



Analyte selective response in solution-deposited tetrabenzoporphyrin thin-film field-effect transistor sensors

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ABSTRACT

Organic thin film transistor (OTFT) chemical sensors rely on the specific electronic structure of the organic semiconductor (OSC) film for determining sensor stability and response to analytes. The delocalized electronic structure is influenced not only by the OSC molecular structure, but also the solid state packing and film morphology. Phthalocyanine (H₂Pc) and tetrabenzoporphyrin (H₂TBP) have similar molecular structures but different film microstructures when H₂Pc is vacuum deposited and H₂TBP is solution deposited. The difference in electronic structures is evidenced by the different mobilities of H₂TBP and H₂Pc OTFTs. H₂Pc has a maximum mobility of $8.6 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ when the substrate is held at 250 °C during deposition and a mobility of $4.8 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ when the substrate is held at 25 °C during deposition. Solution deposited H₂TBP films have a mobility of $5.3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ V}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, which is consistent with better long-range order and intermolecular coupling within the H₂TBP films compared to the H₂Pc films. Solution deposited H₂TBP also exhibits a textured film morphology with large grains and an RMS roughness 3–5 times larger than H₂Pc films with similar thicknesses. Despite these differences, OTFT sensors fabricated from H₂TBP and H₂Pc exhibit nearly identical analyte sensitivity and analyte response kinetics. The results suggest that while the interactions between molecules in the solid state determine conductivity, localized interactions between the analyte and the molecular binding site dominate analyte binding and determine sensor response.

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1. Introduction

Organic thin film transistors (OTFTs) have attracted interest as chemical sensing platforms for vapor and liquid phase detection of explosives, toxins and biochemicals [1–7]. OTFTs offer numerous advantages over inorganic oxide and polymer chemiresistors, such as tailored chemical selectivity, room temperature operation, and multiparameter response [8–12]. Several reports demonstrate novel device structures using inexpensive, robust materials providing a low cost fabrication pathway for selective, single use sensing applications [13–15]. However, the organic semiconductor layer is often deposited by vacuum evaporation in order to control film thickness and microstructure, which are key parameters governing

sensitivity and stability [16–19]. A potential advantage of organic materials is the possibility of fabricating solution processed sensors using low cost, high throughput deposition methods, such as ink-jet printing and spin-coating. However, for practical devices, the high sensitivity and mobility of vacuum deposited sensors must be retained with solution processing methods.

Porphyrins (Por) and phthalocyanines (Pcs) are a well studied group of sensor materials, characterized by their good thermal stability, high optical absorbance and functionality [20–23]. Porphyrins are structurally related to phthalocyanines, with the four –CH groups in the inner porphyrin ring replacing the four meso nitrogens of phthalocyanine. Several studies have investigated differential chemical sensing by changing the central metal atom in the Por/Pc core or by changing the peripheral substituents [24–27]. Sensing mechanism studies for metal-free phthalocyanine (H₂Pc) thin-films have correlated sensor response with a selective molecular chemisorption event, determined by the hydrogen bond basicity of the analyte [28,29]. The present work expands on the selective

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response mechanism of H₂Pc thin-film sensors by demonstrating nearly identical sensor response for H₂Pc and H₂TBP OTFTs with dramatically different film morphologies and bulk electronic structures.

The film morphology and bulk electronic structures of H₂Pc and H₂TBP films were modified using different deposition methods. H₂TBP is deposited with the use of a soluble precursor and thermally converted to form a textured polycrystalline film with large grains and large surface roughness. H₂Pc is deposited by vacuum evaporation while holding the substrate at different temperatures which allows growth of films with significantly different grain size and surface roughness. In general, for H₂Pc at higher substrate deposition temperatures (T_{sub}), there is increased ordering leading to larger grains and increased mobility [30]. Similar correlations between mobility and grain size have been noted for spin-coated H₂TBP films; however the mobilities are often higher than vacuum evaporated H₂Pc films which suggests better intermolecular coupling and long-range order within the grains [31,32]. The present study shows that solution processed H₂TBP and vacuum deposited H₂Pc OTFTs exhibit nearly identical analyte sensitivity and analyte response kinetics despite large differences in the film morphology and bulk electronic structure. The H₂TBP OTFTs have greater than 3× larger RMS roughness, greater than 3× larger grain size and greater than 100× higher mobility than room temperature vacuum deposited H₂Pc OTFTs; yet the analyte sensitivities are equal to within a factor of two for most analytes. The results suggest that sensing properties are determined by selective molecular chemisorption via hydrogen-bonding at the binding site and have little dependence on film microstructure.

