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Introduction

Inspired by natural light-harvesting systems, $1-3$ scientists are driven to harness renewable energy resources more effectively. These systems, like chloroplasts found in green plants, excel in capturing, transferring, and storing solar energy within nano-sized devices. Moreover, the light-harvesting systems found in chloroplasts are intricate supramolecular organizations of chlorophyll and protein molecules.⁴ Taking cues from nature, numerous artificial light-harvesting systems (ALHS) assembled by noncovalent interactions have emerged in recent years for different applications,⁵⁻¹⁰ such as photocatalysis,¹¹⁻¹⁸ tunable luminescent materials,^{19–30} chemical sensing,^{31–33} bioimaging/therapy,^{34–36} temperature sensing, $37-41$ information encryption⁴²⁻⁴⁴ and latent fingerprint imaging.45,46 There are three key conditions to achieve efficient Förster resonance energy transfer (FRET) from an energy donor (D) to an acceptor (A): firstly, a substantial overlap between the absorption spectrum of the acceptor and the emission spectrum of the donor is a prerequisite; secondly, the donor must be densely packed while circumventing aggregation-induced

Construction of a supramolecular light-harvesting system based on pillar[5]arene-mediated nanoparticles in water†

Xiuxiu Li,^a Qiaona Zhang,^a Xiaoman Dang,^a Fengyao Cui,^a Zheng-Yi Li, ^{na a} Xiao-Qiang Sun^b and Tangxin Xiao \mathbb{D}^* ^a

Light harvesting and energy transfer are ubiquitous processes in natural photosynthesis, significantly advancing the widespread utilization of solar energy. In this study, we engineered a supramolecular light-harvesting system utilizing a pyridinium salt-modified cyanostilbene guest (CPy) and a watersoluble pillar[5]arene host (WP5). Through host-guest complexation between WP5 and CPy, the resultant supra-amphiphile further self-assembled into emissive nanoparticles within aqueous environments. Incorporating the commercially available dye DBT into these nanoparticles yielded an efficient artificial light-harvesting system with a high donor/acceptor ratio (>200). Additionally, this system demonstrated tunable fluorescence emission in the solid state and exhibited potential applications as a color-tunable fluorescent ink for information encryption. Our findings not only delineate a promising approach for fabricating efficient light-harvesting systems via a straightforward supramolecular strategy but also underscore the significant potential of tunable photoluminescent nanomaterials. **PAPER**
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fluorescence quenching (ACQ); thirdly, maintaining a high donor-to-acceptor ratio ($D/A > 200$) ensures that multiple donors are associated with a single acceptor, optimizing energy transfer efficiency.47–50

To mitigate the ACQ effect associated with conventional dyes, the incorporation of aggregation-induced emission (AIE) donors becomes essential. $51-53$ In this context, the synergistic integration of AIE with supramolecular self-assembly offers significant advantages for the fabrication of ALHSs.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁷ Recently, fluorophores based on cyanostilbene (CS) have garnered considerable attention owing to their distinctive fluorescence properties.58–62 CS derivatives often exhibit weak emission in organic solvents but display remarkable fluorescence in aqueous environments. Consequently, the CS group can serve as an effective AIE unit for the synthesis of various luminescent materials.63,64 Previously, our research group reported a multicolor fluorescent nanomaterial based on CS groups, demonstrating promising applications in time-dependent information encryption and dual-color latent fingerprint imaging.⁶⁵ Furthermore, we integrated CS groups into quadruple hydrogen bonding polymers to engineer an ALHS with an ultralow acceptor content, thereby achieving white-light emission.⁶⁶ Notably, supramolecular macrocycles such as pillar[5]arene can be readily converted into water-soluble hosts and possess remarkable capabilities for modulating the emission of guest molecules. $67-70$ Thus, the utilization of water-soluble pillar[5]arene to fine-tune CS-based simple guests represents a highly desirable strategy for achieving efficient FRET.

 a School of Petrochemical Engineering, Changzhou University, Changzhou 213164, China. E-mail: xiaotangxin@cczu.edu.cn

 b Institute of Urban & Rural Mining, Changzhou University, Changzhou 213164,</sup> China

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Fig. 1 Schematic representation of the construction of ALHS in water based on WP5 \supset CPy and DBT

