



Enhancing near-infrared AIE of photosensitizer with twisted intramolecular charge transfer characteristics via rotor effect for AIE imaging-guided photodynamic ablation of cancer cells

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ABSTRACT

Near-infrared (NIR) aggregation-induced emission (AIE) of previous organic photosensitizers is usually weak because of the competition between twisted intramolecular charge transfer (TICT) effect and AIE. Herein, we report a rational molecular design strategy to boost NIR AIE of photosensitizers and still to keep strong ¹O₂ production capacity via rotor effect. To this end, one new triphenylamine (TPA)-based AIE photosensitizer, TPAM-1, is designed to give strong ability to generate ¹O₂ but weak NIR fluorescence in the aggregate state due to the strong TICT effect. Another new TPA-based AIE photosensitizer, TPAM-2, is designed by introducing three *p*-methoxyphenyl units as rotors into the structure of TPAM-1 to modulate the competition between AIE and TICT. TPAM-1 and TPAM-2 exhibit stronger ability to generate ¹O₂ in the aggregate state than the commercial photosensitizer, Ce6. Furthermore, TPAM-2 gives much brighter NIR luminescence (25-times higher quantum yield) than TPAM-1 in the aggregate state due to the rotor effect. TPAM-2 with strong NIR AIE and ¹O₂ production capability was encapsulated by DSPE-PEG₂₀₀₀ to give good biocompatibility. The DSPE-PEG₂₀₀₀-encapsulated TPAM-2 nanoparticles show good cell imaging performance and remarkable photosensitive activity for killing HeLa cells. This work provides a new way for designing ideal photosensitizers for AIE imaging-guided photodynamic therapy.

1. Introduction

Photodynamic therapy (PDT) is an alternative therapeutic modality for skin malignancies and other organ cancers such as lung and bladder tumors [1–6]. In PDT, a photosensitizer being irradiated by a definite light source is needed for the production of singlet oxygen (¹O₂) to inhibit the growth of cancer cells and finally cause tumor necrosis [7–11]. PDT is recognized as a more appropriate method to cure cancers than traditional treatment methods such as surgery, chemotherapy and radiation therapy owing to its noninvasiveness, hypotoxicity and improvement of the quality of life for patients [12]. Imaging-guided PDT is necessary for precise and effective treatment [13]. Bright near-infrared (NIR) fluorescence, strong ability to generate ¹O₂ as well as good biocompatibility are significant for a photosensitizer in the application of imaging-guided PDT. However, traditional NIR fluorescent photosensitizers such as BODIPY derivatives and porphyrin

derivatives can easily form π - π aggregates in the physiological environment [14,15], which may quench fluorescence, reduce ¹O₂ production and impair the performance of imaging-guided PDT.

Recently, aggregation-induced emission (AIE) has received great interest in diverse areas [16–21], especially in the field of bioprobes for fluorescence imaging and cancer therapy [22–28]. Compared to traditional photosensitizers, photosensitizers with AIE characteristics are more suitable for imaging-guided PDT because they exhibit stronger fluorescence along with the ability to generate reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the aggregate state than in the discrete molecular state [29–32]. However, AIE molecules always have twisted structures based on the restriction of intramolecular rotation (RIR) mechanism [33], and most of AIE photosensitizers exhibit short-wavelength absorption (≤ 550 nm) and fluorescence (≤ 650 nm), reducing the performance of imaging-guided PDT because of low penetration depth and autofluorescence interference from bio-tissues. To overcome this

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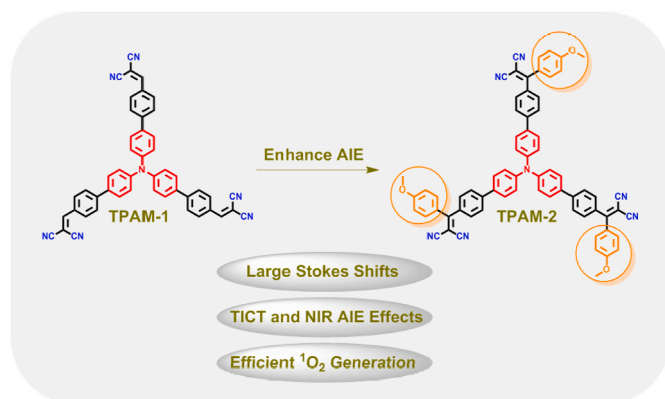


Fig. 1. Illustration for the molecular design, chemical structures and characteristics of TPAM-1 and TPAM-2.

shortcoming, one of the popular strategies is to construct a donor-acceptor (D-A) system in one small organic fluorophore [34]. This strategy enables the red-shift of the absorption and emission of the fluorophore, but with the loss of fluorescence in aqueous media due to the powerful twisted intramolecular charge transfer (TICT) characteristic [35,36]. Furthermore, the fluorophore with a D-A system can facilitate the separation of the highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) and the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) distribution to improve the probability of intersystem crossing (ISC) process, so that the ROS generation ability of the fluorophore can be improved [10,37]. Obviously, there is a competition between AIE and TICT. Recently, several effective physical methods have been reported to tune the competition between molecular luminescence and ROS production [29,38]. However, it is still a challenge to rationally modulate the competition between AIE and TICT of a photosensitizer in aqueous media through facile molecular design, which finally determines the quality of imaging and PDT.

