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Mechanism-Guided Improvements to the Single Molecule Oxidation of Carbon Nanotube Sidewalls


1. Introduction

Characterization of carbon nanotube reactivity represents a key step for the implementation of advanced biomolecular electronic devices. Recently, we have demonstrated precise chemical control over sidewall functionalization using nanotube circuits as a tool to investigate and steer chemical reactivity.[1] In these experiments, a single-walled nanotube (SWNT) wired to connective electrodes and monitored for electrical conductance allows the production of individual sidewall defects. Further derivatization of these sites is possible, though with a low experimental yield, and the creation of carboxylic terminations are experimentally difficult. In principle, however, the conductance signal allows reaction progress to be monitored and even controlled, for example by indicating the appropriate time to reduce the electrochemical potential or change the chemical solution.

This paper builds upon our recent communication[1] to provide detailed, improved procedures and an investigation of the conductance dynamics taking place during modification of SWNT sidewalls. In particular, experiments with a large number of devices have identified distinct signatures required for the successful incorporation of a carboxylate defect. The observations lead to a proposed mechanism for sidewall oxidation at single-molecule levels. Given the stochastic nature of single-molecule reactions, and the difficulty of performing traditional assays like spectroscopy on such systems, conductance tracking allows more consistent syntheses and higher yields. The results illustrate the potential of molecular circuits for uncovering and directing the mechanisms of chemical reactions.

2. Results and Discussion

To optimize the production of working circuit elements that contain carboxylate groups for bioconjugation, our chemical in-
vestigations specifically target clean SWNT sidewalls using an electronic device architecture depicted in Figure 1A, and described previously.\(^{[1,16]}\) Devices consist of isolated SWNTs, either metallic or semiconducting, sparsely grown on SiO\(_2\) by chemical vapor deposition and connected to Ti photolithographic electrodes. By coating each device with a protective layer of PMMA and then using electron beam lithography to open a small (<1 \(\mu\)m) window to the SWNT sidewall, reagent exposure is effectively controlled, limiting oxidation–reduction reactions to the SWNT sidewall. Alternately, titanium electrodes with a passivating native oxide are used in an analogous manner, diminishing the requirement for a PMMA coating.\(^{[1,17]}\) An electrochemical fluid cell controls reagents in contact with the SWNT, while SWNT conductance \((G)\) is independently monitored using a 100 mV potential (Figure 1A). This approach maintains a functioning electronic device while allowing chemistry to take place on the nanotube sidewall, with previous reports proving the utility of the method.\(^{[1,16]}\) For example, the onset of sidewall derivatization is clearly observed as \(G\) decreases when electrochemical potentials are used to promote oxidation (Figure 2). Theoretical models link the decrease in conductance with sp\(^2\) to sp\(^3\) rehybridization of sidewall carbons.\(^{[16]}\) Upon electrochemical reduction, chemical functionalities can return the sp\(^3\)-hybridized carbons of the sidewall to an sp\(^2\) hybridization state. Herein we investigate the conditions that lead to irreversible drops in \(G\) from the starting conductance \((G_0)\). Reduction will not return \(G\) to \(G_0\) if carbons have been removed from the SWNT lattice (e.g. through formation of carboxylates or esters). Acidic electrochemical conditions are used for comparison to the extensive studies of graphite\(^{[19]}\) and bulk SWNT\(^{[8,20–23]}\) oxidation, where long exposures to similar oxidative conditions are typical. Yet such conditions can easily lead to overoxidation in single molecule SWNTs. Figure 1B demonstrates the stable \(G\) of the SWNT device configuration exposed to oxidizing agents (KMnO\(_4\)) and acids (H\(_2\)SO\(_4\)) at room temperature without the application of an electrochemical potential. Thus, we conclude that short exposures to these chemicals are insufficient to introduce functionalities leading to decreased conductance in pristine SWNT sidewalls.

Oxidation proceeds in a few seconds when moderate electrochemical potentials are applied using the identical solutions. Oxidation experiments reveal variable elements in the resultant conductance drops, which are characteristic of the unpredictable behavior expected from single-molecule observations. A representative sample of oxidation profiles to illustrate such variations is given in the Supporting Information Figure S1. Reproducible features from sample to sample exist, and are labeled \(a\) through \(e\) in Figure 2 and Supporting Information Figure S1. Putative mechanistic steps corresponding to each reproducible feature have analogous labels in Figure 3.

In Figure 2, the decrease in \(G\) labeled \(a\) corresponds to the “overcharging” stage observed in experiments with bulk nanotubes and graphite.\(^{[19,22]}\) A continuous, monotonic drop in \(G\) is observed, and likely corresponds to the buildup of positively charged scattering centers in intermediate 2. “Overoxidation” occurs when the doping progresses beyond a critical concentration of approximately one positive charge for every 21 carbons \((C_{21}^+)^{[19]}\), leading to sp\(^3\) rehybridization of the sidewall carbons as conjugate bases covalently add to the carbon lattice. In SWNTs, these covalent events, \(b\), cause abrupt drops in \(G\) of 10–50%. Many events are accompanied by multiple, rapid reversals, \(c\). This high-speed dynamic between intermediates 2 and 3 is consistent with a model in which the conjugate base remains in close proximity to the surface; the covalent bond to
the SWNT breaks and reforms as addition–elimination reactions compete thermodynamically.

