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Strategic Molecular Design to Engineer the Electron Affinity of Self-Assembling Organic Semiconductors

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STRATEGIC MOLECULAR DESIGN TO ENGINEER THE ELECTRON AFFINITY OF SELF-ASSEMBLING ORGANIC SEMICONDUCTORS

By

Kelly N. Zaugg

Bachelor of Science – Chemistry
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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirement for the

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ABSTRACT

Strategic Molecular Design to Engineer the Electron Affinity of Self-Assembling Organic Semiconductors

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Development of electron-accepting (n-type) semiconductors used in organic photovoltaic cells and field effect transistors has been an area of research with less advancement compared to their electron-donating (p-type) counterparts. Currently, the highest performing n-type semiconductor is a fullerene-based derivative (PCBM) with a favorable $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ of -4.08 eV. However, PCBM has limited absorption in the visible region and fixed electron affinity. This work focuses on the development of self-assembling n-type materials with controllable electronic properties by strategically lowering $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ to a level comparable to PCBM. Molecular design follows an acceptor-acceptor'-acceptor (A-A'-A) configuration; with A being two 2,3-dioctyloxyphenazine substituents connected to A’ with a C-C triple bond. A’ was altered to increase the electron deficiency using benzothiadiazole (BTD), naphthalene diimide (NDI), and perylene-tetracarboxylic diimide (PTCDI). Based on this molecular design, four new n-type materials (BTD-$P$, NDI-$P$-1, NDI-$P$-2, PTCDI-$P$) were successfully synthesized with low $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ values of -3.34 eV, -3.90 eV, -3.90, and -3.97 eV, respectively. Photophysical, thermal, and electrochemical properties were studied using UV-Visible absorption and fluorescence emission spectroscopy, differential scanning calorimetry, thermogravimetric analysis, and cyclic voltammetry. Theoretical evaluations were conducted to understand the experimental electronic
properties. Charge-transfer (CT) was also used to test the accepting properties of the title molecules when paired with a pyrene donor. Successful CT results were seen using NDI-P-1, which were confirmed through UV-Vis and fluorescence spectroscopy. The morphology of the CT complex was studied with polarized optical microscopy (POM). Additionally, fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) through organogelation was studied with BTD-P as a donor with NDI-P-2 as an acceptor. It was found that FRET was efficient even at low acceptor concentration of 5mole%. FRET results were characterized with fluorescence spectroscopy and POM.
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<tr>
<td>HOMO</td>
<td>Highest Occupied Molecular Orbital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LUMO</td>
<td>Lowest Unoccupied Molecular Orbital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TCE</td>
<td>1,1,1-Trichloroethane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHCl₃</td>
<td>Chloroform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDCl₃</td>
<td>Deuterated Chloroform</td>
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<tr>
<td>CH₂Cl₃</td>
<td>Methylene Chloride</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THF</td>
<td>Tetrahydrofuran</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEA</td>
<td>Triethylamine</td>
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<tr>
<td>NMR</td>
<td>Nuclear Magnetic Resonance</td>
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<td>CV</td>
<td>Cyclic Voltammetry</td>
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<tr>
<td>FL</td>
<td>Fluorescence</td>
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<tr>
<td>1D</td>
<td>One Dimensional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3D</td>
<td>Three Dimensional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POM</td>
<td>Polarized Optical Microscopy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT</td>
<td>Charge Transfer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRET</td>
<td>Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer</td>
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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Introduction

Development of electron-accepting (n-type) semiconductors used in organic photovoltaic cells and field effect transistors has been an area of research with less advancement compared to their electron-donating (p-type) counterparts.\textsuperscript{1-4} In donor-acceptor organic solar cells or complimentary circuits, n-type is as important as it’s p-type counterpart. Current examples of successful n-type design include fullerene (C\textsubscript{60})\textsuperscript{2,5} and its derivatives such as PCBM,\textsuperscript{6-7} C\textsubscript{70},\textsuperscript{8-9} ICBA,\textsuperscript{10} etc. All of which show high charge carrier mobility with three-dimensional (3D) charge transport, however their absorption is limited and electron affinity is fixed. Therefore, development of new n-type materials using non-fullerene based design with tailored electron affinity and light harvesting allows for advancement opportunities that address these limitations. However, creating new molecular design for n-type organic semiconductors that still combines high electron mobility with an appropriate LUMO energy level (E\textsubscript{LUMO}) is challenging. One approach to maintaining efficient charge transport\textsuperscript{1,11-12} has been observed in materials that have the ability to self-assemble into one-dimensional (1D) nanostructures.\textsuperscript{13-16} Self-assembly can be achieved through intermolecular interactions such as π-π stacking and/or hydrogen bonding, making this a high priority in our molecular design. Additionally, we want materials with E\textsubscript{LUMO} comparable to that of PCBM. Since PCBM is currently the highest performing n-type semiconductor with E\textsubscript{LUMO} = -4.08 eV,\textsuperscript{6} our molecule design should focus on achieving a comparable low lying E\textsubscript{LUMO}. Typically, to be a useful n-type material for organic solar cell and field effect transistor, the electron-affinity should be in the range of 3.8-4.5 eV.\textsuperscript{17-19} To accomplish this, it is logical to incorporate strong acceptors into the structure. Examples of structural moieties known for high electron withdrawing ability are benzothiadiazole (BTD),
naphthalene diimide (NDI) and perylene diimide (PTCDI), with $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ levels of -2.87 eV,\textsuperscript{20} - 3.79 eV,\textsuperscript{21} and -4.06 eV,\textsuperscript{22-23} respectively. The design principle utilizing BTD, NDI, and PTCDI to create self-assembling n-type materials will be discussed in the next section.

When 1D self-assembling fibers with high electron affinity are successfully created based on our new molecular design strategy, the efficacy of their utility in charge transfer (CT) and fluorescence resonant energy transfer (FRET) will be assessed. Both CT and FRET are important for electronic and biological applications. Similar to organic photovoltaics, CT occurs as an excited electron is transferred from a donor (D) to an acceptor (A) material. Having CT ability will confirm that the molecular design for our acceptors is efficient in accepting electrons. FRET occurs when the emission from an excited state donor is absorbed by the ground state acceptor, which requires significant overlap of the donor’s emission spectrum with the acceptor’s absorption spectrum. Additionally, the efficiency of FRET is dependent on molecular distance of D and A with a range between 10 Å – 100 Å,\textsuperscript{24} making 1D self-assembly ideal for creating better distance control.

This thesis will present four new molecules designed for 1D self-assembly that function as an n-type material. Using strategic molecular design, we show the control of $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ by increasing the electron deficiency of the molecule’s core structure. Following molecular design, synthetic routes to the title molecules are described and their properties are characterized using UV-Visible absorption and fluorescence emission spectroscopy, cyclic voltammetry, differential scanning calorimetry, and theoretical evaluations. For select title molecules, CT and FRET were studied using UV-Visible absorption and fluorescence emission spectroscopy, polarized optical microscopy, and organogelation.
1.2 Molecular Design

A primary objective in molecular design is to create a material with a large electron affinity while maintaining the desired self-assembling properties. Shown in Figure 1, our molecular design will follow an acceptor-acceptor’-acceptor (A-A’-A) configuration; where A’ was altered using electron deficient-structural components. Henceforth, A’ is referred to as the “pendant”. In this research, we choose three different moieties for the pendant while A remained as dialkoxyphenazine substituents.

Dialkoxyphenazine is known to help make fiber and has been reported to exhibit gelling properties with potential as an acid-sensor. Phenazine is also electron deficient and has $E_{\text{LUMO}} = -3.23 \text{ eV}^{26-27}$ which will help maintain a low $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ for the overall molecule. The long octyloxy side groups promote solubility in common organic solvents and assist self-assembly through van der Waals interactions. All pendants are connected to the dialkoxyphenazine
groups with a triple bond to force planarity. Having a planar structure helps promote self-assembly through more effective \(\pi-\pi\) interactions which could be beneficial for enhancing charge-transport properties.\(^{13-14}\)

The three pendants used were benzothiadiazole (BTD), naphthalene diimide (NDI), and perylenetetracarboxylic diimide (PTCDI). As described previously, these moieties are recognized for their high electron withdrawing ability as n-type acceptors and low lying \(E_{\text{LUMO}}\).\(^{29-31}\) As the pendant is changed from BTD to NDI to PTCDI, we hope to see a decrease in the overall molecules \(E_{\text{LUMO}}\) and ultimately obtain a target \(E_{\text{LUMO}}\) similar to PCBM of \(-4.08\) eV.\(^{6}\)

2 EXPERIMENTAL

2.1 Instrumentation

Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra were measured using a Varian Gemini 400 MHz NMR spectrometer operated at room temperature. The samples were prepared for both \(^1\text{H}\) and \(^{13}\text{C}\) NMR analysis by dissolving the compound in deuterated chloroform (CDCl\(_3\)) containing tetramethylsilane (TMS) as an internal standard. The chemical shifts were then reported in parts per million (ppm) relative to the internal standard (TMS; 0.0). Mass spectra were collected by the University of Texas at Arlington. Absorption and emission properties were obtained for all title molecules in both solution and solid state. The absorption properties were analyzed using a Shimadzu UV-2600 UV-visible spectrophotometer equipped with xenon lamp as the excitation source. The photoluminescent properties were analyzed using a Perkin-Elmer LS 55 luminescence spectrometer, which also used a xenon lamp as the excitation source. Phase transition temperatures of the title compounds were studied using differential scanning calorimetric (DSC) analyses on a TA instrument Q200 series DSC. Analyses were performed under nitrogen atmosphere at heating and cooling rates of 10 °C/min. The temperature axis of the
DSC thermograms was calibrated against high purity indium and tin reference standards. Thermal properties were studied by thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) using a TA instrument Q50 series TGA. Analyses were performed under nitrogen atmosphere at a heating rate of 10 °C/min in the temperature range between 30 and 800 °C. Electrochemistry measurements were performed using cyclic voltammetry (CV) on a CHI660D from CH Instruments, Inc. The cell was equipped using a three electrode configuration; a platinum plate as the counter electrode, a platinum disc (2 mm diameter) as the working electrode, and a non-aqueous Ag/Ag⁺ electrode (Ag in 10 mM AgNO₃ acetonitrile solution) as the reference electrode. CV measurements for all compounds were recorded in a 25 mL methylene chloride solution containing 0.1 M tetrabutylammonium hexafluorophosphate (TBAPF₆) as the supporting electrolyte. The solution was purged with argon gas for 30-60 minutes before each experiment, and a positive pressure of argon flow was maintained over the sample solution during each experiment. The scan rate was set to 0.1 V/s and the sample interval was 0.001 V for all experiments. The potentials were calibrated relative to the redox couple of the internal standard, ferrocene/ferrocenium (Fc/Fc⁺).

Polarized Optical Microscopy (POM) images were obtained using a cast film from dichloromethane solution, which was evaporated onto a glass slide. The images were then captured using 100 micrometer magnification on a POM microscope.

