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Guest effects on crystal structure and phosphorescence of a $Cu₆L₃$ prismatic cage[†]

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Coordination cages with a nanocavity can encapsulate various guests, which allows modulation of the physical and chemical properties of the host–guest inclusion complexes. In this work, we designed and prepared a phosphorescence $Cu₆L₃$ trigonal prismatic cage, which accommodates a series of aromatic guest molecules. Single crystal X-ray analysis revealed that the intermolecular Cu…Cu distance can be mediated by changing the volume of the guests. Moreover, the host–guest charge-transfer interactions can be also fine-tuned via tailoring the ionization potential of guests. Consequently, we have observed the guest-induced photoluminescence properties change including a gradual red shift of the maximum emission peak and a linear relationship between the quantum yield and ionization potential of guests.

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Introduction

Supramolecular metallacycles and metallacages with nanocavities formed through metal-directed self-assembly have been extensively investigated due to their intriguing properties that are attractive for fundamental studies as well as advanced applications. $1-5$ Owing to the confined cavity of the coordination cages, one of the biggest advantages is the rich host– guest chemistry that allows modification of the photophysical and photochemical properties as well as the reactivities of hosts or guests. $1-7$ Among these functionalized coordination complexes, not only the synthetic approaches for constructing fluorescent metallacycles and metallacages, but also the strategies for tuning their photoluminescence properties have been well established by Fujita,⁸ Stang,^{7,9,10} Nitschke,¹¹⁻¹³ Würthner,¹⁴ and others.^{15–20} However, phosphorescence analogues are still unexplored and the modulation of their photophysics remains challenging. $21-25$

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The cyclic trinuclear complexes (CTCs) containing d^{10} coinage-metal ions, $Au(i)$, $Ag(i)$ and $Cu(i)$, often exhibit bright photoluminescence due to their metal–metal charge transfer excited states and the formation of excimers or exciplexes.²⁶ It is well-known that the intermolecular $M \cdots M$ distance $(M = Au,$ Ag or Cu) in the excimers can hugely influence their photoluminescence properties. For example, Omary et al. reported that variation of the substituents on the pyrazolate ligand was able to mediate the crystal packing of $Cu₃Pz₃$ -type CTCs (Pz = pyrazolate ligand) resulting in the modulation of their photophysics.27 Our group also observed that a bright photoluminescent CTC, $Cu_3(4\text{-chloropyrazolate})_3$, can display different emission properties when the crystal packing alters. 28

Inspired by the unique phosphorescence of CTCs, we envisioned that a cyclic trinuclear unit could serve as a building block to construct phosphorescent coordination cages. In 2011, the Thiel group reported a $Cu₆L₃$ (L = 2,2'-di(1,2-pyrazol-3-yl)-1,1'-binaphthyl) cage containing $Cu₃Pz₃$ -type CTC units, showing fluorescence with a lifetime less than 1 ns. This is because the large steric hindrance of the pyrazolate ligand leads to a loose packing of the $Cu₆L₃$ cage unit with a long intermolecular Cu…Cu distance in the solid-state.²⁹ At the same time, our group have reported the first example of a phosphorescent Cu₆L₃ (L = p-xylylene-bis(3,5-dimethyl)pyrazol-4-yl) cage based on $Cu₃Pz₃$ -type CTC units.³⁰ Unfortunately, due to the short intramolecular Cu⋯Cu distance between two CTC units and small intrinsic cavity, the encapsulation of guest molecules is unsuccessful (Scheme 1). Recently, we prepared a new phosphorescent $Cu₆L₃$ (L = 4,4'-thiophene-bismethylene-bis(3,5-dimethyl)pyrazol-4-yl) cage with a cavity of

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Scheme 1 Conceptual representation of the synthesis of inclusion complexes from $Cu₆L₃$ cage host 1 and various aromatic guests (ethyl substituent groups on pyrazole rings are omitted for clarity).

232 \AA^3 , which is able to encapsulate benzene and toluene molecules.³¹ However, systematic studies of the effects of guest encapsulation on the crystal structures and phosphorescence of the cage hosts need to be explored.

