**Targeted design leads to tunable photoluminescence from perylene dicarboxdiimide–poly(oxyalkylene)/siloxane hybrids for luminescent solar concentrators†**

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A series of organic–inorganic hybrid materials in which a perylene carboxdiimide-bridged triethoxysilane (PDI-Sil) is covalently grafted to the siliceous domains of poly(oxyalkylene)/siloxane hybrids from the ureasil family has been synthesised (PDI-Sil-ureasils), with the aim of tailoring the optical properties towards their future application in luminescent solar concentrators (LSCs). Steady-state and time-resolved photoluminescence studies revealed that the ureasil host is able to isolate PDI-Sil, which inhibits the formation of aggregates. The ureasil also functions as an active host, with its intrinsic photoluminescence contributing to the optical properties of the hybrid material. Through strategic variation of the branching and molecular weight of the poly(oxyalkylene) backbone, it was shown that the efficiency of energy transfer from the ureasil host to the PDI-Sil can be modulated, which tunes the emission colour from pink to orange. The chain length, rather than the number of branches, on the poly(oxyalkylene) backbone was shown to influence the photoluminescence most significantly. Since ureasils demonstrate waveguiding properties, the results indicate that covalent grafting of a fluorophore directly to a waveguide host may provide an attractive route to more efficient LSCs.

**Introduction**

Organic semiconductors, such as π-conjugated polymers and π-conjugated molecular systems, underpin the development of most emerging flexible optoelectronic technologies, including light-emitting displays, organic photovoltaic devices, field effect transistors and optical sensors.1–6 The performance of such devices depends critically on both the electronic and optical properties of the active molecule and its molecular packing or morphology in the solid-state.7,8 For the design of light-emitting materials, in particular, transfer of a fluorophore from solution to the solid-state frequently leads to significant quenching of photoluminescence due to the aggregation of discrete molecules and/or the re-absorption of emitted light.9,10 The incorporation of the fluorophore into a host can inhibit intermolecular interactions and the resultant quenching, while simultaneously enhancing the mechanical and optical stability at the macroscale.11,12 However, such systems are often susceptible to intrinsic phase separation due to the physicochemical dissimilarity of the two components.13 This is particularly challenging for glassy matrices prepared via the sol–gel process, due to poor miscibility between the hydrophilic inorganic oxide precursors and the hydrophobic π-conjugated polymer or molecule.14 For host–guest systems, where the lumophore is physically trapped in the matrix (so-called Class I hybrids), cooperative interactions (e.g. hydrogen bonding, ionic, van der Waals, π–π stacking) at the interface play a crucial role in determining phase miscibility15–17 and the orientation of individual components.18–20 However, with suitable chemical functionalisation of the π-conjugated molecule, for example through the addition of reactive alkoxysilane groups, they can be covalently-grafted to a silica framework, forming a Class II organic–inorganic hybrid.21–23 This offers the advantage of increased lumophore loading and improved stability of the resultant material.

For extended π-conjugated molecules, however, covalent grafting may still not enable sufficient miscibility with a purely inorganic oxide matrix. In this context, a host material which is...
itself an organic–inorganic hybrid material may be preferable. The ureasils, a family of Class II hybrids, have attracted considerable attention as functional hosts for diverse optical applications including solid-state electrochromic devices,26 components of full-colour displays27,28 and as optical waveguides.29,30 Ureasils are comprised of a siliceous skeleton that is chemically-grafted to poly(oxalkylene) chains via urea [NHC(−O)HN] bridges. They are intrinsically photoluminescent and have been frequently used as an active host for non-grafted lanthanide ions/complexes,31,32 molecular dyes33 and more recently π-conjugated polymers,28,34 in which the excitation wavelength dependence of the ureasil emission is used to tune the extent of energy transfer between the host and the dopant. Ureasils can be processed as transparent free-standing monoliths or as thin films or coatings, and exhibit relatively high refractive indices (~1.49).29 The latter property has led to their recent consideration as waveguide slabs/films for luminous solar concentrators (LSCs).32,33

In this paper, we report the strategic design of ureasil-type hybrid materials which contain a π-conjugated perylene carboxdiimide-bridged triethoxysilane (PDI-Sil), covalently grafted to the siliceous framework. Perylene carboxdiimides are frequently employed as archetypal lumophores in LSCs due to their high molar absorption coefficients, excellent photoluminescence quantum yields and good photostability.35 However, the optical efficiency of LSCs incorporating perylene diimides purely through doping is often low due to lumophore aggregation and/or reabsorption losses.26 Donor–acceptor energy transfer cascades have recently been shown to effectively minimise reabsorption losses in LSCs.27,28 Here, we adopt a different approach and attempt to spatially isolate the lumophore within the waveguide host, inhibiting aggregation. To achieve this we exploit the commercial availability of polyether amines (Jeffamine®)39 presenting linear (diamine) and tripodal (triamine) branching and different chain lengths, in an attempt to control the placement of PDI-Sil within the resultant ureasil monolith. Given that the packing and orientation of individual molecules mediates their electronic coupling, we postulated that this approach may provide a route to reducing reabsorption events and/or aggregation of the lumophore within the host matrix, thereby leading to higher optical efficiencies.

