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Linear and branched supramolecular polymers formed from isomeric monomers as revealed by solution viscoelasticity

 Yufuka Furukawa,^{†a} Ren Sato,^{†b} Natsumi Fukaya,^{‡a} Takashi Kajitani,^c Takuya Katashima^{*b} and Kazunori Sugiyasu^{‡*a}

Supramolecular polymers (SPs) assembled through non-covalent interactions provide a promising platform for designing soft materials with dynamic and tunable properties. However, the viscoelastic properties of their solutions remain poorly understood, largely due to the tendency of SP chains to bundle into thick supramolecular fibers, often resulting in precipitation or gelation. In this study, we show that bundle formation can be effectively suppressed by appropriate design of the surface of SPs through alteration of their side chains. Structural analyses revealed that the resulting SPs are homogeneously solvated, permitting their rheological characterization. Notably, we found that even subtle modifications, such as positional isomerism of the side chains, can dramatically alter the physical properties of SP solutions. Our findings, therefore, highlight the critical role of side chains in governing hierarchical structures and macroscopic properties of SPs, offering a design strategy for engineering functional supramolecular materials.

Introduction

A discotic molecule equipped with properly designed hydrogen bonding sites at its periphery can undergo spontaneous self-assembly to form a one-dimensional (1D) columnar polymeric array, thereby forming a supramolecular polymer (SP) chain.¹ Supramolecular polymerization of such monomers is well understood on the basis of a nucleation–elongation mechanism.² In addition, under kinetic control, living supramolecular polymerization is possible, which permits precise control of the polymer chain length³ and the creation of block architectures.⁴ As such, SPs can nowadays be rationally designed from the monomer level. However, at the polymer level, the design principles that govern the behavior of SP chains in solution, particularly with respect to their viscoelastic properties, remain poorly understood.^{2,5–11} ‡

One difficulty in investigating the solution viscoelasticity of SPs lies in their propensity to bundle into thick 1D fibers, rather than to exist as individually solvated polymeric chains (Fig. 1a). This bundling behavior is probably associated with a polymerization mechanism that resembles the crystallization of a small

molecule, *i.e.*, a nucleation–elongation process. Consequently, SPs in solution often form precipitates or colloidal dispersions that take the form of physical gels, commonly referred to as low-molecular-weight gels (LMWGs).¹² Rheological studies of

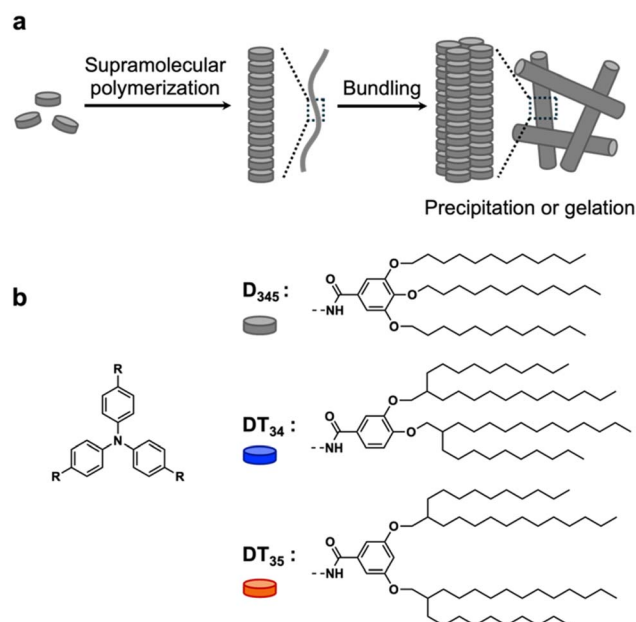


Fig. 1 (a) Schematic representation of supramolecular polymerization that accompanies bundling. (b) Chemical structures of the triphenylamine-based monomers. D₃₄₅ contains linear dodecyl chains. DT₃₄ and DT₃₅ have 2-decyltetradecyl chains (as a racemic mixture) at different positions of the peripheral phenyl groups.

^aDepartment of Polymer Chemistry, Graduate School of Engineering, Kyoto University, Kyotodaigaku-katsura, Saikyo-ku, Kyoto 615-8510, Japan. E-mail: sugiyasu.kazunori.8z@kyoto-u.ac.jp

^bDepartment of Bioengineering, Graduate School of Engineering, The University of Tokyo, 7-3-1 Hongo, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-8656, Japan. E-mail: katashima@g.ecc.u-tokyo.ac.jp

^cCore Facility Center, Research Infrastructure Management Center, Institute of Science Tokyo, 4259 Nagatsuta, Midori-ku, Yokohama 226-8501, Japan

† Y. F. and R. S. contributed equally.