Herein, we synthesize a phosphorescent trigonal prismatic $Cu₆L₃$ cage 1, from the self-assembly of bispyrazolyl ligand $H₂L$ (L = 4,4′-thiophene-bismethylene-bis(3,5-diethyl)pyrazol-4-yl) and Cu(I) ions. By replacement of the benzene motif with a thiophene core, the cavity of cage 1 enlarges to larger than 200 Å^3 allowing the accommodation of various aromatic guest molecules (Scheme 1). The single-crystal X-ray diffraction analysis of eight inclusion complexes confirmed that the intermolecular Cu⋯Cu distance increased with the increase in the guests' volume. In addition, the host–guest charge-transfer (CT) interactions can be also fine-tuned by controlling the ionization potential (IP) of the guest. Through regulating the combined effects of the cuprophilic interaction and host–guest CT processes on the photophysical properties of the inclusion complexes, we achieve tunable photoluminescence properties of coordination cages by host–guest modulation.

Results and discussion

Guest selection

 M_3P_{23} -type (M = Au, Ag and Cu) complexes are able to bond π-acidic as well as π-basic molecules to form the donor–acceptor adducts, as a result, photoluminescence properties of M_3Pz_3 complexes can be tuned.³² In addition, recent theoretical and experimental studies revealed that the relative π -basicity of Cu₃Pz₃-type CTCs is stronger than Ag₃Pz₃-type CTCs, but weaker compared to Au_3Pz_3 -type CTCs.³²⁻³⁴ Inspired by this, we assumed that the metal–organic cage host com-

posed from $Cu₃Pz₃$ could encapsulate either electron-rich or -poor aromatic guests and its photophysical properties can be mediated by the introduction of guests with different electronic properties. Thus, a series of benzene derivatives with different substituents (i.e., benzene (Ph), o-xylene (OX), m -xylene (MX), p -xylene (PX), toluene (Ph-Me), pyridine (Py), and nitrobenzene $(Ph-NO₂)$ have been chosen to test our hypothesis (Scheme 1). For comparison, an inclusion adduct with a non-aromatic guest, dichloromethane (DCM), was also prepared.

Preparation of host–guest inclusion adducts and general characterization

Colorless single crystals of host–guest complexes were obtained from solvothermal reactions in a mixture of $Cu₂O$, H2L, acetonitrile, and corresponding aromatic guests (Scheme 1). The experimental details are given in the ESI.† It is worthy to mention that the $Cu₆L₃$ cage crystals could not be obtained in the absence of aromatic guests, indicating the guests act as a template to assist the formation of the $Cu₆L₃$ cage. High-quality single crystals suitable for single-crystal X-ray diffraction (SCXRD) analysis were harvested in yields up to 20%. The newly synthesized single-crystal samples of inclusion complexes were characterized by powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD), elemental analysis, and infrared spectroscopy, confirming their phase purity, and coordination between the ligands and Cu ions, respectively (Fig. S14 and S15†).

The ¹H NMR spectrum of host-guest complexes in CD_2Cl_2 disclosed the host/guest ratio of $1:1$ (Table S5†), with four sets of signals at 6.73, 3.88, 2.58 and 1.14 ppm attributed to the $Cu₆L₃$ host (1), revealing cage 1 was stable and remained intact in solution (Fig. S4†). Although the signals of guest molecules did not show noticeable downfield shifts suggesting a weak host–guest interaction and rapid guest in–out exchange in solution (Fig. S5–S12†), the guest molecules were still selectively encapsulated within the cavity of the host during the crystallization process by slowing evaporation of solvent. More interesting, the thermogravimetric measurements of singlecrystal samples demonstrated that the $Cu₆L₃$ cages are thermally stable up to 390 °C and guests remained encapsulated up to 200 °C, far higher than the guests' boiling points, indicating guests were strongly held within the $Cu₆L₃$ cage in crystals (Fig. S13†).