Here, we report a rational molecular design strategy to boost NIR AIE of photosensitizers with good $^1\text{O}_2$ production capacity via rotor effect for imaging-guided PDT. As a proof of concept (Fig. 1), one new triphenylamine (TPA)-based AIE photosensitizer TPAM-1 is designed to possess a rotatable D- π bridge-A (D- π -A) configuration to achieve HOMO-LUMO separation and strong TICT effect for effective $^1\text{O}_2$ generation and weak NIR fluorescence in the aggregate state. Another new AIE photosensitizer TPAM-2 is designed by introducing three *p*-methoxyphenyl units as rotors with certain rigidity and electron-donating properties into the molecular skeleton of TPAM-1 to modulate the competition between AIE and TICT for bright NIR fluorescence along with good $^1\text{O}_2$ generation ability in the aggregate state. As a result, the prepared TPAM-2 not only gives 25 times higher fluorescence quantum yield than TPAM-1 in the aggregate state, but also exhibits better $^1\text{O}_2$ generation ability than the most used photosensitizer, Ce6. 1,2-distearoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine-*N*-[methoxy(polyethylene glycol)-2000] (DSPE-PEG₂₀₀₀)-encapsulated TPAM-2 nanoparticles are further fabricated to improve their water dispersibility and biocompatibility for successful imaging-guided photodynamic ablation of cancer cells. This work provides a new way for designing ideal photosensitizers for AIE imaging-guided PDT.

2. Experimental section

Synthesis of TPAM-1: A mixture of compound 1 (0.10 g, 0.18 mmol), malonitrile (0.053 g, 0.81 mmol), and ammonium acetate (0.0040 g, 0.054 mmol) was reacted in a solution (glacial acetic acid: 1 mL, pyridine: 5 mL) at room temperature for 24 h. Then, water was added to the above mixture to get the red solid. The solid was filtered off, washed with water for several times, and purified by column chromatography

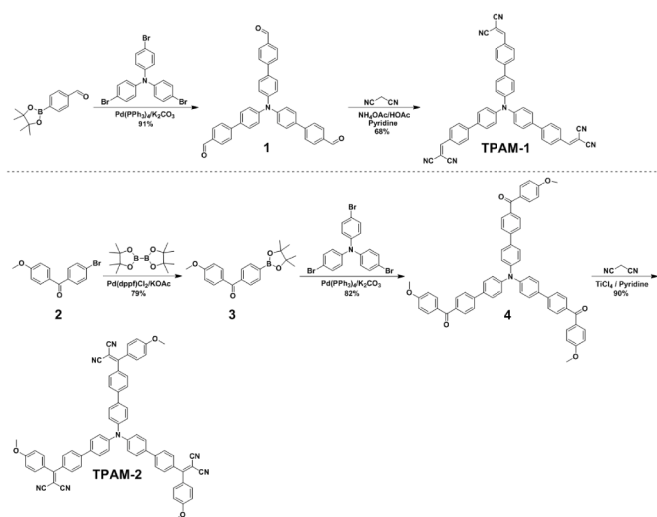
with DCM/petroleum ether (10/1, v/v) as the eluent to obtain TPAM-1 as a red powder (0.085 g, 68%). ^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3 , ppm): δ 8.00 (d, $J = 8.4$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 7.78 (s, 3H, CH), 7.77 (d, $J = 8.8$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 7.62 (d, $J = 8.4$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 7.29 (d, $J = 8.8$ Hz, 6H, ArH). ^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl_3 , ppm): δ 159.0, 147.7, 146.4, 133.9, 131.6, 129.6, 128.4, 127.4, 124.8, 114.0, 112.9, 81.7. ESI-MS, m/z : $[\text{M}]^+$ calcd 701.2, found 701.1.

Synthesis of Compound 3: Compound 2 (0.87 g, 3.00 mmol), bis (pinacolato)diborane (1.53 g, 6.019 mmol), potassium acetate (0.98 g, 10.00 mmol), Pd(dppf) Cl_2 (0.11 g, dppf = 1,1'-bis (diphenylphosphanyl) ferrocene) and dioxane (15 mL) were mixed in a Schlenk tube, and carefully frozen with liquid N_2 and degassed by pump. The above mixture was reacted at 85 $^\circ\text{C}$ for 2 days. Then, the solvent was removed in a rotary evaporator to gain the black residue. DCM was used to extract the crude product from aqueous solution of the above residue. The DCM solution of the crude product was collected and dried over MgSO_4 . After removing the solvent, the crude product was further purified by column chromatography using petroleum ether/ethyl acetate (10/1, v/v) as the eluent to acquire a white solid 3 (0.80 g, 79%). ^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3 , ppm): δ 7.91 (d, $J = 8.4$ Hz, 2H, ArH), 7.82 (d, $J = 9.2$ Hz, 2H, ArH), 7.72 (d, $J = 8.4$ Hz, 2H, ArH), 6.96 (d, $J = 9.2$ Hz, 2H, ArH), 3.89 (s, 3H, OCH_3), 1.37 (s, 12H, CH_3). ^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl_3 , ppm): δ 195.7, 163.4, 140.6, 134.6, 132.6, 130.1, 128.8, 113.6, 84.2, 55.5, 25.0. ESI-MS, m/z : $[\text{M}]^+$ calcd 338.2, found 338.2.