Experimental

Instrumentation and methods

All reactions were carried out under argon using standard high-vacuum and Schlenk techniques. 1H, 13C{1H} were recorded with a Bruker Avance 600 spectrometer (1H 600.26 MHz, 13C{1H} 150.96 MHz). 29Si{1H} was acquired on a Bruker Avance 400 spectrometer (79.46 MHz). All chemical shifts and coupling constants are reported in ppm and Hz, respectively.

Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra were recorded on a Perkin-Elmer spectrum 100 FTIR spectrometer at room temperature. FTIR spectra were collected over a range of 4000–400 cm⁻¹ by averaging 64 scans at a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹. The samples (2 mg) were finely ground and mixed with potassium bromide (175 mg) and pressed into pellets. To evaluate the contributions to the Amide I band spectral deconvolution using Gaussian band fitting was carried out using Origin 8.0® (Microcal) in the region of 1600–1800 cm⁻¹. Mass spectrometry (MS) analysis was performed with a Q-ToF Premier Waters MALDI-quadrupole time-of-flight (ToF) spectrometer equipped with a matrix-assisted laser desorption–ionisation (MALDI) source, using Glu-1-Fibrinopeptide B as the MALDI matrix (reference peak of m/z = 1570.6774). Electrospray ionisation (ESI) mass spectrometry was performed on an ESI-TOF Q instrument in positive mode.

Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) patterns were recorded using a Bruker D2 Phaser diffractometer. The samples were exposed to Cu Kα radiation (λ = 1.54 Å) at room temperature in the range 5–70° (2θ). Solid-state 29Si and 13C cross-polarised (CP) and directly-excited (DE) nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy were performed at ambient temperature on a Varian VNMR instrument operating at 79.44 MHz for 29Si and 100.56 MHz for 13C. Spectra were recorded against an external tetramethyl silane (TMS) standard with magic angle spinning (MAS) at a spinning rate of 6000–10 000 Hz. The 13C CP spectra were obtained as single contact experiments with a contact time of 1 ms and a recycle delay of 5.0 s (repetitions varying between 168 and 600). Thermogravimetric analysis was performed using a Perkin Elmer Pyris 1 TGA thermogravimetric analyser in the range 30–900 °C in an air atmosphere using ca. 2 mg sample, at a heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ in a ceramic crucible. The instrument was calibrated against In and Ni standards in an air atmosphere.

UV/Vis absorption spectra were recorded using a Perkin Elmer Lambda 1050 UV/Vis scanning spectrometer. Steady-state photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy was performed on a Fluorolog-3 spectrophotometer (Horiba Jobin Yvon), using the front-face configuration for solid-state samples. The emission and excitation slit widths were fixed at 1 nm. Photoluminescence quantum yields were measured using a F-3018 integrating sphere accessory mounted on a FluoroMax-4 spectrophotometer (Horiba Jobin Yvon). The values reported are the mean of three repeat measurements. The method is accurate to within 10%. Emission and excitation spectra were corrected for the wavelength response of the system and the intensity of the lamp profile over the excitation range, respectively, using correction factors supplied by the manufacturer. Steady-state fluorescence anisotropy experiments were carried out using a Jobin-Yvon Fluorolog-3 spectrometer with right angle geometry and excitation and emission slits of 2 and 1 nm, respectively.

Fluorescence decays were measured using the picosecond time-correlated single photon counting (TCSPC) method at the Collaborative Optical Spectroscopy, Micromanipulation and Imaging Centre (COSMIC), University of Edinburgh, UK. The excitation source was the second harmonic of the pulse-picked output of a Ti-Sapphire femtosecond laser system (Coherent, 10 W Verdi and Mira Ti-Sapphire), delivering pulses of ~200 fs at 4.75 MHz repetition rate. Fluorescence decays were measured using an Edinburgh Instruments spectrometer equipped with TCC900 photon counting electronics. The instrument response of the system was ~90 ps full-width-half-maximum (FWHM). The decay curves were analysed using a standard iterative
reconvolution method, assuming a multiexponential decay function. Reconvolution and fitting of the fluorescence decays were carried out using Globals software package as described in the ESL. The quality of fit was judged on the basis of the reduced chi-square statistic, $\chi^2$, and the randomness of residuals.

**Synthesis of $N,N$-bis(3-triethoxysilylpropyl)-1,6,7,12-tetra-tert-butylphenoxyperylene-3,4,9,10-tetra-carboxdiimide (PDI-Sil)**