Crystal structure determination and description

The SCXRD data for these host–guest complexes were collected with an Oxford Diffraction Gemini E instrument diffractometer or a XtaLab PRO MM007HF DW Diffractometer. In all crystals, the structure of the cage host 1 features both a hexanuclear prismatic configuration composed of two nine-membered $Cu₃N₆$ CTC units and three ligands (Fig. 1). Unlike the ideal planar configuration of $Cu₃N₆$ CTC units, in cage 1, $Cu₃N₆$ rings showed a slight bending and distorted structure induced by the strong $Cu_3\cdots\pi$ interactions between the Cu_3N_6 rings and guests (Fig. 1). With the variation of guests, the distance between the center of two $Cu₃N₆$ rings was changed in the

Fig. 1 Crystal structures of 1 \supset Ph and 1 \supset MX, (a) and (d) top view, and (b) and (e) side view showing the crystal packing of Cu₃L₆ cage units in 1 D Ph and 1 D MX, respectively (adjacent cage units and packed column are shown in the space-filling model with different colors; the solvent CH₃CN in 1 \supset MX is omitted for clarity); (c) and (f) The Cu₃L₆ cage units in one packed column showing the intermolecular Cu…Cu distances of 2.971, 3.406 and 3.478 Å in 1 \supset Ph, and 3.183 and 3.446 Å in 1 \supset MX (Cu(I) ions and ethyl groups flipped outward from the cage window, cage hosts 1, and benzene guests are shown as ball, line and space-filling models, respectively; hydrogen atoms in cage hosts 1 are omitted for clarity; C, N, S, and Cu atoms in the cage are shown as cyan (to emphasize the flipped ethyl groups, their terminal carbon atoms are shown as red), blue, yellow and orange, respectively; C and H atoms in the guest are shown as wheat and white, respectively). Comparison of the asymmetric unit in the inclusion crystals of (g) $1 \supset$ Ph, (h) $1 \supset$ Py, (i) $1 \supset$ MX, and (j) $1 \supset$ PX.

range of 6.791 to 6.988 Å (Table S7†), showing no intertrimer Cu \cdots Cu interactions within the cage,²⁶ and the distance between two adjacent S atoms in the ligands ranged from 9.040 to 9.250 Å approximately. Moreover, since six flexible ethyl groups can block and open up the aperture of cage 1, the volume of the cavity is varied in the range between 218.18 \AA ³ and 267.01 Å^3 with alteration of the guest, suggesting guestinduced cavity shrinking and expansion.

Single X-ray crystallographic analyses of these host–guest complexes revealed that aromatic guests were included within the cavity of the cage to form a sandwich structure and the distances between the center of the $Cu₃N₆$ rings and aromatic rings ranged from 3.415 to 3.980 Å, indicating existence of Cu₃… π interaction.²⁶ Importantly, we have found that the crystal packing can be fine-tuned by mediation of the volume occupancy, the ratio of the guest volume to the host cavity volume, which has been used to describe the molecular recognition in ExCage by the Stoddart group. 35 According to this approach, each inclusion complex was analyzed (Table 1) in the solid-state using Material Studio and Mercury software (see ESI† for calculation details). In our scenario, the cavity volumes of cage 1 were varied with the flipping of ethyl groups. Thus, the cavity volume of cage 1 in each inclusion complex was measured and used for calculating the percent occupancies of each aromatic guest. The values of 32.97% (Py), 34.71% (Ph), 38.41% (Ph-Me), 40.54% (Ph-NO₂), 45.70% (OX), 46.10% (MX), and 47.04% (PX), were obtained respectively (Table 1).