LMWGs have been extensively conducted to assess their mechanical stability¹³ and to determine critical gelation parameters, including the gelation temperature,¹⁴ concentration,¹⁵ and time.¹⁶ Although LMWGs hold promise for a wide range of applications,^{12,17} their inherent bundling and gelation phenomena significantly impede the investigation of SP chains within the framework of conventional polymer physics.

Tuning the solvent polarity based on solubility parameters would prevent SP chains from bundling.¹⁸ As an alternative strategy, we recently demonstrated that bundling of SPs can be effectively suppressed by an appropriate design of the surface of the SP chain.¹⁹ Specifically, by introducing a degree of randomness into the lengths of the alkyl side chains covering the SP surface, we were able to obtain a homogeneous solution of individually separated SP chains, without gelation, even at relatively high concentrations (\sim mM). This, in turn, permitted solution spinning of the resulting SP. We anticipated that this strategy might allow us to study the solution viscoelasticity of SPs. To expand our molecular-design concept, we employed a branched alkyl chain. Branched alkyl groups have previously been used as side chains to improve the solubilities of rigid π -conjugated polymers.²⁰ Moreover, branched alkyl chains have been used as “entropic ligands” on nanocrystal surfaces, where the ligands harvest conformational entropy in solution and disrupt the crystalline interdigitation typically observed with linear alkyl chains, thereby enhancing the colloidal solubility.²¹ We hoped that incorporating such side chains onto the surface of SPs might similarly suppress the bundling of the SP chains.

In this study, we designed three monomers based on triphenylamine with distinct alkyl side chains:^{22,23} **D**₃₄₅, which carries linear dodecyl (**D**) chains, and **DT**₃₄ and **DT**₃₅, which carry branched 2-decyltetradecyl (**DT**) chains (Fig. 1b). The numerical subscripts indicate the positions of the alkyl chains on the benzamide groups. Whereas the SPs derived from **D**₃₄₅ showed heavy bundling and formed an LMWG, those consisting of **DT**₃₄ and **DT**₃₅ were homogeneously soluble in aliphatic solvents. Although common characterization techniques for SPs—such as variable-temperature absorption spectroscopy, atomic force microscopy, and X-ray scattering—could not clearly distinguish the SPs formed from **DT**₃₄ and **DT**₃₅, the flow dynamics of these solutions showed marked differences. Rheological investigations revealed that whereas the SP from **DT**₃₄ showed a similar behavior to a “linear” covalent polymer in exhibiting reptation-driven relaxation, the SP from **DT**₃₅ showed “branched” covalent polymer-like dynamics, dominated by arm retraction. These findings demonstrate that engineering the surface of SPs—even by such subtle modifications as positional isomerism of the side chains—can dramatically influence the physical properties of SP chains.

Results

Characterization of **D**₃₄₅ gel

We first investigated the supramolecular polymerization of **D**₃₄₅ as a reference monomer bearing commonly used linear alkyl chains (*i.e.*, dodecyl chains). **D**₃₄₅ was dissolved in hot dodecane to form a 10 mM solution, and the solution was subsequently

cooled to ambient temperature. As observed for other discotic monomers,²⁴ **D**₃₄₅ formed an LMWG (Fig. 2a; left). Complementary oscillatory rheology measurements revealed that the storage modulus (G') exceeded the loss modulus (G'') across the entire frequency range examined (0.1–100 rad s⁻¹), confirming the solid-like nature of this material (Fig. 2b). However, as often observed for LMWGs, the gel formed by **D**₃₄₅ was mechanically fragile and, upon the application of a mechanical stress, it readily collapsed and released the solvent (Fig. 2a; right).

