

Copyright

by

Joseph Quan Anh Pham

2004

**The Dissertation Committee for Joseph Quan Anh Pham Certifies that this is the approved version of the following dissertation:**

**Effects of Confinement on the Glass Transition of Polymer-Based Systems**

**Committee:**

---

Peter F. Green, Supervisor

---

Keith P. Johnston

---

Donald Paul

---

Arumugam Manthiram

---

Desiderio Kovar

**Effects of Confinement on the Glass Transition of Polymer-Based  
Systems**

**by**

**Joseph Quan Anh Pham, B.S. ChE, M.S.E**

**Dissertation**

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas at Austin

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

**Doctor of Philosophy**

**The University of Texas at Austin**

**May, 2004**

## **Dedication**

To my parents, my brothers and sister for their endless love, generosity, encouragement, sacrifice, and understanding throughout my life.

## **Acknowledgements**

I would like to express my sincerest thanks to all the people who have helped me in my life and in my studies. First, I thank my parents for their endless love, generosity, and understanding throughout all these years. Their sacrifice and support have been instrumental to all that I have accomplished. I thank my brothers and sisters, anh Tam, anh/chi Phuc/Lan, anh An, Quoc and Thu for their friendship and encouragement.

I am grateful to my advisor, Professor Peter F. Green for giving me an opportunity to work in his research group and inspiring me to love research. I thank him for his invaluable insights, guidance, and patience during the course of my graduate studies. I am also grateful to my co-advisor, Professor Keith P. Johnston. I thank him for providing me with valuable insights and direction.

I would like to thank various people that have aided my research. I am indebted to several of my colleagues and the past and present members of Professor Green's group, particularly Dr. Jean-Loup Masson, Dr. Ratchana Limary, Dr. Stephen Sirard, Dr. Steve Scheer, Karl Putz, Brian Besancon, Luciana Meli, Abraham Arceo, Yuan Li, Jamie Kropka, and Dr. Xiaogang Zhang.

I thank the following professors, Desiderio Kovar, Arumugam Manthiram, Donald Paul, and Keith P. Johnston for graciously serving as members of my dissertation

committee. I thank Lydia Griffith and Eddie Ebarra for their administrative and the procurement help. I also acknowledge the University of Texas for giving me the Continuing Fellowship. I also thank all of my friends at World Relief Refugee Ministry for their help and encouragement, particularly Jonathan Bao Thang.

Finally, I also would like to thank my friends in the Don Bosco Eucharistic Youth Society at the Holy Vietnamese Martyrs Catholic Church in Austin, particularly Loan, Loc, Binh, Bien, TLam, Huu, Dung, chi Lien, Thay Minh, Thay Thong, anh/chi Thang/Tien, anh Hoa, anh Giao, Sister Anne, and Cha Van. I appreciate and thankful for their encouragement and support throughout my college years. In addition, I thank them for showing me how to love, trust, and serve God.

# Effects of Confinement on the Glass Transition of Polymer-Based Systems

Publication No. \_\_\_\_\_

Joseph Quan Anh Pham, Ph.D.

The University of Texas at Austin, 2004

Supervisor: Peter F. Green

In recent years, considerable effort has been invested toward developing polymers for applications in which they serve as the active material component for devices such as transistors, light emitting diodes, and various sensors. Many of these applications require polymer thin films. Unfortunately, many of the properties of the thin films that impact device processing and performance are not well understood. Polymer films in this thickness range exhibit properties that are very different from the bulk. Properties such as the viscosity, the glass transition temperature,  $T_g$ , and phase transitions exhibit film thickness dependencies. This thesis examines three problems generally in the area of the glass transition temperature of polymer thin films. (1) *The  $T_g$  of polymer-polymer mixtures*: We examined the  $T_g$  of thin films of the miscible blend tetramethyl Bisphenyl-A polycarbonate (TMPC)/polystyrene (PS). Our results indicate that entropic, “chain packing,” effects and enthalpic effects associated with interactions between the dissimilar chain segments and the external interfaces (free surface and substrate) determine the  $T_g$  of these mixtures. (2) *The glass transition of polymer-based nanocomposite films*: We

examined the film thickness dependencies of the glass transition temperatures of polystyrene based nanocomposite thin films containing small concentrations, 1-5 wt.%, of layered silicate clays and C<sub>60</sub> fullerenes supported by silicon substrates, *PS-LSi/Si* and *PS-C<sub>60</sub>/Si*, respectively. Our results show that at these small concentrations the nanoscale particles can change  $T_g$  appreciably, particularly in films with thicknesses less than 45 nm. Shifts in  $T_g$  of up to 20 degrees were observed, regardless of the chemistry of the nanoparticles.

(3) *Polymer (polystyrene and polymethylmethacrylate) thin films in supercritical CO<sub>2</sub>*: The effect of CO<sub>2</sub> on the glass transition plays a central role in the processing of thin films for microelectronic applications. Our most significant finding is the phenomenon of retrograde vitrification, where the polymer in a CO<sub>2</sub> environment exhibits a rubbery-to-glass transition as the temperature is decreased and surprisingly a glassy-to-rubbery transition with a further decrease in temperature. These findings have important implications on the processing of thin polymer films in CO<sub>2</sub> environments.



## Table of Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction .....	1
1.1 Motivation .....	1
1.2 Glass Transition Temperature .....	2
1.3 The Glass Transition Temperature in Polymers.....	5
1.4 The Glass Transition Temperature in Polymer Thin Films .....	5
1.5 Supercritical fluids.....	8
1.6 Liquid and Supercritical Carbon Dioxide .....	9
1.7 polymer-liquid and supercritical carbon dioxide interactions.....	12
1.8 Objectives.....	14
1.9 Appendix: spectroscopic ellipsometry .....	16
1.10 references .....	23
Chapter 2: The Glass Transition of Thin Film Polymer/Polymer Blends: Interfacial Interactions and Confinement .....	28
2.1 introduction .....	29
2.2 experimental section .....	32
2.3 results and discussion.....	33
2.4 conclusions.....	49
2.5 references .....	49
Chapter 3: The effective $T_g$ of confined polymer-polymer mixtures: Influence of molecular size.....	53
3.1 introduction .....	54

3.2 experimental section .....	57
3.3 results and discussion.....	63
3.4 conclusions.....	70
3.5 references .....	70
Chapter 4: Glass Transition of Polymer/Single-Walled Carbon Nanotube Composite Films .....	
	74
4.1 introduction .....	75
4.2 experimental section .....	78
4.3 results and discussion.....	82
4.4 conclusions.....	92
4.5 references .....	93
Chapter 5: The Glass Transition Temperature of Polymer/Layered Silicate Clays and Polymer/C <sub>60</sub> Fullerene Nanocomposite Thin Films .....	
	97
5.1 introduction .....	98
5.2 experimental section .....	101
5.3 results and discussion.....	102
5.4 conclusions.....	118
5.5 references .....	119
Chapter 6: Pressure, Temperature and Thickness Dependence of CO <sub>2</sub> -Induced Devitrification of Polymer Films .....	
	123
6.1 introduction .....	124
6.2 experimental section .....	126
6.3 results and discussion.....	128

6.4 conclusions .....	136
6.5 references .....	136
Chapter 7: Retrograde Vitrification in CO <sub>2</sub> /Polystyrene Thin Films.....	139
7.1 introduction .....	140
7.2 experimental section .....	142
7.3 results and discussion.....	148
7.4 conclusions.....	157
7.5 references .....	159
Chapter 8: Conclusions and Recommendations for Future Work .....	163
Bibliography .....	169
Vita.....	179

## List of Figures

- Figure 1-1: Schematic of volume-temperature relationship for a glass-forming liquid.  $T_m$  is the melting temperature;  $T_{g1}$  and  $T_{g2}$  are the glass transition temperatures of the rapidly cooled and slowly cooled liquids, respectively. 4
- Figure 1-2: The glass transition temperature of PS versus film thickness. .... 7
- Figure 1-3: Typical temperature-pressure phase diagram of a compound – Reproduced by permission of The Royal Society of Chemistry [29]..... 10
- Figure 1-4: Density of CO<sub>2</sub> as a function of temperature and pressure [28]..... 11
- Figure 1-5: Schematic of reflection of polarized light from a planar surface where p is in the plane of reflection and s is perpendicular to this plane..... 18
- Figure 1-6: Schematic of reflection and transmission of the incident light from a planar single interface.  $N_0$  and  $N_1$  are the index of refraction of medium 0 and 1.  $\phi_0$  and  $\phi_1$  are incident angle from vertical and refracted angle from vertical, respectively. .... 21
- Figure 1-7: Schematic of reflections and transmissions of the incident light from a planar with multiple interfaces..... 22
- Figure 2-1a: Typical temperature versus film thickness data for films of two different thicknesses for a 50/50 weight percent blend of TMPC and PS are shown here. The glass transition is identified as the temperature at which the two lines drawn through the data intersect..... 34
- Figure 2-1b: Typical temperature versus film thickness data for films of two different thicknesses for a 50/50 weight percent blend of TMPC and PS are shown here. The glass transition is identified as the temperature at which the two lines drawn through the data intersect..... 35
- Figure 2-2: The glass transition temperatures, as determined from the break in the film thickness versus temperature data, versus film thickness are plotted for TMPC films of varying thickness. The solid line drawn through the data was computed using equation 2.1 (Kim at al.) whereas the broken line was computed using equation 2.2 (Long and Lequeux)..... 36

Figure 2-3:	The glass transition temperatures versus film thickness are plotted for two compositions, 50 wt % (triangles) and 70 wt % (squares) TMPC). The solid lines were computed using equation 2.3; the broken line (----) was computed using equation 2.4 and the dotted line (.....) was computed using equation 2.5. The fitting parameters are identified in the text.....	41
Figure 2-4:	Glass transition temperature of the TMPC/PS blend is plotted as a function of weight fraction of TMPC. The filed squares represent our data, the data for the thin film mixtures whereas the other symbols represent the bulk data, determined by other authors. ....	45
Figure 3-1a:	Typical temperature versus film thickness data for films of two different thicknesses for a 50/50 wt% blend of TMPC and PS are shown here. The glass transition is identified as the temperature at which the two lines drawn through the data intersect.....	59
Figure 3-1b:	Typical temperature versus film thickness data for films of two different thicknesses for a 50/50 wt% blend of TMPC and PS are shown here. The glass transition is identified as the temperature at which the two lines drawn through the data intersect.....	60
Figure 3-2:	The glass transition temperatures are plotted as a function of film thickness for 50/50 weight percent mixtures of TMPC/PS4k, TMPC/PS49k, TMPC/PS290k, and TMPC/PS900k. The solid lines were computed using equation 3.1; the broken lines (----) were calculated using equation 3.2. ...	62
Figure 3-3:	The glass transition temperatures, normalized by bulk glass transition temperature, $T_g(\infty)$ , are plotted as a function of $h$ for different PS molecular weights.....	65
Figure 3-4:	The film thickness dependencies of $T_g$ for the TMPC-PS(4 kg/mol) mixtures are plotted here at different compositions, $\Delta T_g < 0$ for all mixtures containing more than 10 wt.% PS.....	69
Figure 4-1:	Plots of bulk DSC measurements conducted at heating rates of 5, 10 and 20 °C/min.....	79

Figure 4-2: The $T_g$ 's estimated by the mid-point of the jump in heat capacity for the three heating rates were linearly extrapolated to zero heating rates. The error bars are smaller than the symbol when they are not indicated. ....	81
Figure 4-3a: $h$ plotted as a function of temperature for a PS film. The glass transition is identified at the intersection of the two lines. ....	83
Figure 4-3b: $h$ plotted as a function of temperature for PS-SWNT (functionalized 0.75%) film. The glass transition is identified at the intersection of the two lines. ....	84
Figure 4-4: $h$ dependence of $T_g$ for different thin films: PS, PS-SWNT(functionalized) and PS-SWNT(unfunctionalized) .....	86
Figure 5-1a: Typical film thickness versus temperature for PS590k/5wt% layered silicate clay film thicknesses. The glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ) is identified as the temperature at which the two straight lines intersect. ....	103
Figure 5-1b: Typical film thickness versus temperature for PS590k/5wt% layered silicate clay film thicknesses. The glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ) is identified as the temperature at which the two straight lines intersect. ....	104
Figure 5-2a: Film thickness dependence of $T_g$ for thin films PS590k/ $C_{60}$ nanocomposites .....	105
Figure 5-2b: Film thickness dependence of $T_g$ for PS590k/layered silicate clay nanocomposites thin films .....	106
Figure 5-3a: The glass transition temperatures versus film thickness are plotted for PS590k/1wt% $C_{60}$ . The solid lines were computed using equation 5.1; the broken lines were computed using equation 5.2; the dashed lines were computed using equation 5.3. ....	109
Figure 5-3b: The glass transition temperatures versus film thickness are plotted for PS590k/1wt% layered silicate clay. The solid lines were computed using equation 5.1; the broken lines were computed using equation 5.2; the dashed lines were computed using equation 5.3. ....	110
Figure 5-4a: The glass transition temperatures versus film thickness are plotted for PS590k/5wt% $C_{60}$ . The solid lines were calculated using equation 5.5. .	114

Figure 5-4b: The glass transition temperatures versus film thickness are plotted for S590k/5wt% layered silicate clay. The solid lines were calculated using equation 5.5..... 115

Figure 6-1a: Typical ellipsometric angle ( $\gamma$ ) versus CO<sub>2</sub> pressure plots are shown here for PMMA film thicknesses of 26 nm at 75°C. The CO<sub>2</sub> induced glass transition, P<sub>g</sub>, is identified as the pressure at which the curvature of the desorption isotherm changes..... 130

Figure 6-1b: Typical ellipsometric angle ( $\gamma$ ) versus CO<sub>2</sub> pressure plots are shown here for PMMA film thicknesses of 50 nm at 75°C. The CO<sub>2</sub> induced glass transition, P<sub>g</sub>, is identified as the pressure at which the curvature of the desorption isotherm changes..... 131

Figure 6-2: P<sub>g</sub> is shown here as a function of h at 35°C and 75°C. .... 132

Figure 6-3: Temperature versus pressure plots are shown here for bulk PMMA (from ref. 27) and for films of h ~15 nm and h ~ 80 nm..... 135

Figure 7-1a: Typical ellipsometric angle ( $\gamma$ ) versus CO<sub>2</sub> pressure desorption isotherm of PS (Mw = 590k) film at 18 nm. Two straight lines were used to identify the point where the curvatures changed. The glass transition pressure (P<sub>g</sub>) is identified as the pressure at which the change in the curvature occurs in the desorption isotherm. .... 145

Figure 7-1b: Typical ellipsometric angle ( $\gamma$ ) versus CO<sub>2</sub> pressure desorption isotherm of PS (Mw = 590k) film at 53 nm. Two straight lines were used to identify the point where the curvatures changed. The glass transition pressure (P<sub>g</sub>) is identified as the pressure at which the change in the curvature occurs in the desorption isotherm. .... 146

Figure 7-1c: Typical ellipsometric angle ( $\gamma$ ) versus CO<sub>2</sub> pressure desorption isotherm of PS (Mw = 590k) film at 150 nm. Two straight lines were used to identify the point where the curvatures changed. The glass transition pressure (P<sub>g</sub>) is identified as the pressure at which the change in the curvature occurs in the desorption isotherm. .... 147

Figure 7-2: $T_g$ versus film thickness dependence is shown here for PS ( $M_w = 590k$ ) films. ....	149
Figure 7-3: The devitrification pressure ( $P_g$ ) versus $h$ isotherms are shown here for PS ( $M_w = 590k$ ) films at: 25°C, 35°C, 50°C and 75°C. ....	152
Figure 7-4: $T_g$ versus $P_g$ for PS films with thickness $h \sim 90$ nm and with $h \sim 17$ nm are shown here. The data for bulk PS, shown in the figure as well, were extracted from references 2 and 4. ....	156
Figure 7-5: Shown here is the $(T_{g,ambient} - T_{g,CO_2})$ versus $CO_2$ activity for PS film with $h \sim 90$ nm and with $h \sim 17$ nm. The bulk PS shown here were extracted from references 2 and 4.....	158



# Chapter 1: Introduction

## 1.1 MOTIVATION

Polymers play an important role in many aspects of our daily lives, with applications ranging from packaging of food to automobile parts. In recent years, considerable effort has been invested in developing polymers for new applications such as sensors and electronic device applications [1-6]. Polymer thin films are attractive materials for patterning applications associated with building microelectronic circuits. They are also used as materials in low dielectric constant interlayers in electronic devices [1-3]. Polymer thin films have also been used as liquid crystal display (LCD) and as antireflective coating [1,4].

Many of these applications require polymer thin films in the thickness range of nanometers or tens of nanometers. The fabrication and performance of these technologies is critically dependent on the wetting, structural stability, viscosity, glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ), mechanical, optical and electrical properties of the polymer. Unfortunately, many properties of polymer thin films are still not well understood. Polymer thin films in this thickness range exhibit properties that are very different from the bulk. Properties such as viscosity, diffusion, glass transition temperature, phase transition in mixtures and crystallization have been shown to depend on film thickness [6,13-18].

The glass transition temperature,  $T_g$ , of polymer thin films continues to be an active area of research. Simulations and experiments reveal that in polymers  $T_g$  may

increase or decrease with decreasing film thickness for films with thicknesses below 45 nm. These issues are not well understood. The research in this dissertation examines three problems in the area of the glass transition temperature of polymer thin films: (1) the glass transition temperature of thin film mixtures of compatible polymers; (2) the glass transition temperature of thin polymer based nanocomposites, where a polymer serves as the host for small concentrations of nano-scaled entities (carbon nanotubes, C<sub>60</sub> fullerenes, layered silicate clays), and (3) polymer thin films in supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> environments.

The following sections in this chapter are intended to provide a background and context for the three problems examined in this thesis.

## **1.2 GLASS TRANSITION TEMPERATURE**

Many liquids, if cooled at a sufficiently rapid rate, will solidify to form a solid in which the arrangement of its constituents (atom or molecules) lacks long-range order, a glass [19-25]. The temperature at which this occurs is the glass transition temperature. The glass transition temperature is accompanied by a gradual transition of the temperature dependence of the specific volume of the liquid from a larger to smaller temperature dependence in the solid state, as illustrated in Figure 1.1. Large changes in the thermal expansion and the heat capacity accompany the glass transition. The melting point, T<sub>m</sub>, is also identified in Figure 1.1 and would generally occur if the material is cooled at a sufficiently slow rate to allow the molecules sufficient time to arrange into a structure that possesses long-range order. Melting is a first order phase transition,

accompanied by a discontinuity in the specific volume-temperature relation, as shown in the figure. One further difference between  $T_m$  and  $T_g$  is that  $T_g$  depends on the rate of cooling. In systems that form glasses, slightly larger values of  $T_g$  are exhibited by systems that are cooled at a slower rate. With this in mind, it should be noted that some liquids, by virtue of their structure, would always form glassy structures upon solidification. Amorphous polymers are excellent examples because their structural units (monomers) prohibit the formation of solids that possess long-range order.

The viscosity of glass-forming liquids increases rapidly with decreasing temperature and is often described in terms of the Vogel-Fulcher relation [20-23]

$$\ln t \propto \ln \eta \propto \frac{A}{(T - T_\infty)} \quad (1.1)$$

In this equation,  $\eta$  is the viscosity; A, B and  $T_0$  are constants. Equivalently, the temperature dependence is also described using the Williams-Landel-Ferry equation,

$$\log \frac{\eta(T)}{\eta(T_g)} = \frac{-c_1^g (T - T_g)}{c_2^g + (T - T_g)} \quad (1.2)$$

where  $c_1^g$  and  $c_2^g$  are constants that are associated with the polymer. The most popular method used to measure the glass transition temperature of bulk polymers is differential scanning calorimetry.

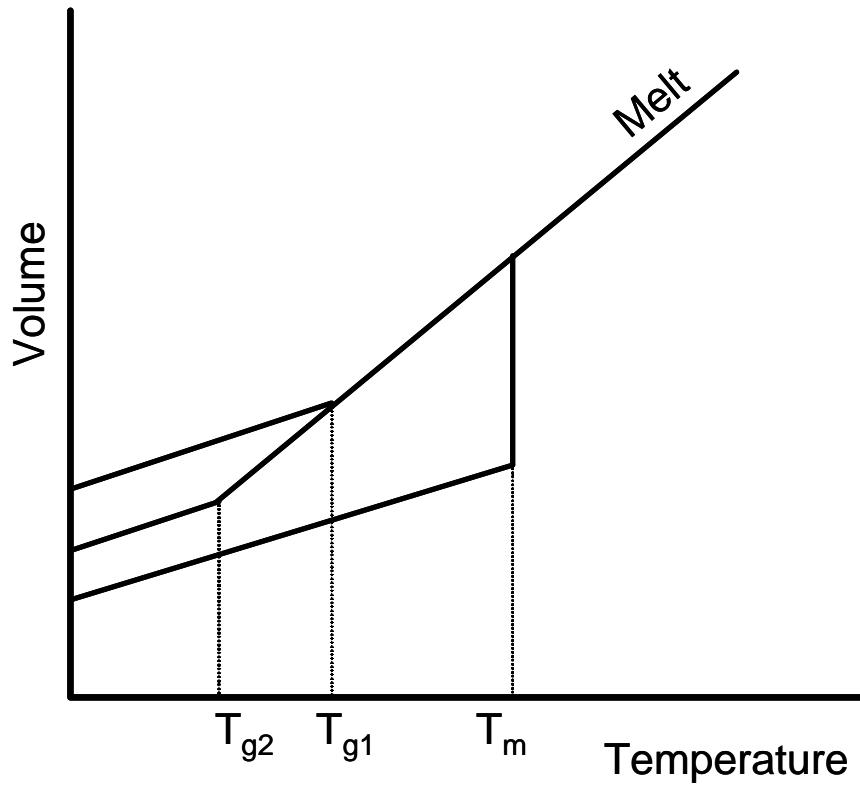


Figure 1-1: Schematic of volume-temperature relationship for a glass-forming liquid.  $T_m$  is the melting temperature;  $T_{g1}$  and  $T_{g2}$  are the glass transition temperatures of the rapidly cooled and slowly cooled liquids, respectively.

### **1.3 THE GLASS TRANSITION TEMPERATURE IN POLYMERS**

The  $T_g$  of polymer is influenced by several factors that include chain stiffness, ease of rotation of bonds, interactions between molecules and chain length. In this regard, at least in bulk polymers  $T_g$  reflects specifics of the structure of the polymer. Recently, it has been shown that  $T_g$  depends on the thickness of the film. As the thickness of the film is reduced to length scales comparable to the radius of gyration of the chain, the  $T_g$  of the polymer may increase or decrease, depending on the nature of its interactions with its environments (free surface or substrate) [7-12, 26, 27]. Therefore, the glass transition of a polymer thin film is not intrinsically associated with the polymer but reflects its interactions with its environment. The following section provides a review of thickness influence on  $T_g$  in polymer thin films.

### **1.4 THE GLASS TRANSITION TEMPERATURE IN POLYMER THIN FILMS**

Many research groups have utilized different techniques including ellipsometry, x-ray reflectivity, dielectric spectroscopy, and positron annihilation lifetime spectroscopy to investigate the effective  $T_g$  of the polymer thin films. These investigations show that the  $T_g$  of polymer thin films exhibit thickness dependence when the film is sufficiently thin, typically less than 45 nm [7-9,11,12,26,27]. The  $T_g$ s of polystyrene (PS) and poly( $\alpha$ -methylstyrene) films supported by  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates and the  $T_g$ s of poly(methylmethacrylate) (PMMA) on gold decrease with decreasing film thickness for films thinner than approximately 45 nm [7-9]. These depressions can be significant. For example, the  $T_g$  of  $h=10$  nm thick PS films supported by  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates is

approximately 20°C lower than the bulk value as shown in Figure 1-2. In the examples just mentioned above the polymer chains have a weak interaction (typically ~van der Waals) with the supporting substrates.

In contrast, investigations of the  $T_g$  of polymer thin films where the polymer molecules have strong interactions with the substrates (i.e. hydrogen bonds) indicate that  $T_g$  increases with decreasing film thickness. Studies of PMMA and poly(vinyl pyridine) PVP supported by  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates indicate that the  $T_g$  increases with decreasing film thickness when the film is thinner than ~50 nm. The  $T_g$ s of freely standing films have also been examined. Forrest et al. showed that  $T_g$  of freely standing film PS decreased by approximately 2 times more than the same PS film on  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates [12].

The issue is further complicated by the fact that the tacticity of the polymer also has a significant effect on the  $T_g$  film and in some cases the effect may be comparable to the effect of the substrate as shown by Grohen et al. [10]. They observed that while the  $T_g$  of isotactic PMMA on  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  increased with decreasing film thickness, the  $T_g$  of syndiotactic PMMA on similar substrate showed an opposite trend.

Molecular simulations by Torres et al. and Jain et al. reported similar trends with the above experimental observations of freely standing polymer thin films as well as polymer thin films on weakly interacting and strongly interacting substrates [8,13]. These results indicate that interactions between chain segments and the free surface and the substrate dictate the  $T_g$  of polymer thin films.

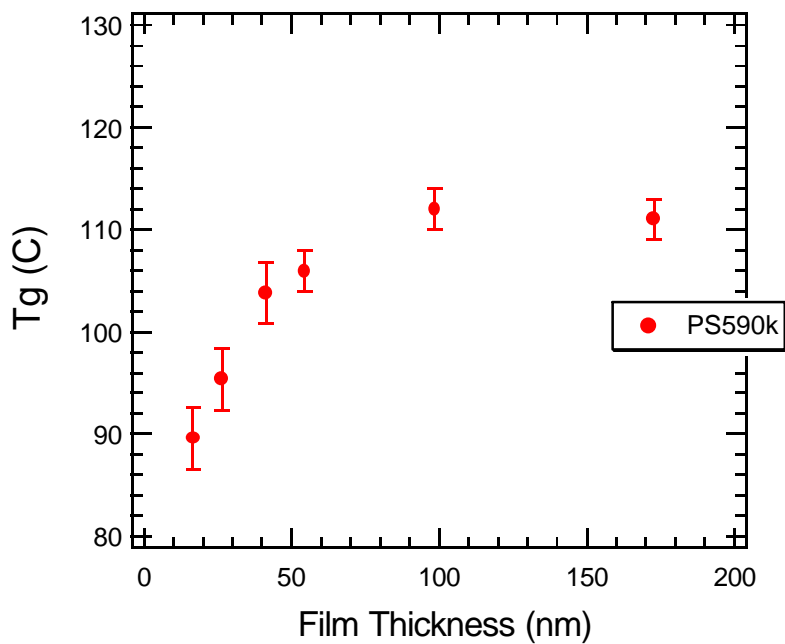


Figure 1-2: The glass transition temperature of PS versus film thickness.

While much is understood about the  $T_g$  of homopolymer thin films, very little is known about the  $T_g$  of polymer-polymer miscible blend thin films. In addition, miscible thin film blends are ideal for examining the effects of both free surface and substrate on  $T_g$  of polymer thin film. In miscible blend thin films, except in the case of a neutral interface, components of the blend preferentially interact with the interfaces, leading to preferential segregation. If the surface energies of the two components differ, then the lower the surface energy component will preferentially enrich the free surface. In chapter 2 and chapter 3 of this thesis, the  $T_g$  of miscible blend thin films on  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates are discussed in detail.

## **1.5 SUPERCRITICAL FLUIDS**

The supercritical state of a substance is defined by the temperature,  $T$ , and pressure,  $P$ , range above the critical  $T_c$  and  $P_c$  of the substance. In this state, there is no distinction between the liquid and vapor phase. Once in the supercritical state, if the pressure is increased, only the density of the fluid increases and no vapor to liquid transition occurs; hence, the density of the fluid can be tuned drastically by small changes in the temperature or pressure. In addition, supercritical fluids possess densities comparable to organic solvents while maintaining gas-like transport properties. Figure 1-3 shows a typical temperature-pressure phase diagram for a compound [28].



## 1.6 LIQUID AND SUPERCRITICAL CARBON DIOXIDE

Liquid and supercritical carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) have been shown to be attractive alternatives to organic solvents in many polymer processes such as foaming, impregnation, separations, coating and synthesis as well as in the formation, development, cleaning, and drying of photoresist films [28-36]. CO<sub>2</sub> is an attractive option because it is non-toxic, non-flammable, in-expensive and leaves essentially no solvent residue due to its high volatility. In addition, the critical conditions of CO<sub>2</sub> can easily be accessible ( $T_c = 31^\circ\text{C}$  and  $P_c = 73.8$  bar). Moreover, the solvent strength of CO<sub>2</sub> can be tuned markedly with pressure and temperature. Figure 1-4 displays the CO<sub>2</sub> density as a function of temperature and pressure [29]. Because of its low surface tension, gas-like transport properties, and density comparable to that of organic solvents, supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> has been successfully used to dry aqueous based photoresist films without collapsing the high-aspect ratio features [34,36,37]. In addition, supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> with small amounts of surfactant and water has been successfully used to remove residues from patterned low k dielectric porous methylsilsesquioxane (MSQ) without damaging the features [38]. Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> with hydrocarbon surfactants has also been used to dry water from small, high aspect ratio photoresist patterns without collapsing the features [39]. In consumer products, supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> has been used extensively in pharmaceutical, nutraceutical and food processing. For example, supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> was used to produce drug nanoparticles for drug delivery systems and to extraction of caffeine from coffee and tea [40].

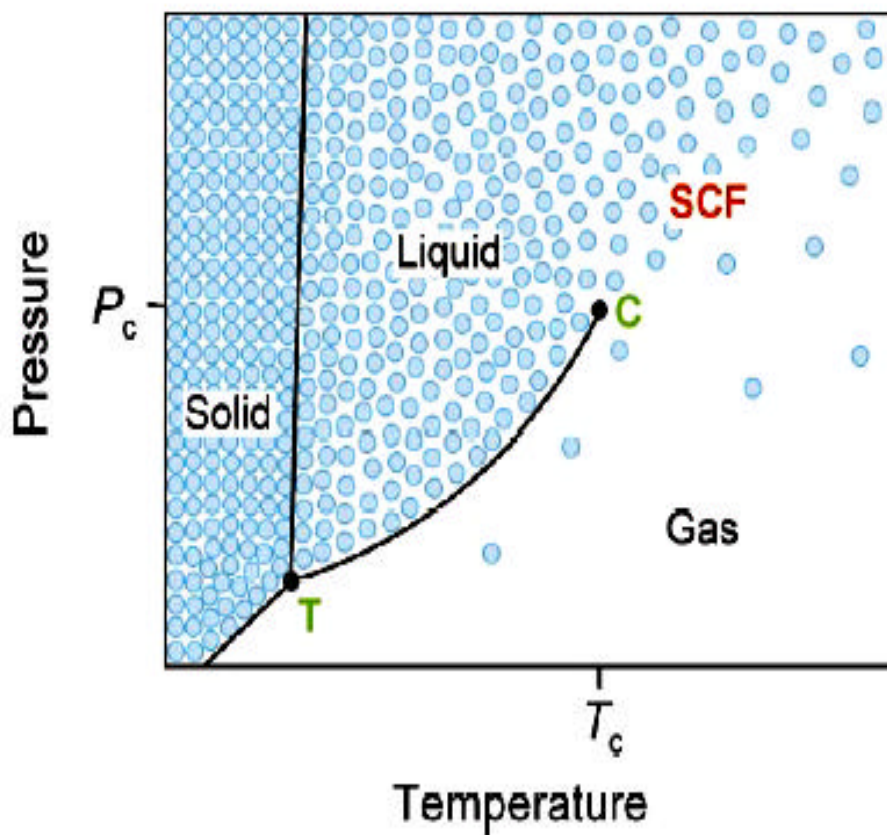


Figure 1-3: Typical temperature-pressure phase diagram of a compound – Reproduced by permission of The Royal Society of Chemistry [29]

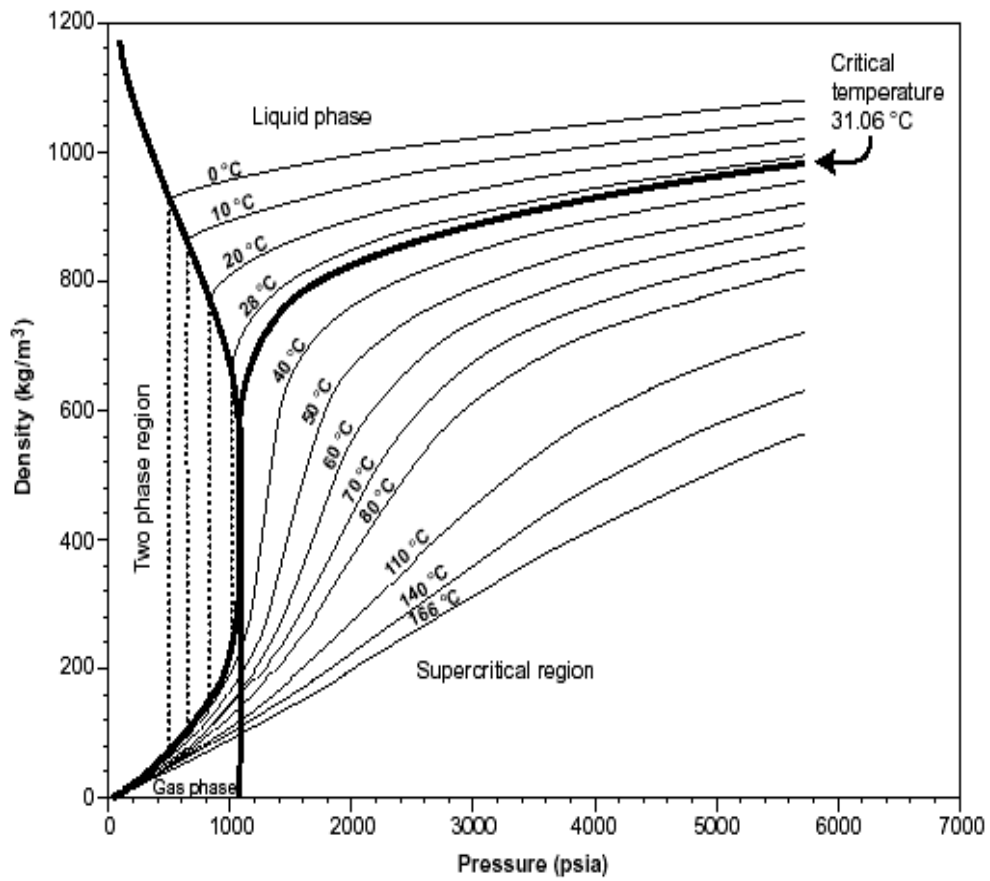


Figure 1-4: Density of CO<sub>2</sub> as a function of temperature and pressure [28]

Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> has also been utilized to produce nanoparticles as well as to deposit various metal layers, such as Pt, Pd, Au, and Rh on inorganic and polymer substrates [41,42].

### **1.7 POLYMER-LIQUID AND SUPERCRITICAL CARBON DIOXIDE INTERACTIONS**

The solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in the polymer is influenced by temperature, pressure, and polymer-CO<sub>2</sub> interactions [33,43]. For example, at the same pressure and temperature, CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in PMMA is approximately twice as much as that of PS [43]. This is due to the stronger interaction between CO<sub>2</sub> and carbonyl groups of PMMA comparing to a weaker interaction between CO<sub>2</sub> and phenyl groups of PS. Sorption of CO<sub>2</sub> into polymers can cause significant swelling and drastically lower the T<sub>g</sub> of the polymers (plasticization).

The swelling and plasticization of polymer by compressed CO<sub>2</sub> reduces the viscosity and increases the diffusion coefficient of chains. The self-diffusion coefficient of polymer chains in CO<sub>2</sub> swollen polymer samples has been shown to increase several orders of magnitude over that of the same polymer in air/vacuum environments [44]. The increase of the diffusion coefficient was attributed to the increase of configurational freedom of chains in the swollen polymer sample. Supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> is also known to reduce the crystallization temperature and melting temperature of polymers [45,46]. The experimental results of Meli et al. indicated that the dewetting dynamics of polymer thin films is greatly suppressed in compressed CO<sub>2</sub> environment compared to that in air [47]. In addition, experimental results by Watkins et al. showed that the sorption of CO<sub>2</sub>

lowered the LCST of polymer blends by as much as 100°C [48]. Vogt et al. demonstrated that the order-disorder transition temperature and kinetics of ordering of diblock copolymers can also be manipulated by changing the sorption of CO<sub>2</sub> into the polymer [49].

In bulk polymer samples, previous studies have found peculiar CO<sub>2</sub>-induced devitrification (plasticization). Condo et al. discovered that PMMA and PEMA undergo retrograde vitrification whereby upon decreasing temperature isobarically, the polymers exhibit a rubbery-to-glassy (vitrification) transition at high temperatures, and at lower temperatures exhibit a glassy-to-rubbery, devitrification, transition [50,51]. The CO<sub>2</sub> pressure where the devitrification of the polymer occurs is usually referred to as plasticization pressure ( $P_g$ ). At constant pressure, devitrification is associated with the increasing solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> with decreasing temperature in the polymer. CO<sub>2</sub>-induced plasticization is also different from one polymer system to another. For example, in PS/CO<sub>2</sub> system, only the vitrification transition occurs when decreasing temperature isobarically, and no devitrification happens at lower temperature [50-54]. On the other hand, the CO<sub>2</sub>-induced plasticization of PMMA-co-PS exhibited the intermediate behaviors of PMMA and PS. Therefore, the complex plasticization phenomena observed in different polymer systems are due to the complex effects of temperature and pressure on the solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in the polymers.

In polymer thin films, the sorption, swelling and CO<sub>2</sub>-induced devitrification of  $T_g$  are not only influenced by temperature, pressure and polymer-CO<sub>2</sub> interactions but also by the excess adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> onto the external interfaces (substrate and free surface). Experimental results by Sirard et al. and Koga et al. showed that in the presence

of high pressure CO<sub>2</sub>, PMMA and PS thin films exhibited anomalous swelling in the region where CO<sub>2</sub> is most compressible, and this phenomenon was not observed in bulk samples [55-57]. In addition, experimental results of Sirard et al. have shown that swelling and CO<sub>2</sub> sorption into poly(dimethylsiloxane) (PDMS) thin film are higher than that of the bulk value [55]. The excess swelling was attributed to the adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> at the free surface and the substrate.

Since the sorption of CO<sub>2</sub> into polymer thin films is different from the bulk, it is expected that CO<sub>2</sub>-induced plasticization of polymer thin film is also different from that of the bulk. Chapter 6 and chapter 7 in this dissertation will address the CO<sub>2</sub>-induced glass transition temperature in PMMA and PS thin films.

## **1.8 OBJECTIVES**

In chapter 2 and chapter 3, the effects of confinement and interfacial interactions on the glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ) of thin film mixtures are investigated using spectroscopic ellipsometry. It is well known that PS/TMPC mixtures are miscible in the bulk and exhibit a lower critical solution temperature (LCST). On SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si substrates, due to surface energies different and polymer-substrate interaction, PS preferentially segregates to the free surface and TMPC enriches to the substrate. Since the  $T_g$  difference between TMPC and PS is approximately 100°C, this blend system allows one to control the effects ( $T_g$ , mobility) in the vicinity of the substrate and free surface. In addition, depending on the interactions between mixture components, the  $T_g$  variation with composition of the mixtures could exhibit positive or negative deviations from linear additivity. The objectives of this chapter are to: (1) examine the  $T_g$  dependence on film

thickness of pure TMPC thin films on SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si substrate, (2) investigate the effects of film thickness, composition and molecular weight on the T<sub>g</sub> of PS/TMPC thin film mixtures on SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si substrates, (3) study the dependence of T<sub>g</sub> on composition for thin film mixtures, (4) compare the film thickness dependence of T<sub>g</sub> with theory.

In chapter 4 and chapter 5, the influence of confinement and polymer-surface interactions on the mobility of chains and T<sub>g</sub> are investigated by exploring the T<sub>g</sub> of polymer-inorganic nanocomposite thin films using spectroscopic ellipsometry and differential scanning calorimetry (DSC). The confinement effects and interfacial interactions of polymer-inorganic nanocomposite thin films are expected to exaggerate due to large surface area to volume ratio possessed by the nanoparticles. The objectives in this study are to: (1) investigate T<sub>g</sub> dependence on film thickness of pure PS thin films, (2) measure the glass transitions of composites of PS/single walled carbon nanotubes (SWNT) and PS/functionalized SWNT both in the bulk and in thin films, (3) examine the film thickness dependence on T<sub>g</sub> of PS/C<sub>60</sub> fullerene and PS/layered silicate clay nanocomposite thin films.

