Electrical Rectification by a Molecule: The Advent of Unimolecular Electronic Devices

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The Concept of Unimolecular Electronics

In 1959, the late Richard P. Feynman proposed, in his usual witty way, that there was "plenty of room at the bottom", i.e., that atomic and molecular dimensions had not yet been exploited in information storage. In electronic technology, what was initially called "micro-miniarutization" did provide fantastic economies of scale, cost, and speed: the integrated circuits (IC) introduced by Noyce and Kilby were the beginning of this trend. It was observed that the scale of ICs or "computer chips" has halved, at first every 2 years, then every 18 months; this brought a concomitant increase in computing speed ("VAX on a chip", then "Cray on a chip") and an astonishing decrease in unit cost. However, there is trouble ahead. Circuit designers talk about "design rules", the closest distance between adjacent electronic components in the IC. These design rules define the clock cycle, which is the time required to travel between the furthest components on the chip: shorter cycles mean faster computing. These design rules have now crept down to about 180 nm commercially. If photolithography is used, the design rules are limited, by Rayleigh's criterion, to about one-half the wavelength of light used. Capacitative coupling between components and heat dissipation are perennial headaches. Three-dimensional integration (rather than planar integration) has remained an elusive goal. To achieve an "n-doped" material. To make a "p-doped" crystal, one dopes with group III (or 13: Al, Ga, In, etc.). Thus, "D" corresponds to "n", and "A" corresponds to "p". By accosting a micrometer-thick film of organic D molecules to a micrometer-thick film of an organic A molecules, one gets a microscopic DA rectifier (one-way conductor) of electrical current, equivalent to an inorganic pn rectifier. In the 1960s, and particularly in the early 1970s, organic charge-transfer crystals and conducting polymers yielded organic equivalents of inorganic electronic systems: semiconductors, metals, superconductors, batteries, etc. But this wave of "me-too-ism" did not create a new technology: the organic systems did not perform better, or less expensively, than their inorganic counterparts. The two niche areas that survived are liquid crystal displays and (maybe) light-emitting diodes based on conducting polymers.

In the early 1980s, sparked by three scientific conferences organized by the late Forrest L. Carter, the idea of "molecular electronics", that is, electronic devices consisting solely of molecules, gained large-scale interest. Aficionados of biological processes started talking about "biomolecular electronics". The term "molecular electronics" was extended to all electronic properties of polymers, crystals, etc.—what we might call "large-scale molecular electronics". This field, as outlined above, has not fared well in the marketplace.

A persistent view has been that unimolecular, or "oligomolecular", or "molecular-scale" electronics have a very bright future, just as the new millennium begins. Molecules, with their 1–3 nm sizes, should step in where inorganic chemistry finally fails. Thus, unimolecular electronics will come to the rescue: they will finally find a central role in electronic technology.

Milestones in Unimolecular Electronics

In the past 3 years, the following milestones have been reached:

1. Differences in tunneling current across aliphatic vs aromatic chains were measured.

2. The electrical resistance of a single molecule (1,4-benzenedithiol) bonded to two Au electrodes was measured.
sured: it was a few megohms, because the work function of Au and the LUMO of the molecule were mismatched.14

(3) The quantum of electrical resistance (12 kΩ) was measured at room temperature when a carbon nanotube, glued to a conducting AFM tip, was lowered into liquid Hg.15

(4) The Aviram–Ratner mechanism,16 slightly modified, was confirmed in both macroscopic and nanoscopic conductivity measurements through a monolayer of γ-hexadecyl-quinolinium tricyanomethanide, 1: this is the first proven two-terminal molecular device.17 This result is reviewed in some detail below.

The Aviram–Ratner Ansatz of Unimolecular Rectification

In 1974, Aviram and Ratner proposed that a single organic molecule of the type D–σ–A could be a rectifier of electrical current.16 This D–σ–A “Gedankenmolekül” 2 (never synthesized) would act as a rectifier, because the D end is a good organic one-electron donor (but poor acceptor), σ is a covalent saturated (“sigma”) bridge, and A is a good organic one-electron acceptor (but poor donor).