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) of the dried gel revealed the formation of thick supramolecular fibers composed of bundled SPs (Fig. 2c). Polarized optical microscopy (POM) images of the gel exhibited birefringence at the microscopic scale, indicating the presence of large crystalline aggregates (Fig. 2d). Under diluted conditions ($\sim 5.0 \times 10^{-5}$ M), the supramolecular polymers of **D**₃₄₅ precipitated, most likely due to their crystalline nature SI; Fig. S1. To further characterize the structure of the supramolecular fibers in the gel state, wide-angle X-ray scattering (WAXS) and small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) measurements were performed. The WAXS profile of the **D**₃₄₅ gel showed scattering peaks at $q = 1.67$ ($d = 3.84$ nm), 4.08 ($d = 1.58$ nm), and 5.83 nm^{-1} ($d = 1.08$ nm) (Fig. 2e). The ratio of these q values approximates to $1 : \sqrt{7} : \sqrt{12}$, which is consistent with a hexagonal packing of the SPs with a calculated diameter of 4.43 nm (the diameter of **D**₃₄₅ estimated from molecular model is 5.0 nm (Fig. S3a)). A peak at $q = 14.71 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ ($d = 4.25$ Å) was attributed to the distance between nitrogen centers of the stacked triphenylamine units, in agreement with previous reports.²² The stacking appeared to be stabilized by intermolecular hydrogen bonding of the amide groups, as suggested by the observation of a N–H stretching vibration at 3265 cm^{-1} in the FT-IR spectrum (SI; Fig. S2). The SAXS profile of **D**₃₄₅ exhibited a slope of -1 in the low- q region, characteristic of a cylindrical structure (Fig. 2f).²⁵ A cylindrical model fitted to the SAXS data yielded an average diameter (D_{Ave}) of 6.67 nm and an average persistence length ($L_{p\text{Ave}}$) of 23.2 nm (SI; Table S1). Collectively, these results show that the SPs of **D**₃₄₅, which are covered with linear dodecyl chains, are prone to bundle into thick supramolecular fibers, thereby forming an organogel.

Characterization of SPs of **DT**₃₄ and **DT**₃₅

The **D**₃₄₅ gel retained its shape for over a month without flowing (Fig. 3e). In sharp contrast to this observation, solutions of both **DT**₃₄ and **DT**₃₅ (10 mM in dodecane) did not undergo gelation and remained in a fluid state (Fig. 3a–d). At first glance, a noticeable difference was observed in the viscosities of these solutions (discussed later). POM observations revealed no evidence of the presence of large aggregates (SI; Fig. S4), suggesting that SP chains of **DT**₃₄ and **DT**₃₅ remained well dispersed in the solutions.

The WAXS patterns of the solutions showed a reflection at $q = 14.52 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ ($d = 4.34$ Å) for **DT**₃₄ and at $q = 14.52 \text{ nm}^{-1}$ ($d = 4.32$ Å) for **DT**₃₅, corresponding to the N–N stacking distance (Fig. 4b). In addition, FT-IR spectra of **DT**₃₄ and **DT**₃₅ showed a N–H stretching band at 3304 cm^{-1} and 3300 cm^{-1} , confirming the formation of intermolecular hydrogen bonds (SI; Fig. S5).



