

# Mechanofluorochromic properties of aggregation-induced emission-active tetraphenylethene-containing cruciform luminophores

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## ABSTRACT

Two twisted donor–acceptor cruciform luminophores (**DHCS-TPE** and **DMCS-TPE**) that were composed of two  $\pi$ -conjugated segments connected via a central benzene core have been prepared. Such cruciforms showed unique intramolecular charge transfer (ICT) emission, obvious aggregation-induced emission (AIE) properties ( $\alpha_{\text{AIE}} = 19$  and 20, respectively) and high solid state efficiency (0.913 and 0.424, respectively). Especially, the two compounds exhibited substituent-dependent mechanofluorochromic (MFC) behavior. The as-prepared powders of the more twisted **DMCS-TPE** could emit strong blue-green light centered at 474 nm, and the fluorescence color changed into yellowish green (531 nm) after grinding, a red shift of 57 nm was observed. Such mechanochromism was reversible upon the treatment of grinding and fuming with DCM. The high contrast MFC behavior of **DMCS-TPE** originated from the planarization of the molecular conformation and subsequent planar intramolecular charge transfer (PICT) under external force. By sharp contrast, the less twisted **DHCS-TPE** exhibited no MFC behavior. The reason is that the less twisted molecular conformation of **DHCS-TPE** generates strong intermolecular forces and close packing. Thus compared to **DMCS-TPE**, the crystalline solid powders of **DHCS-TPE** possess higher lattice energy and better structural stability. The grinding of the crystalline solid powders of **DHCS-TPE** cannot lead to amorphization and mechanochromic luminescence.

## 1. Introduction

The development of mechanofluorochromic (MFC) materials [1] that change their solid-state emission color in response to external force stimuli (such as grinding, pressing, shearing, deformation, etc.) remains an interesting but challenging subject because such materials not only possess significance in fundamental research but also have potential applications in memory devices [2], sensors [3], security inks [4] and optoelectronic devices [5]. Up to now, there has been an increasing interest in the design and characterization of MFC materials including tetraphenylethene [6], 9,10-divinylanthracene [7], triphenylacrylonitrile [5c,8] and organoboron complexes [9,10]. Nevertheless, MFC materials possessing high solid-state luminescence efficiency and an obvious color contrast are still rare. The main reason is that many organic luminescent dyes usually exhibit strong fluorescence in dilute solution, and most of their emissions become weak or thoroughly quenched in solid or aggregation states due to the ACQ effect [11]. To

overcome this problem, developing aggregation-induced emission (AIE) luminophore, which was first discovered by Tang and co-workers in 2001 [12], is a rational and promising choice. Generally, AIE molecules possess the strongly twisted conjugated backbones, which can hinder intermolecular close stacking and intense  $\pi$ – $\pi$  interaction to probably endow such materials with strong solid emission and MFC behavior. And a number of AIE fluorophores have been found to be promising MFC materials [6,7a-c,10,13]. However, creating such organic AIE MFC materials, which combine high contrast mechanofluorochromism, excellent reversibility, and high solid-state fluorescence efficiency, is still strikingly desirable. Thus, great attention should be paid to the design and synthesis of new AIE MFC luminophores, in particular, based on novel frameworks, with high emission in the solid states.

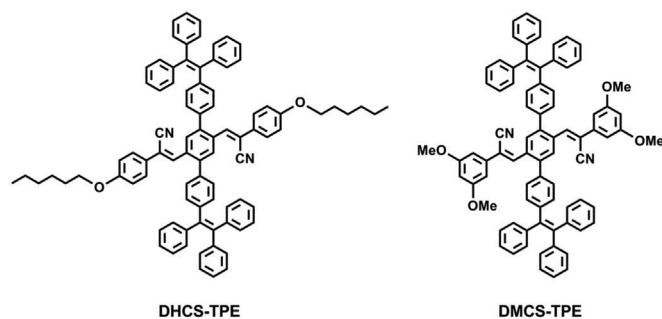
Cruciform fluorophores, which are donor- and/or acceptor-functionalized cross-shaped chromophores with an aromatic ring as the common  $\pi$ -center, have gained an increasing interest owing to their potential applications in chemosensors [14], organic light-emitting

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Scheme 1. The molecular structures of DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE.

diodes (OLED) [15], nonlinear optical materials [16], and organic photovoltaic cells (OPVs) [17]. In these cruciforms, appropriate donor and acceptor substitution results in compounds possessing the frontier molecular orbitals (FMOs) spatially disjoint from one another; in these cases, the HOMO and LUMO localize on the crossed arms of the molecules. This spatial separation of FMOs endows the molecules with unique and interesting optical and optoelectronic properties. Herein, we successfully synthesized two twisted donor–acceptor cross-conjugated  $\pi$ -systems (DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE, Scheme 1) with two conjugation circuits intersecting at the central benzene core, and investigated the impact of molecular structure on photophysical properties from the perspective of electronic and steric effects. In the two cruciforms, one of the axes is donor (tetraphenylethene) substituted and the other axis is acceptor (cyanostyryl) substituted, and thus species with spatially separated FMOs could be attained. Moreover, the crowding in the central benzene forces the surrounding substituents to distort from the ring plane, resulting in effective depression of close packing and enhancement of emission quantum yields in the solid state. Results illustrated that both DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE exhibit strong ICT nature, significant AIE characteristics, high solid state efficiency, and substituent-dependent MFC behavior.

