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# Transient self-assembly of molecular nanostructures driven by chemical fuels

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Over the past decades, chemists have mastered the art of assembling small molecules into complex nanostructures using non-covalent interactions. The driving force for self-assembly is thermodynamics: the self-assembled structure is more stable than the separate components. However, biological self-assembly processes are often energetically uphill and require the consumption of chemical energy. This allows nature to control the activation and duration of chemical functions associated to the assembled state. Synthetic chemical systems that operate in the same way are essential for creating the next generation of intelligent, adaptive materials, nanomachines and delivery systems. This review focuses on synthetic molecular nanostructures which assemble under dissipative conditions. The chemical function associated to the transient assemblies is operational as long as chemical fuel is present.

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## Introduction

Over the past decades self-assembly has emerged as the most powerful strategy for the formation of molecular nanostructures. It has permitted the development of innovative systems for diagnostics and catalysis and has enabled enormous advances in the fields of materials chemistry and nanotechnology [1]. Although inspired by nature, there is a strong current awareness that nature is only mimicked to a certain extent [2<sup>\*</sup>]. While many biological self-assembly processes are driven by thermodynamics [3], just as in synthetic self-assembly, there are also situations in which self-assembly is associated with an energy consumption process, referred to as dissipative

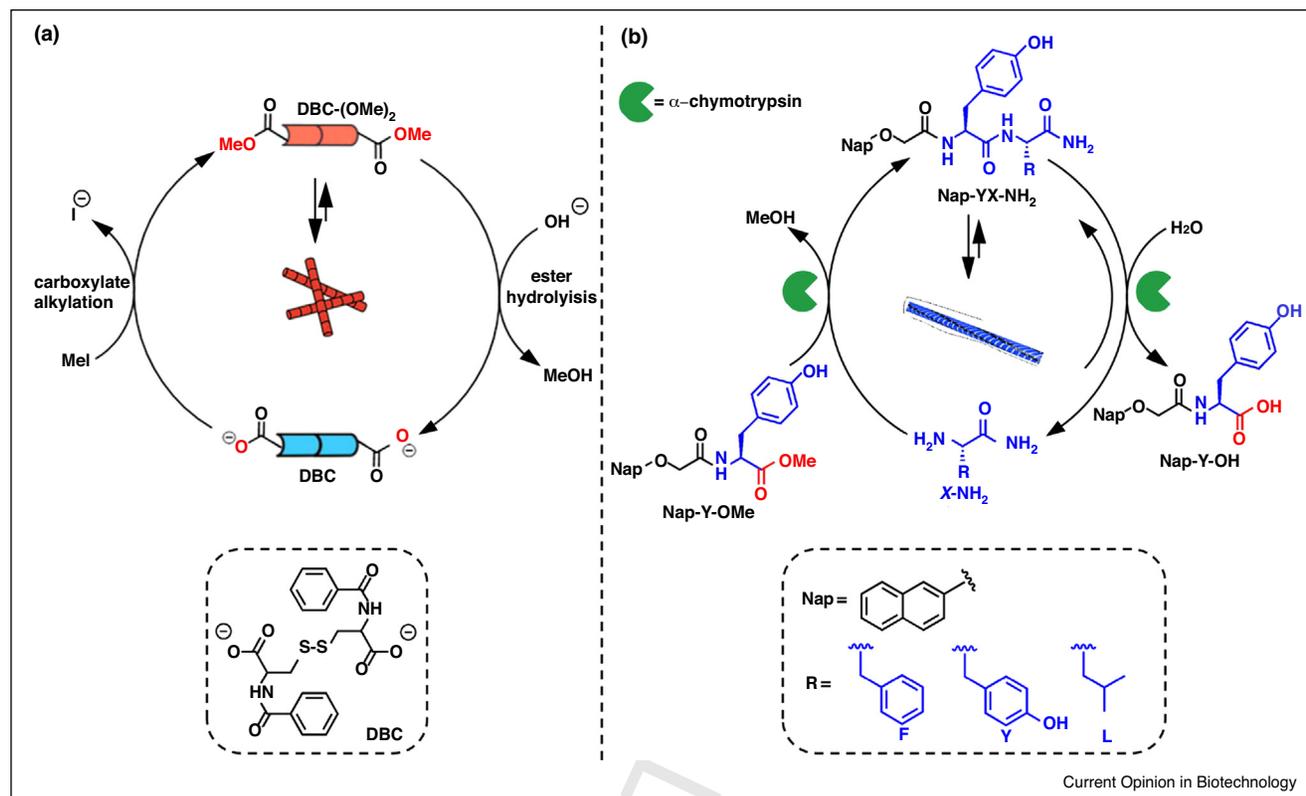
self-assembly [4,5]. Nature exploits dissipative self-assembly as a way to obtain temporal control over the chemical functions associated with the assembled state [6–10]. There is currently a strong drive to implement the same principle also in synthetic systems, with the ultimate aim of creating intelligent materials and devices able to perform different functions based on the stimuli provided in the form of energy [11,12,13<sup>\*</sup>,14–20]. In the last years this has led to the development of various chemical systems that require energy to self-assemble into functional structures. Most frequently, energy is provided in the form of physical stimuli, mainly as light [16,21–27], but also as ultrasound [28], electrical current [29], osmotic pressure [30] or, alternatively, by (transiently) changing the pH [31,32]. This is highly attractive, because this energy can be delivered in a clean manner to the system and is consumed without the creation of waste. However, nature predominantly exploits chemical energy as a trigger for the selective activation of function. The design of synthetic systems that rely on chemical fuels for self-assembly is challenging and has mainly focused on the development of hybrid structures in which natural dissipative systems, such as microtubules, are conjugated with synthetic elements such as nanoparticles [33–38]. Another successful approach relies on the coupling of a self-assembly process to a chemical oscillator, such as the Belousov–Zhabotinsky (BZ) reaction, which operates intrinsically out-of-equilibrium [39–43]. However, although functional, these systems do not provide much flexibility since the energy dissipation process is extremely well-defined and difficult to modulate [44<sup>\*</sup>]. The scope of this short review is to highlight recent advances made in the design of synthetic molecular assemblies that require chemical fuels to be functional. It will be shown that such systems maintain the assembled state only as long as chemical fuel is present. The result is that the chemical functions exerted by the assemblies have a transient character.

