# Polymers with Palladium Nanoparticles as Active Membrane Materials

J. Yu,<sup>1</sup> R. Y. F. Liu,<sup>1</sup> B. Poon,<sup>1</sup> S. Nazarenko,<sup>1</sup> T. Koloski,<sup>2</sup> T. Vargo,<sup>2</sup> A. Hiltner,<sup>1</sup> E. Baer<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Macromolecular Science and Center for Applied Polymer Research, Case Western Reserve University, 10900 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio 44106

<sup>2</sup>Integument Technologies, Incorporated, Tonawanda, New York 14150

Received 25 July 2003; accepted 11 September 2003

**ABSTRACT:** A new *in situ* infusion method was used to incorporate small amounts (~ 1 wt %) of metal and metal oxide particles into a polymer matrix. Nanosized particles were observed by both transmission electron microscopy and atomic force microscopy. Oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) and carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) transport properties of the infused materials were investigated using a dynamic diffusion approach in which both testing and purge gases can be controlled. It was discovered that trace amounts (~ 2%) of hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>) in the purge gas were sufficient to considerably reduce the O<sub>2</sub> flux of FEP films infused with palladium (Pd) nanoparticles, up to a 200-fold decrease. In contrast, H<sub>2</sub> essentially had no effect on the transport of CO<sub>2</sub>. The generality of the remark-

able reduction in oxygen flux was also demonstrated with films of PP, LLDPE, PET, and nylon 6,6 infused with Pd nanoparticles. This oxygen-scavenging effect became more pronounced at lower oxygen concentrations. The catalytic role of Pd in the reaction of  $O_2$  and  $H_2$  and the enormous surface area provided by the dispersed nanoparticles were responsible for this highly efficient oxygen-scavenging effect. © 2004 Wiley Periodicals, Inc. J Appl Polym Sci 92: 749–756, 2004

**Key words:** selectivity; nanoparticles; catalysis; separation techniques; oxygen permeability

## **INTRODUCTION**

Particles in the nanometer-size range serve as the bridge between atoms/molecules and bulk materials. Because of their quantum-scale dimensions,<sup>1</sup> nanoparticles exhibit properties different from those of the bulk.<sup>2–5</sup> As a result of their unique properties, numerous efforts have been made to disperse nanoparticles in polymers to enhance or modify electrical,<sup>6-8</sup> optical<sup>9,10</sup> catalytic,<sup>3,11</sup> and mechanical<sup>12</sup> properties. For example, it has been reported that dispersion of fumed silica nanoparticles in a polymeric membrane enhances both the permeability and selectivity for large organic molecules over small permanent gases.<sup>13</sup> Usually, membrane permeability and selectivity cannot be increased simultaneously. It may even be possible to create reactive membranes that combine both catalytic and separation functions using nanoparticles.<sup>3,14,15</sup>

The surface area of nanoparticles is 2 to 4 orders of magnitude higher than that of more conventional micron-scale particles.<sup>16,17</sup> To use this high surface area

in a polymer matrix, very good dispersion is required. Most inorganic nanoparticles are typically in the form of agglomerates before they are dispersed. Because such nanoparticles adhere strongly to each other, it is difficult to separate these agglomerates into individual particles and disperse them uniformly in a polymer matrix.<sup>17</sup> This compromises the potential property enhancement that the nanoparticle would have afforded.<sup>18,19</sup> The two most common approaches to dispersing nanoparticles are direct blending and in situ polymerization. Direct blending can be performed in the melt or in solution. Dispersion largely depends on the shear force between particle and polymer melt or solution. Although this approach is attractive, it is often unsuccessful in obtaining good dispersion of nanoparticles.<sup>19</sup> Chemical treatment of the nanoparticles to increase compatibility with the hydrophobic polymer can improve dispersion to some extent.<sup>20</sup> It has been shown that nanoparticles are more easily dispersed in a monomer solution that is subsequently polymerized with the nanoparticles in situ.<sup>21,22</sup> However, the particular requirements of this approach are restricted to certain polymerization procedures.