1,6,7,12-Tetra-tert-butylphenoxyperylene-3,4,9,10-tetracarboxylic dianhydride was synthesised following previously reported procedures. Into a Schlenk flask containing 1,6,7,12-tetra-tert-butylphenoxyperylene-3,4,9,10-tetracarboxylic dianhydride (503 mg, 0.51 mmol) in dry ethanol (150 mL), 3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane (1.45 mL, 6.12 mmol, 12 eq.) was added dropwise. The mixture was then reacted under reflux for two days. After cooling at room temperature, the precipitate was collected by filtration and thoroughly washed with cold ethanol to remove the excess of 3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane. The dark red PDI-Sil was obtained in 76% yield. $^1$H NMR: $\delta = 0.69-0.72$ (m, 4 H, Si–CH$_2$), 1.20 (t, 18H, $^{3}$J$_{H-H} = 6.8$ Hz, OCH$_2$CH$_3$), 1.31 (s, 36 H, C(CH$_3$)$_3$), 1.78-1.83 (m, 4H), 3.79 (q, 12H, $^{3}$J$_{H-H} = 7.0$ Hz, OC$_2$H$_4$–CH$_3$), 4.12 (t, 4H, $^{3}$J$_{H-H} = 7.3$ Hz, CH$_2$-N), 6.84 (d, 8H, $^{3}$J$_{H-H} = 8.5$ Hz), 7.24 (d, 8H, $^{3}$J$_{H-H} = 8.8$ Hz), 8.23 (s, 4H) ppm. $^{13}$C{H} NMR: $\delta = 8.2$ (Si–CH$_2$); 18.4 (OCH$_2$CH$_3$), 21.7 (Si–CH$_2$–CH$_2$), 31.6, 34.5, 43.2 (N–CH$_2$), 58.5 (OCH$_3$), 119.5, 119.6, 120.1, 120.7, 122.7, 126.8, 133.0, 143.0, 147.4, 153.1, 156.1, 163.5 (C=O) ppm. $^{29}$Si{H} NMR: $\delta = -46.0$ ppm. ESI MS (m/z) calcd: for C$_{82}$H$_{99}$N$_2$O$_{14}$Si$_2$, 1391.7 found: 1391.7 (M + H). Anal. calcd for C$_{82}$H$_{99}$N$_2$O$_{14}$Si$_2$: C 70.76; H 7.10; N 2.01. Found: C 70.53; H 6.96, N 1.88.

**Synthesis of ureasils and PDI-Sil-ureasils**

Undoped ureasils were synthesised following the general procedure previously reported (Fig. 1). The final materials are designated as d-U(X) for the di-ureasils and t-U(X) for the tri-ureasils, where X corresponds to the name of the starting Jeffamine polyetheramine. Two diamines, Jeffamine ED-600 ($M_w = 600$ g mol$^{-1}$, ~4 OCH$_2$CHCH$_3$ repeat units, r.u.) and Jeffamine D-4000 ($M_w = 4000$ g mol$^{-1}$, 68 OCH$_2$CHCH$_3$ r.u.), were used to prepare the di-ureasils. Similarly, two triamines, Jeffamine T-403 ($M_w = 440$ g mol$^{-1}$, 5–6 OCH$_2$CHCH$_3$ r.u.) and Jeffamine T-5000 ($M_w = 5000$ g mol$^{-1}$, 85 OCH$_2$CHCH$_3$ r.u.) were used to prepare the tri-ureasils.

As a representative example, Jeffamine T-403 (0.792 mL, 1.76 mmol) was dissolved in THF (5 mL), to which ICPTES (1.307 mL, 5.28 mmol) was added under stirring, corresponding to 1:3 stoichiometric equivalents. The solution was refluxed at 70 °C for 24 h, allowed to cool to room temperature, before the sequential addition of EtOH (0.614 mL), HCl (0.5 M, 0.060 mL) and water (0.142 mL) under stirring to trigger sol formation. The molar ratio of ICPTES: EtOH: HCl: H$_2$O was 176:350:1:265. The resultant solution was cast in a polypropylene mould and covered with Parafilm. The sol was allowed to age for 48 h, after which the film was pierced to encourage slow evaporation.

**Fig. 1** Targeted synthesis of undoped and PDI-Sil-ureasils (R$_1$ = Si–O–Si– or H, R$_2$ = –(CH$_2$)$_3$–NHCONH–Jeffamine).
of the solvent from the sample for a further 24 h. The sample was subsequently dried in an oven at 40 °C for 48 h, yielding the resultant \( t\text{-U(403)} \) tri-ureasil as a free-standing, transparent monolith. Synthesis of the analogous \( t\text{-U(5000)} \) tri-ureasil was achieved using the same procedure through substitution with the corresponding Jeffamine T-5000 (1.76 mmol of Jeffamine T-5000 and 5.28 mmol of ICPTES). A larger solvent volume (10 mL) was required to dilute the more viscous D-4000 and the acid concentration was doubled to accelerate gelation (ICPTES: EtOH: HCl: H\(_2\)O ratio was 88 : 175 : 1 : 132.5). In addition, an ageing period of 5 days was used for this sample.

A similar approach was employed for the synthesis of PDI-Sil-ureasils, with the addition of a stock solution of PDI-Sil in THF (0.72 mmol dm\(^{-3}\)) under stirring prior to addition of the gelation agents. The mass of gelled precursors was chosen to obtain \( \sim 2 \) g (mass weighed exactly for each sample) of dried monolith, with the volume of dye solution optimised to ensure a concentration of 0.005% (w/w) in the final sample. PDI-Sil-ureasil thick films (0.11 to 0.28 mm) were prepared by drop-casting a mixture of the UPTES precursor, PDI-Sil stock solution (0.005% w/w) and the gelation agents, in the same molar ratios as those used for the monoliths, onto cleaned glass substrates. The films were aged overnight in an oven at 40 °C.

