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Reference

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Twisted Push-Pull Probes with Turn-On Sulfide Donors

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**Keywords:** Fluorescent Probes • Mechanophores • Push-Pull Systems • Deplanarization • Membranes • Macrocycles • Proteins

**Introduction**

The color change of lobsters, crabs or shrimps during cooking originates from a combined deplanarization and depolarization of the astaxanthin chromophore in response to the thermal denaturation of the surrounding β-barrel protein.[1][2] Most important biological processes such as vision, particularly color vision, operate similarly,[3] and their application of this more complex lesson from nature to fluorescent probes has received little attention so far. However, this combination of planarization and depolarization in the ground state appeared most intriguing, particularly with regard to fluorescent probes that could report on key characteristics of biomembranes such as fluidity,[4] potential[5] as well as the so far elusive membrane tension.[6]

The concept of planarizable push-pull probes has been introduced in 2012 with mechanophore 1 (Figs. 1, 2).[7] This original probe 1 and its optimized congener 2[8][9] consist of an oligothiophene[10] with methoxy donors and cyanovinyl acceptors (Fig. 2). Methyl groups are installed along the scaffold to twist the oligomer out of conjugation. The origin of this deplanarization is the repulsion between the methyls and the σ hole on the proximal sulfur atom, a situation that can be referred to as chalcogen bond repulsion, or chalcogen anti-bonds (Fig. 1, *). This deplanarization of twisted push-pull probes 1 or 2 occurs in a fluid medium, such as solvents or liquid disordered (Ld) lipid bilayer membranes. In the confining environment of solid-ordered (S0) membrane, however, the probe is planarized. This planarization results in a better conjugation, better communication between donor and acceptor, and thus a red shift of the excitation maximum by ∆λex = +44 nm from λex = 416 nm to λex = 460 nm with the best probe 2.

The introduction of the concept of “fluorescent flipper” marked the next milestone in the design of planarizable push-pull probes.[11] The term was coined to describe monomers in oligomeric probes that have a) high fluorescence (to keep emitting when twisted out of conjugation) and b) large surface area (to feel the environment really well).[12] Dithieno[3,2-b:2',3'-d]thiophenes (DTTs), particularly their most fluorescent S,S-dioxides, were selected as the first fluorescent flippers. Installed in the twisted push-pull probe 3, the phase change from Ld to S0 membranes shifted excitation maximum from λex = 453 nm to a broad maximum at λex = 498 – 533 nm, and increased fluorescence lifetimes from 2.2 to 4.3 ns (compatible with fluorescence-lifetime imaging microscopy: FLIM).[13]

Further improvement in the mechanosensitivity could be anticipated by enforcing the push-pull strength. In mechanophore 3, the electron-rich DTT and the electron-poor DTT S,S-dioxide already provide a push-pull system. The DTT S,S-dioxide acceptor is further supported by a withdrawing aldehyde. However, the donor is missing on the electron-rich DTT in flipper probe 3 because in twisted form, i.e., disconnected from the acceptors, additional donors cause spontaneous oxidative degradation.[14] In twisted form, the electron-rich DTT should ideally be

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Figure 1. The concept of twisted push-pull probes with turn-on donors. In the twisted resting state in solution, they are “turned off” to support blue-shifting deplanarization and prevent oxidation of the decoupled electron-rich flipper. Upon planarization of the mechanophore in confined space, they “turn on” to support the planarizing, red-shifting push-pull system.
stabilized by an acceptor that further supports deplanarization and turns into a donor only upon planarization and connection with the acceptor part of the probe.

Supported by early computational studies,[16] Hammett constants $\chi_b = +0.03$ and $\chi_a^* = -0.60^{[14]}$ suggested that ethyl sulfides could serve as turn-on donors in planarizable push-pull probes.[27] This “amphiphilic” nature of sulfur atoms in organic molecules originates from their high polarizability, their poor electronegativity, and their long bonds. The electron-accepting nature of sulfur atoms accounts, for example, for the high acidity of thiols and thioketals compared to alcohols and ketals, respectively.[28] It presumably involves empty 3d or antibonding $\sigma^*$ orbitals as acceptors, the latter being explicitly supported by the high acidity of equatorial compared to axial protons in thioketals. The long C-S bonds and the diffuse 3p orbitals of the sulfur reduce contributions from $\pi$ bonds to donate electrons. Thioketones are unstable for this reason.[21]

However, the electron-donating nature of sulfur atoms grows in significance in combination with electron poor partners such as carbocations.[18] As substituents in n-acidic aromatic systems such as naphthalenediimides, sulfides donate electrons almost as well as ethers.[22]

Preliminary studies confirmed that “all-sulfur” model flippers 4 with turn-on sulfide donors are stable (Fig. 2).[27] Their record Stokes shift of 9300 cm$^{-1}$ in solution suggested that turn-on sulfides indeed act as acceptors in the twisted ground state (causing blue-shifted excitation) and donors in the planar, highly polarized push-pull excited state (causing red-shifted emission). Time-resolved emission spectra revealed the occurrence of planarization from the twisted Franck-Condon state to the planar $S_1$ state in 3.5 ps.[17] Encouraged by these model studies in solution, we decided to prepare a series of twisted push-pull mechanophores with turn-on sulfide donors to study their properties in solid crystals, lipid bilayer membranes of varied fluidity, in proteins and in cyclodextrin macrocycles of varied diameter.