2. Materials and methods

H₂TBP and H₂Pc TFT sensors were fabricated using an inverted bottom contact device geometry using a modified bilayer resist lift-off method [33,34]. Briefly, resist layers of PMGI SF8 (Microchem) and S1818 (Shipley) are employed to create an undercut resist profile so that metal deposition yields a tapered electrode geometry. Electrodes consisted of a 5 nm Ti adhesion layer followed by 45 nm of Au deposited under high vacuum on 100 nm thermally grown SiO₂/n⁺⁺Si (100) substrates (Silicon Quest). The soluble H₂TBP precursor 1,4:8,11:15,18-22,25-tetraethano-29H,31H-tetrabenzob[*b, g, l, q*]porphine (CP) was spin-coated in air from a 0.7 wt% chloroform solution and annealed at 200 °C in a N₂ purged oven. Prior to spin coating, the substrates were rinsed in acetone and isopropanol, treated with UV-ozone for 20 min, and soaked in ethanol. Synthesis of CP followed the literature procedure [35]. H₂Pc was purchased from Sigma–Aldrich and purified 3 times by multiple zone sublimation before loading into the deposition chamber. Prior to H₂Pc deposition, the substrates were sonicated in isopropanol and in deionized water. H₂Pc was thermally evaporated in ultra-high vacuum at rates of 0.9–1.0 Å s⁻¹ onto rotating substrates held at constant substrate temperature. An H₂Pc film thickness of 100 nm was chosen, which is similar to the estimated thickness of the H₂TBP film [36].

Current–voltage measurements were recorded in air in the dark, immediately following removal from a vacuum storage chamber, using an Agilent B1500 semiconductor parameter analyzer. The mobility and threshold voltage were calculated based on the equation for TFT saturation mode operation, $I_d = (WC_i/2L)\mu_{\text{FE}}(V_{\text{gs}} - V_{\text{th}})^2$ where C_i is the gate oxide capacitance μ_{FE} is the field-effect mobility, V_{th} is the threshold voltage, W is the channel width and L is the channel length. Before chemical sensing, the samples were wire bonded on a ceramic DIP and mounted on a printed circuit board. In order to minimize the effect of device aging, the devices were stored in a chemical free vacuum desiccator for one day prior to chemical sensing.

Table 1

H₂TBP and H₂Pc device properties. Calculated mobility (μ_{FE}), threshold voltage (V_{th}) and $I_{\text{on}}/I_{\text{off}}$ parameters for vacuum evaporated H₂Pc at different substrate temperatures (T_{sub}) and solution deposited H₂TBP.

T_{sub} (°C)	μ_{FE} ($\times 10^{-4}$ cm ² V ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	V_{th} (V)	$I_{\text{on}}/I_{\text{off}}$
25	0.30 ± 0.08	-4.1 ± 0.4	(2.3 ± 0.4) × 10 ³
80	1.57 ± 0.04	-3.3 ± 0.1	(6.4 ± 0.4) × 10 ³
125	5.50 ± 0.43	-4.0 ± 0.5	(2.5 ± 1.2) × 10 ⁴
200	5.76 ± 0.07	-4.9 ± 0.4	(2.0 ± 0.1) × 10 ⁴
250	8.37 ± 1.30	-5.1 ± 0.5	(4.2 ± 0.9) × 10 ⁴
Spin-coated H ₂ TBP	53.7 ± 9.9	-2.9 ± 0.4	(3.7 ± 1.5) × 10 ⁵

AFM measurements were performed with a Nanoscope IV scanning microscope in tapping mode using a Nanosensors SSS-NCHR-20 ultra-sharp Si probe. SEM measurements were performed on a field emission SEM, JSM-2007 from JEOL.

Sensing experiments were performed under zero grade air (Praxair, <2 ppm H₂O, <0.02 ppm NO_x) at 25 °C. A 2% duty cycle pulse train operated at 0.02 Hz was applied for both the gate and drain bias. Transient measurements were recorded using a National Instruments 6211-DAQ by recording the voltage drop across a 1.2 kΩ resistor. Prior to sensing measurements, the devices were operated under zero grade air using the gate pulse sequence to equilibrate the bias stress effect. Analyte vapors were introduced to an enclosed, thermally regulated chamber with electrical feedthroughs by bubbling zero grade air through the liquid analyte. The concentration of analyte introduced was controlled by mixing the saturated vapor with a separate dilution line in a manifold prior to the chamber.