Equivalently, the highest occupied molecular orbital, or HOMO, of the D part is relatively high, i.e., close to the “vacuum” state, and in resonance, possibly at a small applied bias V, with the Fermi level of one metallic contact (say, Ep), while the LUMO of the A part is relatively low and in resonance with the Fermi level of the other contact, Ef; the electron then tunnels inelastically (i.e., with release of energy) through the σ bonding network from the high-lying LUMO of A to the low-lying HOMO of D. The device is asymmetric, because the HOMO of A is relatively low, and the LUMO of A is relatively high (Figure 1).

The “Gedankenmolekül” D–σ–A, when assembled between two metal electrodes M1 and M2, should form the rectifier M1|D–σ–A|M2, with easy electron transfer from M2 to M1 because of the “down-hill” tunneling from the excited-state D+–σ–A+ to the ground-state D0–σ–A0. Since the working thickness is about 2 or 3 nm, this should
be the world’s smallest electronic device. There are several criteria for the rational assembly of suitable \( D - \sigma - A \) systems:

1. \( I_0 \) for the D end must be small and match as closely as possible the work function \( \phi_D \) of the metal layer \( M_1 \) (Figure 1), but if \( I_0 \) is too small, the molecule would oxidize in air.

2. \( A_m \) for the A end must be as large as possible and match if possible the work function \( \phi_A \) of the metal layer \( M_2 \). Figure 1 shows that this is not easy.

3. It is very difficult to chemically convert a weak D into a stronger D, or a weak A into a stronger A, after the bridge \( \sigma \) is built. The coupling reaction forming the bridge between D and A is the last step, which must prevail over forming an intermolecular D–A salt instead.

4. The assembly as a monolayer on a metal electrode must be efficient. The Langmuir–Blodgett (LB) technique transfers a physisorbed monolayer onto a solid substrate, but the molecules often need a long aliphatic chain, which may retard electron flow. Thiols and disulfides bind covalently to Au, but with a partially ionic Au–thiolate bond, which is an extra unwanted dipolar layer, or Schottky barrier. Silane attachment to silicon is less polar and preferable. The molecules should form compact and defect-free films.

Multilayer LB Organic Rectifiers and LB Photodiode

LB multilayer rectifiers have been made by Kuhn and co-workers,18 Sugi and co-workers,19 and Roth, von Klitzing, and co-workers;20 these results could not be extended down to the monolayer level. Fujihira and co-workers demonstrated an LB monolayer photodiode, which is probably the first unimolecular electronic device.21

Getting Electrons to and from a Unimolecular Device

How does one make electrical contact to a molecule? Single-molecule detection is possible in fluorescence, but that experiment does not make an electrical contact. Scanning tunneling microscopy (STM) does allow us to “talk” to a single molecule. However, moving the STM tip amidst large arrays of molecules is impractical for information storage applications, because the piezoelectric distortions that control the tip position are too sluggish for rapid access to a new distant location on a surface. To address a single molecule electrially, one could think of a “molecular wire” (e.g., a polyacetylene strand) or a “molecular antenna” (e.g., the conjugated portion of \( \beta \)-carotene), but one must still make a connection to an external potential source. For macroscopic connections, two techniques seem promising: (1) the LB physisorption technique used to transfer molecules onto a pre-chosen macroscopic electrode and (2) the technique of covalent “self-assembly”, or covalently bonding molecules to electrode surfaces. The former technique requires adding long “greasy chains” to enable ordering at the air–water interface before transfer to a solid substrate; the latter requires mostly thiols, disulfides, or silanes at one or both ends of a molecule. Self-assembly was used ingeniously to measure the conductivity of 1,4-benzenedithiol bonded to Au shards atop a Si break junction.24 For both techniques, all electrical connections ultimately involve matching, possibly under bias, the Fermi levels of an inorganic metal to the HOMOs and/or LUMOs of organic molecules and avoiding unnecessary Schottky barriers (e.g., at the partially ionic Au–thiolate interface). Excessive bias will, of course, lead to dielectric breakdown. Excessive heating can lead to chemical decomposition.