Synthesis of Compound 4: A mixture of tris(4-bromophenyl)amine (0.40 g, 0.84 mmol), compound 3 (1.02 g, 3.016 mmol), K_2CO_3 (3.50 g, 25.38 mmol), THF/ H_2O (9 mL/3 mL), and Pd(PPh_3) $_4$ (0.087 g, 3%) in a Schlenk tube was carefully frozen with liquid N_2 and degassed by pump. The above mixture was reacted at 60 $^\circ\text{C}$ for 18 h. DCM was employed to extract the crude product from aqueous solution. The DCM solution was collected and dried over MgSO_4 . After removing DCM, the crude product was purified by column chromatography with DCM/ethyl acetate (50/1, v/v) as the eluent to gain a chartreuse solid 4 (0.60 g, 82%). ^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3 , ppm): δ 7.88 (d, $J = 5.6$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 7.85 (d, $J = 4.8$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 7.71 (d, $J = 8.4$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 7.62 (d, $J = 8.4$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 7.30 (d, $J = 8.8$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 6.99 (d, $J = 9.2$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 3.91 (s, 9H, OCH_3). ^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl_3 , ppm): δ 195.2, 163.3, 147.4, 144.1, 136.8, 134.9, 132.6, 130.7, 130.5, 128.4, 126.5, 124.8, 113.7, 55.7. ESI-MS, m/z : $[\text{M}]^+$ calcd 875.3, found 875.3.

Synthesis of TPAM-2: compound 4 (0.20 g, 0.23 mmol) and malonitrile (0.30 g, 4.60 mmol) were dissolved in DCM (30 mL) in a flask. Then, titanium tetrachloride (0.5 mL, 4.60 mmol) was slowly added to the above mixture at 0 $^\circ\text{C}$. After the mixture was stirred for 0.5 h, pyridine (0.4 mL, 4.60 mmol) was added and stirred for another 0.5 h. Then, the above mixture was reacted at 40 $^\circ\text{C}$ for 24 h. The DCM solution of the crude product was washed with water for several times. The above DCM solution was collected and dried over MgSO_4 . After removing DCM, the residue was further purified by column chromatography (silica, DCM/ethyl acetate = 100/1, v/v). The product TPAM-2 was a red solid (0.21 g, 90%). ^1H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl_3 , ppm): δ 7.70 (d, $J = 8.8$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 7.60 (d, $J = 8.8$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 7.51 (d, $J = 8.8$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 7.48 (d, $J = 9.2$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 7.28 (d, $J = 8.8$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 6.99 (d, $J = 8.8$ Hz, 6H, ArH), 3.90 (s, 9H, OCH_3). ^{13}C NMR (100 MHz, CDCl_3 , ppm): δ 173.9, 163.7, 147.6, 144.7, 134.9, 134.3, 133.2, 131.5, 128.4, 128.3, 126.9, 124.8, 114.9, 114.8, 114.4, 78.5, 55.8. ESI-MS, m/z : $[\text{M}]^+$ calcd 1019.4, found 1019.4.

Preparation of TPAM-2 NPs: TPAM-2 NPs were synthesized via a nanoprecipitation approach [39]. A THF solution (1 mL) containing TPAM-2 (1 mg) and DSPE-PEG₂₀₀₀ (2 mg) was quickly injected into water (9 mL), and sonicated for 5 min in a ultrasonic homogenizer. The above mixture was vigorously stirred overnight in a fume cupboard to remove THF and filtered using a 0.22 μm syringe filter to obtain the final TPAM-2 NPs.



Scheme 1. Synthetic routes for TPAM-1 and TPAM-2.

3. Results and discussion

Fig. 1 shows the molecular design, chemical structure and characteristics of TPAM-1 and TPAM-2. TPAM-1 was designed to possess twisted D- π -A configuration with a triphenylamine segment as strong electron donor, a benzene ring as the π bridge and a dicyano segment as strong electron acceptor, so that TPAM-1 exhibits good $^1\text{O}_2$ generation but weak or even no NIR fluorescence in aqueous media due to strong TICT effect. The D- π -A system in photosensitizers can facilitate the separation of HOMO and LUMO distribution, which favors singlet-triplet energy gap (ΔE_{ST}) reduction and finally ISC process [10]. Such photosensitizers with D- π -A system, therefore, can improve the photosensitization process and give long-wavelength absorbance and emission.