Recovery analysis was performed by comparing t_{60} values, where t_{60} is defined as the time required to recover 60% of sensor response with respect to the baseline current. The t_{60} values were calculated following subtraction of residual baseline current drift. The drift was fit to a linear regression and subtracted from the raw signal to prevent drift from skewing the t_{60} values.

3. Results and discussion

To determine appropriate test parameters for sensor operation, TFTs based on H₂Pc and H₂TBP were electrically characterized. Fig. 1 shows typical current–voltage (I – V) characteristics of H₂Pc ($T_{\text{sub}} = 25$ °C) and solution processed H₂TBP TFTs, with the molecular structures of H₂Pc and H₂TBP as insets in Fig. 1b and d. The mobilities and threshold voltages range from $(3.0 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-5}$ cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ and -4.1 ± 0.4 V for H₂Pc to $(5.3 \pm 0.9) \times 10^{-3}$ cm² V⁻¹ s⁻¹ and -2.9 ± 0.4 V for H₂TBP, which is comparable to previously reported H₂Pc and H₂TBP OTFTs [30,36]. The mobilities, threshold voltages and $I_{\text{on}}/I_{\text{off}}$ ratios for H₂Pc OTFTs with different T_{sub} , and spin-coated H₂TBP OTFTs are summarized in Table 1. The non-linear behavior of the drain current at low drain voltage in Fig. 1c is consistent with significant source/drain contact resistance and could be attributed to poor step coverage of the H₂TBP at the Au/H₂TBP channel edge [37]. Vapor deposited H₂Pc devices exhibit slightly better contact resistance, as evidenced by the distinct linear region in Fig. 1a, possibly due to enhanced film coverage at the contact interface. Torsi et al. demonstrated that contact resistance cannot be neglected during chemical sensing when the device is operated at low bias conditions [38]. In this work, the devices are operated at sufficiently high drain voltage ($V_{\text{ds}} = -10$ V) and gate voltage ($V_{\text{gs}} = -8$ V) that differences in contact resistance will not affect the sensing properties.

Stable operating conditions for OTFT sensors require careful control of both electrical and environmental test parameters. Stable operation was achieved using dry synthetic air flow and a pulsed gate bias with a 2% duty cycle. The pulsed gate method has been demonstrated as an effective operating method to reduce bias