2.2 Synthetic Procedures

All solvents and reagents were purchased from commercial vendors and used without further purification. The precursors, 1-iodo-3,4-dinotrobenzene\(^4\) (2) and 1-iodobenzene-3,4-diamine\(^3\) (3) were synthesized according to previously reported procedures. Additional precursors: 7-iodo-2,3-bis(hydroxyl)phenazine (4) and 7-triisopropylsilylthynyl-2,3-bis(octyloxy)phenazine (6); and intermediates: 7-iodo-2,3-bis(octyloxy)phenazine (5) and 7-
ethynyl-2,3-bis(octyloxy)phenazine (7), were prepared by the procedure shown in section 3.1 as Scheme 1. Target molecule BTD-P, was synthesized according to Scheme 2 in section 3.1, and the necessary precursors: 4,7-diethynyl-2,2,3-benzothiadiazole\textsuperscript{33} (11) and 4,7-dibromo-2,1,3-benzothiadiazole\textsuperscript{34} (9) were prepared following literature procedures. NDI-P-1 was synthesized according to Scheme 3 in section 3.1, and the necessary precursors: 2,6-dibromo-1,4,5,8-napthalenetetracarboxylic acid dianhydride\textsuperscript{35} (14) and di-(2-ethyl-1-hexyl)-2,6-dibromo1,4,5,8-napthalenetetracarboxylic acid bisimide\textsuperscript{36} (15) were prepared following literature procedures. NDI-P-2 was synthesized according to Scheme 4 in section 3.1, and the necessary precursors: 2,6-dibromo-1,4,5,8-napthalenetetracarboxylic acid dianhydride\textsuperscript{35} (14) and dioctyl-2,6-dibromo1,4,5,8-napthalenetetracarboxylic acid bisimide\textsuperscript{36} (16) were prepared following literature procedures. PTCDI-P was synthesized according to Scheme 5 in section 3.1, and the necessary precursors: 1,7-dibromopetylene-3,4:9,10-tetracarboxylic acid dianhydride\textsuperscript{37} (20) and di-(2-ethyl-1-hexyl)-1,7-dibromo3,4:9,10-perylenetetracarboxylic acid bisimide\textsuperscript{38} (21) were prepared following literature procedures. Chemical structures of intermediate 5, precursor 6, and target molecules BTD-P, NDI-P-1, NDI-P-2 and PTCDI-P, were confirmed by \textsuperscript{1}H NMR, \textsuperscript{13}C NMR and mass spectrometry. 

\textbf{\textit{1-iodo-3,4-dinitrobenzene}}\textsuperscript{40} (2): In a round bottom flask over ice, 1.0 g (4.02 mmol) of 1-iodo-3-nitrobenzene was dissolved in H\textsubscript{2}SO\textsubscript{4} (4.2 mL), followed by fuming HNO\textsubscript{3} (3.1 mL). The flask was removed from the ice and placed in an oil bath set at 85°C and stirred for 3 hours under nitrogen. The reaction mixture was then poured over ice water (100 mL), stirred for 10 minutes and filtered with cold water. The filter cake was left to dry for 30 minutes and then recrystallized using hot ethanol. The crystals were collected by filtering and washed with cold ethanol giving a yellow crystal solid product (41% yield).
**1-iodobenzene-3,4-diamine**\(^{32}\) (3): To a flask containing 300 mg (1.02 mmol) of 1-iodo-3,4-dinitrobenzene (2), ethanol (6 mL) and 38% HCl (3 mL) were added and the mixture was stirred until a clear, yellow solution was obtained. 0.515 g (4.33 mmol) of Sn, metal was then added to the flask and the mixture became a dark brown/grey color which quickly turned to a bright red/orange. After about 30 minutes of mixing at room temperature, the solution became a light orange color and was left to mix another 2.5 hours. The temperature was then increased to 45°C for 1.5 hours and again to 70°C for 0.5 hours where the solution became clear. The flask was allowed to cool to room temperature and then poured into H\(_2\)O (100 mL). Sodium carbonate was added until the mixture was neutral. It was then extracted using ethyl acetate and H\(_2\)O where the organic layer was collected, dried over sodium sulfate, filtered, and evaporated. This gave yield to an orange solid at room temperature (96% yield).

**7-iodo-2,3-bis(hydroxyl)phenazine** (4): To a 1-neck round bottom flask containing 230 mg (0.98 mmol) of diamine compound (3), ethanol (22 mL) and 2,5-dihydroxy-1,4-benzoquinone (137 mg, 0.98 mmol) were added. The mixture was a dark red/wine colored solution. The solution was stirred at 80°C for 24 hours and then cooled room temperature and connected to a rotary evaporator to evaporate solvent. This gave crude product as a dark red solid.

**7-iodo-2,3-bis(octyloxy)phenazine** (5): To the same flask containing an approximate 331 mg (0.98 mmol) of crude reactant 4, dimethylformamide (22 mL), potassium carbonate (474 mg, 3.43 mmol), and 1-bromoocctane (568 mg, 2.94 mmol) were added. The flask was refluxed at 60°C for 48 hours under nitrogen gas. It was then cooled to room temperature, precipitated in H\(_2\)O (250 mL) and filtered. The filter cake was dissolved in CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\), dried with sodium sulfate, attached to silica and purified by silica gel column chromatography (50% methylene chloride in hexane) providing pure product as a yellow solid (55% yield). \(^1\)H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl\(_3\),
(1H, d, J = 2.0 Hz), 7.94 (1H, dd, J = 2.0, 1.6 Hz), 7.84 (1H, d, J = 8.8 Hz), 7.30 (2H, s), 4.22 (4H, td, J = 2.8, 2.8, 2.4 Hz), 1.95 (4H, quint, J = 7.0 Hz), 1.52 (4H, quint, J = 7.6 Hz), 1.40-1.31 (16H, m), 0.896 (6H, t, J = 6.8 Hz); $^{13}$C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl$_3$, ppm): δ 154.96, 154.81, 142.38, 142.16, 142.10, 140.66, 137.75, 137.28, 129.92, 105.42, 105.41, 94.46, 69.33, 69.32, 31.77, 29.28, 29.22, 28.68, 25.99, 22.63, 14.07 (7 alkyl peaks not seen due to overlapping signals); HRMS (ESI) m/z [M+H]$^+$ calcd for C$_{28}$H$_{39}$N$_2$O$_2$I 563.2129, found 563.2134.

7-triisopropylsilylethynyl-2,3-bis(octyloxy)phenazine (6): To a two-neck round bottom flask, 200 mg (0.356 mmol) of iodo-phenazine (5), 4.9 mg (0.007 mmol) of Pd(PPh$_3$)$_2$Cl$_2$ and 1.3 mg (0.007 mmol) of CuI were added under nitrogen atmosphere and the flask was capped with a rubber stopper. Tetrahydrofuran (4 mL) and triethylamine (1 mL) were degassed with argon for 30 minutes, and then added to the flask through the rubber stopper using a glass syringe. The resulting solution was mixed until homogeneous. Triisopropylsilyl acetylene (97 mg, 0.534 mmol) was then added with a syringe through the stopper and the solution was left to mix at 65°C for 1.5 hours. After cooling, the solution was poured over a Celite® filter and rinsed with hot CHCl$_3$ giving a yellow filtrate solution that showed blue fluorescence. The filtrate was attached to silica and purified by silica gel column chromatography (80% methylene chloride in hexane) providing a pure yellow solid product (99% yield). $^1$H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl$_3$, ppm): δ 8.27 (1H, d, J = 1.6 Hz), 8.04 (1H, d, J = 8.8 Hz), 7.74 (1H, dd, J = 1.6, 1.6 Hz), 7.31 (2H, d, J = 1.2 Hz), 4.23 (4H, td, J = 1.2, 0.8, 1.2 Hz), 1.96 (4H, quint, J = 6.8 Hz), 1.57-1.51 (7H, m), 1.42-1.31 (16H, m), 1.17 (18H, d, J = 2.4 Hz), 0.896 (6H, t, J = 6.8 Hz); $^{13}$C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl$_3$, ppm): δ 154.78, 154.69, 142.54, 142.05, 141.47, 140.35, 132.55, 131.68, 128.69, 123.86, 106.73, 105.61, 105.55, 94.16, 69.36, 69.34, 31.82, 29.33, 29.27, 28.73, 26.04, 22.68, 18.70, 14.11, 11.35; HRMS (ESI) m/z [M+H]$^+$ calcd for C$_{39}$H$_{60}$N$_2$O$_2$Si 617.4497, found 617.4476.
7-ethynyl-2,3-bis(octyloxy)phenazine (7): To a one-neck round bottom flask containing 218 mg (0.354 mmol) of TIPS-phenazine (6) dissolved in tetrahydrofuran (10 mL), 140 mg (0.443 mmol) of tetrabutylammonium fluoride trihydrate was added and the solution was left to mix at room temperature for 1 hour. The solution was then poured over H₂O (100 mL) and extracted with CHCl₃. The organic layer was collected, dried over sodium sulfate and attached to silica to purify using silica gel column chromatography (100% methylene chloride). This gave yield to a bright yellow solid pure product (93% yield). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃, ppm): δ 8.29 (1H, d, J = 1.6 Hz), 8.07 (1H, d, J = 9.2 Hz), 7.75 (1H, dd, J = 1.6, 1.6 Hz), 7.32 (2H, d, J = 1.2 Hz), 4.23 (4H, t, J = 6.6 Hz), 3.30 (1H, s), 1.96 (4H, quint, J = 7.1 Hz), 1.52 (4H, quint, J = 7.6 Hz), 1.40-1.31 (16H, m), 0.896 (6H, t, J = 6.8 Hz).

4,7-dibromo-2,1,3-benzothiadiazole (9): To a two-neck round bottom flask containing 5.0 g (36.7 mmol) of 2,1,3-benzothiadiazole, 110.1 mmol of 48% HBr was added. The mixture was heated under nitrogen atmosphere until a stable temperature of 115°C was reached. Bromine (17.5 g, 110.1 mmol) was then added to the flask through a dropping funnel over a period of 30 minutes and the flask was left to stir for 3 hours. After cooling to room temperature, the mixture was poured over H₂O (500 mL) and the precipitate was filtered, collected, and recrystallized using hot CHCl₃. The crystals were collected via filtration yielding a pale beige product (48% yield). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃, ppm): δ 7.73 (2H, s); ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃, ppm): δ 152.93, 132.34, 113.90.

4,7-triisopropylsilylethynyl-2,1,3-benzothiadiazole (10): To a two-neck round bottom flask assembled with a condenser and nitrogen atmosphere, 300 mg (1.02 mmol) of 4,7-dibromo-2,1,3-benzothiadiazole (9), 24.9 mg (0.02 mmol) of Pd(PPh₃)₄, and 7.6 mg (0.04 mmol) of CuI were added and the flask was capped with a rubber stopper. Trimethylsilyl acetylene (301 mg,
3.06 mmol) was then added through the stopper followed by triethylamine (12 mL, degassed with argon 30 minutes). The solution was left to mix 5 hours at 75°C and then cooled to room temperature and extracted with H₂O and dichloromethane. The organic layer was neutralized with 1.25N HCl, dried over sodium sulfate and then attached to silica for purification using silica gel column chromatography (30% methylene chloride in hexane). Yellow solid pure product was obtained (74% yield).

