Direct Observation of the Relationship between Molecular Topology and Bulk Morphology for a \( \pi \)-Conjugated Material

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: High-performance organic semiconducting materials are reliant upon subtle changes in structure across different length scales. These morphological features control relevant physical properties and ultimately device performance. By combining \textit{in situ} NMR spectroscopy and theoretical calculations, the conjugated small molecule TT is shown to exhibit distinct temperature-dependent local structural features that are related to macroscopic properties. Specifically, lamellar and melt states are shown to exhibit different molecular topologies associated with planar and twisted conformations of TT, respectively. This topological transformation offers a novel avenue for molecular design and control of solid-state organization.

That form follows function is a central principle for the design of organic semiconductors (OSCs). Molecular shape directly impacts solid-state organization and the kinetic profiles for achieving organized structures from solution. The distances and orientations between subunits within thin films dictate electronic and optical properties and thereby the applicability of a given material in emerging optoelectronic applications. These considerations are relevant within the context of potential OSC implementation in new classes of lightweight, low-cost and solution-processable technologies such as photovoltaics, thermoelectrics, thin-film transistors, light-emitting devices, photodetectors and various types of sensors.

In OSC systems with internal modes of reconformation, insight into molecular shape is typically attained through single crystal X-ray analysis. Information related to the shape and solid-state organization of amorphous systems, which represent an important fraction of materials used in the fabrication of organic light-emitting diodes, is currently out of reach. Molecular topology is important as it relates to crystallization of OSCs, especially those which are described by an awkward shape resistant to crystallization.

Understanding both intra- and supramolecular organizations, such as those related to the transformations exhibited by TT, and how they relate to each other would be useful for further refinement of molecular designs as they relate to maximizing solubility and solid-state organization. While experiments such as transmission electron microscopy (TEM) or X-ray scattering provide important information about organization in the bulk, they may be limited by the degree of disorder often present in OSCs. TEM can be used to identify various textures within the solid, but resolution at the molecular scale is typically unattainable due to the inherent disorder of solution-processable OSC materials. X-ray scattering techniques provide information on molecular order, but are predominantly limited to probing the ordered regions of a solid. Aside from certain exceptional cases, in situ determination of molecular shape in the solid-state remains elusive.

The molecular OSC TT (Scheme 1 and Figure 2) is a relevant system to study. TT displays unusual behavior during its transition from solution to the solid-state. Following film formation, the bulk initially forms an amorphous glass, which slowly transitions into a crystalline film, of which there are two polymorphs. This behavior of TT has been attributed to features of its molecular structure, specifically the central tail-to-tail coupled 3,3′-hexylbithiophene donor core. The extra degrees of conformational freedom, compared to traditional covalently rigidified electron-donating units, such as cyclopentadithiophene, give rise to better solubility. It has been proposed that the slow crystallization of TT involves planarization of the internal 3,3′-hexylbithiophene donor core, which involves a \(-7\) kcal/mol energetic barrier according to theoretical calculations. Characterization of TT thin films via grazing incidence wide-angle X-ray scattering (GIWAXS)

Scheme 1. TT Has Been Proposed to Twist and Adopt a trans-Planar Conformation upon Crystallization

"Structures are the optimized ground-state equilibrium geometries from density functional theory (DFT) calculations. Hydrogen atoms were removed for clarity.

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confirms that TT is amorphous in the melt and ordered in the solid. GIWAXS diffraction patterns of TT in the melt do not present any peaks, indicating a lack of long-range order. The diffraction pattern of TT in the ordered high-temperature state has a variety of scattering peaks, characteristic of lamellar and $\pi-\pi$ stacking. The relatively large number of diffraction peaks also indicates good intermolecular order. However, due to the superposition of two dimensions in GIWAXS experiments, direct determination of the arrangement of molecules within the unit cell is impossible.

In this contribution, we illustrate how to address this challenge through the use of solid-state magic-angle spinning (MAS) nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (ssNMR) measurements. These techniques have been used to characterize the shapes of proteins, lipids and other biological structures, 13C MAS NMR spectra are analyzed in conjunction with DFT calculations to unravel that crystallization of TT requires twisting of the dihedral between the central thiophene rings from $\sim 112^\circ$ to a trans-planar conformation.

The absorbance of TT changes between the solution and thin film states, as reproduced in Figure 1. 37 Immediately following spin-coating, the absorbance of the film is noticeably red-shifted relative to those of the amorphous and solution states. The optical absorbances of the solution and amorphous state are very similar, suggesting a similar degree of electronic delocalization along the conjugated backbone.