## Soft materials

The first step towards artificial systems able to mimic the transient nature of microtubule-formation was reported by Van Esch *et al.* [45<sup>\*\*</sup>]. Their approach was based on dibenzoyl-L-cystine (DBC), which is a pH-responsive gelator (Figure 1a). Above the pK<sub>a</sub>-value of the carboxylic acids (around 4.5) gel formation does not occur, because of electrostatic repulsion between the carboxylate groups. Protonation of the carboxylic groups at pH-values below

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Figure 1



Transient gel formation relying on (a) the rapid esterification of the pro-gelator DBC or (b) the rapid formation of a dipeptide hydrogelators under hydrolytic conditions.

89 the  $pK_a$  results in neutralization and consequent self-  
 90 assembly of the molecule in long fibers, stabilized by  
 91 intermolecular hydrogen-bonding. On the other hand, the  
 92 corresponding DBC-diester (DBC-(OMe)<sub>2</sub>) assembles at  
 93 all pH-values, even above the  $pK_a$ . The properties of  
 94 these molecules were used to design a dissipative cycle in  
 95 which methyl-iodide (MeI) was used to methylate DBC  
 96 under ambient conditions (35°C). Under these conditions  
 97 a spontaneous hydrolysis of the formed esters also took  
 98 place leading to a return to the starting compound, which  
 99 crucially was at a rate that is lower than that of ester  
 100 formation. This implies that the addition of MeI leads to  
 101 the transient presence of the gelator DBC-(OMe)<sub>2</sub> in the  
 102 system, with a lifetime that depends on the amount of  
 103 fuel added. Transient gel formation was confirmed by  
 104 light scattering studies and scanning electron microscopy  
 105 (SEM). Confirmation that the system returned to the  
 106 original state was demonstrated by the observation that  
 107 the addition of a new batch of MeI induced a second cycle  
 108 of transient gel formation. This first system suffered from  
 109 relatively long response times with life-cycles in the order  
 110 of days. In a follow-up study, the life times could be  
 111 reduced to hours by changing the chemical fuel and  
 112 optimizing the pH level [46]. However, the importance  
 113 of this study lays in the demonstration that the