## 2. Experimental section

### 2.1. Materials and measurements

#### 2.1.1. General

$^1\text{H}$  and  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker-Avance III (400 MHz) spectrometer by using  $\text{CDCl}_3$  as the solvents. UV-visible spectra were obtained on a Shimadzu UV-2550 spectrophotometer. Fluorescence measurements were performed on a Cary Eclipse Fluorescence Spectrophotometer. The absolute fluorescence quantum yields for as-prepared solids of DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE were measured on an Edinburgh FLS920 steady state spectrometer using an integrating sphere. HRMS spectra were recorded on MALDI-TOF MS Performance (Shimadzu, Japan). Elemental analyses were performed with a Perkin-Elmer 240C elemental analyzer by investigation of C, H, and N. XRD patterns were obtained on a Bruker D8 Focus Powder X-ray diffraction instrument. The calculations for DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE were based on the density functional theory (DFT) and performed at the B3LYP/6-31G(d) level using the Gaussian 09W program package.

#### 2.1.2. Preparation of the samples for AIE study

A stock solution of luminogen in THF with a concentration of  $1.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M}$  was prepared. An aliquot (0.1 mL) of the stock solution was transferred to a 10 mL volumetric flask. After the appropriate amount of THF was added, distilled water was added slowly under sonication to give  $1.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ M}$  solution with different fractions of water. The PL measurement of the resultant solutions was performed immediately.

#### 2.1.3. Preparation of the samples for mechanofluorochromism study

The ground powders were prepared by grinding the initial powders with a pestle and mortar. The fumed samples were obtained by fuming the ground powders with DCM for 2 min.

#### 2.1.4. Materials

THF was distilled from sodium and benzophenone under nitrogen immediately prior to use. Ethanol was distilled under normal pressure over sodium under nitrogen before use. The other chemicals were used as received without further purification. Compound 2 was synthesized according to the literature [18].

### 2.2. Synthesis

#### 2.2.1. 4,4''-bis(1,2,2-triphenylvinyl)-[1,1':4',1''-terphenyl]-2',5'-dicarbaldehyde (3)

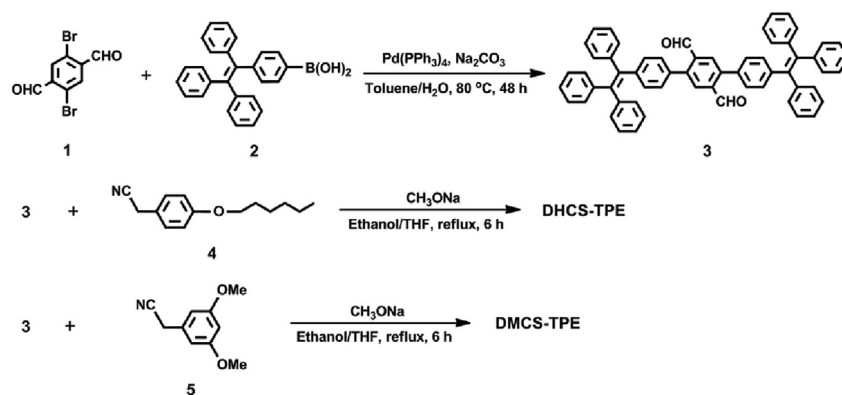
Compound 1 (4.00 g, 13.70 mmol), 2 (15.47 g, 41.11 mmol), Pd ( $\text{PPh}_3$ )<sub>4</sub> (200 mg, 0.173 mmol),  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$  (8.00 g, 75.48 mmol) were added into toluene/ $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (400 mL,  $v/v = 3/2$ ). The mixture was heated to reflux under nitrogen atmosphere for 48 h. After cooling to room temperature, the resulting precipitate was collected by filtration, and dried under vacuum. The crude product was purified by column chromatography (silica gel,  $\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$ ), affording a light yellow solid (10.13 g), yield 93%.  $^1\text{H}$  NMR (400 MHz,  $\text{CDCl}_3$ )  $\delta$  10.00 (s, 2H), 8.05 (s, 2H), 7.18–7.09 (m, 38H) (Fig. S17);  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR (100 MHz,  $\text{CDCl}_3$ )  $\delta$  191.87, 144.47, 144.24, 143.42, 143.37, 143.26, 142.06, 139.97, 137.87, 136.38, 134.24, 131.66, 131.34, 131.29, 129.97, 129.42, 129.04, 128.23, 127.85, 127.82, 127.72, 126.87, 126.71, 126.67, 125.31 (Fig. S18); HRMS (MALDI-TOF)  $m/z$ :  $[\text{M}]^+$  Calcd for  $\text{C}_{60}\text{H}_{42}\text{O}_2$  794.3185; Found 794.3192 (Fig. S19). Anal. Calcd (%) for  $\text{C}_{60}\text{H}_{42}\text{O}_2$ : C 90.65, H 5.33; Found: C 90.58, H 5.41.