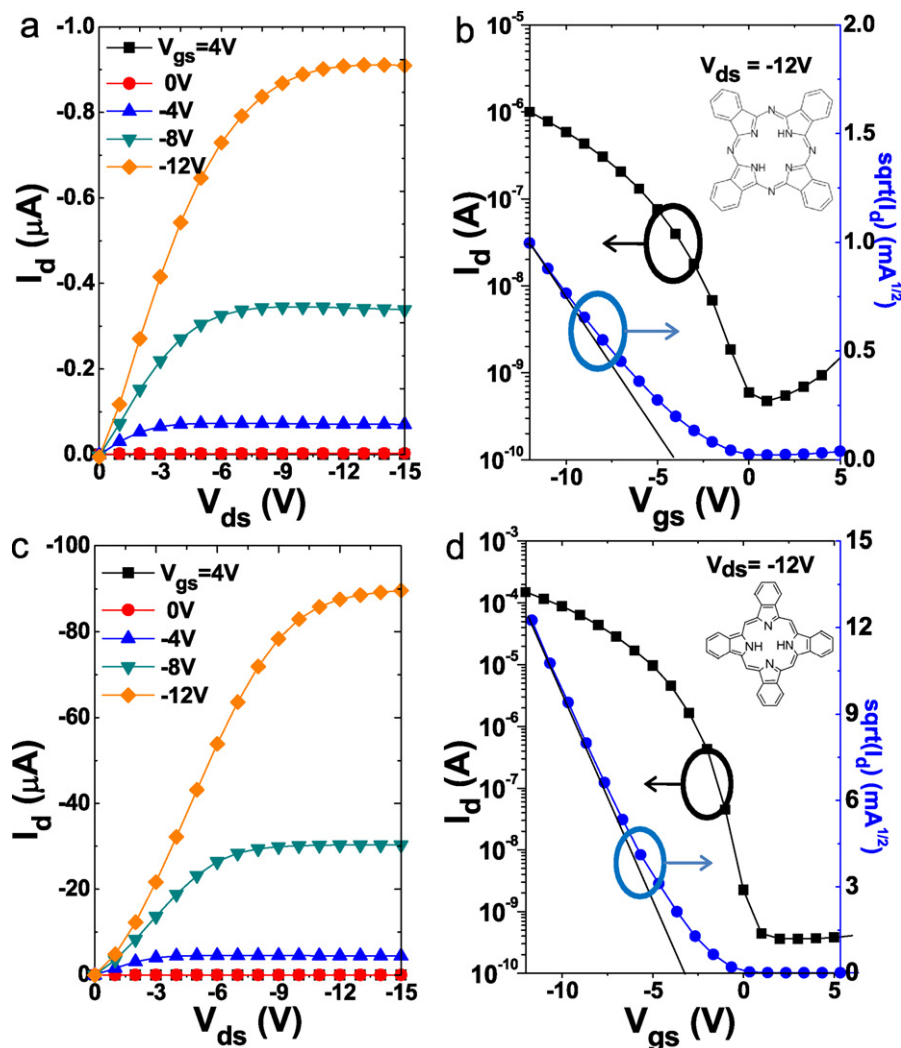


Fig. 1. H₂Pc and H₂TBP OTFT characteristics. Output characteristics of (a) 100 nm vacuum deposited H₂Pc with $T_{\text{sub}} = 25^\circ\text{C}$ and (c) solution processed H₂TBP OTFTs. Transfer characteristics of the same (b) H₂Pc and (d) H₂TBP OTFTs. The solid lines indicate fits used to extract threshold voltage and mobility. Gate oxide capacitance (C_i) = 3.45×10^{-8} F/cm², channel length (L) = 5 μm , channel width (W) = 10^5 μm for both devices, V_{gs} sweep using -1 V steps for (b) and (d).

stress effects for both polymer and small molecule OTFTs [39,40]. By reducing the gate “on” time via pulsing, it is possible to minimize bias induced shifts in threshold voltage during chemical sensing. Following stabilization, the H₂TBP and H₂Pc devices were operated with current drift as low as 0.1% per hour.

Fig. 2 shows the H₂TBP, H₂Pc ($T_{\text{sub}} = 25^\circ\text{C}$) and H₂Pc ($T_{\text{sub}} = 250^\circ\text{C}$) sensor responses to acetonitrile (Fig. 2a) and dimethyl methylphosphonate (Fig. 2b) when operated in the saturation region ($V_{\text{ds}} = -10$ V, $V_{\text{gs}} = -8$ V) using a pulsed gate bias with a 2% duty cycle. The drain currents (I_{d}) for both devices are normalized and plotted with respect to the initial currents (I_0). The stable baseline allows a well defined response ($\Delta I/I_{\text{baseline}} \times 100$), where ΔI is defined by the current change over a 20 min dose period and I_{baseline} is the drain current measured immediately before analyte doses (see Supplementary Data). Five analytes were tested to assess a range of sensor binding affinities where trimethylphosphate (TMP), isophorone (ISO) and dimethyl methylphosphonate (DMMP) are considered strong binders and acetonitrile (ACN) and methanol (MeOH) are considered weak binders [28]. Sensor response was linear with dose concentration, and drain current decreases were observed for all analytes tested. Sensor response for MeOH, TMP and ISO doses can be found in the Supplementary Data (Figs. S1–S3). The sensitivities (%ppm⁻¹) for each analyte are plotted in Fig. 2c, where sensitivity is defined by the slope

of the linear fit of the sensor responses versus analyte concentrations (Figs. S4 and S5). For H₂TBP, the sensitivity (S) was greatest for DMMP and lowest for MeOH, with a response ratio ($S_{\text{DMMP}}/S_{\text{MeOH}}$) of ~ 85 . The corresponding response ratios for H₂Pc ($T_{\text{sub}} = 250^\circ\text{C}$) and H₂Pc ($T_{\text{sub}} = 25^\circ\text{C}$) were ~ 53 and ~ 32 . For all sensors, the response ratios between DMMP and weak binding analytes exceeded 30 (Table 2). The high response ratio makes H₂TBP suitable for use in cross-reactive sensor arrays where discriminatory analysis can be used to identify analytes [29]. Although some of the response ratios differ by more than $2\times$ between the H₂Pc and H₂TBP sensors, the relative analyte sensitivities ($S_{\text{H}_2\text{TBP}}/S_{\text{H}_2\text{Pc}}$) differ by less than $2\times$ for all analytes (Tables S1 and S2). This suggests that molecular chemisorption between the analyte and the semiconductor dominates sensor response even though morphological effects may provide slightly enhanced analyte discrimination for H₂TBP.

