Synthesis, Characterization, and Thin-Film Properties of 6-Oxoverdazyl Polymers Prepared by Ring-Opening Metathesis Polymerization

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Synthesis, Characterization, and Thin-Film Properties of 6-Oxoverdazyl Polymers Prepared by Ring-Opening Metathesis Polymerization

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ABSTRACT: Redox-active 6-oxoverdazyl polymers were synthesized via ring-opening metathesis polymerization (ROMP) and their solution, bulk, and thin-film properties investigated. Detailed studies of the ROMP method employed confirmed that stable radical polymers with controlled molecular weights and narrow molecular weight distributions ($\bar{D} < 1.2$) were produced. Thermal gravimetric analysis of a representative example of the title polymers demonstrated stability up to 190 °C, while differential scanning calorimetry studies revealed a glass transition temperature of 152 °C. Comparison of the spectra of 6-oxoverdazyl monomer 12 and polymer 13, including FT-IR, UV-vis absorption, and electron paramagnetic resonance spectroscopy, was used to confirm the tolerance of the ROMP mechanism for the 6-oxoverdazyl radical both qualitatively and quantitatively. Cyclic voltammetry studies demonstrated the ambipolar redox properties of polymer 13 ($E_{1/2,ox} = 0.25$ and $E_{1/2,red} = -1.35$ V relative to ferrocene/ferrocenium), which were consistent with those of monomer 12. The charge transport properties of thin films of polymer 13 were studied before and after a potential of 5 V was applied, revealing a drastic drop in the resistivity from $10^6$–$10^{10}$ Ω·m or more to $1.7 \times 10^4$ Ω·m and suggesting the potential usefulness of polymer 13 in bistable electronics.

KEYWORDS: stable radical polymers; ring-opening metathesis polymerization; polymer thin-films; semiconductivity, EPR spectroscopy.
INTRODUCTION

Functional polymers with potentially useful optical and electronic properties have received significant attention due to the ability of these materials to improve upon existing technologies by combining the unique properties of small functional molecules (e.g., electron transfer, light absorption/emission, magnetic) with the processability, mechanical robustness, and flexibility associated with polymers. An interesting subclass of functional polymers that has emerged in recent years contain stable organic radicals in the repeating unit pendant to their backbones. The vast majority of research towards stable radical polymers has been motivated by their utility as electrode materials in batteries, where the introduction of conductive (nano)fillers has led to enhanced performance. However, radical polymers have also shown application as high-spin ground state materials, (co)catalysts for the selective oxidation of alcohols, inhibitors of self-polymerization reactions, solid-state conductive materials, and the functional component of memory architectures.

The most widely studied family of stable radical polymers is based on 2,2,6,6-tetramethyl-piperidin-1-yl (TEMPO, 1) radicals, while examples based on other families of radicals, including nitronyl nitroxide (2), 2,2,5,5-tetramethyl-1-pyrroldinyloxy (PROXYL, 3), spirobisnitroxide (4), aminoxy (5), galvinoxyl (6), and 6-oxoverdazyl (7) radicals have received considerably less attention (Figure 1). Further expansion of the stable radical polymer field to include examples based on these and other stable radicals will allow for the realization of materials with targeted properties that are suitable for the applications described above. 6-Oxoverdazyl radicals offer exceptional stability towards air and moisture, and, while their high molecular weights render them poor candidates for battery applications, their tunable ambipolar redox properties may allow for their future use as charge transport materials.
FIGURE 1 Representative examples of stable radical polymers.

Most synthetic protocols, for example those targeting nitroxide radical polymers, involve the polymerization of monomers based on radical precursors followed by post-polymerization reactions designed to generate the targeted stable radical polymers. These strategies are often hampered by difficulty surrounding the complete conversion of the radical precursor repeating units to their stable radical form, a factor that has recently been shown to affect their charge transport properties. Therefore, there remains a need for further development of polymerization protocols that allow for direct polymerization of stable radical-containing monomers and ensure a high degree of radical content along the polymer backbone.

Herein, we report the ring-opening metathesis polymerization (ROMP) behavior of a 6-oxoverdazyl radical monomer and the thorough characterization of the bulk, solution, and thin-film properties of the resulting polymers.
EXPERIMENTAL

General

All reactions and manipulations were carried out under a nitrogen atmosphere using standard Schlenk techniques unless otherwise stated. Solvents were obtained from Caledon Laboratories, dried using an Innovative Technologies Inc. solvent purification system, collected under vacuum, and stored under a nitrogen atmosphere over 4 Å molecular sieves. All reagents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, Alfa Aesar, or Oakwood Chemicals and used as received unless otherwise stated. 2,4-Di-isopropylcarbonohydrazide bis-hydrochloride 8 and N-(3-hydroxypropyl)-cis-5-norbornene-exo-2,3-dicarboximide 11 were prepared according to published procedures. NMR spectra were recorded on a 400 MHz (1H: 400.1 MHz, 13C: 100.4 MHz) Varian INOVA instrument. 1H NMR spectra were referenced to residual CD3SOCD2H (2.50 ppm) and 13C {1H} NMR spectra were referenced to CD3SOCD3 (39.5 ppm). Mass spectrometry data were recorded in positive-ion mode using a high resolution Finnigan MAT 8200 spectrometer using electron impact ionization. UV-vis absorption spectra were recorded in CH2Cl2 solutions using a Cary 300 Scan instrument. Four separate concentrations were run for each sample, and molar extinction coefficients were determined from the slope of a plot of absorbance against concentration. FT-IR spectra were recorded on a PerkinElmer Spectrum Two FT-IR as KBr pellets. Elemental analysis (C, H, N) was carried out by Laboratoire d’Analyse Élémentaire, Université de Montréal, Montréal, QC, Canada.