In this work, we devised and synthesized a straightforward guest molecule, denoted as CPy, incorporating a methyl pyridinium salt group as the host-binding motif and a CS group as the fluorescence-generating component (Fig. 1). Moreover, the synthesized water-soluble pillar[5]arene, designated as WP5, has the capability to form host–guest complexes with CPy, yielding a supra-amphiphile denoted as $WP5\supset CPy$. Consequently, $WP5\supset CPy$ assemblies give rise to nanoparticles (NPs) in aqueous environments. This assembly not only amplifies the fluorescence intensity of CPy but also provides a nanostructured platform conducive to the development of ALHSs. To harness excitation energy from $WP5\supset CPy$, a commercially available fluorescent dye, 4,7-di(2-thienyl)-benzo[2,1,3]thiadiazole (DBT), was selected as the acceptor and loaded into the hydrophobic layer of the NPs. This system facilitates an efficient FRET process and exhibits a pronounced antenna effect in aqueous media. Remarkably, this ALHS not only emulates natural light-harvesting systems but also demonstrates significant potential as a fluorescent ink and solidstate luminescent material. **Paper** Energy Commons are the common access Article in the common access Article is a common access Article in the common access Article is a common access Creative Commons Attribution 3.0 Unport and the common access Ar

Experimental

All chemicals and reagents were purchased from commercial suppliers and utilized, unless specifically noted otherwise, without additional purification. Solvents, if required, were subjected to dehydration using established procedures outlined in the literature. Isolated yields were reported for all reactions. Proton nuclear magnetic resonance (¹H NMR) spectra were acquired using a Bruker AVANCE III spectrometer operating at either 300 MHz or 400 MHz and calibrated relative to the residual proton signal or the natural abundance carbon resonance of the deuterated solvent, with tetramethylsilane (TMS) employed as the internal standard. Chemical shifts (δ) are expressed in parts per million (ppm) and coupling constants (J) are provided in Hz. Multiplicities are denoted as s (singlet), d (doublet), t (triplet), and m (multiplet). High-resolution electrospray ionization mass spectra (HR-ESI-MS) were recorded using an Agilent Technologies 6540 UHD Accurate-Mass spectrometer. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) investigations were conducted on a JEM-2100 instrument. Dynamic light scattering (DLS) and zeta-potential $(\zeta$ -potential) measurements were performed using a Zetasizer Nano ZS

ZEN3600 instrument. UV-vis absorption spectra were obtained using a PerkinElmer Lambda 35 UV-vis spectrometer, while fluorescence measurements were conducted on an agilent cary eclipse spectrofluorometer. Fluorescence lifetimes were determined using time-correlated single photon counting on an FLS980 instrument equipped with a pulsed xenon lamp. The fluorescence decay curves were fitted using a bi-exponential decay model. The instrument response function (IRF) measures the scattering of laser excitation from non-fluorescent control samples to ascertain the fastest possible response of the detectors. Quantum yield measurements were conducted using an FLS980 instrument with an integrating sphere. The CIE (Commission Internationale de l'Eclairage) 1931 coordinates were calculated with the method of color matching functions.

The macrocyclic host, WP5, is a water-soluble pillar[5]arene, synthesized following established procedures outlined in the literature.⁷¹ The synthesis of the guest molecule CPy is depicted in Scheme 1. Initially, 4-hydroxyphenylacetonitrile undergoes etherification with 1,10-dibromodecane to yield compound 1. Then, compound 1 undergoes condensation with benzaldehyde via a Knoevenagel reaction, resulting in the formation of compound 2. Finally, compound 2 reacts with 4-methylpyridine through nucleophilic substitution, culminating in the synthesis of the target product, CPy. Synthesis of compound 1 was carried out based on literature methods.⁷² Compound 2 and CPy were thoroughly characterized using ${}^{1}H$ NMR, ${}^{13}C$ NMR, and highresolution electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (ESI-MS) techniques (Fig. S1–S6, ESI†).

Synthesis of compound 2. Compounds 1 (0.50 g, 1.4 mmol) and t BuOK (0.16 g, 1.4 mmol) were introduced into a 250 mL three-neck flask under a nitrogen atmosphere. Subsequently, anhydrous ethanol (75 mL) was added. Once the solid was completely dissolved, benzaldehyde (0.18 g, 1.7 mmol) was gradually added. The resulting mixture was stirred at room temperature for 3 h. Upon completion of the reaction, the solid was retained following extraction and filtration, yielding white solid compound 2 (0.49 g, 1.1 mmol) with a yield of 78%. ¹H NMR (CDCl₃, 300 MHz, 298 K) δ (ppm): 7.86 (d, J = 7.2 Hz, 2H, Ar-H), 7.60 (d, $J = 8.4$ Hz, 2H, Ar-H), 7.35 (m, 4H, Ar-H and $-CH=CC(N)$ –), 6.95 (d, J = 8.4 Hz, 2H, Ar-H), 4.00 (t, J = 6.3 Hz, 2H, $-OCH₂$), 3.41 (t, J = 6.9 Hz, 2H, $-BrCH₂$), 1.91-1.80 (m, 4H, –CH₂–), 1.78–1.33 (m, 12H, –CH₂–). ¹³C NMR (CDCl₃, 100 MHz, 298 K) d (ppm): 160.06, 140.00, 134.03, 130.13, 129.07, 128.93, 127.32, 126.75, 118.21, 114.97, 111.38, 68.21, 34.10, 32.83,