Recently, an infusion approach was developed that uses the inherent free volume of the solid polymer to obtain a dispersion of inorganic metal or metal-oxide nanoparticles.<sup>22–24</sup> In this method, a solid polymer is evacuated and a volatile precursor is infused into the evacuated free volume. Subsequent thermal or chem-

Correspondence to: A. Hiltner (pah6@cwru.edu).

Contract grant sponsor: Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency; contract grant number: MDA 972-02-1-0011.

Contract grant sponsor: National Science Foundation; contract grant number: DMR 0080013.

Journal of Applied Polymer Science, Vol. 92, 749–756 (2004) © 2004 Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

Used in This Study				
Nanoparticles	Metal content (wt %)			
1XPd/5XPd <sup>a</sup>	0.41/0.83			
1XPt	1.04			
3XAu	0.31			
3XAg	0.36			
1XPď	0.29			
1XPd	0.76			
1XPd	0.70			
1XPd	0.24			
	Nanoparticles 1XPd/5XPd <sup>a</sup> 1XPt 3XAu 3XAg 1XPd 1XPd 1XPd 1XPd 1XPd 1XPd			

TABLE I
Polymeric Materials with Infused Nanoparticles
Used in This Study

<sup>a</sup> Number indicates the number of infusion cycles.

<sup>b</sup> Commercial films.

<sup>c</sup> Films molded from the nanoparticle-infused pellets.

ical transformation of the precursor results in the formation of discrete nanoscale particles. Because most metals have volatile precursors, this method is amenable to metals and metal oxides. It requires only a metal precursor that can be volatized below the decomposition temperature of the polymer.<sup>22-24</sup> This method is also applicable to organic precursors. For example, monomers such as styrene can be infused and polymerized within the polymer free volume.<sup>22–24</sup> The infusion cycle can be repeated to increase the concentration of nanoparticles.

In this study, a new class of polymer-metal films containing nanoparticles were prepared using the infusion approach. The strong catalytic effect of various metal nanoparticles on the gas transport properties of fluorinated ethylene–propylene copolymer (FEP) and other polymer films is reported.

#### **EXPERIMENTAL**

## Thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA)

The metal composition of polymer infused with nanoparticles was determined with a Perkin-Elmer TGA-7 (Perkin Elmer Cetus Instruments, Norwalk, CT). The sample purge was oxygen and the furnace purge was nitrogen. The temperature was increased from 100 to 700°C at 20°C/min to completely degrade the polymer.

### Morphology study

The size of palladium (Pd) particles infused into FEP film was examined using atomic force microscopy (AFM). The sample was first microtomed at -100°C and then imaged using a Digital Instruments Nanoscope IIIa AFM (Santa Barbara, CA) operating in the tapping mode. Light tapping was used with a setpoint ratio of 0.75 to 0.85 and with a freely oscillating tip amplitude of 48 nm. To distinguish Pd particles from

FEP crystals, the tapping frequency was slightly increased from the freely oscillating tip resonant frequency. The particle size and concentration were also examined elsewhere using TEM.

### Gas transport properties

The oxygen flux J(t), at 0% relative humidity, 1 atm pressure, and 23°C, was measured with a Mocon Ox-Tran 2/20 (Minneapolis, MN).<sup>25</sup> The testing gas was either pure oxygen or dry air. The carrier gas was either pure nitrogen or nitrogen with 2% hydrogen. The carbon dioxide flux J(t), at 0% relative humidity, 1 atm pressure, and 23°C, was measured with a Mocon Permtran C4/40. The testing gas was pure carbon dioxide. Again, the carrier gas was either pure nitrogen or nitrogen with 2% hydrogen.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

## Particle concentration and morphology

In this study, several organometallic complex precursors were infused into a 10-mil commercial fluorinated ethylene-propylene copolymer (FEP) film. The precursor was then decomposed to create in situ metal nanoparticles.<sup>22–24</sup> To increase the metal content, the infusion process was repeated. Throughout this investigation, the amount of infused metal nanoparticles determined by TGA was less than 1 wt % (Table I). For example, the Pd concentration in FEP/Pd5X film



2.50 NM

Figure 1 AFM phase image of FEP free-melted surface.