Ultimately, a SWNT always stabilizes into a low-G, oxidized state, d, an electronic signature not carefully controlled in our earlier work. The real-time observation of equilibration before reaching d, however, indicates the diversity of adduct stabilities. Furthermore, a device at d will continue to exhibit metastability until a final, ~ 1% drop to zero conductance, e. Achieving the electronic signature observed in transitioning from d to e requires a constant oxidizing potential: lowering the potential returns the device to d. Thus, the formation of intermediate 5 is likely a physical rearrangement of adducts driven by electrostatics and aromaticity—the clustering of separated adducts in going from intermediates 4 to 5 can reduce the number of non-aromatic hexagonal rings, but simultaneously generate an electronic barrier that is physically wider and energetically deeper.

Electrochemical reduction can restore conductance to levels greater than or equal to 0.95 G0.[1,16] from any of the electronic signatures labeled a through e, provided the device is not treated with KMnO4. This restored state, which can also be obtained by heating to 450 °C in Ar, indicates the presence of reducible functionalities attached to a sp3-hybridized carbon. Conversely, groups like carboxylates resulting from breakup of the SWNT lattice result in permanent modification.[24] Reduction also leads to formation of epoxide 7, which can quickly rearrange to ether 8. Curvature of the nanotube sidewall favors this rearrangement.[18]

Figure 4 shows results from 45 single-molecule nanocircuits, and shows that only one device in 25 (4%) fails to recover after a full oxidation–reduction cycle in 1 m H2SO4. This high rate of recovery demonstrates that H2SO4 etching, both alone and in conjunction with electrochemical oxidation, is insufficient to cause permanent modification to the SWNT sidewall lattice. By comparison, chemical oxidation protocols on bulk nanotubes include longer reaction times, elevated temperatures, and sonication, all of which expedite sidewall oxidation.[6–8,14] Another 20 devices were oxidized with the addition of 6.5 mm acidic KMnO4 solution when the device achieved electronic state d or e. With application of KMnO4, the rate of permanent modification increases to four of 20 devices (20%). Treatment with KMnO4 appears to have no effect on the conductance of devices oxidized only to d, as these devices all recovered to nearly G0 (four of four). This is a surprising result given that chemical treatments of bulk nanotubes with KMnO4 result in carboxylate formation.[14] In our experiments, permanent modification required treatment with KMnO4 after reaching state e (four of 16). We conclude that the yield of permanent modifications can be driven as high as 25% in a single oxidation-reduction cycle, provided care is taken to always attain e.

Since most devices exhibit a high degree of recovery, multiple electrochemical cycles can be used. Figure 4 demonstrates that the yield of permanent modifications dramatically increases on the second oxidation cycle. Specifically, application of KMnO4 upon attaining state e results in permanent modification of eight of 17 devices previously cycled in acid. Five of the devices that recovered on reduction in spite of the application of KMnO4 at e in the first oxidation cycle were subjected to a second oxidation at e followed by KMnO4 treatment. Of these, two were permanently modified. In total, 10 of the 22 devices that were subjected to two oxidations plus KMnO4 treatment were permanently modified, for a total yield of 45%. This yield is nearly twice the best result observed with a single oxidation cycle. Functional groups introduced during the first cycle are key to promoting attack by the KMnO4, analogous to the preferential oxidation at growth defects. As with the first oxidation cycle, application of KMnO4 at state d is not effective at modi-
ifying the SWNT, even when applied on the second oxidation cycle. Thus, we identify two important aspects in the production of permanent modifications like carboxylates. First, d is a unique electronic state, distinct from e, and devices at d are much less susceptible to attack by KMnO₄—indeed independent of previous oxidation. Second, we observe that KMnO₄ attack, while still less than 100% efficient, is more effective on SWNTs with pre-existing disorder. Figure 3 combines these observations into a proposed mechanism for the production of carboxylates—the dominant product seen previously.[1] The first oxidation-reduction cycle is believed to incorporate an ether oxygen into the SWNT sidewall[5] (Figures 3A and B, intermediate 8), increasing the susceptibility of the device to subsequent oxidation. The non-planar oxygen of the ether in intermediate 8 decreases the aromatic stability of the adjacent rings, making their carbons more susceptible to sulfate addition. In turn, the resultant, non-aromatic ring has greater electron density (* in intermediate 9, Figure 3C) for attack on the electrophilic MnO₄⁻.

3. Conclusions
The reported experiments illuminate some most difficult observations in organic chemistry—formation of intermediates, transition states, and establishment of equilibria. The electronic signature throughout the process traces reaction progress, and allows observation of such intermediates, though presently limited to 10 μs resolution. Having linked carboxylate formation to a permanent decrease in G, the production of carboxylates on a SWNT can now be driven above 90% by cycling two or more times until the desired signal is observed. This procedure enables device preparation for further chemical and biological experiments.

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