To modulate the competition between AIE and TICT, TPAM-2 was designed to have three more molecular rotors by introducing *p*-methoxyphenyl groups into the structure of TPAM-1 to improve the NIR AIE through decreasing intermolecular interactions due to rotor effect.

Meanwhile, the *p*-methoxyphenyl group can serve as electron donor to disturb the TICT effect through balancing charge transfer between the triphenylamine and the dicyano segments. Time-dependent density functional theory (TD-DFT) calculation shows that both TPAM-1 and TPAM-2 have favorable HOMO-LUMO separation and small ΔE_{ST} (0.22 eV for TPAM-1 and 0.17 eV for TPAM-2) (Fig. S1).

TPAM-1 and TPAM-2 were synthesized via classical reactions such as the Suzuki-Miyaura coupling reaction and the condensation reaction with the total yield of 62% and 51%, respectively (Scheme 1). Their structures were identified by ^1H NMR, ^{13}C NMR and ESI-MS spectroscopy (Fig. S2-S15).

The optical properties of TPAM-1 and TPAM-2 were firstly investigated. Different solvents with various polarities, including toluene, dioxane, chloroform, tetrahydrofuran (THF), dichloromethane (DCM), acetone, acetonitrile and dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) were used to examine solvatochromic effect. Solvent polarity had a little effect on the absorption spectra of the two fluorophores (Fig. S16-S17), but exhibited a significant influence on their fluorescence spectra. TPAM-1 exhibited strong green fluorescence in non-polar solvent toluene. Increase of the solvent polarity from toluene to DMSO led to a gradual decrease of fluorescence intensity in conjunction with a bathochromic shift to NIR region (Fig. 2a,c). TPAM-2 also possessed a similar bathochromic shift of the fluorescence spectrum as the solvent polarity increased (Fig. 2b, d). These results show that TPAM-1 and TPAM-2 have TICT characteristic due to their rotatable D- π -A structures.

DMSO/water mixture was used as a solvent system to further investigate the TICT and AIE properties of the two fluorophores. DMSO and water were selected because their strong polarity is beneficial for revealing the TICT characteristic [40]. In addition, DMSO and water are good solvent and poor solvent for the two fluorophores, respectively. The AIE characteristic of a fluorophore is usually investigated in a mixed solvent system which contains a good solvent and a poor solvent to modulate the molecular aggregation. TPAM-1 and TPAM-2 in DMSO/water should exhibit almost no fluorescence because of the strong TICT effect in a strong polar solvent system. In fact, both fluorophores gave almost no fluorescence only when the water fraction (f_w) in DMSO/water was less than 20%, then showed increasing fluorescence intensity with f_w in the range of 30%–90%. In such a water-containing binary solvent system, there is a competition between TICT and AIE effect on

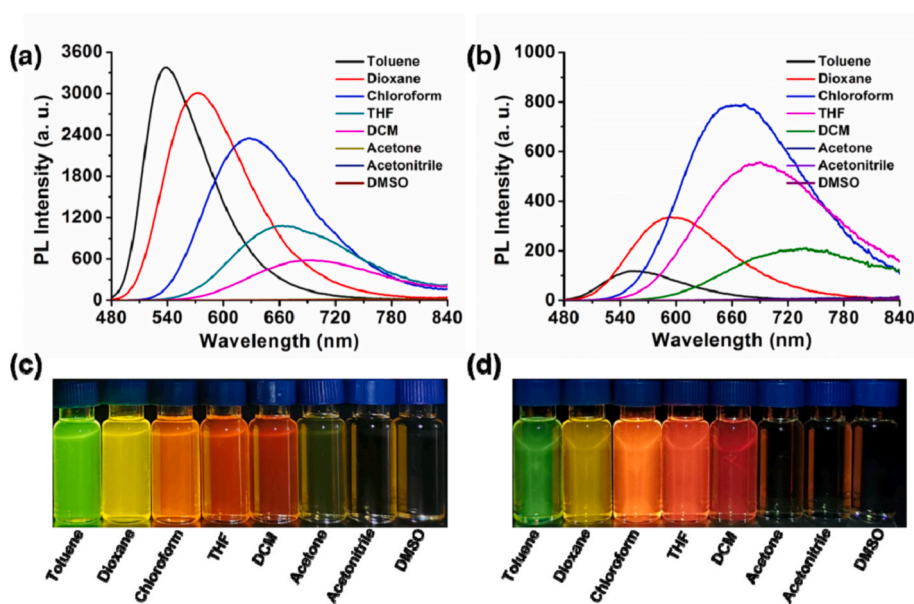


Fig. 2. Effect of solvent on the photoluminescence (PL) of TPAM-1 and TPAM-2 (10 μM): (a) PL spectra of TPAM-1; (b) PL spectra of TPAM-2; (c) PL images of TPAM-1; (d) PL images of TPAM-2. The PL spectra were collected under excitation at 450 nm for TPAM-1 and 428 nm for TPAM-2, while the PL images were collected under UV irradiation at 365 nm.