### Results and discussion

**Covalent-grafting of PDI-Sil to ureasil matrices**

The synthetic strategy to enable covalent-grafting of PDI-Sil to the ureasil host is outlined in Fig. 1. Ureasil-s are typically prepared in a two step reaction. In the first step, ICPTES is reacted with a commercial Jeffamine\(^{36}\) to form the intermediate di- or tri-ureapropyltriethoxysilane (d-UPTES or t-UPTES, respectively), depending on the number of terminal amine groups in the polyetheramine. In the second step, acid-catalysed hydrolysis of the ethoxysilane groups and subsequent condensation results in the formation of the siliceous framework, yielding the corresponding di- or tri-ureasil. We postulated that addition of PDI-Sil to the UPTES solution prior to initiation of the sol–gel reaction should result in co-hydrolysis/condensation of the ethoxysilane groups leading to covalent grafting of the dye to the ureasil framework. The acidolysis of PDI-Sil under these reaction conditions (pH = 2) was visually confirmed by a change in the solution colour from red to pinkish-purple (Fig. 2a). The in situ polymerisation of a structurally-related perylenediimide-bridged-triethoxysilane revealed a similar series of colour transitions as the reaction proceeded.\(^{46}\) The reaction was also followed by MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry. Following addition of the sol–gel catalyst (aq. acid/EtOH) to a solution of PDI-Sil in THF, the \( \text{M}^+ \) molecular peak (m/z 1391.66) disappears (Fig. S5, ESI†), and a new peak emerges at m/z 1222.47, with the predicted isotopic distribution, assigned to the completely hydrolysed PDI-Sil–OH (Fig. 2). In addition, a new population of signals in the high molecular mass region of m/z 2200–2600 appears, which are assigned to molecular dimers with the loss of hydroxyl groups (m/z 2409.98 – 1OH, m/z 2392.01 – 2OH, m/z 2375.94 – 3OH) and t-butylphenyl units (m/z 2242.84 – 3OH, 1 t-butylphenyl). The concentration-dependent formation of stacked dimers has recently been shown to result in a series of chromic shifts in the UV/Vis absorption spectrum of a perylene ammonium derivative.\(^{47}\) We similarly attribute the gradual change in the solution colour of PDI-Sil (pH 2) to the formation of molecular dimers, followed by their subsequent stacking. The stacking process is believed to be concentration-dependent (\( \geq 10^{-4} \) mol dm\(^{-3}\)), as no change is observed in the UV/Vis absorption spectrum at lower concentrations (Fig. S6, ESI†). Since PDI-Sil is introduced into the ureasil at \( \sim 10^{-5} \) mol dm\(^{-3}\), stacking effects are not expected to be important.

Four different Jeffamines\(^{36}\) were used to investigate the effect of chain length and branching on the orientation of the grafted PDI-Sil within the ureasil matrix: Jeffamine ED-600 and D-4000 are both linear macromolecules presenting two amine groups, while Jeffamine T-403 and Jeffamine T-5000 are tri-branched macromolecules with three amine groups. The gelation time was found to be highly dependent on the polyetheramine precursor, taking just 10 min for d-U(600), 20–25 min for t-U(403) and t-U(5000), and >36 h for d-U(4000). Following ageing and drying, the resultant PDI-Sil-ureasils were obtained as freestanding, transparent monoliths. However, tangible differences in the mechanical properties could be identified: the rigidity of the monoliths increased as the mass ratio of ICPTES to polyetheramine increased, such that t-U(403) is rigid
and difficult to bend or cut, while d-U(600) and t-U(5000) are reasonably flexible. Notably, d-U(4000) is elastomeric and highly resistant to contraction during drying.

Local structure of PDI-Sil-ureasils

Global structural characterisation of organic–inorganic hybrid materials is often challenging, due in part to the chemical dissimilarity of the constituents. Moreover, for low dopant concentrations, it can be difficult to spectroscopically resolve the specific contribution of the dopant molecule from the ureasil host matrix. The PXRD patterns for all samples exhibit a dissimilarity of the constituents. Moreover, for low dopant materials is often challenging, due in part to the chemical

calculated degree of condensation, \( C \), is typical of these amorphous materials (Fig. S7, ESI†). The main peak at 21° is associated with the presence of ordering within the siliceous domains, and from this, the structural unit distance, \( d_s \), was determined to be 4.4 ± 0.2 Å (from Bragg's Law). The shoulder between 11.0° and 15.0° is attributed to in-plane ordering of other intra-siloxane domains and shows significant resolution in the low MW ureasils t-U(403) and d-U(600). The coherent length over which the structural unit survives was estimated to be 10.2 ± 0.7 Å (from the Scherrer equation). The PXRD patterns are predominantly influenced by the ureasil host and at the concentration studied here, the introduction of PDI-Sil does not appear to affect the global structure of the siliceous network.