Figure 2. The evolution of planarizable push-pull probes, from the original quaterthiophene 1 to the all-sulfur turn-on flipper model 4. R: charged groups for delivery to and orientation in membranes. ⋆: $\sigma^*$-hole repulsion for deplanarization.

Figure 3. The first generation of twisted push-pull probes with turn-on sulfide donors, focusing on all-sulfur architectures and the orientation of the push-pull dipole.

Results and Discussion

Design.

One of the unique advantages of all-sulfur turn-on flipper 4 is the possibility to easily build on both push and pull termini of the mechanophore (Fig. 2).[27] This was of interest to explore, for example, the importance of the orientation of the push-pull macrodipole in lipid bilayer membranes for sensing applications.[7] Constitutional isomers 5 and 6 have been designed to address this question (Fig. 3). Oriented by an anionic anchor, probes 5 and 6 will partition into vesicular membranes with the negative end of their macrodipole pointing toward the interior and the exterior, respectively. In constitutional isomers 7 and 8, the same question is repeated with a shorter anchor and a more permanent negative charge. The series of mechanosensitive membrane probes with turn-on donors was completed with the replacement of the sulfone acceptors in 5 and 7 by cyano acceptors in 9 and 10 and formyl acceptors in 11 (Fig. 4). With formyl and cyano acceptors, macrodipole inversion as in 5–8 is obviously not possible. In controls 12 and 13, cyano acceptors are tested for the original design of flipper 3 and the variation with a shorter, permanently charged anchor.

Synthesis.

The new mechanophores 5–13 were accessible in a few steps from commercially available starting materials. The synthesis of probes 5, 6 and 12 is outlined in Scheme 1. Details on the synthesis of all probes can be found in the Supplementary Material (Schemes S1–S4, Figs. S13–S58).[23]
Scheme 1. a) Imidazole, TBDPSCI, THF, rt, 12 h, 92%; b) LDA, 18, THF, -78 °C to rt, 24 h, 26%; c) NBS, DCM, rt, 3 h, 88%; d) mCPBA, CHCl₃, rt, 4 h, 53%; e) 1. LDA, SnCl(Bu)₃, THF, -78 °C to rt, 1 h, 2. Pd(PPh₃)₄, DMF, 70 °C, 24 h, 20% (25), 31% (27), 60% (29); f) TBAF, AcOH, THF 12 h, 81% (26), 77% (28), 84% (30); g) diglycolic anhydride, DMAP, pyridine, rt, 4 h, 51% (5), 65% (6), 74% (12).
DPPC LUVs show a phase transition from S probes in the L onset of undesired side effects, including possible self-assembly of the mechanophores. The appearance of saturation behavior was thus avoided for studies on ground-state planarization in S membranes.

Planarization in Single Crystals.

Amorphous powders of the original all-sulfur turn-on model probe 4 remained highly fluorescent (Figs. 2, S1). In single crystals of long, thin needles, the color was unchanged but fluorescence was completely quenched (Fig. S1). The X-ray structure revealed that in single crystals, model probe 4 is fully planarized (Figs. 5, S12). This planarization in single crystals is enforced by π-π stacking between the mechanophores. The distance of 3.8 Å between the neighboring aromatic planes was in agreement with this interpretation. The π-π stacking of the push-pull systems in single crystals is parallel. This finding suggested that packing forces overcompensate dipole repulsion (Fig. 5a).

Lateral contacts between DTIs in neighboring stacks are determined by chalcogen bonds (Figs. 5b, c).[24] One oxygen atom of the sulfone acceptor locates precisely in the focal point of the chalcogen bonds originating from the deep σ holes of the electron-deficient sulfur atoms of the DTI S,S-dioxides.

Planarization in DPPC Membranes.