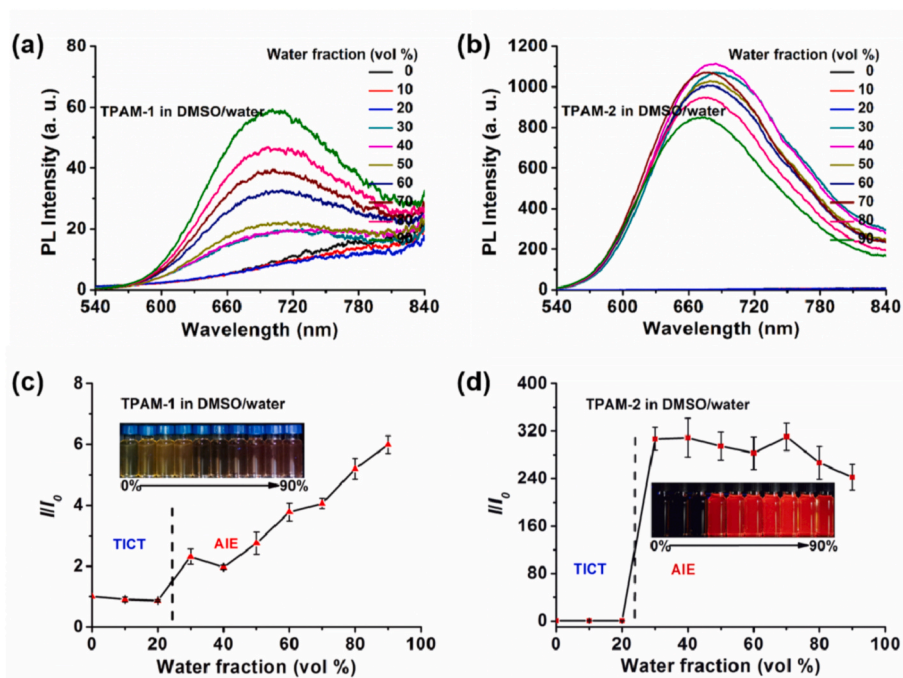


Fig. 3. PL spectra: (a) TPAM-1 in DMSO/water; (b) TPAM-2 in DMSO/water. Plots of the relative PL intensity (I/I_0) against water fraction in DMSO/water: (c) TPAM-1; (d) TPAM-2. I_0 denotes the PL intensity of TPAM-1 or TPAM-2 in pure DMSO. Insets: the PL photos of TPAM-1 or TPAM-2 in DMSO/water with different water fractions under 365 nm UV irradiation. [TPAM-1] = [TPAM-2] = 10 μ M.

the fluorescence of the fluorophores with rotatable D- π -A structures. The above results indicate that TICT effect was dominating when $f_w < 20\%$, while AIE effect was prevailing when $f_w > 30\%$ due to the poor water solubility of the fluorophores. In addition, the maximum emission of the fluorophores showed a blue shift when $f_w > 30\%$ due to the decrease of the internal polarity of the fluorophores. In the aggregate state ($f_w = 90\%$), TPAM-1 and TPAM-2 possessed the maximum fluorescence at 702 nm and 674 nm, respectively. However, TPAM-1 showed very weak fluorescence while TPAM-2 exhibited strong fluorescence (Fig. 3a-d). TPAM-2 possessed 25 times higher fluorescence quantum yield than TPAM-1 in the aggregate state (0.40% for TPAM-1 and 10% for TPAM-2). The quantum yield data were calculated based on a commercial dye Rhodamine B in a relative manner. These results indicate that the three more rotors in TPAM-2 effectively decreased intermolecular interactions in the aggregate state due to the increased torsion of the structure, which in turn reduced the energy decay via non-radiative pathways. The electron-donating rotors of TPAM-2 could also disturb the TICT effect through balancing the D- π -A strength [40]. Therefore, the competition of AIE over TICT was effectively enhanced through modulating molecular rotors.

The attractive optical properties of TPAM-1 and TPAM-2 prompted us to investigate the PDT potential of the two fluorophores. TPAM-1 and TPAM-2 containing a D- π -A structure can reduce ΔE_{ST} and favor the ISC process, making them promising as photosensitizers. Therefore, the ability of TPAM-1 and TPAM-2 for generating 1O_2 was evaluated with 9,10-anthracenediyl-bis(methylene) dimalonate acid (ABDA) as an indicator. The generated 1O_2 enables effective reduction of the absorbance of ABDA due to redox reaction. DMSO was selected as a good solvent to investigate the ability of two fluorophores for generating 1O_2 in the discrete molecular state. Upon white light irradiation (400–700 nm, 4 mW cm^{-2}) for 8 min, the absorbance of ABDA showed no change in the presence of TPAM-1 or TPAM-2 in DMSO (Fig. 4a and b). Showing both TPAM-1 and TPAM-2 in the discrete molecular state had no ability for 1O_2 generation due to the fast energy decay from the powerful intramolecular rotation via non-radiative pathways [10].