mechanical properties of the gel could be controlled by  
 the initial level of the chemical fuel. The addition of low  
 concentrations of MeI resulted in short-lived weak gels,  
 whereas long-lived stiff gels were obtained at high  
 concentrations of fuel. Furthermore, it was also shown that  
 these materials had a much higher capacity for self-  
 regeneration after destruction when high fuel levels were  
 present.

Debnath *et al.* developed an alternative hybrid biosyn-  
 thetic system for transient gel formation which relied on  
 the gelating properties of naphthalene-dipeptides and the  
 ability of enzymes to form and cleave peptide bonds  
 (Figure 1b) [47]. Starting point was the α-chymotrypsin  
 catalyzed transacylation of a series of hydrophobic amino  
 acids X-NH<sub>2</sub> (with X = Y, F or L) using Nap-Y-OMe as an  
 acyl-donor which rapidly yielded the dipeptide hydro-  
 gelator Nap-YX-NH<sub>2</sub>. However, in time α-chymotrypsin  
 caused the installment of an equilibrium between the  
 hydrogelator Nap-YX-NH<sub>2</sub> and the hydrolysis products  
 Nap-Y-OH and the original amino acid X-NH<sub>2</sub> leading to  
 a constant equilibrium concentration of the gelator. When  
 F-NH<sub>2</sub> was used, the final concentration of Nap-YF-NH<sub>2</sub>  
 was above the critical gelation concentration (CGC) lead-  
 ing to the formation of a stable gel. On the other hand,

138 transient gel formation was observed when amino acids  
139 Y-NH<sub>2</sub> and L-NH<sub>2</sub> were used, as the concentration of the  
140 dipeptide in these systems remained only for a limited  
141 time above the CGC. The lifetime of these gels could be  
142 tuned by changing the pH. It was shown that the system  
143 could be refueled up to three times by adding additional  
144 equivalents of Nap-Y-OMe. After three cycles the system  
145 was no longer able to reach the dipeptide-concentrations  
146 required to reach the CGC, presumably because of inter-  
147 ference with the accumulating amounts of the waste  
148 product Nap-Y-OH in the system.

149 This approach was then extended to a system of tripep-  
150 tide-gelators in which structurally diverse amino acids  
151 were ligated in an analogous manner to aspartame, a DF-  
152 dipeptide methylester [48]. Only for F-NH<sub>2</sub> and Y-NH<sub>2</sub>  
153 transient gel formation was observed; in the presence of  
154 amino acids W, L, V, S and T, no gelation was observed.  
155 For the latter amino acids, rapid formation of the end  
156 product DF-OH was seen. Hardly any formation of the  
157 tripeptide was observed, despite the fact that some of  
158 these amino acids (L, V, S) were used as effective  
159 nucleophiles in previous studies. The observation of  
160 gel formation for F and Y suggests that these transient  
161 nanofibers are less prone to enzymatic hydrolysis and  
162 thus permit conditions for transient structure formation  
163 ( $\text{rate}_{\text{formation}} > \text{rate}_{\text{destruction}}$ ). Interestingly, while the  
164 DFF-NH<sub>2</sub> peptide turned out to be thermodynamically  
165 more stable compared to DFY-NH<sub>2</sub>, direct competition  
166 experiments revealed that the selection in this system  
167 relied on kinetic control, yielding DFY-NH<sub>2</sub> as the  
168 major product.

169 An alternative biocatalytic approach towards transient  
170 hydrogel formation relied on the sucrose-fueled produc-  
171 tion of CO<sub>2</sub> by yeast [49]. Acidification of an aqueous  
172 solution upon the dissolution of CO<sub>2</sub> resulted in the  
173 protonation of a peptide-based surfactant causing the  
174 formation of a gel. Gradual elimination of CO<sub>2</sub> from  
175 the system upon evaporation resulted in spontaneous  
176 return to the original state.