Figure 2 AFM phase images of the FEP film infused with Pd nanoparticles: (a) edge of the film; (b) center of the film.

infused five times was found to be 0.84 wt % (0.15 vol %).

The phase image of free-melted FEP observed in the AFM revealed a highly crystalline morphology. Short, densely packed, wormlike lamella 20–40 nm wide

and 150–200 nm long were seen (Fig. 1). Because the resonant frequency of the AFM tip interacting with the metal nanoparticle is different from that of the polymer crystal, the tapping frequency was increased slightly to distinguish metal nanoparticles from poly-



**Figure 3** AFM phase images of the nylon 6,6 pellet infused with Pd nanoparticles: (a) edge of the pellet; (b) center of the pellet.

Figure 4 AFM phase images of the PET pellet infused with Pd nanoparticles: (a) edge of the pellet; (b) center of the pellet.

mer matrix. Fairly uniform nanoparticles about 10–40 nm in diameter (Fig. 2) were observed throughout the FEP/5XPd film, and particle density did not vary much through the thickness of the film.

This infusion approach was also successfully applied to various commercial polymer pellets. More particles were observed near the surface of the pellets in both nylon 6,6 and PET pellets (Figs. 3 and 4), which could be attributed to differences in the transport properties of precursors in various polymers during the infusion process.

The nanosized particle morphology in single and multiple (5X) Pd-infused FEP films was examined elsewhere using TEM (Fig. 5). Well-dispersed Pd nanoparticles of about 2–5 nm in diameter were observed. An increase in Pd nanoparticle size and concentration was obtained after multiple infusions. Examination of different cross sections showed that the particle concentration did not noticeably vary through the thickness of the film. The smaller particle size determined from TEM (2–5 nm) compared to that determined by AFM (10–40 nm) can be attributed to the analytical microscopic procedures. Nevertheless, both microscopic techniques revealed that the nanosized particles in the metal–polymer nanocomposites have large size distribution.

#### Gas transport properties

Gas transport measurements were used to probe the chemical activity of the infused nanoparticles. For the gas transport measurement, an inert purge gas was used to carry diffused gas to the sensor (Fig. 6). With pure nitrogen as the purge gas, the oxygen permeability of the FEP/Pd nanoparticle film was slightly lower than that of the FEP control film (Table II). An enhanced permeability effect reported previously<sup>13</sup> was not seen in our experiments. Instead, a decrease in



Figure 5 TEM images of single and multiple (5X) infused Pd-FEP films.



Figure 6 Dynamics in a gas diffusion cell.

permeability of 15% was measured, which could be attributed to the fact that the metal nanoparticles filled holes of free volume.

However, quite surprisingly, when 2% hydrogen was added to the purge gas, the oxygen permeability of FEP/Pd film was reduced by 2 orders of magnitude (Fig. 7, Table II). This very large oxygen-scavenging effect indicated that a chemical reaction occurred between oxygen and hydrogen that was catalyzed by Pd. To demonstrate the catalytic role of the Pd nanoparticles, FEP films infused with other metals were investigated. FEP film that was infused with gold and silver nanoparticles showed no catalytic effect (Fig. 8, Table II). To demonstrate the specificity of the chemical reaction to only oxygen gas, carbon dioxide permeability of FPE/Pd nanoparticle film was found to be essentially unaffected by 2% hydrogen in the purge gas (Table II).

