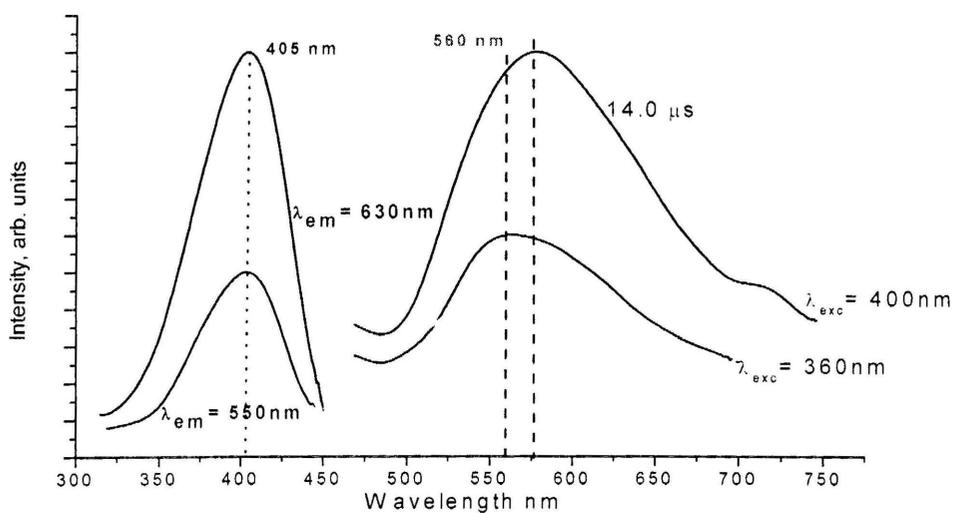


Figure 25. Photoluminescence excitation (left) and emission (right) spectra at 77K of solid  $[\text{Cu}^{\text{I}}-(\text{PVP})_n].\text{BF}_4$  in metal to polymer ratio of 1:12.

Figure 26 shows the diffuse reflectance spectra of the metallopolymer  $[\text{Cu}^{\text{I}} - (\text{PVP})_n] \cdot \text{BF}_4$  measured in the solid state. The spectrum exhibits two bands at 255 nm and 330nm, and a shoulder extended until 500nm. The high energy band (250nm) raises intraligand transition of the PVP polymer. The shoulder centered at 450nm become less intense upon changing the ratio of the metal to the polymer to 1:12 respectively, suggesting metal to ligand charge transfer MLCT, this is because there is no  $\pi$ -donor anionic ligands like  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{C}_6\text{F}_5^-$ ,  $\text{PhCC}^-$ ,  $\text{F}_5\text{PhCC}^-$ , or  $\text{Pz}^-$  like those used in the other classes of metallopolymer-studied in this thesis, which had LMLCT assignment and brighter PL bands.

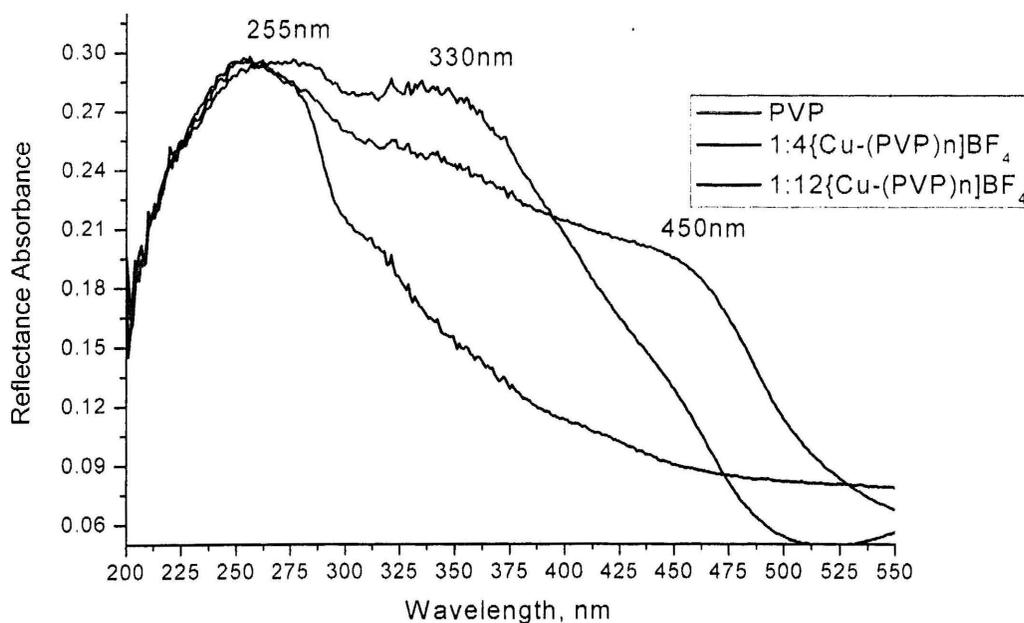


Figure 26. Solid state diffuse reflectance spectra of the metallopolymer  $[\text{Cu}^{\text{I}} - (\text{PVP})_n] \cdot \text{BF}_4$ .

### 3.4 Conclusions

To conclude, the results presented herein discuss the syntheses and photophysical properties of a novel class of phosphorescent copper and silver based metallopolymers. These phosphorescent metallopolymers can provide a cheaper and affordable replacement for the gold metallopolymers discussed in chapter two.

The spectra of the metallopolymer  $[3,5 (CF_3)_2Pz Ag^I - PVP]_2$  shows two emission maxima at 460nm and 500nm with average lifetime of 2.3 $\mu$ s and 1.6  $\mu$ s at 77K and 298K, respectively. This lies in the blue-green region of the spectrum. The excitation spectra also showed two excitation maxima at 300nm and 370nm. The microsecond scale unstructured emission indicates metal centered phosphorescence emission. On other hand the metallopolymer  $[Cu-(PVP)_n]BF_4$ , showed yellow phosphorescent emission ( $\lambda_{em}$ = 550 nm) at 77K temperature with a lifetime of 14.0 $\mu$ s at low energy excitation band ( $\lambda_{exc}$ = 405nm). The low energy excitation suggests a smaller gap between the HOMO and LUMO levels. On other hand alternate metal to polymer molar ratio in both silver and copper metallopolymers led to no change in the excitation nor the emission spectrum.

We successfully un-silenced non-phosphorescent polymer to obtain bright phosphorescent metallopolymers at RT. The phosphorescent emissions were tuned across the visible region: blue( $[3,5(CF_3)_2PzAgPVP]_2$ ), yellow ( $[Cu-(PVP)_n]BF_4$ ). Furthermore, the argentophilic and cuprophilic bonding in the polymers and the rare soft hard Ag-N and Cu-N bond are considered rare in field of bonding chemistry.

Efforts will be pursued to evaluate the performance of this class of Cu(I) and Ag(I) metallopolymers thereof as an alternative to the Au(I) metallopolymers PLED phosphors.

Although we were unable to overcome the solubility problem this metallopolymers specially Cu(I) open a potential use in presser and temperature sensors

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