Planarization of twisted push-pull probes with turn-on donors in lipid bilayer membranes was examined in large unilamellar vesicles (LUVs) composed of dipalmitoyl-sn-glycerol-3-phosphocholine (DPPC). At 41 °C, DPPC LUVs show a phase transition from S to Ls membranes. Addition of the mechanophores to DPPC LUVs at 55 °C revealed their excitation and emission maxima in Ls membranes. Incubation times and concentrations were carefully adjusted to assure maximal partitioning of monomeric probes (Fig. S1). Linear concentration dependence of the fluorescence intensity was interpreted as indicative for monomeric probes (Figs. 6, S2). The appearance of saturation behavior at high concentration marked the onset of undesired side effects, including possible self-assembly of the probes in the Ls membranes or in solution. Non-linear regions in dose response curves were thus avoided for studies on ground-state planarization in S membranes.

With the original anchors with protonatable carboxylates, linear regions with monomeric probes were limited to low concentrations, usually only < 200 nM, which is < 0.3 mol% probe / lipid (Fig. 6a). The shortened anchors with permanent charges were introduced to prevent the self-assembly of the mechanophores. While more basic carboxylates could be partially protonated to facilitate their self-assembly with little charge repulsion, the less basic sulfonates could not in neutral buffer.[26]

Consistent with these expectations, the spectroscopic properties of mechanophores with the new sulfonate anchors in lipid bilayer membranes were linear beyond 1 µM (Fig. 6b). Transient carboxylate protonation could also enable flip-flop of the probe to the inner leaflet of the bilayer by transient neutralization, which would be particularly problematic for the sensing of membrane potentials.[25]
Exception (Consistent trends with nine new probes provided much support for thus identifying all new probes as operational mechanophores. shoulders as together with, if appropriate, the bat maxima, the midpoint of intercepts at selected: For clear maxima, this should be recorded. To identify contributions from thermochromism, all transition from liquid-disordered (Ld) to solid-ordered (Sd) membranes was cooled to 25 ºC, and the spectroscopic response to the phase changes were observed. For sulfone in 7 with stronger formyl and cyano acceptors in 10 and 11 gradually shifted all excitation and emission maxima to the red in Ld DPPC membranes (Table 1, Fig. 8b, red). The same was true for sulfone and cyano acceptors in 5 and 9 with longer anchor without permanent charge (Table 1). Cooled down from Ld into Sd DPPC membranes, red shifts of the excitation maxima increased with push-pull strength from 5 / 7 to 9 / 10 and 11, from Δλex = +25 nm to Δλex = +48 and Δλem = +79 nm (Table 1, Fig. 8b, blue). This was consistent with the stabilization of the planar conformation of the mechanophore by increasing strength of donors and acceptors.

After probe calibration in Sd membrane at 55 ºC, the DPPC LUVs were cooled to 25 ºC, and the spectroscopic response to the phase transition from liquid-disordered (Ld) to solid-ordered (Sd) membranes was recorded. To identify contributions from thermochromism, all experiments were repeated in dioleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DOPC) LUVs, which are in Ld phase at both 25 ºC and 55 ºC.

In response to the transition from Ld to Sd, DPPC membranes, the excitation maximum of all new probes 5–13 shifted to the red, without exception (Table 1, Fig. 7, solid). Red shifts Δλex consistently coincided with increases in fluorescence intensity ΔI. ΔI increased with Δλex. The negligible shift found in emission upon phase transition of DPPC membrane (Fig. 3c) or in excitation in DOPC upon cooling (Fig. 7, dashed) demonstrated that contributions from solvatochromism or thermochromism, respectively, are overall insignificant. These general trends suggested that the observed shifts in excitation originate from the ground-state planarization caused by the surrounding Sd membranes, thus identifying all new probes as operational mechanophores. Consistent trends with nine new probes provided much support for generality and robustness of the concept of fluorescent flippers.

The least convincing Δλex and ΔI were obtained with 5 and 6, independent of the orientation of the macrodipole (Table 1, Entries 1, 2; Figs. 7a, b). Shortening of the anionic tail without changes in the all-sulfur architecture of the mechanophore in 7 and 8 caused clear improvements (Table 1, Entries 3, 4; Figs. 7c, d). Overlay of normalized spectra demonstrated that the orientation of the macrodipoles in 5–8 is irrelevant (Fig. 8a).

Quantification of the often broad excitation maxima in Sd (but not Ld) membranes was not obvious (Table 1). The following format was selected: For clear maxima, this wavelength is indicated. For broad maxima, the midpoint of intercepts at 85% intensity is indicated as λem together with, if appropriate, the bathochromic edge of bathochromic shoulders as λem. Red shifts upon phase change are correspondingly referred to as Δλex and Δλem. Δλem > Δλex naturally always holds. Substitution of the sulfone in 7 with stronger formyl and cyano acceptors in 10 and 11 gradually shifted all excitation and emission maxima to the red in Ld DPPC membranes (Table 1, Fig. 8b, red). The same was true for sulfone and cyano acceptors in 5 and 9 with longer anchor without permanent charge (Table 1). Cooled down from Ld into Sd DPPC membranes, red shifts of the excitation maxima increased with push-pull strength from 5 / 7 to 9 / 10 and 11, from Δλex = +25 nm to Δλex = +48 and Δλem = +79 nm (Table 1, Fig. 8b, blue). This was consistent with the stabilization of the planar conformation of the mechanophore by increasing strength of donors and acceptors.