Gel Permeation Chromatography (GPC)

GPC experiments were conducted in chromatography grade THF at concentrations of 5 mg mL−1 using a Viscotek GPCmax VE 2001 GPC instrument equipped with an Agilent PolyPore guard column (PL1113-1500) and two sequential Agilent PolyPore GPC columns.
packed with porous poly(styrene-co-divinylbenzene) particles (MW range 200–2,000,000 g mol\(^{-1}\); PL1113-6500) regulated at a temperature of 30 °C. Signal response was measured using a Viscotek VE 3580 RI detector, and molecular weights were determined by comparison of the maximum RI response with a calibration curve (10 points, 1,500–786,000 g mol\(^{-1}\)) established using monodisperse polystyrene purchased from Viscotek.

**Thermal Analysis**

Thermal degradation studies were performed using a TA Instruments Q600 SDT TGA and processed using TA Universal Analysis software. Samples were placed in an alumina cup and heated at a rate of 10 °C min\(^{-1}\) from 25 to 800 °C under a flow of nitrogen (100 mL min\(^{-1}\)). Glass transition temperatures were determined using differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) on a TA Instruments DSC Q20. The polymer samples were placed in an aluminum Tzero pan and heated from room temperature to 180 °C at a scan rate of 10 °C min\(^{-1}\) under a flow of nitrogen (50 mL min\(^{-1}\)) and cooled down to 0 °C at a scan rate 10 °C min\(^{-1}\) before they underwent two more heating/cooling cycles. The glass transition temperature (T\(_g\)) was determined from the second heating/cooling cycle.

**Cyclic Voltammetry (CV)**

CV experiments were performed with a Bioanalytical Systems Inc. (BASi) Epsilon potentiostat and analyzed using BASi Epsilon software. Typical electrochemical cells consisted of a three-electrode setup including a glassy carbon working electrode, platinum wire counter electrode, and silver wire *pseudo*-reference electrode. Experiments were run at 100 mV s\(^{-1}\) in degassed MeCN/CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\) (1:1) solutions of the analyte (~1 mM) and electrolyte (0.1 M \(n\)Bu\(_4\)NPF\(_6\)). Voltammograms were referenced internally against the ferrocene/ferrocenium redox
couple (~1 mM internal standard) and corrected for internal cell resistance using the BASi Epsilon software.

**Electron Paramagnetic Resonance (EPR) Spectroscopy**

EPR measurements were made on ca. $10^{-5}$ M CH$_2$Cl$_2$ solutions of 6-oxoverdazyl monomer 12 and polymer 13 that had been subjected to three freeze-pump-thaw cycles in 0.4 mm quartz tubes using a JEOL JES-FA200 EPR spectrometer. All measurements were made at 20 °C and g-factors were referenced relative to a built-in manganese oxide marker within the resonant cavity of the instrument. Quantification of the number of unpaired electrons present in polymer 13 was done by comparing an EPR spectrum collected for a TEMPO solution of known concentration in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ that was compared to the manganese oxide marker signal as outlined above. The integration of the TEMPO signal with respect to the manganese oxide marker was compared to that of the radical polymer. By assuming one molecule of TEMPO contributes one unpaired electron, the number of unpaired electrons present in the radical polymer sample was determined.

**X-ray Crystallography**

Crystals of monomer 12 suitable for X-ray diffraction were grown by vapor diffusion of hexanes into a saturated CH$_2$Cl$_2$ solution at ~30 °C. The sample was mounted on a MiTeGen polyimide micromount with a small amount of Paratone N oil. All X-ray measurements were made on a Nonius KappaCCD Apex2 diffractometer at a temperature of 110 K. The frame integration was performed using SAINT.$^{43}$ The resulting raw data was scaled and absorption corrected using a multi-scan averaging of symmetry equivalent data using SADABS.$^{44}$ The structure was solved by using a dual space methodology using the SHELXT program.$^{45}$ All non-hydrogen atoms were obtained from the initial solution. The hydrogen atoms were introduced at
idealized positions and the positional parameters but not the displacement parameters were allowed to refine. The structural model was fit to the data using full matrix least-squares based on $F^2$. The calculated structure factors included corrections for anomalous dispersion from the usual tabulation. The structure was refined using the SHELXL-2014 program from the SHELX suite of crystallographic software.\textsuperscript{46} Graphic plots were produced using the Mercury program suite. See Table 1 and CCDC 1428231 for X-ray diffraction data collection and refinement details.