4,7-diethynyl-2,2,3-benzothiadiazole 33 (11): To a flask containing 248 mg (0.75 mmol) of compound 10 dissolved in CH₂Cl₂ (6 mL), potassium carbonate (311 mg, 2.25 mmol) and methanol (6 mL) were added. The solution was left to mix overnight under nitrogen atmosphere at room temperature and then filtered over Celite® bed and washed with hot CH₂Cl₂. The filtrate was connected to a rotary evaporator and solvent was evaporated. This gave a crude product of a yellow/brown solid (102% yield). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃, ppm): δ 7.77 (2H, s), 3.69 (2H, s).

BTD-P (Route 1): To a two-neck round bottom flask assembled with condenser and nitrogen atmosphere, 33 mg (0.18 mmol) of reactant 11, 200 mg (0.36 mmol) of reactant 5, 1.3 mg (0.002 mmol) of Pd(PPh₃)₂Cl₂ and 0.34 mg (0.002 mmol) of CuI were added and the flask was capped with a rubber stopper. Tetrahydrofuran (7 mL) and triethylamine (2 mL), which had previously been degassed with argon for 30 minutes, were then added to the flask via glass syringe through the rubber stopper. The mixture was refluxed for 4 hours at 80°C giving a dark red solution color. After cooling to room temperature, the solution was filtered through Celite® and rinsed with hot CHCl₃. The filtrate was connected to a rotary evaporator and the solvent was evaporated. This gave very small amount of product shown on TLC, so no further purification was conducted.
BTD-P (Route 2): To a two-neck round bottom flask assembled with condenser and nitrogen atmosphere, 152 mg (0.33 mmol) of reactant 7, 44 mg (0.15 mmol) of reactant 9, 2.1 mg (0.003 mmol) of Pd(PPh\textsubscript{3})\textsubscript{2}Cl\textsubscript{2} and 0.6 (0.003 mmol) of CuI were added and the flask was capped with a rubber stopper. Tetrahydrofuran (6 mL) and triethylamine (2 mL), which had previously been degassed with argon for 30 minutes, were then added to the flask via glass syringe through the rubber stopper. The mixture was refluxed overnight at 70°C, cooled to room temperature and then placed in the fridge for 30 minutes. A dark red gel formed in the flask which was broken up using a spatula and filtered using cold methanol to help the transfer. The filter cake was dissolved in CHCl\textsubscript{3}, attached to silica and purified using silica gel column chromatography (100% methylene chloride to 3% methanol in methylene chloride). The product was then re-precipitated from hot CH\textsubscript{2}Cl\textsubscript{2} into methanol, filtered and collected giving a dark yellow solid (43% yield). \textsuperscript{1}H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl\textsubscript{3}, ppm): δ 8.46 (2H, d, J = 1.6 Hz), 8.14 (2H, d, J = 8.8 Hz), 7.95 (2H, dd, J = 2.0, 2.0 Hz), 7.92 (2H, s), 7.34 (4H, d, J = 4.4 Hz), 4.24 (8H, td, J = 2.8, 2.4, 2.8 Hz), 1.97 (8H, quint, J = 6.7 Hz), 1.53 (8H, quint, J = 7.2 Hz), 1.43-1.31 (32H, m), 0.903 (12H, t, J = 6.8 Hz). \textsuperscript{12}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl\textsubscript{3}, ppm): δ 154.92, 154.72, 154.33, 142.62, 142.21, 141.67, 141.25, 132.64, 132.60, 131.33, 128.99, 122.72, 117.18, 105.58, 105.47, 97.51, 87.87, 69.37, 31.83, 29.36, 29.28, 28.77, 28.75, 26.05, 26.04, 22.68, 14.12 (6 alkyl peaks not seen due to overlapping signals); HRMS (ESI) m/z \textsuperscript{[M+H]}\textsuperscript{+} calcd for C\textsubscript{66}H\textsubscript{80}N\textsubscript{6}O\textsubscript{4}S 1053.6035, found 1053.6053.

2,6-dibromo-1,4,5,8-napthalenetetracarboxylic acid dianhydride\textsuperscript{35} (14): To a round bottom flask containing 1.0 g (3.73 mmol) of naphthalene dianhydride, oleum (37 mL) was added and the solution was mixed under nitrogen atmosphere until dissolved. Dibromoisocyanuric acid (1.07 g, 3.73 mmol) was dissolved in oleum (17.5 mL) and then added to the flask using a
dropping funnel over a period of 2 hours at room temperature. The resulting mixture was stirred
another 2 hours and then poured over ice water (500 mL) and allowed to stand 1 hour. This
formed a dark yellow precipitate which was filtered, washed with 1.25N HCl, dried and collected
as the crude product (94% yield).

**di-(2-ethyl-1-hexyl)-2,6-dibromo1,4,5,8-napthalenetetracarboxylic acid bisimide**\(^ {36} \) (15): To a
round bottom flask containing 1.26 g (2.96 mmol) of 2,6-dibromo-1,4,5,8-napthalenetetracyanuric acid (14), acetic acid (40 mL) was added and the mixture was heated to 120\(^{\circ}\)C for 20 minutes. 2-ethyl-1-hexylamine (20 mmol) was then added and the mixture
continued to reflux another 20 minutes. The solution was then poured over H\(_2\)O (400 mL), which
formed a light brown precipitate that was filtered, dried, and attached to silica for purification
using silica gel column chromatography (60% methylene chloride in hexane). The pure product
obtained was a pale yellow solid (4.7% yield). \(^1\)H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl\(_3\), ppm): \(\delta\) 9.00 (2H, s),
4.21-4.12 (4H, m), 1.98-1.89 (2H, m), 1.41-1.28 (16H, m), 0.936 (6H, t, \(J = 7.4\) Hz), 0.885 (6H,
t, \(J = 7.0\) Hz).

**dioctyl-2,6-dibromo1,4,5,8-napthalenetetracarboxylic acid bisimide**\(^ {36} \) (16): To a round
bottom flask containing 2.40 g (5.63 mmol) of 2,6-dibromo-1,4,5,8-napthalenetetracyanuric acid
(14), acetic acid (70 mL) was added and the mixture was heated to 120\(^{\circ}\)C for 20 minutes.
Octylamine (4.91 g, 38 mmol) was then added and the mixture continued to reflux another 20
minutes. The solution was then poured over H\(_2\)O (700 mL), which formed a light brown
precipitate that was filtered, dried, and attached to silica for purification using silica gel column
chromatography (70% methylene chloride in hexane). The pure product obtained was a pale pink
solid (4.8% yield). \(^1\)H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl\(_3\), ppm): \(\delta\) 9.00 (2H, s), 4.19 (4H, t, \(J = 7.6\) Hz),
1.73 (4H, quin, \(J = 7.5\) Hz), 1.45-1.28 (20H, m), 0.880 (6H, t, \(J = 7.0\) Hz).
**NDI-P-1:** To a round bottom flask containing 217 mg (0.471 mmol) of reactant 7, 139 mg (0.214 mmol) of reactant 15, 3.0 mg (0.0043 mmol) of Pd(PPh$_3$)$_2$Cl$_2$ and 0.8 mg (0.0043 mmol) of CuI were added and the flask was connected to nitrogen atmosphere and capped with a rubber stopper. Tetrahydrofuran (18 mL) and triethylamine (6 mL), which had previously been degassed with argon for 30 minutes, were then added to the flask via glass syringe through the rubber stopper. The mixture was stirred at room temperature for 1.5 hours and then methanol (20 mL) was added to the flask allowing precipitation. The flask was placed in the fridge for 1 hour and then filtered using cold methanol to help the transfer. The filter cake was dissolved in CHCl$_3$ and attached to neutral alumina for purification with neutral alumina column chromatography (100% chloroform). It was then attached to basic alumina for further purification using basic alumina column chromatography (20% ethyl acetate in hexane). The collected product was re-precipitated from hot CH$_2$Cl$_2$ into methanol and filtered. Filter cake was collected and dried giving product as dark red solid (64% yield). $^1$H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl$_3$, ppm): δ 8.76 (2H, s), 8.43 (2H, d, $J = 1.6$ Hz), 8.07 (2H, d, $J = 8.8$ Hz), 7.98 (2H, dd, $J = 1.6$, 1.6 Hz), 7.27 (2H, s), 7.24 (2H, s), 4.30-4.18 (12H, m), 2.11-2.03 (2H, m), 1.99 (4H, quint, $J = 7.2$ Hz), 1.90 (4H, quint, $J = 7.2$ Hz), 1.62-1.25 (56H, m), 1.03 (6H, t, $J = 7.4$ Hz), 0.97-0.87 (18H, m). $^{13}$C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl$_3$, ppm): δ 161.83, 160.93, 154.89, 154.49, 141.98, 141.73, 141.28, 140.51, 135.66, 133.26, 131.59, 128.67, 125.43, 125.02, 124.50, 123.90, 122.89, 105.35, 105.12, 101.95, 92.08, 69.28, 69.17, 44.54, 37.94, 31.92, 31.82, 30.77, 29.46, 29.40, 29.37, 29.24, 28.93, 28.75, 26.15, 25.86, 24.02, 23.29, 22.74, 22.64, 14.33, 14.16, 14.09, 10.77 (1 alkyl peak not seen due to overlapping signals); HRMS (ESI) $m/z$ [M+H]$^+$ calcd for C$_{90}$H$_{114}$N$_6$O$_8$ 1407.8771, found 1407.8769.
**NDI-P-2:** To a round bottom flask containing 54 mg (0.117 mmol) of reactant 7, 34 mg (0.053 mmol) of reactant 16, 0.7 mg (0.001 mmol) of Pd(PPh$_3$)$_2$Cl$_2$ and 0.2 mg (0.001 mmol) of CuI were added and the flask was connected to nitrogen atmosphere and capped with rubber stopper. Tetrahydrofuran (4.5 mL) and triethylamine (1.5 mL), which had previously been degassed with argon for 30 minutes, were then added to the flask via glass syringe through the rubber stopper. The mixture was stirred at room temperature for 2.5 hours and then methanol (10 mL) was added to the flask allowing precipitation. The flask was placed in the fridge for 1 hour and then filtered using cold methanol to help the transfer. The filter cake was dissolved in CHCl$_3$ and attached to neutral alumina for purification with neutral alumina column chromatography (100% chloroform). The collected product was re-precipitated from hot CH$_2$Cl$_2$ into methanol and filtered. Filter cake was collected and dried giving product as dark red solid (54% yield).