DMSO/water (1:99, v/v) was selected as a poor solvent system to

further study the ability of the two fluorophores for generating 1O_2 in the aggregate state. ABDA, TPAM-1 or TPAM-2 were quite stable in DMSO/water (1:99, v/v) due to no change of their absorption spectra under light irradiation (400–700 nm, 4 mW cm^{-2}) for 8 min (Fig. S19). However, the absorbance of ABDA significantly decreased in the presence of TPAM-1 or TPAM-2 under the same irradiation condition (Fig. 4c-f), indicating the generation of 1O_2 in the aggregate state of TPAM-1 or TPAM-2. In contrast, only small decrease of the absorbance of ABDA in the presence of a commercial photosensitizer, Ce6 (Fig. 4e). These results show much stronger 1O_2 generation ability of TPAM-1 or TPAM-2 than Ce6 in the aggregate state. In addition, TPAM-1 made ABDA degrade much faster than TPAM-2. 59% and 33% of ABDA were oxidized in 1 min by the 1O_2 generated from TPAM-1 and TPAM-2, respectively. Moreover, TPAM-1 and TPAM-2 showed good aggregation-improved ability for generating 1O_2 because the restriction of intramolecular rotation in their aggregate states could effectively reduce energy decay via non-radiative pathways. Although TPAM-2 showed a little weaker 1O_2 generation ability than TPAM-1 in the aggregate state after introducing three more rotors, TPAM-2 gave strong NIR AIE fluorescence. Considering both the fluorescence property and the 1O_2 generation ability, TPAM-2 should be promising for imaging-guided PDT.

The potential of TPAM-2 for imaging-guided PDT was further studied due to the good NIR AIE fluorescence and 1O_2 generation ability of TPAM-2. The hydrophobic TPAM-2 is not suitable for direct application in the physiological environment, so amphiphilic polymer DSPE-PEG₂₀₀₀ was employed to encapsulate TPAM-2 for the preparation of hydrophilic and biocompatible TPAM-2 nanoparticles for further biological study. Amphiphilic polymer encapsulated nanoparticles have been widely applied in the field of biology and medicine [41–44]. The DSPE-PEG₂₀₀₀ encapsulated TPAM-2 nanoparticles (TPAM-2 NPs) were fabricated by a nanoprecipitation method (Fig. 5a). The transmission electron microscopy (TEM) image reveals that the as-prepared TPAM-2 NPs had spherical morphology (Fig. S20). Dynamic light scattering (DLS) results show that the as-prepared TPAM-2 NPs had the hydrodynamic diameter of 45 ± 5 nm. In addition, the as-prepared TPAM-2