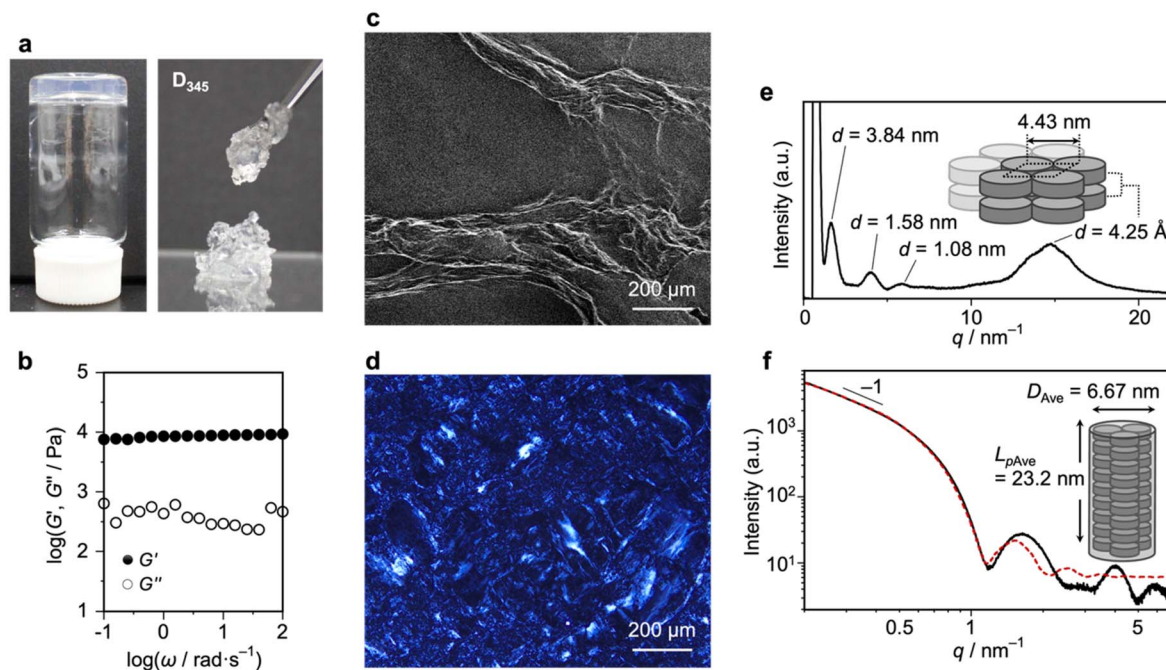


Fig. 2 (a) Photograph of a dodecane gel of D_{345} at a concentration of 10 mM. (b) Angular frequency dependence of the storage (G' , filled circle) and loss (G'' , hollow circle) moduli of D_{345} at a concentration of 10 mM in dodecane. (c) SEM images of a dried sample prepared from D_{345} gel. (d) POM image of D_{345} gel at 10 mM. (e) WAXS and (f) SAXS profiles of a 10 mM solution of D_{345} in dodecane. The fitting curve (red dashed line) was obtained on the basis of a cylinder model.

These results suggest that both DT_{34} and DT_{35} form 1D polymeric arrays, as was the case for D_{345} . In fact, the SAXS profiles of 10 mM solutions of these two SPs exhibited a slope of -1 in the low- q region ($q < 0.5 \text{ nm}^{-1}$), indicative of cylindrical structures (Fig. 4c). Importantly, the SAXS data fitted to a cylindrical model gave $L_{pAve} = 17.7 \text{ nm}$ and $D_{Ave} = 2.81 \text{ nm}$ for DT_{34} and $L_{pAve} = 16.9 \text{ nm}$ and $D_{Ave} = 2.65 \text{ nm}$ for DT_{35} (SI; Table S1). The diameters of the SPs formed from DT_{34} and DT_{35} , therefore, matched the dimensions of the aromatic cores in the monomers (Fig. 4a and SI; S3b), indicating that these SPs exist as individually solvated chains in solution without bundling. In fact, unlike the case of D_{345} (Fig. 2e), no crystalline diffraction peaks attributable to the hexagonal packing of the SP chains were observed in the WAXS profiles of the SPs (Fig. 4b). The longer L_{pAve} of D_{345} compared to those of DT_{34} and DT_{35} is consistent with the bundled, and thus stiff supramolecular fibers consisting of D_{345} . Fig. 4d and e show atomic-force microscopy (AFM) images of the SP chains. We surmise that the observed network-like structures were formed during the sample preparation process, specifically, during spin-coating onto the silicon wafer. Importantly, the SPs of both DT_{34} and DT_{35} had average heights of approximately 2.5 nm (Fig. 4d and e, bottom, and SI; S6), which is in good agreement with the SAXS analysis. These results suggest that the introduction of the 2-decyltetradecyl group effectively prevents the SP chains from bundling, and that the position of the alkyl chain has a minimal impact on the primary structure of the SP.

To elucidate the supramolecular polymerization mechanism, variable-temperature absorption spectral measurements

were conducted for solutions of DT_{34} and DT_{35} at various concentrations (3.0×10^{-5} to $20 \times 10^{-5} \text{ M}$; SI; Fig. S7 and S8). The dissociation curves of DT_{34} and DT_{35} were analyzed based on an equilibrium (EQ) model²⁶ (Fig. 4f and g) and the van't Hoff plots²⁷ (SI; Fig. S9–S11). The fitting details are described in the SI, and the resulting thermodynamic parameters are summarized in Tables S2 and S4. In brief, the supramolecular polymerizations of both DT_{34} and DT_{35} were characterized by stronger gains in elongation enthalpy ($\Delta H_e = -191.1$ and $-155.9 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$, respectively) compared with typical benzene-1,3,5-tricarboxamide (BTA)-based SPs ($\Delta H_e = -60.1 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ in heptane),^{27b} suggesting that the SPs of DT_{34} and DT_{35} form through relatively strong monomer–monomer interactions associated with the larger core. The changes in the Gibbs free energy (ΔG_e) at 298 K, determined from the EQ model, were $-34.4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ for DT_{34} and $-35.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ for DT_{35} (SI; Table S2). The van't Hoff plots provided a consistent ΔG_e values (SI; Table S4). Given the lack of substantial difference in the ΔG_e values of DT_{34} and DT_{35} , we infer that positional isomerism of the alkyl chains exerts a minimal influence on the monomer–monomer interactions. We were unable to determine the thermodynamic parameters for D_{345} because of the precipitation (see above).