Potential Unimolecular Rectifiers

As reviewed elsewhere, collaborations with C. A. Panetta at the University of Mississippi and M. P. Cava at the University of Alabama netted several candidates for unimolecular rectification, i.e., \( \sigma - \sigma - A \) and \( \sigma - \pi - A \) molecules designed to form physisorbed LB films.21,22,29 Some of these are molecules 1 and 9–17 (Chart 1); molecule 1 became the first confirmed unimolecular rectifier.17

The various \( \sigma - \sigma - A \) molecules that formed insoluble Pockels–Langmuir (PL) films35 at the air–water interface and can be mostly transferred as LB films onto solid substrates were the carbamates 9–13, and triptycenequinone linked to TTF derivatives 14 and 15. The \( \sigma - \pi - A \) zwitterions were 1,30 which formed a rectifier, and its benzochalcogenazolium analogues 16 and 17, which did not.31 The monofunctionalized strong acceptors BHTCNQ and HETCNQ could only be produced in low yields. The very interesting strong donor–strong acceptor TTF–C–BHTCNQ (9) was difficult to purify.22 The strongest films (highest collapse pressure) were obtained with 10b.34 As predicted, the triptycenequinone (weak A) in 14 and 15 could not be converted to triptycene-dicyanoquinodimine (strong A) as the last synthetic step.32

Initial Rectification Reports

The first rectification attempts, macroscopic33,34 or nanoscopic (using an STM)35,36 using mostly molecules 10a and 10b, were unsuccessful. Several asymmetric current–voltage (I–V) curves were reported in STM experiments on other systems: Cu tetraazaporphyrin bonded to carboxylated HOPG,37 an alkylated hexabenzocoronene,38 and an oligophenylethynyl-benzenethiol.39 Electrochemical rectification at a monolayer-modified electrode was reported.40,41

Rectification in Pt|LB Film|Mg|Ag Sandwiches

Samples and co-workers found that an LB multilayer of DDOP–C–BHTCNQ, 10a, sandwiched between Pt and Mg electrodes, behaved as a rectifying LB film;42 they succeeded in making macroscopic defect-free LB multilayers and depositing atop the organic layer a metal film of magnesium (shadowed with Ag) without shorting the device. However, 10a does not contain a strong donor moiety, i.e., I_0 is probably too large for an Aviram–Ratner rectifier. The observed rectifying behavior of 10a was later
reinterpreted to be due not to molecular rectification, but
to Schottky barrier formation between Mg and TCNQ, i.e.,
to the formation of a salt, either Mg$^{2+}$TCNQ$_2^-$
or Mg$^{2+}$((TCNQ$^{-}$)$_2$, at the metal–organic interface.43,44

Sambles’s group also found asymmetries in an LB
multilayer of the ground-state zwitterion C$_{16}$H$_{33}$Q$^{-}$
$3$CNQ,1 there was also a slight I–V asymmetry for an LB monolayer of
$1$.30 To partially alleviate doubts about a possible Schottky
barrier, an insulating LB layer of $\omega$-tricosenoic acid was
next put between $1$ and the electrodes; the I–V asymmetry
persisted.45,46 It was thus claimed that molecular rectifica-
tion had been observed, albeit between asymmetric metal
electrodes.45