**TABLE 1** Selected X-ray diffraction data collection and refinement details for monomer 12.

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<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>12</th>
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<tr>
<td>Chemical Formula</td>
<td>C$<em>{27}$H$</em>{32}$N$_5$O$_5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formula Weight (g mol$^{-1}$)</td>
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<td>Crystal Dimensions (mm)</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>$c$ (Å)</td>
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<td>$\lambda$ (Å)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\mu$ (cm$^{-1}$)</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\omega R_2$</td>
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<tr>
<td>$\omega R_2$ (all data)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOF$^c$</td>
<td>1.028</td>
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</table>

\textsuperscript{a}$R_1 = \Sigma|F_o| - |F_c|)/ \Sigma F_o$

\textsuperscript{b}$\omega R_2 = [\Sigma(\omega(F_o^2 - F_c^2)^2)/ \Sigma(\omega F_o^4)]^{1/2}$

\textsuperscript{c}$GOF = [\Sigma(\omega(F_o^2 - F_c^2)^2)/(\text{No. of reflns. - No. of params.})]^{1/2}$
Thin-Film Preparation and Electrical Conductivity Measurements

Thin films of various thickness were prepared from polymer 13 and their electrical properties were measured. Film preparation and electrical measurements were both carried out in a glove box loaded with N₂ (Nexus II, Vacuum Atmospheres Co.) attached to an ultra-high vacuum (UHV) chamber for sample metallization and contacting. Samples can be transferred to/from this chamber from/to the glove box without any direct exposure to air. O₂ and H₂O contents in the glove box were below 3 ppm during the entire fabrication and measurement process. To prepare the thin films, the polymer was dissolved at 12.5 mg mL⁻¹ in anhydrous chlorobenzene. The solution was stirred overnight at 50 °C, filtered through 0.8 μm pore size syringe filters and spun on glass substrates with pre-deposited indium tin-oxide (ITO) contacts (15 Ω/square sheet resistance, Sigma-Aldrich) using a KW-4A spin coater (Chemat Technologies Inc.) located in the glove box. ITO substrate patterning on glass was previously obtained by coating the ITO area to be retained with Kapton™ tape and etching the remaining area in a 2:1:1 H₂O:HCl:HNO₃ mixture at 55 °C.

Different spinning speeds, from 500 to 3000 rpm, were used to obtain a set of thin films at thicknesses from 50 ± 4 nm to 10 ± 4 nm, respectively. These thicknesses were measured by atomic force microscopy (AFM) from samples identical to those used for electrical measurements. In order to perform the thickness measurements, part of the substrate was masked prior to spin coating the polymer solution. The mask was then removed and samples were extracted from the glove box and analyzed in contact-mode using a Witec Alpha300S AFM microscope, from which topography profiles of the step in the correspondence of the masked area were obtained. Additional AFM profiles were recorded in the correspondence of scratches made on the polymer film using soft probes that were known not to affect the substrate. AFM
images showed that root mean squared (RMS) roughness of thin films of polymer 13 could be estimated to be about 2 nm, which was significantly less than the RMS roughness of ITO. This suggests the polymeric film is continuous with no outstanding ITO pinholes (Figure S1).

Electrical measurements were performed in a sandwich configuration in the glove box. To complete the sandwich structure, samples were transferred in the aforementioned UHV chamber directly accessible from the glove box and 100 nm thick aluminum contacts were thermally evaporated on top of the polymer films, with contact thickness measured in situ using a Sycom STM-2 thickness monitor. The temperature was kept below 50 °C during the entire thermal evaporation process. A first set of current voltage (I-V) characteristics of the thin films were recorded at ± 1 V using a computer automated Keithley 2400 source meter with 10 mV scan step. After this set of measurements a significantly higher voltage, \( V_0 = 5 \) V, was applied to the samples, and electrical measurements were repeated. The breakdown voltage was determined to be 8–12 V for the thinnest sample and is therefore significantly higher than any voltages used during our experiments. Consistent electrical measurements were successfully reproduced on different sets of identical samples.

1,5-di-isopropyl-3-(4-carboxyphenyl)-6-oxotetrazane (9)

To a refluxing solution of 2,4-di-isopropylcarbazide (2.00 g, 8.09 mmol) and sodium acetate (1.33 g, 16.2 mmol) in MeOH (50 mL) was added dropwise over a 3 h period, a solution of 4-carboxybenzaldehyde (1.21 g, 8.09 mmol) and sodium acetate (0.66 g, 8.1 mmol) in MeOH (50 mL). The solution was stirred at reflux overnight, removed from the heat and allowed to cool to room temperature. The reaction mixture was then acidified to pH ~ 3 using 1 M HCl, followed by the removal of MeOH in vacuo. The white precipitate that crashed out of the resulting aqueous solution was filtered and washed with two portions of deionized H₂O (50 mL) to give
tetrazane 9 as a white microcrystalline powder. Yield = 2.34 g, 94%. $^1$H NMR (400.1 MHz, $d_6$-DMSO): $\delta$ 13.00 (s, 1H, COOH), 7.97 (d, 2H, $^3$J$_{HH}$ = 6 Hz, aryl CH), 7.68 (d, 2H, $^3$J$_{HH}$ = 6 Hz, aryl CH), 5.05 (d, 2H, $^3$J$_{HH}$ = 11 Hz, NH), 4.50–4.43 (m, 3H, NCHN and $CHMe_2$), 1.06–1.04 (m, 12H, $CH_3$). $^{13}$C {$^1$H}NMR (100.6 MHz, $d_6$-DMSO): $\delta$ 167.0, 153.4, 141.1, 130.6, 129.3, 126.9, 72.2, 46.8, 19.6, 18.4. FT-IR (ranked intensity, assignment), KBr pellet: 3249 (13, NH), 2981 (7), 2935 (11), 2872 (12), 1694 (3, CO), 1586 (1, CO), 1423 (2), 1227 (5), 1125 (6), 1062 (8), 904 (9), 863 (10), 752 (4) cm$^{-1}$. Mass Spec. (EI, +ve mode): exact mass calculated for C$_{15}$H$_{22}$N$_4$O$_3$: 306.1692; found: 306.1688; difference: –1.3 ppm.