Viscoelastic behaviors of SPs of DT_{34} and DT_{35}

The introduction of 2-decyltetradecyl groups as side chains suppressed the bundling of SPs and the gelation; consequently, homogeneous solutions of individually solvated SPs were obtained, which permitted their investigation within the



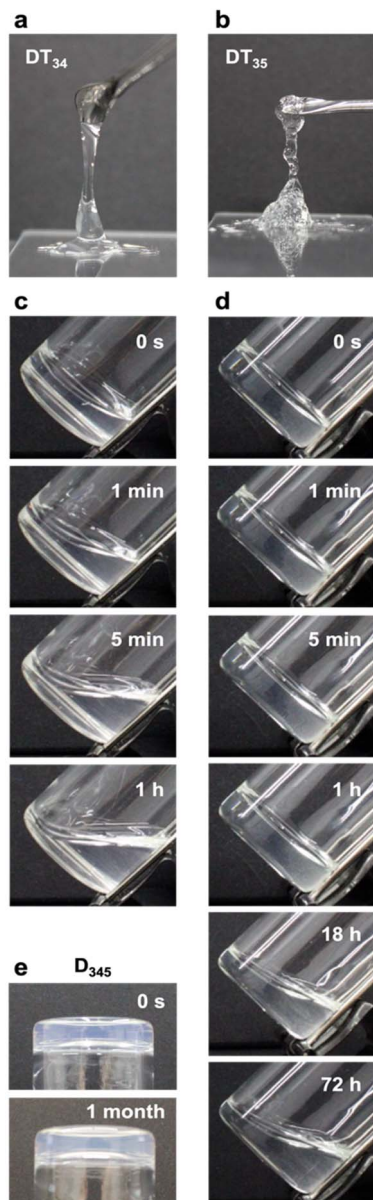


Fig. 3 Photographs of 10 mM dodecane solutions of SPs consisting of (a) DT_{34} and (b) DT_{35} , and of vial-tilt tests of the solutions of (c) DT_{34} and (d) DT_{35} . (e) Time-lapse images of a vial-inversion test of a dodecane gel of D_{345} at a concentration of 10 mM.

framework of conventional polymer physics. Fig. 5 shows the angular frequency (ω) dependences of the storage modulus (G') and loss modulus (G'') of the dodecane solutions of DT_{34} and DT_{35} . The crossover points between G' and G'' are clearly observable, marking a transition from elastic to viscous behavior, and indicating the onset of a terminal relaxation regime. Our analysis began with an examination of the similarities between the two systems (Fig. 5a and b). In both DT_{34} and DT_{35} , the value of G' leveled off at higher frequencies, known as the rubbery plateau; this typically arises from entanglements of sufficiently long polymer chains.

We investigated the concentration dependence of the plateau modulus (G_p), defined as the value of G' at the

minimum of $\tan \delta$ (SI; Fig. S12 and S13), in the range of 5–10 mM, where sufficient torque was obtained across the rubbery plateau. The G_p values for DT_{34} and DT_{35} were comparable and increased with concentration, following the power-law relationship $G_p \sim c^{1.5}$. According to well-established experimental and theoretical studies on entangled covalent polymers, G_p is primarily governed by the density of entanglements and, consequently, exhibits a concentration dependence described by the relationship $G_p \sim c^\alpha$. Here, the value of α depends on the flexibility of the polymer chain. For instance, the value of α for a flexible polymer has been reported to be 2,²⁸ reflecting the probability of the two-body contacts required to form an entanglement point.²⁹ When the flexibility decreases, and the persistence length becomes comparable to the contour length (referred to as a semi-flexible polymer), entanglement is suppressed. Accordingly, the concentration dependence follows a weaker power-law relationship, with α reported to be 1.5.³⁰ The concentration dependence of G_p observed for both DT_{34} and DT_{35} ($G_p \sim c^{1.5}$, see above) suggests that these SPs can, therefore, be classified as semi-flexible polymers.

All the results described above indicated that the SPs consisting of DT_{34} and DT_{35} are similar in terms of their structures and stabilities. However, the flow properties of the SPs of DT_{34} and DT_{35} differed markedly (Fig. 3c and d), suggesting that there are distinct underlying mechanisms governing their macroscopic behavior. We therefore subsequently directed our attention to the behavior of these SPs in the lower-frequency regime.