By analyzing the transient recovery in OTFT chemical sensors, the analyte binding kinetics can be elucidated. Average t_{60} values for each sensor are presented in Table 2. The t_{60} values are normalized with respect to MeOH to illustrate the consistent relative recovery times for each sensor. The relative recovery time normalizes the t_{60} for each recovery with respect to the t_{60} for MeOH. This eliminates run-to-run variations in flow rate or temperature which could influence recovery rates. Both H₂Pc and H₂TBP sensors

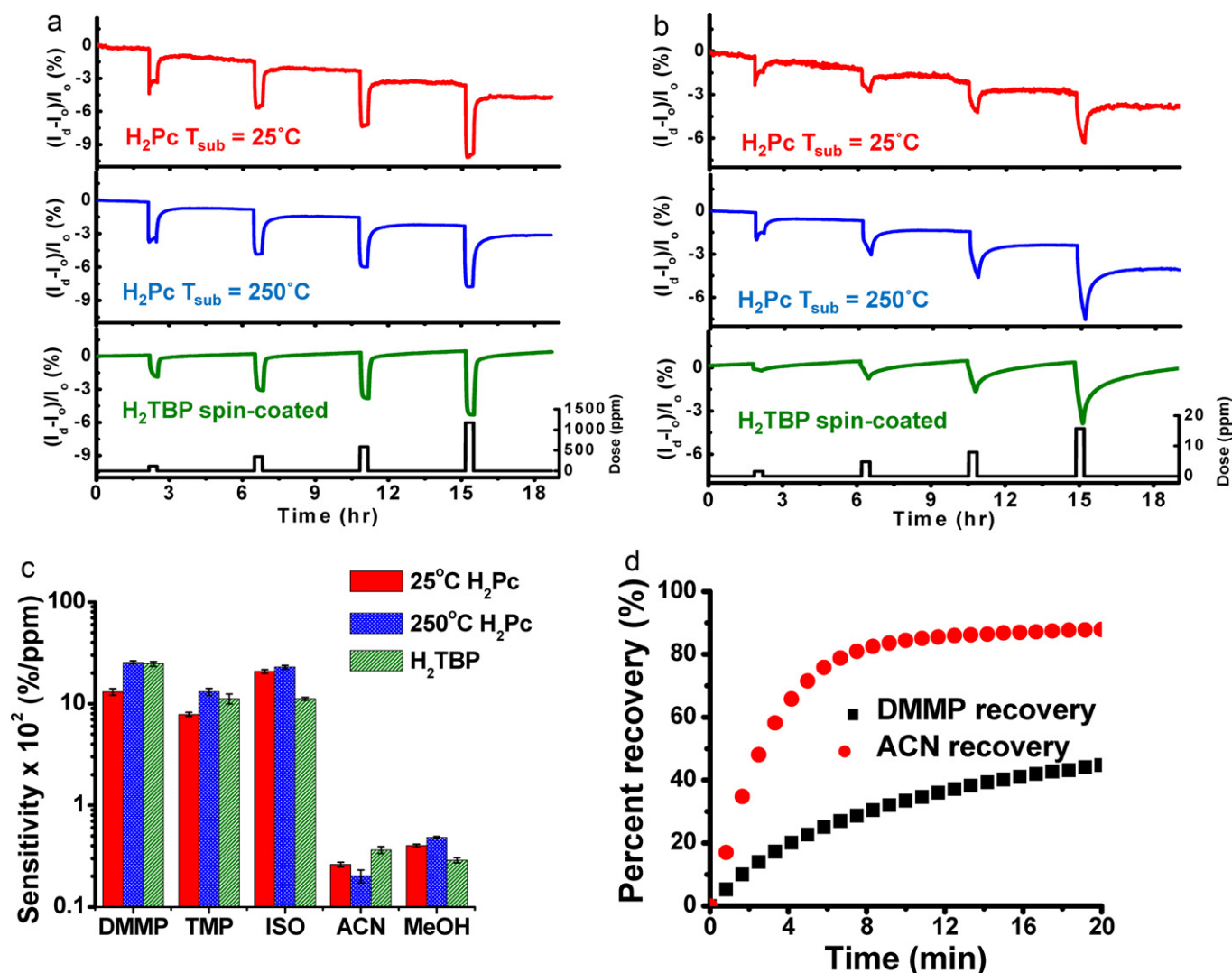


Fig. 2. H₂TBP and H₂Pc OTFT sensing. Transient response of H₂Pc ($T_{\text{sub}} = 25^\circ\text{C}$ and 250°C) and H₂TBP OTFTs to (a) acetonitrile (ACN) and (b) dimethyl methylphosphonate (DMMP). (c) Calculated sensitivities for H₂TBP, and H₂Pc OTFT sensors. Calculations are based on the slope of the linear fit of the sensor responses versus analyte concentration, averaged for three devices. (d) Recovery of H₂TBP sensors following exposure to 1174 ppm ACN and 15.8 ppm DMMP.

exhibit rapid recovery following doses of weak binding analytes such as MeOH and ACN (Fig. 2a), whereas for strong binding analytes such as TMP and DMMP there is a slower recovery (Fig. 2b). The H₂TBP sensor recovery immediately following a 15.8 ppm DMMP

Table 2

Relative recoveries and response ratios for H₂TBP and H₂Pc OTFT sensors. Normalized average t_{60} values for H₂TBP and H₂Pc OTFT sensors following exposure to 400 ppm methanol (MeOH), 587 ppm acetonitrile (ACN), 8.9 ppm isophorone (ISO), 6.2 ppm trimethylphosphate (TMP) and 7.9 ppm dimethyl methylphosphonate (DMMP). The data for each sensor are averaged for three separate devices and normalized with respect to the average t_{60} for MeOH recovery. The standard deviations for each quantity are shown in the parentheses. The response ratios (defined in text) for DMMP to MeOH and for DMMP to ACN for each sensor are listed in the bottom two rows.