177 A different approach towards transient polymer self-  
178 assembly was developed by Kumar *et al.* and relies on  
179 the exploitation of naphthalenediimide chromophores  
180 appended with Zn(II)-complexes [50]. Whereas the  
181 building block by itself showed no signs of aggregation,  
182 the addition of adenosine phosphates (AXP with X = M,  
183 D, or T) resulted in the formation of helical stacks with  
184 the anionic AXPs lined up against the outward-pointing  
185 cationic side-groups [51]. Interestingly, it was observed  
186 that the handedness of the supramolecular polymer  
187 depended on the nature of the adenosine phosphate.  
188 This provided an important tool to follow the spontane-  
189 ous transition of the structures across the supramolecular  
190 energy landscape upon the enzyme-catalysed hydrolysis  
191 of ATP → ADP → AMP → P<sub>i</sub>. The system is in

principle amenable to repetitive cycles by displacing P<sub>i</sub> 192  
with the high-affinity binder ATP under dissipative 193  
conditions. 194

## Nanostructures 195

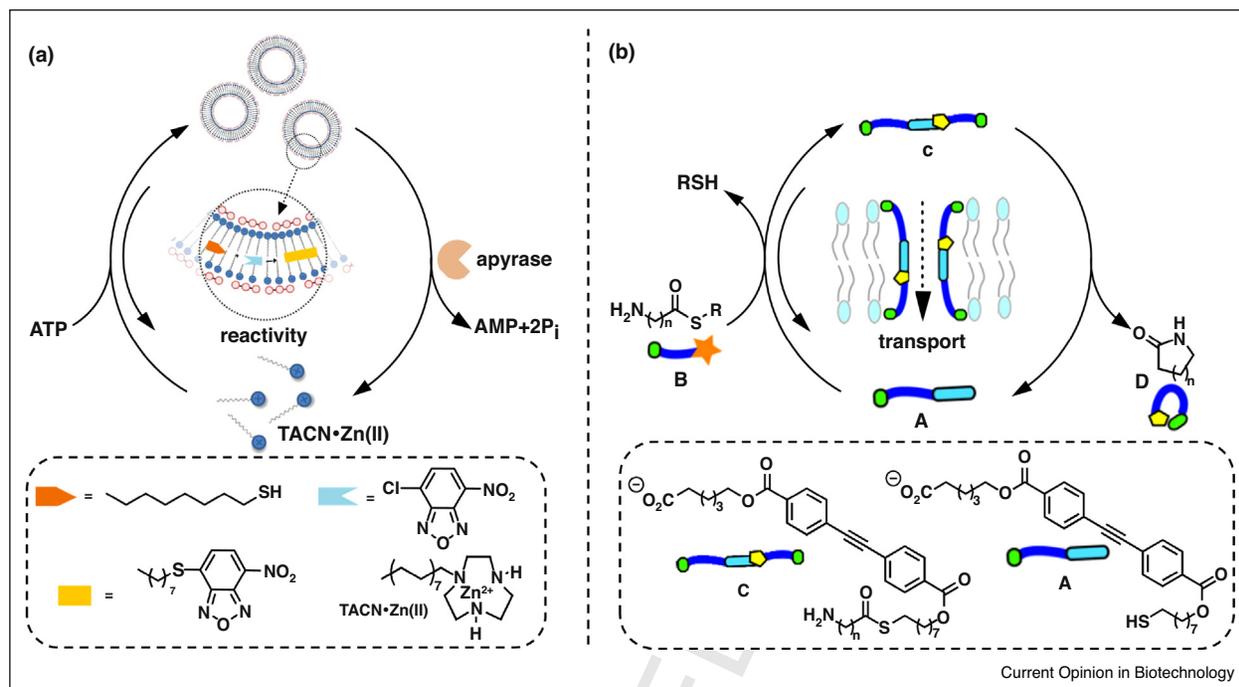
### Surfactant-based systems 196

The self-assembly of surfactants into large structures, 197  
such as micelles and vesicles, has always attracted great 198  
interest because of the similarity of these structures to 199  
cells and also for their numerous practical applications 200  
[52]. The functional properties of these systems mainly 201  
originate from the presence of an internal compartment 202  
that is separated from the bulk and from the presence of 203  
an apolar phase in aqueous media. Methodology to con- 204  
trol the formation of these systems through the addition of 205  
chemical fuel under dissipative conditions would give 206  
temporal control over their associated functions. As illus- 207  
tration, Wang *et al.* coupled the formation of supra-amphi- 208  
philes to the chemical oscillator IO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-NH<sub>3</sub>OH<sup>+</sup>-OH<sup>-</sup> 209  
which periodically generates iodine [53]. Reaction of 210  
iodine with the PEG segment of a hydrophilic block 211  
copolymer increased the hydrophobicity of that domain 212  
and induced its self-assembly into supra-amphiphiles. 213  
The oscillating concentration of iodine caused spontane- 214  
ous transitions between assembled and dissociated states 215  
as a function over time. Although not surfactant-based, 216  
the system nicely illustrates the possibility to regulate the 217  
self-assembly process in time using a chemical fuel. The 218  
following examples illustrate how this can be used to 219  
control the chemical functions associated with the assem- 220  
bled state. 221

Our group developed a strategy for the transient stabili- 222  
zation of vesicular aggregates (Figure 2a) [54\*\*] based on 223  
a previous study aimed at transient signal generation by a 224  
nanoparticle-based system [55]. A surfactant containing 225  
a cationic 1,4,7-triazacyclononane (TACN)-Zn(II) head 226  