In the case of DT_{34} , a power-law dependence ($G' \sim \omega^1$, $G'' \sim \omega^2$ as indicated in Fig. 5a) was observed immediately after the rubbery plateau, toward the terminal relaxation regime; this is a characteristic of an entangled “linear” covalent polymer (see, TOC figure).³¹ That is, the SP chains do not pass through one another, and the chain motion is constrained in the 1D direction along the polymer backbone: a so-called reptation mode. This reptation mode relaxes stress while progressively disentangling the SP chains. The relaxation time can be estimated as the reciprocal of the frequency at the crossover point (τ_{cross}); for the SPs of DT_{34} , the τ_{cross} value was approximately 1 s.

In contrast, both G' and G'' of DT_{35} gradually approached a power-law dependence toward the terminal relaxation regime, without a pronounced maximum in G'' . That is, the relaxation dynamics were characterized by a broad and continuous spectrum extending from the high-frequency domain to the terminal relaxation regime. This characteristic resembles the relaxation of entangled “branched” covalent polymers (Fig. 5d).^{28b,32} The branch points immobilize chain segments, and the reptation mode is no longer dominant in the relaxation mechanism. Consequently, stress relaxation occurs instead through arm retraction, a process in which a polymer chain withdraws along its own contour toward the branch point. As such, the observed broad spectrum of values of G'' is attributable to the variety of time scales associated with localized motions, including arm retraction. Notably, τ_{cross} of the SPs consisting of DT_{35} was approximately 2×10^4 s, representing a value that is four orders of magnitude greater than that for DT_{34} .