$^1$H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl$_3$, ppm): δ 8.59 (2H, s), 8.32 (2H, s), 7.98 (2H, d, J = 8.8 Hz), 7.91 (2H, dd, J = 1.6, 1.6 Hz), 7.19 (2H, s), 7.13 (2H, s), 4.28-4.21 (8H, m), 4.13 (4H, t, J = 6.6 Hz), 1.98 (4H, quint, J = 7.5 Hz), 1.91-1.80 (8H, m), 1.52-1.26 (60H, m), 0.93-0.86 (18H, m).

$^{13}$C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl$_3$, ppm): δ 161.36, 160.50, 154.84, 154.47, 142.02, 141.79, 141.32, 140.48, 135.77, 133.45, 131.40, 128.69, 125.53, 125.25, 124.59, 124.07, 122.60, 105.31, 105.10, 101.90, 91.87, 69.22, 69.15, 41.08, 31.95, 31.87, 31.79, 29.50, 29.44, 29.36, 29.32, 29.22, 28.87, 28.72, 28.13, 27.35, 26.12, 25.86, 22.74, 22.69, 22.61, 14.16, 14.11, 14.05 (1 alkyl peak not seen due to overlapping signals). HRMS (ESI) m/z [M+H]$^+$ calcd for C$_{96}$H$_{114}$N$_6$O$_8$ 1407.8771, found 1407.8791.

**1,7-dibromopetylene-3,4:9,10-tetracarboxylic acid dianhydride**$^{37}$ (20): To a round bottom flask containing 2.0 g (5.09 mmol) of perylene-3,4:9,10-tetracarboxylic acid dianhydride (19), H$_2$SO$_4$ (60 mL) was added and the mixture was left to stir at room temperature for 1 hour. Iodine
(103 mg, 0.4 mmol) was then added and the solution was heated to 85°C over 45 minutes. Bromine (4.87 g, 30.5 mmol) was then added and the mixture was stirred overnight at 95°C. After cooling to room temperature, the solution was poured into H₂O (600 mL) and the precipitate was filtered. The filter cake was collected and dried giving a rust-colored crude product.

di-(2-ethyl-1-hexyl)-1,7-dibromo3,4:9,10-perylenetetracarboxylic acid bisimide⁴⁸ (21): To a round bottom flask containing 1.0 g (1.82 mmol) of 1,7-dibromoperylene-3,4,9,10-tetracarboxylic acid dianhydride (20), a solution of n-butyl alcohol (35 mL) and water (35 mL) was added and the flask was sonicated for 10 minutes. 2-ethyl-1-hexylamine (823 mg, 6.37 mmol) was then added and the reaction mixture was stirred for 24 hours at 80°C. Concentrated HCl (7 mL) was then added and the mixture was stirred at room temperature for 30 minutes. The mixture was extracted with CHCl₃, washed with water, dried with MgSO₄, and connected to a rotary evaporator to evaporate solvent. The product was then re-precipitated from hot CHCl₃ into methanol, filtered, collected and attached to silica for purification with silica gel column chromatography (70% chloroform in hexane). The collected product was re-precipitated again from hot CHCl₃ into methanol, filtered and dried, giving pure product as bright red solid (20% yield). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃, ppm): δ 9.40 (2H, d, J = 8.0 Hz), 8.85 (2H, s), 8.62 (2H, d, J = 8.4 Hz), 4.19-4.09 (4H, m), 1.99-1.89 (2H, m), 1.42-1.32 (16H, m), 0.950 (6H, t, J = 7.4 Hz), 0.901 (6H, t, J = 7.0 Hz).

PTCDI-P: To a two-neck round bottom flask containing 236 mg (0.512 mmol) of reactant 7, 158 mg (0.205 mmol) of reactant 21, 5.8 mg (0.0082 mmol) of Pd(PPh₃)₂Cl₂ and 1.6 mg (0.0082 mmol) of CuI were added and the flask was connected to nitrogen atmosphere and capped with a rubber stopper. Tetrahydrofuran (12 mL) and triethylamine (4 mL), previously degassed with
argon for 30 minutes, where then added to the flask via glass syringe through the rubber stopper. The solution was stirred at room temperature for 5 hours and then precipitated by adding methanol (20 mL) and placed in the fridge for 30 minutes. The precipitate was filtered, washed with cold methanol, collected, dissolved in CHCl₃ and attached to silica for purification with silica gel column chromatography (70% chloroform in hexane to 0.5% methanol in chloroform). The product was then attached to neutral alumina for further purification using neutral alumina column chromatography (70% chloroform in hexane to 100% chloroform). The collected product was re-precipitated from hot CHCl₃ into methanol, filtered, dried and collected as a dark purple/black solid (28% yield). H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃, ppm): δ 9.79 (2H, d, J = 8.4 Hz), 8.64 (2H, s), 8.53 (2H, d, J = 8.0 Hz), 7.96 (2H, d, J = 1.6 Hz), 7.88 (2H, d, J = 8.4 Hz), 7.64 (2H, dd, J = 2.0, 1.6 Hz), 7.06 (2H, s), 6.93 (2H, s), 4.30-4.09 (12H, m), 2.03-1.92 (10H, m), 1.60-1.35 (56H, m), 1.03 (6H, t, J = 7.2 Hz), 0.98-0.92 (18H, m). C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl₃, ppm): δ 162,94, 162.70, 154.67, 154.32, 142.05, 141.73, 141.12, 140.36, 137.20, 132.97, 132.71, 132.51, 129.94, 129.80, 129.38, 126.86, 126.45, 122.72, 121.67, 121.55, 119.53, 105.30, 105.01, 98.87, 93.20, 69.25, 69.16, 44.41, 38.05, 31.94, 31.93, 30.94, 29.57, 29.42, 29.40, 29.02, 28.97, 28.86, 26.19, 26.14, 24.16, 23.20, 22.76, 22.74, 14.23, 14.16, 14.15, 10.66 (1 aromatic peak and 1 alkyl peak not seen due to overlapping signals); HRMS (ESI) m/z [M+H]⁺ calcd for C₁₀₀H₁₁₈N₆O₈ 1531.9084, found 1531.9110.

2.3 Organogelation

In a 4 mL screw cap vial, a known concentration of compound was suspended in a 1,1,1-Trichloroethane (TCE) solution. The vial containing the suspension was heating until the compound dissolved and then left undisturbed to cool to room temperature. When turning the vial upside down, successful gelation was identified if there was no streaming solvent.
2.4 Cast Film Preparation

A known concentration of compound was dissolved in an organic solvent, forming a homogeneous solution. The solution was drop-cast onto a clean glass cover slide and left undisturbed until the solvent fully evaporated.

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Synthesis

The route to the synthesis of the final compounds BTD-P, NDI-P-1, NDI-P-2, and PTCDI-P are summarized in Scheme 2, Scheme 3, Scheme 4, and Scheme 5, respectively. All reaction schemes used a Sonogashira coupling reaction with intermediate 7 (7-ethynyl-2,3-bis(octyloxy)phenazine) and dibromo-A’ (A’ = BTD, NDI, and PTCDI). Meanwhile, BTD-P also used intermediate 5 (7-iodo-2,3-bis(octyloxy)phenazine). The synthetic route to the crucial intermediates 5 and 7 are shown in Scheme 1.

The first step in synthesizing the crucial intermediates was nitration of m-iodonitrobenzene.\(^{40}\) This nitration reaction yielded 1-iodo-3,4-dinitrobenzene (2) which was then reduced using Sn over HCl to yield the first listed precursor; 1-iodobenzene-3,4-diamine (3).\(^{32}\) Precursor 3 was suspended in EtOH and cyclized using 2,5-dihydroxy-1,4-benzoquinone. This cyclization reaction produced 7-iodo-2,3-bis(hydroxyl)phenazine (4). Compound 4 showed strong hydrogen-bonding with silica gel due to the presence of OH groups. Purification using column chromatography could not be performed. Thus, crude reactant 4 was subjected to Williamson Ether synthesis using 1-bromoocctane in a dimethylformamide solution. This yielded intermediate 5, the first crucial intermediate. Intermediate 5 was then used in a Sonogashira coupling reaction with triisopropylsilylethynyl acetylene to yield 7-triisopropylsilylethynyl-2,3-bis(octyloxy)phenazine (6). Then triisopropylsilyl of compound 6 was removed using
tetrabutylammonium floride trihydrate in a tetrahydrofuran solution to yield intermediate 7, the second crucial intermediate.

Scheme 1. Synthetic route to intermediates: 7-iodo-2,3-bis(octyloxy)phenazine (5) and 7-ethynyl-2,3-bis(octyloxy)phenazine (7).
Both intermediates (5 and 7) were essential to finding an efficient synthetic route for the title compounds. Scheme 2 illustrates how each intermediate was used in the synthesis of BTD-P following two different routes. Route 1 used intermediate 5; while route 2 used intermediate 7. Both routes followed a Sonogashira coupling reaction between an aryl halide and terminal alkyne. However, the structure (either phenazine or pendant) for which the aryl halide or terminal alkyne is attached switched. Route 1 used intermediate 5 as the aryl halide (phenazine structure), and reactant 11 (pendant structure, BTD) as the terminal alkyne. After reacting four hours at 80 °C, thin layer chromatography results showed very low conversion of our desired product, so the reaction was stopped and purification was not attempted. Instead, route 2 was tried by switching the substituents on the reactants. This route used dibromo-BTD (9) and intermediate 7. After checking thin layer chromatography results, a much more appreciable conversion was seen for route 2 compared to route 1. Thus, the title compound BTD-P was obtained after silica gel column chromatography purification with a 43% yield.

A possible explanation as to why route 2 gave a more efficient conversion compared to route 1 could be due to the inductive effect and stronger polarization from BTD compared to phenazine. Therefore, compound 11 would oxidize faster leading to a lower yield as a result of degradation. An additional explanation could be because of faster decomposition with compound 11 due to the extra proton. Based on the finding that route 2 gave a more efficient conversion when synthesizing BTD-P, intermediate 7 was used as the terminal alkyne reactant in the final Sonogashira coupling reaction step for all additional title compounds.
Scheme 2. Synthetic routes to the target molecule, BTD-P.
The synthetic route to target molecule NDI-P-1 is summarized in Scheme 3. This reaction scheme started with bromination of naphthalene dianhydride using dibromoisocyanuric acid and oleum to yield 2,6-dibromo-1,4,5,8-napthalenetetracarboxylic acid dianhydride (14).\textsuperscript{35} Then, di-(2-ethyl-1-hexyl)-2,6-dibromo1,4,5,8-napthalenetetracarboxylic acid bisimide (15) was obtained through imidization reaction between 2-ethyl-1-hexylamine and dibromo-naphthalene dianhydride (14).\textsuperscript{36} The final reaction step used Sonogashira coupling between intermediate 7 and reactant 15 to produce the title compound, NDI-P-1. This reaction required careful
optimization. Scheme 3 shows that two reaction conditions were attempted. Both reactions used the same reagents, but differed in reaction time and temperature. The first reaction condition was the same as route 2 used for BTD-P in Scheme 2. This route proceeded by reacting overnight at a temperature of 70 °C. Just as the reaction began, the solution turned a bright red color that appeared to be a successful conversion. However, after continuing the reaction overnight, the solution color turned dark brown. When checking thin layer chromatography results, it was seen that any possible product (red solid) had decomposed. Our hypothesis was that the reaction was sensitive to time and temperature. Therefore, the second trial was carried out at room temperature and monitored using thin layer chromatography so that the reaction could be stopped before decomposition. Maximum conversion was shown after 1.5 hours and the reaction was stopped. NDI-P-1 could then be purified using silica gel column chromatography which gave a yield of 64%.