The \(^{29}\text{Si} \) MAS-NMR spectra of all PDI-Sil-ureasils contain three broad signals characteristic of \( T_0 \), \( T_2 \) and \( T_3 \) units (Fig. S8, ESI†). The \( T_2 \) signal \(((R’Si(OSi))_2)(OR)\) is the dominant environment, with the \( T_3 \) \(((R’Si(OSi))_3)\) and \( T_1 \) \(((R’Si(OSi)-(OR))_3)\) peaks providing a smaller contribution. The \( T_1 \) signal is completely absent from the t-U(403) samples, which also show a higher calculated degree of condensation, \( C \), of ~80%. This high degree of condensation of the t-U(403) system is rational if the low MW and tri-branched structure of the corresponding Jeffamine precursor are considered. \( C \) ranges from 67–71% for the other systems (Table S1, ESI†), which is in reasonable agreement with other ureasil-type materials. The absence of the \( T_3 \) signal (−44 ppm) indicates that there is no unreacted precursor remaining. \(^{13}\text{C} \) CP/MAS-NMR measurements confirm that PDI-Sil-t-U(403) (and t-U(403)) behave as typical rigid solids and are in excellent agreement with those previously reported for tri-ureasils of this type (Fig. S9, ESI†). In contrast, PDI-Sil-t-U(5000), PDI-Sil-d-U(4000), PDI-Sil-d-U(600), and their undoped analogues, are highly mobile and do not yield appreciable signals under cross-polarisation. This is consistent with the high degree of elastomerity of the macroscopic samples. As expected, direct evidence of the PDI-Sil component cannot be observed due to its low concentration. However, some minor relative intensity differences are observed between the PDI-Sil-ureasils and their undoped counterparts, suggesting that the PDI-Sil must have some impact on the structure of the material (Fig. S9, ESI†).

Vibrational spectroscopy provides valuable insight into the influence of the preparation method and/or introduction of dopants on the local structure of ureasils. In particular, the Amide I region of the FTIR spectrum (1600–1800 cm\(^{-1}\)) can provide diagnostic information about the specificity and extent of hydrogen bonding interactions associated with the urea linkages (Fig. 3). Gaussian deconvolution reveals that 3–5 components are required to model the Amide I band, which is typical of ureasils (see Table S3, ESI†),50,52 The bands at ca. 1707 (Peak 1), 1660 (Peak 2) and 1635 (Peak 3) cm\(^{-1}\) are common to all samples, and are assigned to stretching vibrations associated with C—O groups located in disordered hydrogen-bonded polyethylene (POE)/polyoxypropylene (POP)–urea associations of increasing strength (Peak 1 and 2), and C—O groups present in significantly more ordered hydrogen-bonded urea–urea aggregates (Peak 3). With the exception of t-U(5000), all samples also exhibit a minor peak (2–5%) at ca. 1745 cm\(^{-1}\) (Peak 4), attributed to non-hydrogen bonded urea groups.52 For d-U(4000), a component at ca. 1727 cm\(^{-1}\) is also present, ascribed to the same origin as Peaks 1–3. A higher HCl concentration was used to induce gelation of this sample, which has previously been shown to affect the proportion of POP/urea aggregates in tri-ureasils.
The incorporation of PDI-Sil does not affect the hydrogen-bonding interactions in the shorter chain ureasils. However, for PDI-Sil-d-U(4000), an 8% increase in the contribution from ordered, hydrogen-bonded urea–urea aggregates (Peak 3) is observed, at the expense of weaker POP/urea interactions (Peaks 1 and 2). In contrast, for PDI-Sil-t-U(5000), the opposite trend is revealed. Given that PDI-Sil is functionalised on both extremities with hydrolysable alkoxyisilane moieties, it seems probable that it bridges individual UPTES chains. The spectral changes may infer that this arrangement facilitates better packing for the linear chain PDI-Sil-d-U(4000), whereas it increases disorder in the tripodal PDI-Sil-t-U(5000). For all samples, no increase in the contribution of Peak 4 is observed, indicating that incorporation of PDI-Sil does not lead to significant destruction of urea/urea or POE/POP/urea aggregates and that the formation of stacked dimers is improbable.

Stability studies

The thermal stability of PDI-Sil-ureasil is controlled by the ureasil host matrix. The obtained thermograms are in excellent agreement with those previously reported for di-53 and tri-ureasils,51 with the host matrix. The obtained thermograms are in excellent agreement (see Fig. S15–S17, ESI†). Under UV illumination (<350 nm), undoped di-ureasils/tri-ureasils (Table 1).31,50 The magnitude of agreement with previously reported values for related di/tri-ureasils determined upon excitation at 350 nm are in good agreement. However, the thermal stability of PDI-Sil-ureasils considerably surpasses the moderate operating tempera-

Steady-state photoluminescence studies

Under UV illumination (λex = 365 nm), undoped di-ureasils/tri-ureasils exhibit blue photoluminescence, in agreement with previous reports for d-U(600) and t-U(5000) (see Fig. S13, ESI†).44,51 This is characterised by a broad band in the photoluminescence (PL) spectrum centred between 350–500 nm, as illustrated in Fig. 4a for t-U(403). The emission maximum is strongly dependent on the excitation energy, red-shifting to longer wavelengths as λex increases (see Fig. S15–S17, ESI† for other undoped ureasils). A similar trend is observed in the corresponding excitation spectrum (Fig. S14, ESI† for t-U(403) and Fig. S15–S17, ESI† for other undoped ureasils). This excitation/emission energy dependence is typical of ureasil-type materials and has been previously ascribed to the convolution of electron–hole recombinations occurring at donor–acceptor pairs localised at the urea bridges and in the siliceous nanodomains.44

The photoluminescence quantum yields (ΦPL) of the undoped ureasils determined upon excitation at 350 nm are in good agreement with previously reported values for related di/tri-ureasils (Table 1).31,56 The magnitude of ΦPL follows the order d-U(4000) > t-U(403) > t-U(5000) > d-U(600). An increase in the organic polymer chain length for linear di-ureasils has previously been shown to increase the ΦPL.55

Ureasils have been shown to act as efficient energy donors while acting as hosts for emissive molecules/complexes.24,25 Fig. 4b shows the PL spectra of t-U(403) and d-U(600) and the UV/Vis absorption and PL spectra of PDI-Sil in THF. Significant spectral overlap between the t-U(403)/d-U(600) emission and the PDI-Sil absorption is observed, indicating that efficient Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET) and/or radiative (trivial) energy transfer from the ureasil donor (D) to the PDI-Sil acceptor (A) may occur, depending on the D–A separation and the relative orientation of the absorption and emission transition dipole moments.