	Spin-coated H ₂ TBP	H ₂ Pc ($T_{\text{sub}} = 25^\circ\text{C}$)	H ₂ Pc ($T_{\text{sub}} = 250^\circ\text{C}$)
DMMP	4.8 (0.3)	4.0 (1.1)	4.4 (0.1)
TMP	2.6 (0.1)	1.8 (0.2)	2.9 (0.3)
ISO	2.2 (0.6)	0.7 (<0.1)	0.8 (0.1)
ACN	0.3 (<0.1)	0.7 (<0.1)	0.9 (0.1)
MeOH	1.0	1.0	1.0
$S_{\text{DMMP}}/S_{\text{MeOH}}$	85	32	53
$S_{\text{DMMP}}/S_{\text{ACN}}$	68	50	126

exposure and a 1174 ppm ACN exposure is presented in Fig. 2d to illustrate the extended recovery time required for DMMP.

The results for H₂TBP and H₂Pc OTFTs are analogous to those for previously reported H₂Pc thin-film chemiresistors [28]. The analyte sensing mechanism is attributed to hydrogen-bonding at the inner N₄H₂ group. OTFT on-current decreases are observed during exposure to hydrogen bond acceptor analytes due to electron density donation from the analyte to the interior N–H protons in H₂TBP and H₂Pc. Therefore, analytes which are better hydrogen-bond acceptors such as DMMP and TMP are also stronger Lewis bases [41]. The sensitivities and relative recovery times for H₂TBP and H₂Pc OTFT sensors correlate with the analyte hydrogen-bond basicity.

The distinction in response between strong and weak binding analytes is consistent with a selective molecular chemisorption event between the analyte and semiconductor. Molecular chemisorption between the analyte and semiconductor is due to electron density transfer upon hydrogen-bonding. The magnitude of electron density transfer and binding energy (E_{bind}) distinguishes weak binding analytes as physisorbates ($E_{\text{bind}} < 0.3$ eV) and strong binding analytes as chemisorbates ($E_{\text{bind}} \sim 1$ eV) [42]. The distinction between chemisorbing and physisorbing analytes on H₂TBP and H₂Pc OTFTs is evident not only by the high sensitivities noted above, but also by the relative recovery times. Although taken