In chapter 6 and chapter 7, in-situ spectroscopic ellipsometry is utilized to study the pressure, temperature, and film thickness dependence of CO<sub>2</sub>-induced devitrification (plasticization) of polymer thin films. In the presence of high pressure CO<sub>2</sub>, sorption of CO<sub>2</sub> into polymer leads to significant swelling and hence, increases the free volume, decrease the viscosity, and reduce T<sub>g</sub> (plasticization). The objectives of this study are to: (1) demonstrate that ellipsometry can be utilized to measure the CO<sub>2</sub>-induced T<sub>g</sub> (plasticization) of polymer thin films on SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si substrate, (2) examine the effect of film

thickness on the CO<sub>2</sub>-induced devitrification of PMMA and PS thin films, (3) compare the retrograde vitrification phenomenon between bulk values and thin films.

## **1.9 APPENDIX: SPECTROSCOPIC ELLIPSOMETRY**

Ellipsometry is a powerful optical technique that has been used extensively in the semiconductor industry [58]. However, it has been utilized extensively in the last 10 years by the polymer community to investigate a variety properties of polymer thin films such as the glass transition temperature, swelling of polymer films in the presence of solvents, interfacial thickness of phase separated blend, surface roughness, and monolayer formation [7,10,55,56,59-61]. Ellipsometry has many advantages over other thin film techniques because it is non-invasive and non-destructive and data may be rapidly acquired. Contrary to popular perception, the ellipsometry does not measure the film thickness and index of refraction directly; rather it measures the change in polarization state of the polarized incidence light upon reflection from a planar surface [62-64]. The polarized incident light is characterized by the amplitude and phase of the two components, in the plane of the incidence (p) and perpendicular to the plane of incidence (s). Therefore, the incidence light is usually quantified by an amplitude ratio  $A_p/A_s$  and the phase difference ( $d_p - d_s$ ), where  $A_p$ ,  $A_s$ ,  $d_p$ ,  $d_s$  are the amplitude and phase in the s and p planes. Upon reflection from a planar surface both the amplitude and phase of the incidence light change. The two parameters that the ellipsometry measured are the ellipsometric angles,  $\psi$  and  $\Delta$  [62-64]. The ellipsometric angles,  $\psi$  and  $\Delta$ , are related to the amplitude and phase change through the following equations 1.2 and 1.3.



$$\Delta = (d_p^r - d_s^r) - (d_p^i - d_s^i) \quad (1.2)$$

$$\tan \psi = \frac{A_p^r / A_s^r}{A_p^i / A_s^i} \quad (1.3)$$

In these equations, the superscripts r and i represent the reflected and the incident light; p and s denote in the plane of incidence and perpendicular to this plane, respectively. The schematic of light reflected from a surface is displayed in Figure 1-5.

The measured  $\psi$  and  $\Delta$  can be related to the optical constant of the film by using the Fresnel reflection coefficients in the p and s planes,  $R_p$  and  $R_s$ , through the following equation:

$$\frac{R_p}{R_s} = \tan \psi e^{i\Delta} \quad (1.4)$$

Because of optical dispersion, the index of refraction of a material is dependent on the wavelength of light ( $\lambda$ ). Since  $\psi$  and  $\Delta$  are related to the index of refraction, they are also dependent of the refractive index of the material. For a single interface, the ellipsometric angles  $\psi$  and  $\Delta$  are function of the incident angle and the index of refraction of the two mediums as shown in Figure 1-6. The Fresnel reflection coefficients for this system are described by the following equations [63]:

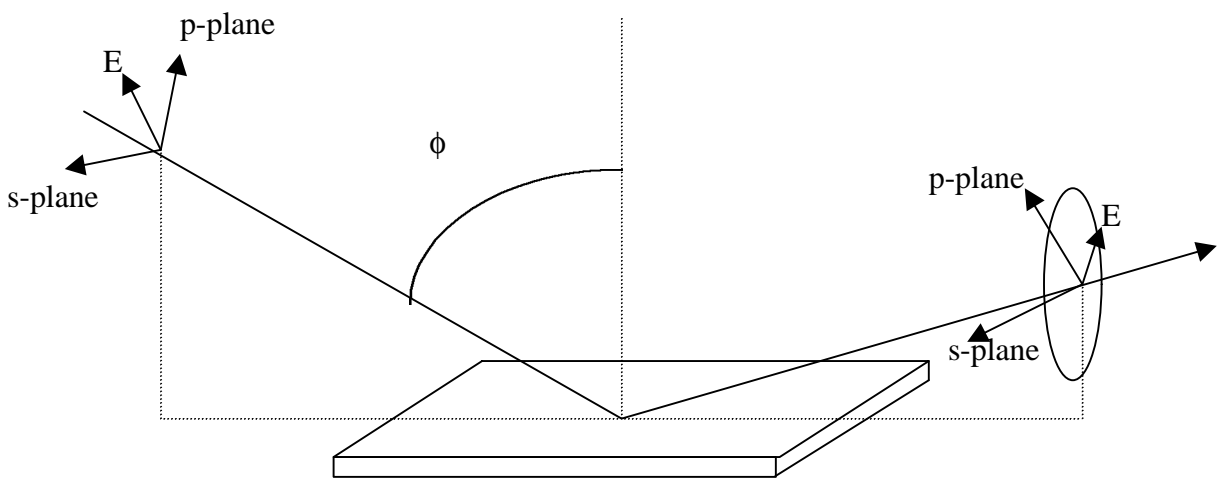


Figure 1-5: Schematic of reflection of polarized light from a planar surface where p is in the plane of reflection and s is perpendicular to this plane.

$$R_p = \frac{N_1 \cos \mathbf{f}_0 - N_0 \cos \mathbf{f}_1}{N_1 \cos \mathbf{f}_0 + N_0 \cos \mathbf{f}_1} \quad (1.5)$$

$$R_s = \frac{N_0 \cos \mathbf{f}_0 - N_1 \cos \mathbf{f}_1}{N_0 \cos \mathbf{f}_0 + N_1 \cos \mathbf{f}_1} \quad (1.6)$$

Where  $N_0$  and  $N_1$  are the index of refraction of medium 0 and 1;  $\phi_0$  and  $\phi_1$  are incident and refracted angles from vertical, respectively. However, in many applications, the incident light is reflected from many interfaces. The reflected light is composed of light reflected directly from the first interface as well as the transmitted light reflected from subsequent interfaces making back to the surface. A sketch of the multiple surfaces reflections systems is illustrated in Figure 1-6. The Fresnel reflection coefficients of the multiple interfaces are defined as the following [63]:

$$R_p = \frac{R_{01}^p + R_{12}^p \exp(-i2\mathbf{b})}{1 + R_{01}^p R_{12}^p \exp(-i2\mathbf{b})} \quad (1.7)$$

$$R_s = \frac{R_{01}^s + R_{12}^s \exp(-i2\mathbf{b})}{1 + R_{01}^s R_{12}^s \exp(-i2\mathbf{b})} \quad (1.8)$$

In these equations, the subscripts 01 and 12 refer to Fresnel reflection coefficients for the interfaces between medium 0 and 1, 1 and 2, respectively.  $\beta$  relates to the film thickness and defined as[63]:

$$\mathbf{b} = 2\mathbf{p}\left(\frac{h}{\mathbf{l}}\right)N_1 \cos \mathbf{f}_2 \quad (1.9)$$

where h is film thickness as shown in Figure 1-7.

In a given experiment, depending on the type of ellipsometer, one or more set of ellipsometric angles ( $\psi$  and  $\Delta$ ) are collected. These ellipsometric angles are then modeled to obtain the film thickness, the optical constants or the combination of both. The data generated from the model are then compared to the experimental results and the model is adjusted to minimize the difference [64].

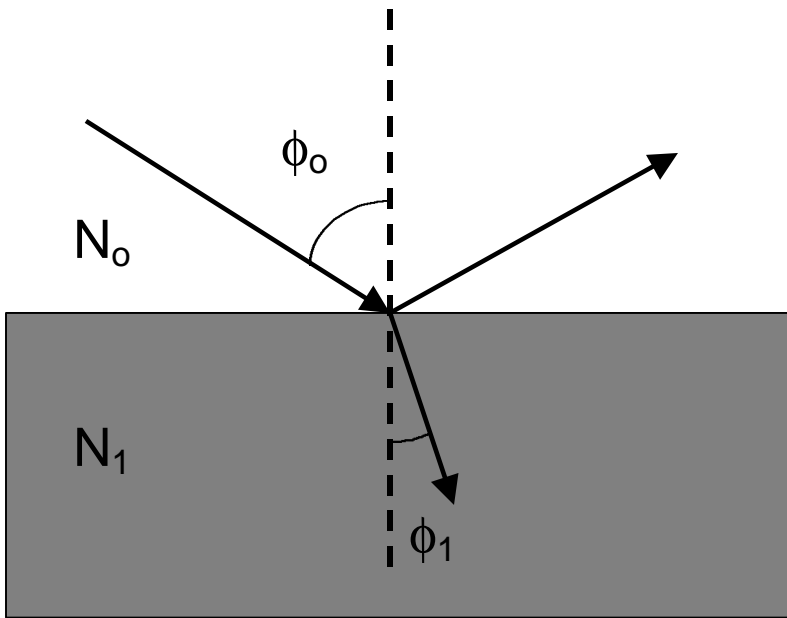


Figure 1-6: Schematic of reflection and transmission of the incident light from a planar single interface.  $N_0$  and  $N_1$  are the index of refraction of medium 0 and 1.  $\phi_0$  and  $\phi_1$  are incident angle from vertical and refracted angle from vertical, respectively.

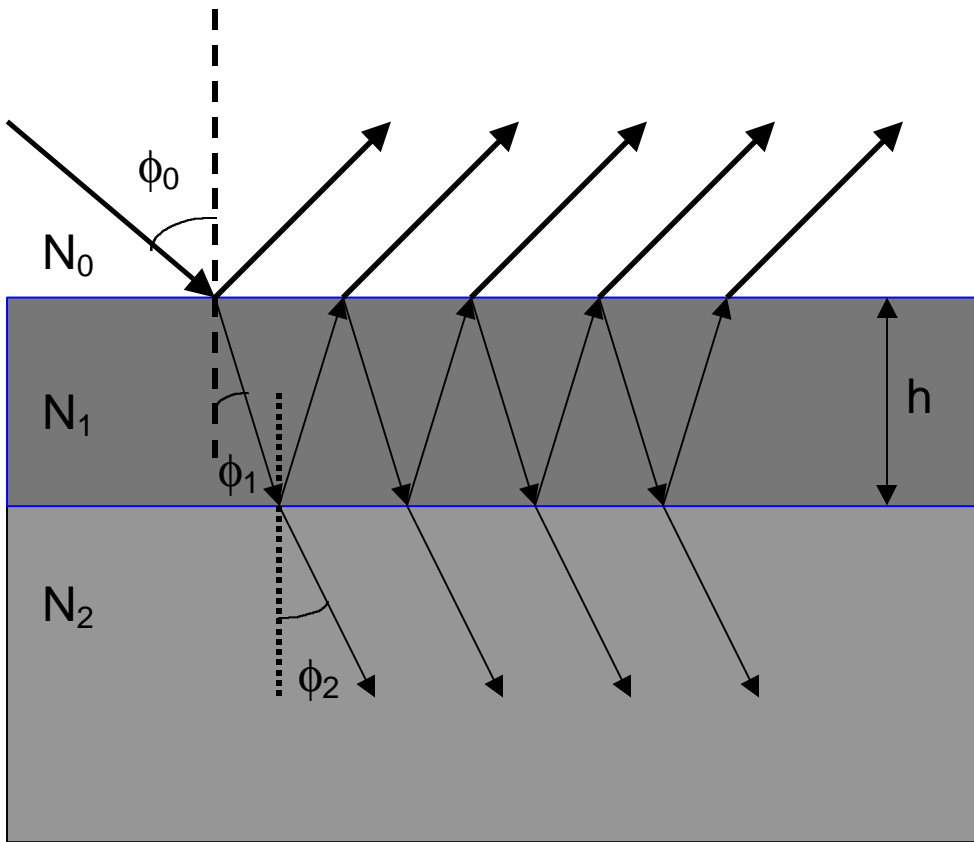


Figure 1-7: Schematic of reflections and transmissions of the incident light from a planar with multiple interfaces.

## 1.10 REFERENCES

- (1) Frank, C. W.; Rao, V.; Despotopoulou, M. M.; Pease, R. F.; Hinsberg, W. D.; Miller, R. D.; Rabolt, J. F. *Science* **1996**, 273, 912.
- (2) Dimitrakopoulos, C. D.; Mascaro, D. J. *IBM Journal of Research and Development* **2001**, 45, 11.
- (3) Ziemelis, K. *Nature* **1998**, 393, 619.
- (4) Ibn-Elhaj, M.; Schadt, M. *Nature* **2001**, 410, 796.
- (5) Ashok, B.; Muthukumar, M.; Russell, T. P. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2001**, 115, 1559.
- (6) Black, C. T.; Guarini, W.; Milkove, R.; Baker, S. M.; Russell, T. P.; Tuominen, M. *T. Applied Phys. Lett.* **2001**, 79, 409.
- (7) Keddie, J. L.; Jones, R. A.; Cory, R. A. *Europhys. Lett.* **1994**, 27, 59.
- (8) Torres, J. A.; Nealy, P. F.; de Pablo, J. J. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2000**, 85, 3221.
- (9) Kawana, S.; Jones, R. A. *Phys. Rev. E* **2001**, 63, 21501.
- (10) Grohen, Y.; Brogly, M.; Labbe, C.; Schultz, J. *Langmuir* **1998**, 14, 2929.
- (11) van Zanten, J. H.; Wallace, W. E.; Wu, W. *Phys. Rev. E* **1996**, 53, R 2053.
- (12) Forrest, J. A.; Dalnoki-Veress, K.; Stevens, J. R.; Dutcher, J. R. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1996**, 77, 2002.
- (13) Jain, T. S.; de Pablo, J. J. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 2167.
- (14) Binder, K. *Adv. Poly. Sci.* **1999**, 138, 1.
- (15) Green, P. F.; Limary, R. *Adv. Colloid and Interfacial Science* **2001**, 94, 53.
- (16) Lin, E. K.; Kolb, R.; Satija, S.; Wu, W. *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 3753.
- (17) Zheng, X.; Rafailovich, M. H.; Sokolov, J.; Strzhemecheny, Y.; Schwarz, S. A.; Sauer, B. B.; Rubinstein, M. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1997**, 79, 241.

- (18) Reiter, G. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1992**, 68, 75.
- (19) Rudin, A. “*The Elements of Polymer Science and Engineering*” Academic Press, San Diego, **1998**.
- (20) Richards, R. W.; Jones, R. A. L. “*Polymers at Surfaces and Interfaces*” Cambridge University Press, Cambridge U.K. **1999**.
- (21) Gibbs, J. H.; DiMazio, E. A. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1958**, 28, 373.
- (22) Adam, G.; Gibbs, J. H. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1965**, 43, 139.
- (23) Angell, C. A. *J. Phys. Chem. Solid* **1988**, 49, 863.
- (24) Forrest, J. A.; Dalnoki-Veress, K. *Adv. In Colloid and Interface Science* **2001**, 94, 167.
- (25) Cohen, M. H.; Turnbull, D. J. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1959**, 31, 1164.
- (26) Fukao, K.; Miyamoto, Y. *Europhys. Lett.* **1999**, 46, 649.
- (27) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Zin, W. *Langmuir* **2001**, 17, 2703.
- (28) Desimone, J. M. *Science* **2002**, 297, 799.
- (29) Cooper, A. I. *J. Mater. Chem.* **2000**, 1, 207.
- (30) DeSimone, J. M.; Maury, E. E.; Menciloglu, Y. Z.; McClain, J. B.; Romack, T. J.; Combes, J. R. *Science* **1994**, 265, 356. Stafford, C. M.; Russell, T. P.; McCarthy, T. *J. Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 7610.
- (31) Teja, A. S.; Eckert, C. A. *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* **2000**, 39, 4442.
- (32) Perrut, M. *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* **2000**, 39, 4531.
- (33) Kazarian, S. G. *Polymer Science, Ser. C* **2000**, 42, 78.
- (34) Weibel, G. L.; Ober, C. K. *Microelectronic Eng.* **2003**, 65, 145.
- (35) Wells, S. L.; DeSimone, J. *Angewandte Chemie* **2001**, 40, 518.



- (36) Namatsu, H. J. *Vac. Sci. Technol. B* **2000**, 18, 3308.
- (37) Goldfarb, D. L.; de Pablo, J. J.; Nealy, P. F.; Simons, J. P.; Moreau, W. M.; Angelopoulos M. *J. Vac. Sci. Technol. B* **2000**, 18, 3313.
- (38) Zhang, X.; Pham, J. Q.; Martinez, H. J.; Wolf, J.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *J. Vac. Sci. Technol. B* **2003**, 21, 2590.
- (39) Zhang, X.; Pham, J. Q.; Ryza, N.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *J. Vac. Sci. Technol. B* **2004**, 22, 818.
- (40) Sihvonen, M.; Jarvenpaa, E.; Hietaniemi, V.; Huopalahti, R. *Trends in Food Science & Technology* **1999**, 10, 217.
- (41) Long, D. P.; Blackburn, J. M.; Watkins, J. J. *Advanced Materials* **2000**, 12, 913.
- (42) Ye, X.; Wai, C. M. *J. Chem. Edu.* **2003**, 80, 198.
- (43) Zhang, Y.; Gangwani, K. K.; Lemert, R. M. *J. Supercritical Fluids* **1997**, 11, 115.
- (44) Gupta, R. R.; Lavery, K. A.; Francis, T. J.; Webster, J. R.; Smith, G. S.; Russell, T. P.; Watkins, J. J. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 346.
- (45) Liao, X.; Wang, J.; Li, G.; He, J. *J. Poly. Sci. Part B: Poly. Phys.* **2004**, 42, 280.
- (46) Kato, S.; Tsujita, Y.; Yoshimizu, H.; Kinoshita, T.; Higgins, J. S. *Polymer* **1997**, 38, 2807.
- (47) Meli, L.; Pham, J. Q.; Johnston, K. P.; Green, P. F. *Accepted to Physical Review E*.
- (48) Watkins, J. J.; Brown, G. D.; RamachandraRao, V. S.; Pollard, M. A.; Russell, T. P. *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 7737.
- (49) Vogt, B. D.; Brown, G. D.; RamachandraRao, V. S.; Watkins, J. J. *Macromolecules*, **1999**, 32, 7907.
- (50) Condo, P. D.; Paul, D. R.; Johnston, K. P. *Macromolecules* **1994**, 27, 365

- (51) Condo, P. D.; Johnston, K. P. *J. Polym. Sci. Part B: Polym. Phys.* **1994**, 32, 523.
- (52) Wissinger, R. G.; Paulaitis, M. E. *J. Polym. Sci. Part B: Polym. Phys.* **1987**, 25, 2497.
- (53) Wang, W-C. W.; Kramer, E. J.; Sachse, W. H. *J. Polym. Sci., Polym. Phys. Ed.* **1982**, 20, 1371.
- (54) Chiou, J. S.; Barlow, J. W.; Paul, D. R. *J. Appl. Polym. Sci.* **1985**, 30, 2633.
- (55) Sirard, S. M.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2001**, 105, 766.
- (56) Sirard, S. M.; Zeigler, K. J.; Sanchez, I. C.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 1928.
- (57) Koga, T.; Seo, Y-S.; Zhang, Y.; Shin, K.; Kusano, K.; Nishikawa, K.; Rafailovich, M. H.; Sokolov, J. C.; Chu, B.; Peiffer, D.; Occhiogrosso, R.; Satija, S. K. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2002**, 89, 125506.
- (58) Vedam, K. *Thin Solid Films* **1998**, 313.
- (59) Kressler, J.; Higashida, N.; Inoue, T.; Heckmann, W.; Seitz, F. *Macromolecules* **1993**, 26, 2090.
- (60) Malmsten, M. *J. Colloid Interface Sci.* **1994**, 166, 333.
- (61) Nee, S.-M. F. *Appl. Opt.* **1988**, 27, 2819.
- (62) Azzam, R. M.; Bashara, N. M. *Ellipsometry and Polarized Light*; North-Holland Publishing Co.: Elsevier, **1997**.
- (63) Tompkins, H. G.; McGahan, W. A. *Spectroscopic Ellipsometry and Reflectometry*; John Wiley & Sons, Inc.: New York, **1999**.

(64) Styrkas, D.; Doran, S. J.; Gilchrist, V.; Keddie, J. L.; Lu, J. R.; Murphy, E.; Sackin, R.; Su, T-J.; Tzitzinou, A. *Polymer Surfaces and Interfaces III*, edited by Richards, R. W.; Peace, S. K. John Wiley & Sons Ltd. **1999**.

## Chapter 2: The Glass Transition of Thin Film Polymer/Polymer Blends: Interfacial Interactions and Confinement

Preprint with permission from:

Pham, J. Q.; Green, P. F. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2002**, 116, 5801-5806. Copyright 2002 American Institute of Physics.

We examined the influence of film thickness and composition on the effective  $T_g$  of compatible thin film mixtures of polystyrene (PS) and tetramethylbisphenol-A polycarbonate (TMPC) on  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates using spectroscopic ellipsometry. Our measurements reveal that while the  $T_g$  of TMPC films increased with decreasing film thickness,  $h$ , the effective  $T_g$  of thin film mixtures of PS and TMPC decreased with decreasing film thickness. In these mixtures,  $T_g$  was independent of film thickness at large  $h$ . We also found that while the  $T_g$  of bulk mixtures of TMPC/PS exhibited large negative deviations from additivity with composition, such deviations were negligible in the thin film mixtures. The thickness dependence of  $T_g$  is compared with theory.

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Properties of thin polymer films are influenced by entropic effects, associated with chain “packing” and confinement, and by interfacial interactions [1]. In recent years, it has become apparent that in thin films, glass transition temperatures, viscosities and translational chain diffusion coefficients are influenced by confinement and by interfacial interactions [2-20]. Consequently a film thickness dependence of these properties is measured in different systems, provided the film is below a critical thickness. Additionally, in thin film A/B mixtures, the combined entropic and enthalpic effects (polymer segment/segment and segment/interface interactions) influence phase separation temperatures and the symmetry of the phase diagrams [21-23]. These effects also alter the ordering temperature of block copolymers [24]. The nature of these finite size effects and their fundamental origins are of current interest to researchers for scientific reasons and, more importantly, for the fact that polymer thin films are used in many applications, including membranes, adhesion, lithography, coatings and various device technologies.

Of particular interest in this chapter of the dissertation is the nature of interfacial interactions and confinement on the glass transition of polymers. Many studies have shown that the glass transition temperature of polystyrene thin films in the polystyrene/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si system decreases below its bulk value with decreasing film thickness when the film thickness  $h < 40$  nm [2,14,18]. This effect is independent of molecular weight,  $M$ , for chains of  $M > 10^5$  g/mole. Computer simulations, theory and experiments reveal chain segments at surfaces have a higher mobility than the remainder of the sample due to a larger configurational freedom [9,11,13,19,20,25,26]. As argued by de Gennes,

the effect can extend a finite distance beneath the surface due to dynamic cooperative effects that propagate along segments of chains that extend from the surface [11]. Experimental data from Kawana and Jones indicate that the length scale of the high mobility region is independent of both temperature and of film thickness [14]. In the vicinity of the substrate, on the other hand, the chain segment/substrate interactions are such that the mobility of the chains is appreciably lower in the vicinity of the substrate [19,20]. Therefore one can in principle associate average relaxation times with chains in the vicinity of the surface,  $\tau_s$ , chains in the interior of the film,  $\tau_b$ , and chains in the vicinity of the substrate,  $\tau_{sub}$ , where  $\tau_s > \tau_b > \tau_{sub}$ . With this in mind, one can envision a situation such that the glass transition occurs at the free surface at a lower temperature than it would near a strongly interacting substrate. It is argued that the decrease in the average glass transition temperature of the PS/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si system, as measured by ellipsometry, for example, is a manifestation of the fact that the dynamics of the surface layer exert a dominant influence on the average glass transition temperature of the film. Brillouin scattering experiments on freely standing PS films reveal that the decrease of  $T_g$  with film thickness is more significant than the decrease measured for supported PS films [8,10]. These data on freely standing films are consistent with the influence of two high mobility surface layers.

In cases where the polymer segment-substrate interaction is particularly strong, the relatively immobile layer of polymer in the vicinity of the substrate may exert the dominant influence on the average glass transition temperature of the film. For example, the effective  $T_g$ 's of poly (methylmethacrylate) and poly (vinyl pyridine) thin films on

SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si substrates are shown to increase with decreasing film thickness [2,6]. This is consistent with the fact that the more polar interactions of the PMMA and PVP chain segments with the oxide layer (hydrogen bonds) have a sufficiently strong influence on the dynamics of the segments in the vicinity of the substrate. Computer simulations of polymer chains on highly interacting substrates corroborate these findings, T<sub>g</sub> increases with increasing film thickness [13].

Having summarized the behavior of homopolymers, we move more specifically to our studies. We are interested in the manner in which confinement effects and interfacial interactions affect the average glass transition temperature of thin film polymer/polymer mixture that is known to be compatible in the bulk. Two important issues must be considered in order to provide a context for the studies described in this chapter of the dissertation. The first issue is that the glass transition temperature of bulk miscible blends varies with composition. Depending on the nature of the interactions between the blend components, the glass transition temperature could exhibit positive or negative deviations from linear additivity, as shown by extensive experimental and theoretical work [28-38]. The second issue is associated with the fact that, except in the case of a neutral interface, one component of the blend preferentially interacts with the interface, leading to preferential segregation. If the surface energies of the two components differ, then the lower surface energy component, provided the entropic effects are negligible, will preferentially reside at the free surface. Consequently, variations of composition of the film away from the interfaces may reflect local variations (heterogeneities) in mobility as well as in the glass transition.

Thin film mixtures of tetramethyl bisphenol-A polycarbonate (TMPC) and PS were investigated. This is a miscible blend whose bulk properties have been studied extensively [30,32-38]. In the bulk, TMPC/PS exhibits a lower critical solution temperature (LCST) between 513 K to 543 K, depending on molecular weight. The glass transition temperature of bulk PS is 373 K, just over 100 degrees lower than that of TMPC. In the sections that follow we examine the effects of film thickness and composition on the effective  $T_g$  of the PS/TMPC miscible blend.

## 2.2 EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Samples of varying thickness and composition were prepared for ellipsometric measurements. Different weight percentage mixtures of polystyrenes of molecular weight  $M_w = 49,000$  g/mole (dispersity index of 1.06) and TMPC, of  $M_w = 37,900$  g/mole (dispersity index 2.75), were dissolved in toluene and spin cast onto silicon substrates. There was a native  $\text{SiO}_x$  layer of thickness 2 nm on the Si substrate, determined using spectroscopic ellipsometry. By adjusting the spin rates and the solution concentrations, thin films ranging from  $\sim 20$  nm to  $\sim 200$  nm were prepared. The TMPC films were then annealed at  $220^\circ\text{C}$  under vacuum for a few hours to remove residual solvent and thermal history prior to ellipsometric measurements. The blends were annealed just above  $T_g$  for a few hours under vacuum to remove residual solvent and thermal history before the ellipsometric measurements were performed.

After the samples were annealed, thermal measurements were performed using the variable angle multi-wavelength ellipsometer (J.A. Woollam Co.) equipped with a home made heating stage. Ellipsometric angles,  $\psi$  and  $\Delta$ , were measured at different



temperatures. The sample was held at a given temperature for approximately 2 minutes for each measurement. Three measurements were taken at each temperature. During our experiments, we increased the temperature at a constant heating rate of 1°C /min. The temperatures were controlled with an accuracy of  $\pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$ . Film thicknesses were determined by fitting the ellipsometric angles with a Cauchy model (using software provided by the manufacturer). Since the measurements and analysis are standard we will not repeat the details here [1,14,15,17]. Figures 2-1a and 2-1b show typical thermal scans of two samples where the thicknesses differ by a factor of approximately five.. Each plot clearly exhibits distinct glassy and rubbery regions.  $T_g$  was determined by fitting straight lines through the data obtained from the glassy and rubber regions. The temperature at which these lines intersect is identified as the  $T_g$  of the film. The margin of error in our determination of  $T_g$  was less than  $\pm 3^\circ$ . We note that based on our film thickness versus temperature measurements, all thin film mixtures exhibited a single transition temperature, typical of that shown in Figures 2-1a and 2-1b that resided between that of the PS and TMPC components.

### **2.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

We begin with a discussion of the thickness dependence of the glass transition temperature of TMPC on the  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates. The data in Figure 2-2 clearly indicate that  $T_g$  increases with decreasing film thickness. This behavior is not surprising since TMPC interacts strongly with the substrate.

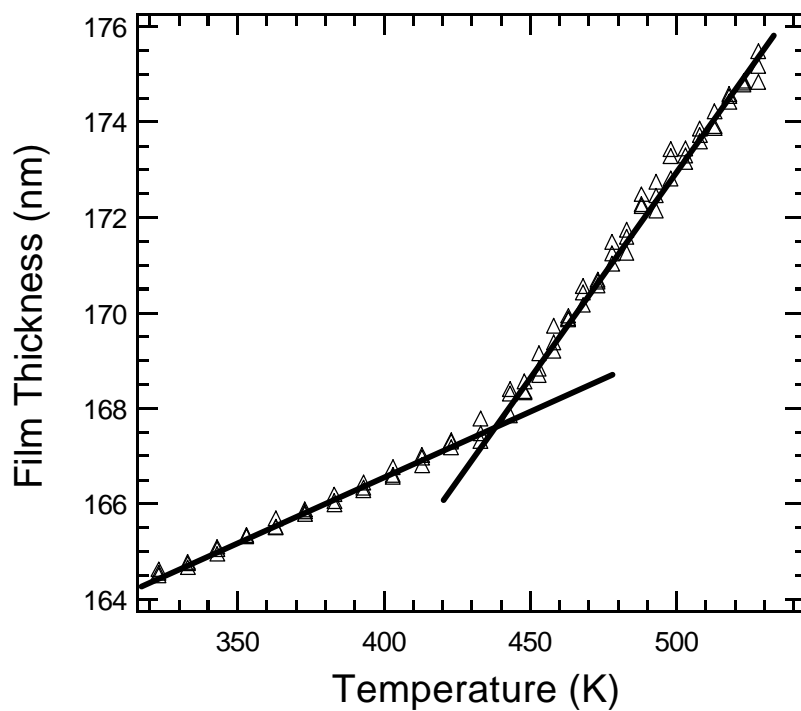


Figure 2-1a: Typical temperature versus film thickness data for films of two different thicknesses for a 50/50 weight percent blend of TMPC and PS are shown here. The glass transition is identified as the temperature at which the two lines drawn through the data intersect.

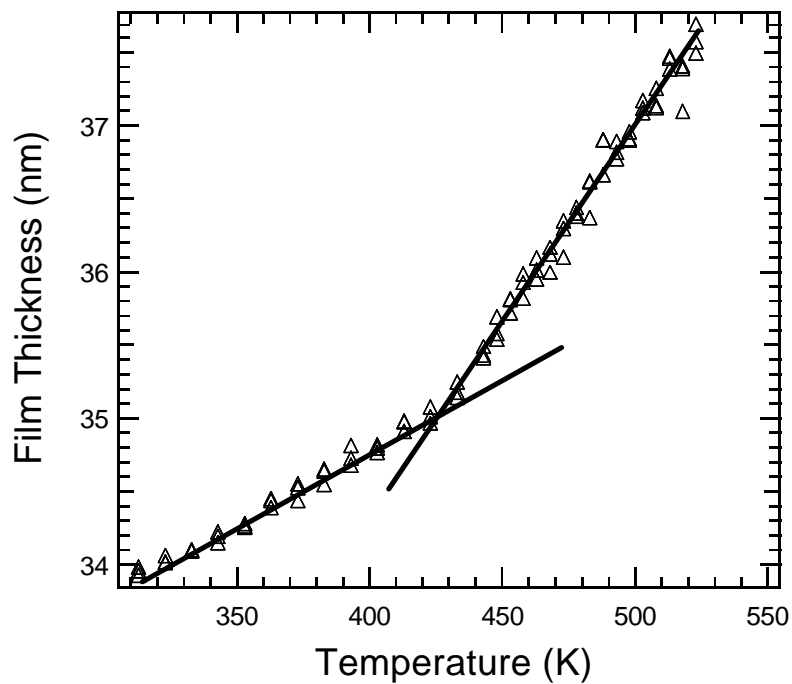


Figure 2-1b: Typical temperature versus film thickness data for films of two different thicknesses for a 50/50 weight percent blend of TMPC and PS are shown here. The glass transition is identified as the temperature at which the two lines drawn through the data intersect.

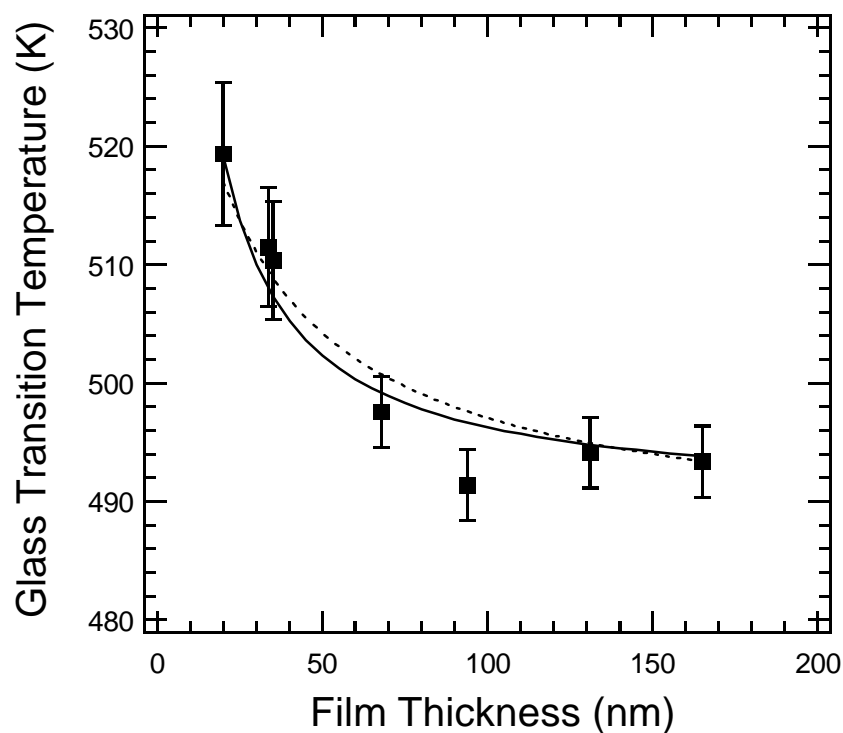


Figure 2-2: The glass transition temperatures, as determined from the break in the film thickness versus temperature data, versus film thickness are plotted for TMPC films of varying thickness. The solid line drawn through the data was computed using equation 2.1 (Kim at al.) whereas the broken line was computed using equation 2.2 (Long and Lequeux).

Specifically, the oxygen groups in TMPC have unshared electrons, which can form hydrogen bonds with the hydroxyl groups at the surface of the substrate. These interactions hinder the mobility of TMPC chain segments and create a region of low mobility in the vicinity of the polymer-substrate interface. This region in the vicinity of the substrate evidently exhibits a dominant effect on the average glass transition temperature of TMPC, leading to the increase in the effective  $T_g$  when the film is sufficiently thin. This behavior is similar to that observed in the poly (vinyl pyridine)/SiO<sub>x</sub> and PMMA/SiO<sub>x</sub> systems mentioned earlier [2,6].

Kim et al. proposed the following equation to describe the average  $T_g$  of a polymer film [15],

$$T_g(h) = T_{g,bulk} \frac{h(2k + h)}{(\sigma + h)^2} \quad (2.1)$$

In the model used to predict this equation, the film is imagined to be composed of a series of layers. Each layer has a different  $T_g$ , and the  $T_g$  increases gradually from the free surface to the polymer substrate interface where it is largest. In this equation,  $\sigma$  is believed to be the polymer segmental length,  $T_{g,bulk}$  is the bulk glass transition temperature and  $k$  is a measure of the influence of the substrate on the average  $T_g$  of the film. We find that  $\sigma = 0.72 \pm 0.02$  nm and  $k = 1.37 \pm 0.02$  nm provide a good description of our data. Values of  $k = 1.5$  nm and  $0.8$  nm were found to describe the data for PVP and PMMA on SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si substrates, respectively. A smaller value of  $k$  for PMMA indicates

that it is not as strongly attracted to the substrate as PVP or TMPC, as suggested by Kim et al.

There has recently been an alternate prediction for the film thickness dependence of  $T_g$  for thin films by Long and Lequeux [39]. This phenomenological model is based on the notion that the dynamics in the vicinity of the glass transition is heterogeneous, characterized by domains of fast and slow dynamics. In their model they introduce a critical density above which the dynamics in the domain are slow, and below which the dynamics are fast. The existence of these domains is due to density fluctuations. The size of these high density domains in which the dynamics are slow is on the order of  $\xi \sim 1-2$  nanometers. Each such domain is, on average, composed of  $N_c$  monomers and the average relaxation time of the dynamics is assumed to be long, comparable to the relaxation time at the glass transition. At high temperatures the probability of existence of these domains is low and the average dynamics of the system are determined by the highly mobile fluid regions which these high density regions exist. At lower temperatures the number of such domains increases. The glass transition occurs when these domains percolate to form a three dimensional network. It is argued that since the percolation threshold is lower in three dimensional than in two dimensions, the thin films should not experience a glass transition at the same temperature as bulk films. Since the thin films are assumed to be quasi two dimensional in this model, the transition should occur at a lower temperature. A strongly interacting substrate has the effect of inducing percolation into the film because its effect is to increase the number of slow domains in the system. Consequently, the  $T_g$  of a thin film on a strongly interacting substrate should increase with decreasing film thickness. This model, clearly, views  $T_g$  in a dynamical

sense. To this end, the following equation was proposed to describe the average  $T_g$  of a film of thickness  $h$  on a strongly interacting substrate:

$$\frac{T_g(h) - T_{g,bulk}}{T_{g,bulk}} \approx \frac{5}{N_c^{(1/2 - 1/(3\nu))}} \frac{a}{h} \log\left(\frac{h}{2\mathbf{x}}\right) \quad (2.2)$$

In this equation,  $\nu$  is a universal exponent, the parameter  $a$  is a segmental length and  $\mathbf{x} = aN_c^{1/3}$ . Using values of  $a = 0.5$  nm and  $\nu = 0.88$ , as suggested by the authors, we determined that  $N_c = 32$  and  $\xi = 1.6$  nm best described our data for TMPC. These values are not unreasonable in view of the fact that the equation is an approximate analytical solution. Recall that the size of the heterogeneous domains is expected to be on the order of 2 nm.

We now discuss the results for the TMPC/PS mixtures by first comparing the glass transition temperatures of the mixtures with that of pure TMPC in the plateau regions of the curves in Figures 2-3. The glass transition temperatures of the blend containing 70% TMPC and 50 wt % TMPC are  $T_g(0.7) = 452$  K and  $T_g(0.5) = 435$  K, respectively. In contrast, that the  $T_g$  of TMPC is approximately  $T_g(\text{TMPC}) = 494$  K. The reduction in the average  $T_g$  with increasing PS content is expected since PS has a lower  $T_g$ , 100 K lower, than that of TMPC. We saw no evidence of a change in slope in the  $h$  versus  $T$  data of the blends to indicate evidence of a  $T_g$  in the vicinity of TMPC nor of PS. We can therefore safely conclude that the reduction in  $T_g$  with increasing PS content is consistent with a well established fact that the blend is miscible.