group was found to form micellar aggregates with a 227  
critical micelle concentration (CMC) of around 228  
100 μM. However, the presence of ATP resulted in 229  
the formation of vesicular aggregates at much lower 230  
concentrations. This is attributed to the stabilizing inter- 231  
actions between ATP and the oppositely charged head 232  
groups, which also causes a repositioning of the surfac- 233  
tants. Importantly, previous studies using monolayer 234  
protected gold nanoparticles containing identical head 235  
groups had demonstrated a strong dependence between 236  
the number of negative charges present in a series of 237  
adenosine phosphates (AXP with X = M, D, or T) and 238  
the affinity for the multivalent surface [55]. The 239  
incapacity of AMP to stabilize aggregates below the 240  
cmc was then exploited for the transient self-assembly 241  
of vesicular aggregates. ATP was added to surfactants at 242  
concentrations below the cmc in the presence of potato 243  
apyrase, which is an enzyme that hydrolyses ATP into 244  
AMP + 2P<sub>i</sub>. Since the rate of aggregate formation 245  
induced by ATP is more rapid than the decay rate of 246

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Figure 2



(a) The transient formation of vesicles driven by ATP and (b) the transient formation of membrane channels driven by the activation of precursor A.

247 ATP, a transient period exists in which aggregates are  
 248 formed. Upon depletion of ATP, the system spontane-  
 249 ously reverted to the non-aggregated state, which was  
 250 confirmed by a series of techniques which included  
 251 DLS, UV-vis, fluorescence and confocal microscopy.  
 252 The process of transient aggregate formation could be  
 253 repeated multiple times upon the addition of new  
 254 batches of ATP. Next, this process was coupled to a  
 255 chemical reaction that was strongly favored by the apolar  
 256 bilayer of the aggregates. It was shown that the lifetime  
 257 of the vesicles determined the amount of reaction prod-  
 258 uct formed by the system. Thus this system provides a  
 259 new means to indirectly control the outcome of a chem-  
 260 ical reaction through the exploitation of a transient  
 261 phenomenon driven by a chemical fuel.

262 The group of Fyles described the transient formation  
 263 of channels in a membrane system driven by a chem-  
 264 ical fuel (Figure 2b) [56\*]. The project was based on  
 265 the knowledge that compounds analogous to C are able  
 266 to span a bilayer membrane and create a hydrophilic  
 267 pore able to translocate ions across the membrane. The  
 268 key novel feature of molecule C is the presence of a  
 269 labile thioester-bond. In the absence of the acyl part  
 270 (such as in A), channel activity was not observed and  
 271 this represents the inactive resting state. Upon the  
 272 addition of thioester B as a chemical fuel, thiol-  
 273 thioester exchange occurs spontaneously leading to