FEP film is highly permeable to hydrogen gas and hydrogen diffuses rapidly from the purge stream into the film. It strongly adsorbs onto the Pd nanoparticles. Palladium hydrides of the form  $PdH_x$  (0.1 < x < 0.7) are known to form on the surface of Pd at 1 atm pressure and 25°C.<sup>26,27</sup> Sorbed hydrogen rapidly reacts with the diffusing oxygen to form water, thereby effectively scavenging oxygen from the permeant gas stream.

$$O + H \rightarrow OH$$
 (1)

$$OH + H \rightarrow H_2O$$
 (2)

This reaction mechanism is depicted in Figure 9. The first reaction is slow and rate limiting; the second reaction is fast.<sup>28,29</sup> Water produced by the reaction diffuses out of the film into the gas streams. It is reported that water is desorbed immediately from Pd above 175 K.<sup>28</sup> If the water did not desorb, but remained sorbed to the Pd surface, a rough estimate indicates that the surface would be completely covered within 1 h. This fact is also supported by comparing the water-transport properties in FEP and FEP/5XPd; their permeability was found to be 1.99 and 2.02 cm<sup>3</sup>(STP) cm m<sup>-2</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> atm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, indicating that Pd did not affect the transport of H<sub>2</sub>O. Thus the infused film constitutes a self-regenerating vehicle for removing oxygen from the gas stream.

The catalytic effect is strongly enhanced by the high surface area of the Pd nanoparticles. Assuming the particle size to be 25 nm, a 1 cm<sup>2</sup>, 0.25-mm-thick FEP film, with 0.84 wt % Pd, would have 93 cm<sup>2</sup> of palladium surface. When the Pd concentration was reduced from 0.83 to 0.41 wt %, the oxygen-scavenging activity of Pd nanoparticles was still very effective (Table II).

The generality of the phenomenon was demonstrated by infusing other thermoplastic polymers with Pd nanoparticles. Pellets of polypropylene (PP), linear low-density polyethylene (LLDPE), and poly(ethylene terephthalate) (PET) were infused and compression molded into film. These polymers, infused with Pd

 TABLE II

 Effect of Infused Metal Nanoparticles on Gas Transport Properties of FEP Film

	Metal content (wt %)	O <sub>2</sub> transport		CO <sub>2</sub> transport	
Material		P <sup>a</sup> (N <sub>2</sub> purge)	$\frac{P}{(N_2 + 2\%H_2 \text{ purge})}$	P (N <sub>2</sub> purge)	$\begin{array}{c} P\\ (N_2 + 2\%H_2 \text{ purge}) \end{array}$
FEP	0.00	18.0	18.7	61.5	60.9
FEP-1X Pd	0.41	17.1	0.133	59.1	_
FEP-5X Pd	0.83	15.2	0.097	52.2	53.3
FEP-1X Pt	1.05	13.6	0.065	42.3	46.3
FEP-3X Ag	0.31	18.3	16.6	72.2	60.0
FEP-3X Au	0.36	17.5	19.8	69.2	58.7

<sup>a</sup> P, cm<sup>3</sup>[STP] cm m<sup>-2</sup> atm<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>.



Figure 7 Effect of hydrogen in the purge gas on the oxygen transport properties of Pd-infused FEP film.

nanoparticles, also showed dramatic decreases in oxygen permeability. Infused PP films containing only 0.29 wt % Pd nanoparticles showed reduced oxygen permeability by more than 2 orders of magnitude. The oxygen permeability in both nylon 6,6 and PET films infused with Pd nanoparticles was almost undetectable (Table III). This demonstrates the feasibility of infusing polymer pellets that are routinely used in injection-molding and extrusion processes as a route to obtaining shapes and profiles with oxygen-scavenging and oxygen-separation properties. Because Pd is an important catalyst for many chemical reactions and processes, the infused polymers can have an impact on many technologies in the chemical industry as well.