It is interesting that in spite of the fact that TMPC is preferentially attracted to the substrate and interacts strongly with it, the glass transition temperatures of the mixtures decreased with decreasing film thickness when  $h < 50$  nm. This is illustrated in Figure 2-3 for two PS/TMPC blend compositions, containing 70 wt % TMPC and 50 wt % TMPC. It is known that in binary thin film PS/TMPC mixtures, TMPC preferentially resides at the substrates [35-37]. This is not surprising because of the more polar interactions of TMPC with the substrate than PS. The bulk and the free surface of thin film TMPC/PS blends are phase mixed with PS having a higher surface concentration than the bulk [35-37]. In fact, we performed X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy measurements on our samples of thickness  $h = 30$  nm and  $h = 130$  nm thick and found that within the first 10 nm, the composition of PS as 72 wt %, consistent with the data in references 35 and 37. With this in mind, it follows that the surface should have a lower glass transition than the remainder of the sample. More importantly, the chains at the free surface have a much higher mobility than the higher  $T_g$  TMPC chains that interact strongly with the  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrate,  $\tau_s \gg \tau_{\text{sub}}$ . Indeed the higher mobility of the chain segments at the surface is due not only to the inherent features of the free surface dynamics, but also because the excess PS chains with their intrinsically higher mobility than TMPC [35-37]. The reduction in  $T_g$  is consistent the fact that the high mobility surface layer exerts a dominant influence on the average  $T_g$  of the film.

In an effort to quantify the film thickness dependence of  $T_g$ , two equations have been used. Below we compare our results with these predictions. An empirical equation was proposed by Keddie et al. [2]



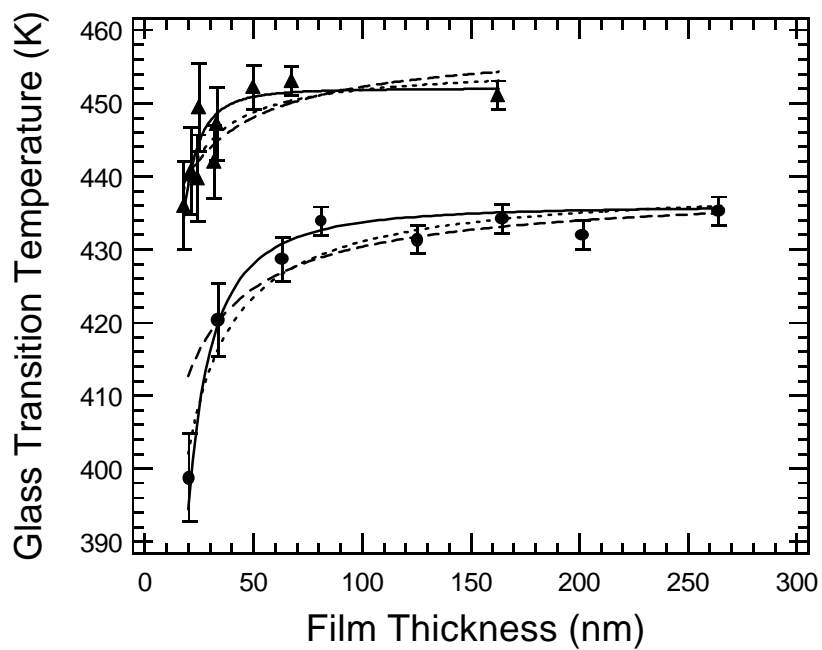


Figure 2-3: The glass transition temperatures versus film thickness are plotted for two compositions, 50 wt % (triangles) and 70 wt % (squares) TMPC). The solid lines were computed using equation 2.3; the broken line (----) was computed using equation 2.4 and the dotted line (.....) was computed using equation 2.5. The fitting parameters are identified in the text.

$$T_g = T_{g,bulk}[1-(A/h)^\delta] \quad (2.3)$$

This equation has two adjustable parameters; A which has units of length and  $\delta$ .  $\delta$  is an indication of the degree to which  $T_g$  decreases with decreasing film thickness. This equation accurately described the  $T_g$  versus film thickness data for polystyrene on SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si substrates, where it was determined that A = 3.2 nm and  $\delta = 1.8$ . Based on equation 2.3, the values for the 70 wt % TMPC blend were  $T_{g,bulk} = 452K$ , A = 5.4 nm and  $\delta = 2.7$ . For the 50 wt % blend, on the other hand,  $T_{g,bulk} = 436K$ , A = 5.4 nm and  $\delta = 1.8$ . The values of A determined from this fit are comparable to the value found by Keddie et al. to describe PS on SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si [2]. Note that in the blend containing 70 wt % TMPC,  $\delta = 2.7$  whereas it has a value of 1.8 in the blend containing 50 wt % TMPC, comparable for the value that described the PS data. The relative magnitudes of  $\delta$  reflect the relative influence of the regions of fastest dynamics (free surface) versus regions of slowest dynamics (at the substrate) on the average  $T_g$  of the film. Clearly, larger values of  $\delta$  suggest a weaker thickness dependence of the decrease of glass transition temperature.

An alternate equation was proposed by Kim et al. to describe the same data [15],

$$T_g(h) = T_{g,bulk} \frac{h}{S + h} \quad (2.4)$$

Here  $\sigma$  is a measure of the rate at which the glass transition temperature decreases with decreasing  $h$ . A value of  $\sigma = 0.67$  nm was found to do a very good job describing the  $T_g$  versus  $h$  data for polystyrene. Kim et al. proposed that  $\sigma$  should be independent of chain length and in fact they found it to be approximately 0.7 nm, regardless of the system. They concluded that it might be a statistical segmental length [15]. Using equation 2.4 to fit our data (Figure 2-3), we determined that  $\sigma = 0.695$  nm and 1.84 nm for the 70 wt % TMPC and 50 wt % TMPC samples, respectively. Clearly, the value for the 50 wt % mixture is more than twice as large as the other two so  $\sigma$  may not be a statistical segment length. Based on the sample compositions and the values of  $\sigma$ , one might conclude that the value of  $\sigma$  reflects the influence of the relative difference between the fastest and slowest dynamical regions on the  $T_g$  of the film.

Long and Lequeux, also had a prediction for the decrease in glass transition temperature with film thickness [39],

$$\frac{T_g(h) - T_{g,bulk}}{T_{g,bulk}} \approx \frac{-2.6}{N_c^{(1/2-1/(3n))}} \frac{a}{h} \log\left(\frac{h}{2x}\right) \quad (2.5)$$

Using the values they suggested for  $a$  and  $v$  as 0.5 nm and 0.88 respectively, we determined that  $\xi = 0.8$  nm for the 50 wt % mixture and 1.3 nm for the 70 wt % TMPC sample. These values of  $\xi$ , particularly the latter value of 0.8 nm, are unrealistically small. In view of the unrealistically small parameters, it is possible that the theory may have to be revisited. We nevertheless interpret the trends in the values of  $\hat{v}$  as follows.

The model treats the system such that percolation, and hence the glass transition, occurs when the sample is cooled from high to low temperatures. The number and size of these regions determine the temperature at which percolation occurs. When the system is cooled, the number of regions of slow dynamics increases with decreasing temperature. If the size of the slow domains is small, then the temperature at which the glass transition occurs is low. The smaller value of  $\hat{v}$  for the 50 wt % mixture is associated with a lower  $T_g$ . In conclusion, we note that we do not know, a priori, whether this would be true to the 50 wt % blend. This would have to await further theory and experiments.

We now examine the dependence of  $T_g$  on composition for the thin film blend. The values of  $T_g$  plotted in Figure 2-4 were obtained from thicker films for which  $T_g$  was independent of film thickness. It is clear from these data that the  $T_g$ 's of the thin film blends exhibit relatively small deviations from linearity. The bulk analogs exhibit relatively larger negative deviations from linear additivity. The implications regarding the deviations of the compositional dependencies of  $T_g$  for the bulk and the thin film mixtures from linearity can be understood from the following. The glass transition of a large number of bulk mixtures has been examined extensively, experimentally and theoretically [28-38]. Depending on the nature of the thermodynamic interactions between the components, the glass transition of the blend could exhibit positive or negative deviation from linear additivity. Different models have had varying levels of success at describing the compositional dependence of  $T_g$  in *miscible* blends. Gordon and Taylor argued that when a compatible mixture is created, the free volume of the blend is determined by the sum of the fractional free volumes of the constituents, leading to [29]

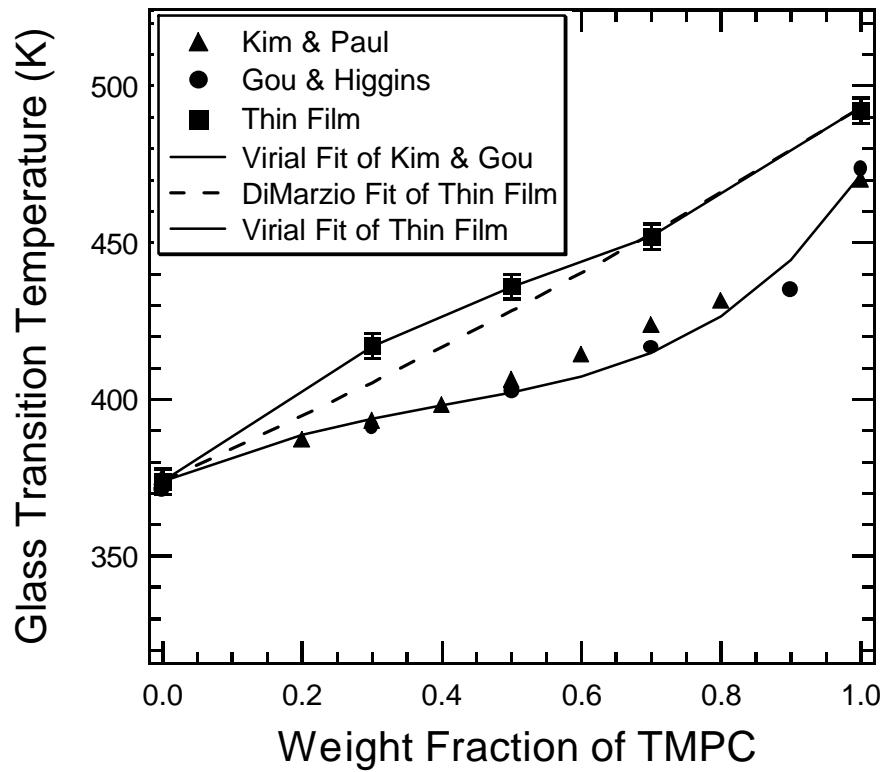


Figure 2-4: Glass transition temperature of the TMPC/PS blend is plotted as a function of weight fraction of TMPC. The filled squares represent our data, the data for the thin film mixtures whereas the other symbols represent the bulk data, determined by other authors.

$$T_g = \frac{w_1 T_{g1} + K w_2 T_{g2}}{w_1 + K w_2} \quad (2.6)$$

Here free volume is interpreted in terms of an “open” or “unoccupied” volume, associated with packing irregularities. The parameter K is a function of the densities of the constituents and of the differences in the thermal expansion coefficients of the melt and glassy states of the constituents. DiMarzio proposed an equation that is virtually identical to equation 2.6, except that K has a different meaning [28]. In the DiMarzio model, the onset of the glass transition occurs when the number of configurations available to the system reaches a very small value. Since the number of states available to a system undergoing flow is small, flow is impeded; flow is envisioned as transitions from one state to another. It is assumed that the number of flexible bonds on the monomer plays a critical role in that it is responsible for accommodating conformational changes that the chains experience upon mixing. Polymer units with a large number of flexible bonds should experience the largest configurational changes. For the DiMarzio model, K depends on the number of flexible bonds on each repeat unit and on the molecular masses of the constituents. There are no adjustable parameters in equation 2.6. This equation, however, fails to describe the compositional dependence of  $T_g$  in the presence of strong segmental interactions (e.g. electron/donor interaction) between the components. An alternate “virial-like” equation, proposed by Brekner, Schneider, and Cantow [30,31], is capable of describing the positive and negative deviations of  $T_g$  from additivity in a large number of mixtures,

$$\frac{T_g - T_{g1}}{T_{g2} - T_{g1}} = (1 - K_1)w_{2c} - (K_1 + K_2)w_{2c}^2 + K_2w_{2c}^3 \quad (2.7)$$

where  $w_{2c} = \frac{Kw_2}{w_1 + Kw_2}$  and  $K = T_{g1}/T_{g2}$ .  $K_1$  is determined largely by the difference between interaction energies associated with like and unlike contacts and  $K_2$  is determined exclusively by changes in conformational entropy of the chains between the homogeneous and heterogeneous environments. When  $K_1 = K_2 = 0$ , equation 2.7 becomes identical to equation 2.6, except that now  $K = T_{g1}/T_{g2}$ . This incidentally, is known as the Flory-Fox equation [27]. When  $K_1 > 0$  and  $(K_1 - K_2) > 0$ , the glass transition temperatures of the mixtures is enhanced relative to predications based on a rule of mixtures and the curve is concave down. This means that the energetic interactions are strong, resulting in larger conformational transitions upon mixing, accompanied by lower free volume than linear additivity would predict. The free volume of course refers to the static packing of chains. For  $K_1 < 0$  and  $(K_1 - K_2) < 0$ ,  $T_g$  is reduced relative to predictions based on the rule of mixtures for all compositions and the curve is concave up. This situation arises when the energetic A-B interactions are comparatively weaker, hence the chains do not experience large conformational changes upon mixing and the overall free volume is *increased* relative to that predicted by a rule of mixtures. This leads to the reduction in  $T_g$ . While one drawback of equation 2.7 is that it has three fitting parameters, its utility is that it successfully describes the relevant trends in the  $T_g$  observed in a large number of blends where there exists relatively strong and weak

specific enthalpic interactions. We introduce it here so that we can make a comparison between the bulk and thin film results.

We now address the behavior of the TMPC/PS thin film more specifically. In the bulk, the negative deviations from linear dependence is related to the fact that the chains undergo large changes in conformational entropy upon mixing that results in a larger fractional free volume;  $K_1 > 0$  and  $(K_1 - K_2) < 0$ . We note, incidentally, that changes in specific volume with composition in this blend follow a similar pattern with trends in  $T_g$  shown here for the bulk blends [32].

The reason that the  $T_g$ 's of the thin film mixtures exhibit much smaller deviations from linearity than they do for the bulk mixtures is now discussed. Generally in miscible blends, when the energetic interactions are comparable to effects due to entropy (free volume), the deviations of  $T_g$  from additivity are negligible [30,31]. One might be tempted to argue that this small deviation in the thin film mixtures may be due to an increase in the influence of energetic interactions between the components. However, this is not possible, and in fact, quite the opposite might be expected, particularly in light of the preferential interfacial interactions. Alternatively, one might argue that this trend is due to a significant amount of interfacial segregation by the TMPC. This is not the case for two reasons. There is no evidence of two glass transition temperatures and secondly the TMPC/PS is phase mixed in thin films [35-37]. The small deviation is most probably due to a confinement effect that reduces the influence of the entropic effects, described above, on  $T_g$ . Further experiments involving low molecular weight, unentangled, PS chains are being considered in order to further investigate the entropy effects on the behavior of the system.



## 2.4 CONCLUSIONS

We examined the effects of film thickness and composition on the effective  $T_g$  of TMPC/PS miscible blend on  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates using spectroscopic ellipsometry. This is a miscible asymmetrically adsorbing system, where TMPC interacts preferentially with the substrate and PS with the free surface. We made three important observations.

- (1) We showed that the glass transition temperature of TMPC increased with decreasing film thickness. This is due to the fact that TMPC interacts strongly with the substrate, forming hydrogen bonds. This leads to a relatively immobile layer, with a lower free volume, in the vicinity of the substrate. If the average  $T_g$  of the film is dominated by this interaction then the measured increase in  $T_g$  with decreasing  $h$  is expected.
- (2) We also examined mixtures containing 70 wt % TMPC and 50 wt % PS and found that  $T_g$  decreased with decreasing film thickness. The effect was more significant in the 50 wt % blend, as expected. The thickness dependences in both the TMPC and the mixtures were compared with theory.
- (3) Finally, we examined the variation of  $T_g$  with blend composition and determined it was much smaller in thin films than in the bulk, reflecting the influence of confinement on the entropic (free volume) contribution to the  $T_g$  of the thin film system.

## 2.5 REFERENCES

- (1) Binder, K. *Adv. Polymer Sci.* **1999**, 138, 1.

- (2) Keddie, J. L.; Jones, R. A.; Cory, R. A. *Faraday Discuss.* **1994**, 98, 219; Keddie, J. L.; Jones, R. A.; Cory, R. A. *Europhys. Lett.* **1994**, 27, 59.
- (3) Orts, W. J.; van Zanten, J. H.; Wu, W.; Satija, S. K. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1993**, 71, 867; Wu, W.; van Zanten, J. H.; Orts, W. J. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 771.
- (4) Tseng, K.C., Turro, N.J. and Durning, C.J. *Phys. Rev. E.* **2000**, E61, 1800.
- (5) Wallace, W.E.; van Zanten, J. H.; Wu, W. *Phys. Rev. E* **1995**, 52, R3329.
- (6) van Zanten, J. H.; Wallace, W. E.; Wu, W. *Phys. Rev. E* **1996**, 53, R 2053.
- (7) Frank, B.; Gast, A. P.; Russell, T. P.; Brown, H. R.; Hawker, C. *Macromolecules* **1996**, 29, 6531.
- (8) Forrest, J. A.; Dalnoki-Veress, K.; Stevens, J. R.; Dutcher, J. R. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1996**, 77, 2002.
- (9) Wallace, W.E., Fischer, D.A., Efimenko, K., Wu, Wen-Li and Genzer, J., *Macromolecules* **2001**, 34, 5081.
- (10) Forrest, J. A.; Mattsson, J. *Phys. Rev. E* **2000**, 61, R53; Mattsson, J.; Forrest, J. A.; Borjesson, L. *Phys. Rev. E* **2000**, 62, 5187.
- (11) de Gennes, P. G. *Euro. Phys. J. E* **2000**, 2, 201.
- (12) Xie, L.; DeMaggio, G. B.; Frieze, W. E.; DeVries, J.; Gidley, D. W.; Hristov, H. A.; Yee, A. F. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1995**, 74, 4947.
- (13) Torres, J. A.; Nealy, P. F.; de Pablo, J. J. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2000**, 85, 3221.
- (14) Kawana, S.; Jones, R. A. *Phys. Rev. E* **2001**, 63, 21501.
- (15) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Zin, W. *Langmuir* **2001**, 17, 2703.
- (16) DeMaggio, G. B.; Frieze, W. E.; Gidley, D. W.; Hristov, H. A.; Yee, A. F. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1997**, 78, 1524.

- (17) Grohens, Y.; Brogly, M.; Labbe, C.; David, M. –O.; Schultz, J. *Langmuir* **1998**, 14, 2929.
- (18) Fukao, K.; Miyamoto, Y. *Europhys. Lett.* **1999**, 46, 649.
- (19) Lin, E. K.; Wu, W.; Satija, S. *Macromolecules* **1997**, 30, 7224.
- (20) Lin, E. K.; Kolb, R.; Satija, S.; Wu, W. *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 3753.
- (21) Kerle, T.; Klein, J.; Binder, K. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1996**, 77, 1318.
- (22) Kerle, T.; Klein, J.; Binder, K. *Euro. Phys. J. E.* **1999**, 7, 401.
- (23) Muller-Buschbaum, P.; Gutmann, J. S.; Stamm, M. *Macromolecules* **2000**, 33, 4886.
- (24) Green, P.F. and Limary, R., *Advances in Colloid and Interfacial Science* **2001**, 94, 53.
- (25) Mansfield, K. F.; Theodorou, D. N. *Macromolecules* **1991**, 24, 6283.
- (26) Baschnagel, J.; Binder, K. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 6808.
- (27) Ferry, J. D. *Viscoelastic Properties of Polymers*, Academic Press, New York, **1980**.
- (28) Di Marzio, E. A. *Polymer* **1990**, 31, 2954.
- (29) Gordon, M.; Taylor, J. S. *J. Appl. Chem., USSR* **1952**, 2, 493.
- (30) Schnieder, H. A.; DiMarzio, E. A. *Polymer* **1992**, 33, 3453.
- (31) Brekner, M. –J.; Schneider, H. A.; Cantow, H. –J. *Polymer* **1988**, 78, 78.
- (32) Fernandez, A. C.; Barlow, J. W.; Paul, D. R. *Polymer* **1986**, 27, 1788.
- (33) Kim, C. K.; Paul, D. R. *Polymer* **1992**, 33, 1630.
- (34) Gou, W.; Higgins, J. S. *Polymer* **1990**, 31, 699.
- (35) Kim, E.; Krausch, G.; Kramer, E. J.; Osby, J. O. *Macromolecules* **1994**, 27, 5927.
- (36) Kim, E.; Kramer, E. J.; Osby, J. O. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 1979.

- (37) Kim, E.; Kramer, E. J.; Osby, J. O.; Walsh, D. J. J. *Poly. Science part B: Poly. Phys.* **1995**, 33, 467.
- (38) Lui, J.; Jean, Y. C.; Yang, H. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 5774.
- (39) Long, D., Lequeux, F. *Eur. Phys. J. E.* **2001**, 4, 371.

### Chapter 3: The effective $T_g$ of confined polymer-polymer mixtures: Influence of molecular size

Preprint with permission from:

Pham, J. Q.; Green, P. F. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 1665-1669. Copyright 2003 American Chemical Society.

Polystyrene (PS) and poly(tetramethyl bisphenol polycarbonate) (TMPC) form thermodynamically compatible mixtures below a lower critical solution temperature. In this regime, the PS-component in thin PS-TMPC films, supported by  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates, preferentially enriches the free surface, forming a wetting layer, whereas the TMPC component enriches to the polymer-substrate interfacial region. We examined the dependence of the effective glass transition temperature,  $T_g$ , on film thickness,  $h$ , for 50/50 wt. % mixtures on  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates. In these experiments, the molecular weight,  $M_{\text{PS}}$ , of the PS component was varied by over two orders of magnitude ( $4 \text{ kg/mol} < M_{\text{PS}} < 900 \text{ kg/mol}$ ) while the TMPC molecular weight remained fixed. The glass transition temperature of the  $M_{\text{PS}} = 4 \text{ kg/mol}$  sample is approximately  $25^\circ\text{C}$  lower than that of the other PS samples. We show that the effective glass transition temperature decreases with decreasing film thickness,  $\Delta T_g = T_g(\infty) - T_g(h) < 0$ , where  $T_g(\infty)$  is the glass transition temperature at large  $h$ . Moreover, despite the variation in the glass transition temperatures associated with the PS components in the mixtures,  $\Delta T_g(h)$  was, within experimental error, independent of  $M_{\text{PS}}$ .  $T_g(\infty)$ , on other hand, was sensitive to the  $T_g$  of the PS component. Implications of these findings are discussed.

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The glass transition continues to be an active area of research, and interest has broadened in scope due to recent experiments which reveal evidence for a film thickness dependence of the effective glass transition temperature,  $T_g$ , of polymer films when the films are sufficiently thin [1-26]. In the polystyrene (PS)-SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si system, the effective  $T_g$  decreases with decreasing film thickness when  $h$  is thinner than a threshold film thickness of  $h_c \sim 50$  nm [4,10,11,15]. In freely standing PS films the same trends are apparent, except that the effect is more significant, wherein the decrease is approximately twice as much as that of the same polymer on SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si [10]. The opposite trends,  $T_g$  increasing with decreasing  $h$ , have been observed in the poly vinylpyridine (PVP)-SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si, poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA)-SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si and tetramethyl bisphenol polycarbonate (TMPC)/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si systems [1,5,8,16]. In these systems, unlike the PS-SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si system, the polymer segments have particularly strong interactions with the substrate (hydrogen bonding). Therefore, in thin polymer films, the effective glass transition is influenced by the nature of the polymer segment-segment interactions in relation to the segment-“wall” (free surface or substrate) interactions. Sufficiently strong segment-“wall” interactions contribute to an increase in the glass transition of the film, provided the film is sufficiently thin.

While to date there is no universally accepted explanation, a number of models have been proposed. Keddie et al. used an empirical equation to describe the decrease in  $T_g$  with decreasing film thickness for PS films in SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si substrates [4],

$$T_g = T_g(\infty) [1-(A/h)^\delta] \quad (3.1)$$

In the above equation  $T_g(\infty)$  is the glass transition temperature at large  $h$ ,  $\delta$  indicates of the degree to which  $T_g$  decreases with decreasing film thickness and  $A$  is a length scale. They argue that the decrease in  $T_g$  is due to the presence of a high mobility (“liquid-like”) layer at the surface. The high mobility surface layer exerts an increasingly larger influence on the average  $T_g$  of the film, leading to the observed decrease in  $T_g$ . It suffices to mention that chain segments at the free surface exhibit higher segmental mobilities than those in the interior of the film [28,29]. This is consistent with the notion that the polymer-segment-segment density is lower at the free surface and that these segments possess larger configurational freedom. It has further been suggested that the size of the high mobility surface region is related to the average size of the chains in the melt [27].

Kim et al. proposed an alternate model for the decrease of  $T_g$  with decreasing  $h$  [16]. They suggest that a series of layers, each possessing a different  $T_g$ , comprise the film. The layer at the free surface has the lowest  $T_g$  whereas the layer adjacent to the substrate possesses the largest. Of course, the fact that chain segments at the free surface possess larger configurational freedom and lower packing density is not inconsistent with the possibility of a lower surface  $T_g$  [27,31,32]. An excess concentration of chain ends and associated larger free volume at the free surface are among other reasons that have been suggested to account for the possibility of a surface  $T_g$  [29,30]. Kim et al. predicted that the effective  $T_g(h)$  of the film would be

$$T_g = T(\infty) \frac{h}{s + h} \quad (3.2)$$

Here,  $\sigma$  measures the extent to which  $T_g$  decreases with  $h$ , particularly at small  $h$ .

A percolation, free volume-based, model was proposed by Long and Lequeux [3]. In this model, they propose that domains of rapidly and of slowly relaxing clusters of particles comprise the sample (dynamic heterogeneity). Percolation of the slow domains denotes the onset of the glass transition temperature. Since the percolation threshold in three dimensions is lower than in two dimensions, the glass transition should in principle occur at a lower temperature in sufficiently thin films than in the bulk. The effect of the strong polymer-substrate interactions is to increase the effective number of slow domains in the sample; hence the effective temperature at which percolation occurs is much higher than that for bulk analogues.

Recently we used spectroscopic ellipsometry to examine the dependence of the effective  $T_g$  on film thickness in the miscible blend system of TMPC and PS [1]. While one might be initially inclined to argue that a study involving mixtures might complicate the issues further, there is a good reason to do this. Consider that in this miscible blend, the  $T_g$  of TMPC is much larger than that of PS,  $\sim 220^\circ\text{C}$  compared to  $100^\circ\text{C}$ . Second, TMPC interacts strongly with the  $\text{SiO}_x$  substrate whereas PS preferentially enriches the free surface (lower surface energy) [1,33-35]. The friction coefficient, which controls the segmental mobilities, in TMPC is also much larger than PS. Hence this is a system in which a high-mobility, lower  $T_g$ , polymer-free surface region (layer) and a low mobility, and appreciably higher  $T_g$ , polymer-substrate “layer” are “tailored.”



In our previous study, we examined the thin films ( $10 \text{ nm} < h < 200 \text{ nm}$ ) of TMPC and of PS-TMPC mixtures (the PS molecular weight was  $49 \text{ kg/mol}$ ). We showed that the  $T_g$  of TMPC increased with decreasing  $h$  ( $\Delta T_g(h) > 0$ ) for  $h < h_c$ , where  $h_c \sim 50 \text{ nm}$ . On the other hand, the effective  $T_g$  of mixtures containing 30 and 50 wt. % PS decreased with  $h$  for  $h < 50 \text{ nm}$  ( $\Delta T_g(h) < 0$ ). We also investigated the compositional dependence of mixtures of films with thicknesses  $h > 50 \text{ nm}$ . While the compositional dependence of  $T_g$  for both bulk and thin films exhibited negative deviations from predictions based on a rule of mixtures, we learned that the deviation in the films was appreciably smaller. This difference was attributed to the fact that the increase in the specific volume that results from mixing PS and TMPC, leading to the negative deviation in the  $T_g$  vs. composition dependence, is suppressed in thin films (confinement).

In this chapter of the dissertation we examine the effect of changing the molecular weight of the PS component by two orders of magnitude, from  $M_{ps} = 4$  to  $900 \text{ kg/mol}$ , while keeping that of the TMPC molecular weight fixed. Decreasing the PS molecular weight from  $900$  to  $4 \text{ kg/mol}$  results in a decrease in the PS bulk  $T_g$  from  $100^\circ\text{C}$  to  $75^\circ\text{C}$  and a decrease in the radius of gyration of the PS chains by just over an order of magnitude. Since the PS component preferentially resides at the free surface, varying the PS molecular weight and associated  $T_g$  will enable an understanding of how the size of the chains and the  $T_g$  of the PS component influences  $T_g(\infty)$  and  $\Delta T_g(h)$ .

### **3.2 EXPERIMENTAL SECTION**

Variable angle spectroscopic ellipsometry was used to determine the glass transition temperatures of thin PS-TMPC films on  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates. 50/50 wt %

mixtures of polystyrenes of different molecular weights, 4, 49, 290, and 900kg/mole (dispersity index of 1.06, 1.06, 1.06, and 1.10, respectively) with TMPC of molecular weight 37,900 g/mole (dispersity index 2.75) were dissolved in toluene and spin cast onto silicon substrates. The silicon substrate has a native  $\text{SiO}_x$  layer of thickness 2 nm. This thickness was determined by spectroscopic ellipsometry. By adjusting the spin rates and the solution concentrations, thin films ranging from ~ 20 nm to ~ 200 nm were prepared. All samples were then annealed above their bulk  $T_g$  for several hours before the spectroscopic ellipsometry measurements were performed.

After the samples were annealed, thermal measurements were performed using the variable angle multi-wavelength spectroscopic ellipsometer (J.A. Woollam Co.) equipped with a home made heating stage. Ellipsometric angles,  $\psi$  and  $\Delta$ , were measured with a constant heating rate of  $1^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ . Increments of  $10^\circ\text{C}$  and  $5^\circ\text{C}$  were used for temperatures far away from and close to  $T_g$ , respectively. Each sample was held at a given temperature for approximately 2 minutes before increasing to the next temperature for subsequent measurements. Three data points were collected at each temperature. The temperatures were controlled with an accuracy of  $\pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$ . Film thicknesses were measured by fitting the ellipsometric angles with a Cauchy model (using software provided by the manufacturer).

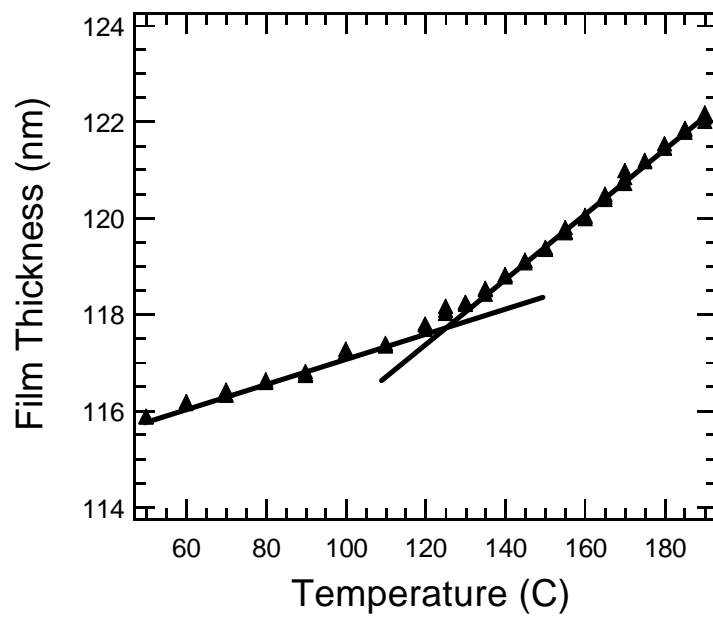


Figure 3-1a: Typical temperature versus film thickness data for films of two different thicknesses for a 50/50 wt% blend of TMPC and PS are shown here. The glass transition is identified as the temperature at which the two lines drawn through the data intersect.

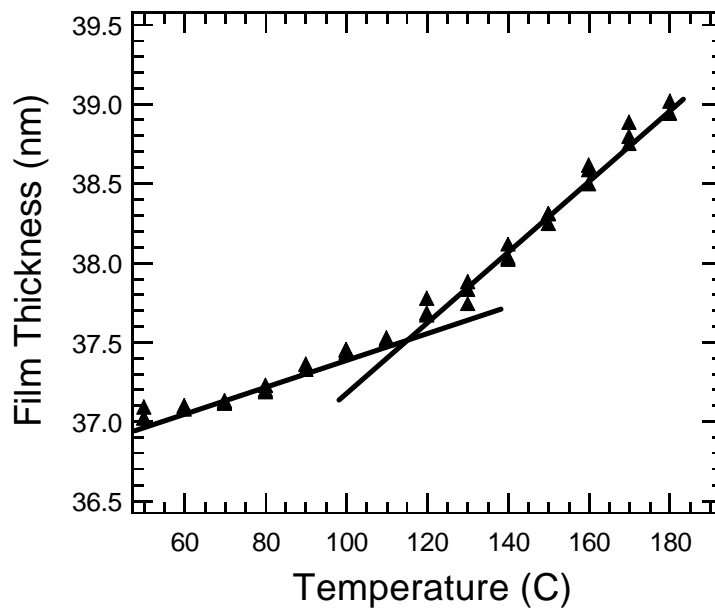


Figure 3-1b: Typical temperature versus film thickness data for films of two different thicknesses for a 50/50 wt% blend of TMPC and PS are shown here. The glass transition is identified as the temperature at which the two lines drawn through the data intersect.

Since the measurements and analysis are standard and will not be repeated in this chapter of the dissertation [1,4,16]. Parts a and b of Figure 3-1 show typical thermal scans of the samples. The data in each graph clearly exhibits distinct glassy and rubbery regions.  $T_g$  was determined by fitting straight lines through the data in the glassy and rubber regions. The temperature at which the lines intersect is identified as the average  $T_g$  of the film.

This is a well characterized system, both in bulk and thin films. It is well known that in this mixture the free surface is enriched with PS and that TMPC resides at the substrate [33-35]. Since we are in the miscible regime, below the LCST, of the mixture, the layers of enrichment are essentially wetting layers and are therefore of order nanometers. We performed angle resolved X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) on samples that were annealed above the  $T_g$ s of the samples (typically at 150<sup>0</sup>C) and the mass fraction of PS in these 50/50 mixtures ranged between 71 and 75%, regardless of the PS molecular weight. Note that in the miscible regime, the surface enrichment is, at best, weakly dependent on temperature and molecular weight. Note that in the temperature range above 240<sup>0</sup>C, thin film of these samples undergo surface directed spinodal decomposition [34-35]. Here macroscopic layers of PS and TMPC develop at the appropriate boundaries and the interfacial segregation would be molecular weight dependent. Our experiments were conducted below this temperature in the miscible regime.

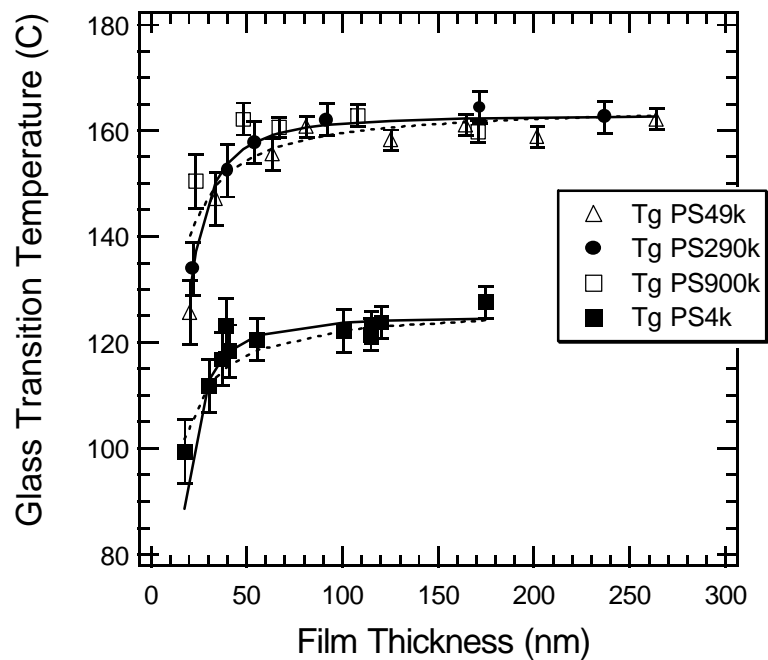


Figure 3-2: The glass transition temperatures are plotted as a function of film thickness for 50/50 weight percent mixtures of TMPC/PS4k, TMPC/PS49k, TMPC/PS290k, and TMPC/PS900k. The solid lines were computed using equation 3.1; the broken lines (----) were calculated using equation 3.2.

### 3.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The thickness dependencies of the glass transition temperatures for various 50:50 wt % mixtures containing PS of varying molecular weights,  $M_{PS}$ , are plotted in Figure 3-2. The glass transition temperatures of the samples with the  $M_{PS} = 4$  kg/mol PS component are approximately 40°C lower than those which include PS molecular weights of  $M_{PS} \geq 49$  kg/mole. We first comment on the latter data set involving PS samples of  $M \geq 49$  kg/mol.  $T_g$  is constant (162°C) for  $h > h_c \sim 50$  nm, whereas it decreases for  $h < h_c$ . Equation 3.1 was used to fit these data, using  $A = 5.4$  nm and  $\delta = 1.93 \pm 0.3$ . These values of  $A$  and  $\delta$  are, within experimental error, equal to those used by Kawana and Jones ( $\delta = 1.1$ ,  $A = 8.6$ ) to describe that PS/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si system [4]. Using equation 3.2, we found that  $\sigma = 1.1 \pm 0.1$  nm, independent of  $M_{PS}$  [16]. Clearly, both predictions provide reasonable descriptions of our data.

The effective  $T_g(\infty)$  of the mixture that includes the  $M_{PS} = 4$  kg/mol PS component is approximately 40°C lower than that of the higher molecular weight PS-component mixtures. This is not surprising since it is well known in miscible blends involving components with different  $T_g$ s, that the  $T_g$  of the mixture resides between the  $T_g$ s of the pure constituents. There are in fact two related reasons that low molecular weight polymers exhibit lower  $T_g$ s than their high molecular weight analogues. One explanation is that the lower  $T_g$  is due to the extra fractional free volume associated with the excess number of chain ends per unit volume in low molecular weight polymers compared to their high molecular weight analogues. This argument leads to the following prediction for the molecular weight dependence of the glass transition,  $T_g(M_n) =$

$T_g(M_n \rightarrow \infty)$  - constant/ $M_n$ , where  $M_n$  is the number average molecular weight [36]. DiMarzio and Gibbs, on the other hand, pointed out a long time ago that it is more useful to think about differences in configurational entropy of the chains [37]. Specifically, the low molecular weight species have lower  $T_g$ 's than their high molecular weight analogues because of the larger configurational entropy associated with packing small chains compared to long chains. They predicted virtually the same dependence for  $T_g$  on  $M_n$ , avoiding ambiguities associated with specifying a reliable and consistent definition of free volume.

The depression in the effective glass transition,  $\Delta T_g(h)$ , of these 50:50 wt % samples is the same, regardless of  $M_{PS}$ . This is illustrated in Figure 3-3, which shows a plot of  $T_g(h)/T_g(\infty)$  versus  $h$ . These data show that regardless of the PS molecular weight,  $\Delta T_g$  remains the same, within experimental error. We now proceed by recalling that this mixture is below the lower critical solution temperature, in the miscible regime, where the surface is enriched with a thin PS wetting layer with mass fraction  $\sim 72\%$ . A wetting layer of TMPC resides at the substrate. The interior of the film is of course a mixture of both components. The data in Figures 3-2 and 3-3 indicate that by changing  $M_{PS}$ , with the accompanying changes in  $T_g$ , mobility, chain size, and associated changes with fractional free volume, do not, at least to first order, affect  $h_c$  and  $\Delta T_g(h)$ . The primary effect of adding the 4 kg/mol PS-component to TMPC is to decrease  $T_g(\infty)$ , as anticipated. In addition, it is noteworthy that the depression in  $T_g$  is comparable to that observed in PS homopolymers. While equations 3.1 and 3.2 describe the trends in our data very well, there are obvious concerns.