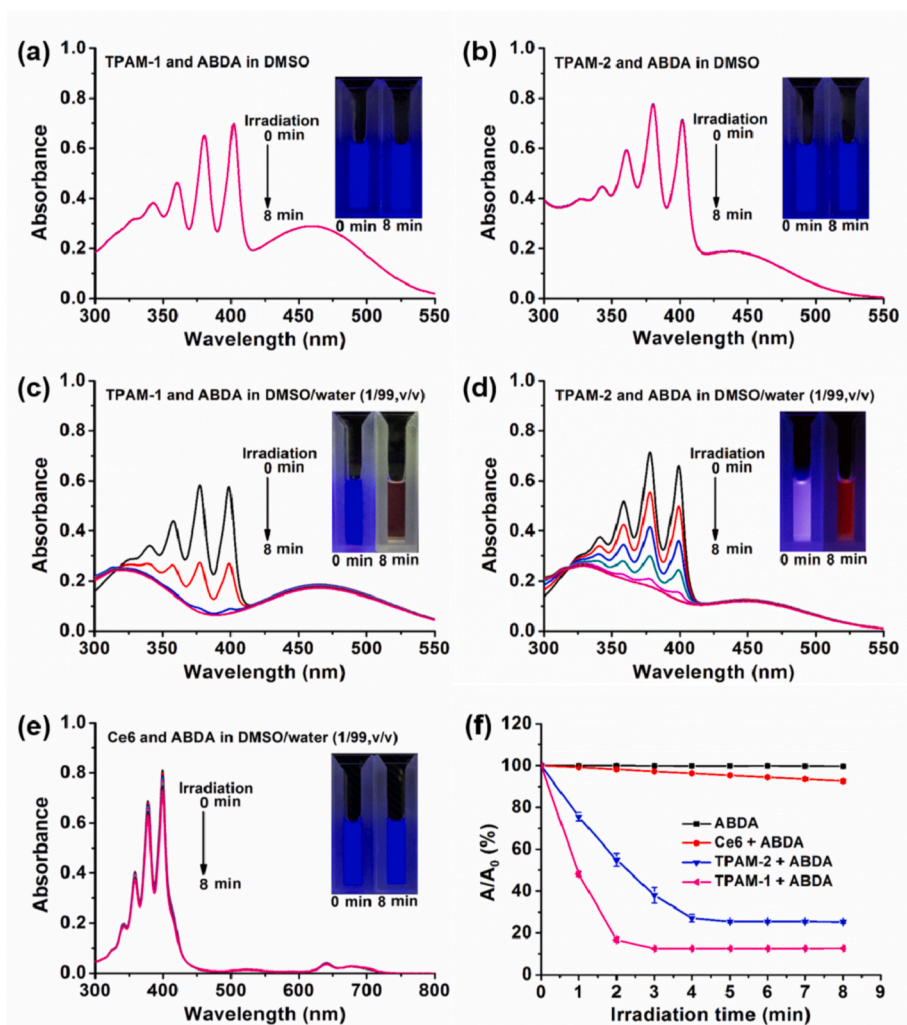


Fig. 4. UV-vis spectra of ABDA in the presence of different photosensitizers under white light irradiation (4 mW cm^{-2}) in different solvent systems: (a) TPAM-1 in DMSO; (b) TPAM-2 in DMSO; (c) TPAM-1 in DMSO/water (1/99, v/v); (d) TPAM-2 in DMSO/water (1/99, v/v); (e) Ce6 in DMSO/water (1/99, v/v). (f) Time-dependent absorbance of ABDA in the presence of different photosensitizers under white light irradiation in DMSO/water (1/99, v/v), where A_0 and A are the absorbances of ABDA at 378 nm before and after irradiation, respectively. Insets: the fluorescent photos of ABDA in the presence of fluorophores before (0 min) and after (8 min) white light irradiation under 365 nm UV irradiation. [ABDA] = $50 \mu\text{M}$; [TPAM-1] = [TPAM-2] = [Ce6] = $5 \mu\text{M}$.

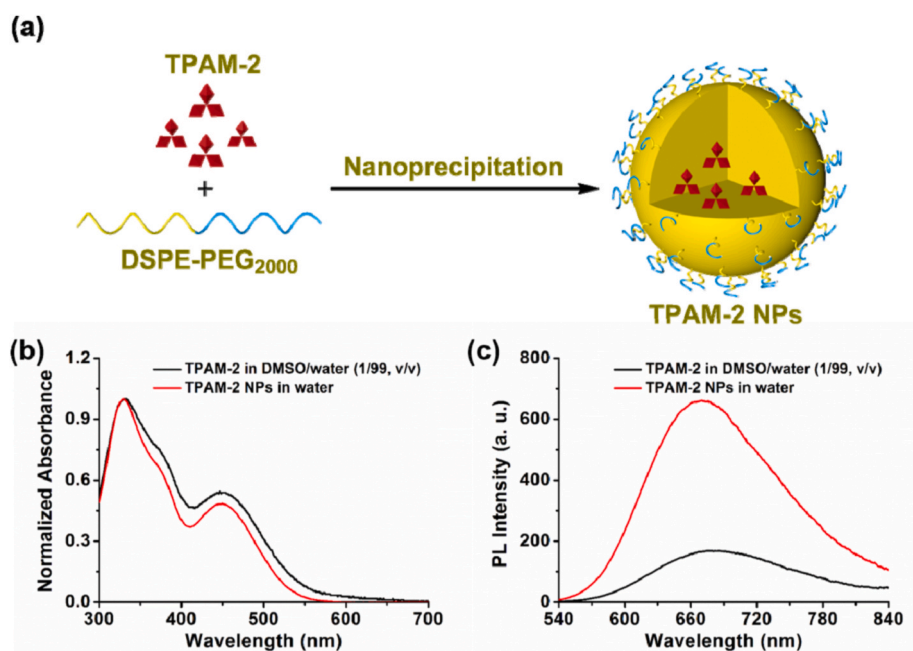


Fig. 5. (a) Schematic illustration for preparing TPAM-2 NPs. (b) UV-vis spectra of TPAM-2 in DMSO/water (1/99, v/v) and TPAM-2 NPs in water. (c) PL spectra of TPAM-2 in DMSO/water (1/99, v/v) and TPAM-2 NPs in water ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 450 \text{ nm}$). [TPAM-2] = $5 \mu\text{M}$.