1,5-di-isopropyl-3-(4-carboxyphenyl)-6-oxoverdazyl (10)

To a deionized H$_2$O /THF (2:1, 45 mL) solution of 1,5-di-isopropyl-3-(4-carboxyphenyl)-6-oxotetrazane 9 (2.34 g, 7.64 mmol) and sodium hydroxide (0.31 g, 7.6 mmol) open to air was added sodium periodate (2.45 g, 11.5 mmol) in deionized H$_2$O (30 mL) dropwise over 30 min. The reaction was stirred at room temperature for 18 h and slowly turned a dark red colour. The mixture was then acidified to pH ~ 3 using 1 M HCl, followed by removal of THF in vacuo. The resultant dark-red precipitate was filtered and washed with two portions of deionized H$_2$O (50 mL) to give verdazyl 10 as a red microcrystalline powder. Yield = 2.15 g, 93%. FT-IR (ranked intensity, assignment), KBr pellet: 3434 (4, br, OH), 3198 (8), 2985 (6), 2937 (9), 1721 (3, CO), 1680 (1, CO), 1656 (2), 1612 (7), 1432 (12), 1386 (10), 1290 (11), 1219 (5) cm$^{-1}$. UV-vis (CH$_2$Cl$_2$): $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ 419 nm ($\varepsilon$ = 1,875 M$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$), 405 nm ($\varepsilon$ = 1,600 M$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$), 270 nm ($\varepsilon$ = 29,750 M$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$). Mass Spec. (EI, +ve mode): exact mass calculated for C$_{15}$H$_{19}$N$_4$O$_3$: 303.1457; found: 303.1459; difference: +0.7 ppm.
1,5-diisopropyl-3-(cis-5-norbornene-exo-2,3,-dicarboxiimide)-6-oxoverdazyl (12)

To a solution of N,N’-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide (DCC) (0.75 g, 3.6 mmol) and 4-dimethylaminopyridine (DMAP) (0.48 g, 4.0 mmol) in dry CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (20 mL) was added 1,5-diisopropyl-3-(4-carboxyphenyl)-6-oxoverdazyl 10 (1.00 g, 3.30 mmol) before the mixture was stirred for 10 min at room temperature. To this solution was added N-(3-hydroxylpropyl)-cis-5-norbornene-exo-2,3-dicarboximide 11 (0.73 g, 3.3 mmol) and a further 10 mL of dry CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (for rinsing). The reaction mixture was stirred for 4 h at room temperature. The solution was filtered to remove salt, which was rinsed with dry CH$_2$Cl$_2$ before the organic phases were combined and taken to dryness in vacuo. The resulting orange oil was purified by column chromatography [75 mL neutral alumina, hexanes/EtOAc (35:65), $R_f$ = 0.45], and recrystallized from a hot saturated solution of hexanes to give 12 as dark-red needles. Yield = 1.18 g, 71%. FT-IR (ranked intensity, assignment), KBr pellet: 2978 (11), 2935 (12), 2877 (14), 1770 (13, CO), 1697 (1, CO), 1679 (2, CO), 1611 (10), 1386 (9), 1367 (8), 1268 (2), 1230 (5), 1174 (6), 776 (7), 705 (4) cm$^{-1}$. UV-vis (CH$_2$Cl$_2$): $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ 418 nm ($\epsilon$ = 1,900 M$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$), 403 nm ($\epsilon$ = 1,400 M$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$), 268 nm ($\epsilon$ = 31,025 M$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$). Mass Spec. (EI, +ve mode): exact mass calculated for C$_{27}$H$_{32}$N$_5$O$_5$: 506.2403; found: 506.2399; difference: −0.8 ppm. Anal. Calcd. (%) for C$_{27}$H$_{32}$N$_5$O$_5$: C, 64.02; H, 6.37; N, 13.82. Found: C, 63.88; H, 6.50; N, 13.65.

Representative synthesis of poly[1,5-diisopropyl-3-(cis-5-norbornene-exo-2,3,-dicarboxiimide)-6-oxoverdazyl] (13)

A grease-free Schlenk flask was charged with monomer 12 (0.50 g, 0.99 mmol) and degassed CH$_2$Cl$_2$ (12 mL, 3 freeze-pump-thaw cycles). The monomer solution was cooled to 0 °C in an ice bath for 10 min before a 1 mg mL$^{-1}$ CH$_2$Cl$_2$ solution of Grubbs’ 3rd generation catalyst (8.73 mL, 9.87 × 10$^{-3}$ mmol) was rapidly added in one portion. The polymerization proceeded for 1 h before it was terminated with ethyl vinyl ether (2.37 mL, 24.7 mmol), and stirred for an
additional 30 min while warming to room temperature. The crude mixture was filtered through a short neutral alumina column (4 cm × 2.5 cm, CH₂Cl₂) before the solvent was removed in vacuo. The resultant polymer, an orange oil was dissolved in THF (10 mL) and precipitated thrice into cold hexanes (90 mL) to afford 13 as an orange powder. Yield = 0.46 g, 92%. FT-IR (ranked intensity, assignment), KBr pellet: 2975 (13), 2939 (14), 2871 (16), CO ester 1775 (15), 1698 (1, CO), 1682 (2, CO), 1611 (12), 1387 (10), 1368 (8), 1270 (3), 1228 (9), 1173 (6), 1104 (7), 1101 (5), 776 (11), 705 (4) cm⁻¹. UV-vis (CH₂Cl₂): λ_max 419 nm (ε = 2,050 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹), 402 nm (ε = 1,475 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹), 270 nm (ε = 29,900 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹). GPC (THF, conventional calibration relative to polystyrene standards): M_n = 46,100 g mol⁻¹, M_w = 49,000 g mol⁻¹, D = 1.07).