The driving force for gas transport is the pressure difference across the film. The partial pressure of oxygen in the permeant gas flow was reduced by replacing 1 atm oxygen with 1 atm air. Normalization of the measured oxygen flux to 1 atm oxygen pressure gave the permeability cited in Table IV. The presence of trace hydrogen (0.00005 vol %) in air was sufficient to reduce the oxygen permeability by 20% even with a



Figure 8 Oxygen transport through infused FEP film with nitrogen and hydrogen purge.



Figure 9 Reaction of oxygen and hydrogen in FEP-Pd film catalyzed by Pd nanoparticles.

pure nitrogen purge. With 2% hydrogen in the purge, the oxygen permeability in air at 1 atm was lower than the permeability of pure oxygen at 1 atm. Thus FEP/Pd film became more efficient for oxygen removal as the oxygen flux decreased. Membrane separation of oxygen and nitrogen has inherently low selectivity because of the similarity in molecular size. The relatively high nitrogen permeability of FEP and the efficiency of oxygen scavenging by the Pd nanoparticles suggest that FEP/Pd membranes containing nanoparticles can be used for separating high-purity nitrogen (>99.5%) from air.

### CONCLUSIONS

Polymer films with nanoparticles were successfully fabricated by a unique infusion technology. Nanoparticles with large size distributions between 5 and 40 nm were observed by both AFM and TEM. Commercial thermoplastic polymers such as FEP, PP, LLDPE, PET, and nylon 6,6 were all successfully infused with various metal and metal-oxide nanoparticles.

Films containing less than 1 wt % Pd and Pt nanoparticles reduced the oxygen flux by 2 orders of magnitude when only traces of hydrogen were in the nitrogen carrier gas. These highly selective films could produce nitrogen of high purity (>99.5%) from air. Also, the catalytic role of Pd and Pt, coupled with the enormous surface area which is a characteristic of nanosized particles, gave a highly effective oxygen-scavenging system. The catalytic efficiency of these nanoparticles was independent of the chemical nature of the polymers.

This research was generously supported by the Defense Advanced Research Projects Agency (Grant MDA 972-02-1-0011) and the National Science Foundation (Grant DMR 0080013). The TEM work was conducted at Johns Hopkins University.

Effect of Pd Nanoparticle on O <sub>2</sub> Transport Properties of Various Polymers <sup>a</sup>					
	Metal content	N <sub>2</sub> purge	$N_2 + 2\%H_2$ purge		
Material	(wt %)	$P_1$	P_2	$P_{1}/P_{2}$	
PP	0.00	5.78	5.89	1.0	
FP-Pd	0.29	7.74	0.028	280	
LLDPE-Pd	0.70	16.6	0.27	61	
LLDPE-					
Pd/LDPE (30/70)microlayer	0.21	16.1	0.77	21	
PET-Pd	0.76	0.34	0.0046	80	
(amorphous)					
Nylon 6,6-Pd	0.36	0.041	0		
Nylon 6,6	0.00	0.086	0.070		

TABLE III

<sup>a</sup> P, cm<sup>3</sup>[STP] cm m<sup>-2</sup> atm<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>.

Effect of Oxygen Pressure on Oxygen Transport Properties of Pa-infused Polymers							
Material	Metal 100% O <sub>2</sub>		Air				
	content (wt %)	$\frac{P_1}{(N_2 \text{ purge})}$	$P_2$ (N <sub>2</sub> + 2%H <sub>2</sub> purge)	$P_{1}/P_{2}$	$\frac{P_3}{(N_2 \text{ purge})}$	$(N_2 + 2\%H_2 purge)$	$P_{3}/P_{4}$
FEP-1X Pd	0.41	17.1	0.133	130	18.9	0.016	1100
FEP-5X Pd	0.83	15.2	0.097	160	12.6	0.021	600
PP-Pd	0.29	7.74	0.028	280	6.60	0.010	660
LLDPE-Pd	0.70	16.6	0.027	610	17.1	0.033	520
PET-Pd	0.76	0.34	0.0047	70	—	_	—

TABLE IV Effect of Oxygen Pressure on Oxygen Transport Properties of Pd-Infused Polymers<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup> P, cm<sup>3</sup>[STP] cm m<sup>-2</sup> atm<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>.