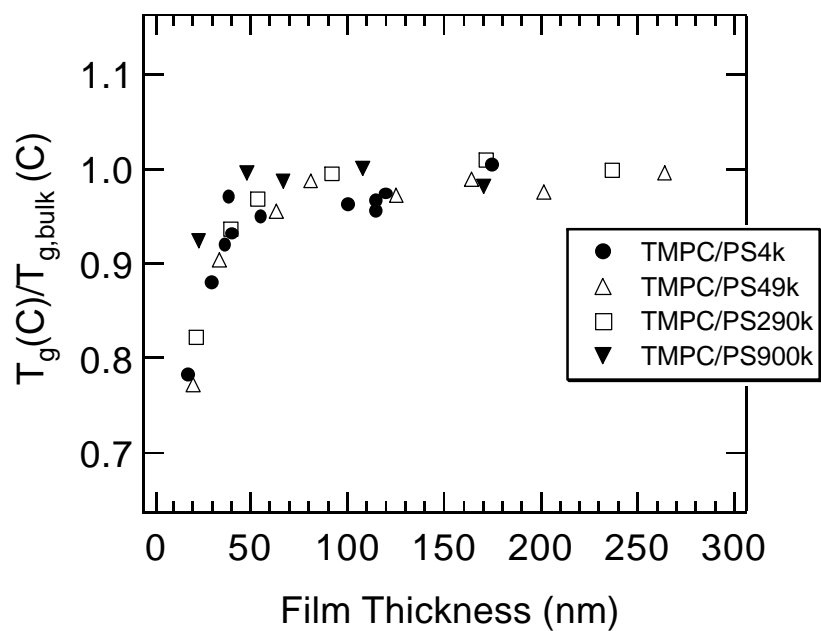


Figure 3-3: The glass transition temperatures, normalized by bulk glass transition temperature,  $T_g(\infty)$ , are plotted as a function of  $h$  for different PS molecular weights.

We begin by pointing out that variations in the composition of the film, from the free surface (enriched with the lower  $T_g$  PS component) and throughout the interior of the film, toward the substrate (enriched with the higher  $T_g$  TMPC-component) should, in principle, reflect local variations in  $T_g$ . It follows that if in fact a sample is composed of layers, with each layer possessing a different  $T_g$ , which increases from the free surface toward the substrate, then one would anticipate different values of  $\Delta T_g$  between the high and low  $M_{PS}$  samples (recall that the  $T_g$  of the  $M_{PS} = 4$  kg/mol sample is  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$  smaller than the other). This was not observed. These observations therefore rule out the notion of such a heterogeneous layered structure. Our observations also rule out the existence of a “liquid-like” layer that would exert an increasing influence on the effective  $T_g$  of the film as the film thickness decreased. Had such been the case, then the  $\Delta T_g$  in PS(4 kg/mol.)-TMPC sample should have been much larger than that observed in the others, and this too was not the case.

Studies of PS-poly(2,6dimethyl-p-phenylene oxide) (PPO) mixtures on  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates reveal that  $\Delta T_g < 0$  over a range of compositions and that the magnitude of  $\Delta T_g$  is comparable to that observed in the It is noteworthy that that what is particularly remarkable is that  $\Delta T_g$  is comparable to that observed in the PS/ $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  system [39]. Clearly the results of the PS-PPO/ $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  and PS-TMPC/ $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  system suggest that  $\Delta T_g$  is comparable for both the homopolymers and polymer-polymer mixtures.

We suggest that  $\Delta T_g(h)$  is determined by the packing of chains over three basic length scales. The first is the distance from the free surface over which the polymer

segment-segment packing (configurational entropy) are modified, the second length-scale is the distance from the substrate over which the polymer segment-segment packing is modified, and the third is the interior of the film which we assume is bulk-like. There is, of course, ample precedence for such assignments [13,31,32,38]. The length scale of the free surface is not believe to be determined by the size of the chains. Near the free surface, the chains will have a larger configurational freedom. Near a hard interface, the configurational freedom is reduced. Tentatively, it appear that  $T_g(\infty)$  is determined largely by the “bulk” properties (packing), whereas  $\Delta T_g$  is influenced by the packing of chains at the interfaces. This is more apparent below.

Curro and McCoy proposed the following model to describe the depression in the glass transition in thin homopolymer films [38]. They initially consider the packing of segments in a bulk material. They then imagine segments in this material are confined within two impenetrable boundaries a distance  $H$  apart. The segment density near the boundaries changes in order to equalize the chemical potentials in the region. They suggested that the depression in the glass transition would be written as

$$\Delta T_g = \frac{1}{\kappa} \frac{dT_g}{dP} \frac{2\Gamma(H)}{H r_{bulk}} \quad (3.3)$$

where  $\kappa$  is the bulk modulus,  $\Gamma(H) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^H [\mathbf{r}(z) - \mathbf{r}_{bulk}] dz$  and  $z$  is the direction normal to the sample surface. In this symmetrically confined system,  $\Delta T_g < 0$  if there is a

depletion of segments at the boundaries and  $\Delta T_g > 0$  if the segment-“wall” interactions are strong in relation to the segment-segment interactions. Using equation-of-state information about some specific homopolymers, they made reasonable estimates of  $\Delta T_g$ . We argue, by extension, that if the system is asymmetric (bounded by a free surface and a substrate), then  $\Delta T_g > 0$  if the monomer-“wall” interactions are sufficiently strong to dominate the depletion of chain segments near the free surface, otherwise  $\Delta T_g < 0$ . It would appear from the above equation that the bulk compressibility ( $\kappa^{-1}$ ) largely determined the order of magnitude of the  $T_g$  depression.

While our sample is not a homopolymer, it is a miscible system in which the dissimilar chains pack intimately and define new free volume, or configurational entropy, characteristic of the system. The packing of chains in the interior plays an important role in determining the effective  $T_{g(\infty)}$  of the mixture. The polymer chains at the boundaries and the nature of their interactions with the boundaries influence  $\Delta T_g$  when the film becomes sufficiently thin.

Our results clearly indicate that the PS component has opposite effect on the effective  $T_g$  compared to the TMPC component. Since  $\Delta T_g > 0$  for TMPC, and  $\Delta T_g < 0$  for PS, there must exist a PS composition at which  $\Delta T_g \sim 0$ . This composition is approximately 10 wt % PS, as shown in Figure 3-4, for the 4 kg/mol. PS component samples. For larger PS weight fractions both  $T_{g(\infty)}$  and  $\Delta T_g$  increase, but the changes in  $T_{g(\infty)}$  are larger than those of  $\Delta T_g$ .

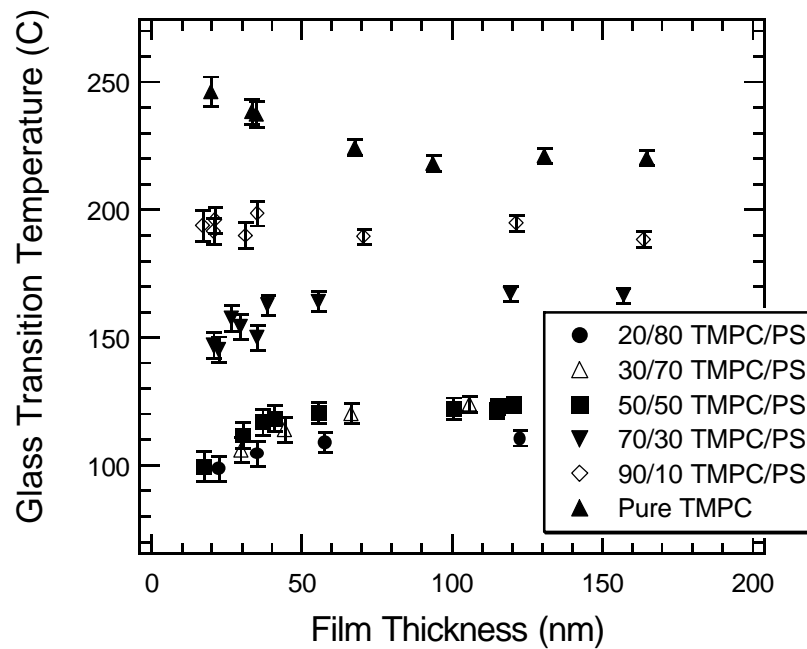


Figure 3-4: The film thickness dependencies of  $T_g$  for the TMPC-PS(4 kg/mol) mixtures are plotted here at different compositions,  $\Delta T_g < 0$  for all mixtures containing more than 10 wt.% PS.

When the PS composition increases beyond 50 wt %,  $\Delta T_g$  becomes roughly independent of composition. These results confirm the fact that  $\Delta T_g(\text{PS-TMPC}) \sim \Delta T_g(\text{PS})$  for PS weight fractions greater than 10%.

### 3.4 CONCLUSIONS

Effects associated with molecular weight and film thickness on the effective glass transition temperature of the TMPC/PS blend system on  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrate were examined using spectroscopic ellipsometry. All experiments were conducted in the miscible range below the LCST, where the free surface is enriched with a PS layer and the substrate with a thin TMPC layer. The PS molecular weight varied by two orders of magnitude, with an accompanying change in the glass transition temperature of the polymer by  $25^\circ\text{C}$ . For the studies conducted on the 50:50 wt. % mixtures,  $T_g$  decreased with decreasing  $h$  and the depression in the glass transition,  $\Delta T_g(h)$ , remained relatively constant regardless of the glass transition temperature of the PS component. The primary influence of the low molecular weight PS component is to decrease  $T_g(\infty)$ , which is expected for miscible blends. The packing of the dissimilar, yet compatible, blend constituents in the interior of the film determine  $T_g(\infty)$  whereas the comparative nature of the relevant monomer-“wall” interactions determines  $\Delta T_g$ .

### 3.5 REFERENCES

- (1) Pham, J. Q. ; Green, P. F. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2002**, 16, 5801.

- (2) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Lee, D-Y.; Zin, W-C. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 311.
- (3) Long, D., Lequeux, F. *Eur. Phys. J. E.* **2001**, 4, 371.
- (4) Keddie, J. L.; Jones, R. A.; Cory, R. A. *Faraday Discuss.* **1994**, 98, 219; Keddie, J. L.; Jones, R. A.; Cory, R. A. *Europhys. Lett.* **1994**, 27, 59.
- (5) Orts, W. J.; van Zanten, J. H.; Wu, W.; Satija, S. K. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1993**, 71, 867.  
Wu, W.; van Zanten, J. H.; Orts, W. J. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 771.
- (6) Wallace, W.E.; van Zanten, J. H.; Wu, W. *Phys. Rev. E* **1995**, 52, R3329.
- (7) van Zanten, J. H.; Wallace, W. E.; Wu, W. *Phys. Rev. E* **1996**, 53, R 2053.
- (8) Efremow, M. Y.; Warren, J. T.; Olson, E. A.; Zhang, M.; Kwan, A. T.; Allen, L. H. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 1481.
- (9) Forrest, J. A.; Dalnoki-Veress, K.; Stevens, J. R.; Dutcher, J. R. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1996**, 77, 2002.
- (10) Forrest, J. A.; Dalnoki-Veress, K. *Advances in Colloid and Interface Science* **2001**, 94, 167.
- (11) Forrest, J. A.; Mattsson, J. *Phys. Rev. E* **2000**, 61, R53; Mattsson, J.; Forrest, J. A.; Borjesson, L. *Phys. Rev. E* **2000**, 62, 5187.
- (12) Xie, L.; DeMaggio, G. B.; Frieze, W. E.; DeVries, J.; Gidley, D. W.; Hristov, H. A.; Yee, A. F. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1995**, 74, 4947.
- (13) Torres, J. A.; Nealy, P. F.; de Pablo, J. J. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2000**, 85, 3221.
- (14) Jain, T. S.; de Pablo, J. J. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 2167.
- (15) Kawana, S.; Jones, R. A. *Phys. Rev. E* **2001**, 63, 21501.
- (16) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Zin, W-C. *Langmuir* **2001**, 17, 2703; Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Zin, W-C. *Langmuir* **2000**, 16, 4064.

- (17) DeMaggio, G. B.; Frieze, W. E.; Gidley, D. W.; Hristov, H. A.; Yee, A. F. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1997**, 78, 1524.
- (18) Grohens, Y.; Brogly, M.; Labbe, C.; David, M. –O.; Schultz, J. *Langmuir* **1998**, 14, 2929.
- (19) Fukao, K.; Miyamoto, Y. *Europhys. Lett.* **1999**, 46, 649.
- (20) Kleidciter, G.; Prucker, O.; Bock, H.; Frank, C.; Lechner, M.; Knoll, W. *Macromol. Symp.* **1999**, 145, 95.
- (21) Tsui, O. K. C.; Zhang, H. F. *Macromolecules* **2001**, 34, 9139.
- (22) Fryer, S. D.; Nealey, F. P.; de Pablo, J. J. *Macromolecules* **2000**, 33, 6439.
- (23) Fryer, S. D.; Peters, D. R.; Kim, J. E.; Tomaszewski, E. J.; de Pablo, J. J.; Nealey, F. P.; White, C. C.; Wu, W-L. *Macromolecules* **2001**, 34, 5627.
- (24) Tate, S. R.; Fryer, S. D.; Pasqualini, S.; Montague, F. M.; de Pablo, J. J.; Nealey, F. P. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2001**, 115, 9982.
- (25) Doruker, P.; Mattice, L. W.; *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 194.
- (26) Soles, C. L.; Douglas, F. J.; Wu, W. –I.; Dimeo, R. M. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2002**, 88, 037401-1.
- (27) de Gennes, P. G. *Euro. Phys. J. E* **2000**, 2, 201.
- (28) Wallace, W.E., Fischer, D.A., Efimenko, K., Wu, Wen-Li and Genzer, J., *Macromolecules* **2001**, 34, 5081.
- (29) Kajiyama, T.; Tanaka, K.; Takahara, A. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 3482; Tanaka, K.; Taura, A.; Ge, S-R.; Takahara, A.; Kajiyama, T. *Macromolecules* **1996**, 29, 3040; Tanaka, K.; Takahara, A.; Kajiyama, T. *Macromolecules* **1997**, 30, 6626; Kajiyama, T.; Tanaka, K.; Takahara, A. *Macromolecules* **1997**, 30, 280; Kajiyama,



- T.; Tanaka, K.; Satomi, N.; Takahara, A. *Macromolecules* **1998**, 31, 5150; Tanaka, K.; Jiang, X.; Nakamura, K.; Takahara, A.; Kajiyama, T.; Ishizone, T.; Hirao, A.; Nakaham; S. *Macromolecules* **1998**, 31, 5150; Tanaka, K.; Takahara; A.; Kajiyama, T. *Macromolecules* **1998**, 31, 863.
- (30) Xie, F.; Zhang, H. F.; Lee, F. K.; Du, B.; Tsui, O. K.; Yokoe, Y.; Tanaka, K.; Takahara, A.; Kajiyama, T.; He, T. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 1491.
- (31) Mansfield, K. F.; Theodorou, D. N. *Macromolecules* **1991**, 24, 6283.
- (32) Baschnagel, J.; Binder, K. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 6808.
- (33) Kim, E.; Krausch, G.; Kramer, E. J.; Osby, J. O. *Macromolecules* **1994**, 27, 5927.
- (34) Kim, E.; Kramer, E. J.; Osby, J. O. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 1979.
- (35) Kim, E.; Kramer, E. J.; Osby, J. O.; Walsh, D. J. J. *Poly. Science part B: Poly. Phys.* **1995**, 33, 467.
- (36) Ferry, J. D. *Viscoelastic Properties of Polymers*, Wiley, NY **1980**.
- (37) Gibbs, J.H. and DiMarzio, E.A., *J. Chem. Phys.* **1958**, 28, 373; DiMarzio, E. A.; Gibbs, J.H. *J. Polym. Sci.* 1959, 40, 121; DiMarzio, E.A.; Gibbs, J. H. *J. Polym. Sci.* 1963, A1, 1417.
- (38) McCoy, J. D.;Curro, J. D. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2002**, 116, 9154.
- (39) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Lee, D.-Y.; Zin, W.-C. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 311.

## Chapter 4: Glass Transition of Polymer/Single-Walled Carbon Nanotube Composite Films

Preprint with permission from:

Pham, J. Q.; Mitchell, C. A.; Bahr, J. L.; Tour, J. M.; Krishnamoorti, R.; Green, P. F. *J. Poly. Sci. Part B: Poly. Phys.* **2003**, 41, 3339-3345. Copyright 2003 Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

The glass transition temperatures ( $T_g$ 's) of nanocomposites of polystyrene (PS) and single walled carbon nanotubes (SWNTs) were measured in the bulk and in thin films using differential scanning calorimetry and spectroscopic ellipsometry, respectively. The bulk  $T_g$  of the nanocomposites is increased by approximately 3 °C and became much broader than that of PS. For the nanocomposite films thinner than 45 nm, the  $T_g$  decreased with decreasing film thickness [i.e.,  $\Delta T_g(\text{nano}) < 0$ ]. This phenomenon also occurs in thin PS films, the magnitude of the depression in PS [ $\Delta T_g(\text{PS})$ ] being somewhat larger. The film thickness dependence and the differences in magnitude of  $\Delta T_g$  in the two systems were examined in light of current theory and a quantitative comparison was made.

## 4.1 INTRODUCTION

Polymer thin films play an important role in many technologies, including lubricating layers and active material components in a range of microelectronic devices and sensors. Thin film composites of polymers with single-walled carbon nanotubes (SWNTs) offer even more interesting opportunities because of unusual properties that the nanotubes possess, such as exceptionally high Young's moduli and unusual electrical conductivity characteristics [1]. The properties of such composites could potentially be tailored for applications in which polymers may be desirable but lack the requisite properties.

The properties of polymer films in the thickness range of nanometers to tens of nanometers often differ substantially from the intrinsic bulk behavior [2-7]. Changes are generally due to the increasing influence of entropic effects (confinement and chain packing) and interfacial interactions on the properties of the films with decreasing thickness. Herewith, properties such as the glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ), viscosity, and translational chain diffusion exhibit film thickness ( $h$ ) dependence [8-44]. Confinement and interfacial interactions also change the phase behavior of blends and block copolymers. In thin film A/B mixtures, for example, phase separation temperatures and the symmetry of phase diagrams often differ from bulk analogues [2]. In block copolymers, these effects are responsible for thickness dependent order-disorder transition temperatures in thin films [2,4,8]. This chapter of the dissertation discusses the influence of  $h$  constraints on the  $T_g$  of thin films nanocomposites of polystyrene (PS) and SWNTs.

In polymers, the variations of  $T_g$  with  $h$  are sensitive to the nature of the interactions of the polymer chains with the interfacial constraints (substrate or free surface) on the film and to the tacticity of the polymer [9,10,27,31,32]. The earliest measurements of the glass transition of thin films were performed by Keddie et al. [13,14] on thin PS films on silicon substrates on which a native oxide layer resided. Keddie et al. showed that  $T_g$  decreased with decreasing film thickness when the film was less than approximately 45 nm [13]. Subsequent studies of PS by other groups confirm the general observations of a decreasing  $T_g$  with decreasing film thickness  $h$  as long as the substrate remained nominally the same in each experiment. In freely standing PS films, the decrease in  $T_g$  is more significant, as shown by Brillouin scattering measurements [20-24]. Studies were also performed on low molecular weight PS samples whose bulk  $T_g$ s were as much as 30 degrees lower than that of the high molecular weight bulk PS, with  $T_g = 100$  °C. These measurements reveal that the critical  $h$  at which the  $T_g$  decreases is virtually identical to that of the high molecular weight analogues, and this suggests that the depression ( $\Delta T_g < 0$ ) is not strictly a confinement effect in which  $h/R_g$  ( $R_g$  is the radius of gyration of the polymer) is the relevant parameter. In the poly(vinyl pyridine) (PVP)-SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si, poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA)-SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si and tetramethyl bisphenol polycarbonate (TMPC)/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si systems, the opposite trends,  $T_g$  increasing with decreasing  $h$  (i.e.  $\Delta T_g > 0$ ), has been documented [9,13,14,17,18,27,34]. Unlike the PS-SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si system, the PVP, TMPC and PMMA segments exhibit particularly strong interactions with the substrate (hydrogen bonding). There is evidence that the tacticity of the polymer also influences the thickness

dependence of  $T_g$ . These results together suggest that the effective glass transition is influenced by an interplay between the polymer segment-segment interactions and the segment-“wall” (free surface or substrate) interactions.

However, in the case of organic – inorganic nanocomposites, the mobility of chains and  $T_g$  are significantly affected by the confinement and strength of polymer – surface interactions [45,46]. In particular, the effects of a confining surface on these effects and other polymer phase transitions are particularly exaggerated because of the extremely large surface to volume afforded by the nanoparticles (in some cases approaching 800 – 1000 m<sup>2</sup>/g [46,47]).

We are interested in the glass transition of composites of PS and SWNTs both in the bulk and in thin films. Until recently a major impediment toward the development of such composites is availability of appropriately functionalized SWNTs to ensure increased compatibility with polymers. Without appropriate functionalization, the nanotubes aggregate to form bundles and ropes throughout a sample. Recently Mitchell et al. [48] succeeded in preparing nanocomposites of SWNTs with 4-(10-hydroxydecyl) benzoate moieties covalently linked to the nanotubes to ensure functionality. As little as 1% SWNT was found to form a percolated network in the polymer host, and this clearly revealed the strength of the polymer-SWNT(functionalized) interactions. In A-B, polymer-polymer, thin film mixtures in which there exists favorable A-B interactions, the effective  $T_g$  of the film varies with composition and with film thickness, as shown by Pham and Green [9,10]. In this chapter of the dissertation, we are specifically interested in the manner in which the polymer-SWNT interactions influence the effective glass transition in these composites.

## 4.2 EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

The polystyrene used in this study was obtained from Polymer Source and used as obtained. The molecular weight was determined by gel permeation chromatography; the weight average molecular weight ( $M_w$ ) was 152,000 Da, and the polydispersity ratio (weight-average molecular weight/number-average molecular weight) was less than 1.05. 4-(10-Hydroxydecyl) benzoate modified SWNTs (with one functional group every 66 carbon units) were prepared by the in-situ generation and reaction of the 4-(10-hydroxydecyl) aminobenzoate as described in previous publications [48-51]. Composites were prepared by solution mixing appropriate quantities of pristine SWNTs or the organically modified SWNTs and the polymer in toluene at room temperature. The solutions were dried extensively at room temperature and subsequently annealed at 180 °C in a vacuum oven for approximately 24 h to remove any remaining solvent. Bulk differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) measurements were performed using a Perkin Elmer Pyris 1 DSC with subambient capability. The samples were treated at approximately 175<sup>0</sup>C for 16 hours before the DSC measurements. Measurements were performed at three different heating rates and data from heats after a programmed heat to the melt state and controlled cooling to the vitrified state were used. Bulk DSC measurements were conducted at heating rates of 5, 10 and 20 °C/min and the data are plotted in Figure 4-1. All reported data were obtained from a second heating cycle. Cooling always leads to hysteresis and is therefore not as reliable as heating.

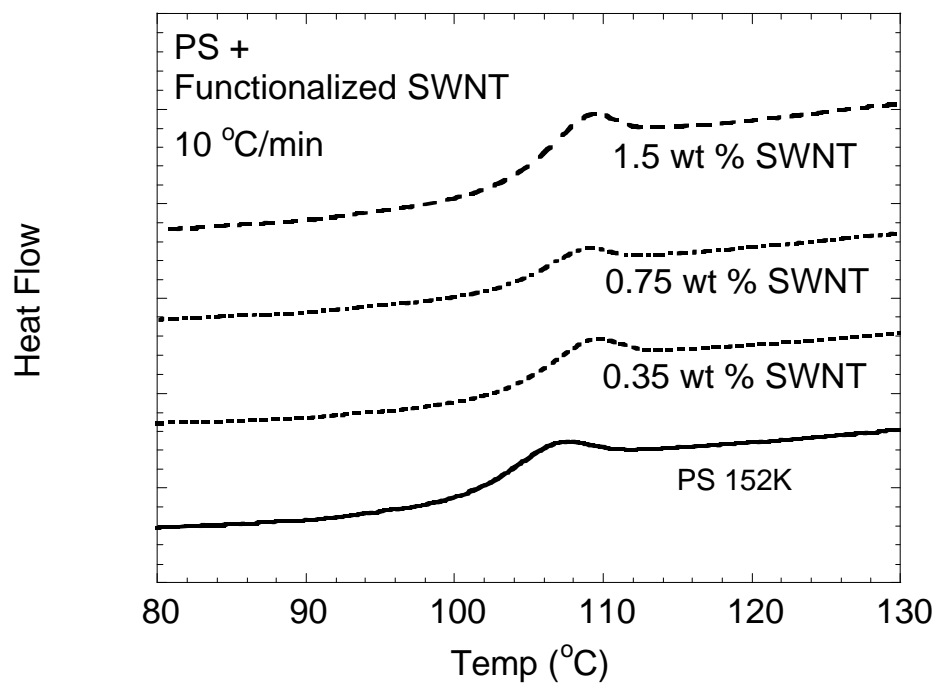


Figure 4-1: Plots of bulk DSC measurements conducted at heating rates of 5, 10 and 20 °C/min.

The  $T_g$ 's were determined by locating the midpoint of the  $\Delta C_p$  (the heat capacity change in the vicinity of  $T_g$ ) function and the width assigned by the end-points of the  $\Delta C_p$  function. The  $T_g$ 's estimated by the mid-point of the jump in heat capacity for the three heating rates were linearly extrapolated to zero heating rates and those  $T_g$  values are plotted in Figure 4-2 for different weight percentages of SWNT.

The determination of the thin film  $T_g$ 's is now examined. Samples of PS and of PS-SWNTs with varying thickness were prepared for ellipsometric measurements. A native  $\text{SiO}_x$  layer 2 nm thick, determined using spectroscopic ellipsometry, resided on the silicon substrate. By adjustment of the spin rates and the solution concentrations, thin films ranging from approximately 20 nm to approximately 200 nm were prepared. The films were annealed at  $30^\circ\text{C}$  above  $T_g$  in vacuum for 2 h for the removal of the residual solvent and thermal history before the ellipsometric measurements.

After the samples were annealed, thermal measurements were performed with a variable angle multi-wavelength ellipsometer (J.A. Woollam Co.) equipped with a homemade heating stage. Ellipsometric angles ( $\psi$  and  $\Delta$ ) were measured at different temperatures. The sample was held at a given temperature for approximately 2 min for each measurement. Three measurements were taken at each temperature. During our experiments, we increased the temperature at a constant heating rate of  $1^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ . The temperatures were controlled with an accuracy of  $\pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$ . In these films, within experimental error, comparable  $T_g$ 's were observed for both cooling and heating. We chose to extract data from the heating cycle because those results were more consistently reliable.



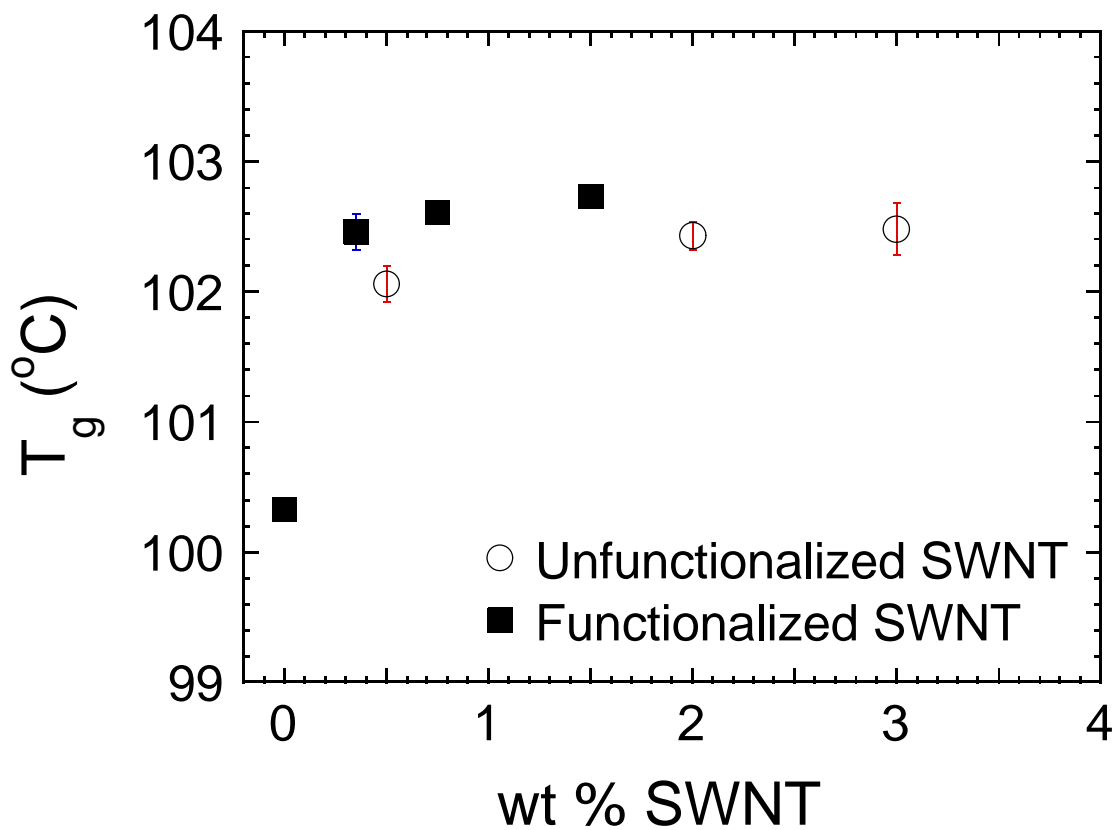


Figure 4-2: The  $T_g$ 's estimated by the mid-point of the jump in heat capacity for the three heating rates were linearly extrapolated to zero heating rates. The error bars are smaller than the symbol when they are not indicated.

In fact, Dalnoki-Veress and coworkers [20,21] used ellipsometry to examine the effects of heating and cooling cycles and found, within experimental error, no difference in the values. The  $h$  values were determined by fitting the ellipsometric angles with a Cauchy model (using software provided by the manufacturer). Because the measurements and analysis were standard we will not repeat the details here. Figures 4-3a and 4-3b show typical thermal scans of two samples, PS and a nanocomposite thin film, of comparable thickness. Each plot clearly exhibits distinct glassy and rubbery regions.  $T_g$  was determined by fitting straight lines through the data obtained from the glassy and rubber regions. The temperature at which these lines intersect was identified as the  $T_g$  of the film. The margin of error in our determination of  $T_g$  was less than  $\pm 3$  °C.

### 4.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The nanocomposites in the bulk exhibit higher  $T_g$ 's than the pure PS samples. Moreover,  $T_g$ 's for the nanocomposites are virtually independent of the nanotube loading for both the functionalized and unfunctionalized nanotube composites, as illustrated in Figure 4-2. In fact, at the lower heating rates, the width of the glass transition, as measured from the calorimetric heat flow, is considerably broader for the SWNT nanocomposites than for the unfilled polymer. The onset of  $T_g$  was only slightly different from that of the PS (for the un-functionalized nanotubes the deviation was less than 0.5 °C and for the functionalized nanotubes the deviation was less than 1°C). The end point of the transition, on the other hand, increased appreciably (as much as 4 - 5°C higher than that of PS). This leads to the broadening.

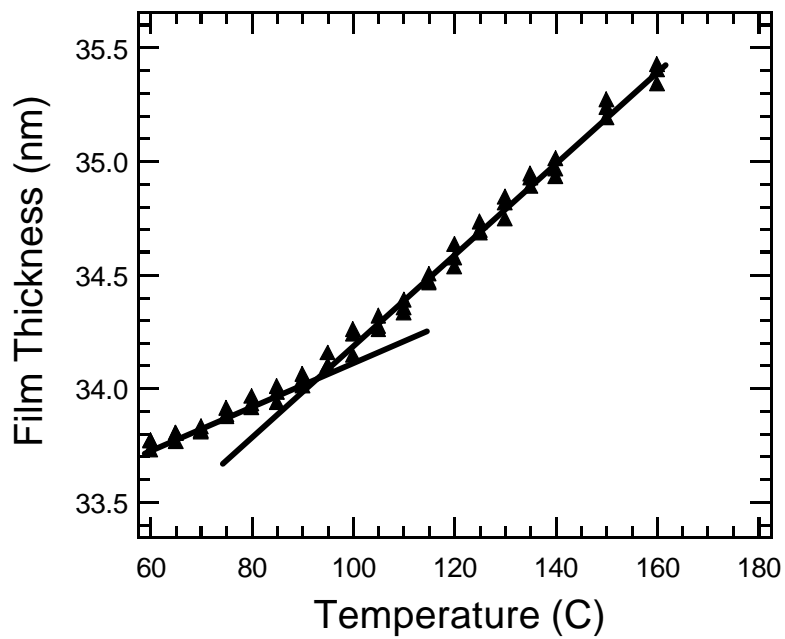


Figure 4-3a:  $h$  plotted as a function of temperature for a PS film. The glass transition is identified at the intersection of the two lines.

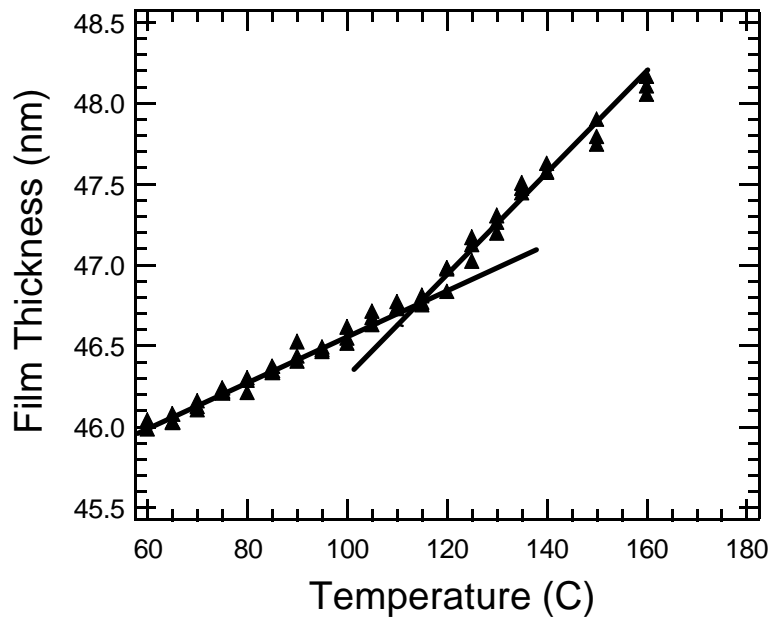


Figure 4-3b:  $h$  plotted as a function of temperature for PS-SWNT (functionalized 0.75%) film. The glass transition is identified at the intersection of the two lines.

The uncertainties are less than 0.1°C and the reproducibility is less than 0.2 °C. For the cooling rate of 10°C /min, the transition upon cooling is broader than that upon heating. Wei et al., [52] through molecular dynamics simulations, showed that the density of composites is larger than that of a pure polymer and that there is an associated increase in the glass transition. The increase in  $T_g$ , they argued, is due to the fact that the dynamics of the polymer chains are reduced in composites. One could argue further that a broader distribution of dynamical processes should characterize the behavior of the composites. The structure of the composites should be heterogeneous on a small scale comparable to the chain dimensions; chains locally in contact with the SWNTs would exhibit slower dynamics than chains in an environment rich with polymer chains. Lodge and McLeish [53] argued that variations in local composition do in fact lead to a broadening of the glass transition.

The  $T_g$  values are plotted as a function of film thickness for a series of samples [PS, PS-SWNT(0.75 wt.% functionalized), and PS-SWNT(3 wt.% unfunctionalized)] in Figure 4-4. In the PS-SWNT (functionalized) thin films,  $T_g$  exhibits a small decrease with  $h$  when  $h$  is smaller than approximately 45 nm. This decrease ( $\Delta T_g < 0$ ), although similar to that exhibited by PS on the same  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates, is appreciably smaller [ $\Delta T_g(\text{PS}) > \Delta T_g(\text{PS-nano})$ ]. We discuss these findings later.

Glass-forming liquids exhibit increasingly slow dynamics with decreasing temperature. At  $T_g$ , the dynamics become effectively frozen on the time-scale of the experiment.

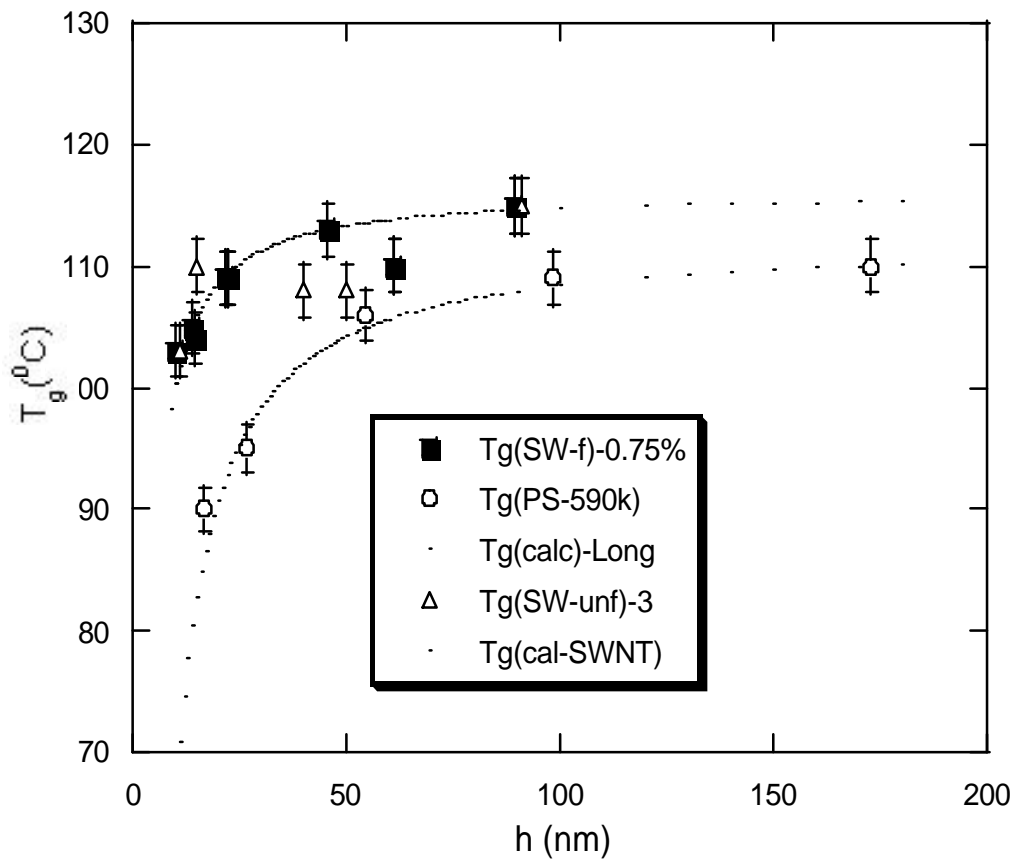


Figure 4-4:  $h$  dependence of  $T_g$  for different thin films: PS, PS-SWNT(functionalized) and PS-SWNT(unfunctionalized)

In glass forming systems, the timescale associated with the temperature,  $T$ , dependence of the dynamics is well described by the Vogel-Fulcher equation:

$$\ln \tau \propto \ln \eta \propto \frac{A}{(T - T_{\infty})} \quad (4.1)$$

Where  $\tau$  is the relaxation time and  $\eta$  is the viscosity;  $A$  and  $T_{\infty}$  are constants.

The viscosity of  $10^{13}$  P (corresponding to a time-scale of ca.100 s) is often taken as the definition of  $T_g$  in non-polymeric glass-forming systems. Other signatures of  $T_g$  are associated with the discontinuities in the heat capacity (DSC), the thermal expansion (ellipsometry) or dielectric properties.

Although currently there is no currently universally accepted explanation of change in  $T_g$  with decreasing  $h$ , a number of points are worth considering. An empirical equation first proposed by Keddie et al. [13,14]

$$T_g = T_{g(\infty)} [1 - (A/h)^{\delta}] \quad (4.2)$$

has been used to describe the data. In this equation,  $T_{g(\infty)}$  is the glass transition temperature at large  $h$ ,  $\delta$  indicates of the degree to which  $T_g$  decreases with decreasing film thickness and  $A$  is a length scale. Values of  $\delta=1.1$  and  $A=8.3$  nm were used by Kwawna and Jones [30] to describe the PS data.