Scheme 1 Synthetic route of CPy

29.73, 29.45, 29.38, 29.19, 28.76, 28.18, 26.01. HR-ESI-MS: m/z $[M + Na]^{+}$ calcd for $[C_{25}H_{30}BrNNaO]^{+}$ 462.1403, found 462.1403. Synthesis of CPy. Compound 2 (0.50 g, 1.1 mmol) and 4 methylpyridine (1.48 g, 15.9 mmol) were combined in a 50 mL flask. Anhydrous chloroform (30 mL) was then added, and the mixture was stirred at 60 \degree C for 12 h. Upon completion of the reaction, the solvent was evaporated under reduced pressure. The resulting residue underwent column chromatography (eluent: PE: EA = 1:1, MeOH: $H₂O$ = 10:1, v/v), yielding a pure brown solid compound CPy (0.30 g, 0.56 mmol) with a yield of 51%. ¹H NMR (300 MHz, DMSO- d_6 , 298 K) δ (ppm): 8.93 (d, J = 6.0 Hz, 2H, Ar-H), 7.98 (d, $J = 6.0$ Hz, 2H, Ar-H), 7.92-7.89 (m, 3H, Ar-H and $-CH=C(CN)$ –), 7.69 (d, J = 8.7 Hz, 2H, Ar-H), 7.55–7.47 $(m, 3H, Ar-H)$, 7.05 $(d, J = 8.7 Hz, 2H, Ar-H)$, 4.51 $(t, J = 7.2 Hz, 2H,$ $-NCH_2$ –), 4.02 (t, J = 6.3 Hz, 2H, $-OCH_2$ –), 2.60 (s, 3H, $-CH_3$), 1.88 (m, 2H, –CH₂–), 1.71 (m, 2H, –CH₂–), 1.40–1.22 (m, 12H, –CH₂–). ¹³C NMR δ (100 MHz, DMSO-d₆, 298 K) δ (ppm): 159.50, 158.73, 143.69, 140.50, 133.96, 130.21, 128.91, 128.87, 128.32, 127.20, 125.93, 118.03, 115.02, 109.95, 67.66, 59.87, 30.55, 28.83, 28.69 (2C), 28.56, 28.33, 25.44, 25.35, 21.33. HR-ESI-MS: m/z [M–Br]+ calcd for $[C_{31}H_{37}N_2O]^+$ 453.2901, found 453.3575. Energy Advances Vew Michael Strates Article. Published on Criticis. Published on 22 May 2024. Downloaded on Criticis Article is licensed under the common and the capital article is licensed under a creative Common and the

Results and discussion

The AIE behavior of CPy in mixed solvents was initially explored. In pure water, CPy dissolved completely and exhibited no fluorescence emission. Upon the addition of a poor solvent, glycerol, the fluorescence of CPy at 430 nm gradually increased (Fig. 2a and b). A sharp increase in fluorescence was observed when the glycerol fraction reached 98%. Despite the amphiphilic nature of CPy, attempts to determine its critical aggregation concentration (CAC) in water through optical transmittance experiments (Fig. S7, ESI†) were inconclusive, indicating the absence of a distinct CAC within this concentration range. The aggregation of CPy molecules in mixed solvents appeared to be disordered and challenging to control. Based on these observations, we further endeavored to investigate the aggregation and luminescence of CPy through supramolecular self-assembly to achieve well-ordered nanostructures.

WP5 was employed to facilitate the self-assembly of CPy through host–guest interactions in pure water. Upon the addition of **WP5** to the CPy solution $(5 \times 10^{-5}$ M), a notable enhancement in the fluorescence intensity of CPy was observed (Fig. 2c), indicating the effective induction of CPy self-assembly by WP5 in water. The fluorescence intensity reached its maximum when the WP5 concentration was 17.5 µM, suggesting an optimal molar ratio of WP5 to CPy of $0.35:1$ (Fig. 2d). Additionally, a distinct Tyndall effect was observed for $WP5\supset CPy$, confirming the presence of abundant NPs in the solution (Fig. 2d, inset). Notably, the CAC of WP5 \supset CPy was determined to be 2.5 µM (Fig. S8, ESI†). In the presence of WP5, the absolute fluorescence quantum yield of CPy increased significantly to 2.72%, underscoring the pivotal role of WP5 in fluorescence enhancement (Fig. S10a, ESI†).