For all PDI-Sil-ureasils, at excitation wavelengths between 330–400 nm, the PL spectrum is dominated by the PDI-Sil emission, centred between 550–750 nm. However, distinct differences are observed between samples in the ureasil emission region (380–500 nm). For PDI-Sil-t-U(403) and PDI-Sil-d-U(4000) a broad emission band, whose relative intensity and peak maxima are modulated by the excitation energy is observed (Fig. 4c and Fig. S19, ESI†). In contrast, the ureasil provides only a minor contribution to the PL spectra of PDI-Sil-t-U(5000) and PDI-Sil-d-U(600) (Fig. 4d and Fig. S19, ESI†). Accordingly, the emission colour of samples under UV illumination is also different: PDI-Sil-t-U(403) and PDI-Sil-d-U(4000) are pink, while PDI-Sil-t-U(5000) and PDI-Sil-d-U(600) are orange. For λex < 370 nm, direct excitation of PDI-Sil is expected to be negligible, thus suggesting that the observed emission is a result of energy transfer from the ureasil host. The corresponding excitation spectra reveal a small band in the ureasil excitation region upon detection in the PDI-Sil emission band, also inferring the occurrence of energy transfer (Fig. 4c and d).56 The photoluminescence quantum yields of the PDI-Sil-ureasils upon excitation at 520 nm (selective excitation of PDI-Sil) are in the range of ΦPL = 76–87% and follow the order d-U(4000) > t-U(5000) > t-U(403) > d-U(600) (see Table S4, ESI†).57 We note that the incorporation of PDI-Sil into the ureasil does not result in a significant decrease in ΦPL compared to the solution value (ΦPL = 90% in THF). In a previous study, we observed that physical immobilisation (Class I hybrid) of the related perylene diimide Lumogen Red LR305 into d-U(600) at the same loading (0.005 wt%) resulted in a 20 nm shift in the emission maximum, band broadening and a decrease in ΦPL.53 However, none of these phenomena are observed for the PDI-Sil-ureasils, suggesting that covalent grafting leads to improved isolation of the lumophore compared with physical immobilisation.

Mechanism for ureasil to PDI-Sil energy transfer?

Both FRET and radiative (trivial) energy transfer require overlap between the emission spectrum of the donor and the absorption spectrum of the acceptor. Table 1 shows the calculated spectral overlap integrals (JDA) for FRET obtained from:

\[ J_{DA}(\lambda) = \int_0^\infty F_D(\lambda')\varepsilon_A(\lambda')\lambda^4 d\lambda \]  

where \( F_D \) is the intensity of the D emission spectrum at wavelength \( \lambda \) to \( \lambda + \Delta \lambda \), with the total intensity normalised to unity and \( \varepsilon_A \) is the molar absorption coefficient of A at wavelength \( \lambda \). d-U(600) and t-U(5000) exhibit the largest \( J_{DA} \) values,
which infers that energy transfer should be most efficient in the corresponding PDI-Sil-urerasils. This is in good agreement with the PL spectra of PDI-Sil-d-U(600) and PDI-Sil-t-U(5000), which show only a small contribution from the ureasil emission. The corresponding Förster distance, \( R_0 \), the distance at which the FRET efficiency is 50% efficient, was calculated from:

\[
R_0^6 = \frac{9000(\ln 10)\kappa^2\Phi_D J_{DA}}{128\pi^2 n^4 N_A}
\]

where \( \Phi_D \) is the photoluminescence quantum yield of the donor, \( n \) is the refractive index of the host ureasil (taken to be \( \sim 1.5 \)) and \( N_A \) is Avogadro’s number.\(^{29}\) \( \kappa \) is the orientation factor, which describes the relative orientation of the transition dipoles of the donor and acceptor and was taken to be 2/3,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>( J_{DA} ) (M(^{-1}) cm(^3))</th>
<th>( R_0 ) (nm)</th>
<th>( \Phi_{PL} ) (%)</th>
<th>( (\tau) ) (ns)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>d-U(600)</td>
<td>4.73 × 10(^{-14})</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>3.8 ± 0.2</td>
<td>4.61 (420 nm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d-U(4000)</td>
<td>4.36 × 10(^{-14})</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>9.9 ± 0.3</td>
<td>6.35 (420 nm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-U(403)</td>
<td>4.12 × 10(^{-14})</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>9.1 ± 1.7</td>
<td>6.60 (420 nm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t-U(5000)</td>
<td>4.72 × 10(^{-14})</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>7.5 ± 0.1</td>
<td>5.85 (420 nm)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{a}\) Average of three independent measurements (\( \lambda_{ex} = 350 \) nm).
which assumes an isotropic orientation of the donor and acceptor.58

The calculated $R_0$ values, which take into account differences in $\Phi_{PL}$ for the energy donor and the $J_{DA}$, are essentially identical for all except d-U(600) (Table 1), which is somewhat surprising given the significant differences observed in the emission spectra of the PDI-Sil-ureasils. This result may indicate either that the observed energy transfer does not proceed solely via the FRET (non-radiative) mechanism or that the assumed orientation factor of 2/3 may not be applicable.