Figure 1. In its ordered state, the optical absorbance of TT is noticeably red-shifted relative to those of the amorphous and solution states. The optical absorbances of the solution and amorphous state are very similar, suggesting a similar degree of electronic delocalization along the conjugated backbone.

1D $^1$H and $^{13}$C NMR spectra (Figure S1), 2D $^1$H-$^1$H correlation (Figure S2) and $^1$H-$^{13}$C heteronuclear multiple-bond correlation (HMBC) NMR spectra (Figures 2 and S2). Complete details can be found in the Supporting Information.

The NMR spectroscopic features of TT in the melt are narrow and well resolved (Figure 3a). The amorphous state was achieved by heating the sample to 135 °C (above the melting point, 124 °C) under a stream of N$_2$ gas. Signal assignments are straightforward due to the similarity to what is observed in solution (Figure S3). As seen in Figure 3a, signals of greatest interest are located at 132.3 ppm (7, purple dot) and 141.7 ppm (5, yellow dot).

At 118 °C a single lamellar phase is observed, 37 in which the alkyl side chains are highly mobile and liquid-like on the NMR time scale (ca. 10$^{-5}$ s). This feature is supported by comparison of the $^{13}$C CP-MAS NMR spectrum in Figure Sb with a static single-pulse $^{13}$C NMR spectrum acquired under otherwise identical conditions (Figure S4); the latter exhibits broad spectral features in the aromatic region (120–165 ppm) that manifest relatively immobile $\pi-\pi$ stacked backbones and much narrower signals in the alkyl region (10–30 ppm) from mobile alkyl side chains. Analogous molecular- and mesoscale characteristics have been observed in lamellar silicate-surfactant phases with stiff covalently cross-linked silicate nanosheets separated by mobile alkyl surfactant chains. 46, 47

Comparison of the 1D $^{13}$C spectra (Figure 3) of the melt and lamellar phases reveals differences in the isotropic $^{13}$C chemical shifts of the TT backbones, depending on whether they are amorphous versus aggregated into $\pi-\pi$ stacks. In particular, $^{13}$C signals 5 and 7 are displaced in different directions from 141.7 to 139.8 ppm (yellow arrow) and from 132.3 to 139.8 ppm (purple arrow), respectively. Though these two signals overlap at 118 °C, a quantitative 1D $^{13}$C MAS spectrum of TT (Figure S5) and separate DFT calculations (discussed below) corroborate their assignments. This is further supported by 2D $^{13}$C-$^1$H heteronuclear correlation (HETCOR) spectra acquired with different CP contact times (Figure S6), in
which the intramolecular $^{13}$C−$^1$H proximities of carbon atoms 5 and 7 are distinguished from their peripheral counterparts (6 and 12).

The NMR analysis to this point yields little direct information regarding molecular topology. However, in combination with DFT modeling, the experimental isotropic $^{13}$C chemical shifts associated with the melt and lamellar TT structures can be compared with DFT-calculated $^{13}$C shieldings for twisted and planar TT backbone conformations (Scheme 1). The gauge-independent atomic orbital method of DFT was used with the semiempirically tuned $\omega$B97XD functional and 6-311+G(2d,p) basis set. The dielectric environment of an OSC is modeled with the conductor-like polarizable continuum model with the static dielectric constant as $\varepsilon = 3.5$ and the dynamic dielectric constant as $\varepsilon_{\text{inf}} = 2$. Full details of the methods are given in the Supporting Information. Regression analyses were carried out by comparing experimental $^{13}$C chemical shifts against the DFT-calculated $^{13}$C shieldings for the twisted and planar conformers of TT (Figure S7). Comparison of the experimental $^{13}$C chemical shifts in the melt and $^{13}$C shieldings of the twisted conformer of TT resulted in a regression coefficient of $R^2 = 0.98$. A similar analysis and comparison for the lamellar phase and $^{13}$C shieldings of the planar conformer of TT resulted in $R^2 = 0.99$. Within the resolution limits of the NMR data and the validities of model assumptions, the level of agreement is noteworthy. Further accuracy in the calculation of chemical shieldings requires taking into account intermolecular contacts that are not possible to model for an isolated molecule. This approach is also restricted to materials whose NMR spectra do not contain an excessive number of overlapping signals, which may be difficult to clearly resolve.