The morphology and size of the $WP5$ \supset CPy nanostructures were characterized using transmission electron microscopy

Fig. 2 (a) Fluorescence spectra of CPy $(1 \times 10^{-4}$ M) in a glycerol/water solution with different fractions of glycerol ($\lambda_{\rm ex}$ = 360 nm). (b) Fluorescence intensity of CPy at 430 nm in the presence of different factions of glycerol from 30 to 98%; inset: photographs of CPy in water (left) and in glycerol (right, with 2% water) under a turn-on UV lamp. (c) Fluorescence spectra of CPy (as the guest, G, 5×10^{-5} M) in pure water upon the titration of WP5 (as the host, H). (d) Fluorescence intensity of CPy (5×10^{-5} M) at 460 nm versus different concentrations of WP5; insets: Tyndall effects of CPy (I) and $WP5_CPy$ (II), and fluorescence photographs of CPy (III) and $WP5\supset CPy$ (IV).

(TEM) and dynamic light scattering (DLS). DLS analysis revealed a narrow size distribution for $WP5\supset CPy$, with an average hydrodynamic diameter of 142 nm (Fig. 3a). TEM imaging depicted spherical nanoaggregates with a diameter of approximately 100 nm, consistent with the DLS data (Fig. 3c). As $WP5\supset CPy$ NPs exhibited pronounced fluorescence in pure water, efforts were made to construct a donor–acceptor system by co-assembling hydrophobic ACQ dyes into the NPs. To this end, the commercially available dye DBT was chosen due to its well-matched photophysical spectra (Fig. 4a). The morphology of $WPS \supset CPy-DBT$ NPs was also investigated using DLS and TEM, revealing a spherical structure with an average hydrodynamic diameter of 191 nm (Fig. 3b and d). Zeta potential measurements were further conducted for both $WP5\supset CPy$ (-53 mV) and WP5 \supset CPy-DBT (-36 mV) NPs (Fig. S9, ESI†). The relatively high negative values for both nanoparticles indicate their stability in water, as their surfaces are repulsive and resistant to agglomeration.

As mentioned above, DBT served as the energy acceptor to capture excitation energy from $WP5\supset CPy$ on account of their favorable energy-matching characteristics. As shown in Fig. 4a, the absorption spectrum of DBT exhibited significant overlap with the emission spectrum of $WP5\supset CPy$, facilitating efficient energy transfer between $WP5$ \supset CPy and DBT. Upon the coassembly of increasing DBT content, the fluorescence intensity of WP5 \supset CPy at 460 nm decreased markedly, while the fluorescence peak of DBT at 580 nm continued to rise (Fig. 4b), indicative of the occurrence of energy transfer. Furthermore, a noticeable shift in fluorescence color from blue to orange was observed (Fig. 4c, inset). The FRET process was further corroborated by time-resolved fluorescence analysis. Fluorescence

Fig. 3 DLS data of (a) $WP5\supset CPy$ NPs (inset: Tyndall effect and fluorescence photograph of WP5 \supset CPy), and (b) WP5 \supset CPy-DBT NPs (inset: Tyndall effect and fluorescence photograph of WP5
>> CPy-DBT). TEM images of (c) $\textsf{WP5}\!\supset\!\textsf{CPy}$ NPs and (d) $\textsf{WP5}\!\supset\!\textsf{CPy-PBT}$ NPs. $[\textsf{CPy}]=5\,\times$ 10⁻⁵ M, [**WP5**] = 1.75 \times 10⁻⁵ M, [**DBT**] = 2.5 \times 10⁻⁷ M, respectively.