**Kinetic Studies of the ROMP of Monomer 12**

**Catalyst Loading:** Using 0.05 g of monomer 12 each, a series of five reactions were carried out according to the procedure described above. The catalyst molar feed stock ratios (monomer:catalyst) were: 20, 40, 60, 80, and 100. The polymerization times were held constant at 30 min. The degree of polymerization was measured by GPC analysis using conventional calibration relative to polystyrene standards.

**Timed aliquots:** A 1 mg mL⁻¹ CH₂Cl₂ solution of Grubbs’ 3rd generation catalyst (3.5 mL, 4.0 × 10⁻³ mmol) was rapidly added in one portion to a 42 mg mL⁻¹ CH₂Cl₂ solution of monomer 12 (4.8 mL, 0.40 mmol) and the mixture was stirred at 0 °C. Six samples were taken at 150 s intervals and added into separate reaction flasks containing ethyl vinyl ether (0.94 mL, 9.9 mmol) to terminate polymerization. The number average molecular weights (M_n) were measured by GPC analysis using conventional calibration relative to polystyrene standards.
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Synthesis

The synthesis of monomer 12 (Scheme 1) began with the condensation reaction between bis-hydrazide×2HCl salt 8 and 4-formylbenzoic acid to afford tetrazane 9 as a white powder in 94% yield (Figure S2 and S3). Tetrazane 9 was then oxidized in THF/deionized H₂O solution using sodium periodate to yield 6-oxoverdazyl 10 as an orange powder (93%). The reaction was monitored by FT-IR spectroscopy where the disappearance of the NH stretch at 3249 cm⁻¹ was observed (Figure S4). Verdazyl 10 was then coupled to N-(3-hydroxylpropyl)-cis-5-norbornene-exo-2,3-dicarboximide 11 in the presence of DCC and DMAP to afford monomer 12 as dark-red crystals in 71% yield. The propyl-substituted cis-5-norbornene-exo-2,3-dicarboximide polymerizable group was chosen based on previous reports by Tang and co-workers describing the successful ROMP of monomers bearing redox-active cobaltocenium moieties.42

\[
\text{SCHEME 1 Synthesis of 6-oxoverdazyl monomer 12 and polymer 13.}
\]

X-ray diffraction studies of single crystals of monomer 12 afforded a solid-state structure (Figure 2 and Table 1). The bond lengths of N1-N2 1.3558(15) and N3-N4 1.3595(15) Å are intermediate between single and double N-N bonds.47 Similarly, the N2-C1 1.3319(16) and N4-C1 1.3315(16) Å bond lengths fall between those expected for single and double N-C bonds.47
confirming the delocalized nature of the bonding in the planar verdazyl radical. The dihedral angle between the verdazyl plane (N1-N2-C1-N4-N3-C2) and the plane defined by the phenyl ring (C9–C14) was found to be 6.13°. Furthermore, the bond length of C24-C25 of 1.318(2) Å is consistent with the preservation of the alkene in the norbornene ring. The structural metrics observed for verdazyl monomer 12 are consistent with those of other 6-oxoverdazyl radicals. 34,48-52

**FIGURE 2** Solid-state structure of monomer 12. Anisotropic displacement ellipsoids are shown at 50% probability and hydrogen atoms have been omitted for clarity. Selected bond lengths (Å): N1-N2 1.3558(15), N3-N4 1.3595(15), N1-C2 1.3819(16), N2-C1 1.3319(16), N3-C2 1.3802(16), N4-C1 1.3315(16), C24-C25 1.318(2). Selected bond angles (deg): N1-N2-C1 115.00(10), N3-N4-C1 114.96(10), N1-C2-N3 114.35(11), N2-C1-N4 127.20(11).

With monomer 12 in hand, we began to explore its ROMP behavior. In a representative reaction, polymerization was initiated by the rapid introduction of a solution of Grubbs' 3rd generation catalyst (G3) to a stirring solution of monomer 12 in dry and degassed CH₂Cl₂ at 0 °C with a feed molar ratio of 100 (monomer:catalyst = 100:1). Reaction progress was monitored by gel permeation chromatography (GPC), confirming the reaction was near completion after approximately 15 min. Nonetheless, the solution was stirred for an additional 45 min to ensure
complete monomer conversion before a large excess of ethyl vinyl ether (EVE) was added to terminate the polymerization. The reaction mixture was passed through a plug of neutral alumina to remove residual catalyst. Subsequent precipitations from THF into cold hexanes, followed by centrifugation afforded polymer 13 as an orange powder in 92% yield. Figure 3a shows the GPC trace (typical) obtained for polymer 13 after purification [number average molecular weight (M_n) = 46,100 g mol\(^{-1}\), weight average molecular weight (M_w) = 49,300 g mol\(^{-1}\), dispersity (D) = 1.07]. Our best results were obtained when CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\) was employed as a solvent, while Nishide and co-workers have recently noted improved results when acetone was employed as solvent for the ROMP of a related bis nitroxide monomer.\(^{26}\)