Picosecond time-correlated single photon counting (TCSPC) measurements were performed to further explore the energy transfer mechanism. From Fig. 4b, selective excitation of the ureasil and PDI-Sil is possible at $\lambda_{ex} = 370$ nm and $\lambda_{ex} = 460$ nm, respectively. Similarly, detection of the emission decay curves at $\lambda_{em} = 420$ nm and 500 nm enables isolation of the ureasil emission, while at $\lambda_{em} = 600$ nm the emission from PDI-Sil predominates. For the undoped ureasils, the decay curves at both detection wavelengths are best modelled with three discrete exponential components ($\tau_i$) (see Fig. 5). The fitting data are summarised in Table S5, ESI† and are in excellent agreement with previous reports for d-U(600), which displays three emission lifetimes: $\tau_1 < 1$ ns, $\tau_2 \approx 2.0-3.5$ ns and $\tau_3 \approx 9.0-11.5$ ns.34,59 The average lifetimes, $\langle \tau \rangle$ (Table 1), follow the order $\text{d-U}(403) > \text{d-U}(4000) > \text{t-U}(5000) > \text{d-U}(600)$ which is in good agreement with the trend observed for $\Phi_{PL}$. At $\lambda_{em} = 500$ nm, $\langle \tau \rangle$ is longer for all samples, due to a decrease in the pre-exponential factor, $A_i$, corresponding to $\tau_1$, accompanied by an increase in $\tau_2$ and $\tau_3$. Previously, time-resolved emission studies performed at 14 K showed the predominance of the higher-energy component from silica defects at 1–3 ms, with the emergence of the lower-energy component associated with the NH centres at longer times (>10 ms).44 Given the spectral dominance of the siliceous centred emission at 420 nm and urea-centred emission at 500 nm, it is therefore reasonable to assign these contributions to $\tau_4$ and $\tau_5$, respectively. The concomitant decrease in $\tau_2$ and increase in $\tau_3$ suggest interconversion between the species is responsible for these decay pathways. We have recently shown that excitation energy transfer between the siliceous and urea domains occurs in d-U(600),34 and we attribute $\tau_3$ to relaxation of these emissive centres following population by energy transfer.

If the PDI-Sil emission is considered directly, it is challenging to spectroscopically isolate contributions from reabsorption and/or aggregation phenomena. Under steady-state conditions both processes lead to a decrease in $\Phi_{PL}$, a red-shift in the emission maximum and/or a change in the spectral shape.57,60,61 None of these spectral characteristics are evident in the photoluminescence spectra of the PDI-Sil-ureasils. Similarly, if present, both pathways should give rise to multiexponential emission decay kinetics.44 For PDI-Sil-ureasils, excitation at 370 nm gives rise to a monoexponential decay curve ($\lambda_{em} = 600$ nm) with a characteristic lifetime of $\sim 6.8-7.0$ ns, which is in excellent agreement with the emission lifetime of PDI-Sil in THF (Fig. S22, ESI†). This may indicate that covalent-grafting of PDI-Sil to the ureasil prevents the formation of dimers or stacked aggregates, which has been demonstrated to result in multiexponential emission decay.47 However, if reabsorption effects were significant in these materials, a change in the emission lifetime would be expected, which is also not the case.62 We suggest that covalent grafting of PDI-Sil to the ureasil may potentially reduce the efficiency of energy transfer, either through better isolation of individual fluorophores within the matrix (thereby increasing the D–A distance) or by reducing the overlap of the absorption and emission transition dipole moments.

Detection of the emission in the ureasil region reveals a triexponential decay curve, whose lifetimes and pre-exponential factors are of a similar order of magnitude as the undoped analogues (see Table S6, ESI†). The PDI-Sil-ureasils are generally longer lived than the parent ureasils, and show the same trend for the variation in $\tau_1$ and $\tau_2$ on changing $\lambda_{em}$ from 420 nm to 500 nm. The observation of PDI-Sil emission upon excitation into the ureasil suggests that energy transfer occurs; however, this would be expected to be accompanied by a significant decrease in one or more of the ureasil lifetimes if it proceeds solely by the FRET mechanism, which is not the case. The results suggest that the energy transfer efficiency is affected by the packing and orientation of the PDI-Sil within the ureasil host. PDI-Sil shows better spectral overlap with the urea-centred emission (2.80–3.19 eV), but $\tau_4$ and $\tau_5$ are effectively unchanged upon incorporation of the fluorophore into the ureasil (Table S6, ESI†).