274 the *in situ* formation of the channel-forming compound  
 275 C. Channel activity was measured using the voltage-  
 276 clamp technique which measures changes in conduc-  
 277 tivity upon the transport of ions across the membrane  
 278 [57]. Importantly, compound C is terminated with a  
 279 nucleophilic amine, which is able to intramolecularly  
 280 attack the thioester bond leading to the spontaneous  
 281 re-formation of the resting compound A and the cyclic  
 282 waste product D. The rate of the intramolecular reac-  
 283 tion can be tuned by changing the spacer length  
 284 separating the amine and the carbonyl-group of the  
 285 thioester-bond. Transient accumulation of the pore-  
 286 forming compound C occurs if the intramolecular  
 287 cyclization-rate is slower than the transthioesterifica-  
 288 tion reaction. Time-dependent conductance measure-  
 289 ments confirmed the spontaneous decrease in pore-  
 290 activity, which could be regenerated upon the addition  
 291 of a fresh batch of fuel. It is noted that this system is  
 292 intrinsically dissipative in the sense that formation of  
 293 the active compound automatically installs a mech-  
 294 anism of self-destruction because of the presence of the  
 295 nucleophile. This makes it different from most other  
 296 systems discussed here, that rely on the creation of  
 297 dissipative conditions by external elements (such as  
 298 enzymes or bases). The ability to tune the efficacy of  
 299 the intramolecular reaction and thus control the dissipa-  
 300 tive process illustrates the advantages and potential  
 301 of synthetic systems.

### Molecular cages

The first examples are appearing in which the self-assembly of molecularly well-defined structures is governed by the transient action of chemical fuels. Wood *et al.* reported a self-assembled cage composed of porphyrin building blocks and Cu(I)-metal ions that dissociate upon the addition of triphenylphosphine (PPh<sub>3</sub>) [58<sup>•</sup>]. This is because of the preferential formation of heteroleptic N, P-complexes with Cu(I) (Figure 3a). However, when PPh<sub>3</sub> is added under oxidative conditions (because of the presence of pyridine *N*-oxide as an oxidant and the *oxo*-transfer catalyst ReCat as an accelerator), it is slowly converted to triphenylphosphine oxide which no longer coordinates Cu(I). Consequently, the system reverts back to the assembled state. A new cycle can be initiated by adding a new batch of PPh<sub>3</sub>. Transient dissociation of the cage occurs because the oxidation rate is much lower compared to rate of the ligand exchange. A hint of a possible application as delivery agent was provided by demonstrating the transient release of an encapsulated C<sub>60</sub>-guest upon the addition of fuel.