#### 2.2.2. (2Z,2'Z)-3,3'-(4,4''-bis(1,2,2-triphenylvinyl)-[1,1':4',1''-terphenyl]-2',5'-diyl)bis(2-(4-(hexyloxy)phenyl)acrylonitrile) (DHCS-TPE)

Compound 3 (1.50 g, 1.89 mmol) and 4 (1.23 g, 5.66 mmol) were added into dry ethanol (150 mL) and dry THF (15 mL), and then  $\text{CH}_3\text{ONa}$  (0.31 g, 5.74 mmol) was added quickly. The mixture was refluxed with stirring for 24 h under an atmosphere of nitrogen. After cooling to room temperature, the resulting precipitate was collected by filtration, and dried under vacuum. The crude product was purified by column chromatography (silica gel,  $\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$ /petroleum ether,  $v/v = 2/1$ ), affording a bright yellowish-green solid (1.62 g). Yield 72%.  $^1\text{H}$  NMR (400 MHz,  $\text{CDCl}_3$ )  $\delta$  8.16 (s, 2H), 7.47 (d,  $J = 8.8 \text{ Hz}$ , 4H), 7.35 (s, 2H), 7.26 (d,  $J = 10.8 \text{ Hz}$ , 6H), 7.16–7.06 (m, 32H), 6.98 (d,  $J = 8.8 \text{ Hz}$ , 4H), 4.05 (t,  $J = 6.4 \text{ Hz}$ ,  $J = 6.8 \text{ Hz}$ , 4H), 1.88–1.81 (m, 4H), 1.54–1.48 (m, 4H), 1.41–1.37 (m, 8H), 0.94 (t,  $J = 6.8 \text{ Hz}$ ,  $J = 7.2 \text{ Hz}$ , 6H) (Figs. S20 and S21);  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR (100 MHz,  $\text{CDCl}_3$ )  $\delta$  160.17, 143.66, 143.61, 143.54, 143.40, 141.57, 140.91, 140.41, 139.11, 136.97, 133.40, 131.50, 131.39, 131.32, 130.22, 129.41, 127.77, 127.68, 127.35, 126.60, 126.57, 126.38, 118.13, 115.03, 113.21, 68.29, 31.58, 29.16, 25.72, 22.62, 14.05 (Fig. S22); HRMS (MALDI-TOF)  $m/z$ :  $[\text{M}]^+$  Calcd for  $\text{C}_{88}\text{H}_{76}\text{N}_2\text{O}_2$  1192.5907; Found 1192.5918 (Fig. S23). Anal. Calcd (%) for  $\text{C}_{88}\text{H}_{76}\text{N}_2\text{O}_2$ : C 88.55, H 6.42, N 2.35; Found: C 88.63, H 6.52, N 2.29.

#### 2.2.3. (2Z,2'Z)-3,3'-(4,4''-bis(1,2,2-triphenylvinyl)-[1,1':4',1''-terphenyl]-2',5'-diyl)bis(2-(3,5-dimethoxyphenyl)acrylonitrile) (DMCS-TPE)

By following the synthetic procedure for DHCS-TPE, DMCS-TPE was synthesized by using 3 (1.60 g, 2.01 mmol), 5 (1.07 g, 6.03 mmol) and  $\text{CH}_3\text{ONa}$  (0.33 g, 6.11 mmol) as the reagents. The crude product was purified by column chromatography (silica gel,  $\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}_2$ /petroleum ether,  $v/v = 3/2$ ), affording a light yellow solid (1.68 g). Yield 75%.  $^1\text{H}$  NMR (400 MHz,  $\text{CDCl}_3$ )  $\delta$  8.15 (s, 2H), 7.47 (s, 2H), 7.23 (d,  $J = 8 \text{ Hz}$ , 4H), 7.14–6.99 (m, 34H), 6.72 (s, 4H), 6.54 (s, 2H), 3.86 (s, 12H) (Fig. S24);  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR (100 MHz,  $\text{CDCl}_3$ )  $\delta$  161.24, 143.81, 143.49, 143.45,



Scheme 2. Synthetic routes of DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE.

143.35, 141.93, 141.77, 141.26, 140.24, 136.68, 136.01, 133.40, 131.54, 131.35, 131.28, 130.39, 129.34, 127.78, 127.74, 127.65, 126.65, 126.59, 126.53, 117.85, 113.71, 104.49, 101.18, 55.52 (Fig. S25); HRMS (MALDI-TOF)  $m/z$ :  $[M]^+$  Calcd for C<sub>80</sub>H<sub>60</sub>N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> 1112.4553; Found 1112.4568 (Fig. S26). Anal. Calcd. (%) for C<sub>80</sub>H<sub>60</sub>N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>: C 86.30, H 5.43, N 2.52; Found: C 86.36, H 5.51, N 2.44.