The decrease in  $T_g$ , predicted by this empirical equation, is rationalized as follows. A high mobility (liquid-like) layer of polymer resides at the free surface. This high-mobility surface layer exerts an increasingly larger influence on the average  $T_g$  of the film, with increasing temperature, leading to the observed decrease in  $T_g$ . It is well documented that the packing density of chain segments near the free surface is lower than that of the interior of the film [26, 39-41]. The lower configurational freedom of chains at the free surface could be associated with the enhanced dynamics of chain segments at the free surface. We will return to this point later.

A very similar equation was derived by Long and Lequeux [12] with a percolation, free volume-based, model. They proposed that domains of fast and of slowly relaxing clusters of particles comprise the sample (dynamic heterogeneity) and that percolation of the slow domains denotes the onset of the  $T_g$ . Upon cooling, since the percolation threshold in three dimensions is lower than in two dimensions, the glass transition should in principle occur at a lower temperature in sufficiently thin films than in the bulk. The predicted dependence is

$$T_g(h) = T_g \left[ 1 - \beta \left( \frac{a}{h} \right)^{1/\nu_3} \right] \quad (4.3)$$

where  $\beta$  is a function of size of the cluster of particles that constitute a slow domain and of the fraction of percolated domains in three dimensions. It is approximately unity, as suggested.  $a$  is a monomer size and  $\nu_3$  is the critical exponent for percolation in three dimensions ( $1/\nu_3 \approx 1.1$ ). They pointed out that the parameters used in equation 4.3 are in



agreement with those used to describe the PS data. We note, in passing, that the theory also discusses the case in which  $\Delta T_g$  is greater than 0. They showed that the effect of the strong polymer-substrate interactions is to increase the effective number of slow domains in the sample; hence the effective temperature at which percolation occurs is much higher than that for bulk analogues.

The importance of the polymer-polymer (and polymer – nanoparticle) interactions with respect to the polymer-interface (substrate and free surface) interactions is very clear from the following. Ellipsometric measurements were conducted on the miscible blend of PS and TMPC [9,10]. In TMPC, as mentioned previously, the glass transition increased with decreasing film thickness for  $h < 45$  nm. The free surface region had an excess of PS (wetting layer), whereas an excess of TMPC (wetting layer) resided at the substrate. Bearing in mind that  $\Delta T_g$  was greater than 0 in the TMPC/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si system, we note that as little as 10 wt % PS in the PS/TMPC mixture resulted in a decrease in  $T_g$  with decreasing  $h$  for  $h < 45$  nm, and  $\Delta T_g$  changed from positive to negative. The magnitude of  $\Delta T_g$  increased toward that of pure PS with increasing PS content. When the PS molecular weight was varied by orders of magnitude, at a fixed composition, with an accompanying change in  $T_g$  by up to 30°, the turn over still occurred at  $h \sim 45$  nm, and the magnitude of  $\Delta T_g$  remained constant (within the experimental error). The primary effect of adding low molecular weight PS was to reduce  $T_{g(\infty)}$ . These results have two implications. We note in passing that they rule out the suggestion that implicates a liquid-like surface layer as responsible for the glass transition depression. More importantly, they show the influence of the TMPC-PS interactions on the film thickness dependence of the glass transition.

An alternative model that accounts for the  $T_g$  depression was developed by Curro and McCoy [29]. They suggested that the depression of the glass transition in thin homopolymer films could be explained by the difference between the average density of the film ( $\rho_{film}$ ) and that of the bulk ( $\rho_{bulk}$ ):

$$\Delta T_g = \frac{1}{\kappa_T} \frac{dT_g}{dP} (\mathbf{r}_{film} - \mathbf{r}_{bulk}) \quad (4.4)$$

where  $\kappa_T$  is the bulk modulus. In this symmetrically confined system,  $\Delta T_g$  is less than 0 if there is a depletion of segments at the boundaries, and  $\Delta T_g$  is greater than 0 if the segment-wall interactions are strong in comparison with the segment-segment interactions [26,39-41]. Scattering experiments and simulations indicate that segmental packing densities near substrates are higher than the bulk and packing densities near the free surface are lower. Using equation-of-state information about some specific homopolymers polymers, they made reasonable estimates of  $\Delta T_g$ . We argue, by extension, that if the system is asymmetric (bounded by a free surface and a substrate), then  $\Delta T_g$  is greater than 0 if the monomer-wall interactions are sufficiently strong to dominate the depletion of chain segments near the free surface; otherwise  $\Delta T_g$  is less than 0.

We have shown that the changes of the glass transition can be rationalized in terms of the both static and dynamic pictures. We first consider the static picture. That

$\Delta T_g(\text{PS})$  is greater than  $\Delta T_g(\text{PS-nano})$  suggests that the average density of the film is larger than that of the bulk PS film of identical thickness. This is not unreasonable because in the filled system the PS chains have a strong and favorable interaction with the nanotubes. In fact even in the absence of a particularly favorable interaction, their contact with a hard surface will tend to increase the local segment density profile. Bulk DSC measurements of the films were performed, and the  $T_g$  of the PS-nanotube systems were approximately 2-3°C higher. If the effect of the interactions of the PS with the nanotubes is to increase the chain segmental density, with a resultant in an increase in configurational entropy, then an increase in  $T_g$  will be anticipated and observed. In thin films, the  $T_g$ 's of the nanocomposite are higher than that of PS. (The fact that  $T_g$  is a few degrees different from the DSC data is not too surprising considering the differences in the techniques and the fact that the chain configurations might be slightly perturbed in the thin films in relation to the bulk). The suppression of the large drop in  $T_g$  at small values of  $h$  in the nanocomposite films is an indication of the influence of the PS-SWNT interactions with respect to the polymer-substrate and polymer-free surface interactions.

Further insights into this phenomenon can be derived by considering the percolation model. In this case, the suppression could be related to the fact that the fraction of slow domains is effectively higher in the PS-SWNT samples. The rheological measurements show that these composites exhibit somewhat higher elasticity, corresponding to a higher viscosity and hence longer relaxation times (slower dynamics) associated with chain dynamics [48].

We now compare the predictions of equation 4.3 with our data. It is clear from Figure 4-4 that equation 4.3 provides an adequate description of our data. We use  $a = 0.6$

nm,  $v_3 = 1.1$  and  $\beta = 9$  to describe the PS data. A value of  $\beta = 3$  was used to describe the PS-SWNT data. A smaller value of  $\beta$  indicates the average cluster size of the slow domain is large in the PS-SWNT system, which is to be expected. Our experiments using the unfunctionalized nanotubes reveal that to get the same changes in  $T_g$ , we must use a quantity of unfunctionalized nanotubes four times as large. This illustrates the influence of functionalization on  $T_g$ . Future experiments should involve experiments using different concentrations of functionalized SWNTs with functionalization (as a fraction of nanotube carbon concentration) systematically varied.

#### 4.4 CONCLUSIONS

We examined the  $T_g$ 's of mixtures of polystyrene (PS) with functionalized SWNTs using spectroscopic ellipsometry. The bulk  $T_g$ , as determined by DSC, of the PS-SWNT composite is 3°C higher than that of PS. The  $T_g$ 's of thin films of these nanocomposites have also been examined and shown to decrease with  $h$  when  $h$  is less than approximately 45 nm. This thickness dependence is similar to that of PS, except that in PS the depression is more pronounced, as indicated by the comparison of the theoretical fit to the data. This behavior has been rationalized in terms of two theories of the glass transition in thin films. Our results emphasize the influence on polymer-SWNT interactions versus polymer-interface (free surface and substrate) interactions on the  $T_g$  of the film.

#### 4.5 REFERENCES

- (1) Saito, R., Dresselhaus, G., Dresselhaus, M. S., “*Physical Properties of Nanotubes*”, Imperial College Press, London **1998**.
- (2) Binder, K. *Advances in Polymer Sci.* **1999**, 138, 1
- (3) Green, P. F.; Limary, R. *Adv. Coll. Int. Sci.* **2001**, 94, 53.
- (4) Binder, K. *Adv. Polymer Sci.* 1994, 112, 181.
- (5) Russell, T. P. *Current Opinion in Colloid and Interface Science* **1996**, 1, 107.
- (6) Fasolka, M. J.; Mayes, A. M. *Ann. Rev. Mater. Res.* **2001**, 31, 323.
- (7) Masson, J.L.; Green, P. F. *Phys. Rev. E.* **2002**, 65, 031806
- (8) Limary, R.; Green, P. F.; Shull, K. *Eur. Phys. J. E.* **2002**, 8, 103.
- (9) Pham, J. Q.; Green, P. F. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2002**, 16, 5801.
- (10) Pham, J.; Green, P. F. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 1665.
- (11) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Lee, D-Y.; Zin, W-C. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 311.
- (12) Long, D., Lequeux, F. *Eur. Phys. J. E.* **2001**, 4, 371.
- (13) Keddie, J. L.; Jones, R. A.; Cory, R. A. *Faraday Discuss.* **1994**, 98, 219.
- (14) Keddie, J. L.; Jones, R. A.; Cory, R. A. *Europhys. Lett.* **1994**, 27, 59.
- (15) Orts, W. J.; van Zanten, J. H.; Wu, W.; Satija, S. K. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1993**, 71, 867.
- (16) Wu, W.; van Zanten, J. H.; Orts, W. J. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 771.
- (17) Wallace, W.E.; van Zanten, J. H.; Wu, W. *Phys. Rev. E* **1995**, 52, R3329.
- (18) van Zanten, J. H.; Wallace, W. E.; Wu, W. *Phys. Rev. E* **1996**, 53, R 2053.
- (19) Efremow, M. Y.; Warren, J. T.; Olson, E. A.; Zhang, M.; Kwan, A. T.; Allen, L. H. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 1481.

- (20) Forrest, J. A.; Dalnoki-Veress, K.; Stevens, J. R.; Dutcher, J. R. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1996**, 77, 2002.
- (21) Forrest, J. A.; Dalnoki-Veress, K. *Advances in Colloid and Interface Science* **2001**, 94, 167.
- (22) Forrest, J. A.; Dalnoki-Veress, K. *Advances in Colloid and Interface Science* **2001**, 94, 167.
- (23) Forrest, J. A.; Mattsson, J. *Phys. Rev. E* **2000**, 61, R53.
- (24) Mattsson, J.; Forrest, J. A.; Borjesson, L. *Phys. Rev. E* **2000**, 62, 5187.
- (25) Xie, L.; DeMaggio, G. B.; Frieze, W. E.; DeVries, J.; Gidley, D. W.; Hristov, H. A.; Yee, A. F. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1995**, 74, 4947.
- (26) Binder, K.; Baschnagel, J.; Bennemann, C.; Paul, W. *J. Phys. Condens. Matter* **1999**, 11, A47
- (27) Grohens, Y.; Hamon, L.; Soldera, A.; Holl, Y. *Eur. Phys. J. E.* **2002**, 8, 217.
- (28) Torres, J. A.; Nealy, P. F.; de Pablo, J. J. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2000**, 85, 3221.
- (29) McCoy, J. D.;Curro, J. G. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2002**, 116, 9154.
- (30) Kawana, S.; Jones, R. A. *Phys. Rev. E* **2001**, 63, 21501.
- (31) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Zin, W-C. *Langmuir* **2001**, 17, 2703
- (32) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Zin, W-C. *Langmuir* **2000**, 16, 4064.
- (33) DeMaggio, G. B.; Frieze, W. E.; Gidley, D. W.; Hristov, H. A.; Yee, A. F. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1997**, 78, 1524.
- (34) Grohens, Y.; Brogly, M.; Labbe, C.; David, M. -O.; Schultz, J. *Langmuir* **1998**, 14, 2929.
- (35) Tsui, O. K. C.; Zhang, H. F. *Macromolecules* **2001**, 34, 9139.

- (36) Fryer, S. D.; Nealey, F. P.; de Pablo, J. J. *Macromolecules* **2000**, 33, 6439.
- (37) Fryer, S. D.; Peters, D. R.; Kim, J. E.; Tomaszewski, E. J.; de Pablo, J. J.; Nealey, F. P.; White, C. C.; Wu, W-L. *Macromolecules* **2001**, 34, 5627.
- (38) Tate, S. R.; Fryer, S. D.; Pasqualini, S.; Montague, F. M.; de Pablo, J. J.; Nealey, F. P. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2001**, 115, 9982.
- (39) Doruker, P.; Mattice, L. W.; *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 194.
- (40) Mansfield, K. F.; Theodorou, D. N. *Macromolecules* **1991**, 24, 6283.
- (41) Baschnagel, J.; Binder, K. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 6808.
- (42) de Gennes, P. G. *Euro. Phys. J. E* **2000**, 2, 201.
- (43) Wallace, W.E., Fischer, D.A., Efimenko, K., Wu, Wen-Li and Genzer, J., *Macromolecules* **2001**, 34, 5081.
- (44) Tanaka, K.; Takahara, A.; Kajiyama, T. *Macromolecules* **1998**, 31, 863.
- (45) Zax DB, Yang DK, Santos RA, Hegemann H, Giannelis EP, Manias E, *J. Chem. Phys.* **2000**, 112, 2945.
- (46) Giannelis EP, Krishnamoorti R, Manias E, *Adv. Polym. Sci.* **1999**, 138, 107.
- (47) Krishnamoorti R, Silva AS, Mitchell CA, *J. Chem. Phys.* **2001**, 108, 7175.
- (48) Mitchell, C. A.; Bahr, J. L.; Arepalli, S.; Tour, J. M. Tour; Krishnamoorti, R. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 8825.
- (49) Bahr, J. L.; Tour, J. M. *Journal of Materials Chemistry* **2002**, 12, 1952-1958
- (50) Bahr, J. L.; Tour, J. M. *Chemistry of Materials* **2001**, 13, 3823
- (51) Bahr, J. L.; Yang, J. P.; Kosynkin, D. V.; Bronikowski, M. J.; Smalley, R. E.; Tour, J. M. *J Am. Chem. Soc.* **2001**, 123, 6536.
- (52) Wei, C.; Shrivastava, D.; Choi, K. *Nano Letters* **2002**, 2, 647.

(53) Lodge, T. P.; McLeish, T. C. B. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 33, 5278.



## Chapter 5: The Glass Transition Temperature of Polymer/Layered Silicate Clays and Polymer/C<sub>60</sub> Fullerene Nanocomposite Thin Films

The film thickness dependencies of the glass transition temperatures of polystyrene based nanocomposite thin films containing small concentrations, 1-5 wt.%, of layered silicate clays and C<sub>60</sub> fullerenes supported by silicon substrates, *PS-LSi/Si* and *PS-C<sub>60</sub>/Si*, respectively, were examined. Spectroscopic ellipsometry studies show that the glass transition temperatures of the nanocomposite thin films of thickness  $h > 45$  nm were constant and equal to the glass transition temperature of PS over the same thickness range. The  $T_g$ s of the nanocomposite films containing 1% C<sub>60</sub> and 1% LSi decreased with film thickness for  $h < 45$  nm. While the magnitude of the decrease is comparable for both systems (and in fact comparable to the decrease exhibited by thin film nanocomposites of polystyrenes with 0.75 wt.% functionalized single walled carbon nanotubes) the decrease exhibited by *polystyrene* thin films is more significant. For a film of thickness of  $h = 20$ nm, PS films exhibit a  $T_g$  that is 6 degrees lower. The film thickness dependencies of the nanocomposites containing 5 wt. % C<sub>60</sub> and LSi exhibited the opposite trend for  $h < 45$  nm. They increased with decreasing film thickness. These results point generally to the influence of particles of nano-scale dimensions on the  $T_g$  of thin films. The results are examined in light of current models on the  $T_g$  of thin films.

## 5.1 INTRODUCTION

Properties at the nanoscale are of broad interest, cross-cutting many disciplines, from physics and chemistry to engineering. The technical issues are diverse, ranging from electron transport and single-molecule transistors to mechanical properties and automobile bumpers [1-2]. Carbon nanotubes, inorganic layered silicates (clays), fullerenes (buckyballs,  $C_{60}$ ) and various nanoparticles such as Au and CdSe are very interesting in their own right [1-6]. Polymer-based nanocomposites in which the polymer serves as a host for inorganic nanoparticles are technologically important. Polymer-inorganic layered silicates have been shown to exhibit superior thermal (heat of distortion) and mechanical properties to those of the pure polymer host and are now being used for a range of new structural and thermal applications [1,4]. The polymer-nanoparticles (e.g. CdSe) are important for device applications such as sensors and light emitting diodes [1,3,5,6]. The nano-scale particles offer new pathways to “tailor” properties of materials, achieving properties not possible with homopolymers. Current scientific questions evolve around the connection between the structure and properties at the nanoscale and the macroscopic characteristics of the system. Polymer thin films are used in many device applications.

The role of confinement and interfacial interactions on the properties of thin polymer films has been of particular interest to researchers. In polymer thin films, it is well documented that because of the influence of confinement and of polymer-segment/interfacial (free surface and substrate) interactions, properties such as the viscosity, diffusion and glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ) are very different from the bulk [7-36]. Confinement and interfacial interactions have been shown to change the phase

transition temperatures of polymer blends, melting temperatures of crystals and order-disorder temperatures of diblock thin films [37-42].

In this chapter of the dissertation, we are interested in the glass transition temperature of thin film polymer-based nanocomposites wherein the polymer serves as a host for low concentrations of particles of nano-scale dimensions. In pure homopolymer thin films, the  $T_g$  is not intrinsically connected to the structure of the polymer to the extent that it is in the bulk. In thin films  $T_g$  is influenced by confinement (thickness) and by the nature of the segmental interactions with the external environment (typically free surface and substrate). While a universally accepted explanation of the thickness dependence of  $T_g$  of polymers remains elusive, some general observations may be made. For freely standing films,  $T_g$  always decreases with decreasing film thickness [17-19]. For asymmetric systems, where one interface is a free surface and the other is a substrate,  $T_g$  may increase or decrease, depending on the nature of the interactions between the polymer segments and the substrate. Systems in which the polymer segments hydrogen bond with the substrate exhibit an increase in  $T_g$  with decreasing film thickness for thicknesses  $h < 45$  nm [11-15,21,22,33]. Examples of these systems include poly(methyl methacrylate) (PMMA) on  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates (PMMA/ $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$ ), tetramethyl bisphenyl-A polycarbonate (TMPC)/ $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  and poly(vinyl pyridine) (PVP)/ $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$ . For other systems, such as polystyrene (PS)/ $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  and PMMA/Au, in which particularly strong cohesive interactions between the polymer segments and the substrate are absent, the  $T_g$  decreases with decreasing film thickness when  $h < 45$  nm [13,14,20, 25-27,29-32]. There is evidence that the tacticity of the polymer may complicate this picture further [21,29]. In miscible thin film polymer/polymer mixtures, polymer-A segment/polymer-B segment

interactions and interactions between polymer segments and the interfaces collectively dictate the behavior of the glass transition of polymer thin films, as Pham and Green and Kim et al. have shown in TMPC/PS and PPO/PS mixtures, respectively [11,12,28]. Here the film thickness dependence depends on composition of the mixture.

In polymer-inorganic nanocomposites, due to confinement and to interactions between polymer segments and inorganic nanoparticles, it is well known that physical properties such as the viscosity and  $T_g$  are greatly influenced [43-48]. Simulations by Wei et al. reveal that the density of PS/SWNT nanocomposites is larger than that of pure PS [43]. Recently, Pham et al. showed that the  $T_g$  of thin film nanocomposites of polystyrene with 0.75 wt.% functionalized SWNT supported by  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates decreased with decreasing film thickness for  $h < 50$  nm [10]. The depression of  $T_g$  in this system was appreciably smaller than the depression exhibited by the PS/ $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  system with decreasing film thickness. The difference was as much as 10 degrees for a film of thickness  $h = 25$  nm. The difference between the thickness dependencies of the  $T_g$ s of both systems was largely associated with the influence of PS/f-SWNT interactions in the former.

In light of the unexpected large influence of the small quantity of f-SWNTs on the  $T_g$  of PS thin films, it is worthwhile to examine the influence of similar concentrations of other additives of nano-scale dimensions, organo-modified layered silicate clay and  $\text{C}_{60}$  fullerenes, on the glass transition of thin PS films. We show that as little as 1 wt% of these additives has a comparable effect on the  $T_g$  of PS as did the f-SWNTs. Higher concentrations, 5 wt.%, of the fullerenes and clays were examined and the  $T_g$  of PS was observed exhibit the opposite trend, it increased with decreasing  $h$ . These results point to

a more general effect associated with the influence of the size of the nanoparticles on the  $T_g$  of thin films.

## 5.2 EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

The polystyrene used in our experiments, molecular weight 590,000 g/mole with polydispersity of 1.06, was purchased from Pressure Chemical. The montmorillonite layered silicate clays (LSi), modified with stoichiometric quantities of alkylammonium surfactant (dimethyl-dioctadecylammonium bromide), were provided by Southern Clay Products and further purified for us by Ramanan Krishnamoorti. These clays contained silicate sheets with thickness of about 1 nm and the lateral dimensions of approximately 1  $\mu\text{m}$ . The structures, physical and electrical properties of unmodified and organo-modified silicate clays are well documented in the literature [2,4,49-54]. The characteristics of these organo-modified clays are discussed in an earlier publication [44,45].  $C_{60}$  fullerenes (99.9% purity) were purchased from Alfa Aesar Co. and used as obtained. The nanocomposite samples were prepared by mixing PS/clay and PS/  $C_{60}$  of different clay and  $C_{60}$  concentrations in toluene and chloroform, respectively.

Films of varying thicknesses were prepared for ellipsometric measurements. The solution concentration and spin rates were adjusted to prepare films with thicknesses, ranging from approximately 20 nm to approximately 200 nm, supported by  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates. The substrates possessed a native  $\text{SiO}_x$  layer of approximately 1.5 nm thick, as measured by ellipsometry. All the samples were annealed at approximately 30°C above  $T_g$  in vacuum for 2 hrs to remove residual solvent, thereby establishing the same thermal history.

After the samples were annealed, optical measurements were performed with a variable-angle multiwavelength ellipsometer (J.A. Woollam Co.) equipped with a homemade heating stage. Ellipsometric angles (Psi and Delta) were measured over a range of temperatures in 5 to 10°C intervals. Three measurements were performed at each temperature. The heating rate was approximately 1°C/min. The temperatures were controlled within an accuracy of  $\pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$  /min. Film thicknesses were obtained by analyzing the ellipsometric data (Cauchy/SiOx/Si model) using software provided by the manufacturer. Details of the model and fitting procedures can be found elsewhere [11-14,26-28].

Figures 5.1a and 5.1b show the thermal scans of two PS/5wt% layered silicate nanocomposite thin films of different thicknesses. The data in these figures exhibit two regions of distinct different slope, denoting glassy and rubbery regions. The temperatures at which they intersect are identified as the glass transition temperatures.

### 5.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The film thickness dependencies of the glass transition temperatures of PS and of PS-layered silicate nanocomposite are shown in Figure 5.2a. While the  $T_g$ 's of the nanocomposites are comparable to those of pure PS at large  $h$ , they deviate at smaller values of  $h$ . The glass transition temperatures of the PS-nanocomposite containing 1 wt % layered silicate, PS-LSi(1%), exhibited a weaker decrease with decreasing  $h$  than does the  $T_g$  of PS. The decrease of  $T_g$  of the 1 wt% LSi for the thinnest film ( $h = 20$  nm) is approximately  $6^\circ\text{C}$  whereas it is approximately  $20^\circ\text{C}$  for pure PS.

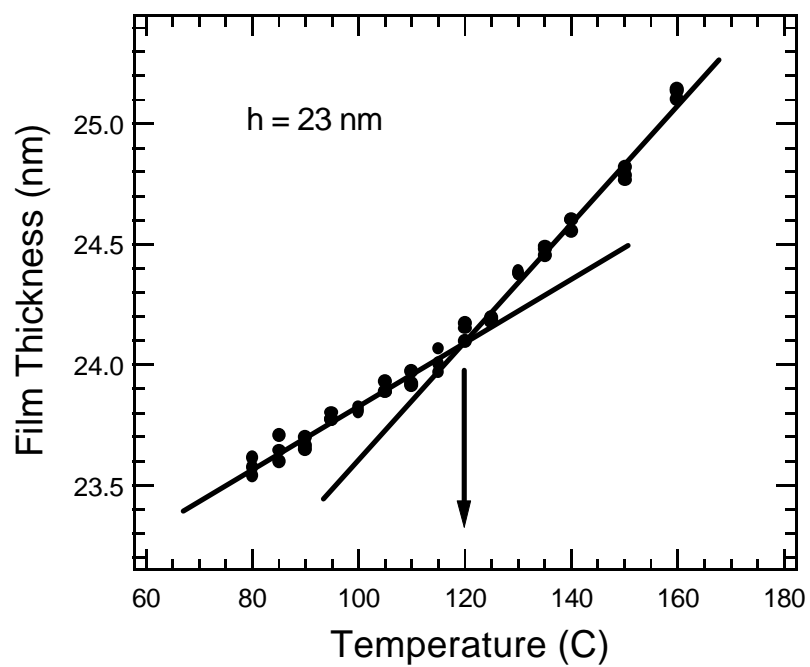


Figure 5-1a: Typical film thickness versus temperature for PS590k/5wt% layered silicate clay film thicknesses. The glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ) is identified as the temperature at which the two straight lines intersect.

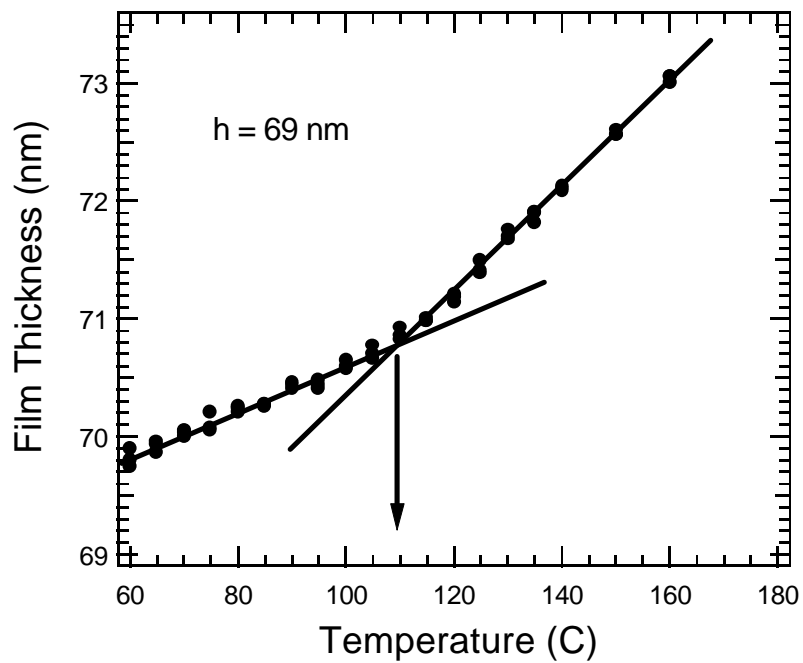


Figure 5-1b: Typical film thickness versus temperature for PS590k/5wt% layered silicate clay film thicknesses. The glass transition temperature ( $T_g$ ) is identified as the temperature at which the two straight lines intersect.



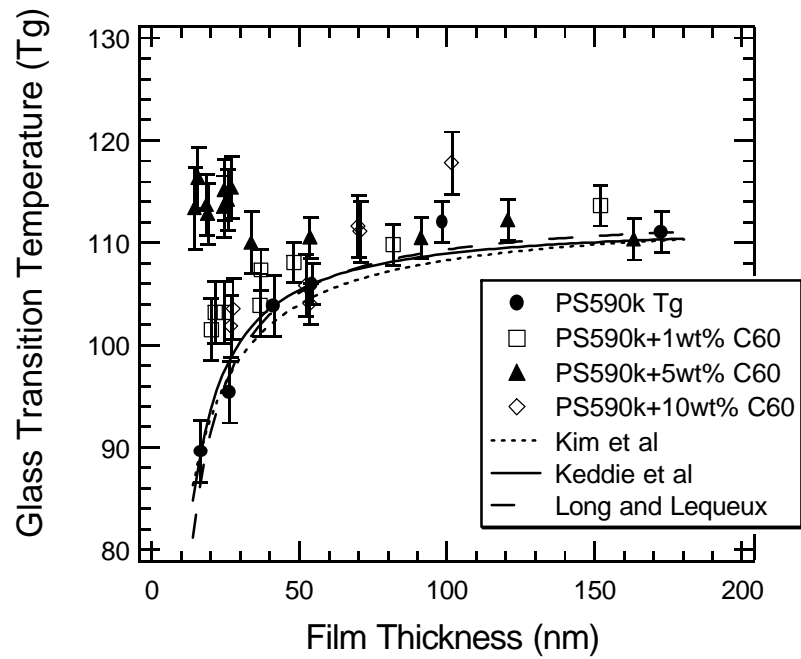


Figure 5-2a: Film thickness dependence of  $T_g$  for thin films PS590k/ $C_{60}$  nanocomposites

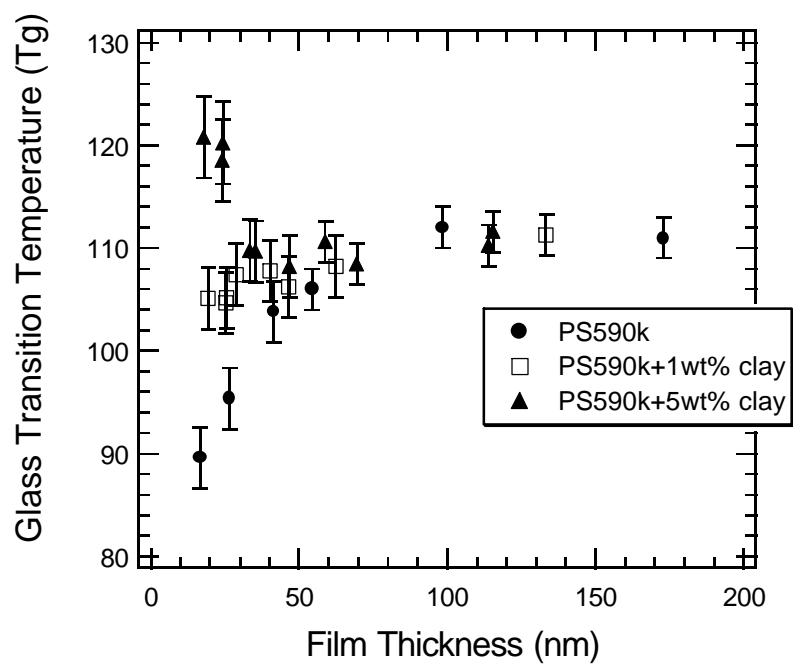


Figure 5-2b: Film thickness dependence of  $T_g$  for PS590k/layered silicate clay nanocomposites thin films

The extent of the reduction of the  $T_g$  in PS-LSi(1%) films is similar to that exhibited by the PS/f-SWNT system [10].

The  $T_g$ 's of PS/C<sub>60</sub> fullerene nanocomposite thin films are plotted in Figure 5.2b. The  $T_g$  of PS/1wt% C<sub>60</sub> decreased with decreasing film thickness when the film is sufficiently thin (for  $h$  less than approximately 45 nm), similar to the behavior of the PS-LSi(1%) and PS/f-SWNT nanocomposite thin films [10]. Within experimental error, the magnitude of  $T_g$  depression in each of the three systems for the thinnest film is  $\Delta T_g \sim 6^\circ\text{C}$ .

The  $T_g$  of PS/C<sub>60</sub>(5 wt%) nanocomposite films increased with decreasing film thickness as did the  $T_g$  of the PS-LSi(5 wt%) films. However the magnitude of increase is slightly smaller for the PS/C<sub>60</sub>(5 wt%) nanocomposite thin films. These data indicate the strong influence of particles of nano-scale dimensions on the  $T_g$  of thin polymer films.

While several models have been proposed to explain the film thickness dependence of  $T_g$  in polymers; there is no general consensus regarding the origin of this phenomenon. Keddie et al., who first reported this phenomenon, proposed an empirical equation to describe the depression of  $T_g$  with decreasing  $h$  in polymer thin films [13, 14].

$$T_g(h) = T_g(\infty) [1-(A/h)^\delta] \quad (5.1)$$

In this equation,  $T_g()$  is the glass transition temperature of the bulk,  $A$  is a length scale and  $\delta$  specifies the rate at which the  $T_g$  decreases with decreasing  $h$ . This model is based on the notion that a liquid-like layer exists in the vicinity of the free surface, and this liquid-like layer exerts increasing influence on the  $T_g$  with decreasing  $h$  leading to the depression. It is known that the configurational freedom of chains at a free surface is larger than those in the bulk (lower segmental packing density) [35,55,56,58-60]. In this regard, the notion of higher mobility surface segments is not entirely unreasonable. The curves drawn through the PS data in Figure 5.2a were computed with equation 5.1 using values of  $A = 8.0$  nm and  $\delta = 1.55 \pm 0.2$  for the fitting parameters. These values are comparable to those used Kawana and Jones ( $A = 8.0$  nm and  $\delta = 1.1$ ) to describe PS data [25]. For the nanocomposite thin films, values of  $A = 4.9$  nm and  $\delta = 1.52 \pm 0.2$  were used to describe PS-C<sub>60</sub> (1%) fullerene data and  $A = 5.0$  nm and  $\delta = 1.72 \pm 0.3$  were used to describe the PS-LSi(1%) data. The fits are illustrated in Figures 5.3a and 5.3b, respectively. The difference between the data of the nanocomposites is statistically insignificant.

Kim et al. proposed a model based on the notion that the film is composed of many layers each with a different  $T_g$  [26,27]. The layer at the free surface would possess the lowest  $T_g$ , and as the distance from the free surface increases the  $T_g$  increases. Independent measurements suggest the existence of a surface  $T_g$  in thin polymer films and in this regard the basis for this model may not be unreasonable [32,60].

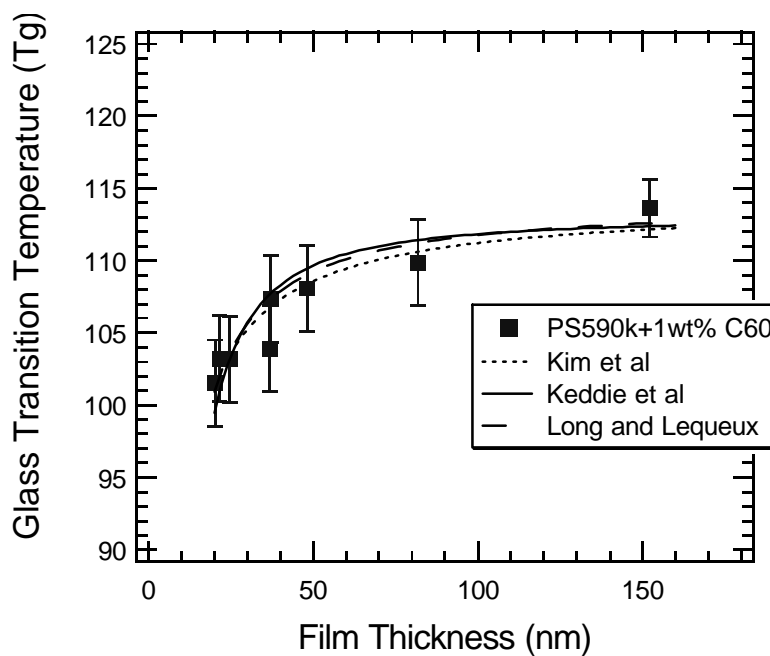


Figure 5-3a: The glass transition temperatures versus film thickness are plotted for PS590k/1wt% C<sub>60</sub>. The solid lines were computed using equation 5.1; the broken lines were computed using equation 5.2; the dashed lines were computed using equation 5.3.

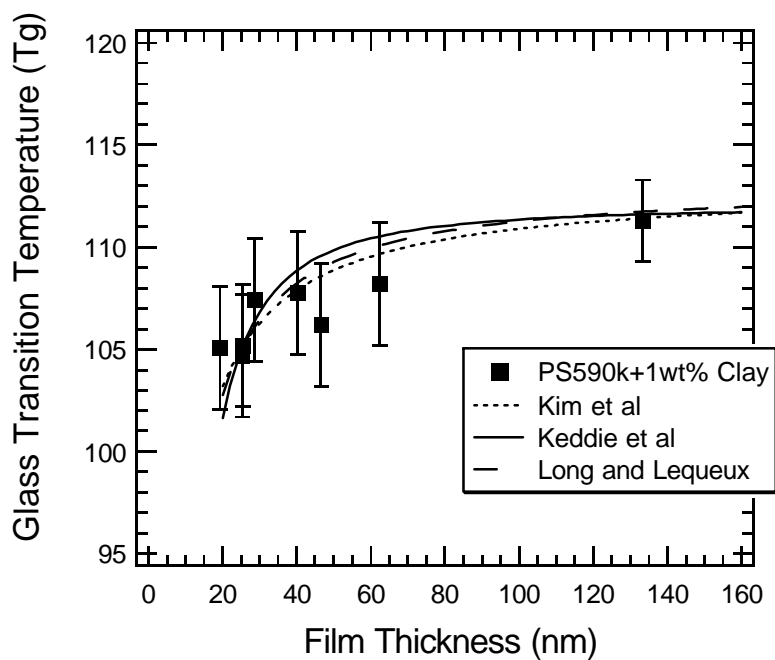


Figure 5-3b: The glass transition temperatures versus film thickness are plotted for PS590k/1wt% layered silicate clay. The solid lines were computed using equation 5.1; the broken lines were computed using equation 5.2; the dashed lines were computed using equation 5.3.

Equation 5.2 is the prediction for the film thickness dependence of  $T_g$  for systems in which  $T_g$  decreases with decreasing  $h$

$$T_g(h) = T_g(\infty)h/(h + \xi) \quad (5.2)$$

In this equation  $\xi$  is a length scale measuring the extent to which  $T_g$  decreases with  $h$ . Fitting parameters  $\xi = 4.3$  nm,  $\xi = 2.5$  nm and  $\xi = 1.9$  nm were found to adequately describe our pure PS, PS/1 wt % C<sub>60</sub> and PS/1 wt % clay data, respectively (Figures 5.3a and 5.3b). While both models described thus far provided a reasonable description of the data, another model has also been proposed.

Long and Lequeux proposed a phenomenological model to estimate the  $T_g$  of polymer thin films [23]. This model based on dynamic heterogeneity, wherein the dynamics within the sample are characterized by fast and slow domains. With decreasing temperature, the fraction of slow domains increases, and the onset of  $T_g$  coincides with the percolation of the slow domains. Because the percolation threshold is higher in 3-D than in 2-D, the glass transition occurs at a lower temperature in 2-D. Since thin films can be described as quasi 2-D, the decreasing of  $T_g$  with decreasing  $h$  may be rationalized in terms of this picture. The following equation was proposed:

$$T_g(h) = T_{g,bulk} \left[ 1 - b \left( \frac{a}{h} \right)^b \right] \quad (5.3)$$

In this equation,  $\beta$  is a measure of the size of the slow domains and is of order unity, as suggested by the author.  $a$  is a monomer size and  $1/b$  is a critical exponent for percolation in three dimensional,  $b \gg 1.1$ . We used  $a = 0.6$  nm,  $b = 1.1$  and  $\beta = 9$  to describe our data for the PS/SiOx/Si system. The values of  $a = 0.6$  nm,  $b = 1.1$  and  $\beta = 4.3$  best describes PS/LSi(1%) data, and  $a = 0.6$  nm,  $b = 1.1$  and  $\beta = 5.4$  describes PS/C<sub>60</sub>(1%) data. The smaller values of  $\beta$  used to describe PS/clay and PS/C<sub>60</sub> nanocomposites indicate that the average cluster size of the slow domain is larger in the nanocomposites than those of pure PS. The percolation threshold of the slow domains of nanocomposites occurs at higher temperatures than those of pure PS resulting in a smaller depression of  $T_g$  with decreasing  $h$ . We speculate that this is the result of confinement of polymer segments and their interactions with the large surface area of the nanoparticles

The results from the foregoing analysis indicate that interactions between the nanoparticles and the chain segments increase the effective fraction of slow domains in the sample, leading to an enhancement of the effective  $T_g$  in the thinnest films compared to that of PS. These results, by implication, indicate that if the fraction of nanoparticles in the sample increases, the  $T_g$  of the thinnest films should increase in relation to that of pure polystyrene if the nanoparticles are dispersed within the polymer films. This is indeed observed. In fact, as discussed above,  $T_g$  increases with decreasing  $h$  for  $h < 45$  nm in films composed of 5 % C<sub>60</sub> or 5 % LSi. This enhancement of  $T_g$  can be rationalized in terms of the aforementioned dynamic heterogeneity model. If the fraction of slow domains in the sample increases, then eventually a point should be reached where the  $T_g$



of the thin film occurs above that of polystyrene. The enhancement of  $T_g$  is predicted by the following equation [23],

$$\frac{T_g(h) - T_g(\infty)}{T_g(\infty)} \approx I \left( \frac{a}{h} \right)^b \quad (5.4)$$

where  $\lambda$  is a function of the size of the slow domains and  $T_g(\infty)$  is bulk  $T_g$ .