This may be understood by considering that PDI-Sil is grafted to the siliceous framework and thus may be spatially isolated from urea-rich domains. However, a global decrease in $\tau_1$ and $\tau_4$, which are ascribed to siliceous centred emission (2.99–3.41 eV), is also not observed upon incorporation of PDI-Sil into the ureasil. Conventionally, FRET is considered to occur in the short-range (nanoscale) D–A separation with an $R^6$ dependence associated with dipole–dipole coupling, whilst radiative transfer is assumed to operate for D–A pairs separated by distances greater than optical wavelengths and exhibits an $R^{-2}$ dependence.63 The absence of any significant changes in the ureasil lifetime(s) in the presence of the PDI-Sil acceptor suggests that energy transfer predominantly occurs via a radiative mechanism in these samples, which may be masking any short range dipole–dipole interactions.64 However, a unified
theory based on quantum electrodynamics has been developed by Andrews and co-workers, which indicates that the FRET and radiative mechanisms are in fact the short- and long-range asymptotes of a single mechanism that necessarily requires coupling of the donor and acceptor transition dipole moments.65 The observed difference in the energy transfer tendencies for different PDI-Sil-ureasils may therefore arise due to a combination of low spatial proximity and/or poor coupling of the D–A transition dipole moments. The differences in the global D–A distances may be understood by considering the MW and branching of the Jeffamine precursors: t-U(403) has the shortest branch length (~2 r.u. per chain), followed by d-U(600) (~13 r.u. per chain) and t-U(5000) (~28 r.u. per chain). Only d-U(4000) exhibits a distinctly different branch length (~68 r.u. per chain). This suggests that the chain length is the dominant factor in controlling the placement of the lumophore within the ureasil matrix, with PDI-Sil-d-U(600) and PDI-Sil-d-U(4000) exhibiting contrasting PL behaviour. The branching of the ureasil backbone apparently influences the PL properties to a lesser extent.

In an attempt to unravel the contribution of lumophore orientation on the energy transfer efficiency, preliminary steady-state fluorescence anisotropy measurements were performed on PDI-Sil-d-U(600) and PDI-Sil-d-U(4000). As expected, the anisotropy, $\langle r \rangle$, remains constant across the PDI-Sil emission band (selective excitation of PDI-Sil), with an average value of ~0.2 for both samples (Fig. 6a). Similarly, in the corresponding excitation anisotropy spectrum, $\langle r \rangle$ remains effectively constant across the S0 $\rightarrow$ S1 absorption band (500–620 nm), with a value of ~0.3 (Fig. 6b). However, between 380–460 nm, a significant dip in $\langle r \rangle$ to ~0.1 and ~0.01 is revealed for PDI-Sil-d-U(4000) and PDI-Sil-d-U(6000), respectively. We note that anisotropy measurements are strongly influenced by scattering and reabsorption processes and that the measured values for these samples should not be interpreted as absolute. However, the significant decrease in $\langle r \rangle$ in the spectral region that overlaps with the ureasil emission, particularly for PDI-Sil-d-U(600), suggests that energy transfer processes may be at play and may provide the first hint that an anisotropic orientation of donor and acceptor molecules exists.

Conclusions

We have shown that covalently grafting a perylene carboxdiimide to the siliceous framework within an ureasil host is an effective approach to isolate the fluorophore. This has the advantage of switching off several non-radiative deactivation pathways, which include the formation of stacked aggregates/dimers and re-absorption/re-emission processes. Ps-TCSPC lifetime measurements reveal monoexponential decay kinetics for the PDI-Sil emission, supporting the theory that the fluorophore molecules are well-dispersed in the ureasil and do not form molecular aggregates. The nature of the organic backbone of the ureasil was shown to result in dramatic differences in the energy transfer efficiency, which provides a means of probing the spatial distribution of the lumophore within the ureasil. This phenomenon warrants further investigation and linear dichroism and time-resolved fluorescence anisotropy measurements are planned to further investigate the orientation of the absorption and emission transition dipole moments.

Given that ureasils have already been demonstrated as waveguides, this insight should allow us to design highly efficient LSCs in which the fluorophore is directly integrated into the waveguide at a preferential orientation to minimise fluorophore-centred optical losses. Moreover, it has recently been shown significant anisotropic electrical conduction can be achieved through the long-range orientation of perylene bisimide-based organosilanes within a silica scaffold,19 suggesting that this approach may also provide an interesting route to organic-inorganic hybrid devices exhibiting good electrical conductivities.

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Notes and references

The degree of condensation of the siliceous network was determined from $C(\%) = 1/3(\%T_1 + 2\%T_2 + 3\%T_3)$, using Gaussian deconvolution of the peaks to determine the relative population of each organosiloxane species.

The degree of condensation of the siliceous network was determined from $C(\%) = 1/3(\%T_1 + 2\%T_2 + 3\%T_3)$, using Gaussian deconvolution of the peaks to determine the relative population of each organosiloxane species.

The degree of condensation of the siliceous network was determined from $C(\%) = 1/3(\%T_1 + 2\%T_2 + 3\%T_3)$, using Gaussian deconvolution of the peaks to determine the relative population of each organosiloxane species.
photons may cause the measured $\Phi_{PL}$ to deviate from its true value. However, correction of $\Phi_{PL}$ to account for re-absorption/re-emission processes in these samples using the method described by Ahn et al. results in a negligible change in $\Phi_{PL}$ (81–88%) within experimental error for the PDI-Sil-ureasil samples reported here. See: T.-S. Ahn, R. O. Al-Kaysi, A. M. Müller, K. M. Wentz and C. J. Bardeen, Rev. Sci. Instrum., 2007, 78, 086105.

64 We note that identical PL spectra were obtained for the corresponding thick films of these samples. See Fig. S21, ESI†.