### 3. Result and discussion

#### 3.1. Synthesis of DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE

The synthetic routes for cruciform luminophores DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE are shown in Scheme 2. The key intermediate 3 was prepared by Suzuki-Miyaura coupling reaction between 1 and boric acid 2 catalyzed by Pd(PPh<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub> in toluene–H<sub>2</sub>O in a high yield of 93%. The target molecules DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE were synthesized between 3 and substituted phenylacetonitriles 4 and 5 via standard Knoevenagel condensation in the presence of sodium methoxide, respectively, to give good yields of 72% and 75%. DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE are soluble in common organic solvents, such as CHCl<sub>3</sub>, CH<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub>, THF, benzene and toluene, but show poor solubility in alcohols and aliphatic hydrocarbon solvents, such as cyclohexane, hexane, methanol and ethanol. It is worth mentioning that we have tried to allow the condensation reaction between 3 and 2-(4-methoxyphenyl)acetonitrile, unfortunately, the product obtained had so poor solubility that it was not soluble in common organic solvents. Therefore, 2-(4-(hexyloxy)phenyl)acetonitrile was selected to react with 3, which enabled the product DHCS-TPE to possess moderate solubility. All the intermediates and target molecules were characterized by <sup>1</sup>H and <sup>13</sup>C NMR, MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry, and C, H, N elemental analyses.

#### 3.2. UV-vis absorption and fluorescent emission spectra in solutions

To investigate the solvent effect on the photophysical properties, the absorption and emission spectra of DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE were measured in various solvents, and the corresponding photophysical data were collected in Tables S1 and S2. As shown in Fig. 1a, for compound DHCS-TPE, in different solvents, it exhibited a strong major absorption peak at ca. 340 nm originating from  $\pi$ - $\pi^*$  transition and weak bands at the longer wavelength ca. 400 nm attributed to the CT transition between electron donor (tetraphenylethene unit) and electron acceptor (dicyanodistyrylbenzene axis) [19], which could be confirmed by the solvent-dependent emission spectra. Fig. 1c showed the solvent-dependent photoluminescence (PL) spectra of DHCS-TPE. It was found that the maximum emission bands of DHCS-TPE became broad and red-shifted significantly with increasing polarity of the solvent. For example, in cyclohexane, DHCS-TPE gave a strong emission band at 464 nm, but with the increasing solvent polarity, its emission band was red-shifted to 509 nm in DCM accompanied by emission

bands broaden. Combined with the large Stokes shifts, the broadening and red-shift of the emission bands, we suggested that intramolecular charge-transfer (ICT) transitions of DHCS-TPE took place in more polar solvents [20]. And the longer wavelength emissions can be assigned to ICT emissions. Similarly, DMCS-TPE displayed the  $\pi$ - $\pi^*$  transition bands at ca. 330 nm and CT transition bands ca. 400 nm (Fig. 1b), and its emission spectra also showed the broadening and red-shift of the emission bands from cyclohexane to DCM (Fig. 1d), indicating an ICT character for the excited state. The effects of solvents on the emission features can be further evaluated by the relationship between the solvent polarity parameter ( $\Delta f$ ) and Stokes shift ( $\Delta \nu$ ) the absorption and emission maxima (Lippert–Mataga equation) [21,22].  $\Delta f$  and  $\Delta \nu$  of the two compounds in different solvents are listed in Tables S1 and S2. It was clear that both DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE showed positive solvatochromism. Their emission peaks red-shifted and quantum yields decreased gradually with the increasing of  $\Delta f$ . From the plots of  $\Delta \nu - \Delta f$  (Fig. S1), we could find that the slopes of the fitting line for DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE were as high as 7448 and 14657, exhibiting significant solvatochromism effect. In addition, in the same solvent, the maximum ICT emission wavelength of DHCS-TPE was smaller than that of DMCS-TPE, indicating the ICT degrees of the two compounds in the excited state increased in a sequence of DHCS-TPE < DMCS-TPE [18,23], which were same as the order of the onset wavelength in absorption (Figs. S2–S7).

For better insight into the influence of the geometric and electronic structures of DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE on their photophysical properties, density functional theory (DFT) calculations were performed on the two compounds with the Gaussian 09W package. The geometrical structures are optimized at the B3LYP/6-31G(d) level. Fig. 2 shows the optimized molecular configuration and the electron distribution of the HOMOs and LUMOs for DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE. It is found that the LUMO densities for DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE are mainly distributed along the acceptor dicyanodistyrylbenzene axis. The HOMO densities for DHCS-TPE are located in the whole molecule, and in the case of DMCS-TPE, the HOMO densities were distributed in over the donor tetraphenylethene unit. The reason for the difference in the distribution of the HOMO densities for two molecules is below: the electron-donating ability of the alkoxy can weaken the electron-withdrawing ability of the acceptor dicyanodistyrylbenzene axis. And thus the electron-withdrawing ability of the acceptor dicyanodistyrylbenzene axis in DHCS-TPE is weaker than that of DMCS-TPE because the electron-donating ability of *para*-hexyloxy in DHCS-TPE is stronger than that of *meta*-methoxy in DMCS-TPE. As a result, the ICT would occur from the donor (tetraphenylethene) to the acceptor (dicyanodistyrylbenzene axis) for the excited state. Moreover, DMCS-TPE possesses larger CT degree in the excited state than that of DHCS-TPE. The above inference is consistent with the observed optical property. In addition, for DHCS-TPE, the dihedral angles between two vinyl planes and the central benzene are 28.1° and 32.6°, respectively. And dihedral