However, best results were obtained with 12 without turn-on sulfide donors, in which a cyano acceptor group replaces a formyl group of the original flipper architecture 3. Upon cooling into Sd membranes, the excitation peak shifted to 501 nm, Δλem = +58 nm and ΔI = 3.5 were the largest in the series, and the bathochromic shoulder grew to full intensity up to (λem = 522 nm, Δλem = +79 nm, Table 1, Fig. 7h).

Figure 7. Excitation spectra in DPPC LUVs (solid) and DOPC LUVs (dotted) at 25 ºC (blue) and 55 ºC (red) for mechanophores a) 5, b) 6, c) 7, d) 8, e) 9, f) 10, g) 11, h) 12 and i) 13 (λem at maximum).

Figure 8. a) Macrodipole orientation: Normalized excitation spectra of 7 (dashed) and 8 (solid) in DPPC LUVs at 25 ºC (blue) and 55 ºC (red). b) Macrodipole strength: Normalized excitation spectra of 7 (dotted) 10 (dashed) and 11 (solid) in DPPC LUVs at 25 ºC (blue) and 55 ºC (red).
As in solution, the excitation of the optimized turn-on probe 10 (λ\textsubscript{em} = 431 nm) in Ls DPPC membranes was blue shifted compared to the conventional homolog 12 (λ\textsubscript{em} = 443 nm), whereas the emission of 10 (λ\textsubscript{em} = 595 nm) was red shifted (12: λ\textsubscript{em} = 585 nm, Fig. 9, Table 1). This enlarged Stokes shift was consistent with the concept of turn-on donors and promised increased mechanosensitivity upon planarization of the mechanophore in the ground state.\textsuperscript{[17]} However, in Ss DPPC membranes, the maximum of turn-on probe 10 (λ\textsubscript{em} = 472 nm) clearly did not shift beyond that of 12 (λ\textsubscript{em} = 501 nm, Fig. 9a, Tables 1 and 2). The same was true for the bathochromic shoulder of 10 (λ\textsubscript{em} = 510 nm), which remained blue shifted and also clearly less intense than that of 12 (λ\textsubscript{em} = 522 nm, Fig. 9a, Table 1). This suggested that in Ss DPPC membranes, turn-on probes such as 10 are less planarized than conventional flippers 12. Under these conditions, stabilization of the twisted conformer by the “turned off” sulfide acceptor appeared more effective than stabilization of the planar conformer by the “turned on” sulfide donor.

As with all mechanophores, emission of 10 and 12 did not much change upon Ls-Ss transition (Fig. 9b). As mentioned in the introduction, this general characteristic supports that twisted push-pull mechanophores act differently, i.e. by ground-state planarization, and are unrelated to established concepts such as molecular rotors or solvatochromism.\textsuperscript{[13]}

**Table 1.** Spectroscopic properties of twisted push-pull probes in Ls and Ss DPPC LUVs.\textsuperscript{*}

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<th>Cpd\textsuperscript{a}</th>
<th>(λ\textsubscript{ex}\textsuperscript{b} )</th>
<th>(λ\textsubscript{em}\textsuperscript{c} )</th>
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\textsuperscript{a} See Fig. 7 for original spectra. \textsuperscript{b} Compounds, see Figs. 3 and 4. \textsuperscript{c} Excitation maximum in DPPC LUVs at 55 °C. \textsuperscript{d} Excitation maximum in DPPC LUVs at 25 °C. \textsuperscript{e} For broad maxima, the midpoint of intercepts at 85% intensity is indicated and, if appropriate, the bathochromic edge of bathochromic shoulders in parentheses. Red shifts upon planarization are correspondingly referred to as \(\Delta λ\textsubscript{ex} \) and \(\Delta λ\textsubscript{em} \) (\(\Delta λ\textsubscript{em} > \Delta λ\textsubscript{ex} \)). \textsuperscript{f} \(λ\textsubscript{em}\textsuperscript{a} \) minus \(λ\textsubscript{em}\textsuperscript{b} \) in DPPC LUVs. \textsuperscript{g} Fluorescence intensity at the excitation maximum in DPPC LUVs at 25 °C divided by that in DPPC LUVs at 55 °C. \textsuperscript{h} Fluorescence intensity in DPPC LUVs at 25 °C relative to 12.