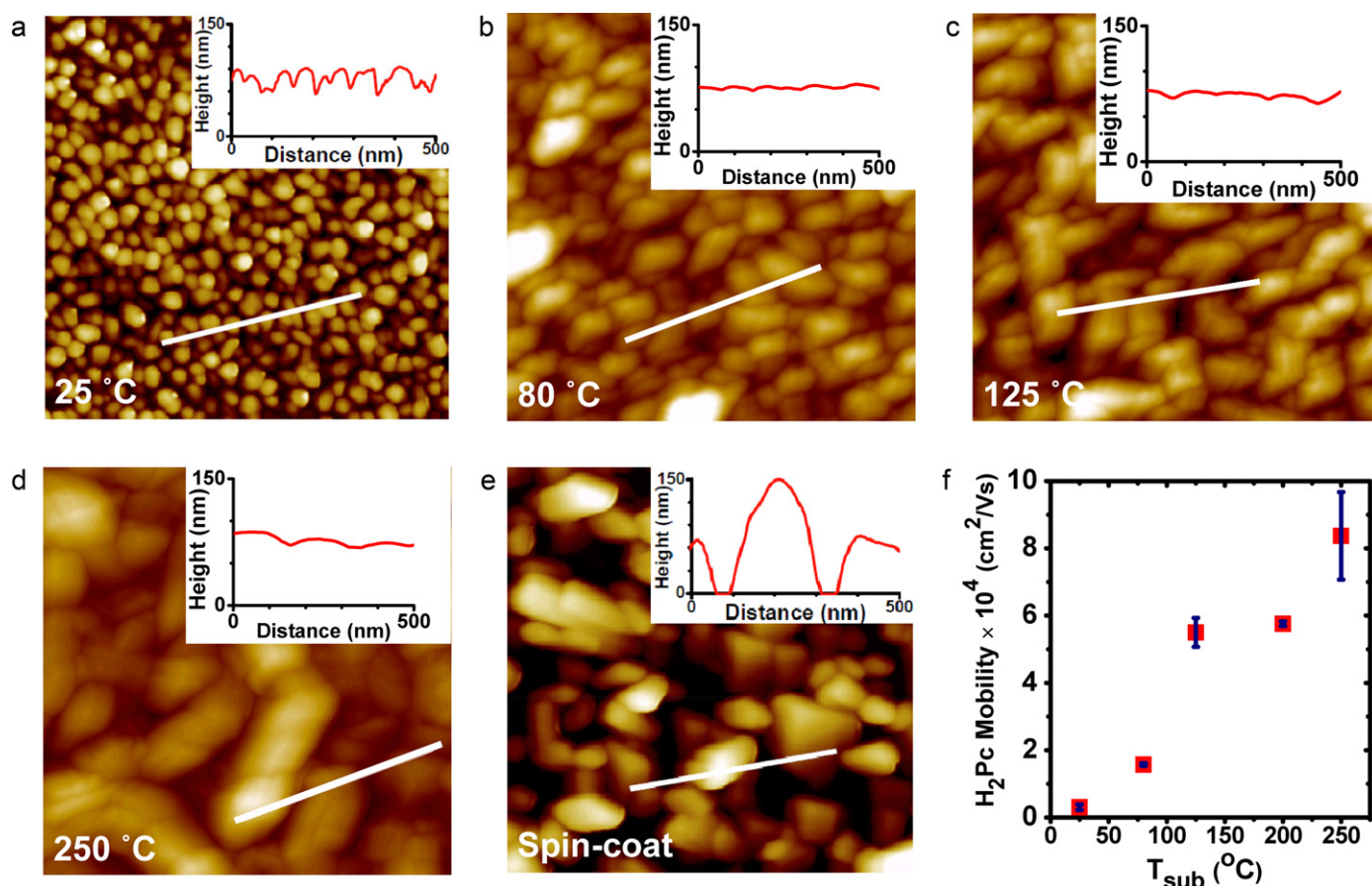


Fig. 3. H₂TBP and H₂Pc film microstructure characterization. Atomic force microscopy (AFM) images of a 1 μm × 1 μm region of 100 nm H₂Pc deposited on SiO₂ substrates held at (a) 25 °C, (b) 80 °C, (c) 125 °C, (d) 250 °C. (e) AFM image of 1 μm × 1 μm region of solution processed H₂TBP. The insets show line profiles of a 500 nm segment indicated by a white line in the image. The height scale on the line profiles is held constant to demonstrate the larger surface roughness for H₂TBP films. (f) Mobility of H₂Pc OTFTs with different substrate temperatures (T_{sub}). Some error bars are smaller than the markers.

for a small set of analytes, the data shows a significant difference between t_{60} values for strong and weak binding analytes. Strongly hydrogen-bonding analytes such as DMMP and TMP have longer recovery times and higher sensitivities; consistent with the inner N₄H₂ ring acting as the preferential binding site. This demonstrates that the different processing methods and film morphologies for H₂TBP and H₂Pc OTFTs do not significantly alter the analyte-semiconductor hydrogen-bonding characteristics that govern chemical sensing.