The corresponding prediction based on the multiple  $T_g$  model [26,27] is

$$T_g(h) = T_g(\infty)h(2k+h)/(h + \xi)^2 \quad (5.5)$$

In this equation,  $\xi$  measures the extent to which  $T_g$  decreases with  $h$ , and  $k$  indicates the degree of interaction between the polymer and the substrate. Data representing the film thickness dependencies of  $T_g$  for the PS- $C_{60}$ (5%) and PS-LSi(5%) samples were fit with equation 5.5 using fitting parameters,  $k = 1.5$  nm and  $\xi = 0.81$  nm for the  $C_{60}$  system and  $k = 2.0$  nm and  $\xi = 0.53$  nm for layered silicate system. As shown in Figures 5.4a and 5.4b, these parameters were adequately described the data. By contrast values of  $k = 0.8$  nm ( $\xi = 0.66$  nm),  $k = 1.5$  nm ( $\xi = 0.68$  nm) and  $k = 1.37$  nm ( $\xi = 0.72$  nm) were used to describe the data for the PMMA/ $SiO_xSi$ , PVP/ $SiO_xSi$  and TMPC/ $SiO_xSi$  systems, respectively [11,26,27].

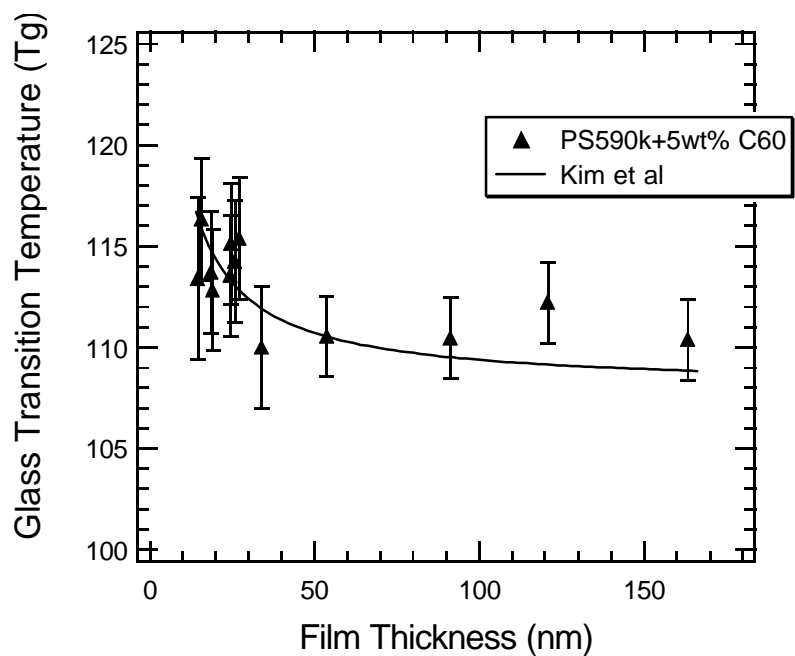


Figure 5-4a: The glass transition temperatures versus film thickness are plotted for PS590k/5wt% C60. The solid lines were calculated using equation 5.5.

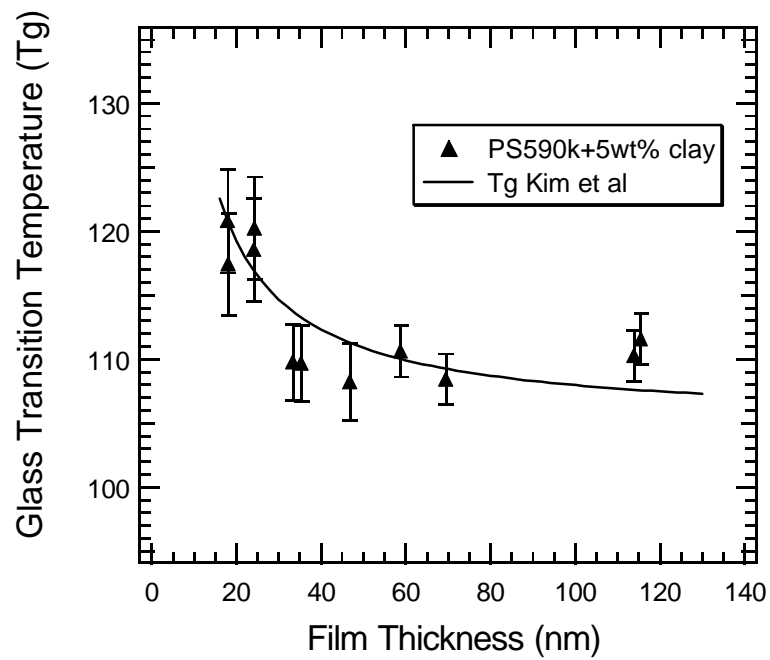


Figure 5-4b: The glass transition temperatures versus film thickness are plotted for S590k/5wt% layered silicate clay. The solid lines were calculated using equation 5.5.

Regardless of the values of the fitting parameters, it is clear that trends in the data of the PS-based nanocomposite systems are similar to the behavior of homopolymer/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si systems in which the polymer segments exhibit strong interactions with the substrate.

In light of the aforementioned, the following comments regarding the  $T_g$  of thin films are worthwhile considering. If the configurational entropy of chains that compose the film exceeds that of the bulk, then the  $T_g$  of the film would be lower than that of the bulk. Indeed it is well documented that the configurational freedom of chains at free surfaces exceeds those in the bulk. McCoy and Curro showed that if the density of the thin film is lowered than that of the bulk, then the  $T_g$  of the film is lowered,  $\Delta T_g < 0$ ; otherwise,  $\Delta T_g > 0$  [24]. The model of McCoy and Curro, however, considered an idealized case where a strip of polymer is removed from the bulk. The density of this strip was compared with that of the bulk and found to be lower. In this regard, their analysis is limited. Nevertheless, the essential point is the configurational entropy determines the sign of  $\Delta T_g$ .

In the case of a hard surface, the configurational freedom of the chains is lower due to the interactions [55-58]. Therefore for a film confined at both interfaces, one would expect the  $T_g$  of this system to be higher than the bulk analogue. Generally, the configurational freedom of the entire film determines the sign of  $\Delta T_g$ . Hence, if the interactions between the film and the substrate are strong (eg H-bonding) then the observation that  $\Delta T_g > 0$  in such homopolymer films is not unreasonable.

The situation involving miscible blends in which the overall specific volume increases beyond that of a rule of mixtures is an exception. In the miscible PS-TMPC

system, the  $T_g$  of the mixture decreases for  $h < 45$  nm throughout most of the composition range (PS volume fractions greater than about 10%) [11,12]. This effect evidently outweighs any interactions between TMPC and substrate that might contribute to an increase in  $T_g$ . This is particularly noteworthy since PS resides preferentially at the free surface and TMPC at the substrate, and the  $T_g$  of TMPC is much larger than that of PS (220°C compared to 100°C). These experiments have further implications. Blends containing PS with molecular weights of 900,000 g/mol and 4000 g/mol, with  $T_g$ s of 100°C and 65°C, respectively with TMPC were examined [12]. The magnitude of the  $T_g$  depression in the mixture was comparable to that of PS. If the liquid-like layer, or a surface  $T_g$  for that matter, were responsible for the depression, then the depression observed in the mixture with the lower molecular weight PS component would be lowered. This was not observed. These results point to the picture of the configurational freedom of chains in the interior of the film as the cause. Essentially, we speculate that in thin films the interior segments organize themselves in a manner somewhat different from the bulk. Evidently, while equations 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 describe the data well, the interpretation of the results in light of their basis of the equations can be misleading.

The dynamic heterogeneity model, based on the notion of slow and fast domains, provides a consistent prediction of our data. Interactions between the polymer segments and hard surfaces increase the fraction of slow domains in the sample. Since the polymer segment-nanoparticles interactions decrease the configurational freedom of the chain segments, the effective  $T_g$  of the film is expected to increase relative to that of PS, for  $h < 45$  nm.

These results show that the magnitude and sign of the thickness dependence of the  $T_g$  of polymer thin film can be manipulated by incorporating nanoparticles. The effect is apparent regardless of strength of interactions between the polymer segments and the nanoparticles. The important point is that there must exist some level of intermixing between the polymer and the nanoparticles. There might be a critical nanoparticle concentration above which the nanoparticles aggregate, leading to a diminishing effect. Preliminary measurements of the  $T_g$  dependence on film thickness of PS/C<sub>60</sub>(10 wt %) nanocomposites show  $\Delta T_g < 0$  rather than the expected  $\Delta T_g > 0$ . We speculate that at this high concentration, the nanoparticles aggregate internally forming a network as well as migrate to the substrate, as shown by the work of Barnes et al. and Chen et al. [46,61]. Under these conditions the relative PS-substrate interactions would have the opposite effect. Again, the interfacial interactions and the configurational entropy of the interior of the film contribute to the overall  $T_g$  of the film.

#### 5.4 CONCLUSIONS

We showed that incorporating 1-5 wt. % of particles of nano-scale dimensions into PS has a profound effect on the film thickness dependence of the glass transition temperature. The  $T_g$ s of the nanocomposite films containing 1% C<sub>60</sub> and 1% LSi decreased with film thickness for  $h < 45$  nm. While the magnitude of the decrease is comparable for both systems (and in fact comparable to the decrease exhibited by thin film nanocomposites of polystyrenes with 0.75 wt.% functionalized single walled carbon nanotubes), the decrease exhibited by *polystyrene* thin films is more significant. With the addition of 5%, the  $T_g$  increased with decreasing  $h$  for  $h < 45$  nm. The presence of the

nanoparticles, regardless of the strength of the interactions with the polymer segments, evidently has the effect of reducing the configurational freedom of the chains, which leads to an enhancement of the  $T_g$  of the film compared to pure PS.

## 5.5 REFERENCES

- (1) Rotello, V. “*Nanoparticles: Building Blocks for Nanotechnology*” Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers: New York, **2004**.
- (2) Giannelis, E. P. *Appl. Organomet. Chem.* **1998**, 12, 675.
- (3) Saito, R.; Dresselhaus, G.; Dresselhaus, M. S. “*Physical Properties of Carbon Nanotube*” Imperial College Press: London **1998**.
- (4) Giannelis, E. P.; Krishnamoorti, R.; Manias, E. *Adv. Polym. Sci.* **1999**, 138:107-147.
- (5) Schoder, C. *Fullerene Science and Technology* **2001**, 9, 281.
- (6) Dai, L.; Mau, A. W. H. *Advanced Materials* **2001**, 13, 899.
- (7) Binder, K. *Adv. Polymer Sci.* **1994**, 112, 181.
- (8) Masson, J. L.; Green, P. F. *Phys. Rev. E.* **2002**, 65, 031806
- (9) Limary, R.; Green, P. F.; Shull, K. *Eur. Phys. J. E.* 2002, 8, 103.
- (10) Pham, J. Q.; Mitchell, C. A.; Bahr, J. L.; Tour, J. M.; Krishnamoorti, R.; Green, P. F. *J. Poly. Sci. Part B: Poly. Phys.* **2003**, 41, 3339.
- (11) Pham, J. Q.; Green, P. F. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2002**, 116, 5801.
- (12) Pham J. Q.; Green, P.F. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 1665.
- (13) Keddie, J. L.; Jones, R. A.; Cory, R. A. *Faraday Discuss.* **1994**, 98, 219
- (14) Keddie, J. L.; Jones, R. A.; Cory, R. A. *Europhys. Lett.* **1994**, 27, 59.

- (15) van Zanten, J. H.; Wallace, W. E.; Wu, W. *Phys. Rev. E* **1996**, 53, R 2053.
- (16) Efremow, M. Y.; Warren, J. T.; Olson, E. A.; Zhang, M.; Kwan, A. T.; Allen, L. H. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 1481.
- (17) Forrest, J. A.; Dalnoki-Veress, K.; Stevens, J. R.; Dutcher, J. R. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1996**, 77, 2002.
- (18) Forrest, J. A.; Dalnoki-Veress, K. *Advances in Colloid and Interface Science* **2001**, 94, 167.
- (19) Forrest, J. A.; Mattsson, J. *Phys. Rev. E* **2000**, 61, R53; Mattsson, J.; Forrest, J. A.; Borjesson, L. *Phys. Rev. E* **2000**, 62, 5187.
- (20) Fukao, K.; Miyamoto, Y. *Europhys. Lett.* **1999**, 46, 649.
- (21) Grohens, Y.; Hamon, L.; Soldera, A.; Holl, Y. *Eur. Phys. J. E.* **2002**, 8, 217.
- (22) Torres, J. A.; Nealy, P. F.; de Pablo, J. J. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2000**, 85, 3221.
- (23) Long, D.; Lequeux, F. *Eur. Phys. J. E.* 2001, 4, 371; Long, D.; Sotta, P. *Los Alamos National Lab., Preprint Archive: Condense Matter* **2003**, 1-33. Berriot, J.; Montes, H.; Lequeux, F.; Long, D.; Sotta, P. *Europhys. Lett.* **2003**, 64, 50.
- (24) McCoy, J. D.; Curro, J. G. *J. Chem. Phys.* 2002, 116, 9154.
- (25) Kawana, S.; Jones, R. A. *Phys. Rev. E* **2001**, 63, 21501.
- (26) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Zin, W-C. *Langmuir* **2001**, 17, 2703
- (27) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Zin, W-C. *Langmuir* **2000**, 16, 4064.
- (28) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Lee, D-Y.; Zin, W-C. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 311.
- (29) Grohens, Y.; Brogly, M.; Labbe, C.; David, M. -O.; Schultz, J. *Langmuir* **1998**, 14, 2929.
- (30) Tsui, O. K. C.; Zhang, H. F. *Macromolecules* **2001**, 34, 9139.



- (31) Fryer, S. D.; Nealey, F. P.; de Pablo, J. J. *Macromolecules* **2000**, 33, 6439.
- (32) Fryer, S. D.; Peters, D. R.; Kim, J. E.; Tomaszewski, E. J.; de Pablo, J. J.; Nealey, F. P.; White, C. C.; Wu, W-L. *Macromolecules* **2001**, 34, 5627.
- (33) Tate, S. R.; Fryer, S. D.; Pasqualini, S.; Montague, F. M.; de Pablo, J. J.; Nealey, F. P. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2001**, 115, 9982.
- (34) Doruker, P.; Mattice, L. W. *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 194.
- (35) de Gennes, P. G. *Euro. Phys. J. E.* **2000**, 2, 201.
- (36) Lin, E. K.; Kolb, R.; Satija, S.; Wu, W. *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 3753.
- (37) Green, P. F.; Limary, R. *Adv. Colloid Interface Sci.* **2001**, 94, 53.
- (38) Russell, T.P. *Current Opinion in Colloid and Interface Science* **1996**, 1, 107.
- (39) Fasolka, M. J.; Mayes, A. M. *Ann. Rev. Mater. Res.* 2001, 31, 323.
- (40) Knoll, A.; Horvat, A.; Lyakhova, K. S.; Krausch, G.; Sevink, J. A.; Zvelindovsky, A. V.; Magerle, R. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2002**, 89, 035501.
- (41) Despotopoulou, M. M.; Frank, C. W.; Miller, R. D.; Rabolt, J. F. *Macromolecules* **1996**, 29, 5797.
- (42) Reiter, G. *J. Poly. Sci. Part b: Poly. Phys.* **2003**, 41, 1869; Reiter, G. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1992**, 68, 75.
- (43) Wei, C.; Shrivastava, D.; Choi, K. *Nano Letters* **2002**, 2, 647.
- (44) Limary, R.; Swinnea, S.; Green, P. F. *Macromolecules* **2000**, 33, 5227.
- (45) Ren, J.; Silva, A. S.; Krishanomoorti, R. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 33, 3739.
- (46) Barnes, K. A.; Karim, A.; Douglas, J. F.; Nakatani, A. I.; Gruell, H.; Amis, E. J. *Macromolecules* **2000**, 33, 4177.
- (47) Sharma, S.; Rafailovich, M. H.; Peiffer, D.; Sokolov, J. *Nano Letters* **2001**, 1, 511.

- (48) Ferreiro, V.; Douglas, J. F.; Warren, J.; Karim, A. *Physical Review E* **2002**, 65, 051606.
- (49) Zax, D. B.; Yang, D. K.; Santos, R. A.; Hegemann H.; Giannelis, E. P.; Manias, E. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2000**, 112:2945-2951.
- (50) Vaia, R. A.; Giannelis, E. P. *Macromolecules* **1997**, 30, 7990.
- (51) Ginzburg, V. V.; Balazs, A. C. *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 5681.
- (52) Hackett, E.; Manias, E.; Giannelis, E. P. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1998**, 108, 7401.
- (53) Ishida, H.; Li, Y. *Polymer* **2003**, 44, 6571.
- (54) Kim, J.; Lee, S-S. *J. Poly. Sci.: Part B, Poly. Phys.* **2004**, 42, 246.
- (55) Mansfield, K. F.; Theodorou, D. N. *Macromolecules* **1991**, 24, 6283.
- (56) Baschnagel, J.; Binder, K. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 6808..
- (57) Bitsanis, I.; Hadziioannous, G. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1990**, 92, 3827.
- (58) Binder, K.; Baschnagel, J.; Bennemann, C.; Paul, W. *J. Phys. Condens. Matter* **1999**, 11, A47.
- (59) Wallace, W. E., Fischer, D. A., Efimenko, K.; Wu, W.-L.; Genzer, J., *Macromolecules* **2001**, 34, 5081.
- (60) Tanaka, K.; Takahara; A.; Kajiyama, T. *Macromolecules* **1998**, 31, 863.
- (61) Chen, G.; Ma, G. *Applied Physics Lett.* **1998**, 72, 3294.

## Chapter 6: Pressure, Temperature and Thickness Dependence of CO<sub>2</sub>-Induced Devitrification of Polymer Films

Preprint with permission from:

Pham, J. Q.; Sirard, S. M.; Johnston, K. P.; Green, P. F. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2003**, 91, 175503-1 – 175503-4. Copyright 2003 The American Physical Society.

The glass transition temperature is known to increase with decreasing film thickness,  $h$ , for sufficiently thin poly(methylmethacrylate) (PMMA) films supported by silicon oxide substrates. We show that this system undergoes a CO<sub>2</sub> pressure induced devitrification transition,  $P_g$ , which is film thickness dependent,  $P_g(h) = \Delta P_g + P_g^{\text{bulk}}$ .  $P_g^{\text{bulk}}$  is the bulk glass transition and  $\Delta P_g$  can be positive or negative depending on  $T$  and  $P$ . The phenomenon of retrograde vitrification, wherein the polymer exhibits a rubbery-to-glassy-to-rubbery transition upon changing temperature isobarically, is also shown to occur in this system, and it is film thickness dependent.

## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

Thin films play an important role in various chemical, biological and microelectronic processes, with applications ranging from coatings, lubricants and membranes to active material components in various organic electronic and sensor technologies. Entropic effects (confinement), enthalpic, polymer-“wall” (substrate and free surface) interactions, and various interfacial processes associated with long-range van der Waals interactions are responsible for a range of phenomena in thin films, not observed in the bulk [1-15]. Prominent among these effects is a film thickness dependence of the vitrification temperature, shown to exist in sufficiently thin polymer films [1,2,4-6].

The effects of near-critical CO<sub>2</sub> on the glass transition of thin polymer films are of interest in this chapter of the dissertation. CO<sub>2</sub> has also been shown to influence the phase behavior of polymer-polymer mixtures [16]. Liquid and supercritical carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) are attractive, non-toxic, alternatives to organic solvents in many polymer processes such as foaming, impregnation, coating, “green” lithographic processes and synthesis [17-19]. Moreover, because of its negligible surface tension, supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> is effective at drying aqueous-based photoresist films without collapsing the high-aspect ratio features with dimensions below 150 nm, a problem associated with the use of organic solvents [18]. With this in mind, it is noteworthy that the effect of CO<sub>2</sub> on the glass transition of thin polymer films, a central issue associated with these processes, has received little attention [10].

In thin polymer films, the vitrification transition is known to differ from the bulk transition,  $T_g^{\text{bulk}}$ ,  $\Delta T_g = T_g(\text{h}) - T_g^{\text{bulk}}$ , where  $\Delta T_g$  may be positive or negative, depending on the polymer and the substrate. For freely standing films, on the other hand,  $\Delta T_g < 0$  [4]. Generally,  $\Delta T_g > 0$  when monomer-substrate interactions are comparatively strong, such as hydrogen bonding between monomer segmental groups and the substrate. Interactions between poly vinyl pyridine, poly(methylmethacrylate) (PMMA) and tetramethyl bisphenol polycarbonate, and oxidized silicon wafer are examples [2,5,13]. In the absence of specific monomer-substrate interactions, as is the case for PS/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si,  $\Delta T_g < 0$  [2,5,6]. These examples illustrate that  $\Delta T_g$  is not an intrinsic property of the polymer.

The origins of the film thickness dependence of  $T_g$  are still a matter of debate. Simulations suggest that the monomer packing densities determine the sign of  $\Delta T_g$  [1]. Other explanations such as the existence of multiple glass transition temperature [6] or “liquidlike” surface layers [2] provide the basis for alternative explanations. The influence of dynamic heterogeneity on vitrification of the system has also been considered as a potential explanation [20].

Most of the experimental work on this topic has concentrated on pure homopolymer systems and, more importantly, temperature is the only variable used to control vitrification. In light of the limited experimental information, it is not surprising that predictions based on each of the proposals mentioned heretofore are consistent with much of the experimental data. Experiments that reveal more systematic information about the vitrification transition, including conditions under which it could be induced

would be helpful toward the development of a better understanding of the phenomenon. Recently, we showed evidence of a CO<sub>2</sub>-induced devitrification transition in PMMA thin films ( $h > 85$  nm), suggesting that pressure provides an additional “lever” which can be used to systematically control the vitrification transition in polymer thin films [10].

In this chapter of the dissertation we show evidence of a film thickness dependence of the CO<sub>2</sub> pressure-induced devitrification transition of ultra-thin PMMA films supported by SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si substrates,  $P_g(h) = \Delta P_g + P_g^{\text{bulk}}$ , where  $P_g^{\text{bulk}}$  is the bulk transition. The magnitude and sign of  $\Delta P_g$  can be controlled independently by T and P. This observation has implications regarding the additional role of diluent interactions on the devitrification of thin films. Moreover, a retrograde *vitrification envelope* is shown to exist in this system. The polymer undergoes a transition from rubbery-to-glassy-to-rubbery upon changing temperature isobarically. The maximum pressure associated with the envelope shifts to lower pressures when  $h$  becomes sufficiently small.

## 6.2 EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

PMMA ( $M_w = 227$  kg/mol;  $M_w/M_n = 1.04$ ), purchased from Polysciences Inc., was dissolved in toluene and spin cast onto cleaned silicon (100) wafers (Wafer World Inc). The silicon substrate had a native SiO<sub>x</sub> layer thickness of  $\sim 1.5$  nm, as determined by spectroscopic ellipsometry. The films ranged in thickness between 10 and 200 nm. All samples were annealed at 170°C under vacuum for over 24 hours to remove residual solvent and to establish the same thermal history.

Measurements were performed using a variable angle spectroscopic ellipsometer (J.A. Woollam Co.). High-pressure ellipsometry cells were used to measure the CO<sub>2</sub>-induced glass transitions of PMMA at different film thicknesses at two temperatures: 35°C and 75°C. In addition, P<sub>g</sub>'s were measured for samples of thicknesses  $h = 15$  nm and  $h=80$  nm at additional temperatures of 25°C, 50°C, and 100°C. The design of the cells and the experimental setup may be found elsewhere [9,10]. For thick films ( $h > 30$  nm), the measurements were made using an angle of incidence of 70 degrees from the vertical, while an angle of 76 degrees was used for thinner films. Once a sample was loaded in the cell, at least one hour was allowed for thermal equilibration. The temperature was controlled with an accuracy of  $\pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$ . After reaching thermal equilibrium, ellipsometric angles,  $\psi$  and  $D$ , were measured for different CO<sub>2</sub> (Air Products; > 99.9999 % purity) pressures for both sorption and desorption. The pressure was controlled with an accuracy of  $\pm 0.2$  bars. Each sample was equilibrated at each pressure for 10-20 minutes.

Studies of the solubility/dilation of CO<sub>2</sub> in bulk conditioned polymers indicate that at pressures,  $P$ , below the P<sub>g</sub>( $h$ ), sorption and desorption isotherms exhibit negative curvature as a function of  $P$ . Furthermore, a hysteresis is observed for  $P < P_g$  between the initial sorption isotherms for the unconditioned glassy polymer and the subsequent desorption/sorption isotherms on the conditioned polymer. In contrast, for  $P > P_g$ , the isotherms are reversible and exhibit positive curvature [12,21,22]. The pressure at which the change in curvature occurs is identified as the P<sub>g</sub> (i.e., sufficient CO<sub>2</sub> is absorbed by

the polymer to induce a devitrification transition). In conditioned samples, subsequent sorption and desorption runs give the same transition.

We measured the ellipsometric angle,  $\gamma$ , as a function of CO<sub>2</sub> pressure at different wavelengths (from 400 nm to 700 nm) for both sorption and desorption isotherms. Since  $\gamma$  is related to the film thickness, it also exhibits a change in curvature, denoting the onset of  $P_g$ . We find that the  $P_g$ 's determined for the thickest films compare favorably to the related bulk values, demonstrating that the  $P_g$  for the thin films can be determined by spectroscopic ellipsometry without explicitly fitting the ellipsometric angles to a model. Furthermore, a hysteresis is also observed between the initial sorption isotherms and the subsequent sorption and desorption isotherms at  $P < P_g$ , supporting the observation that a glass transition is present. All data presented in this paper were determined by using  $\gamma$ 's from initial desorption isotherms. Typical  $\gamma$  versus CO<sub>2</sub> pressure desorption isotherms for film thickness of  $h = 26$  nm and  $h = 50$  nm are shown in Figures 6-1a and 6-1b. The trends in the data in each figure clearly reveal distinct glassy and rubbery regimes. Before concluding the experimental section it is important to note that an anomalous dilation is exhibited by the films at pressures higher than the  $P_g$ 's [10]. This anomalous dilation behavior is associated with the compressibility of the solvent, whereas the measured  $P_g$  is evidently not correlated with the solvent compressibility [15].

### 6.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Three important observations are apparent from the data in Figure 6-2. (1) The  $P_g$ 's at 35°C and 75°C decrease with decreasing film thickness,  $\Delta P_g < 0$ , for  $h$  less than  $\sim 50$  nm,



indicating that lower pressures are required to induce devitrification in thinner films. These  $P_g$ 's are independent of film thickness at large  $h$ . (2) A larger pressure is required to induce the devitrification transition at 35<sup>0</sup>C than at the higher temperature of 75<sup>0</sup>C. (3) The change in  $\Delta P_g$  with decreasing  $h$  is larger at 75<sup>0</sup>C than at 35<sup>0</sup>C, [ $\Delta P_g(75^0\text{C}) > \Delta P_g(35^0\text{C})$ ].

We begin by discussing the film thickness dependence of  $P_g$ . The decrease of the devitrification transition with decreasing  $h$  is, at first glance, surprising based on the dependence of the transition on film thickness for the pure (solvent-less) PMMA/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si case. In the solvent-less case, the interactions (hydrogen bonding) of the *atactic* PMMA with the SiO<sub>x</sub> layer is implicated for the increase in the transition over the bulk. The effect of the enhanced interactions is to increase the local monomer-monomer density in the vicinity of the substrate [1,5,7,8,14]. An associated effect is that the mobility of chain segments in the vicinity of the substrate is reduced. Therefore one might assume that the devitrification transition would occur at higher pressures with decreasing  $h$ . In the case of CO<sub>2</sub>-PMMA/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si, CO<sub>2</sub> interacts with the carbonyl groups of PMMA, plasticizing the system [19,23]. This alone would have the effect of changing the effective PMMA/SiO<sub>x</sub> interactions, and hence, the configurational freedom on the chains in the vicinity of the substrate. In fact, CO<sub>2</sub> also interacts with the hydroxyl groups on the substrate [19,23-25]. Therefore it is reasonable to argue that the interactions of PMMA with the surface silanol groups will be screened in the presence of CO<sub>2</sub>.

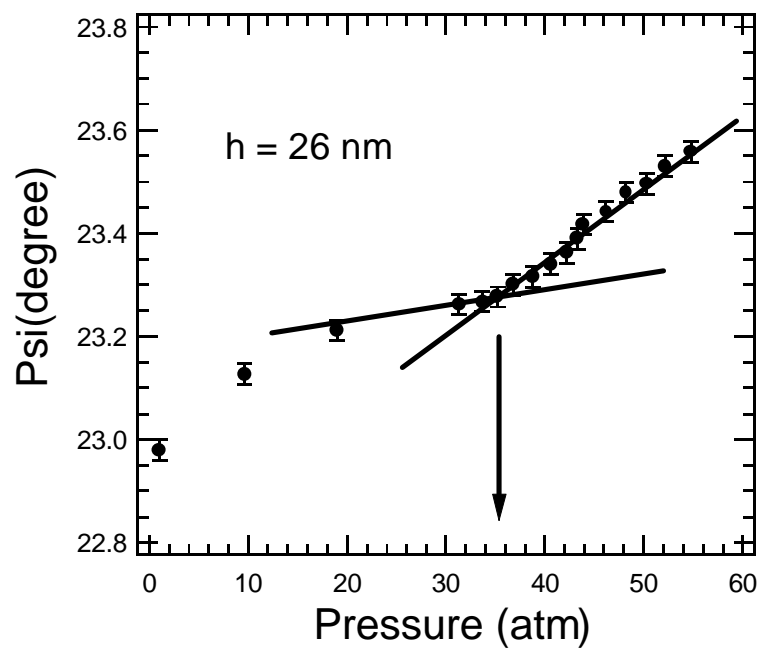


Figure 6-1a: Typical ellipsometric angle ( $\Psi$ ) versus  $\text{CO}_2$  pressure plots are shown here for PMMA film thicknesses of 26 nm at  $75^\circ\text{C}$ . The  $\text{CO}_2$  induced glass transition,  $P_g$ , is identified as the pressure at which the curvature of the desorption isotherm changes.

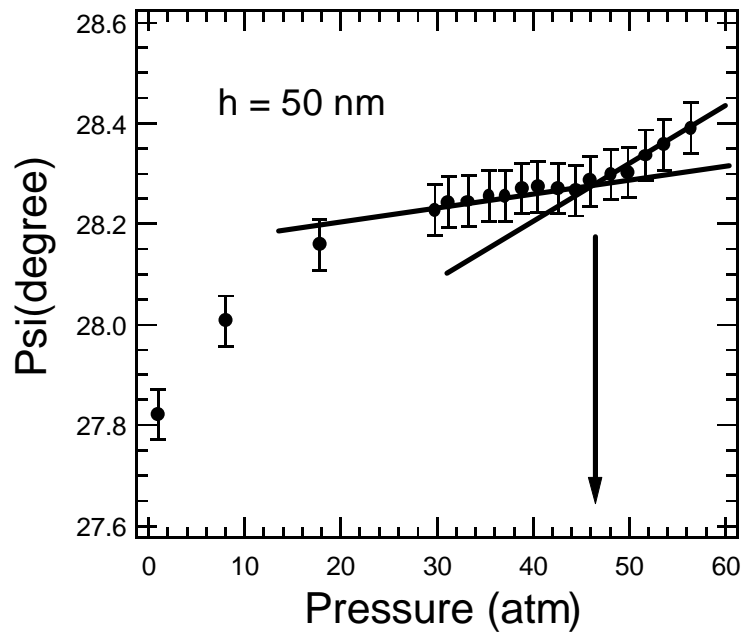


Figure 6-1b: Typical ellipsometric angle ( $\psi$ ) versus  $\text{CO}_2$  pressure plots are shown here for PMMA film thicknesses of 50 nm at  $75^\circ\text{C}$ . The  $\text{CO}_2$  induced glass transition,  $P_g$ , is identified as the pressure at which the curvature of the desorption isotherm changes.

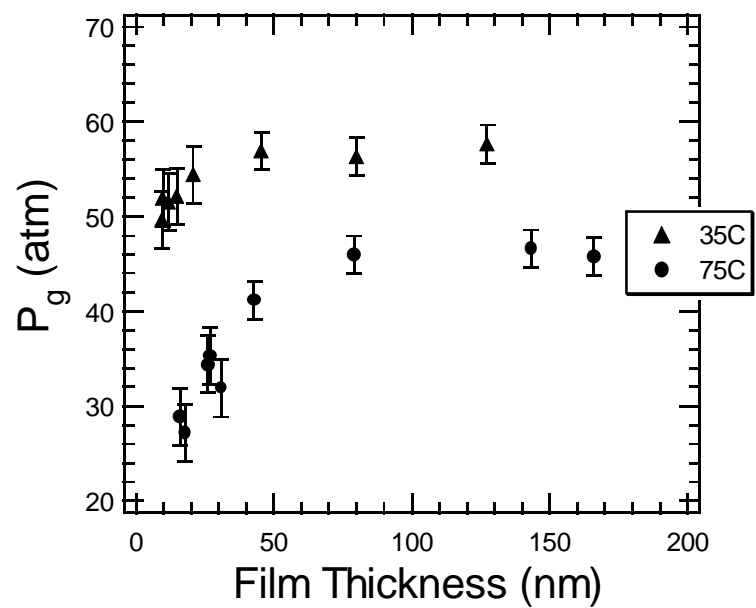


Figure 6-2:  $P_g$  is shown here as a function of  $h$  at 35°C and 75°C.

One natural consequence of this would be the mediation of the influence of the “interacting” substrate on the segmental packing density and hence the mobility of chain segments. A third effect is the high concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> at the surface (adsorption) of the film [9-11,26]. This has the effect of providing more configurational freedom to chain segments near the free surface. These effects, collectively, induce the devitrification transition to occur at lower pressures with decreasing film thickness. While interactions between the chain segments and the external interfaces are fundamentally associated with the thickness dependent vitrification transitions, it should also be evident that the collective dynamics and segmental distributions throughout the entire film would be affected.

The reason that the  $P_g(h)$  versus  $h$  isotherms shift to higher pressures as the temperature decreases from 75°C to 35°C is associated with the fact that a greater solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in the PMMA is required to counterbalance the decrease in thermal motion. The data at large  $h$  are consistent with independent measurements performed on bulk samples [27]. The difference in the film thickness effects on the glass transition at the two temperatures  $\Delta P_g(75^\circ\text{C}) > \Delta P_g(35^\circ\text{C})$  is due in part to the distribution of CO<sub>2</sub> between the surfaces and the interior of the film. At 35°C the solubilities of CO<sub>2</sub> are much higher than at 75°C over the pressure ranges studied. Thus the gradient in CO<sub>2</sub> composition from the interior of the film to the free surface may be expected to be smaller at 35°C than at 75°C consistent with a smaller  $\Delta P_g$  at 35 °C.

A retrograde vitrification phenomenon as shown in Fig. 6-3, wherein at constant pressure the system exhibits rubbery-glassy transitions at two different temperatures, is observed in this system. The vitrification envelope is shown here for the bulk and for thin  $h = 80$  nm and  $h = 15$  nm films. The behavior of the  $h = 80$  nm films is nearly the same as the bulk, consistent with the thickness dependence of the  $P_g$  shown in Fig. 6-2. It is noteworthy that the envelope shifts to lower pressures, by  $\sim 10$ - $20$  bars, for the thinnest film. Retrograde vitrification is associated with the increasing  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility in the polymer with decreasing temperature. At high temperatures and low pressures, the rubbery state is associated with the availability of sufficient thermal energy and mobility of chain segments. As the temperature is reduced isobarically, vitrification occurs for the typical reasons associated with the time-scale of the dynamics versus the time-scale of observation (loss of ergodicity). However, as the temperature is reduced further, the solubility of  $\text{CO}_2$  increases appreciably, resulting in the plasticization of the film at lower  $T$ , i.e. devitrification. In this regard, the explanation of the phenomenon in thin films is the same as that for the bulk. However, the envelope shifts to lower pressures for thin films. This shift is associated with reasons provided earlier, the decreasing devitrification transition with decreasing  $h$ . We note the existence of a cross-over at high  $T$  and low  $P$ , which is not unexpected. At  $\sim 20$  atmospheres and  $T \sim 100^\circ\text{C}$ , a cross-over occurs, where the vitrification transition occurs at the same temperature and pressure for thin films and bulk. At pressures lower than  $\sim 20$  atmospheres, vitrification increases with decreasing film thickness. This occurs in the regime where the  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility is very low. Indeed, one should eventually arrive at a cross-over transition where the behavior of the solvent-less case is recovered.

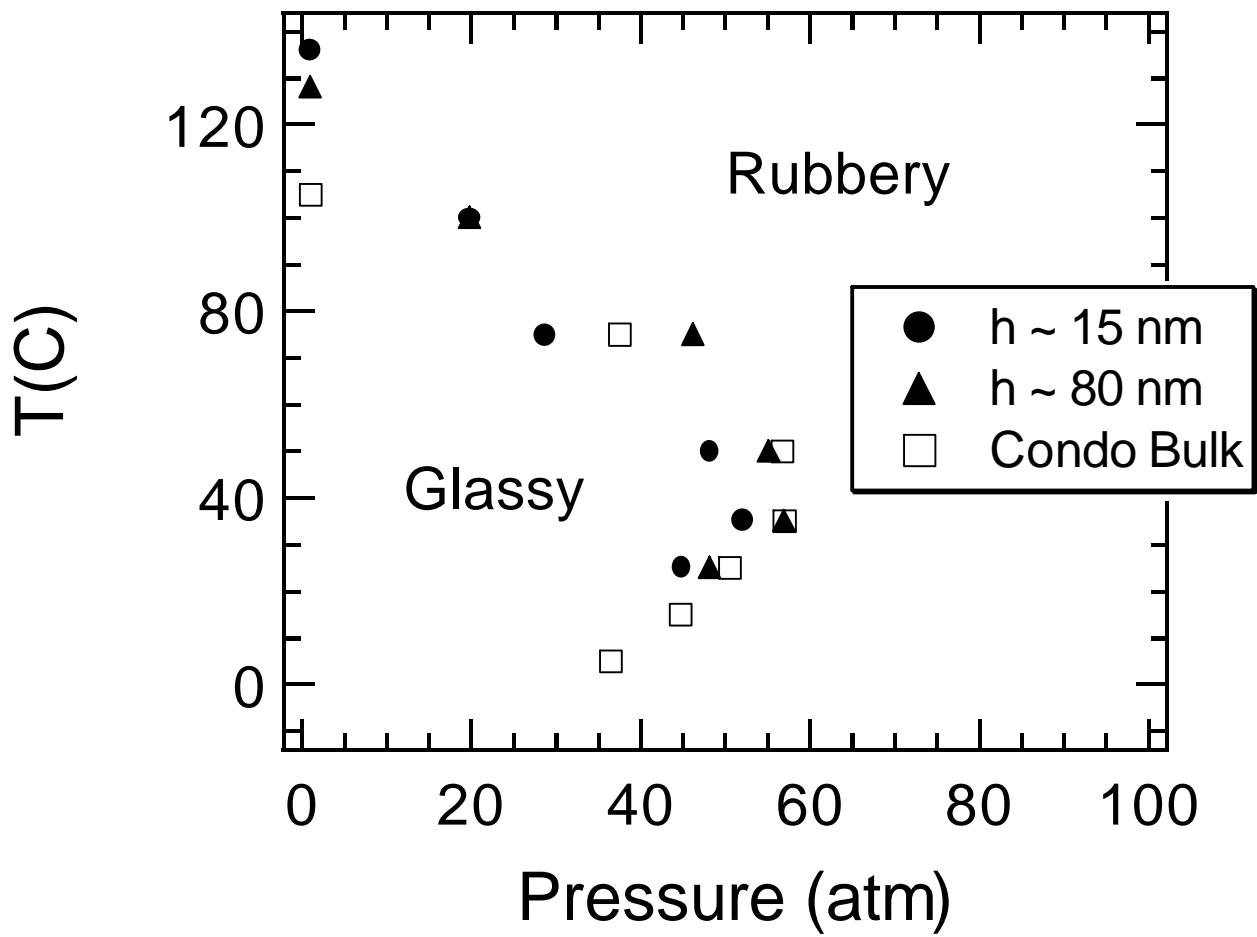


Figure 6-3: Temperature versus pressure plots are shown here for bulk PMMA (from ref. 27) and for films of  $h \sim 15$  nm and  $h \sim 80$  nm.