Shortening of the anionic anchor did not lead to further improvements: The bathochromic shoulder in minimal flipper probe 13 lost in both intensity and shift (Table 1, Fig. 7i). Combination of the aldehyde acceptor and anionic anchors of matching length finally gave the best results for turn-on sulfide donors. In Ss DPPC, mechanophore 11 excelled with \(λ\textsubscript{ex} = 489\) nm, \(\Delta λ\textsubscript{ex} = +48\) nm and a quite intense bathochromatic shoulder at \(λ\textsubscript{ex} = 520\) nm, i.e., \(\Delta λ\textsubscript{ex} = +79\) nm (Table 1, Fig. 7g). However, turn-on probes 11 with aldehyde acceptors (\(λ\textsubscript{ex} = 489\) nm, \(\Delta λ\textsubscript{ex} = +48\) nm) remained inferior to conventional probes 12 with cyano acceptors (\(λ\textsubscript{ex} = 501\) nm, \(\Delta λ\textsubscript{ex} = +58\) nm), not to speak of the original flipper 3 combining conventional “donors” with the same aldehyde acceptors (\(λ\textsubscript{ex} = 515\) nm, \(\Delta λ\textsubscript{ex} = +60\) nm\textsuperscript{[13]}).

Direct comparison of the turn-on sulfide donors with conventional “thenyl” esters was performed with cyano acceptors in 9, 10 and 12 (Fig. 4). This comparison was meaningful from a functional point of view, to measure turn-on donors against the current best. For a structural point of view the two donors are less related, particularly considering likely contributions from intramolecular chalcogen bonding with thenyl esters (Fig. 2). Relevant donor comparison from structural point of view, i.e., turn-on sulfides against the unstable ethers, has been reported.\textsuperscript{[17]} In the present series, the couple 9 and 12 compares anchors of identical, removable charge. The couple 10 and 12 compares anchors of identical length. The clearly larger red shift of 10 (\(λ\textsubscript{em} = 472\) nm, \(\Delta λ\textsubscript{ex} = +41\) nm; \(λ\textsubscript{ex} = 510\) nm) compared to 9 (\(λ\textsubscript{em} = 459\) nm, \(\Delta λ\textsubscript{ex} = +29\) nm) in Ss membranes suggested that anchor length is more important than the nature of the charges (Table 1), at least at optimized high-dilution conditions (Fig. 6). Overall best results found with anchors of intermediate length compared to shorter (13) and longer ones were in agreement with this interpretation, highlighting the importance of precise probe positioning in the lipid bilayer membrane.

**Figure 9.** a) Excitation and b) emission spectra of 10 (solid) and 12 (dashed) in DPPC LUVs at 25 °C (blue) and 55 °C (red).
Planarization in Other Membranes.

The apparently incomplete planarization of turn-on flippers in $S_o$ DPPC membranes suggested that in environments that are confining more or differently than the $S_o$ phase of DPPC membranes, turn-on probe 10 but not conventional 12 could be further planarized. The apparently planar probes present in single crystals implied that complete planarization should be possible (Fig. 5). To elaborate on this hypothesis, saturated lipid bilayers of increasing thickness were considered first. Distearoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (DSPC) membranes are formed by saturated lipids with 18 carbons in their alkyl tails, that is two more than in DPPC membranes. Compared to DPPC membranes with $T_m = 41 ^\circ C$, the transition from $S_o$ to $L_o$ DSPC membranes occurs at higher $T_m = 55 ^\circ C$.

As described for DPPC, turn-on probe 10 and the conventional homolog 12 were added to $L_o$ DSPC and then cooled down into $S_o$ DSPC membranes. The excitation spectra of the conventional 12 in $S_o$ DSPC and DPPC were nearly superimposable (Fig. 10b). In clear contrast, the excitation spectrum of the turn-on probe 10 in $S_o$ DSPC shifted to $\lambda_{ex} = 488$ nm in $S_o$ DSPC LUVs (Table 2). This spectroscopic response was in agreement with increasing planarization of the twisted turn-on probe 10 with increasing thickness of $S_o$ membranes.

The red shift of the twisted turn-on probe 10 in $S_o$ DSPC membranes remained still $\Delta \lambda_{ex} = -10$ nm inferior to that of the thickness insensitive conventional probe 12 (Fig. 10, Table 2, Entry 2). However, compared to the $\Delta \lambda_{ex} = -29$ nm in $S_o$ DPPC, the planarization of thickness sensitive turn-on 10 in $S_o$ DSPC approaches that of the original flipper probe 12.