H₂Pc sensors show significantly shorter t_{60} for isophorone than DMMP and TMP despite having a high sensitivity to isophorone; however, anomalous recovery characteristics for isophorone in H₂Pc chemiresistors have been reported previously [29]. It has been suggested that physisorbing analytes can interact with MPc films by preferential binding or by weak van der Waals interactions with the conjugated π system of H₂TBP and H₂Pc [29]. Therefore, it is possible that the meso nitrogens present in H₂Pc, and absent in H₂TBP, contribute to sensor response and recovery. However, the fast recovery and low sensitivity for each sensor to doses of MeOH and ACN suggest that the molecular structure of the extended π system does not significantly alter sensor response.

OTFT device properties are highly dependent on fabrication methods which influence film electronic structure by affecting grain size and intermolecular coupling [43]. The different surface morphologies of 100 nm H₂Pc films with $T_{\text{sub}} = 25\text{--}250$ °C and a solution processed H₂TBP film are shown in atomic force microscopy (AFM) images presented in Fig. 3a–e. Line profiles of a 500 nm segment are shown as insets for each image. The height

scale on the line profiles is held constant to demonstrate the larger surface roughness for H₂TBP films.

Vacuum deposited H₂Pc has a film morphology which depends on substrate temperature. At $T_{\text{sub}} = 25$ °C, H₂Pc forms small, densely packed grains (Fig. 3a) with an average grain size of 34 ± 12 nm and RMS roughness of 8 nm. As T_{sub} increases, the grains become large elongated crystallites with an average long-axis length of 187 ± 87 nm and aspect ratio of ~ 3 . The large crystallite growth enhances the layer-to-layer connectivity as evidenced by a smaller RMS roughness of 5 nm. To illustrate the effect of grain size and film morphology on the H₂Pc film electronic properties, the mobility was plotted for OTFTs deposited with T_{sub} ranging from 25 °C to 250 °C (Fig. 3f). The increase in mobility with grain size is often observed for phthalocyanine OTFTs [30,44].

Following spin-coating, the bicycloporphyrin precursor forms an amorphous film with thicknesses between 100 and 200 nm. After thermal conversion to H₂TBP, large crystallites form (Fig. 3e) and create a highly textured film with average grain size of 107 ± 47 nm and root-mean-square (RMS) roughness of 28 nm. The H₂TBP OTFTs in this work have mobilities exceeding any of the H₂Pc OTFTs even though the H₂TBP films do not have the largest grain sizes. The higher mobility in H₂TBP OTFTs is consistent with enhanced intermolecular coupling and better long-range order though the H₂TBP grains.

Several reports for OTFT sensors using different molecular semiconductors note the importance of controlling grain size and surface roughness to optimize sensitivity [18,45,46]. However, the nearly identical chemical sensor response in this study suggests

that film microstructure differences do not significantly alter the H₂TBP and H₂Pc molecular interactions with analytes. The data presented are consistent with grain growth affecting the electronic delocalization and field-effect mobility of the film, but not affecting the hydrogen-bonding event that governs the relative sensor response. The data suggests that the film *intermolecular* interactions influence the mobility and are independent from the *intramolecular* interactions between the film and analyte that control chemical sensing.

4. Conclusion

In summary, OTFT sensors based on solution processed H₂TBP were found to have enhanced mobilities while yielding chemical sensing properties nearly identical to OTFT sensors based on vapor deposited H₂Pc. The mobilities of the films were strongly affected by differences in film microstructure, but this had little influence on chemical sensor behavior. This is consistent with analyte binding being chiefly a function of interactions with individual molecules of the sensor film. This study suggests the feasibility of preparing nonvolatile metal coordination complex sensor arrays with solution processed films. Consistent chemical sensor response can be obtained despite dramatic changes in field-effect mobility, which implies that relative chemical sensor response is a more robust property than field-effect mobility in OTFT sensors.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at [doi:10.1016/j.snb.2011.06.030](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.snb.2011.06.030).

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