## 6.4 CONCLUSIONS

We have shown that the vitrification transition in PMMA thin films could be controlled by changing the conditions of temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> pressure. A novel crossover pressure is presented in which the sign of  $\Delta P_g$  changes due to the interactions among polymer, solvent and substrate at the interfaces. Furthermore, the phenomenon of retrograde vitrification occurs in the CO<sub>2</sub>/PMMA/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si system, wherein upon decreasing temperature, isobarically, PMMA undergoes a rubbery-to-glassy transition and upon a further decrease, a glassy-to-rubbery transition occurs. This phenomenon is associated with the interplay between the increasing thermal energy of the system with increasing temperature and the increasing CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in the system with decreasing temperature. The vitrification envelope shifts to lower pressures by 10-20 atm when the films are sufficiently thin. The results presented here not only have important implications regarding CO<sub>2</sub>-based semiconductor processing and gas separation membranes in polymer based systems, but they provide an important basis for the further development of theories of the glass transition in thin polymeric films.

## 6.5 REFERENCES

- (1) McCoy, J. D.; Curro, J. G. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2002**, 116, 9154.
- (2) Keddie, J. L.; Jones, R. A.; Cory, R. A. *Europhys. Lett.* **1994**, 27, 59.
- (3) Binder, K. *Adv. Polym. Sci.* **1994**, 112, 181
- (4) Forrest, J. A.; Dalnoki-Veress, K. *Adv. Colloid and Interface Sci.* **2001**, 94, 167.
- (5) Torres, J. A.; Nealy, P. F.; de Pablo, J. J. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2000**, 85, 3221.



- (6) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Zin, W-C. *Langmuir* **2001**, 17, 2703; Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Zin, W-C. *Langmuir* **2000**, 16, 4064.
- (7) Mansfield, K. F.; Theodorou, D. N. *Macromolecules* **1991**, 24, 6283.
- (8) Baschnagel, J.; Binder, K. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 6808; Bitsanis, I.; Hadziioannous, G. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1990**, 92, 3827
- (9) Sirard, S. M.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2001**, 105, 766.
- (10) Sirard, S. M.; Zeigler, K. J.; Sanchez, I. C.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 1928.
- (11) Sirard, S. M.; Gupta, R. R.; Russell, T. P.; Watkins, J. J.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 3365.
- (12) Kamiya, Y.; Mizoguchi, K.; Naito, Y. *J. Polym. Sci., Polym. Phys.* **1986**, 24, 535.
- (13) Pham, J. Q.; Green, P. F. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 1665.
- (14) van der Lee, A. *Langmuir* **2001**, 17, 7664
- (15) Wu, W.; Majkrzak, C. F.; Satija, S. K.; Ankner, J. F.; Orts, W. J.; Satkowski, M.; Smith, S. D. *Polymer* **1992**, 33, 5081.
- (16) Watkins, J. J.; Brown, G. D.; Ramachandra Rao, V. S.; Pollard, M. A.; Russell, T. P. *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 7737.
- (17) Wells, S. L.; DeSimone, J. *Angewandte Chemie* **2001**, 40, 518.
- (18) Weibel, G. L.; Ober, C. K. *Microelectronic Engineering* **2003**, 65, 145; Namatsu, H. *J. Vac. Sci. Technol. B* **2000**, 18, 3308.
- (19) Kazarian, S. G.; Vincent, M. F.; Bright, F. V.; Liotta, C. L.; Eckert, C. A. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1996**, 118, 1729.
- (20) Long, D., Lequeux, F. *Eur. Phys. J. E.* 2001, 4, 371.

- (21) Koros, W. J.; Paul, D. R. *J. Polym. Sci.; Polym. Phys. Ed.* **1978**, 16, 1947.
- (22) Wissinger, R. G.; Paulaitis, M. E. *J. Polym. Sci. Part B: Polym. Phys.* **1987**, 25, 2497.
- (23) Tripp, C. P.; Combes, J. R. *Langmuir* **1998**, 14, 7384.
- (24) Strubinger, J. R.; Pratcher, J.F. *Anal. Chem.* **1989**, 61, 951; Strubinger, J.R.; Song, H.; Pratcher, J.F. *Anal. Chem.* **1989**, 63, 98.
- (25) Jia, M.; McCarthy, T.J. *Langmuir* **2002**, 18, 683.
- (26) Findenegg G. H. "*Fundamentals of Adsorption*", edited by Meyer, A.L. and Belfort, G. (Engineering Foundation, New York, 1984) p.207
- (27) Condo, P. D.; Paul, D. R.; Johnston, K. P. *Macromolecules* **1994**, 27, 365; Condo, P. D.; Johnston, K. P. *Macromolecules* **1992**, 25, 6730.

## Chapter 7: Retrograde Vitrification in CO<sub>2</sub>/Polystyrene Thin Films

Preprint with permission from:

Pham, J. Q.; Johnston, K. P.; Green, P. F. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2004**, 108, 3457-3461. Copyright 2004 American Chemical Society.

The devitrification of polystyrene, PS, thin films, supported by oxidized silicon (SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si) wafers was examined under various conditions of CO<sub>2</sub> pressure and temperature using *in situ* spectroscopic ellipsometry. PS films in the thickness range of 15 nm <math>h</math> 200 nm were studied at temperatures from 25°C to 75°C. The CO<sub>2</sub> pressures, P<sub>g</sub>, at which devitrification of the PS films occurred decreased with decreasing film thickness for  $h \leq 50$  nm, at each temperature, indicating the effect of excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the free surface and substrate regions. For thicker films, P<sub>g</sub> remained constant. The largest drop of the transition pressure in this thickness range (15 nm <math>h</math> 50 nm) occurred at 75°C. The phenomenon of retrograde vitrification is shown to occur in this system, wherein with decreasing temperature isobarically, a PS film would first undergo the expected rubbery-to-glassy transition and at yet lower T the film would subsequently exhibit a glassy-to-rubbery (devitrification) transition. Retrograde vitrification is characterized by a vitrification envelope below a maximum pressure (~ 60 atm.) on a P versus T plot. This phenomenon is absent in bulk PS.

## 7.1 INTRODUCTION

Bulk polymer/liquid (or supercritical) CO<sub>2</sub> systems are known to exhibit atypical vitrification effects under various conditions of temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> pressure [1-6]. Condo et al. showed that bulk polymethylmethacrylate (PMMA) and polyethylmethacrylate (PEMA) undergo retrograde vitrification, wherein upon decreasing temperature isobarically the polymers exhibit a rubbery-to-glassy (vitrification) transition and at lower temperatures exhibit a glassy-to-rubbery, devitrification, transition [1-3]. On a temperature versus CO<sub>2</sub> pressure plot, the boundaries of the glassy region can be defined by a vitrification envelope. Devitrification in these systems is associated with the increasing solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> with decreasing temperature in the polymer at constant pressure. Clearly, these transitions result from the delicate interplay between thermal energy and the temperature and pressure dependence of the solubility of CO<sub>2</sub> in polymers.

The effects of CO<sub>2</sub> on polymer thin films is an important area of research because liquid and supercritical carbon dioxide are attractive alternatives to organic solvents in many polymer processes such as foaming, impregnation, separations, coating and synthesis as well as in the formation, development, and cleaning of photoresist films [7-17]. CO<sub>2</sub> is non-toxic and non-flammable and its solvent strength can be tuned markedly with pressure and temperature. Moreover, supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> with small amounts of surfactant and water has been successfully used to remove etched and ashed residues from deep trenches and vias of low k dielectric porous methylsilsesquioxane (MSQ) without damaging the features [18]. Because of its low surface tension, liquid and

supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> have been successfully used to dry aqueous based photoresist films without collapsing the high-aspect ratio features with spacings below 150 nm [13-15].

Recently, Pham et al. investigated the CO<sub>2</sub> induced devitrification of PMMA thin films supported by SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si substrates [19]. In ambient environments in the absence of CO<sub>2</sub>, the vitrification temperature of PMMA (vacuum/PMMA/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si) increased with decreasing film thickness for sufficiently thin films [22-24]. In contrast, over the same thickness range at sufficiently high pressures in CO<sub>2</sub> environments, PMMA (in the CO<sub>2</sub>/PMMA/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si) experienced devitrification, and the CO<sub>2</sub> pressure, P<sub>g</sub>, at which devitrification occurs decreases with decreasing film thickness [19]. This study showed that depending on pressure and temperature, the shift of the transition in thin films relative to that in the bulk could be positive or negative. A vitrification envelope characterizes the phenomenon in thin film PMMA, as it does in bulk PMMA [19-21]. However, the vitrification envelope shifts to lower pressures when the film becomes sufficiently thin. It is noteworthy that whereas the retrograde vitrification phenomenon is observed in bulk PMMA and PEMA it is not observed in polystyrene (PS) [1-3].

The properties of the bulk PS/CO<sub>2</sub> system are different in that only the vitrification transition occurs with decreasing T, isobarically. This vitrification temperature (T<sub>g</sub>) decreases with increasing pressure and eventually becomes relatively constant above pressures of 70 atm [2]. There is no evidence of a devitrification transition at lower T under isobaric conditions. In this chapter of the dissertation, we show that unlike the situation with bulk PS the phenomenon of retrograde vitrification occurs in the CO<sub>2</sub>/PS/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si thin film system.

## 7.2 EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

### *Sample Preparation.*

PS ( $M_w$  590 kg/mol;  $M_w/M_n = 1.06$ ), purchased from Pressure Chemical was dissolved in toluene and spin cast onto a cleaned silicon (100) substrate (Wafer World Inc). The substrate cleaning procedure can be found elsewhere [20,21]. The silicon substrate had a native SiO<sub>x</sub> thickness of  $\sim 1.5$  nm, as determined by ellipsometry. Uniform film thicknesses ranging from 10 nm to 200 nm were prepared by adjusting solution concentrations and spin rates. All samples were annealed at 130°C, which is above the vitrification temperature of PS, for 3 hours to remove residual solvent and establish the same thermal history.

### *Vitrification Temperature ( $T_g$ ) of PS Thin Film.*

After samples were annealed, thermal measurements were performed using a custom-built heating stage and variable angle spectroscopic ellipsometer (J.A Wollam Co.). Spectroscopic ellipsometric angles  $\Psi$  and  $D$  were measured at temperature intervals of 5-10°C. These ellipsometric angles were fitted for film thickness using a Cauchy model. The temperature where the ellipsometric angles and film thickness indicated a change in slope was identified as the glass transition temperature of the sample. A description of the detailed experimental setup and an explanation of  $T_g$  determination can be found elsewhere [22-26].

*CO<sub>2</sub>-induced devitrification measurements.*

Custom-built high-pressure ellipsometry cells were used to measure the CO<sub>2</sub>-induced devitrification (plasticization) of PS at different thicknesses and at four different temperatures: 25°C, 35°C, 50°C and 75°C. The design of the cells and the experimental setup can be found elsewhere [20-21]. For thick films ( $h > 30$  nm), the measurements were made using an angle of incidence of 70 degrees from the vertical, and an angle of 76 degrees was used for thinner films. Once a sample was placed in the cell, at least one hour was allowed for thermal equilibration. The temperature was controlled within an accuracy of  $\pm 0.2^\circ\text{C}$ . After the sample reached thermal equilibrium, ellipsometry angles,  $\mathbf{y}$  and  $\mathbf{D}$  were measured for different CO<sub>2</sub> (Matheson 99.9999% purity) pressures for both sorption and desorption. Each sample was equilibrated at each pressure for 10-20 minutes. The pressure was controlled with an accuracy of  $\pm 0.2$  bar.

Solubility studies of CO<sub>2</sub> in bulk conditioned polymers indicate that at pressures below the devitrification pressure,  $P_g$ , the sorption and desorption isotherms exhibit negative curvature (concave down), whereas for  $P > P_g$ , the isotherms exhibit positive curvature [27,28]. In fact both thin and bulk polymer films exhibit this behavior [20-21]. In other words,  $P_g$  is identified with a change in the concavity of the film thickness versus CO<sub>2</sub> pressure curve. Many researchers have suggested that at low pressures CO<sub>2</sub> sorption in polymers is described by a dual mode mechanism (dissolution described by Henry's law and adsorption into microvoids) signified by a non-linear, concave down sorption isotherm while at pressures higher than the  $P_g$ , linear sorption behavior is observed [27-28].

Several approaches can be employed to determine the CO<sub>2</sub>-induced P<sub>g</sub> of polymer thin films. The first approach relies on using ellipsometry to measure the swelling and the refractive index isotherms of the films. This method requires fitting the ellipsometric parameters  $\mathbf{y}$  and  $\mathbf{D}$  to a model to obtain the film thickness and refractive index. This method works well for films of thickness  $h > 60\text{nm}$ , yielding values that are equivalent to that obtained using independent techniques. However, for thinner films large statistical uncertainties associated with correlations between fitting parameters arise. An alternative, yet simple and effective, method that does not require fitting the data to a model and accurately determines P<sub>g</sub> is to measure the ellipsometric angle,  $\mathbf{y}$ , versus CO<sub>2</sub> pressure at different wavelengths (from 400 nm to 700 nm) for both sorption and desorption isotherms. Because changes in  $\mathbf{y}$  reflect changes in film thickness,  $\mathbf{y}$  also exhibits a change in curvature at P<sub>g</sub> (One potential drawback to this approach is that  $\mathbf{y}$  may be affected by the birefringence of the cell windows. We examined both uncorrected  $\mathbf{y}$ 's and  $\mathbf{y}$ 's corrected to account for window birefringence, and within experimental error they gave the same P<sub>g</sub>. Thus, the birefringence has an insignificant effect on  $\mathbf{y}$ , which is consistent with the small out-of-plane window corrections that were determined when the ellipsometer was calibrated). Indeed this method is reliable because P<sub>g</sub>'s determined from the curvature in  $\mathbf{y}$  yield identical values to those obtained from film thickness and refractive index data over a range of thicknesses

Figures 7-1a, 7-1b and 7-1c show  $\mathbf{y}$  versus P data for initial desorption isotherms for PS films of different thicknesses. These figures show two distinct regions characterized by different curvature.



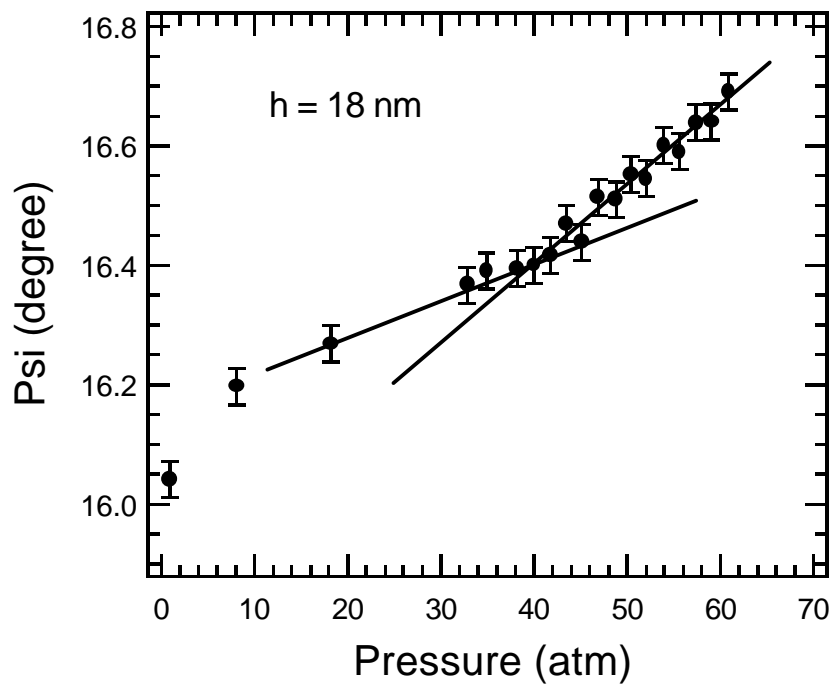


Figure 7-1a: Typical ellipsometric angle ( $\psi$ ) versus  $\text{CO}_2$  pressure desorption isotherm of PS ( $M_w = 590\text{k}$ ) film at 18 nm. Two straight lines were used to identify the point where the curvatures changed. The glass transition pressure ( $P_g$ ) is identified as the pressure at which the change in the curvature occurs in the desorption isotherm.

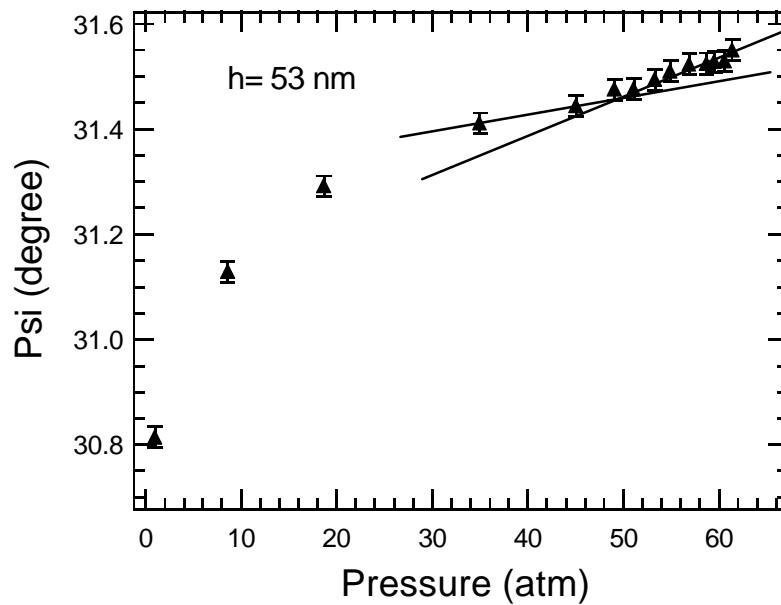


Figure 7-1b: Typical ellipsometric angle ( $\Psi$ ) versus  $\text{CO}_2$  pressure desorption isotherm of PS ( $M_w = 590\text{k}$ ) film at 53 nm. Two straight lines were used to identify the point where the curvatures changed. The glass transition pressure ( $P_g$ ) is identified as the pressure at which the change in the curvature occurs in the desorption isotherm.

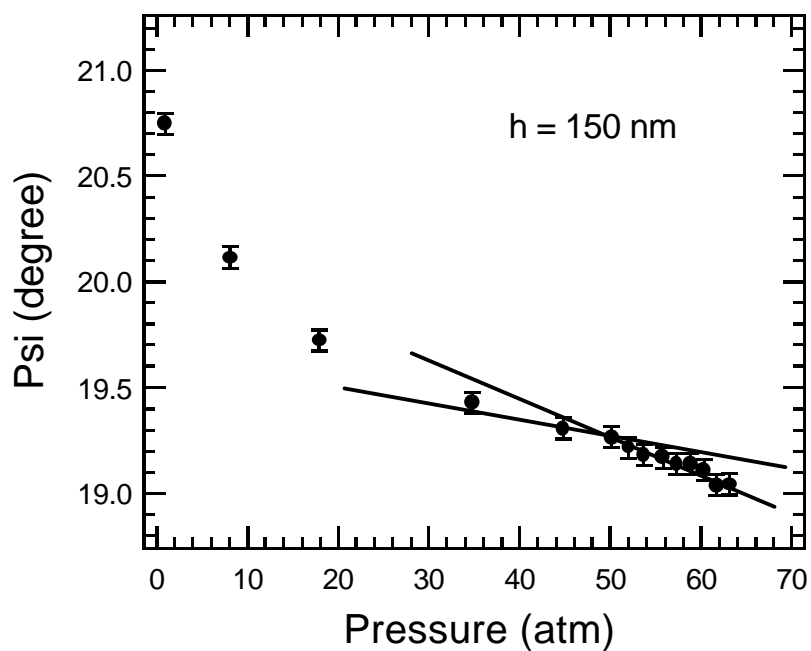


Figure 7-1c: Typical ellipsometric angle ( $\psi$ ) versus  $\text{CO}_2$  pressure desorption isotherm of PS ( $M_w = 590\text{k}$ ) film at 150 nm. Two straight lines were used to identify the point where the curvatures changed. The glass transition pressure ( $P_g$ ) is identified as the pressure at which the change in the curvature occurs in the desorption isotherm.

The CO<sub>2</sub> pressure where the change in curvature occurs is identified as the devitrification pressure, P<sub>g</sub>. We constructed two straight lines on each figure to identify the pressure where the change in the curvature occurs (P<sub>g</sub>). Further details of this procedure may be found in reference 19. A wide range of wavelengths, 427.4 nm, 459.2 nm, 469.7 nm, 535.6 nm, 606.2 nm, 621.7 nm, and 707.7 nm were used to determine the P<sub>g</sub>. All of these wavelengths gave similar P<sub>g</sub> values, and the reported values are the average of the seven wavelengths given above.

### 7.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Measurements of the thickness dependence of the glass transition of PS thin film in vacuum (vacuum/PS/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si) were performed on a PS sample of molecular weight 590 kg/mol. The results, plotted in Figure 7-2, are consistent with measurements performed by other groups, revealing that the glass transition temperature (T<sub>g</sub>) decreases with a decrease in film thickness,  $\Delta T_g/\Delta h < 0$ ; ( $\Delta T_g = T_g(h) - T_{g,bulk}$ ) [24-26,29-33]. The thickness dependencies of CO<sub>2</sub>-induced devitrification transition pressures, P<sub>g</sub>, of PS thin films at temperatures of 25°C, 35°C, 50°C and 75°C are illustrated in Figure 7-3. P<sub>g</sub> decreases with decreasing film thickness for the isotherms ( $\Delta P_g/\Delta h < 0$ ), indicating that lower CO<sub>2</sub> pressures are required to plasticize thinner films.

In an effort to establish a context to understand the significance of the properties of CO<sub>2</sub>-based thin polymer film systems, we begin by briefly reviewing possible reasons for the thickness dependence of T<sub>g</sub> of polymer films under normal (ambient) environments when h is sufficiently small.

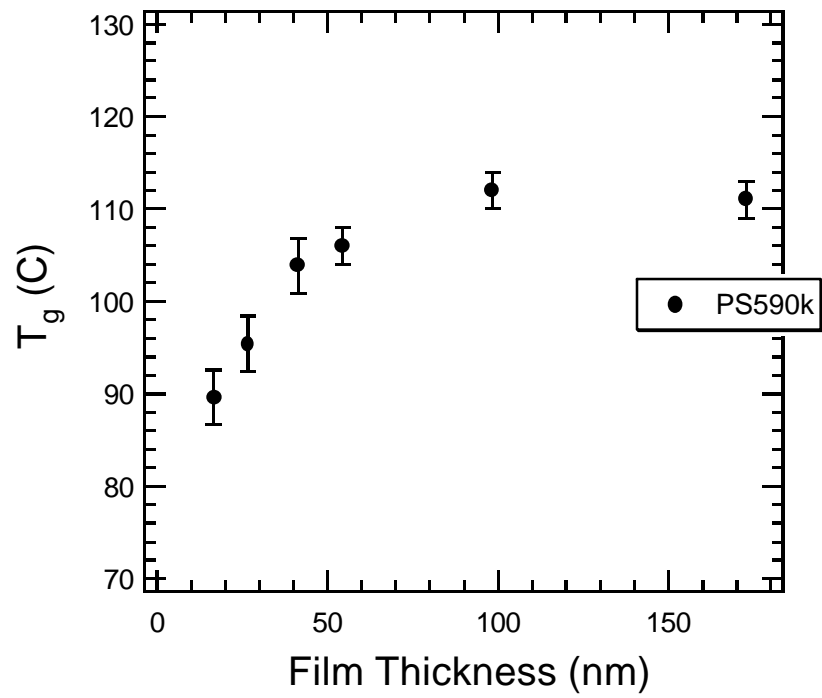


Figure 7-2:  $T_g$  versus film thickness dependence is shown here for PS (Mw = 590k) films.

The temperatures,  $T_g$ , that homopolymers that exhibit specific interactions, such as hydrogen bonding, with a substrate undergo vitrification increase with decreasing film thickness,  $\Delta T_g/\Delta h > 0$ . Examples include PMMA, poly(vinyl pyridine) (PVP) and tetramethylbisphenol polycarbonate (TMPC) films supported by oxidized silicon wafers [22-24,31,32]. However, for systems such as PS/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si, for which such specific interactions of the nature described above between the polymer and substrate are absent, as well as for freely standing films,  $T_g$  decreases with decreasing  $h$ ,  $\Delta T_g/\Delta h < 0$  [24-26,29,30,32,33].

Several models have been proposed to explain the film thickness dependence of the glass transition, though to date there is no universally accepted explanation. An empirical model proposed by Keddie et al. suggests the existence of a “liquid-like” layer at the free surface of the sample that exerts an increasing influence on the effective glass transition of the film as the film thickness decreases to explain the behavior of the PS/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si system [24]. An alternative proposal is based on the notion of multiple  $T_g$ 's [25,26]. Specifically the sample is imagined to be divided into layers, and the  $T_g$  of each layer, starting from the free surface, increases toward the substrate. This model, with appropriate fitting parameters, is capable of describing the  $T_g$  changes that occur in a variety of systems. Long and Lequeux proposed a phenomenological model based on the notion that the material is composed of fast and slow domains (dynamic heterogeneity) [34]. The onset of the glass transition is determined by the percolation of slow domains during sample cooling. The thin film can be viewed as a quasi-2D sample, and because the percolation threshold in 3D is larger than in 2D, thin films should vitrify

at lower temperatures than the bulk. The  $T_g$ - $h$  dependence of samples in which  $\Delta T_g > 0$ , however, can be reconciled by the fact that the effect of a substrate that strongly “interacts” with the polymer segments is to induce percolation into the film. A more recent series of simulations by McCoy and Curro show that the value of  $\Delta T_g$  can be predicted by comparing the average density of the film with that of the identical material in the bulk [35]. In systems in which there exist specific interactions between the polymer and substrate, the average segmental density in the vicinity of the substrate is larger than that of the interior of the film [36-39]. It is also true that at the free surface the segmental packing density is somewhat diminished compared to that in the interior. If the average density of the film is smaller than that of the bulk, then  $\Delta T_g < 0$ ; otherwise,  $\Delta T_g$  is greater than zero. McCoy and Curro showed that many experimental observations are consistent with this notion.

We now discuss the temperature dependence of  $P_g(\infty)$  for the thickest films. These data are shown in Figure 7-3. The glass transition isotherms shift to higher pressures (with the associated increase in  $\text{CO}_2$  fraction) as the temperature decreases from 75°C to 35°C. In other words, more  $\text{CO}_2$  is required to devitrify the film at the lower temperature (at constant  $P$ ), in part, because of the lower thermal energy in the system. The relative locations of the isotherms at large  $h$  for different temperatures are consistent with the well documented bulk behavior. When the temperature is further decreased from 35°C to 25°C, however, the isotherm shifts to lower pressures, indicating that a lower  $\text{CO}_2$  content is associated with the transition,  $P_g$ . This decrease in the transition pressure is not observed in the bulk. The consequences of this effect are discussed later.

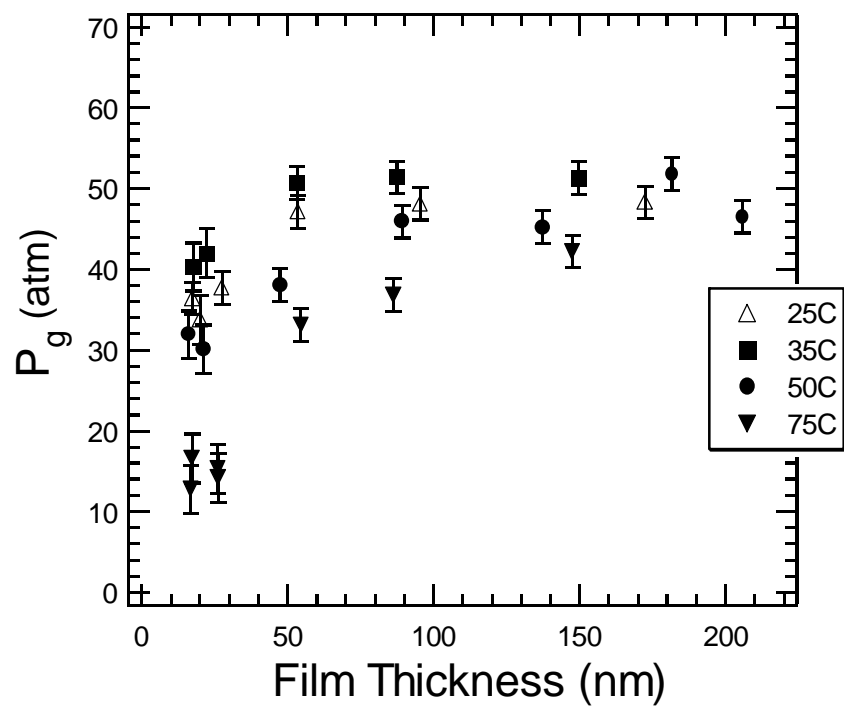


Figure 7-3: The devitrification pressure ( $P_g$ ) versus  $h$  isotherms are shown here for PS ( $M_w = 590k$ ) films at: 25°C, 35°C, 50°C and 75°C.



The data in Figure 7-3 also show that when the films become sufficiently thin,  $h$  less than  $\sim 50$  nm,  $P_g$  decreases appreciably with decreasing film thickness. The depression,  $\Delta P_g$ , should be related to the relative amount of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the films at a given temperature. In other words, if the average amount of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the film increases with decreasing film thickness at constant  $T$ , then  $P_g$  should decrease. These experimental observations would have to be reconciled in terms of the influence of the interfaces (free surface and substrate) on the overall  $\text{CO}_2$  content of the films. The configurational freedom of chains at the free surface and the polymer/substrate interface relative to the interior of the film is an important consideration. The segmental density at a free surface is lower than that in the interior. Near a hard or interacting substrate, the segmental packing density is known to be slightly higher [36-41]. With this in mind, it is important to note that the  $\text{CO}_2$  plasticization of polymer thin films is controlled by the overall  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility in the entire film, which includes  $\text{CO}_2$  at the free surface and substrate regions (interfaces) and in the interior of the film. To this end, experiments show that  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorbs and forms a wetting layer on various hard, impenetrable surfaces [19,20,42-48]. The adsorption of excess  $\text{CO}_2$  at the free surface has the effect of increasing the configurational freedom (lower packing segmental density) of chain segments in that region.  $\text{CO}_2$  also interacts favorably with the hydroxyl groups on the  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrate, with the effect of screening the segmental interactions of the polymer with the substrate [19,20, 42-44]. Moreover, neutron reflectivity measurements by Sirard et al. indicate that there exists an enhancement of  $\text{CO}_2$  sorption in the PDMS/ $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  thin film system due evidently to the larger influence of the excess  $\text{CO}_2$  at the boundaries, leading to larger swelling of PDMS thin films than in bulk PDMS [20,48]. We attempted to model an

adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> layer at the substrate and/or an adsorbed layer at the free surface with a swollen PS layer for films thicker than ~ 60 nm. However, this model proved to be unreliable, producing correlations and large statistical uncertainties in the fitting parameters. In any event, in the case of soft material interfaces, such a layer would be infinitesimally small and not measurable with ellipsometry. The effects would be manifested primarily in very thin films where the overall percent swelling is larger than their thicker analogues. It is noteworthy that our results are consistent with neutron reflectivity experiments of PS(CO<sub>2</sub>)/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si thin film systems that indicate excess sorption of CO<sub>2</sub> in thin films compared to that in the bulk. This effect extends to approximately  $h = 10 R_g$  [49-51]. Clearly, with decreasing film thickness the influence of the interfaces on the overall CO<sub>2</sub> content in films becomes more significant. The behavior of the CO<sub>2</sub>-PS/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si system, with  $\Delta P_g/\Delta h < 0$ , is consistent with the aforementioned, the effective increase of CO<sub>2</sub> in the system with decreasing  $h$ .

There is an apparent temperature dependence of the magnitude of the depression of  $\Delta P_g$  between 50 nm and 15 nm. We denote this depression as  $(\Delta P_g)_{\max}$  for convenience. At 75°C, the maximum depression is  $(\Delta P_g)_{\max} \approx 27$  atm; at 50°C  $(\Delta P_g)_{\max} \approx 12$  atm; at 35°C  $(\Delta P_g)_{\max} \approx 9$  atm; and finally at 25°C,  $(\Delta P_g)_{\max} \approx 16$  atm. The smallest value of  $(\Delta P_g)_{\max}$  occurred at 35°C, the temperature where the compressibility of CO<sub>2</sub> is largest. A similar temperature dependence in the trend of the  $(\Delta P_g)_{\max}$  was also observed in the PMMA/CO<sub>2</sub> thin film system [19]. The magnitude of  $(\Delta P_g)_{\max}$  should be related to the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> in thinner films relative to the amount in thick films at each temperature, as suggested earlier. To this end, the data indicate that the smallest value of

$(\Delta P_g)_{\max}$  was observed at the temperature where the CO<sub>2</sub> compressibility is largest, 35°C. The difference in the CO<sub>2</sub> fraction between the interfaces and that of the interior is evidently smaller at this temperature than at other temperatures. The largest value of  $(\Delta P_g)_{\max}$  is observed at 75°C, the highest temperature, where the bulk CO<sub>2</sub> solubility is smallest.

Further implications of the film thickness and temperature dependencies of  $P_g$  in this system are now discussed. The data are now considered on a temperature versus pressure plot in Figure 7-4 for films with initial thicknesses of ~ 17 nm and ~ 90 nm and for the bulk. The thin films exhibit a vitrification envelope, retrograde vitrification. The envelope is not present in bulk polystyrene, as shown by Condo and Wissinger [1-4]. As mentioned earlier, retrograde vitrification is, in part, characterized by a glassy to rubbery transition with a decrease in temperature at constant pressure. The increase in CO<sub>2</sub> solubility overcomes the ordinary loss of thermal energy upon cooling. The existence of the envelope in thin films reflects the fact that thin films are plasticized at lower pressures than bulk films, as illustrated in Figure 7-3. The maximum pressure of the vitrification envelope shifts inward with decreasing film thickness. For temperatures above that which denotes the maximum pressure of the envelope, the thinner films vitrify at lower temperatures than thick films. Below this maximum pressure, the films undergo devitrification, whereas the bulk does not. Thinner films experience devitrification at higher temperatures (Figure 7-3) than thicker films. When the film becomes sufficiently thick (bulk) devitrification does not occur.

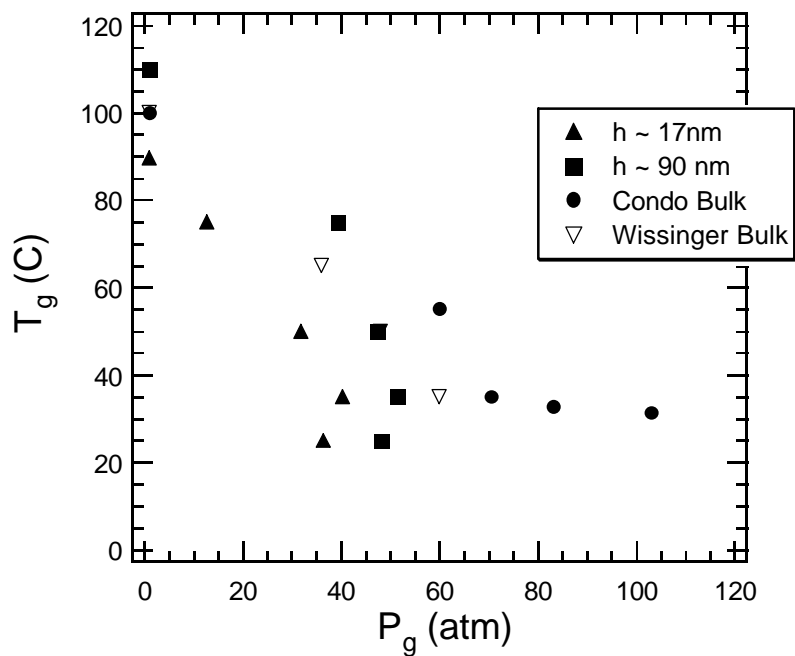


Figure 7-4: T<sub>g</sub> versus P<sub>g</sub> for PS films with thickness h~ 90 nm and with h ~ 17 nm are shown here. The data for bulk PS, shown in the figure as well, were extracted from references 2 and 4.

This would be consistent with the notion that the effective amount of CO<sub>2</sub> in the films increases with decreasing film thickness at a given temperature.

Finally, as a self-consistent check, it is worthwhile to examine differences between bulk and thin films by considering CO<sub>2</sub> activities because the activities include effects of temperature and pressure. In light of this we consider the difference between the transition temperature,  $T_g$ , under normal ambient conditions and  $T_{g-CO_2}$ , the transition temperature in the presence of CO<sub>2</sub>, plotted as a function of CO<sub>2</sub> activity.  $T_g - T_{g-CO_2}$  versus CO<sub>2</sub> activity is plotted in Figure 7-5, where the difference between bulk and thin films is evident; the data for thin films collapse onto a line that is distinct from the line that characterized the behavior of the bulk samples. These data indicate that for a given value of CO<sub>2</sub> activity, the difference between the normal  $T_g$  and the  $T_g$  in the presence of CO<sub>2</sub> is much larger in thin films than in the bulk and this difference increases with increasing CO<sub>2</sub> activity. Indeed, the effects of CO<sub>2</sub> are more significant on thin film PS than in the bulk. The excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the film at the free surface and substrate regions may be expected to cause this larger  $T_g$  depression for a given CO<sub>2</sub> activity.

#### 7.4 CONCLUSIONS

We have examined the thickness dependence of the CO<sub>2</sub> induced devitrification of PS thin films using in-situ spectroscopic ellipsometry. The devitrification pressure ( $P_g$ ) decreased with decreasing film thickness ( $\Delta P_g < 0$ ), implying that lower CO<sub>2</sub> pressures are required to plasticize thinner films.

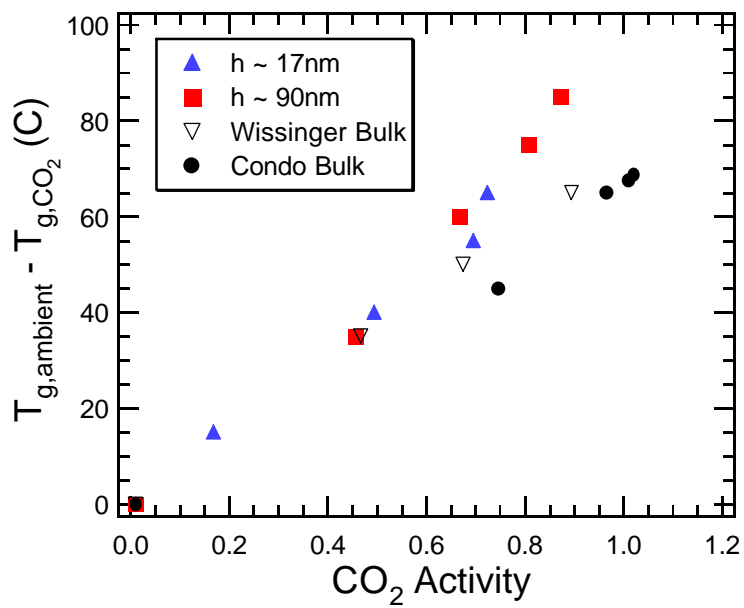


Figure 7-5: Shown here is the ( $T_{g,ambient} - T_{g,CO_2}$ ) versus  $CO_2$  activity for PS film with  $h \sim 90$  nm and with  $h \sim 17$  nm. The bulk PS shown here were extracted from references 2 and 4.