Differences in the experimental isotropic $^{13}$C chemical shifts of the TT backbone between the melt and lamellar phases (Δ$\delta_{\text{iso}}$ Expt., Figure 4) are also correlated to differences in molecular conformation and shape. We focus on the differences in DFT-calculated $^{13}$C chemical shifts (Δ$\delta_{\text{iso}}$ DFT) between the twisted and planar conformers. While most Δ$\delta_{\text{iso}}$ values are within ±2 ppm (Figure 4, gray region), the $^{13}$C atoms of most interest (signals 5 and 7, highlighted in green) are predicted to be displaced by $-3.2$ ppm and $+6.3$ ppm, respectively, compared to experimental values of $-1.9$ ppm and $+7.5$ ppm. These results are consistent with changes of the TT backbone geometry involving a transition from twisted to trans-planar conformations. The ssNMR results and DFT calculations are also consistent with the observed differences in the optical properties of TT (Figure 1). As TT adopts a planar molecular topology, the degree of electronic delocalization increases.

The combination of in situ NMR with DFT-based modeling provides new molecular-level insights that manifest important topological changes that were previously only hypothesized based on differences in macroscopic optical properties. Specifically, the combined NMR+DFT approach identifies a twisted molecular topology of TT in the melt state, while the
molecule is found to adopt a planar topology in the lamellar phase. Refinement of these methods as they relate to solid-state structures of OSCs is likely to reveal further information regarding the impact of intramolecular features and long-range organization on processes, such as charge carrier generation or transport, which ultimately determine technological feasibility. For example, we envision that the techniques described in this work may be extended to probe the effects of polymer architecture on charge carrier mobility. In the case of TT, the energy cost for planarization is compensated by lattice interactions that decrease the free energy relative to the amorphous state. From a practical perspective, such considerations are expected to enable control of solid-state structural features at the level of molecular design, enabling device performance to be decoupled from processing conditions. Potential advantages of such materials include development of device active layers that can be processed through deposition methods that are not solvent-dependent.

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information
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Experimental details, NMR spectra, DFT results (PDF)

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Notes
The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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Electronic Supplementary Information

Materials and methods

UV-visible absorption spectroscopy: UV-vis absorption spectra were recorded on a Perkin Elmer Lambda 750 UV-Vis spectrometer. The solution spectrum was determined by dissolving TT in chloroform at 0.01 mg/mL. Thin film absorbance measurements were performed using glass as the substrate, and the material was spin coated for 60 s at 1500 rpm at 10 mg/mL in chloroform. Absorbance measurements of the ordered solid and amorphous state were performed at ~ 115 ºC and after quickly cooling to room temperature from ~ 135 ºC. Thin film heating was accomplished by using a heated sample mount. The temperature was measured with an external thermocouple probe.

Solution-state NMR spectroscopy: Solution-state 1H and 13C NMR were used to characterize TT. Approximately 10 mg of TT dissolved in 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane-d2 and transferred into a 4 mm NMR tube. All NMR experiments were carried out at room temperature on a Bruker 18.8 T AVANCE-II NMR spectrometer (1H and 13C Larmor frequencies were 800.24 MHz and 200 MHz, respectively) equipped with 4 mm B-B-O probe. The 1H and 13C 90° pulse lengths were of 11 µs and 9 µs, respectively. One-dimensional (1D) 1H NMR spectrum was acquired by co-adding 8 transients using a relaxation delay of 2 s. 1D 13C NMR spectrum was acquired by co-adding 1024 transients using a relaxation delay of 2 s corresponding to an experimental time of 1h. WALTZ-16 heteronuclear decoupling was used during the acquisition of 13C spectrum with 1H 180° pulse duration of 60 µs. To identify and distinguish J-mediated through-bond 1H-1H and 1H-13C moieties, two-dimensional (2D) 1H{1H} correlation (COSY) and 2D 1H{13C} heteronuclear multiple-bond correlation (HMBC) NMR spectra were acquired and analyzed. 2D 1H{1H} spectrum was acquired using 128 t1 increments using an incremental time of 114 µs, each by co-adding 2 transients, with a recycle delay of 2 s corresponding to an experimental time of 16 mins. 2D 1H{13C} HMBC spectra were acquired using 3.4 ms (1/2JC,H, where, JC,H = 145 Hz) and 250 ms (i.e., 1/2JC,H, where, JC,H = 2 Hz) mixing times, each using 76 t1 increments with an incremental time of 14.6 µs and by the co-addition of 96 transients with a recycle delay of 2 s corresponding to a total experimental time of 7 h. All 1H and 13C experimental shifts are calibrated with respect to 1H and 13C signals of 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane-d2 at 6.0 and 73.8 ppm, respectively.
Figure S1. Solution-state $^1$H and $^{13}$C NMR spectra of TT dissolved in 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane-$d_2$ acquired at 18.8 T ($^1$H 800 MHz) at room temperature.