The synthetic route to target molecule NDI-P-2 is summarized in Scheme 4. Following the routes to NDI-P-1, this reaction scheme also started with bromination of naphthalene dianhydride using dibromoisocyanuric acid and oleum to yield 2,6-dibromo-1,4,5,8-naphalenetetracarboxylic acid dianhydride (14). Then, dioctyl-2,6-dibromo1,4,5,8-napthalenetetracarboxylic acid bisimide (16) was obtained through imidization reaction between octylamine and dibromo-naphthalene dianhydride (14). The final reaction step used Sonogashira coupling between intermediate 7 and reactant 16 to produce the title compound, NDI-P-2. Since the only difference in molecular structure between NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 is their alkyl chain on the imide nitrogen, similar reaction conditions were followed in the final Sonogashira coupling step. After reacting 2.5 hours at room temperature, maximum product
conversion was seen based on thin layer chromatography analysis. **NDI-P-2** was purified using silica gel column chromatography which gave a yield of 54%.

![Scheme 4. Synthetic route to the target molecule, NDI-P-2.](image)

An interesting comparison can be made based on experimental differences in solubility between **NDI-P-1** and **NDI-P-2**. Although both dissolved in chloroform and dichloromethane, it was expected that **NDI-P-1** would show better solubility based on the bulkiness of the alkyl
chain on the imide nitrogen which can reduce strong $\pi$-aggregation. However, NDI-P-2 showed the better solubility. NDI-P-2 has a longer alkyl chain, but it is straight and less bulky. Based on this observation, the length of alkyl chain may contribute to solubility more than chain bulkiness.

Scheme 5. Synthetic route to the target molecule, PTCDI-P.
The synthetic route to title compound, **PTCDI-P**, is summarized in Scheme 5. This reaction scheme started with bromination of perylene-3,4,9,10-tetracarboxylic acid dianhydride to yield 1,7-dibromoperylene-3,4,9,10-tetracarboxylic acid dianhydride (20). Then, di-(2-ethyl-1-hexyl)-1,7-dibromo3,4:9,10-perylenetetracarboxylic acid bisimide (21) was obtained through imidization reaction between 2-ethyl-1-hexylamine and dibromo-perylene dianhydride (20). The final reaction step used Sonogashira coupling between intermediate 7 and reactant 21 to produce the title compound, **PTCDI-P**. This coupling reaction was carried out under room temperature conditions showing an appreciable conversion based on thin layer chromatography analysis after 5 hours. Purification of **PTCDI-P** was extremely difficult requiring both silica gel and neutral alumina column chromatography, with a yield of 28%.

The structures and purity of **BTD-P**, **NDI-P-1**, **NDI-P-2**, and **PTCDI-P** were confirmed by $^1$H NMR, $^{13}$C NMR, and mass spectrometry.

### 3.2 Optical Properties

#### 3.2.1 UV-Visible Absorption Spectroscopy

The UV-visible absorption spectra were obtained for all title compounds in both solution and solid state. The solution samples were prepared in dichloromethane with concentrations varying from 1 μM to 5 μM. The spectra shown in Figure 2 compare the absorption patterns for all compounds at 5 μM concentration. The longest wavelength absorption ($\lambda_{\text{max}}$) for **BTD-P** is observed at 445 nm. As we increase the size and electron deficiency of the pendant, $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ for **NDI-P-1** and **NDI-P-2** shows longer wavelength absorption at 514 nm. Again, as the pendant continues to become more electron deficient, $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ for **PTCDI-P** is further shifted to 587 nm. Thus, red-shift in the absorption occurs as electron-deficiency of pendant of the title molecules increases. Red-shift in the absorption can be translated as a reduced HOMO-LUMO energy gap
(E\textsubscript{gap}). Whether the electron-deficiency of pendant plays the major role in the reduction of E\textsubscript{gap} will be investigated in greater detail. It should be noted that the absorption patterns of NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 are essentially identical. This suggests that the alkyl chain does not contribute to the absorption.

Also shown in Figure 2, is that all title compounds have a second absorption peak at a shorter wavelength correlating to the dialkoxyphenazine substituents. This can be determined from the literature absorption $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ for dialkoxyphenazine, which is seen at 395 nm.\textsuperscript{41}

![Absorption Spectra](image)

**Figure 2.** UV-Visible absorption spectra for BTD-P, NDI-P-1, NDI-P-2, and PTCDI-P recorded in dichloromethane with the concentration of 5 μM.

To confirm that absorption shown in Figure 2 is free of aggregation, conforming Beer’s Law was tested at the concentrations of 1 μM, 2 μM, 3 μM, 4 μM, and 5 μM in dichloromethane.
Shown in Figure 3 are the linear relationships fitting with Beer’s Law. This verifies the light absorbed by each solution is from isolated chromophores rather than molecular aggregations.

The molar absorptivity ($\varepsilon$) for the title compounds were calculated from the slope of the Beer’s Law plots. These values are displayed in Table 1. BTD-P showed the highest absorptivity with $\varepsilon = 8.7 \times 10^4$ M$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$. Similarly, NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 showed a high absorptivity of $\varepsilon = 7.6 \times 10^4$ M$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$ and $\varepsilon = 7.0 \times 10^4$ M$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$, respectively. However, the molar absorptivity for PTCDI-P was much lower with $\varepsilon = 2.9 \times 10^4$ M$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$.
Table 1. Molar absorptivity ($\varepsilon$) of title compounds at $\lambda_{\text{max}}$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\varepsilon$ (M$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$)</th>
<th>$\lambda_{\text{max}}$ (nm)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BTD-P</td>
<td>$8.7 \times 10^4$</td>
<td>445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDI-P-1</td>
<td>$7.6 \times 10^4$</td>
<td>514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDI-P-2</td>
<td>$7.0 \times 10^4$</td>
<td>514</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTCDI-P</td>
<td>$2.9 \times 10^4$</td>
<td>587</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The absorption edge area is a point of interest because it can be used to determine the energy gap between HOMO and LUMO of the molecule. As the absorption edge is shifting to longer wavelengths, the resulting $E_{\text{gap}}$ decreases in the same order. These levels are estimated by fitting a tangent to the absorption edge and using the equation, $(E_{\text{gap}}^{\text{opt}} = \frac{hc}{\lambda})$; where $h$ = planks constant ($6.626 \times 10^{-34}$ Joules sec), $c$ = speed of light ($3.0 \times 10^8$ meter/sec), and $\lambda$ = wavelength from tangent of absorption edge. Using $1 \text{ eV} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19}$ Joules as a conversion factor, the equation can be simplified to $(E_{\text{gap}}^{\text{opt}} = \frac{1242}{\lambda})$ and the energy gap ($E_{\text{gap}}^{\text{opt}}$) can easily be determined. The calculated values for $E_{\text{gap}}^{\text{opt}}$ of the title molecule using this equation are summarized in Table 2. A trend in smaller $E_{\text{gap}}^{\text{opt}}$ is seen as the electron affinity of the pendant increases. Therefore, BTD-P having the least electron deficient pendant gives the largest $E_{\text{gap}}^{\text{opt}}$ of 2.51 eV. Title molecules NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 with more electron deficient pendants then have $E_{\text{gap}}^{\text{opt}}$ of 2.23 eV. The title molecule with the most electron deficient pendant, PTCDI-P, gives the smallest $E_{\text{gap}}^{\text{opt}}$ of 1.97 eV.
Table 2. UV-Vis absorption edge and calculated band gap energy for all title compounds.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Absorption Edge (nm)</th>
<th>Band Gap Energy (E_{g}^{opt}; eV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BTD-P</td>
<td>494</td>
<td>2.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDI-P-1</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>2.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDI-P-2</td>
<td>556</td>
<td>2.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTCDI-P</td>
<td>629</td>
<td>1.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Additional UV-Visible absorption spectra were obtained for the title compounds in the solid-state. These samples were prepared as a cast film from dichloromethane solution. Their resulting spectra were compared with those in the solution state as shown in Figure 4. It can be seen that the cast film spectra for the title compounds showed similar absorption patterns as their solution spectra when the pendant changed from BTD to NDI to PTCDI. However, all the cast film spectra show that λ_{max} has been significantly red-shifted from their respective solution spectrum, which is attributed to the formation of J-aggregates.\textsuperscript{42} For BTD-P, a 27 nm red-shift was seen from the shoulder peak of λ_{max} at 462 nm in solution to 489 nm in solid phase. For NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2, a 31 nm red-shift was seen in λ_{max} at 514 nm in solution to 545 nm in solid phase. The largest red-shift of 36 nm was seen for PTCDI-P with λ_{max} at 587 nm in solution to 623 nm in solid phase. The J-aggregates in the solid-state strongly supports intermolecular π-π interactions.
3.2.2 Fluorescence Spectroscopy

The fluorescence spectra were obtained for BTD-P, NDI-P-1, NDI-P-2 and PTCDI-P in dichloromethane. The spectra shown as Figure 5 compare the fluorescence emission maxima ($\lambda_{em}$) of the title compounds when excited at their respective $\lambda_{max}$. The measured concentrations varied according to strength of fluorescence, but remained within the concentration range that follows Lambert Beer’s Law to avoid emission from aggregates. Measurement for BTD-P was at
a concentration of 1 μM in dichloromethane, while NDI-P-1, NDI-P-2, and PTCDI-P were all at 5 μM in dichloromethane. The resulting spectra were normalized for better comparison.

![Figure 5](image.png)

Figure 5. Normalized emission spectra of title compounds in dichloromethane solution. Excitation wavelength: 445 nm (BTD-P); 514 nm (NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2); 587 nm (PTCDI-P).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$\lambda_{em}$ (nm)</th>
<th>$\lambda_{abs}$ (nm)</th>
<th>Stokes shift (nm)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BTD-P</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDI-P-1</td>
<td>583</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDI-P-2</td>
<td>586</td>
<td>514</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTCDI-P</td>
<td>611</td>
<td>587</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparing the title compounds in Figure 5 shows that $\lambda_{em}$ is significantly red-shifted from BTD-P to NDI-P-1/NDI-P-2, then a less dramatic red-shift for PTCDI-P. This is a
different trend compared to the gradual shift seen with UV-Vis. Listed in Table 3, is \( \lambda_{\text{em}} \) of the title compound’s along with the calculated Stokes shift. **PTCDI-P** shows the longest \( \lambda_{\text{em}} \) of 611 nm, with the smallest Stokes shift of 24 nm. **NDI-P-1** and **NDI-P-2** show \( \lambda_{\text{em}} \) of 583 nm and 586 nm, with a Stokes shift of 69 nm and 72 nm respectively. Additionally, **BTD-P** shows \( \lambda_{\text{em}} \) of 495 nm, with a Stokes shift of 50 nm.