Rectification in $\text{Al}|\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3|\text{LB Monolayer}|\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3|\text{Al}$
Sandwich
A very thorough repetition and major amplification of
Sambles’s pioneering work on C$_{16}$H$_{33}$Q–3CNQ, $1$, was
carried out.17,27,47–52 We review first the general physical
and chemical properties of $1$. The synthesis of $1$ was vastly
improved.17 Cyclic voltammetry reveals that $1$ is a weak
reversible one-electron acceptor, with a reduction half-
wave potential ($-0.513$ V vs SCE in CH$_2$Cl$_2$) close to that
of $p$-benzoquinone; the second reduction and the first
oxidation of $1$ are electrochemically irreversible.17 If one
holds the electrochemical potential at the first reduction
potential and measures the electron paramagnetic reso-
nance spectrum, the spin densities of the negative ion
radical $1$- are mostly localized on the 3CNQ ring;50
therefore, the LUMO of $1$ is mostly localized on the 3CNQ
moiety. The dipole moment of $1$ in CH$_2$Cl$_2$ solution is $43$
($8$ D, as befits a zwitterion with a $10.5$-Å separation
between the positive charge (on the quinolinium N) and
the negative charge (on the dicyanomethylene bridge).17
The intense blue or green color of a solution of $1$
(depending on solvent) disappears at the first trace of acid
but is recovered if the solution is exposed to ammonia
vapor. This blue or green absorption, probably due to an intervalence transition (IVT) band or intramolecular charge-transfer transition, is narrow, intense, and hypsochromic: 17,50 this peak shifts from \( \lambda_{\text{max}} = 838 \text{ nm} \) in CHCl\(_3\) (least polar solvent) to \( \lambda_{\text{max}} = 711 \text{ nm} \) in CH\(_3\)CN (most polar solvent). There are two fluorescence emissions, one in the visible region (corresponding to UV absorption bands) and the other in the near-infrared region.50 The excited-state dipole moment is calculated at between 3 and 9 D.50 The IVT transition is probably to an excited singlet state, rather than to a biradical state, and may not involve a large intervalence transition (IVT) band or intramolecular charge-transfer transition, is probably not of the twisted internal charge transfer than to a biradical state, and may not involve a large.

The intense IVT band is at \( \lambda_{\text{max}} \) in CH\(_3\)CN (most polar solvent). There are two fluorescence emissions, one in the visible region (corresponding to UV absorption bands) and the other in the near-infrared region.50 The excited-state dipole moment is calculated at between 3 and 9 D.50 The IVT transition is probably to an excited singlet state, rather than to a biradical state, and may not involve a large intervalence transition (IVT) band or intramolecular charge-transfer transition, is probably not of the twisted internal charge transfer than to a biradical state, and may not involve a large.

Although 1 is not a strong donor—strong acceptor molecule, it has a spectroscopically allowed transition between a ground state with a high dipole moment and an excited state with low dipole moment. In contrast, in molecule 16a, the loss of vibronic structure, as the dielectric constant of the solvent increases, masks any solventochromic shift in the absorbance maximum;31 this lack of strong solvatochromism may help explain why LB films of 16 or 17 do not rectify.31 Simple semiempirical MO calculations (AM1, PM3) do not yield a large ground-state dipole moment for 1,17 unless \( \theta \sim 90^\circ \).53 Larger dipole moments are obtained in LDA calculations.34 There is no evidence of a proposed TICT transition in 1 due to a large internal rotation.55 The \( ^1\text{H} \) NMR of the H bonded to the ring carbon attached to the quinolinium N atom shows a large chemical shift (relative to what is expected from neutral quinoline) due to the zwitterionic ground state;17 there is no change in the NMR spectrum as a function of temperature.50 Evidently, 1 has some non-zero twist angle \( \theta \) between the quinolinium ring and the phenyl ring, due to a steric hindrance, which guarantees that the ground state is not that of a cyanine dye (where the zwitterion state \( D^+ - \pi - A^- \) and the undissociated (“neutral”) state \( D^0 - \pi - A^0 \) would be degenerate) but rather that of a zwitterion. 1 forms multiply twinned crystals, whose unit cell could not be indexed.17 However, the crystal structure of a related compound, picolytricyanoquinodimethan, or picolinium tricyanoquinodimethanide, 18 (Chart 1), exhibits a twist angle \( \theta = 30^\circ \) (dihedral angle between the pyridinium ring and the phenyl ring of 3CNQ).55