Solution-state $^1$H and $^{13}$C chemical shifts and splittings for the backbone moieties of TT are listed below.

$^1$H solution-state NMR in 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane-$d_2$ (ppm):
8.26 (s, 2H), 8.05 (d, J=3.2 Hz, 2H), 7.77 (d, J=12.9 Hz, 2H), 6.97 (d, J=2.9 Hz, 2H)

$^{13}$C solution-state NMR in 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane-$d_2$, δ (ppm):
159.2, 153.5, 149.9, 149.7, 142.9, 135.4, 132.7, 132.0, 131.5, 129.0, 126.2, 125.8, 116.3, 110.5
**Figure S2.** Solution-state 2D $^1$H-$^1$H correlation (COSY) spectrum of TT dissolved in 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane-$d_2$ acquired at 18.8 T ($^1$H 800 MHz) at room temperature. Off diagonal correlation intensities shown in dashed red lines depict the through-bond interactions between thiophene protons.

**Solid-state MAS NMR spectroscopy:** A powder of TT was packed into a 4 mm (outer diameter) zirconia rotor fitted with Teflon insert and a ceramic cap fitted with a rubber o-ring to ensure close fitting of the sample. All variable temperature 1D and 2D MAS NMR spectra of TT were acquired on a 11.7 T Bruker AVANCE-II NMR spectrometer equipped with 4 mm H-X-Y probehead and Bruker VT control unit to regulate probe temperature. The $^1$H and $^{13}$C 90º pulse durations were 2.5 µs and 4.0 µs, respectively. To ensure the melt state of TT, single-pulse $^{13}$C NMR spectrum was acquired at 135 ºC under a static condition by co-adding 2048 transients using a relaxation delay of 2 s corresponding to an experimental time of 2 h. For TT in the solid state, 1D $^{13}$C-$^1$H CP-MAS spectra were acquired at 118 ºC using 0.1 ms and 2 ms of CP contact times under 8 kHz MAS conditions using a stream of N$_2$ gas. Cross polarization involves the simultaneous excitation of $^1$H and $^{13}$C nuclei to enhance the signals of the latter. Heteronuclear decoupling was applied during acquisition of $^{13}$C spectra using SPINAL64 sequence$^2$ using 2048 co-added transients with a 3 s recycle delay, corresponding to an experimental time of 2 h each. To characterize spatially proximate dipole-dipole coupled $^1$H-$^{13}$C pairs, 2D $^{13}$C-$^1$H HETCOR NMR spectra were acquired using a short (0.1 ms) and long (2 ms) CP contact times. 2D $^{13}$C-$^1$H HETCOR NMR spectra were acquired using 32 $t_1$ increments using an incremental time of 80 µs, each by co-adding 256 transients with a relaxation delay of 3 s corresponding to an experimental time of 7 h each.

All $^1$H and $^{13}$C experimental shifts are calibrated with respect to neat TMS using adamantane as an external reference (higher ppm $^{13}$C resonance, 35.8 ppm$^3$ and the $^1$H resonance, 1.85 ppm$^4$).

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**Figure S3.** Comparison of single-pulse $^{13}$C NMR spectrum of TT acquired at 135 ºC (melt) and the analogous $^{13}$C NMR spectrum of TT dissolved in 1,1,2,2-tetrachloroethane-$d_2$ acquired at room temperature.

Aromatic $^{13}$C chemical shifts of TT measured at 135 ºC (melt) and at 118 ºC (ordered solid) are given below.

$^{13}$C NMR in the melt (135 ºC), $\delta$ (ppm):
159.4, 157.4, 152.8, 149.1, 148.1, 141.7, 135.0, 132.3, 131.5, 131.5, 128.2, 125.3, 124.6, 114.9, 110.0

$^{13}$C solid-state NMR of the solid (118 ºC), $\delta$ (ppm):
159.2, 157.6, 154.2, 150.9, 147.6, 139.8, 139.8, 134.3, 132.6, 129.7, 123.8, 123.8, 115.4, 110.4

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S3
Figure S4. Solid-state single-pulse $^{13}$C NMR spectra of TT acquired at 11.7 T and 118 ºC using MAS (top) and static (bottom) conditions. Shaded regions highlight similarities in signal intensities and line widths and suggest the presence of disordered alkyl side chains, whereas the broad spectral features observed in the aromatic region (110 – 160 ppm) of the spectrum acquired under static conditions suggest well ordered, π-π stacked TT backbones.