![Fluorescence emission (solid line) and excitation (dotted line) spectra](image)

**Figure 6.** Fluorescence emission (solid line) and excitation (dotted line) spectra of **BTD-P** (a), **NDI-P-1** (b), **NDI-P-2** (c), and **PTCDI-P** (d) in dichloromethane solution.

The excitation spectra of **BTD-P**, **NDI-P-1**, **NDI-P-2**, and **PTCDI-P** in dichloromethane were collected at \( \lambda_{\text{obsd}} = 495, 583, 586, \) and **611** nm, respectively. The resulting excitation spectra is plotted against fluorescence emission and shown in Figure 6. To obtain the excitation spectra,
$\lambda_{\text{obsd}}$ was set to their respective $\lambda_{\text{em}}$ so that only the fluorophore which emits at $\lambda_{\text{em}}$ can be excited. Note here that the recorded excitation spectra for the title compounds matches their UV-Vis absorption spectra.

Additional fluorescence emission was studied for BTD-P, NDI-P-1, NDI-P-2, and PTCDI-P in the solid state. However, the emission of PTCDI-P in the solid state was not strong enough for accurate detection. Therefore, the solid state emission spectra in Figure 7 only shows those of BTD-P, NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2. The samples used for solid state analysis were prepared as a cast film from dichloromethane solution at a 5 $\mu$M concentration.

![Normalized emission spectra for BTD-P, NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 in solid state, excited at 453 nm, 536 nm, and 535 nm respectively.](image)

Figure 7. Normalized emission spectra for BTD-P, NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 in solid state, excited at 453 nm, 536 nm, and 535 nm respectively.

The solid state emission spectra of BTD-P, NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 are displayed in Figure 7. For BTD-P, $\lambda_{\text{em}}$ in the solid state is seen at 580 nm. For NDI-P-1, $\lambda_{\text{em}}$ is red-shifted to
641 nm. For **NDI-P-2**, \( \lambda_{em} \) is seen at 628 nm. The solid state emission spectra seen for these compounds can also be compared to their solution spectra. When compared, a similar pattern is seen with that of the UV-Vis absorption spectra for solid and solution state. Similar to the absorption, all compounds experienced red-shifted emission in the solid state compared to their solution state. **BTD-P** gave the most extensive shift of 85 nm with \( \lambda_{em} = 495 \) nm in solution and \( \lambda_{em} = 580 \) nm in the solid state. The next significant shift of 58 nm was seen for **NDI-P-1** with \( \lambda_{em} = 583 \) nm in solution and \( \lambda_{em} = 641 \) nm in the solid state. Lastly, **NDI-P-2** showed a red-shift of 42 nm with \( \lambda_{em} = 586 \) nm in solution and \( \lambda_{em} = 628 \) nm in the solid state. Rationale for the red-shifted emission in the solid state is the same as what was described for UV-Vis absorption spectroscopy. The \( J \)-aggregates seen by the solid phase samples strongly supports intermolecular \( \pi-\pi \) interactions.\(^{43}\) Presumably, **NDI-P-1** in the solid-state is more red-shifted than **NDI-P-2** because of the molecular packing differences caused by a bulky versus straight chain. This would only cause spectral differences in the solid-state while the solution fluorescence spectra remains the same.

### 3.3 Electrochemical Properties

The effect on electrochemical properties by changing the electron deficiency of the pendant on the title molecules was examined using cyclic voltammetry. The compounds were tested in a dichloromethane solution with TBAPF\(_6\) (0.1 M) as the supporting electrolyte, Ag/AgNO\(_3\) in CH\(_3\)CN as the reference electrode solution, and Ferrocene as an internal reference. The resulting cyclic voltammograms are shown in Figure 8.

#### 3.3.1 Cyclic Voltammetry

Measuring the redox potentials will determine the amount of energy required to gain or lose an electron, and thus the HOMO/LUMO energy levels for the title compounds can be
calculated from oxidation and reduction potentials.\textsuperscript{44} The potential for the first reduction peak represents the energy required to gain an electron and can be directly related to the LUMO energy level ($E_{\text{LUMO}}$) of a compound, which is our primary focus. Therefore, the onset of the first reduction peak was measured to calculate $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ for all title compounds, using ferrocene’s oxidation potential of -4.8 eV with respect to vacuum.\textsuperscript{45}

![Cyclic voltammograms for the reduction of PTCDI-P (a), NDI-P-2 (b), NDI-P-1 (c), BTD-P (d). Scan rate: 100 mV/s](image)

Figure 8. Cyclic voltammograms for the reduction of PTCDI-P (a), NDI-P-2 (b), NDI-P-1 (c), BTD-P (d). Scan rate: 100 mV/s
Shown in Figure 8, are the cyclic voltammograms obtained for title compounds BTD-P, NDI-P-1, NDI-P-2, and PTCDI-P. It can be seen that the onset of the first reduction peak decreases in energy as the pendant of the title molecules becomes more electron deficient. The electron withdrawing power of the pendant for the title compounds is increasing in the order of BTD-P, NDI-P-1/NDI-P-2, to PTCDI-P. Accordingly, BTD-P gave the highest $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ of -3.34 eV. The trend continues with NDI-P-1/NDI-P-2 showing a significantly more stabilized $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ of -3.90 eV. The lowest $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ is seen from PTCDI-P at -3.97 eV, however only slightly lowered from those of NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2. These values are displayed in Table 4. In correlation with UV-Vis spectroscopy which showed the same order of $E_{\text{gap}}^{\text{opt}}$ compression, it can be deduced that lowering $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ is the major contribution to the reduction of $E_{\text{gap}}$.

Table 4. Calculated $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ levels for title compounds using Cyclic Voltammetry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$E_{\text{onset}}^{\text{red}}$ (eV)</th>
<th>$E_{\text{LUMO}}$ (eV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BTD-P</td>
<td>-1.46</td>
<td>-3.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDI-P-1</td>
<td>-0.90</td>
<td>-3.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDI-P-2</td>
<td>-0.90</td>
<td>-3.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTCDI-P</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
<td>-3.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4 Theoretical Evaluation

3.4.1 HOMO and LUMO Energy Levels

To examine our experimental data in comparison to theoretical results, a computational investigation of the electronic properties was carried out for the title molecules. Initially, geometries were optimized at the B3LYP/6-31G* level of theory. Results from these calculations are presented in Table 5.
Table 5. Summary of electronic properties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$E_{LUMO}^{EXP}$ [eV]</th>
<th>$E_{HOMO}^{EXP}$ [eV]</th>
<th>$E_{\text{gap}}^{EXP}$ [eV]</th>
<th>$E_{LUMO}^{THEO}$ [eV]</th>
<th>$E_{HOMO}^{THEO}$ [eV]</th>
<th>$E_{\text{gap}}^{THEO}$ [eV]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BTD-P</td>
<td>-3.34</td>
<td>-5.87</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>-2.75</td>
<td>-5.30</td>
<td>2.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDI-P-1</td>
<td>-3.90</td>
<td>-6.13</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>-3.29</td>
<td>-5.61</td>
<td>2.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDI-P-2</td>
<td>-3.90</td>
<td>-6.13</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>-3.29</td>
<td>-5.61</td>
<td>2.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTCDI-P</td>
<td>-3.97</td>
<td>-5.94</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>-3.37</td>
<td>-5.48</td>
<td>2.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[a] from cyclic voltammetry  
[b] $E_{HOMO}^{EXP} = E_{LUMO}^{EXP} - E_{\text{gap}}^{EXP}$ from UV-Vis  
[c] calculated using B3LYP/6-31G*  
[d] $E_{\text{gap}}^{THEO} = E_{LUMO}^{THEO} - E_{HOMO}^{THEO}$

The experimental $E_{HOMO}$ was calculated by subtracting $E_{\text{gap}}^{opt}$ from $E_{LUMO}$ obtained from cyclic voltammetry. Using the values in Table 5, a direct comparison can be made between experimental and theoretical energy levels. A graphical representation of this comparison is displayed in Figure 9.

![Figure 9. Graphical representation of electronic properties.](image)

Numerical values are provided in Table 5.
When comparing the experimental and theoretical HOMO and LUMO energies of the title compounds in Figure 9, a similar trend can easily be seen. For both theoretical and experimental values, \( E_{\text{LUMO}} \) decreases in the order BTD-P, NDI-P-1/NDI-P-2, PTCDI-P. Additionally, both results show \( E_{\text{HOMO}} \) decreasing from BTD-P to NDI-P-1/NDI-P-2 and then increasing for PTCDI-P. The increase in \( E_{\text{HOMO}} \) for PTCDI-P is likely a result of HOMO orbital localization and is explained in more detail in the following section. Also shown in Figure 9, a similarity in \( E_{\text{gap}} \) between experimental and theoretical results is observed. The \( E_{\text{gap}} \) calculated theoretically is nearly identical to the experimental \( E_{\text{gap}} \), with a difference of only about 0.10 eV. With such matching trends, theoretical evaluation serves as a crucial tool in our research for not only understanding, but predicting purposes as well.

### 3.4.2 Frontier Molecular Orbital Diagrams

Additional theoretical calculations can be used to predict how the frontier molecular orbitals (FMOs) are distributed over the title molecules. This study allows us to visually inspect whether the electronic property of the pendant affects both \( E_{\text{LUMO}} \) and \( E_{\text{HOMO}} \) simultaneously or one of them more significantly. The FMOs for the title compounds BTD-P, NDI-P-1, NDI-P-2, and PTCDI-P are presented in Figure 10. We note that the different alkyl chains on NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 have no effect on the HOMO and LUMO orbitals and are therefore combined as one FMO diagram. For all compounds, the LUMO orbitals are localized on the pendant of the molecule and thus electron-deficiency of the pendant was reflected in \( E_{\text{LUMO}} \). Meanwhile, HOMO orbitals are distributed over the molecules including phenazines. However, they exclude the most electron-withdrawing thiadiazole (for BTD) and imide (for NDI and PTCDI). Therefore, the electron-deficiency of the pendant was less translated to \( E_{\text{HOMO}} \). Of particular interest is the higher \( E_{\text{HOMO}} \) of PTCDI-P compared to that of NDI-P-1/NDI-P-2. Presumably, it
is due to the inclusion of electron-deficient imine nitrogen in phenazine of \textbf{NDI-P-1/NDI-P-2} while negligible distribution of HOMO orbital was on the imine nitrogen of \textbf{PTCDI-P}. These molecular orbital pictures are essential in gaining understanding into how the changes in electron deficiency of the pendant affect the electronic properties of the title molecules.