When left in air and intense sunlight for weeks, a solution of 1 can discolor, by some unknown mechanism. Most manipulations of 1 were thereafter carried out with minimum exposure to light. 1 forms PL films at the air–water interface; by using a darkened room, a collapse area of 50 Å\(^2\) at a collapse pressure of 34 mN m\(^{-1}\) was seen.17,47 The monolayer thickness (X-ray diffraction, ellipsometry) is 23 Å, which means that this 30 Å long molecule is inclined by about 45° to the film normal.17 Z-type multilayers form on Al, as depicted in Figure 2b. A grazing-angle Fourier transform infrared spectrum of a monolayer of 1 on Al shows two CN peaks at 2139 and 2175 cm\(^{-1}\).17 The X-ray photoelectron spectrum of a multilayer shows three N 1s peaks; the valence band onset is at \(-7.8 \text{ eV} \) vs vacuum, close to the calculated (PM3) HOMO at \(-7.8 \text{ eV}\).50 The intense IVT band is at \( \lambda_{\text{max}} = 565 \text{ nm} \) in the LB monolayer50 and also in the LB multilayer.17

The rectification work was performed both on macroscopic Al/LB film/Al sandwiches and by nanoscopic STM.17 Sambles found that Mg perturbs a physisorbed LB film the least. We decided to use Al on both sides of the LB film but cryo-cooled to 77 K the glass/Al/LB film assembly, to minimize the thermal load on the LB film as the Al pad electrode is deposited from the vapor phase.17 The LB films were thoroughly dried, to prevent any spurious effect due to moisture (which has a large effect on the electrical characteristics of Y-type centrosymmetric arachidic acid multilayers).17 A drop of Ga/In eutectic was used to make contact with Au wire electrodes, as shown in Figure 2. Asymmetric I–V curves were seen in a four-monolayer Z-type LB film, as well as in a four-monolayer film with a Mg electrode between the organic layer and the top Al pad,19 and even for a single monolayer (Figure 3).17 In a control experiment, no I–V asymmetry was seen for Y-type multilayers of arachidic acid after careful sample drying.17 Rectification for 1 was also seen, as a function of temperature, between 370 and 105 K (Figure 4).51 The maximum measured rectification ratio (at 1.5 V, Figure 2). Orientation of the LB monolayer (a) or multilayer (b) of 1 on a glass, quartz, or Si substrate. The electrode (+) for positive bias and the direction of “easy” electron flow for \( V > 0 \) are marked. Reprinted from ref 17. Copyright 1997 American Chemical Society.
I \propto V \text{ (Figure 3b); past } V = 0.8\text{–}1.3 \text{ V, sample-dependent, an enhanced current is observed (Figure 3a and 3b).}^{17} \text{ The current measured amounts to about } 0.33 \text{ electrons molecule}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}.^{17} \text{ Of course, not all Al:monolayer:Al “pads” rectify. After one discards the shorted junctions, or the junctions that short during the experiment, there are still several pads which exhibit either symmetrical } I\text{–}V \text{ curves, or curves which “rectify the wrong way”; these “aberrant” junctions show lower currents and a characteristically different dependence on voltage.}^{52} \text{ The direction of the current for forward bias, shown in Figure 2, indicates that the negative charges are “pushed” by the polarity of the electrode from the dicyanomethylene end, through the bridge, to the quinolinium end of the molecule. The Aviram–Ratner mechanism for } D\text{–}\sigma\text{–}A \text{ molecules considered an undissociated ground-state } D^0\text{–}\sigma\text{–}A^0 \text{ and a zwitterionic excited-state } D^+\text{–}\sigma\text{–}A^-; \text{ this mechanism can be trivally modified and inverted for the case where the ground state is mostly zwitterionic } (D^+\text{–}\sigma\text{–}A^-) \text{ and the excited state is mostly undissociated } (D^0\text{–}\sigma\text{–}A^0).^{17} \text{ The rectification was also verified for a 15-layer film of 1 on HOPG by STM,}^{17,47} \text{ and a small } I\text{–}V \text{ asymmetry was even seen for monolayer of 1 on HOPG,}^{17} \text{ but there is low adhesion of that first monolayer on HOPG.} \text{ The Aviram–Ratner mechanism}^{16} \text{ for unimolecular rectification used an undissociated ground-state } D^0\text{–}\sigma\text{–}A^0 \text{ and a relatively low-lying zwitterionic excited-state } D^+\text{–}\sigma\text{–}A^- \text{. In the initial conception, this excited state could be a biradical,}^{16} \text{ i.e., a state where } D \text{ is oxidized and } A \text{ is reduced. This is necessary if the length of the } \sigma \text{ bridge makes the intramolecular charge-transfer transition moment very small. However, when there is appreciable intramolecular mixing of states, or an observable inter-valence transition (IVT), then a biradical } D^+\text{–}\sigma\text{–}A^- \text{ state is probably not necessary, provided that the change in dipole moment upon excitation is reversible: then } D^+\text{–}\sigma\text{–}A^- \text{ could also be an excited singlet state. If the ground state is zwitterionic } D^+\text{–}\sigma\text{–}A^- \text{, and the excited state is undissociated } D^0\text{–}\sigma\text{–}A^0, \text{ then the Aviram–Ratner mechanism can work... “backwards”:}^{17} \text{ the direction of rectification, shown in Figure 2, agrees with this mechanism.} \text{ Thus, 25 years after it was proposed, the Aviram–Ratner ansatz has been unequivocally and finally verified, using either Al electrodes on both sides of a monolayer or an STM,}^{17,27} \text{ A 2.3 nm thick unimolecular device is now a reality.} \text{ Puzzles} \text{ There are still some unsolved puzzles:} \text{ (1) The sandwiches using Al or Mg electrodes bear an inevitable oxide layer. Al is a “valve” metal, and its thin covering with oxide is not defect-free, unless it is anodized.}^{36,57} \text{ Control experiments using arachidic acid}^{20} \text{ reduce the problem but do not eliminate it. Adhesion of LB films to hydrophilic Au is poor, and depositing oxide-free Au pads on an LB monolayer destroys it by heating, despite cryocooling the sample holder.} \text{ (2) The Ga/In eutectic has, typically, a 100 k\Omega contact resistance with the Al pads,}^{51} \text{ which is } 1\text{–}2 \text{ orders of magnitude larger than the } 100 \text{ k\Omega typical of monolayer contacts to HOPG.}
magnitude less than the resistance of the LB monolayer. When the etching wets the Al by piercing through the oxide layer, then the pad lifts off the monolayer. Ag paste has similar problems.