## References

- 1. Alivisatos, A. P. Science 1996, 271, 933.
- 2. Shipway, A. N.; Katz, E.; Willner, I. Chem Phys 2000, 1, 18.
- 3. Lewis, L. N. Chem Rev 1993, 93, 2693.
- 4. McEuen, P. L. Science 1997, 278, 1729.
- 5. Ma, S. K.; Lue, J. T. Solid State Commun 1996, 97, 979.
- 6. Gangopadhyay, R.; De, A. Chem Mater 2000, 12, 608.
- Dabbousi, B. O.; Bawendi, M. G.; Onitsuka, O.; Tybner, M. F. Appl Phys Lett 1995, 66, 1316.
- 8. Coronado, E.; Galan-Mascaros, J. R.; Gomez-Garcia, C. J.; Laukhin, V. Nature 2000, 408, 447.
- 9. Wang, Y.; Herron, N. Science 1996, 273, 632.
- 10. Winiarz, J. G.; Zhang, L. M.; Lai, M.; Friend, C. S.; Prasad, P. N. J Am Chem Soc 2001, 123, 10502.
- Sidorov, S. N.; Volkov, I. V.; Davankov, V. A. J Am Chem Soc 2001, 123, 10502.
- 12. Pinnavaia, T. J. Science 1983, 220, 365.
- Merkel, T. C.; Freeman, B. D.; Spontak, R. J.; He, Z.; Pinnau, I.; Meakin, P.; Hill, A. J. Science 2002, 296, 519.
- 14. Shiflett, M. B.; Foley, H. C. Science 1999, 285, 1902.
- Galow, T. H.; Drechsler, U.; Hanson, J. A.; Rotello, V. M. Chem Commun 2002, 10, 1076.
- 16. Reynaud, E.; Gauthier, C.; Perez, J. Rev Metall 1999, 2, 169.

- Wu, C. L.; Zhang, M. Q.; Rong, M. Z.; Friedrich, K. Compos Sci Technol 2002, 62, 1327.
- Sumita, M.; Tsukumo, Y.; Miyasaka, K.; Ishikawa, K. J Mater Sci 1983, 18, 1758.
- 19. Jana, S. C.; Jain, S. Polymer 2001, 42, 6897.
- Rong, M. Z.; Zhang, M. Q.; Zheng, Y. X.; Zeng, H. M.; Walter, R.; Friedrich, K. Polymer 2001, 42, 167.
- Sellinger, A.; Weiss, P.; Nguyen, A.; Lu, Y.; Assink, R. A.; Gong, W.; Brinker, C. J. Nature 1998, 394, 256.
- Vargo, T. G.; Koloski, T. S. Fabrication of Metal-Oxide Macromolecular Networks within Fluoropolymer Free Volume, Proceedings of Fluorine in Coatings III, Paper #38, Paint Research Council, Orlando, FL, Jan. 25–27, 1999.
- 23. Koloski, T. S.; Vargo, T. G. U.S. Pat. 5,977,241, 1999.
- 24. Vargo, T. G.; Koloski, T. S. U.S. Pat. 6,232,386, 2001.
- Sekelik, D. J.; Stepanov, S. V.; Nazarenko, S.; Schiraldi, D.; Hiltner, A.; Baer, E. J Polym Sci Part B: Polym Phys 1999, 37, 847.
- 26. Lewis, F. A. The Palladium-Hydrogen System; Academic Press: London, 1967.
- 27. Nowakowski, R.; Grzeszczak, P. R. Dus Surf Sci 2002, 813, 507.
- Mitsui, T.; Rose, M. K.; Fomin, E.; Ogletree, D. F.; Salmeron, M. Surf Sci 2002, 259, 511.
- 29. Engle, T.; Kuipers, H. Surf Sci 1979, 181, 90.