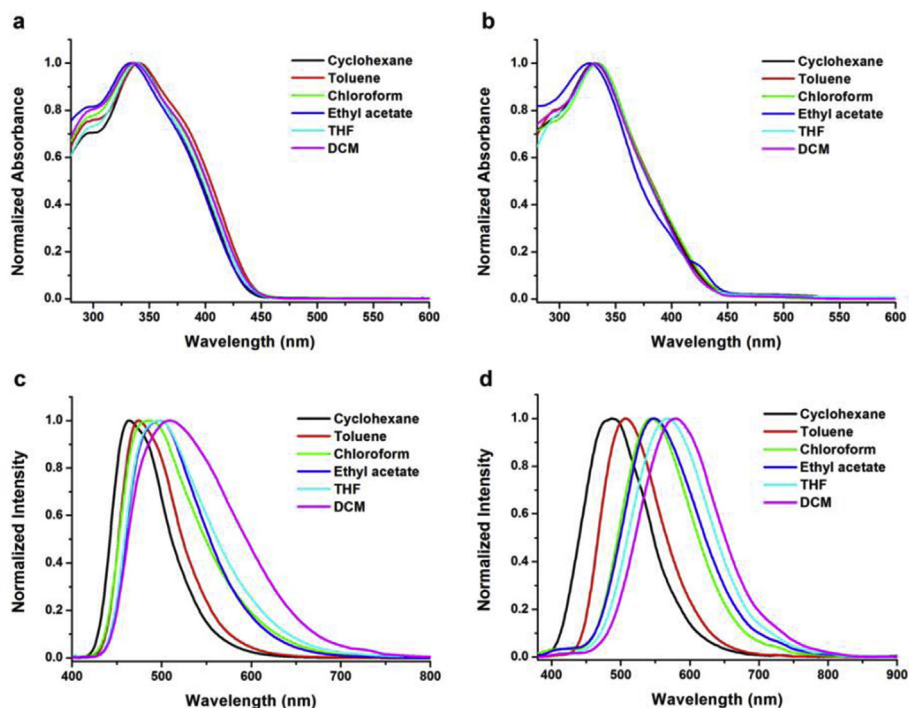


Fig. 1. Normalized UV-vis absorption spectra of DHCS-TPE (a) and DMCS-TPE (b), and normalized PL spectra of DHCS-TPE (c,  $\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 390$  nm) and DMCS-TPE (d,  $\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 370$  nm) in different solvents ( $1.0 \times 10^{-5}$  mol L $^{-1}$ ).