(3) The measured current, 0.33 electrons mole\(^{-1}\) s\(^{-1}\) (5.3 \times 10^{-20}\) A, is many orders of magnitude lower than the currents measured in an STM experiment (10 pA to 1 nA): maybe only one molecule in a million is “at work”.

(4) The reduction of the rectification ratio upon repeated cycling\(^{17}\) and the number of “aberrant” junctions could be partially eliminated by chemisorbing a suitably modified version of molecule 1 onto Si or Al. A thiol termination is incompatible with the acid-sensitive molecule 1. A silanized version of 1 was prepared but in initial experiments did not form a uniform layer on Si.

(5) The Volta, or Kelvin potential of about 0.5 V for a monolayer of 1 at the air-water interface\(^{17}\) or for a dry monolayer of 1 on Al is 1 order of magnitude lower than expected for a zwitterionic monolayer.

(6) Asymmetrical STM currents for molecules that have no rectifying moieties\(^{38,39}\) are puzzling; it is likely\(^{38}\) that the molecules, if placed asymmetrically within the potential field, can experience asymmetric tunneling currents.

(7) A theoretical calculation of the I–V asymmetry for 1 would be welcome.

(8) Can all ground-state zwitterions with a strong IVT band and a low-lying undisassociated excited state rectify?

(9) How can we make an active electronic device (nnp current transistor, or logic gate)?

Conclusion

The goal of Aviram–Ratner rectification through an oriented D\(^{–}\)−A monolayer has been achieved. Much exciting work lies ahead, as we proceed toward making unimolecular electronics a practical reality in the 21st century.