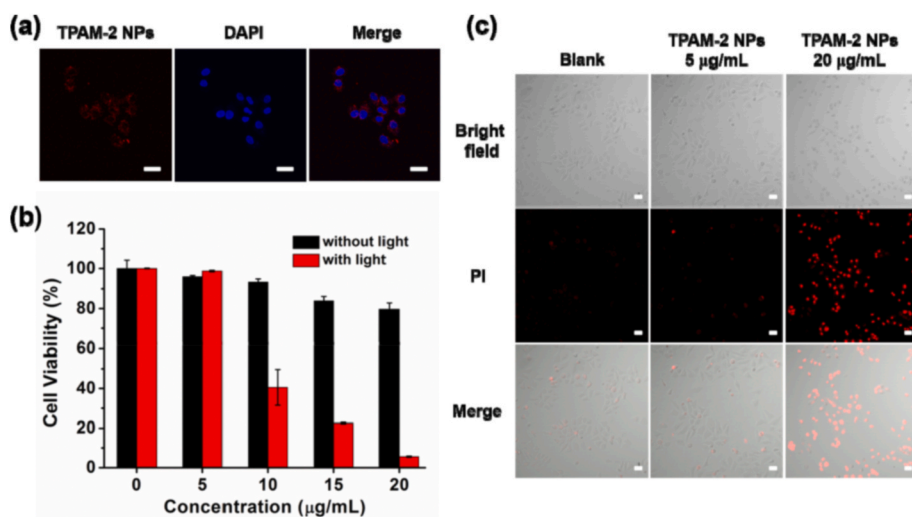


Fig. 6. (a) Cell images in the presence of TPAM-2 NPs (the blue fluorescence came from 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) stained cell nuclei), Scale bar: 30 µm; (b) Cell viability of TPAM-2 NPs treated HeLa cells under white light irradiation (130 mW cm^{-2} , 30 min) or in the dark. (c) Cell apoptosis imaging of TPAM-2 NPs treated HeLa cells under white light irradiation (130 mW cm^{-2}) for 30 min. Dead cells were stained by PI ($100 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$) for 10 min. Scale bar: 30 µm. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

NPs showed good stability in water due to no obvious change in their diameters for half a month (Fig. S21).

Both TPAM-2 aggregates in DMSO/water (1:99, v/v) and TPAM-2 NPs in water exhibited similar features of the UV-vis absorption spectra with two peaks at 330 and 450 nm (Fig. 5b), and the NIR fluorescence spectra with the maximum fluorescence at 670 nm along with large Stokes shift (220 nm) (Fig. 5c). However, the TPAM-2 NPs in water gave 3.9 times higher fluorescence intensity than TPAM-2 aggregates in DMSO/water (1/99, v/v). The fluorescence quantum yield of the TPAM-2 NPs is 14%, which is 1.4 times higher than the TPAM-2 aggregates (10%). The results suggest that the formation of nanoparticles could weaken the interaction of molecules with the polar environment to further restrain the TICT effect and improve the AIE effect. However, the TPAM-2 NPs exhibited no better capability for generating $^1\text{O}_2$ than TPAM-2 aggregates in DMSO/water (1/99, v/v) because the further enhancement of the fluorescence can reduce $^1\text{O}_2$ production (Fig. S22-S23) [29]. Even so, the TPAM-2 NPs still had good ability to generate $^1\text{O}_2$ for imaging-guided PDT application.

We then further demonstrate the potential of TPAM-2 NPs for fluorescence imaging-guided photodynamic ablation of cancer cells. HeLa cells were used as a model for this purpose. TPAM-2 NPs were incubated with HeLa cells for 12 h to obtain fluorescence images on laser confocal fluorescence microscopy. The results show that TPAM-2 NPs could effectively stain the cytoplasm with red fluorescence, indicating good fluorescence imaging performance of TPAM-2 NPs (Fig. 6a). The PDT performance of TPAM-2 NPs towards HeLa cells was evaluated by a 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) method. There was still about 80% of cell viability in the presence of TPAM-2 NPs ($20 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$) without white light irradiation (Fig. 6b), showing low dark cytotoxicity of TPAM-2 NPs toward HeLa cells. However, the viability of HeLa cells was only 5% in the presence of TPAM-2 NPs ($20 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$) under white light irradiation for 30 min. Dead cell imaging was performed to further assess the PDT effect of TPAM-2 NPs (Fig. 6c). Propidium iodide (PI) was used to stain dead HeLa cells. HeLa cells incubated in the absence of TPAM-2 NPs under white light irradiation for 30 min gave almost no red fluorescence, indicating that light irradiation itself did not damage the cells. However, HeLa cells incubated in the presence of TPAM-2 NPs at $20 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ under white light irradiation for 30 min exhibited bright red fluorescence. The above results reveal the good PDT performance of TPAM-2 NPs for HeLa cells.

4. Conclusion

In summary, we have reported a rational molecular design strategy

to enhance NIR AIE of a photosensitizer for AIE imaging-guided PDT via rotor effect. The core of the developed strategy is to introduce molecular rotors into the photosensitizer to enhance the competition of AIE over TICT while not significantly to impair the ability for $^1\text{O}_2$ production. The rotor effect not only improves the AIE effect through decreasing intermolecular interactions in the aggregate state, but also disturbs the TICT effect through balancing D- π -A strength. Based on the developed strategy, we have designed and prepared a novel photosensitizer TPAM-2 with strong NIR luminescence and good capability for $^1\text{O}_2$ production. We have also employed amphiphilic polymer DSPE-PEG₂₀₀₀ to encapsulate TPAM-2 for the preparation of hydrophilic and biocompatible TPAM-2 NPs. The fabricated TPAM-2 NPs have exhibited good potential for AIE imaging-guided PDT for HeLa cells. This work provides a promising way to design ideal AIE imaging-guided photosensitizers for cancer theranostics.

Credit author statement

Dong-Hui Wang, Methodology, Compound synthesis, Data curation, Writing – original draft. Li-Jian Chen, Formal analysis. Xu Zhao, Formal analysis. Xiu-Ping Yan, Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Resources, Supervision, Writing-Reviewing and Editing.

Declaration of competing interest

We declare no competing financial interest.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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