It is worth noting that during our investigations of the ROMP of monomer 12, approximately 20% of our reactions yielded polymer samples that contained a high molecular weight shoulder in their GPC chromatograms (e.g., Figure 3b, M_n = 51,100 g mol\(^{-1}\), M_w = 57,750 g mol\(^{-1}\), D = 1.13). Based on the inconsistent appearance of this shoulder in our GPC data, we assume that the high molecular weight species are generated via chain coupling or related reactions during the termination step. The origin of the coupling remains unclear, however, molecular oxygen inadvertently introduced when EVE was introduced to the reaction flask via syringe may play a role in the observed reactivity.

We performed two separate experiments designed to further probe the ROMP of monomer 12. Unfortunately, the scope of our studies were limited due to the paramagnetic nature of polymer 13, which precluded the use of integration data obtained from \(^1\)H NMR spectroscopy for the determination of the number average degree of polymerization (DP_n) and monomer consumption as a function of time. The first study involved ROMP of monomer 12 at five different molar feedstock ratios (Figure 3c). As expected, the values of DP_n determined by GPC
analysis increased significantly as the molar feedstock ratios were increased from 20 to 100. However, when high molecular weight polymers were targeted, we observed a deviation from ideal behavior, and lower than expected values of DPₙ. This observation is indicative of well-behaved, but not formally living polymerization ROMP. A second study was performed, where a single ROMP reaction (monomer:catalyst 100:1) was studied at time intervals of 150 s (Figure 3d). The molecular weight of the isolated polymers increased in a non-linear fashion as a function of time due to a decrease in monomer concentration as the reaction proceeded. Again, this trend was consistent with a well-behaved ROMP reaction involving limited side reactions.

FIGURE 3 Representative GPC traces for (a) a typical sample of polymer 13 (Mₙ = 46,100 g mol⁻¹, Mₘ = 49,300 g mol⁻¹, D = 1.07) and (b) a GPC trace for a polymer containing a minor fraction of high molecular weight polymer 13 (Mₙ = 51,100 g mol⁻¹, Mₘ = 57,750 g mol⁻¹, D = 1.13). (c) Relationship of feed molar ratio and DPₙ determined by GPC. The black line represents the theoretical relationship between DPₙ and feed molar ratio. (d) Molecular weight (Mₙ) as a function of reaction time.
Polymer Characterization

Thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) revealed that polymer 13 was thermally stable up to a temperature of 190 °C, where rapid degradation occurred in three steps (Figure S5). The first step (190–290 °C) involved a mass loss of 13%, the second (290–430 °C) 35%, and the third (430–800 °C) 40%, to give an overall char yield of 12%. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) studies of polymer 13 revealed a T_g of 152 °C (Figure S6).

To confirm the presence of 6-oxoverdazyl radicals in the polymer, careful comparison of the spectroscopic and electrochemical properties of monomer 12 and polymer 13 were made. The FT-IR spectra of monomer 12 showed characteristic carbonyl peaks at 1679, 1697, 1770 cm$^{-1}$ similar to the carbonyl peaks at 1682, 1698, and 1775 cm$^{-1}$ of polymer 13 (Figure S7). Moreover, when we compared the UV-vis absorption spectra of monomer 12 and polymer 13 between 350 and 475 nm, we found that they were in very close agreement (Figure 4). Based on the IR and UV-vis absorption spectra, we conclude that nearly 100% of the repeating units in polymer 13 contain a 6-oxoverdazyl moiety, indicating that the ROMP reaction employed is indeed tolerant of such radicals.
In order to further support these findings, electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectroscopy was performed to quantitatively determine the number of unpaired 6-oxoverdazyl units present in polymer 13. This experiment showed that ca. 94% of the repeating units in the polymer contain an unpaired electron, supporting our IR and UV-vis absorption spectroscopy-based claims discussed above. An EPR spectrum of monomer 12 was also obtained and compared to the spectrum of polymer 13 (Figure 5). The spectrum of monomer 12 showed a typical pattern for 1,5-substituted 6-oxoverdazyls, with the radical coupling to two unique pairs of nitrogen atoms and the CH protons of the isopropyl groups [simulation data (Figure S8): $g = 2.0045$, line width = 0.089 mT, $a_{N1,3} = 0.529$ mT, $a_{N2,4} = 0.640$ mT, $a_{H} = 0.140$ mT]. The isotropic EPR spectrum of polymer 13 ($g = 2.0043$) was very broad and essentially featureless, as would be expected for a polymer containing stable radicals in random orientations and close proximity.
FIGURE 5 Experimental EPR spectra of 6-oxoverdazyl monomer 12 (grey line, $g = 2.0045$) and polymer 13 (black line, $g = 2.0043$). Simulation of the spectrum of monomer 12 yielded the following parameters: line width = 0.089 mT, $a_{N1,3} = 0.529$ mT, $a_{N2,4} = 0.640$ mT, $a_H = 0.140$ mT (Figure S8).