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Langmuirâ€“Schaefer Self-assembled monolayers Break junctions Mooreâ€™s law Aviramâ€“Ratner rectifier

1. Introduction

(2) By a mechanically controlled â€œbreak junctionâ€ (MCBJ) technique a single benzene-1,4-bithiol was chemisorbed to two Au shards. Molecules either singly, or in parallel as a monolayer array (one with a measured resistance of several MΩ [9], molecule thick), can be either passive or active electronic components. (3) Scanning Tunneling Spectroscopy (STS) showed that the current through a single molecule scales with the square of concentration while the frequency of collisions scales with the square of concentration.

Unimolecular reactions were hampered by experimental difficulties and theoretical misconceptions. Some purportedly unimolecular reactions turned out to be multistep reactions, chain reactions, or reactions catalyzed by reactor walls. For truly unimolecular reactions, it was not initially clear why the rate should scale with the first power of concentration while the frequency of collisions scales with the square of concentration.

A unimolecular electronic device should perform active electronic functions by exploiting the energy levels, or conformations, of a single molecule, or a very few molecules, and should be addressable electrically by macroscopic electrodes. We found unimolecular rectification in a molecule, Ï„-hexadecylquinolinium tricyanoquinodimethanide, 4, in which the ground state is Zwitterionic: D-Î€-A, while the first excited state is undissociated: D-Î€-A. This 2.3 nm long unimolecular device, measured three years ago between Al electrodes and now between Au electrodes, confirms a 1974 proposal by Aviram and Ratner for unimolecular rectification in a molecule.
Electrical Rectification by a Molecule: The Advent of Unimolecular Electronic Devices. Acc. Chem. Res., 1999, 32:950. James DK, Tour JM. Organic Synthesis and Device Testing for Molecular Electronics. Aldrichimica Acta, 2006, 39:47-56. Osorio EA, Bjornholm T, Lehn JM, Ruben M, van der Zant HSJ. Single-molecule transport in three-terminal devices. J. Phys.: Condens. Matter, 2008, 20:374121-374135. Likharev KK. Correlated discrete transfer of single electrons in ultrasmall tunnel junctions. IBM J. Res. Unimolecular reaction rate theory describes the isomerization, dissociation, or decomposition of a single reactant molecule or complex in the gas phase. Early work on unimolecular reactions was hampered by experimental difficulties and theoretical misconceptions. Some purportedly unimolecular reactions turned out to be multistep reactions, chain reactions, or reactions catalyzed by reactor walls. For truly unimolecular reactions, it was not initially clear why the rate should scale with the first power of concentration while the frequency of collisions scales with the square of concentration. Both the mechanical stability and electronic coupling of the molecule-electrode interface increase with the binding energy of the electrode-anchoring moiety interaction. A compromise between these factors can be achieved by inserting suitable spacers between the molecular kernel and anchoring groups. To select suitable electrode materials, chemical inertness to air, good processability, suitable work function and good compatibility with molecules should be taken into consideration. Importance of direct metal-pi coupling in electronic transport through conjugated single-molecule junctions. J. Am. Chem. The field of proposed unimolecular devices consisting of a single molecule between measuring electrodes was born in the 1974 theoretical paper by Arieh (now Ari) Aviram and his doctoral adviser Mark A. Ratner [1], which proposed a one-molecule rectifier (=oneway conductor) of electricity, as the molecular equivalent of the inorganic rectifier using macroscopic ohmic or. devices; diode logic Single-electron transistors & single-atom transistor (Coulomb blockade): no gain. Must reach out and touch molecules STM, break junctions, macroscopic pads Molecules with gain? A 0 0 + - 0 0 D - -A s D - -A s D - -A s D â€” â€” A s D - -A molecule s AVIRAM & RATNER PROPOSAL OF UNIMOLECULAR RECTIFICATION (1973) ET ET ELECTRON FLOW IVT + - Step 1 Step 2 + - Forward bias: preferred direction of electron flow ET ET NC CN Fermi level (metal 2) IVT LUMO(A) S S Fermi level (metal 1) S S HOMO(.