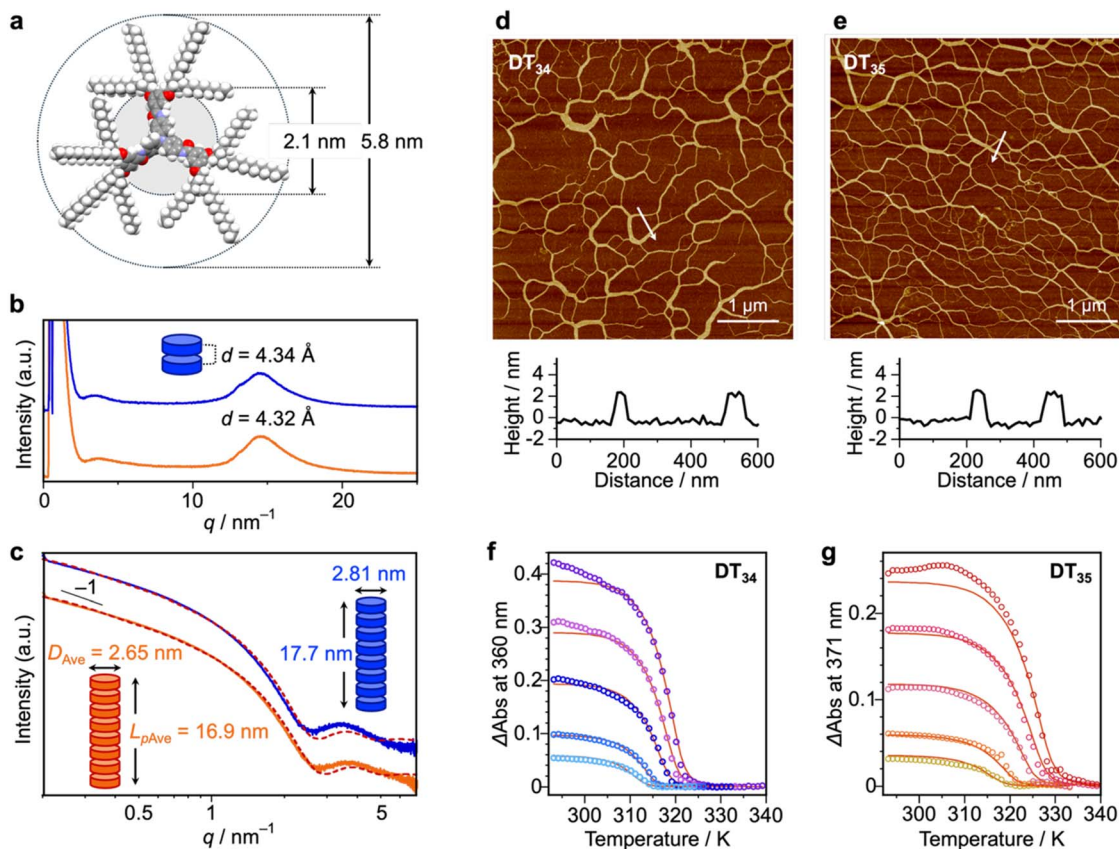


Fig. 4 (a) Molecular model of DT_{35} . (b) WAXS and (c) SAXS profiles of 10 mM dodecane solutions of DT_{34} (blue) and DT_{35} (orange). The fitting curves (red dashed line) were obtained from a cylinder model. (d and e) AFM height images of SPs consisting of (d) DT_{34} (e) and DT_{35} , spin-coated from dodecane solutions (5.0×10^{-5} M) onto silicon wafers. Cross-sectional analyses along the white arrows are shown below the corresponding AFM images. (f and g) Changes in the absorbance as a function of temperature for (f) DT_{34} and (g) DT_{35} at various concentrations: [DT_{34} or DT_{35}]: = 3.0×10^{-5} , 5.0×10^{-5} , 10.0×10^{-5} , 15.0×10^{-5} , or 20.0×10^{-5} M. Fitting curves are shown as red lines.

Discussion

Despite the recent developments in the mechanistic understanding of supramolecular polymerization mechanisms, the design principles that govern the behavior of SP chains in solution, particularly with respect to their viscoelastic properties, remain poorly understood. In this study, we focused on the side-chain structures of SPs. The reference monomer D_{345} , bearing the commonly used linear dodecyl chains, formed SPs that bundled into thick supramolecular fibers, which, as expected, led to gelation of solutions at concentrations above 1 mM. In contrast, the newly designed DT_{34} and DT_{35} , possessing branched racemic 2-decyltetradecyl chains, gave homogeneous solutions containing well-solvated SPs, even at higher concentrations of the order of 10 mM. Common characterization techniques such as SAXS, AFM, and temperature-dependent absorption spectroscopy were unable to distinguish the SPs of DT_{34} and DT_{35} . Intriguingly, however, the flow properties of these SPs differed markedly, and rheological analyses provided the following insights.

(1) Both DT_{34} - and DT_{35} -based SPs behave like covalent polymers in that their chain scission and recombination processes are too slow to contribute to stress relaxation. This behavior contrasts with the dynamics of “living” polymers³³ and

the “phantom-crossing”⁹ mechanisms proposed by Cates and Shikata, respectively, to explain the terminal relaxation dynamics of wormlike micelles and certain supramolecular polymers (such as that of BTA).^{9,10} In these previously investigated systems, the lifetime of the main chain was shorter than the global chain dynamics (reptation time), permitting chain breakage and recombination (or crossing) events to govern the terminal relaxation. In this context, it is noteworthy that Van Zee and co-workers recently demonstrated, through passive microrheological measurements, that bi-phenyltetracarboxamide (BPTA)-based SPs also exhibit a covalent polymer-like behavior.¹¹ Such “non-living” SPs remain rare, and the ability to control their relaxation modes by molecular design might open new avenues for SP-based materials. To this end, in addition to controlling monomer–monomer interactions (*i.e.*, ΔH_e), a strategic control of SP–SP interactions could play a key role in material design, as exemplified by the contrasting behaviour of D_{345} .

(2) The subtle structural difference between DT_{34} and DT_{35} led to significant variations in their solution viscoelastic behavior. Rheological characterization suggested that SPs formed from DT_{35} contain branching points. Given the 1D columnar structure of the SP, these branching points are probably formed through *lateral* interaction between two SP chains. Note that the alkyl chains of