The electrochemical properties of monomer 12 and polymer 13 were studied using cyclic voltammetry (CV) in a CH$_2$Cl$_2$/MeCN (1:1) solvent mixture (Figure 6, Table 2). 6-Oxoverdazyl monomer 12 was reversibly oxidized and reduced at half-wave oxidation ($E_{1/2,ox}$) and reduction ($E_{1/2,red}$) potentials of 0.24 and $-1.36$ V relative to the ferrocene/ferrocenium redox couple, respectively. Similarly, the CV of polymer 13 showed oxidation and reduction wave potentials at 0.25 V and $-1.35$ V, respectively. The current response for the polymer was lower than expected and the oxidation/reduction waves broadened as a result of a loss of diffusion control at the electrode interface, a commonly observed phenomenon for redox-active polymers.
FIGURE 6 Cyclic voltammograms of 6-oxoverdazyl monomer 12 (grey line) and polymer 13 (black line) recorded at a scan rate of 100 mV s$^{-1}$ in CH$_2$Cl$_2$/MeCN (1:1) solution containing 1 mM analyte and 0.1 M $n$Bu$_4$NPF$_6$ as supporting electrolyte.

TABLE 2 Electrochemical data for 6-oxoverdazyl monomer 12 and polymer 13.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound</th>
<th>$E_{1/2,\text{ox}}$ (V vs. Fc/Fc$^+$)</th>
<th>$E_{1/2,\text{red}}$ (V vs. Fc/Fc$^+$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>−1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>−1.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Electrical Properties of Thin Films of Polymer 13

Based on the spectroscopic and electrochemical studies described above, we concluded that polymer 13 may have interesting and potentially unique thin-film properties. To this end, we investigated the electrical properties of thin solid films of this polymer, from approximately 10 nm to 50 nm in thickness, by using a sandwich architecture. Thin polymeric films may have very peculiar morphological and structural properties$^{53}$ as a consequence of the preferential alignment of the polymeric chains with respect to the substrate. Specifically, the alignment may be strongly dependent on the thickness, which may sometimes lead to non-ohmic conductivity mechanisms and thickness-dependent resistivity in ultrathin polymeric films.$^{53}$
Figure 7a illustrates the configuration we used to measure the I-V characteristics of our films before and after the films were pretreated at high voltage ($V_o = 5$ V). In both cases, the film resistivity ($\rho$) was inferred from the I-V characteristics through the relationship

$$\rho = \frac{R \cdot A}{d}$$  

(1)

where $A$ is the area of the region in which the top and bottom contacts overlap, $d$ is the film thickness and $R = V/I$ is the thin film resistance, obtained from the slope of the I-V characteristics in the proximity of the origin. The I-V curves recorded from our films of polymer 13 are reported in Figure 7b and 7c for measurements recorded after and before 5 V film treatment, respectively. In ohmic systems $\rho$ is an inherent property of the material, independent of the thickness of the thin film that is being considered. After 5 V treatment, all films were electrically ohmic and exhibit a relatively high conductivity, with linear I-V characteristics in the entire ±1 V range as can be observed in Figure 7b. The extracted resistivity value ($\rho \approx 1.7 \times 10^4 \ \Omega \cdot m$, Figure 7d) is thickness independent, as can be expected from ohmic systems. This value favorably compares with poly(2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidinyloxy methacrylate) 1 ($\rho \approx 1 \times 10^4 \ \Omega \cdot m$),15 the most widely studied stable radical polymer that has also shown defect-dependent thin-film properties.16 In contrast, Figure 7d also shows that these films are significantly more insulating before the high voltage treatment at 5 V. They revert to such a low-conductivity state after the effects of high-voltage treatment vanish, typically in 20–200 h.

Although a more complete understanding of the electrical properties of our films is beyond the scope of this paper and will be the subject of future reports, it is noteworthy that the I-V characteristics before high-voltage treatment of our films are typically non-ohmic, as can be
inferred from Figure 7c. As a consequence of non-ohmicity, the resistivity inferred from eq. (1) strongly increases as the thickness of the films decreases and could not be measured with our equipment at thicknesses below 20 nm. This suggests that \( \rho \) should be higher than \( 10^{12} \ \Omega \cdot m \) below this thickness value and, therefore, it may be approximately comparable with that of glass \( (\rho \approx 10^{12} - 10^{14} \ \Omega \cdot m) \). It can be phenomenologically observed that the I-V curves shown in Figure 7c can be fitted using a Poole-Frenkel model for non-ohmic transport via localized trapped charges, in which the current is related to the voltage by the following relationship:

\[
I = \frac{A}{\rho_0 d} V \exp \left\{ -\frac{-q \Delta \phi + q^{3/2} \pi^{1/2} \left[ V / (\varepsilon_m d) \right]^{3/2}}{k_B T} \right\}
\]  

(2)

where \( \rho_0 \) corresponds to the polymer resistivity in the absence of traps, \( q \) is the electron charge, \( \Delta \phi \) is the voltage barrier electrons must cross at low voltage to hop from one charged trap to another, \( \varepsilon_m \) is the dielectric permittivity of the polymer relative to vacuum, and \( k_B T = 0.025 \) eV at room temperature.