Fig. 4 (a) Normalized absorption and emission spectra of $WP5_CPy$ (blue curve) and DBT (orange curve), respectively. (b) Fluorescence spectra of WP5 \supset CPy-DBT in water at different donor/acceptor molar ratios. (c) Fluorescence decay profiles of WP5 \supset CPy and WP5 \supset CPy-DBT; inset: fluorescence photographs of $WPS \supset CPy$ (left) and $WPS \supset CPy-DBT$ (right). (d) Energy-transfer efficiency (Φ_{FT}) and antenna effect (AE) of the ALHS with varying acceptor content. [**CPy**] = 5 \times 10⁻⁵ M, [**WP5**] = 1.75 \times 10⁻⁵ M, [DBT] = 2.5×10^{-7} M, respectively.

lifetimes were fitted as a double exponential decay for both samples (Fig. 4c). The fluorescence lifetimes of $WP5\supset CPy$ were determined to be τ_1 = 0.84 ns and τ_2 = 7.11 ns (Table S2, ESI†). In contrast, the fluorescence lifetimes of $WP5$ \supset CPy-DBT decreased to τ_1 = 0.46 ns and τ_2 = 5.44 ns, providing additional evidence of light harvesting and energy transfer occurring within the nanoparticles.

To quantitatively assess the performance of the ALHS based on WP5 \supset CPy-DBT, the energy transfer efficiency (Φ_{ET}) and antenna effect (AE) were systematically calculated. Φ_{ET} represents the ratio of the excitation energy absorbed by DBT to the

Fig. 5 (a) CIE chromaticity coordinates of WP5 \supset CPy at various concentrations of DBT, accompanied by inset photographs displaying $WP5\supset CPy$ NPs at different DBT concentrations under UV irradiation. (b) Fluorescence spectra of $WP5\supset CPy$ in aqueous solution with varying concentrations of DBT. (c) Illustration of characters inscribed using a solution of $WPS_CPy-DBT$ (D/A = 200/1), demonstrating its encryption function. Concentrations used in the experiments: $[CPy] = 5 \times 10^{-5}$ M, $[WPS] = 1.75 \times 10^{-5}$ M, $[DBT] = 2.5 \times 10^{-7}$ M, respectively.

total energy of $WP5\supset CP$, Additionally, AE measures the emission amplification of DBT within the ALHS compared to its direct excitation. The resulting system exhibited enhanced energy transfer efficiency with increasing acceptor content $(D/A = 500/1-200/1)$ (Fig. 4d). Φ_{ET} reaches 23.5% when D/A = 200/1 (Fig. S11 and Table S3, ESI†). Moreover, the system demonstrated considerable antenna effect values (7 to 11) at high D/A ratios (Fig. S12 and Table S4, ESI†). Furthermore, the absolute fluorescence quantum yield of the system increased from 2.72% (WP5 \supset CPy) to 13.69% $(WP5 \supset CPy-DBT)$, indicative of a significant fluorescence enhancement through light harvesting (Fig. S10 and Table S1, ESI†). These quantitative findings collectively suggest that $WP5$ \supset CPy-DBT represents an efficient supramolecular ALHS.

The dynamic characteristics of the $WP5$ \supset CPy-DBT system confer upon it the ability to exhibit adjustable fluorescence colors. As depicted in the CIE 1931 chromaticity coordinates (Fig. 5a), the fluorescence emission color of the system varies with the molar ratio. Upon increasing the DBT content, the emission color of the system in water transitions gradually from blue to yellow. This transition is also evident in the fluorescence photograph of the samples (Fig. 5a, inset) and in the fluorescence spectra obtained through three-dimensional processing (Fig. 5b). Due to the system's AIE behavior, it displays luminescence not only in aqueous solution but also in the solid state. Upon inscription onto paper, characters rendered with the ALHS material remain unreadable under natural light but become clearly discernible under UV illumination, emitting a golden fluorescence color. This suggests the potential of the WP5 \supset CPy-DBT system to serve as a customizable fluorescent encryption ink (Fig. 5c).

Conclusions

In summary, we have engineered an artificial light-harvesting system in aqueous solution through the host–guest interaction

between a pillar[5]arene host and a CS-based guest. The guest molecule, CPy, comprises a CS moiety and a methylpyridinium unit linked by a ten-carbon alkyl spacer, rendering it AIE active. Consequently, the water-soluble pillar[5]arene WP5 induces the self-assembly of CPy into emissive nanoparticles, serving as an effective nano-platform and energy donor. Through the incorporation of the commercially available dye DBT into the supramolecular nanoparticles, we successfully constructed an efficient ALHS (WP5 \supset CPy-DBT) based on FRET. The D/A ratio of the system is dynamically adjustable, leading to tunable fluorescence emission colors. Furthermore, these nanoparticles in aqueous solutions can serve as efficient solid-state information encryption materials due to their AIE properties. This study not only employs a straightforward supramolecular approach to fabricate an artificial light-harvesting system but also presents novel concepts for harnessing light energy and developing tunable luminescent materials. Example of Action Computer Articles. The published on 22 May 2024. Downloaded on 22 May 2024. Downloaded to the state of the state

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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