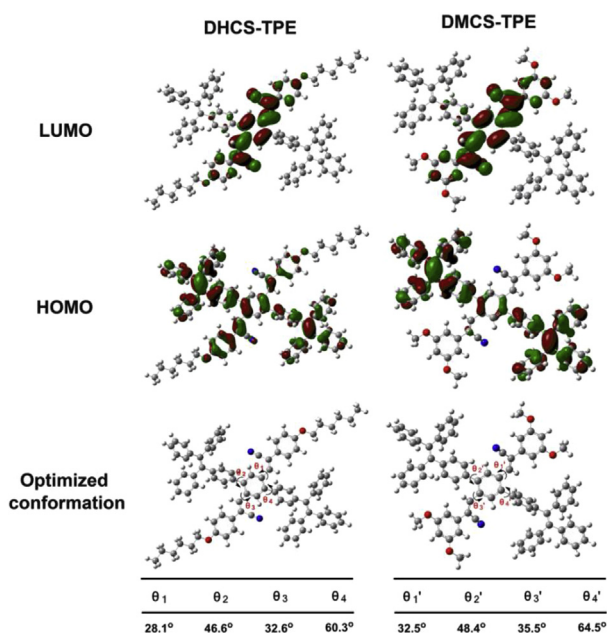


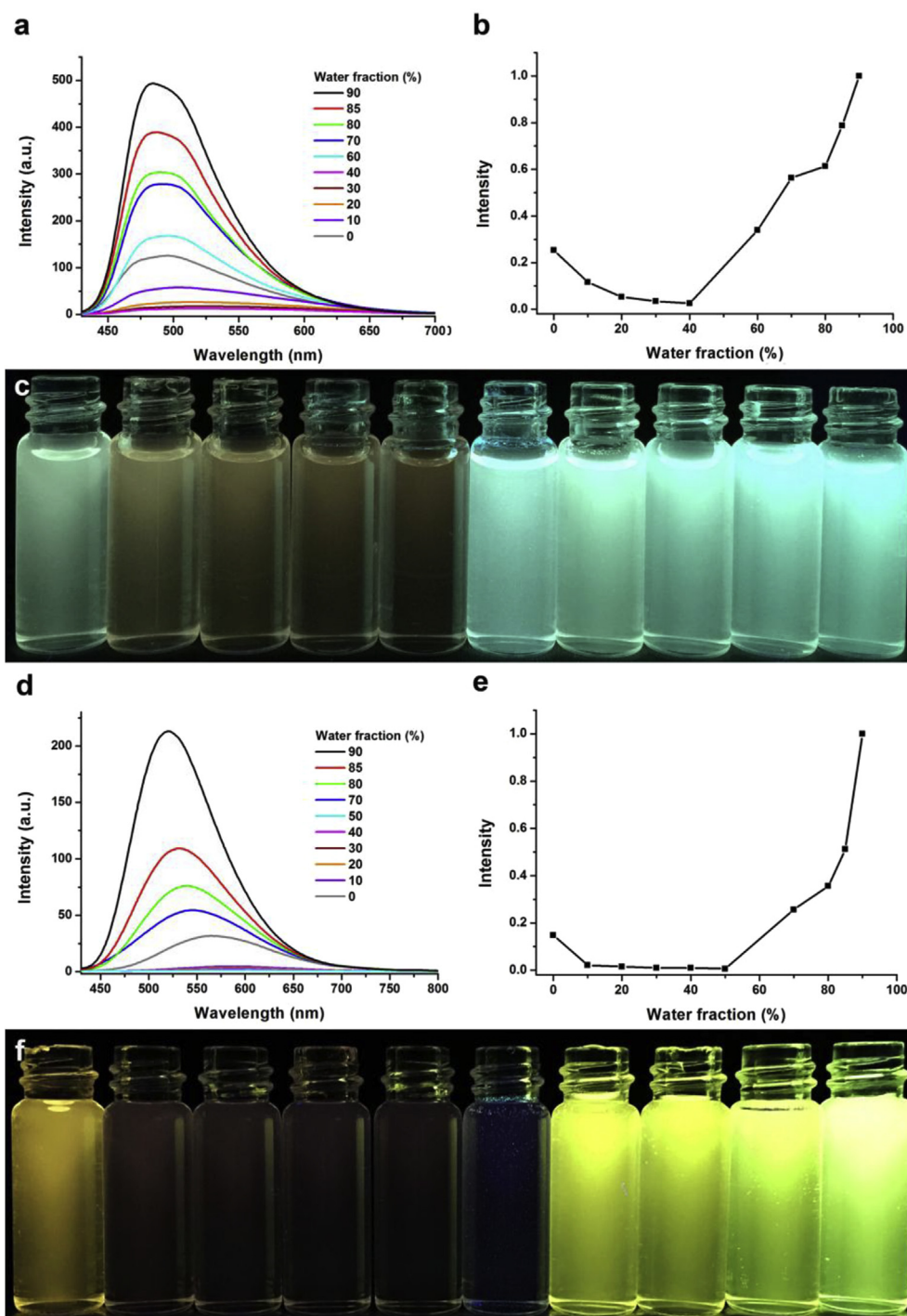
Fig. 2. Electron density distributions in the HOMO and LUMO states and optimized conformation of DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE calculated by DFT in Gaussian 09 at the B3LYP/6-31G(d) level.

angles between two side benzene rings and the central core are 46.6° and 60.3°, respectively. And for DMCS-TPE, the corresponding dihedral angles are 32.5°, 35.5°, 48.4° and 64.5°, which are larger than that of DHCS-TPE. Such high torsional angles should be ascribed to the steric hindrance between tetraphenylethene and substituted cyanostyryl groups. As a result, DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE show specially twisted conformation, which disfavors close molecular packing and  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interactions in the solid state and this may endow them, especially DMCS-TPE, with solid state emission, AIE characteristics and MFC behavior.

### 3.3. Aggregation induced emission (AIE)

Tetraphenylethene (TPE) is a well-known AIE luminogen. So far, a large number of the molecules containing TPE unit have been developed for their simple synthetic routes and notable AIE performance [6]. When excited with 365 nm UV light, the as-prepared powders of DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE could emit strong green and blue-green light, respectively. However, relatively weak blue and yellow light was observed from their dilute THF solutions, revealing their AIE feature. To confirm the AIE nature of DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE, we measured their PL spectra in dilute mixtures of water-THF with different water fractions ( $f_w$ , the volume percentage of water in THF/water mixtures). Because the two compounds are insoluble in water and soluble in THF, increasing the water fraction in the mixed solvent could thus change their existing forms from a solution state in the pure THF to the aggregated particles in the mixtures with high water contents, thereby changing their PL spectra. As shown in Fig. 3, in pure THF, DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE could emit blue and yellow fluorescence with maxima at 493 and 561 nm, respectively, but the intensity was weak and  $\Phi_f$  is only 0.049 and 0.021. When the proper amount of water is added into THF solution, the PL intensities initially decreased and the emission peaks show red shifts due to the increased solvent polarity. The fluorescence quenching is attributed to the ICT effect in polar solvent for DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE with D-A structures. As  $f_w$  is above 40% and 50%, the emission peaks were recovered and the PL intensities started to increase rapidly for the two luminogens, respectively, at which solvating powers of the mixtures are so worse that the luminogen molecules tend to aggregate, inside which the encapsulated the two luminogen molecules locate in a nonpolar environment and the ICT process is limited, thus the fluorescence is recovered. At a high  $f_w$  of 90%, the bright blue and yellow-green light emitting of DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE is observed for the aggregates, which is about 3 and 2 times higher than that in the pure THF, respectively. At the same time, the emission peaks of the two luminogens blue-shift from 515 ( $f_w = 40\%$  for DHCS-TPE) and 583 nm ( $f_w = 50\%$  for DMCS-TPE) to 484 and 520 nm, respectively. Thus, the increase in PL intensity could be attributed to the AIE effect derived from the formation of molecular aggregates when