While the high-conductivity state observed in Figure 7b can be attributed to extended-state transport via free electrons, the low-conductivity, Poole-Frenkel-like transport mechanism observed in Figure 7c can be assigned to hopping between localized states situated at specific charged monomers along a polymer filament. The hopping conditions may be strongly dependent on the degree of alignment of the polymer filaments along the substrate, in analogy to what previously observed in polythiophenes. Specifically, if all of the polymer chains are aligned parallel to the substrate, hopping along the z-direction must occur through localized states situated on different polymer chains, thus explaining why the thinnest films, presumably
containing polymer filaments more aligned along the substrate, are also more electrically insulating.

**FIGURE 7** (a) Sandwich-type configuration for measuring the I-V characteristics of polymer 13 thin films, showing bistable electrical transport. (b) I-V curves of thin films at four different thicknesses in high conductivity state, which were fitted with straight lines to demonstrate ohmic transport and (c) I-V curves of thin films in low conductivity state showing non-ohmic, Poole-Frenkel like, behavior. Solid line fits were performed using eq. (2). (d) Film resistivity values obtained from the low-voltage portions of I-V curves. Resistivity is thickness-independent in the high conductivity state, while it dramatically increases at decreasing thickness in the low-conductivity state, possibly due to preferential alignment of polymer filaments along the substrate.

The switchable conductor-insulator transitions in thin films of polymer 13 and their relationship with the redox processes in this material requires further investigations. However, the observation of Poole-Frenkel type transport in the low conductivity state leads us to tentatively suggest that such state corresponds to a situation in which only a few repeating units
in a polymer chain are charged, while most of them are in a neutral state. At sufficiently high
voltage (i.e., \( V \geq V_o \approx 5 \) V) charges may directly tunnel from the electrodes into some of the
neutral repeating units, charging them either positively or negatively. When a sufficient
concentration of charged repeating units is reached in a thin film, a percolating pathway may be
established between such repeating units, leading to switching to the high conductivity state,
dominated by transport between extended electronic states. This conductor-insulator transition
makes polymer 13 uniquely positioned for several applications in bistable electronics and will
be the subject of future reports.

CONCLUSION

As a result of this work, we have demonstrated that ROMP using Grubbs’ 3rd generation catalyst
can be used to produce 6-oxoverdazyl polymers with up to ca. 100 repeating units, narrow
molecular weight distributions (\( D < 1.2 \)), and high radical content (ca. 94%). A representative
sample of the 6-oxoverdazyl polymers produced was thermally stable up to a temperature of 190
°C and had a glass transition temperature of 152 °C. Comparison of the same polymer, which is
stable towards air and moisture, to the monomer employed using several spectroscopic
techniques, including IR, UV-vis absorption, and EPR spectroscopy and cyclic voltammetry
confirmed the identity and properties of the pendant 6-oxoverdazyl groups were maintained after
ROMP. The redox properties of the polymers described led us to explore their thin-film electrical
transport properties, revealing a significant decrease in sheet resistance from 240 Ω to 26 MΩ
upon application of a potential, \( V_o = 5 \) V. Our future work in this area will include expansion of
the ROMP methods described to include other stable radical monomers and a detailed
description of the electrical transport mechanism in 6-oxoverdazyl polymers in the solid state.
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Supporting Information


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FIGURE S1 (a) Atomic Force Microscopy (AFM) image of a 20 nm thin film of polymer 13 (left side of the image) and indium-tin oxide (ITO) substrate (right side of the image). (b) Z-axis profile of the “step” at the edge of polymer 13 used to determine the thin film thickness. From the right side of the profile, root mean squared (RMS) roughness of ITO could be estimated to be about 4 nm, much less than the polymer thickness, which is about 20 nm with an RMS roughness of about 2 nm, significantly less than the RMS roughness of ITO. This suggests the polymeric film is continuous with no outstanding ITO pinholes.
FIGURE S2 ¹H NMR spectrum of tetrazane 9 in d₆-DMSO. The asterisk denotes residual CD₃SOCD₂H.

FIGURE S3 ¹³C {¹H} NMR spectrum of tetrazane 9 in d₆-DMSO. The asterisk denotes d₆-DMSO.
FIGURE S4 FT-IR spectra of tetrazane 9 (green line), 6-oxoverdazyl 10 (blue line), and monomer 12 (black line). Baselines have been offset for ease of comparison. Note the disappearance of the stretch at 3249 cm$^{-1}$ upon oxidation of tetrazane 9 to verdazyl 10, and the disappearance of the broad COOH stretch at 3434 cm$^{-1}$ after the DCC coupling reaction (10 → 12).

FIGURE S5 TGA trace for 6-oxoverdazyl polymer 13 from 25 to 800 °C.
FIGURE S6 DSC data (second heating/cooling cycle) for 6-oxoverdazyl polymer 13. The sample was heated to 180 °C followed by cooling to 0°C at a rate of 10 °C min⁻¹.

FIGURE S7 FT-IR spectra of 6-oxoverdazyl monomer 12 (red line) and polymer 13 (black line). Baselines have been offset for ease of comparison.
FIGURE S8 Simulated (top, blue line) and experimental (bottom, red line) EPR spectra of 6-oxoverdazyl monomer 12 in CH$_2$Cl$_2$. Parameters for simulation: $g = 2.0045$, line width = 0.089 mT, $a_{N1,3} = 0.529$ mT, $a_{N2,4} = 0.640$ mT, $a_{H} = 0.140$ mT.