![Molecular orbital diagrams](image-url)

**Figure 10.** Molecular orbital diagrams of title compounds: (a) \textbf{BTD-P}; (b) \textbf{NDI-P-1} and \textbf{NDI-P-2}; and (c) \textbf{PTCDI-P}.

### 3.4.3 Energy Minimized Structures-Dihedral Angles

The energy minimized structures of the title compounds are shown in Figure 11. It can be seen that the structures for both \textbf{BTD-P} and \textbf{NDI-P-1/NDI-P-2} show planar geometry. However, \textbf{PTCDI-P} shows a “puckered” conformation. With their planar structure, \textbf{BTD-P}, \textbf{NDI-P-1} and \textbf{NDI-P-2} all have a dihedral angle of 0° between A-A’-A, while \textbf{PTCDI-P} has a dihedral angle of 17.20°.
3.5 Thermal Properties

3.5.2 Differential Scanning Calorimetry

The thermal phase transitions of BTD-P, NDI-P-1, NDI-P-2 and PTCDI-P were studied by differential scanning calorimetry (DSC). Of the four title compounds, BTD-P was the only compound that showed reversible phase transitions over two heating/cooling scans (Figure 12).

The first heating cycle ran on BTD-P showed a melting endotherm ($T_m$) at 175°C with a heat of melting of 47.09 J/g. The first cooling cycle showed a recrystallization exotherm ($T_c$) at 171°C. Correspondingly, there was a $T_m$ at 178°C with a heat of melting of 45.65 J/g in the second heating cycle, and the second cooling cycle showed a $T_c$ at 171°C. BTD-P was the only title compound that showed melt stability. A low temperature endotherm at the first heating cycle (163 °C) appeared to be due to a pre-existing nonintrinsic molecular arrangement as it is not reproducible at the second heating scan.
The DSC thermograms in Figure 13 show $T_m$ for NDI-P-1, NDI-P-2 and PTCDI-P. NDI-P-1 showed a $T_m$ at 254°C with a heat of melting of 25.73 J/g. NDI-P-2 showed a $T_m$ at 222°C with a heat of melting of 33.54 J/g. PTCDI-P showed a $T_m$ at 192°C with a heat of melting of 29.92 J/g. As previously noted, $T_c$ could not be obtained for these compounds, nor could a second heating/cooling cycle. This was due to the additional exotherm peak positioned shortly after $T_m$ for all three compounds. This exotherm is likely a result of a possible cyclization reaction occurring between the triple bonds and the aromatic rings for PTCDI-P\textsuperscript{48} or between carbonyl in the pendant for NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2.\textsuperscript{46-47} This cyclization reaction has been seen in previous research as a core-expansion of perylenediimide including annulation of benzene rings and heterocycles of the perylene core.\textsuperscript{48}
Figure 13. DSC thermograms of NDI-P-1 (a); NDI-P-2 (b); and PTCDI-P (c); obtained at heating and cooling rates of 10°C/min in nitrogen.
We initially expected that the bulkier alkyl group in the molecular structure of \textbf{NDI-P-1} would reduce the \( \pi-\pi \) interaction. However, shorter alkyl group in \textbf{NDI-P-1} could be related to the higher melting point seen for this compound. The lower solubility of \textbf{NDI-P-1} compared to \textbf{NDI-P-2} as explained in section 3.1 also supports the trend in melting temperature. Although \textbf{NDI-P-1} showed a higher \( T_m \) than \textbf{NDI-P-2}, it should be noted that the straight octyloxy group of \textbf{NDI-P-2} facilitates better molecular packing and thus crystallization revealed by the heat of fusion.

In addition, the low \( T_m \) of \textbf{PTCDI-P} was quite unexpected. We presumed that \textbf{PTCDI-P} would possess the highest \( T_m \) due to its larger \( \pi \)-surface. This result can be best explained with molecular geometry from theoretical calculations described in section 3.4. In Figure 11 of section 3.4, we see that \textbf{PTCDI-P} adapts non-planar geometry and especially, \textbf{PTCDI-P} is puckered with a fold angle of 17.20\(^\circ\). Due to the non-planarity, intermolecular interactions would be limited and could explain why the \( T_m \) for \textbf{PTCDI-P} was so low.

4 \hspace{1cm} \textbf{CHARGE TRANSFER}

To test the title compounds as potential charge transfer (CT) acceptors (A), they must be paired with a donor (D) that has appropriate electronic properties.\textsuperscript{49} Appropriate donor should possess low ionization potential (high \( E_{\text{HOMO}} \)). Additionally, planarity of the donor helps promote \( \pi \)-stacking of D and A, which is typical for CT complexes.\textsuperscript{49-50} Based on this criteria, pyrene was chosen as a donor to test the CT ability with the title molecules. Pyrene is a common CT donor, having a planar structure and low ionization potential with theoretical \( E_{\text{HOMO}} = -5.21 \) eV\textsuperscript{51} and \( E_{\text{LUMO}} = -1.38 \) eV\textsuperscript{51} (calculated using B3LYP/6-31G*).
An early experiment identifying CT can be made from the color changes as shown in Figure 14. These color changes are indicative of the formation of a CT band.\textsuperscript{52} The CT band may form by hybridizing the HOMO level of the donor and the LUMO level of the acceptor.\textsuperscript{53} As a preliminary experiment, 5 mM chloroform solutions of the CT donor (pyrene) and acceptor (dibromo-pendant) were made. The solution color was observed individually and compared to the solution color of donor:acceptor mixture at 1:1 ratio. As seen from Figure 14, the chloroform solution of CT donor (pyrene) is colorless. The chloroform solutions of CT acceptors, 4,7-dibromo-2,1,3-benzothiadiazole (9), di-(2-ethyl-1-hexyl)-2,6-dibromo1,4,5,8-napthalenetetracarboxylic acid bisimide (15), and dioctyl2,6-dibromo1,4,5,8-napthalenetetracarboxylic acid bisimide (16) are also colorless, and di-(2-ethyl-1-hexyl)-1,7-dibromo3,4:9,10-perylenetetracarboxylic acid bisimide (21) is a bright orange. Note that the CT acceptors are primarily the pendant, the most electron-deficient part of the title molecules. When
the two solutions were mixed at a 1:1 ratio of 5 mM:5 mM, the only color change observed is when the CT acceptor was NDI (Figure 14 e and g), resulting in a red solution. This color change is a result of CT band formation. Presumably, the electron-deficiency of BTD is not high enough to induce CT with pyrene. Additionally, lack of color change with PTCDI could be related to a non-planar structure.

4.1 Optical Properties

4.1.1 UV-Vis Absorption Spectroscopy

With this initial CT experiment in solution in mind, we prepared films of NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 with and without pyrene to assess CT in the solid-state. To fabricate the cast films without pyrene, 5 mM solutions of NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 in 1,1,1-trichloroethane (TCE) were prepared. For the films with pyrene, mixture solutions were prepared by mixing a 1:1 ratio of 10 mM pyrene in TCE with 10 mM NDI-P-1 or NDI-P-2 in TCE. The solutions were then spread onto a glass slide using a pipette and the solvent was allowed to evaporate. Using the prepared cast films, CT properties of pyrene/NDI-P-1, and pyrene/NDI-P-2 were studied using UV-Vis spectroscopy. The absorption spectra for the films without pyrene are compared to the films with pyrene and are displayed in Figure 15.

If there was any CT occurring between the pyrene donor and the title compounds, a red-shift to longer wavelength with tailing would be observed. This red-shift is correlated to a smaller E_gap of the CT complex compared to the E_gap of the original donor and acceptor molecules. When comparing the absorption spectra from Figure 15, a larger red-shift of 38 nm is seen with NDI-P-1 compared to 29 nm with NDI-P-2. Additionally, both spectra show pyrene absorption as seen from the peak near 350 nm. Even though the red-shift is likely related to CT,
it could also be a result of changed molecular packing due to the presence of pyrene. To further investigate CT interaction, fluorescence spectroscopy was conducted.

Figure 15. UV-Visible absorption spectra for NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 as a 5mM TCE cast film with (dotted line) and without (solid line) pyrene. UV-Visible absorption spectrum for 5mM TCE cast film of pyrene (dotted line) shown for comparison.

4.1.2 Fluorescence Spectroscopy

Fluorescence spectroscopy was employed to characterize pyrene/NDI-P-1 and pyrene/NDI-P-2 using the same films that were used for UV-Vis characterization. The resulting
emission spectra for the films without pyrene are compared to the films with pyrene and are displayed in Figure 16.

Figure 16. Fluorescence spectra of (a) NDI-P-1, $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 528$ nm (broken line) $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 340$ nm (solid line), (b) NDI-P-2, $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 523$ nm (broken line) $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 340$ nm (solid line), (c) pyrene/NDI-P-1, $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 528$ nm (broken line) $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 340$ nm (solid line), (d) pyrene/NDI-P-2, $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 523$ nm (broken line) $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 340$ nm (solid line); and (e) pyrene, $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 340$ nm (solid line). All films were casted from 5mM TCE solution. *$2^{\text{nd}}$ order diffraction peak

The fluorescence spectra for NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 with and without pyrene are displayed in Figure 16. Additionally, Figure 16 shows the fluorescence spectra for pyrene only as a comparison. It can be seen that emission around 450 nm occurs when pyrene is excited at 340 nm. Therefore, to test CT with pyrene/NDI-P-1 and pyrene/NDI-P-2, the samples were also excited at 340 nm. If CT occurred, excitation at 340 nm should not show any pyrene emission because the electron from pyrene’s LUMO has transferred to the LUMO of the acceptor. This
The quenching of pyrene’s emission is seen for pyrene/NDI-P-1, however pyrene/NDI-P-2 showed residual fluorescence of the donor. Note that the emission spectra for both pyrene/NDI-P-1 and pyrene/NDI-P-2 show a long wavelength shoulder compared to the fluorescence spectra without pyrene. This long wavelength shoulder is probably due to the new band formation seen with a CT complex. Although both CT systems show the long wavelength shoulder, only pyrene/NDI-P-1 shows almost complete quenching of pyrene’s emission. As a way to test the emission seen near 425 nm is in fact from pyrene and not from the title molecules, the emission spectra for NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 without pyrene were tested at the same excitation wavelengths. Seen from their spectra in Figure 16, no emission is observed when excited at 340 nm for either of the two NDI-P molecules.

Given the FL spectra differences between pyrene/NDI-P-2 and pyrene/NDI-P-2, it can be concluded that CT is more efficient using NDI-P-1 as an acceptor. Presumably, the bulky alkyl chain of NDI-P-1 facilitates more room between molecules so that pyrene can intercalate more efficiently. However, the straight alkyl chain in NDI-P-2 could induce a tighter molecular packing which would not allow pyrene to be incorporated. To test this hypothesis, the assembly properties were studied using polarized optical microscopy (POM).