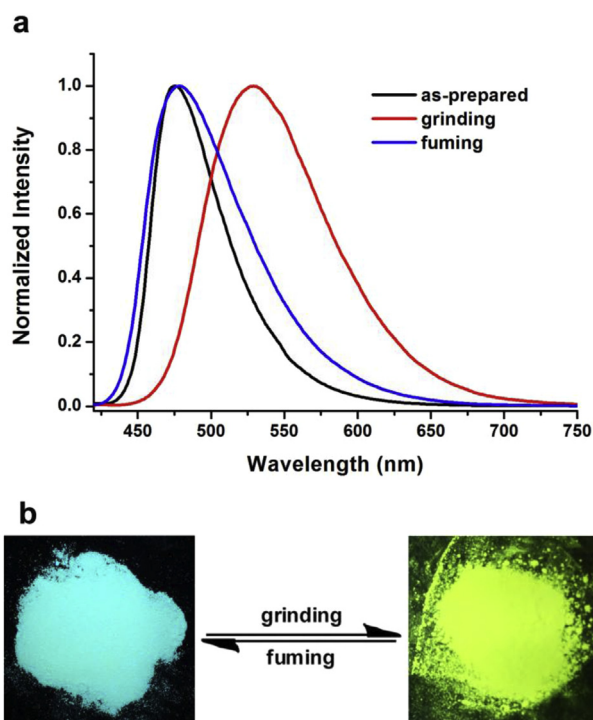


**Fig. 3.** PL spectra of **DHCS-TPE** ((a),  $\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 400$  nm) and **DMCS-TPE** ((d),  $\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 370$  nm) in THF/water mixtures with different  $f_w$ . Normalized fluorescence emission intensities of **DHCS-TPE** (b) and **DMCS-TPE** (e) in THF/water mixtures with different  $f_w$ . The fluorescence images of **DHCS-TPE** (c) and **DMCS-TPE** (f) with various water fractions (from 0% to 90%) under UV light (365 nm).

adding water to the solution. The aggregated particles obtained are characterized using dynamic light scattering (DLS) and shows the existence of nano-aggregates as their main constituent in the solvent mixtures with high water contents (Figs. S8 and S9). The AIE nature of **DHCS-TPE** and **DMCS-TPE** can also be further confirmed by the vivid contrast fluorescent images of the solvent mixtures from 0% to 90% (Fig. 3c and f).

To determine the reason for the AIE effect of **DHCS-TPE** and **DMCS-TPE**, the dependencies of the optical properties on solvent temperature were examined. With the decreasing of the system temperature, for the

two compounds, their emission peaks red-shift and their fluorescence intensities increased in THF (Fig. S10). Because low-temperature environments can suppress molecular motions (such as torsion and vibration), which might be beneficial to extend the conjugate length of the molecules, and thus the red-shifts of the emission peaks and the enhancement of the PL intensities would occur. Therefore, the main reason for AIE of **DHCS-TPE** and **DMCS-TPE** could be attributed to be the restriction of intramolecular rotation (RIR) associated with the aromatic groups and decreased solvent polarity effect when molecules precipitate [10a,b]. To quantitatively evaluate the AIE effect of **DHCS-**

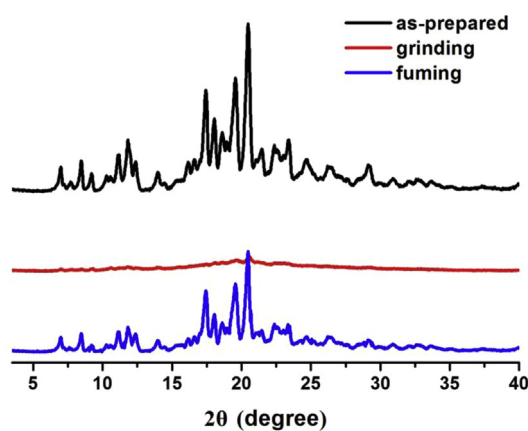


**Fig. 4.** (a) Normalized fluorescent spectra of DMCS-TPE in different solid-states: as-prepared, grinding and fuming ( $\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 410$  nm). (b) Photographs of DMCS-TPE color changes under grinding and fuming stimuli. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

TPE and DMCS-TPE, the fluorescence quantum yields of the luminogens in solution ( $\Phi_{f,s}$ ) and as prepared solid ( $\Phi_{f,aps}$ ) states were determined. The  $\Phi_{f,aps}$  value for DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE is 0.913 and 0.424, respectively, which are considerably boosted compared to those in pure THF (0.049 and 0.021), giving AIE factors ( $\alpha_{\text{AIE}} = \Phi_{f,aps}/\Phi_{f,s}$ ) of 19 and 20 with respect to those in THF.

### 3.4. Mechanofluorochromic (MFC) properties

As discussed above, the two luminogens DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE possessing the highly torsional molecular conformations, the AIE feature, ICT characteristics, and moreover high solid state efficiency, would be promising candidates as stimuli responsive smart materials [10]. To investigate whether the two luminogens DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE exhibit mechanochromic luminescence, their solid emission properties were studied. The fluorescence responses of DMCS-TPE toward grinding and fuming processes are illustrated in Fig. 4. Upon exciting with UV light, the as-prepared DMCS-TPE solid powders exhibit strong blue-green emission. After the grinding treatment using a pestle and a mortar, the emitting color of DMCS-TPE samples unexpectedly changes into yellowish green (Fig. 4b), indicating the obvious MFC feature. The mechanochromic effect of DMCS-TPE could be reverted to its original color by fuming with DCM vapor for 2 min. And when the fumed samples are re-ground, the fluorescence colors are again changed as the first grinding. The wavelength changes in solid-state emission could be repeated many times without fatigue, suggesting excellent reversibility in the switching processes (Fig. S11). PL spectra were used to monitor such naked-eye-visible fluorescence color changes under grinding and fuming stimuli. As depicted in Fig. 4a, the maximum emission wavelength of the as-prepared DMCS-TPE sample is 474 nm, and red-shifts to 531 nm in the ground powders, implying the PL spectrum of amorphous sample exhibits a significant 57 nm red-shift compared with the initial powders. Moreover, upon DCM fuming, it