In egg yolk sphingomyelin (SM) LUVs at $25 ^\circ C$, the excitation maxima of both probes were blue shifted compared to $S_o$ DPPC (Fig. 11, dashed, Table 2). Moreover, the difference in planarization $\Delta \lambda_{ex} = -36$ nm between turn-on 10 and conventional 12 exceeded the $\Delta \lambda_{ex} = -29$ nm in $S_o$ DPPC (Table 2, Entry 3 vs 1). Quite remarkably, the presence of 33% cholesterol (CL) in SM membranes, that is the emergence of the liquid-ordered ($L_n$) phase, was simply not reported by conventional flippers 12 (Fig. 11b, solid, Table 2, Entry 4 vs 3). In contrast, the excitation maximum of turn-on probe 10 in SM/CL membranes shifted $\Delta \lambda_{ex} = +25$ nm to the red. As in $S_o$ DSPC membranes, the hypsochromic shoulder of the excitation maximum clearly decreased in SM/CL compared to SM membranes, and the bathochromic shoulder increased correspondingly (Fig. 11a). This suggested that planarization of turn-on probes 10 by the condensing effect of cholesterol in $L_n$ phases is particularly effective. In $L_n$ SM/CL membranes, the planarization of conventional probes 12 and turn-on probes 10 were almost equal ($\Delta \lambda_{ex} = -7$ nm, Fig. 11, Table 2, Entry 4). Control experiments confirmed that the presence of cholesterol in DPPC/CL membranes (2:1) also red shifted the excitation maxima of 10 in $S_o$ DPPC membranes, but to a much less significant extent.

Table 2. Spectroscopic properties of turn-on and conventional flipper probes 10 and 12 in different hosts. *

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<td>$\alpha$ CD</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>$\beta$ CD</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>$\gamma$ CD</td>
<td>456</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>-8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>BSA</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>+7</td>
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* See Fig. 4 for structures and Figs. 10, 11 and 13 for spectra. # DPPC: Dipalmitoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine LUVs at $25 ^\circ C$; DSPC: Distearoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine LUVs at $25 ^\circ C$; SM: Egg yolk sphingomyelin LUVs at $25 ^\circ C$; SM/CL: SM/cholesterol 2:1 LUVs at $25 ^\circ C$; CD: Cyclodextrin; BSA: Bovine serum albumin. \* Excitation maximum. \* $\lambda_{em}$, $\lambda_{ex}$. 

Figure 10. Excitation spectra of a) 10 and b) 12 in DPPC (dashed) and DSPC LUVs (solid) at $25 ^\circ C$.

Figure 11. Excitation spectra of a) 10 and b) 12 in DPPC (dotted), SM (dashed) and SM/CL LUV (solid) at $25 ^\circ C$. In $L_n$ SM/CL membranes, the fluorescence lifetime of turn-on probe 10 increased correspondingly to $\tau = 5.07 \pm 0.05$ ns. The blue shift of turn-on probe 10 in SM membranes coincided with a corresponding decrease to $\tau = 3.93 \pm 0.03$ ns, and the presence of cholesterol in $L_n$ DOPC

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membranes (τ = 2.06 ± 0.04 ns) increased lifetimes to τ = 3.57 ± 0.09 ns only, a value that is far below the long lifetimes reached in liquid-ordered membranes.

In summary, in S₅, DPPC membranes, twisted flipper probes with turn-on donors are presumably less planarized than conventional mechanophores. Because of their already full planarization, conventional probes fail to report on further changes in highly-ordered membranes. In clear contrast, incomplete planarization of turn-on flippers in S₅, DPPC membranes leaves room to respond to thicker S membranes (Cyclodextrins (CDs) are macrocyclic oligomers of α-1,4 glucopyranosides obtained from the enzymatic degradation of amylase). Guest inclusion in their hydrophobic interior is used extensively to solubilize hydrophobic compounds in water. Moreover, molecular recognition within cyclodextrins has been applied to catalysis, transport, and the self-assembly into higher-order architectures including multilayers on solid surfaces, vesicles as well as pseudorotaxanes and rotaxanes, particularly polyrotaxanes, in many variations.

Planarization in Macrocycles.

Cyclodextrins (CDs) are macrocyclic oligomers of α-1,4 glucopyranosides obtained from the enzymatic degradation of amylase. Guest inclusion in their hydrophobic interior is used extensively to solubilize hydrophobic compounds in water. Moreover, molecular recognition within cyclodextrins has been applied to catalysis, transport, and the self-assembly into higher-order architectures including multilayers on solid surfaces, vesicles as well as pseudorotaxanes and rotaxanes, particularly polyrotaxanes, in many variations.

Figure 12. a) Increase in intensity in the excitation spectrum of turn-on flipper 10 with increasing concentration of γ CD in buffer. Dose response curve for γ CD with constant concentration of b) 10 and c) 12.

Figure 13. Notional structure of 2:1 pseudorotaxanes 14 and 15 formed by 10 with β and γ CD, respectively.