4.2 Assembly Properties

4.2.1 Polarized Optical Microscopy

Our primary goal is to investigate if fibers of CT complex can be made. Since the title compounds were designed for 1D assembly, we examined their fibrillation capability using POM. The morphology was studied from the same films characterized for UV-Vis and fluorescence spectroscopy. The POM images from the films without pyrene are displayed in Figure 17 as (a) and (d) for NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2, respectively. Additionally, the POM image
for pyrene/NDI-P-1 is displayed in Figure 17 as (b) and under cross-polarization as (c); while pyrene/NDI-P-2 is displayed as (e) and under cross-polarization as (f).

![image](a) (b) (c) (d) (e) (f)

Figure 17. POM images of (a) NDI-P-1, (b) pyrene:NDI-P-1 (1:1), (c) x-polarization of (b), (d) NDI-P-2, (e) pyrene:NDI-P-2 (1:1), (f) cross-polarization of (e), as cast films from TCE solution. Image width: 110 μm

A comparison can be made from the images in Figure 17 of the morphology changes when pyrene was added to NDI-P-1 versus NDI-P-2. For NDI-P-1 with pyrene, the film from image (b) and (c) shows homogeneous distribution throughout the film which suggests that pyrene may have been incorporated into the structure. It should be noted that clear fiber structures were observed at the thinner area of the film. However, the NDI-P-2 film with pyrene from image (e) and (f) show clear phase separation of the two molecules.
5 ENERGY TRANSFER THROUGH ORGANOGLATION

Fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) occurs when the emission of a donor (D) is absorbed by an acceptor (A). In simpler terms, the donor’s energy is transferred to the acceptor. Efficiency of FRET is highly dependent on the distance between the D and A molecules.\textsuperscript{24,54} To ensure high FRET efficiency, two component fibers of D and A is beneficial for better distance control. In that regard, organogelation\textsuperscript{55} is an efficient method to create fibers. Since the title compounds were designed for 1D self-assembly, their organogelation properties were investigated first. Then, the formation of two component gel was tested for FRET.

5.1 Organogelation

Organogelation was studied for BTD-P, NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 using select organic solvents.\textsuperscript{56-58} Typically, the compounds were suspended in TCE at known concentrations and then heated until they were fully dissolved. The solutions were then left undisturbed as they cooled to room temperature and observed for the formation of a gel. When turning the vial upside down, successful gelation was identified if there was no streaming solvent.\textsuperscript{39} The lack of flow is created as the solvent becomes trapped in a 3D network of 1D fibers. In this sense, organogelation is a good indicator of fiber formation and is useful to determine self-assembling ability.\textsuperscript{59-60} All compounds were tested at concentrations of 3 mM, 5 mM and 10 mM in TCE, and their results are summarized in Table 6. The only compound with successful gel formation was BTD-P. Both NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 formed a precipitate upon cooling. This precipitation was studied under POM, which showed short fibers. We assume that the length of fibers is too short for gelation.
Table 6. Gelation test of BTD-P, NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 in TCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concentration</th>
<th>BTD-P</th>
<th>NDI-P-1</th>
<th>NDI-P-2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 mM</td>
<td>PG</td>
<td>ppt</td>
<td>ppt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 mM</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>ppt</td>
<td>ppt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 mM</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>ppt</td>
<td>ppt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a*Abbreviations: G, gel; PG, partial gel; ppt, precipitation upon cooling

The fact that BTD-P gelled TCE was advantageous for FRET since BTD-P and NDI-P-2 meet the spectral requirement for donor and acceptor, respectively. Therefore, organogelation for D/A mixture was conducted with BTD-P as a donor and NDI-P-2 as an acceptor with acceptor concentrations of 5 mole% and 10 mole%. For both ratios, the concentration of BTD-P in TCE was kept to 5 mM. As NDI-P-2 did not show gelation ability in TCE, our major concern was if the gel of BTD-P could be maintained. At both acceptor concentrations, gel formation was successful. It was encouraging that the nongelator NDI-P-2 did not disrupt the gelation of BTD-P. The pictures of BTD-P gel and mixture gel of BTD-P and 10 mole% NDI-P-2 are shown in Figure 18. This figure shows a significant color change from a bright orange for BTD-P to a dark red even with only 10 mole% of NDI-P-2. Under the illumination at 365 nm, BTD-P gel showed strong yellow emission, while the BTD-P with 10 mole% NDI-P-2 gel showed the red emission with lower intensity. This suggests an efficient FRET since the donor’s emission would be absorbed by the acceptor and only emission of the acceptor should be seen.
5.1.1 Polarized Optical Microscopy

To further study morphology of gels, dried gels were prepared and studied using POM. Figure 19 A shows the long fibers formed from the BTD-P xerogel, with a bright orange/yellow color. For the BTD-P with 10 mole% NDI-P-2 xerogel shown in Figure 19 B, homogeneous distribution is seen and the color has changed to more of a red. Fiber formation is also observed in image B, but using POM is insufficient to determine if NDI-P-2 has been incorporated into the fiber or remained in solution. Nevertheless, it is promising that no discernible phase separation was observed. Further study with high-power microscopy such as field-emission scanning electron microscopy or transmission electron microscopy would be necessary to determine if a two component fiber was formed.
5.2 Optical Properties

The emission spectra for BTD-P in solution showed \( \lambda_{\text{em}} = 495 \text{ nm} \) and NDI-P-2 \( \lambda_{\text{em}} = 586 \text{ nm} \). The absorption spectra for BTD-P in solution showed \( \lambda_{\text{max}} = 445 \text{ nm} \) and NDI-P-2 \( \lambda_{\text{max}} = 514 \text{ nm} \). For efficient FRET, you need the emission spectrum of the donor to overlap with the absorption spectrum of the acceptor. Since emission wavelength of BTD-P (495 nm) is not much different than the absorption of NDI-P-2 (514 nm), FRET was tested using BTD-P as the donor and NDI-P-2 as the acceptor as a two component gel. This system was studied using fluorescence emission spectroscopy.

5.2.1 Fluorescence Spectroscopy

To determine FRET, we would expect to observe acceptor emission using indirect excitation of the donor. When the donor is excited, its emission is absorbed by the acceptor so that only acceptor emission will be seen if FRET is successful. To test this concept, we first determined the correct \( \lambda_{\text{exc}} \) from excitation spectra with \( \lambda_{\text{obs}}, \text{ at their } \lambda_{\text{em}}. \) For BTD-P gel, \( \lambda_{\text{exc}} \) was found to be 500 nm, while that for BTD-P/NDI-P-2 gel was 570 nm. When the donor (5 mM BTD-P gel) was excited using direct excitation at 500 nm, \( \lambda_{\text{em}} \) was 553 nm. We then tested the emission spectra for both 5% and 10% acceptor concentrations of the donor/acceptor (BTD-
P/NDI-P-2) gel when excited at the same wavelength. If no FRET had occurred, excitation at 500 nm would produce BTD-P’s emission at 553 nm. If FRET was successful, we would expect NDI-P-2’s emission only at 651 nm. Note that excitation of NDI-P-2 without BTD-P at 500 nm does not show any significant emission. Shown in Figure 20, BTD-P’s fluorescence was completely disappeared and only the emission at $\lambda_{\text{em}} = 651$ nm was observed, which is indicative of FRET. More interestingly, the same level of FRET was observed from lower acceptor concentration of 5 mole% (Figure 21).

Figure 20. Fluorescence emission (solid line, excited at 500nm) and excitation (dotted line, monitored at $\lambda_{\text{em}}$) spectra of 5mM BTD-P TCE gel (blue) and 5mM BTD-P TCE gel with 10mole% NDI-P-2 (green).
Figure 21. Fluorescence emission (solid line, excited at 500nm) and excitation (dotted line, monitored at $\lambda_{em}$) spectra of 5mM BTD-P TCE gel (blue) and 5mM BTD-P TCE gel with 5mole% NDI-P-2 (green).

To verify the emission of BTD-P/NDI-P-2 at the indirect excitation is through FRET, the solution fluorescence of NDI-P-2 at $\lambda_{exc} = 500$ nm was tested. As shown in Figure 22, only negligible emission was observed from NDI-P-2 at the excitation at 500 nm, which confirms FRET in BTD-P/NDI-P-2.
6 CONCLUSION

By using a strategic molecular design, four new n-type materials (BTD-P, NDI-P-1, NDI-P-2, PTCDI-P) were successfully synthesized and characterized. The molecular structures were confirmed with $^1$H NMR, $^{13}$C NMR, and high resolution mass spectroscopy analyses. Physical properties were studied thoroughly with UV-Vis and fluorescence emission spectroscopy, cyclic voltammetry, and differential scanning calorimetry. Electronic property characterization showed successful $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ control using a molecular design with acceptor-acceptor'-acceptor (A-A'-A) configuration. By alternating A' with structural moieties of increasing electron deficiency in the order of benzothiadiazole (BTD), naphthalene diimide (NDI), and perylenetetracarboxylic diimide (PTCDI), $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ of the whole molecules was lowered to values of -3.34 eV, -3.90, and -3.97 eV, respectively.
Through theoretical evaluation, it was found that $E_{\text{LUMO}}$ of the title molecules is directly correlated to the electron deficiency of A’. This was seen from the calculated frontier molecular orbital diagrams which showed that LUMO is localized on A’. This confirms our molecular design is effective in tailoring electron deficiency.

All of the title molecules except for PTCDI-P, showed good 1D self-assembling ability. In particular, BTD-P gelled 1,1,1-trichloroethane. Although NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 did not form a gel, their cast films showed fibrillary morphology. In the case of PTCDI-P, non-flat geometry of PTCDI was revealed by theoretical evaluation which could hamper 1D self-assembly.

Charge transfer (CT) was tested using NDI-P-1 and NDI-P-2 with pyrene donor and characterized using UV-Vis and fluorescence spectroscopy. This revealed more efficient CT with NDI-P-1 over NDI-P-2. After further analysis using polarized optical microscopy (POM), noticeable phase separation was observed for pyrene/NDI-P-2 whereas pyrene/NDI-P-1 showed homogeneous morphology. It was presumed that the bulky alkyl chain of NDI-P-1 facilitates more room between molecules so that pyrene can intercalate more efficiently.

Fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) through organogelation was studied with BTD-P as a donor and NDI-P-2 as an acceptor. Successful gel formation and POM study confirmed 1D fibrilar structure assembly at the acceptor concentrations of 5 mole% and 10 mole%. FRET was characterized using fluorescence spectroscopy which revealed efficient FRET even at the low acceptor concentrations.
Figure S1. TGA thermogram of BTD-P in nitrogen at heating rate of 10°C/min.

Figure S2. TGA thermogram of NDI-P-1 in nitrogen at heating rate of 10°C/min.
Figure S3. UV-Vis absorption spectra of NDI-P-1, NDI-P-1 with pyrene at equal concentration, and pyrene in dichloromethane solution.

Figure S4. UV-Vis absorption spectra of NDI-P-2, NDI-P-2 with pyrene at equal concentration, and pyrene in dichloromethane solution.
REFERENCES


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