Figure S5. Solid-state single-pulse $^{13}$C NMR spectrum of TT acquired at 11.7 T and 118 ºC using high-power $^1$H-decoupling. Integrals measured from the deconvolution of the spectrum reveal that the signals at 140 and 133 ppm are the overlapping contributions from two different carbon signals.

For TT in the lamellar state at 118 ºC, the local structures of the central and peripheral thiophene groups are elucidated by analyzing 2D $^{13}$C{$^1$H} HETCOR NMR spectra (Figure S6); in the spectrum acquired using 0.1 ms CP contact time, correlated signal intensities at 134 ppm ($^{13}$C) and 7.6 ppm ($^1$H) correspond to directly bonded $^{13}$C-$^1$H of central thiophene (blue dot), and at 130 ppm ($^{13}$C) and 7.4 ppm ($^1$H) and 115 ppm ($^{13}$C) and 6.9 ppm ($^1$H) indicate the directly bonded $^{13}$C-$^1$H in fluorobenzothiadiazole and thiophene end groups, respectively. In the 2D $^{13}$C{$^1$H} HETCOR NMR
spectrum acquired using 2 ms of CP contact time, correlation intensities originate from thiophene $^{13}$C and alkyl sidechain $^1$H moieties are observed as depicted by dashed horizontal and vertical lines in Figure S6b.

**Figure S6.** Solid-state 2D $^{13}$C-$^1$H HETCOR NMR spectrum recorded at 11.7 T and at 118 °C using (a) 0.1 ms and (b) 2 ms of CP contact times, respectively.

**DFT calculations:** All calculations were performed using the Gaussian 09 software package. The B3LYP functional and 6-31G(d,p) basis set were used to optimize the ground-state equilibrium geometry of TT. For the planar conformation, the central S-C-C-S dihedral was frozen at 180° and the rest of the structure was allowed to optimize the ground-state equilibrium geometry. The twisted conformation of TT was allowed to relax to the lowest energy conformation without any constraints. For each conformer of TT, the range-separation parameter $\omega$ in the $\omega$B97XD functional was tuned using the gap tuning procedure. The structures were subsequently optimized to their ground-state equilibrium geometries using the tuned $\omega$B97XD/6-31G(d,p) functional and basis set by the same methods described above; $\omega = 0.1253$ bohr$^{-1}$ for the twisted conformer and $\omega = 0.1081$ bohr$^{-1}$ for the trans-planar conformer. These optimized geometries were used to calculate magnetic shieldings using the gauge-independent atomic orbital (GIAO) method in a conductor-like polarizable continuum model (CPCM) for a conjugated organic material (where the static dielectric constant is set to $\epsilon = 3.5$ and the dynamic dielectric constant is set to $\epsilon_{\text{inf}} = 2$) with the tuned $\omega$B97XD functional and 6-311+G(2d,p) basis set. Plots of experimental $^{13}$C chemical shifts versus GIAO DFT-calculated NMR chemical shifts are shown in Figure S7 for the planar and twisted TT conformations.

Based on calculations of different possible rota-mers for both the twisted and planar conformations of TT, planarization of the molecule may also involve a flip of the fluorobenzothiadiazole (FBT) heterocycles and outer thiophene rings. This additional reconfiguration is reasonable, as single crystal data for similar compounds have shown a multitude of rotamer populations.

Computationally predicted chemical shieldings, $\sigma_{\text{iso}}$, can be compared to experimental isotropic chemical shifts, $\delta_{\text{iso}}$, by using the following conversion.
\[ \delta_{iso} = \frac{\text{intercept} - \sigma_{iso}}{-\text{slope}} \]  

where intercept and slope are the intercept and slope determined from linear regression analysis in Figure S7.

**Figure S7.** Plots of DFT-calculated $^{13}$C chemical shieldings versus experimental $^{13}$C chemical shifts obtained for the twisted (a) and planar (b) conformations of TT models from the high-temperature $^{13}$C NMR spectra acquired at 135 °C and 118 °C, respectively. Regression analyses are presented in figure insets, which depict reasonably good agreements with $R^2$ values 0.98 and 0.99 for the twisted and planar conformers of TT, respectively.

DFT-calculated isotropic $^{13}$C chemical shieldings for the backbone carbon atoms of TT are given below.

Twisted conformer, $\sigma_{iso}$ (ppm):
19.6941, 25.5663, 27.7351, 31.2094, 37.2596, 40.3939, 42.7596, 45.6088, 49.4673, 49.9177, 55.1814, 58.8164, 65.7932, 71.682

Planar conformer, $\sigma_{iso}$ (ppm):

**References**