**Fig. 5.** XRD patterns of DMCS-TPE in different solid-states: as-prepared, grinding and fuming.

maximum emission wavelength can blue-shifted to the initial wavelength, which further suggests the reversibility of the mechanochromic fluorescence. Unexpectedly, the luminogen DHCS-TPE has no MFC properties. Grinding did not result in any change in the fluorescence color of DHCS-TPE, and the maximum emission wavelength remains almost unchanged and only the change of 1 nm is observed (Fig. S12).

To further understand the MFC behavior of DHCS-TPE and DMCS-TPE, the X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements were carried out on their solid-state samples. As shown in Fig. 5, the XRD diffraction curves of the as-prepared DMCS-TPE solid powders display many sharp and intense reflections that are indicative of their regular crystalline nature. By sharp contrast, the ground solids show rather weak, broad, and diffused peaks, indicating disordered molecular packing or amorphous states. However, when fumed with DCM vapor, sharp diffractions, similar to those of the as-prepared solids, emerge again. These results show that after grinding, most of the ordered structures are disrupted. The grinding treatment can convert the crystalline phase to the amorphous state, and the fuming treatments can convert the amorphous phase to the crystalline state through molecular repacking, which realizes the reversible inter-conversion of mechanochromism. Therefore, the mechanochromism of DMCS-TPE is attributed to the transformations between the ordered crystalline and amorphous states. This is a general mechanism for many other mechanochromic compounds. In addition, the different MFC properties of the two compounds may be due to the electronic and steric effects of the peripheral substituents on the acceptor dicyanodistyrylbenzene axis with two *para*-hexyloxy and four *meta*-methoxy linkages. The large red-shifts of DMCS-TPE after grinding might be original from the conformational change and rotate to a position more parallel to the coplanar under external force, leading to extended conjugation and subsequent planar intramolecular charge transfer (PICT). This proposal could be evidenced by the UV-vis absorption spectra of as-prepared and ground samples (Fig. S13). It is obvious that the ground DMCS-TPE samples show a clear red-shift relative to that of as-prepared ones, indicating the extension of  $\pi$ -conjugation after grinding. Therefore, the planarization of the molecular conformation and subsequent PICT accounts for the MFC behavior of DMCS-TPE. However, for DHCS-TPE, the diffraction peaks in XRD pattern are coincident with those of the as-prepared powders (Fig. S14), confirming the fact that the green emission samples before and after grinding belong to the same crystalline morphology (Fig. S15). Moreover, the UV-vis absorption and PL spectra of its ground samples are almost the same as those of as-prepared ones, respectively (Figs. S12 and S16). Consequently, the color of the as-prepared and ground DHCS-TPE samples shows no changes. The no MFC behavior of DHCS-TPE might be due to its less twisted molecular conformation, which generates strong intermolecular forces and close packing. Therefore, the crystalline solid powders of DHCS-TPE possess higher lattice energy

and better structural stability than those of **DMCS-TPE**. The force of mechanical grinding cannot destroy the unit cell structure of **DHCS-TPE** crystals.

#### 4. Conclusion

Two twisted donor–acceptor cruciform luminophores **DHCS-TPE** and **DMCS-TPE**, which were constructed by two  $\pi$ -conjugated electron-rich tetraphenylethene and electron-poor cyanostyryl intersecting at a central benzene core, have been designed and successfully prepared. The impact of molecular structure on photophysical properties was studied from the perspective of electronic and steric effects. It was found that the two cruciforms exhibited unique ICT emission, obvious AIE properties and strong solid-state fluorescence. The solid fluorescence quantum yield of **DHCS-TPE** and **DMCS-TPE** reach 0.913 and 0.424, respectively. More interestingly, the two compounds possess substituent-dependent MFC behavior. Owing to a more twisted molecular conformation, **DMCS-TPE** with four *meta*-methoxys on the acceptor dicyanodistyrylbenzene axis shows reversible high contrast MFC nature with large spectral shift of up to 57 nm, while the less twisted **DHCS-TPE** with two *para*-hexyloxys on the acceptor dicyanodistyrylbenzene axis has no MFC behavior. Due to the stronger intermolecular force and closer packing of **DHCS-TPE**, grinding of the crystalline solid powders doesn't affect their crystalline lattice, and thus grinding of **DHCS-TPE** crystals cannot lead to amorphization and mechanochromic luminescence. This study not only discloses a particular structure–property relationship between the luminescent polymorphs of organic luminophores, but also provides a perspective of the potential applications of these luminescence-switching polymorphs in the fields of optical displays and visual sensors for multiple external stimuli.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.dyepig.2018.04.021>.

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