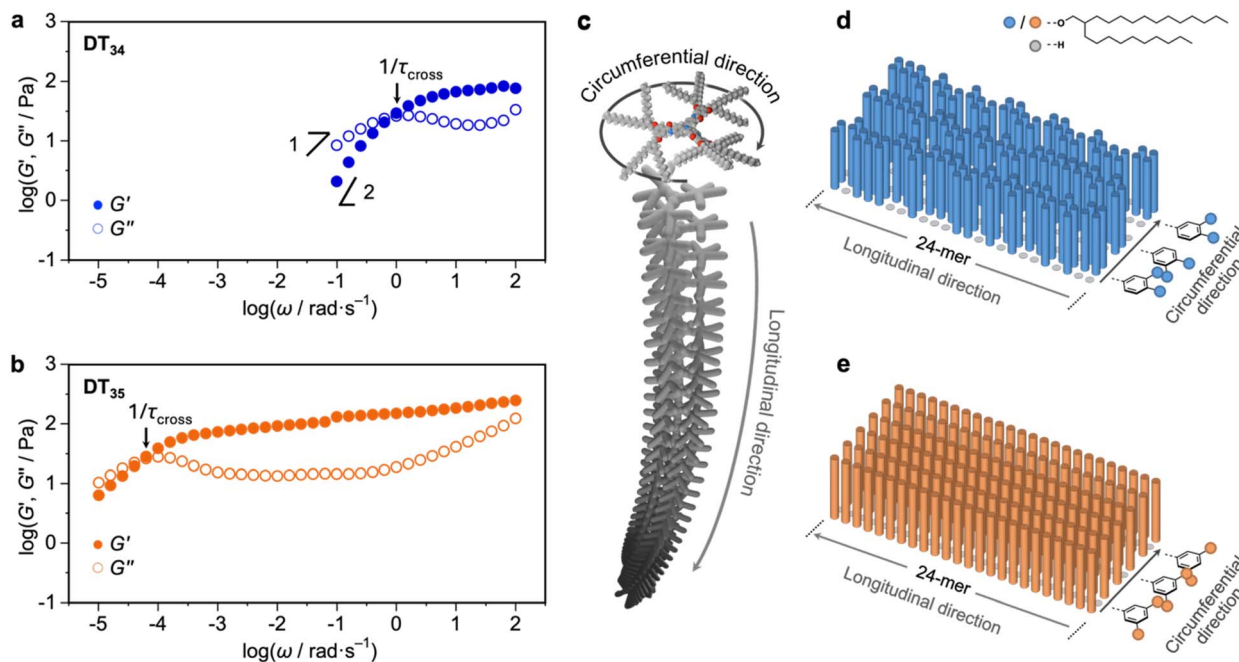


Fig. 5 Angular frequency dependence of the storage (G' , filled circle) and loss (G'' , hollow circle) moduli for (a) DT₃₄ and (b) DT₃₅ at a concentration of 10 mM. (c) Schematic representation of a supramolecular polymer. Flattened views of the surface of the supramolecular polymers of (d) DT₃₄ and (e) DT₃₅. The surfaces are shown in 2D, by unwrapping the supramolecular polymers longitudinally. The graphs show the positions of the 2-decyltetradecyl groups along the supramolecular polymer chains, each consisting of 24 monomers. Both DT₃₄ and DT₃₅ have six 2-decyltetradecyl groups surrounding the surface of the supramolecular polymer. In the case of DT₃₄ (d), rotational conformers, which are assumed to be randomly distributed along the polymer chain, generate the rough surface.

DT₃₅ are symmetrically substituted with respect to the amide bond, and, as such, should produce a relatively uniform SP surface (Fig. 5e). We infer that, although not as prominent as D₃₄₅, such surface uniformity facilitates SP-SP interactions, thereby promoting the formation of a branching point. In contrast, the alkyl chains of DT₃₄ are asymmetrically substituted relative to the amide bond at 3,4-positions. This asymmetry introduces conformational diversity of the alkyl chains through rotation of the benzamide group, which is distributed randomly at the periphery of DT₃₄ monomer,¹⁹ thereby leading to a disordered SP surface (Fig. 5d). We surmise that such surface disorder suppresses SP-SP interactions, yielding a situation distinct from that observed for DT₃₅.

Conclusions

As a step toward advancing this research field by molecular-level understanding, our findings highlight the critical role of side chains in tuning the hierarchical assembly and macroscopic properties of SPs. We believe that controlling SP-SP interactions by molecular design might permit precise and engineering and processing of SP-based functional soft materials.¹⁹

Author contributions

K. S. conceived the project. Y. F. synthesized the monomers, characterized their supramolecular polymerization, and prepared solutions of supramolecular polymers. R. S. conducted viscoelastic measurements. Y. F. and R. S. contributed

equally. T. K. conducted WAXS and SAXS measurements. All authors discussed the results. N. F., T. K. and K. S. wrote the paper with input from all the authors.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

Data availability

The data supporting this study are provided in the supplementary information (SI). Supplementary information is available. See DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1039/d5sc09763k>.

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Notes and references

‡ It should be noted that there is another class of SPs, formed from ditopic monomers.^{1,5} These monomers self-assemble through host–guest complexation,⁶ complementary hydrogen bonding,⁷ or metal–ligand interaction⁸ and their polymerization process follows an isodesmic model.² In principle, supramolecular polymerization of this type cannot be controlled kinetically. The viscoelastic properties of these polymers in solution have been extensively studied, owing to their homogeneous solubility in water⁶ and organic solvents.^{6,7} As such, this class of SPs differs from those examined in the present study and is not discussed in the context of this manuscript.

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