The film thickness dependence of  $P_g$  ( $\Delta P_g < 0$ ) is similar to that of  $T_g$  for systems under ambient conditions, ( $\Delta T_g < 0$ ). At a given temperature, the smaller pressures (or  $\text{CO}_2$  activities) required to devitrify thin films versus bulk films indicate enhanced plasticization by excess  $\text{CO}_2$  in the free surface and substrate regions. We also showed evidence of retrograde vitrification in the thin film PS system, whereas it does not occur in bulk PS. Devitrification is associated with the increasing  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility with decreasing temperature, which overcomes the normal loss in segmental motion upon cooling. The fact that the retrograde devitrification occurs in the thin films is associated with the fact that lower  $\text{CO}_2$  pressures are required to devitrify thin PS films than bulk PS. As the film thickness decreases and the excess solubility of  $\text{CO}_2$  in the free surface and substrate regions becomes increasingly important, the large increases in  $\text{CO}_2$  solubility with decreasing temperature become sufficient to induce retrograde devitrification.

## 7.5 REFERENCES

- (1) Condo, P. D.; Paul, D. R.; Johnston, K. P. *Macromolecules* **1994**, 27, 365.
- (2) Condo, P. D.; Johnston, K. P. *Macromolecules* **1992**, 25, 6730.
- (3) Condo, P. D.; Johnston, K. P. *J. Polym. Sci. Part B: Polym. Phys.* **1994**, 32, 523.
- (4) Wissinger, R. G.; Paulaitis, M. E. *J. Polym. Sci. Part B: Polym. Phys.* **1987**, 25, 2497.
- (5) Wang, W-C. W.; Kramer, E. J.; Sachse, W. H. *J. Polym. Sci., Polym. Phys. Ed.* **1982**, 20, 1371.

- (6) Chiou, J. S.; Barlow, J. W.; Paul, D. R. *J. Appl. Polym. Sci.* **1985**, 30, 2633.
- (7) Stafford, C. M.; Russell, T. P.; McCarthy, T. J. *Polymer Preprints* **1999**, 40, 551.
- (8) Stafford, C. M.; Russell, T. P.; McCarthy, T. J. *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 7610.
- (9) Kazarian, S. G. *Polymer Science, Ser. C* **2000**, 42, 78.
- (10) Kazarian, S. G.; Vincent, M. F.; Bright, F. V.; Liotta, C. L.; Eckert, C. A. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1996**, 118, 1729.
- (11) DeSimone, J. M.; Maury, E. E.; Menciloglu, Y. Z.; McClain, J. B.; Romack, T. J.; Combes, J. R. *Science* **1994**, 265, 356.
- (12) Wells, S. L.; DeSimone, J. *Angewandte Chemie* **2001**, 40, 518.
- (13) Goldfarb, D. L.; de Pablo, J. J.; Nealy, P. F.; Simons, J. P.; Moreau, W. M.; Angelopoulos M. *J. Vac. Sci. Technol. B* **2000**, 18, 3313.
- (14) Namatsu, H. *J. Vac. Sci. Technol. B* **2000**, 18, 3308.
- (15) Weibel, G. L.; Ober, C. K. *Microelectronic Engineering* **2003**, 65, 145.
- (16) Wind, J. D.; Sirard, S. M.; Paul, D. R.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P.; Koros, W. J. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 6442.
- (17) Wind, J. D.; Sirard, S. M.; Paul, D. R.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P.; Koros, W. J. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 6433.
- (18) Zhang, X.; Pham, J. Q.; Martinez, H. J.; Wolf, J.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *J. Vac. Sci. Technol. B* **2003**, 21, 2590.
- (19) Pham, J. Q.; Sirard, S. M.; Johnston, K. P.; Green, P. F. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2003**, 91, 175503.
- (20) Sirard, S. M.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2001**, 105, 766.



- (21) Sirard, S. M.; Zeigler, K. J.; Sanchez, I. C.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 1928.
- (22) Pham, J. Q.; Green, P. F. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2002**, 16, 5801.
- (23) Pham, J. Q.; Green, P. F. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 1665.
- (24) Keddie, J. L.; Jones, R. A.; Cory, R. A. *Europhys. Lett.* **1994**, 27, 59.
- (25) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Zin, W-C. *Langmuir* **2001**, 17, 2703.
- (26) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Zin, W-C. *Langmuir* **2000**, 16, 4064.
- (27) Kamiya, Y.; Mizoguchi, K.; Naito, Y. *J. Polym. Sci., Polym. Phys.* **1986**, 24, 535.
- (28) Koros, W. J.; Paul, D. R. *J. Polym. Sci.; Polym. Phys. Ed.* **1978**, 16, 1947.
- (29) Kawana, S.; Jones, R. A. *Phys. Rev. E* **2001**, 63, 21501.
- (30) Fukao, K.; Miyamoto, Y. *Europhys. Lett.* **1999**, 46, 649.
- (31) van Zanten, J. H.; Wallace, W. E.; Wu, W. *Phys. Rev. E* **1996**, 53, R 2053.
- (32) Torres, J. A.; Nealy, P. F.; de Pablo, J. J. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2000**, 85, 3221.
- (33) Forrest, J. A.; Dalnoki-Veress, K. *Adv. Colloid and Interface Sci.* **2001**, 94, 167.
- (34) Long, D., Lequeux, F. *Eur. Phys. J. E.* **2001**, 4, 371.
- (35) McCoy, J. D.; Curro, J. G. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2002**, 116, 9154.
- (36) Mansfield, K. F.; Theodorou, D. N. *Macromolecules* **1991**, 24, 6283.
- (37) Baschnagel, J.; Binder, K. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 6808.
- (38) Bitsanis, I; Hadziioannous, G. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1990**, 92, 3827.
- (39) Wu, W.; Majkrzak, C. F.; Satija, S. K.; Ankner, J. F.; Orts, W. J.; Satkowski, M.; Smith, S. D. *Polymer Communication* 1992, 33, 5081.
- (40) Binder, K. *Adv. Polym. Sci.* **1994**, 112, 181.
- (41) Green, P. F.; Limary, R. *Adv. Colloid Interface Sci.* **2001**, 94, 53.

- (42) Tripp, C. P.; Combes, J. R. *Langmuir* **1998**, 14, 7384.
- (43) Strubinger, J. R.; Pratcher, J. F. *Anal. Chem.* **1989**, 61, 951.
- (44) Strubinger, J. R.; Song, H.; Pratcher, J. F. *Anal. Chem.* **1989**, 63, 98.
- (45) Jia, X.; McCarthy, T. J. *Langmuir* **2002**, 18, 683.
- (46) Findenegg, G. H. "Fundamental of Adsorption"; Myers, A. L.; Belfort, G., Eds.; Engineering Foundation: New York, **1984**.
- (47) Miura, K.; Otake, K.; Kurosawa, S.; Sako, T.; Sugeta, T.; Nakane, T.; Sato, K.; Tsuji, T.; Hiaki, T.; Hongo, M. *Fluid Phase Equilib.* **1998**, 144, 181.
- (48) Sirard, S. M.; Gupta, R. R.; Russell, T. P.; Watkins, J. J.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. *P. Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 3365.
- (49) Koga, T.; Seo, Y-S.; Hu, X.; Zhang, Y.; Rafailovich, M. H.; Sokolov, J. C.; Chu, B.; Satija, S. K. *Europhys. Lett.* **2002**, 60, 559.
- (50) Koga, T.; Seo, Y-S.; Zhang, Y.; Shin, K.; Kusano, K.; Nishikawa, K.; Rafailovich, M. H.; Sokolov, J. C.; Chu, B.; Peiffer, D.; Occhiogrosso, R.; Satija, S. K. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2002**, 89, 125506.
- (51) Koga, T.; Seo, Y-S.; Zhang, Y.; K.; Rafailovich, M. H.; Sokolov, J. C.; Chu, B.; Satija, S. K. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 5236.

## **Chapter 8: Conclusions and Recommendations for Future Work**

The research in this dissertation revealed that the glass transition of polymer thin films is influenced by many factors such as confinement effects, polymer segment-segment interactions as well as polymer interactions with the substrate and free surface. In this final chapter, key findings as well as the significance of the research involving the glass transition temperature of polymer based thin film systems are summarized. Recommendations for future work are also proposed.

### **8.1 CONCLUSIONS**

#### **8.1.1 The glass transition temperature of polymer thin film blends**

The influence of film thickness, composition and molecular weight on the effective  $T_g$  of TMPC/PS miscible blends on  $\text{SiO}_x/\text{Si}$  substrates were examined using spectroscopic ellipsometry. These studies revealed that while the  $T_g$  of pure TMPC increased with decreasing film thickness, the  $T_g$  of TMPC/PS blends decreased with decreasing film thickness for films thinner than  $\sim 50$  nm. The depression of the  $T_g$  remained relatively constant regardless the molecular weight of the PS. The primary influence of the low molecular weight PS component is to decrease  $T_{g(h=\infty)}$ , which is expected for miscible blends. The variation of  $T_g$  with blend composition was also examined and the deviation from linear additivity was smaller in thin films than in the bulk, reflecting the influence of confinement on the entropic (free volume) contribution to the  $T_g$  of the thin film system.

The results of these investigations provide basis for understanding the glass transition temperature of polymer thin films. An interpretation of the above results in light of current theory and simulations indicated that the entropic, “chain packing”, effects and enthalpic effects associated with the interactions between dissimilar chain segments and the external interfaces (free surface and substrate) determine the  $T_g$  of blend thin films. Moreover, since many properties of polymer thin films are dependent on their glass transition temperatures, understanding factors that influence the glass transition temperature of polymer thin films not only enhance polymer thin films fabrication but also improve the performance of many polymer thin film applications.

### **8.1.2 The glass transition temperature of polymer-inorganic nanocomposite thin films**

The film thickness dependencies of the glass transition temperatures of polystyrene based nanocomposite thin films containing small concentrations, 1-5 wt. %, of layered silicate clays,  $C_{60}$  fullerenes, and carbon nanotubes on SiOx/Si substrates were investigated using spectroscopic ellipsometry. The  $T_g$ 's of PS/functionalized-SWNT(0.75wt%), PS/LSi(1wt%) and PS/ $C_{60}$ (1wt%) nanocomposite thin films decreased with decreasing film thickness for film less than approximately 45 nm. This thickness dependence is similar to that of pure PS, except that in PS the depression is more pronounced. On the other hand, the  $T_g$ s of PS/LSi(5wt%) and PS/ $C_{60}$ (5wt%) increased with decreasing film thickness when the film is sufficiently thin. Experimental results of higher concentrations of  $C_{60}$  did not show the improvement of  $T_g$  because  $C_{60}$  is known to

segregate to the substrate as well as crystallize in these PS-C<sub>60</sub>/SiO<sub>x</sub>/Si systems reducing the effective surface area.

The results of these studies showed that regardless of the strength of nanoparticles-polymer interactions, the addition of nanoparticles into polymer thin film matrix have a profound effect on the glass transition temperature of polymer thin films. Both the magnitude and sign of T<sub>g</sub> depression can be manipulated by incorporating nanoparticles into the polymer thin films. These results provide insight into the glass transition of polymer thin films by reaffirming the influence of both the confinement effects and the interfacial interactions on the glass transition temperature of polymer thin films. Furthermore, understanding the influence of nanoparticles on the glass transition of polymer thin films offers new pathways to “tailor” properties such as mechanical, thermal, and electrical of polymer thin films and achieve properties not possible with the homopolymer.

### **8.1.3 CO<sub>2</sub>-induced devitrification (plasticization) of polymer thin films**

In-situ spectroscopic ellipsometry was shown to be an effective technique to measure the CO<sub>2</sub>-induced devitrification (plasticization) of polymer thin films. The devitrification pressure (P<sub>g</sub>) was found to decrease with decreasing film thickness for both PS and PMMA thin films meaning that it takes less CO<sub>2</sub> pressure to plasticize thinner films. Upon decreasing temperature isobarically, some polymers exhibit a rubbery-to-glassy transition at high temperatures and at lower temperatures exhibit a glassy-to-rubbery devitrification. This retrograde vitrification phenomenon was observed in both PMMA and PS thin films. The retrograde vitrification envelop of both polymer

thin films shift to lower pressures relative to that of their bulk values suggesting that it takes less pressure to plasticize thinner films. This phenomenon is associated with the interplay between the increasing thermal energy of the system with increasing temperature and the increasing CO<sub>2</sub> solubility in the system with decreasing temperature.

These results indicated that the devitrification (plasticization) transition of polymer thin films could be manipulated by changing the temperature and CO<sub>2</sub> pressure. Since the CO<sub>2</sub> plasticization plays a critical role in many polymer and microelectronic processes, understanding CO<sub>2</sub>-induced devitrification enhances the processing of polymer thin films in CO<sub>2</sub> environments. The retrograde devitrification observed in thin films allows thermally labile polymer based thin film systems to be processed at much lower temperatures. Furthermore, due to CO<sub>2</sub> interactions with polymer and external interfaces, the results of glass transition of polymer thin films in CO<sub>2</sub> environments also provide additional insights into understanding the effects of polymer external surfaces interactions on the glass transition of polymer thin films.

## **8.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE WORK**

In chapter 4 and 6, CO<sub>2</sub>-induced glass transition temperature were investigated for homopolymers thin films. It has been shown that the plasticization pressure decreased with decreasing film thickness for both PMMA and PS thin films [1,2]. In addition, retrograde vitrification phenomenon was also observed in PMMA and PS thin films [1,2]. This was attributed to the excess adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> at the free surface and at the substrate. Incorporation of nanoparticles into polymer thin film host increases the available surface area for CO<sub>2</sub> to adsorb; hence the sorption and swelling of CO<sub>2</sub> in the

film would increase with decreasing film thickness and the magnitude of plastization pressure depression is expected to increase. This research would enable one to gain insights into the influence of hard surfaces on the plasticization and sorption of CO<sub>2</sub> into polymer nanocomposite thin films.

In the TMPC/PS blend system, one can tailor the effects of free surface and substrate [3,4]. Compressed CO<sub>2</sub> is known to mediate the interaction between the polymer and the substrate [1,2,5,6]. Measuring sorption, swelling, and CO<sub>2</sub>-induced plasticization of TMPC/PS blend thin films may provide additional evidence of the compressed CO<sub>2</sub> modifications the effects of free surface and substrate.

Spectroscopic ellipsometry has been shown to be a great technique to measure the T<sub>g</sub> of homopolymers, blends and polymer-nanocomposite thin films [3,4,7]. Weakly interacting nanoparticles have been incorporated into polymers and the influence of nanoparticles on the T<sub>g</sub> of homopolymers has been examined [7]. It is expected the enhancement of T<sub>g</sub> become more exaggerated if the polymer host has a strong interactions (hydrogen bonds) with the nanoparticles. Spectroscopic ellipsometry should be a great tool to investigate the effects of interactive nanoparticles on the T<sub>g</sub> of polymer thin films.

### 8.3 REFERENCES

- (1) Pham, J. Q.; Sirard, S. M.; Johnston, K. P.; Green, P. F. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2003**, 91, 175503.
- (2) Pham, J. Q.; Johnston, K. P.; Green, P. F. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2004**, 108, 3457.
- (3) Pham, J. Q.; Green, P. F. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2002**, 116, 5801.

- (4) Pham, J. Q.; Green, P. F. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 1665.
- (5) Sirard, S. M.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2001**, 105, 766.
- (6) Sirard, S. M.; Zeigler, K. J.; Sanchez, I. C.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 1928.
- (7) Pham, J. Q.; Mitchell, C. A.; Bahr, J. L.; Tour, J. M.; Krishnamoorti, R.; Green, P. F. *J. Poly. Sci. Part B: Poly. Phys.* **2003**, 41, 3339.



## Bibliography

- (1) Frank, C. W.; Rao, V.; Despotopoulou, M. M.; Pease, R. F.; Hinsberg, W. D.; Miller, R. D.; Rabolt, J. F. *Science* **1996**, 273, 912.
- (2) Dimitrakopoulos, C. D.; Mascaro, D. J. *IBM Journal of Research and Development* **2001**, 45, 11.
- (3) Ziemelis, K. *Nature* **1998**, 393, 619.
- (4) Ibn-Elhaj, M.; Schadt, M. *Nature* **2001**, 410, 796.
- (5) Ashok, B.; Muthukumar, M.; Russell, T. P. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2001**, 115, 1559.
- (6) Black, C. T.; Guarini, W.; Milkove, R.; Baker, S. M.; Russell, T. P.; Tuominen, M. T. *Applied Phys. Lett.* **2001**, 79, 409.
- (7) Keddie, J. L.; Jones, R. A.; Cory, R. A. *Europhys. Lett.* **1994**, 27, 59.
- (8) Torres, J. A.; Nealy, P. F.; de Pablo, J. J. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2000**, 85, 3221.
- (9) Kawana, S.; Jones, R. A. *Phys. Rev. E* **2001**, 63, 21501.
- (10) Pham, J. Q.; Green, P. F. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2002**, 116, 5801.
- (11) van Zanten, J. H.; Wallace, W. E.; Wu, W. *Phys. Rev. E* **1996**, 53, R 2053.
- (12) Forrest, J. A.; Dalnoki-Veress, K. *Advances in Colloid and Interface Science* **2001**, 94, 167.
- (13) Binder, K. *Adv. Poly. Sci.* **1999**, 138, 1.
- (14) Green, P. F.; Limary, R. *Adv. Colloid and Interfacial Science* **2001**, 94, 53.
- (15) Lin, E. K.; Wu, W.; Satija, S. K. *Macromolecules* **1997**, 30, 7224.
- (16) Lin, E. K.; Kolb, R.; Satija, S.; Wu, W. *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 3753.

- (17) Zheng, X.; Rafailovich, M. H.; Sokolov, J.; Strzhemecheny, Y.; Schwarz, S. A.; Sauer, B. B.; Rubinstein, M. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1997**, 79, 241.
- (18) Reiter, G. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1992**, 68, 75.
- (19) Rudin, A. “*The Elements of Polymer Science and Engineering*” Academic Press, San Diego, **1998**.
- (20) Richards, R. W.; Jones, R. A. L. “*Polymers at Surfaces and Interfaces*” Cambridge University Press, Cambridge U.K. **1999**.
- (21) Gibbs, J. H.; DiMazio, E. A. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1958**, 28, 373.
- (22) Adam, G.; Gibbs, J. H. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1965**, 43, 139.
- (23) Angell, C. A. *J. Phys. Chem. Solid* **1988**, 49, 863.
- (24) Cohen, M. H.; Turnbull, D. J. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1959**, 31, 1164.
- (25) Desimone, J. M. *Science* **2002**, 297, 799.
- (26) Cooper, A. I. *J. Mater. Chem.* **2000**, 10, 207.
- (27) DeSimone, J. M.; Maury, E. E.; Menciloglu, Y. Z.; McClain, J. B.; Romack, T. J.; Combes, J. R. *Science* **1994**, 265, 356.
- (28) Teja, A. S.; Eckert, C. A. *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* **2000**, 39, 4442.
- (29) Perrut, M. *Ind. Eng. Chem. Res.* **2000**, 39, 4531.
- (30) Kazarian, S. G. *Polymer Science, Ser. C* **2000**, 42, 78.
- (31) Weibel, G. L.; Ober, C. K. *Microelectronic Eng.* **2003**, 65, 145.
- (32) Wells, S. L.; DeSimone, J. *Angewandte Chemie* **2001**, 40, 518.
- (33) Namatsu, H. *J. Vac. Sci. Technol. B* **2000**, 18, 3308.
- (34) Goldfarb, D. L.; de Pablo, J. J.; Nealy, P. F.; Simons, J. P.; Moreau, W. M.; Angelopoulos M. *J. Vac. Sci. Technol. B* **2000**, 18, 3313.
- (35) Zhang, X.; Pham, J. Q.; Martinez, H. J.; Wolf, J.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *J. Vac. Sci. Technol. B* **2003**, 21, 2590.

- (36) Zhang, X.; Pham, J. Q.; Ryza, N.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *J. Vac. Sci. Technol. B* **2004**, 22, 818.
- (37) Sihvonen, M.; Jarvenpaa, E.; Hietaniemi, V.; Huopalahti, R. *Trends in Food Science & Technology* **1999**, 10, 217.
- (38) Long, D. P.; Blackburn, J. M.; Watkins, J. J. *Advanced Materials* **2000**, 12, 913.
- (39) Ye, X.; Wai, C. M. *J. Chem. Edu.* **2003**, 80, 198.
- (40) Stafford, C. M.; Russell, T. P.; McCarthy, T. J. *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 7610.
- (41) Zhang, Y.; Gangwani, K. K.; Lemert, R. M. J. *Supercritical Fluids* **1997**, 11, 115.
- (42) Condo, P. D.; Paul, D. R.; Johnston, K. P. *Macromolecules* **1994**, 27, 365.
- (43) Condo, P. D.; Johnston, K. P. *J. Polym. Sci. Part B: Polym. Phys.* **1994**, 32, 523.
- (44) Wissinger, R. G.; Paulaitis, M. E. *J. Polym. Sci. Part B: Polym. Phys.* **1987**, 25, 2497.
- (45) Wang, W-C. W.; Kramer, E. J.; Sachse, W. H. *J. Polym. Sci., Polym. Phys. Ed.* **1982**, 20, 1371.
- (46) Chiou, J. S.; Barlow, J. W.; Paul, D. R. *J. Appl. Polym. Sci.* **1985**, 30, 2633.
- (47) Sirard, S. M.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2001**, 105, 766.
- (48) Sirard, S. M.; Zeigler, K. J.; Sanchez, I. C.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 1928.
- (49) Koga, T.; Seo, Y-S.; Zhang, Y.; Shin, K.; Kusano, K.; Nishikawa, K.; Rafailovich, M. H.; Sokolov, J. C.; Chu, B.; Peiffer, D.; Occhiogrosso, R.; Satija, S. K. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2002**, 89, 125506.
- (50) Pham, J. Q.; Sirard, S. M.; Johnston, K. P.; Green, P. F. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2003**, 91, 175503.
- (51) Pham, J. Q.; Johnston, K. P.; Green, P. F. *J. Phys. Chem. B* **2004**, 108, 3457.
- (52) Gupta, R. R.; Lavery, K. A.; Francis, T. J.; Webster, J. R.; Smith, G. S.; Russell, T. P.; Watkins, J. J. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 346.
- (53) Liao, X.; Wang, J.; Li, G.; He, J. *J. Poly. Sci. Part B: Poly. Phys.* **2004**, 42, 280.

- (54) Kato, S.; Tsujita, Y.; Yoshimizu, H.; Kinoshita, T.; Higgins, J. S. *Polymer* **1997**, 38, 2807.
- (55) Meli, L.; Pham, J. Q.; Johnston, K. P.; Green, P. F. *Accepted to Physical Review E*.
- (56) Watkins, J. J.; Brown, G. D.; RamachandraRao, V. S.; Pollard, M. A.; Russell, T. P. *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 7737.
- (57) Vogt, B. D.; Brown, G. D.; RamachandraRao, V. S.; Watkins, J. J. *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 7907.
- (58) Vedam, K. *Thin Solid Films* **1998**, 313.
- (59) Kressler, J.; Higashida, N.; Inoue, T.; Heckmann, W.; Seitz, F. *Macromolecules* **1993**, 26, 2090.
- (60) Malmsten, M. J. *Colloid Interface Sci.* **1994**, 166, 333.
- (61) Nee, S.-M. F. *Appl. Opt.* **1988**, 27, 2819.
- (62) Azzam, R. M.; Bashara, N. M. *Ellipsometry and Polarized Light*; North-Holland Publishing Co.: Elsevier, **1997**.
- (63) Tompkins, H. G.; McGahan, W. A. *Spectroscopic Ellipsometry and Reflectometry*; John Wiley & Sons, Inc.: New York, **1999**.
- (64) Styrkas, D.; Doran, S. J.; Gilchrist, V.; Keddie, J. L.; Lu, J. R.; Murphy, E.; Sackin, R.; Su, T.-J.; Tzitzinou, A. *Polymer Surfaces and Interfaces III*, edited by Richards, R. W.; Peace, S. K. John Wiley & Sons Ltd. **1999**.
- (65) Keddie, J. L.; Jones, R. A.; Cory, R. A. *Faraday Discuss.* **1994**, 98, 219.
- (66) Orts, W. J.; van Zanten, J. H.; Wu, W.; Satija, S. K. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1993**, 71, 867
- (67) Wu, W.; van Zanten, J. H.; Orts, W. J. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 771.
- (68) Tseng, K.C., Turro, N.J. and Durning, C.J. *Phys. Rev. E.* **2000**, E61, 1800.
- (69) Wallace, W.E.; van Zanten, J. H.; Wu, W. *Phys. Rev. E* **1995**, 52, R3329.
- (70) Frank, B.; Gast, A. P.; Russell, T. P.; Brown, H. R.; Hawker, C. *Macromolecules* **1996**, 29, 6531.

- (71) Forrest, J. A.; Dalnoki-Veress, K.; Stevens, J. R.; Dutcher, J. R. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1996**, 77, 2002.
- (72) Wallace, W.E., Fischer, D.A., Efimenko, K., Wu, Wen-Li and Genzer, J., *Macromolecules* **2001**, 34, 5081.
- (73) Forrest, J. A.; Mattsson, J. *Phys. Rev. E* **2000**, 61, R53.
- (74) Mattsson, J.; Forrest, J. A.; Borjesson, L. *Phys. Rev. E* **2000**, 62, 5187.
- (75) de Gennes, P. G. *Euro. Phys. J. E* **2000**, 2, 201.
- (76) Xie, L.; DeMaggio, G. B.; Frieze, W. E.; DeVries, J.; Gidley, D. W.; Hristov, H. A.; Yee, A. F. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1995**, 74, 4947.
- (77) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Zin, W. *Langmuir* **2001**, 17, 2703.
- (78) DeMaggio, G. B.; Frieze, W. E.; Gidley, D. W.; Hristov, H. A.; Yee, A. F. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1997**, 78, 1524.
- (79) Grohens, Y.; Brogly, M.; Labbe, C.; David, M. –O.; Schultz, J. *Langmuir* **1998**, 14, 2929.
- (80) Fukao, K.; Miyamoto, Y. *Europhys. Lett.* **1999**, 46, 649.
- (81) Kerle, T.; Klein, J.; Binder, K. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **1996**, 77, 1318.
- (82) Kerle, T.; Klein, J.; Binder, K. *Euro. Phys. J. E.* **1999**, 7, 401.
- (83) Muller-Buschbaum, P.; Gutmann, J. S.; Stamm, M. *Macromolecules* **2000**, 33, 4886.
- (84) Mansfield, K. F.; Theodorou, D. N. *Macromolecules* **1991**, 24, 6283.
- (85) Baschnagel, J.; Binder, K. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 6808.
- (86) Ferry, J. D. *Viscoelastic Properties of Polymers*, Academic Press, New York, **1980**.
- (87) Di Marzio, E. A. *Polymer* **1990**, 31, 2954.
- (88) Gordon, M.; Taylor, J. S. *J. Appl. Chem., USSR* **1952**, 2, 493.
- (89) Schnieder, H. A.; DiMarzio, E. A. *Polymer* **1992**, 33, 3453.

- (90) Brekner, M. –J.; Schneider, H. A.; Cantow, H. –J. *Polymer* **1988**, 78, 78.
- (91) Fernandez, A. C.; Barlow, J. W.; Paul, D. R. *Polymer* **1986**, 27, 1788.
- (92) Kim, C. K.; Paul, D. R. *Polymer* **1992**, 33, 1630.
- (93) Gou, W.; Higgins, J. S. *Polymer* **1990**, 31, 699.
- (94) Kim, E.; Krausch, G.; Kramer, E. J.; Osby, J. O. *Macromolecules* **1994**, 27, 5927.
- (95) Kim, E.; Kramer, E. J.; Osby, J. O. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 1979.
- (96) Kim, E.; Kramer, E. J.; Osby, J. O.; Walsh, D. J. *J. Poly. Science part B: Poly. Phys.* **1995**, 33, 467.
- (97) Lui, J.; Jean, Y. C.; Yang, H. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 5774.
- (98) Long, D., Lequeux, F. *Eur. Phys. J. E.* 2001, 4, 371.
- (99) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Lee, D-Y.; Zin, W-C. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 311.
- (100) Keddie, J. L.; Jones, R. A.; Cory, R. A. *Faraday Discuss.* **1994**, 98, 219.
- (101) Efremow, M. Y.; Warren, J. T.; Olson, E. A.; Zhang, M.; Kwan, A. T.; Allen, L. H. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 1481.
- (102) Jain, T. S.; de Pablo, J. J. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 2167.
- (103) Kim, J. H.; Jang, J.; Zin, W-C. *Langmuir* **2000**, 16, 4064.
- (104) Kleidciter, G.; Prucker, O.; Bock, H.; Frank, C.; Lechner, M.; Knoll, W. *Macromol. Symp.* **1999**, 145, 95.
- (105) Tsui, O. K. C.; Zhang, H. F. *Macromolecules* **2001**, 34, 9139.
- (106) Fryer, S. D.; Nealey, F. P.; de Pablo, J. J. *Macromolecules* **2000**, 33, 6439.
- (107) Fryer, S. D.; Peters, D. R.; Kim, J. E.; Tomaszewski, E. J.; de Pablo, J. J.; Nealey, F. P.; White, C. C.; Wu, W-L. *Macromolecules* **2001**, 34, 5627.
- (108) Tate, S. R.; Fryer, S. D.; Pasqualini, S.; Montague, F. M.; de Pablo, J. J.; Nealey, F. P. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2001**, 115, 9982.

- (109) Doruker, P.; Mattice, L. W. *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 194.
- (110) Soles, C. L.; Douglas, F. J.; Wu, W. -I.; Dimeo, R. M. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2002**, 88, 037401-1.
- (111) Kajiyama, T.; Tanaka, K.; Takahara, A. *Macromolecules* **1995**, 28, 3482.
- (112) Tanaka, K.; Taura, A.; Ge, S-R.; Takahara, A.; Kajiyama, T. *Macromolecules* **1996**, 29, 3040.
- (113) Tanaka, K.; Takahara, A.; Kajiyama, T. *Macromolecules* **1997**, 30, 6626.
- (114) Kajiyama, T.; Tanaka, K.; Takahara, A. *Macromolecules* **1997**, 30, 280.
- (115) Kajiyama, T.; Tanaka, K.; Satomi, N.; Takahara, A. *Macromolecules* **1998**, 31, 5150.
- (116) Tanaka, K.; Jiang, X.; Nakamura, K.; Takahara, A.; Kajiyama, T.; Ishizone, T.; Hirao, A.; Nakaham; S. *Macromolecules* **1998**, 31, 5150.
- (117) Tanaka, K.; Takahara; A.; Kajiyama, T. *Macromolecules* **1998**, 31, 863.
- (118) Xie, F.; Zhang, H. F.; Lee, F. K.; Du, B.; Tsui, O. K.; Yokoe, Y.; Tanaka, K.; Takahara, A.; Kajiyama, T.; He, T. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 1491.
- (119) DiMarzio, E. A.; Gibbs, J. H., *J. Polym. Sci.* **1959**, 40, 121.
- (120) DiMarzio, E. A.; Gibbs, J. H. *J. Polym. Sci.* **1963**, A1, 1417.
- (121) McCoy, J. D.; Curro, J. D. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2002**, 116, 9154.
- (122) Binder, K. *Adv. Polym. Sci.* **1994**, 112, 181.
- (123) Bitsanis, I; Hadziioannous, G. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1990**, 92, 3827.
- (124) Sirard, S. M.; Gupta, R. R.; Russell, T. P.; Watkins, J. J.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 3365.
- (125) Kamiya, Y.; Mizoguchi, K.; Naito, Y. *J. Polym. Sci., Polym. Phys.* **1986**, 24, 535.
- (126) Pham, J. Q.; Green, P. F. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 1665.
- (127) van der Lee, A., *Langmuir* **2001**, 17, 7664.

- (128) Wu, W.; Majkrzak, C. F.; Satija, S. K.; Ankner, J. F.; Orts, W. J.; Satkowski, M.; Smith, S. D. *Polymer* **1992**, 33, 5081.
- (129) Kazarian, S. G.; Vincent, M. F.; Bright, F. V.; Liotta, C. L.; Eckert, C. A. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1996**, 118, 1729.
- (130) Koros, W. J.; Paul, D. R. *J. Polym. Sci.; Polym. Phys. Ed.* **1978**, 16, 1947.
- (131) Tripp, C. P.; Combes, J. R. *Langmuir* **1998**, 14, 7384.
- (132) Strubinger, J. R.; Pratcher, J.F. *Anal. Chem.* **1989**, 61, 951
- (133) Strubinger, J. R.; Song, H.; Pratcher, J. F. *Anal. Chem.* **1989**, 63, 98.
- (134) Jia, M.; McCarthy, T.J. *Langmuir* **2002**, 18, 683.
- (135) Findenegg G. H. "Fundamentals of Adsorption", edited by Meyer, A.L. and Belfort, G. (Engineering Foundation, New York, 1984) p.207.
- (136) Condo, P. D.; Johnston, K. P. *Macromolecules* **1992**, 25, 6730.
- (137) Saito, R., Dresselhaus, G., Dresselhaus, M. S., "Physical Properties of Nanotubes", Imperial College Press, London **1998**.
- (138) Russell, T. P. *Current Opinion in Colloid and Interface Science* **1996**, 1, 107.
- (139) Fasolka, M. J.; Mayes, A. M. *Ann. Rev. Mater. Res.* **2001**, 31, 323.
- (140) Masson, J. L.; Green, P. F. *Phys. Rev. E.* **2002**, 65, 031806.
- (141) Limary, R.; Green, P. F.; Shull, K. *Eur. Phys. J. E.* **2002**, 8, 103.
- (142) Binder, K; Baschnagel, J.; Bennemann, C.; Paul, W. *J. Phys. Condense Matter* **1999**, 11, A47.
- (143) Grohens, Y.; Hamon, L.; Soldera, A.; Holl, Y. *Eur. Phys. J. E.* **2002**, 8, 217.
- (144) Zax DB, Yang DK, Santos RA, Hegemann H, Giannelis EP, Manias E, *J. Chem. Phys.* **2000**, 112:2945-2951.
- (145) Giannelis, E. P.; Krishnamoorti R.; Manias E. *Adv. Polym. Sci.* **1999**, 138:107-147.
- (146) Krishnamoorti R.; Silva, A. S.; Mitchell, C. A. *J. Chem. Phys.* **2001**, 108:7175.



- (147) Mitchell, C. A.; Bahr, J. L.; Arepalli, S.; Tour, J. M. Tour; Krishnamoorti, R. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 35, 8825 – 8830.
- (148) Bahr, J. L.; Tour, J. M. *Journal of Materials Chemistry* **2002**, 12, 1952-1958.
- (149) Bahr, J. L.; Tour, J. M. *Chemistry of Materials* **2001**, 13, 3823.
- (150) Bahr, J. L.; Yang, J. P.; Kosynkin, D. V.; Bronikowski, M. J.; Smalley, R. E.; Tour, J. M. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2001**, 123, 6536-6542.
- (151) Lodge, T. P.; McLeish, T. C. B. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 33, 5278.
- (152) Stafford, C. M.; Russell, T. P.; McCarthy, T. J. *Polymer Preprints* **1999**, 40, 551.
- (153) Wind, J. D.; Sirard, S. M.; Paul, D. R.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P.; Koros, W. J. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 6442.
- (154) Wind, J. D.; Sirard, S. M.; Paul, D. R.; Green, P. F.; Johnston, K. P.; Koros, W. J. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 6433.
- (155) Miura, K.; Otake, K.; Kurosawa, S.; Sako, T.; Sugeta, T.; Nakane, T.; Sato, K.; Tsuji, T.; Hiaki, T.; Hongo, M. *Fluid Phase Equilib.* **1998**, 144, 181.
- (156) Koga, T.; Seo, Y-S.; Hu, X.; Zhang, Y.; Rafailovich, M. H.; Sokolov, J. C.; Chu, B.; Satija, S. K. *Europhys. Lett.* **2002**, 60, 559.
- (157) Koga, T.; Seo, Y-S.; Zhang, Y.; K.; Rafailovich, M. H.; Sokolov, J. C.; Chu, B.; Satija, S. K. *Macromolecules* **2003**, 36, 5236.
- (158) Rotello, V. “*Nanoparticles: Building Blocks for Nanotechnology*” Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers: New York, **2004**.
- (159) Giannelis, E. P. *Appl. Organomet. Chem.* **1998**, 12, 675.
- (160) Schoder, C. *Fullerene Science and Technology* **2001**, 9, 281.
- (161) Dai, L.; Mau, A. W. H. *Advanced Materials* **2001**, 13, 899.
- (162) Pham, J. Q.; Mitchell, C. A.; Bahr, J. L.; Tour, J. M.; Krishnamoorti, R.; Green, P. F. *J. Poly. Sci. Part B: Poly. Phys.* **2003**, 41, 3339.
- (163) Sotta, P. *Los Alamos National Lab., Preprint Archive: Condense Matter* **2003**, 1-33.

- (164) Berriot, J.; Montes, H.; Lequeux, F.; Long, D.; Sotta, P. *Europhys. Lett.* **2003**, 64, 50.
- (165) Knoll, A.; Horvat, A.; Lyakhova, K. S.; Krausch, G.; Sevink, J. A.; Zvelindovsky, A. V.; Magerle, R. *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **2002**, 89, 035501.
- (166) Despotopoulou, M. M.; Frank, C. W.; Miller, R. D.; Rabolt, J. F. *Macromolecules* **1996**, 29, 5797.
- (167) Reiter, G. *J. Poly. Sci. Part b: Poly. Phys.* **2003**, 41, 1869.
- (168) Chenyu, W.; Shrivastava, D.; Choi, K. *Nano Letters* **2002**, 2, 647.
- (169) Limary, R.; Swinnea, S.; Green, P. F. *Macromolecules* **2000**, 33, 5227.
- (170) Ren, J.; Silva, A. S.; Krishanomoorti, R. *Macromolecules* **2002**, 33, 3739.
- (171) Barnes, K. A.; Karim, A.; Douglas, J. F.; Nakatani, A. I.; Gruell, H.; Amis, E. J. *Macromolecules* **2000**, 33, 4177.
- (172) Sharma, S.; Rafailovich, M. H.; Peiffer, D.; Sokolov, J. *Nano Letters* **2001**, 1, 511.
- (173) Ferreira, V.; Douglas, J. F.; Warren, J.; Karim, A. *Phys. Rev. E* **2002**, 65, 051606.
- (174) Vaia, R. A.; Giannelis, E. P. *Macromolecules* **1997**, 30, 7990.
- (175) Ginzburg, V. V.; Balazs, A. C. *Macromolecules* **1999**, 32, 5681.
- (176) Hackett, E.; Manias, E.; Giannelis, E. P. *J. Chem. Phys.* **1998**, 108, 7401.
- (177) Ishida, H.; Li, Y. *Polymer* **2003**, 44, 6571.
- (178) Kim, J.; Lee, S-S. *J. Poly. Sci.: Part B, Poly. Phys.* **2004**, 42, 246.
- (179) Chen, G.; Ma, G. *Applied Physics Lett.* **1998**, 72, 3294.

## Vita

Joseph Quan Anh Pham was born on April 27<sup>th</sup>, 1975 in Saigon, Vietnam to Tu Viet Pham and Men Thi Bui. In October 1990, his family left Vietnam and settled in Fort Worth, Texas. After graduating from Paschal High School in May 1994, he entered the University of Texas at Austin and received a Bachelor Degree in Chemical Engineering in December 1998. In January 1999, he enrolled in the graduate program Materials Science and Engineering at The University of Texas at Austin and completed the Master of Science degree in Materials Science and Engineering in August 2002. While a graduate student, he worked as a teaching assistant and received The University of Texas Continuing Fellowship.

Permanent address:

715 South Emma Drive  
Arlington Texas 76002

This dissertation was typed by the author.