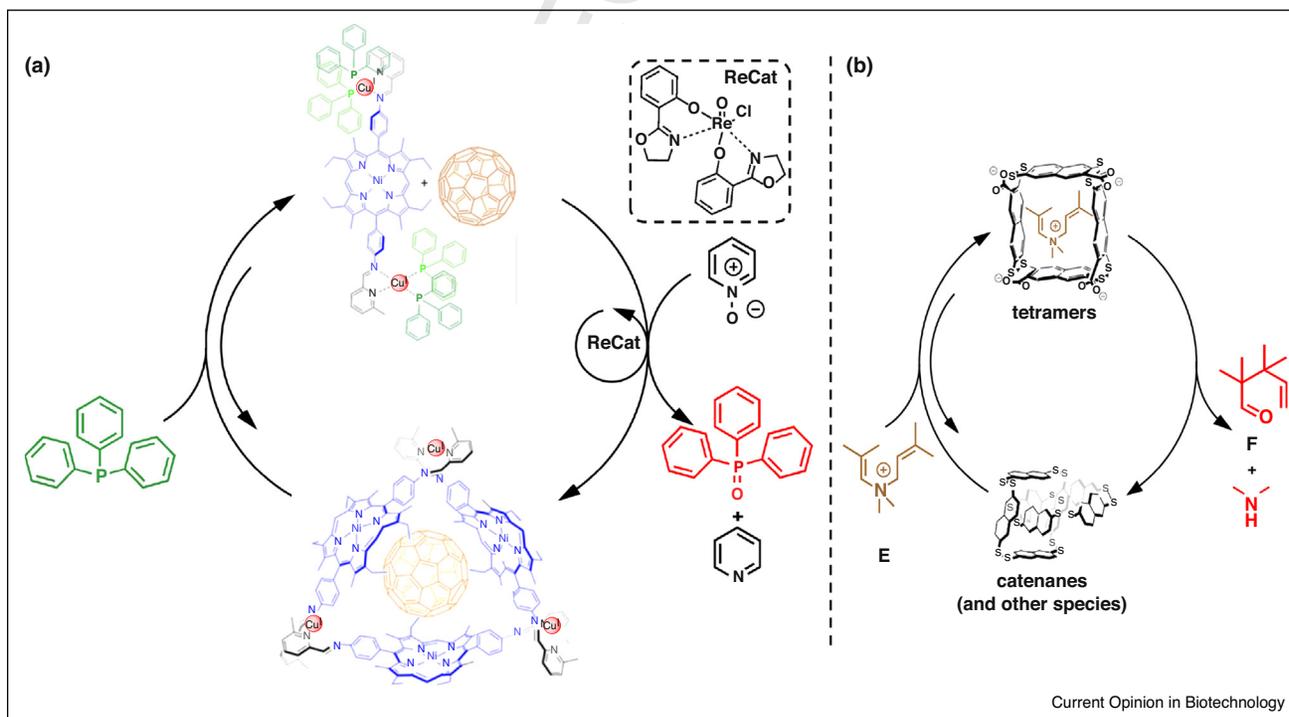
Finally, a very intriguing example was reported by Fanlo-Virgos *et al.* which described the transient adaptation of a dynamic molecular network to the addition of a guest (Figure 3b) [59<sup>••</sup>]. A library of very diverse molecular structures including catenanes and tetramers was spontaneously formed upon the partial oxidation of a building

block containing two thiol moieties. The reversibility of the disulfide bond permitted interconversion between the library members and imparted adaptability to the network. A remarkable spontaneous shift in the library composition towards the tetrameric species was observed upon the addition of compound **E** ascribed to the installment of favorable interactions between the tetramers and compound **E**. In the absence of other events this would just have been an example of guest-induced templated synthesis, but in this particular case it was observed that in time the system spontaneously returned to the original composition. It turned out that the tetramers catalyze the conversion of compound **E** into product **F** and dimethylamine through an *aza*-Cope rearrangement. The fact that a second addition of guest induces a new transient shift in library composition confirms the reversibility of the process and demonstrates the capacity of the system to spontaneously dissipate the energy provided by the guest. Like the transmembrane pore-formation discussed above, also this system is intrinsically dissipative. The exciting prospect offered by these results is the development of dynamic networks that are able to transiently evolve into different directions depending on the input of chemical information.

### Outlook

Compared to traditional self-assembly processes which rely on the installment of a functional thermodynamically

Figure 3



(a) Transient displacement of fullerene from a molecular cage driven by triphenylphosphine and (b) transient adaptation of a molecular network to a substrate.

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355 stable state, the key novelty introduced by performing  
 356 self-assembly under dissipative conditions is that control  
 357 can be gained over the lifetime of the chemical function  
 358 associated with the assembled state. Energy can also be  
 359 delivered using a variety of physical means, but the use of  
 360 chemical fuels brings us one step closer to mimicking  
 361 biological networks that mostly rely on fluxes of energy  
 362 stored in molecules. The examples presented here are  
 363 still rather primitive and in most cases dissipative condi-  
 364 tions are artificially created by the addition of an external  
 365 component (catalyst, enzyme, reagent) to the system that  
 366 dissipates the energy stored in the fuel. Yet, some of the  
 367 systems discussed are intrinsically dissipative, implying  
 368 that it is the self-assembled structure itself that causes  
 369 energy dissipation. One further step up the ladder is the  
 370 design of structures that assemble as a result of energy  
 371 dissipation. The ability to use time as a regulatory ele-  
 372 ment in designing chemical systems offers new and  
 373 exciting possibilities for the design of reaction networks,  
 374 functional materials and delivery systems.

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