CDs are of interest as another type of confining environment of flippers. Inclusion of the flippers 10 and 12 in CDs would result in an increased fluorescence due to their sensitivity to the polarity of environment, typical for push-pull chromophores. Most common among CDs are α CD, a macrocycle composed of six glucose monomers with an internal diameter of 4.7 Å and a height of 7.9 Å, β CD with seven monomers and 6.0 Å internal diameter and γ CD with eight monomers and 7.5 Å internal diameter. In the presence of α CD, the fluorescence intensity of mechanophore 10 in Tris buffer at pH = 7.4 did not increase significantly (Fig. S7). With β CD, fluorescence intensities of turn-on mechanophore 10 in buffer increased dramatically with increasing CD concentration (Fig. S8). Dose response curves gave an EC₅₀ = 7.8 ± 2.5 mM (Fig. S8). Comparable systems in the literature and a Hill coefficient n = 1.8 ± 0.5 were consistent with the formation of 2:1 pseudorotaxane complexes such as 14 (Fig. 13a). The excitation maximum of complex 14 was at λₑₓ = 391 nm, that is even more blue shifted than the λₑₓ = 411 nm observed for turn-on flippers in solution (Fig. 14a, solid).

With γ CD, fluorescence intensities increased with a slightly less efficient EC₅₀ = 25.9 ± 2.5 mM (Figs. 12a, S9). Hill coefficients of dose response curves remained with n = 2.0 ± 0.2 for 10 and n = 2.5 ± 0.3 for 12 and consistent with the formation of 2:1 pseudorotaxanes (Figs. 12b, c, 13, S9). The excitation maximum of turn-on mechanophore 10 in γ CD was at λₑₓ = 456 nm (Fig. 14a, solid). The position of the maximum in γ CD was comparable to that of planarized probes in S₅ membranes and ∆λₑₓ = +65 nm red shifted compared to β CD. Compared to the conventional flipper 12, the excitation maxima of the turn-on mechanophore 10 in γ CD was blue shifted by only ∆λₑₓ = −8 nm (Fig. 14a, Table 2, Entry 7). This suggested that planarization of turn-on mechanophore 10 in γ CD is as effective as in SM/CL (∆λₑₓ = −7 nm) and DSPC LUVs (∆λₑₓ = −10 nm), and clearly better than DPPC membranes (∆λₑₓ = −29 nm, Table 2, Fig. 14a).

Figure 14. Excitation spectra of 10 (solid) and 12 (dashed) in a) β CD (blue), γ CD (red), and b) BSA.

Inspection of molecular models suggested that there is sufficient internal space available within β and γ CD to accommodate mechanophores without any tension. Overall, there are surprisingly few reports on spectroscopic changes that could be attributed to fluorophore twisting and untwisting with CD macrocycles. Even planarization of carotenoids including astaxanthin within CDs failed because the β-ionone rings rather than the polyene chains were recognized exclusively. Larger macrocycles like artificial or biological β barrels are needed to planarize carotenoids. The strong blue and red
shifts found for flipper mechanophores within $\beta$ and $\gamma$ CD, respectively, were thus quite interesting. Although there would be space for two flippers within $\gamma$ CD, such dimerization appeared less likely considering Hill coefficients in support of 2:1 pseudorotaxanes \[15\] and a weaker fluorescence intensity expected for face-to-face dimerized flippers, which was not observed. The twisting and untwisting of flippers within CDs is thus likely to originate from interactions between the macrocycles in the expected pseudorotaxanes \[14\] and \[15\] (Fig. 13).

**Planarization in Proteins.**

Serum albums are quite non-specific carrier proteins for hydrophobic ligands, including fatty acids and steroids.\[34\] In the presence of increasing concentrations of bovine serum albumin (BSA), fluorescence intensities of turn-on and conventional mechanophores \[10\] and \[12\] in water increased until saturation (Fig. S10). Measured for increasing protein concentration, the resulting dose response curves do not report on the number of mechanophores bound (crystal structures with up to seven fatty acids bound in various conformations to HSA have been reported\[35\]). However, they did reveal a most significant $E_{\text{C50}} = 2.6 \pm 1.1$ $\mu$M for turn-on \[10\] and a more than two times weaker $E_{\text{C50}} = 6.0 \pm 1.4$ $\mu$M for the conventional flipper \[12\] binding to BSA (Fig. S10). Their excitation maximum shifted to $\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 450$ nm and $\lambda_{\text{em}} = 443$ nm, respectively (Table 2, Fig. 14b). This is thus the first example for excitation maxima of turn-on flippers \[10\] that exceed those of conventional probe \[12\], i.e., $\Delta\text{ex} = +7$ nm, presumably indicating that in proteins, the turn-on flippers \[10\] are slightly more planarized than the original probe \[12\].

**Conclusions**

The concept of turn-on donors aims to introduce substituents that act as acceptors in electron-rich aromatic systems and donors in electron-poor aromatic systems. In twisted push-pull mechanophores, turn-on donors are expected to support not only the deplanarization of the twisted “resting state” as acceptors, they should also stabilize the planar conformer in confined space as donors that strengthen the push-pull system. However, turn-on donors are attractive first to prevent the oxidative degradation in the twisted resting state and to easily functionalize both termini of the probe. Sulfides, characterized by positive $\alpha$ and a negative $\alpha^\prime$, are the obvious choice to elaborate on turn-on donors. In $S_o$ lipid bilayer membranes, nine new mechanophores with turn-on sulfides all show red shifts in excitation but not emission. This result is consistent with planarization of the new turn-on probes in the ground state, i.e., operational mechanophores. The mechanosensitivity of twisted push-pull probes with turn-on sulfide donors is best together with aldehyde acceptors and anionic anchors of matching, intermediate length, i.e., probe \[11\] (Fig. 4). Planarization in $S_o$ DPPC membranes is independent of the orientation of the macrodipole of the push-pull probes, whereas increasing strength of the macrodipole not only shifts both excitation and emission maxima to the red but also increases mechanosensitivity. Length and nature of the anionic anchor are important for precise positioning of the probe within the membrane and to prevent probe aggregation by charge repulsion.

In $S_o$ DPPC membranes, red shifts with turn-on mechanophores are smaller than with the original flipper probes. This weaker mechanosensitivity is consistent with incomplete planarization. This incomplete planarization indicated that, under these conditions, the stabilization of the deplanarized pull-pull conformers by sulfide acceptors is more effective than the stabilization of planarized push-pull conformers by turn-on sulfide donors. An apparently more reluctant planarization of turn-on probes promised sensitivity toward more confining environments. Indeed, turn-on mechanophores show particular sensitivity toward thicker $S_o$ membranes (DSPC) as well as liquid-ordered membranes (SM/CL). In cyclodextrin pseudorotaxanes, shifts in excitation of the included mechanophores depend on the diameter and report, presumably, on interactions between the surrounding macrocycles. This switch is important because there is little precedence on mechanophore twisting in cyclodextrin pseudorotaxanes. Moreover, responsiveness to cyclodextrin-cyclodextrin interactions suggests that flipper mechanophores could be of interest not only as fluorescent membrane probes but also to sense intermolecular forces more generally, including tension in protein-protein interactions. Binding to proteins with confining hydrophobic pockets results in red shifts for turn-on probes that exceeds those of conventional mechanophores. This observation is important because it supports the implication from Stokes shifts that turn-on probes can maximize mechanosensitivity. Although overall consistent and meaningful, it is important to add that these interpretations are in part speculative and made with the only intention to rationalize results. They will naturally evolve in future with the emergence of new experimental data.

In summary, the results validate the concept of turn-on donors for operational mechanophores and identify specific characteristics of interest (e.g., stability in the twisted resting state, access to anchoring at both termini, mechanosensitivity toward differences at high confinement). Yet, in $S_o$ DPPC membrane models, the original flipper probes \[3\] and, with some reservations, also derivatives \[12\] and \[13\] with cyano acceptors remain superior with regard to absolute red shifts as well as absolute fluorescence intensity (Fig. 2). This conclusion is annoying because a) the origin of both effects is not understood, b) the probe tends to aggregate already at low concentrations and, most importantly, flippers with a “thenyl” ester decompose by an intriguing, possibly chalcogen-bond mediated, acid or base catalyzed fragmentation in cells and d) during modification of the terminal carboxylate.\[36\] However, these activated thienyl esters also account for the so far unique red shift and fluorescence intensity of the original probe \[3\], presumably acting as long-distance donors to strengthen the push-pull system through 1,6 S-O chalcogen bonds (Fig. 2, ***).\[36\] The ultimate objective thus remains to find analogs of original \[3\] with a) stable, b) derivatizable and c) disaggregating anchors but preserved d) red shift, e) brightness and f) mechanosensitivity. Insights from this and coinciding studies\[36\] will contribute inspiration to tackle this important challenge, and although
Author Contribution Statement

Q. V., N. S. and S. M. conceived this work; Q. V., A. R., L. G., N. S. and S. M. designed the experiments; Q. V., M. D. M., A. C. and L. G. conducted the experiments; Q. V., M. D. M., A. C., R. L. G., N. S. and S. M. discussed the results and commented on the manuscript, Q. V., N. S. and S. M. wrote the manuscript.

References


Entry for the Table of Contents

(planarization)

(deplanarization)

*chalcogen anti-bond

membranes, macrocycles, proteins, single crystals