Interestingly, when the percent occupancies were in the range of 32.97 to 38.41%, only one ethyl group was flipped outward of the aperture of cage 1 in the asymmetric unit (Fig. 1g and h) and inclusion complexes of $1 \supset$ Py, $1 \supset$ Ph, and $1 \supset \text{Ph-Me}$ were crystallized in the same space group $P21/c$ with a similar crystal packing mode. On the other hand,

Table 1 Summary of crystal and photophysical parameters for inclusion complexes in the solid-state

Complexes	Shortest intermolecular $d_{\text{Cu}\cdots\text{Cu}}(\text{A})$	Volume $occupancy (\%)$	Ionization potential ^{<i>a</i>} (eV)	$\lambda_{\rm ex}$ (nm	λ _{em} (nm)	τ^c (µs)				
						298 K	78 K	Φ^d (9)	$10^{-6} \times k_r e/g$	$10^{-6} \times k_{\rm nr} f_{\rm S}$
$1 D$ DCM	2.796	20.04	11.35	305	643	18.53	19.76	55.5	2.995	2.402
$1 \supset P_V$	2.969	32.97	9.32	340	673/580	20.33	20.80	6.9	0.339	4.579
$1 \supset$ Ph	2.971	34.71	9.25	314	694	25.61	27.32	14.4	0.562	3.342
$1 \supset$ Ph-Me	2.982	38.41	8.82	310	686	27.70	30.96	9.9	0.357	3.257
$1 \supset$ Ph-NO ₂ ^b	3.139	40.54								
$1 \supset OX$	3.043	45.70	8.56	305	659	21.08	23.44	7.4	0.351	4.393
$1 \supset MX$	3.183	46.10	8.56	313	669	19.83	19.84	6.9	0.348	4.695
$1 \supset P X$	3.793	47.04	8.45	320	636	21.15	22.57	6.8	0.321	4.407

^a See ref. 38 and 39. ^b The photoluminescence data cannot be measured due to the guest-induced PL quenching. $c \tau$ is the average decay lifetime. $d\phi$ was measured at 298 K. ^e Radiative decay rate constant: $k_r = \phi/\tau$. *Non-radiative decay rate constant:* $k_{nr} = (1 - \phi)/\tau$.

inclusion complexes of $1 \supset \overline{OX}$, $1 \supset \overline{Ph} \cdot \overline{NO}_2$, and $1 \supset \overline{MX}$ crystallized in the space group $P\bar{1}$ with four ethyl groups flipped outward from the window of cage 1 in the asymmetric unit (Fig. 1i), when the percent occupancies were in the range of 40.54 to 46.10%. Therefore, these inclusion complexes can be divided into two categories with the one exception of $1 \supset \mathbf{PX}$ (*i.e.* the first category: $1 \supset P$ y, $1 \supset P$ h, and $1 \supset P$ h-Me; the second category: $1 \supset \mathbf{OX}, 1 \supset \mathbf{Ph}\text{-}\mathbf{NO}_2$, and $1 \supset \mathbf{MX}$).

The crystal structures of $1 \supset$ Ph and $1 \supset$ MX as representative examples for the first and second categories, respectively, will be discussed in detail. On one hand, the single X-ray structure of $1 \supset$ Ph revealed that cage 1 units were stacked tightly to form a column structure via an intermolecular Cu⋯Cu interaction, CH/π interaction, and van der Waals forces (Fig. 1a and c) and each column was also tightly packed though van der Waals interactions (Fig. 1b). Since only one ethyl group was flipped outward from the aperture of each cage 1 unit, a strong Cu⋯Cu interaction with a short intermolecular Cu⋯Cu distance $(d_{Cu...Cu})$ of 2.971 Å between two adjacent cage units in each column was observed (Fig. 1c and g). The inclusion complexes of $1 \supset$ Py and $1 \supset$ Ph-Me display the similar crystal packing mode to $1 \supset \mathbf{Ph}$, and also exhibit short $d_{\text{Cu}\cdots\text{Cu}}$ of 2.969 and 2.982 Å, respectively (Table 1). On the other hand, the crystal structure of $1 \supset MX$ also showed a column packing of cage 1 units, but unlike $1 \supset \mathbf{Ph}$, one CH₃CN molecule was found in the asymmetric unit and interacted with the cage 1 *via* CH/ π and van der Waals interactions. Importantly, four ethyl groups were flipped outward from the aperture of each cage unit, resulting in much larger steric hindrance between two adjacent cage units than that in $1 \supset \mathbf{Ph}$ (Fig. 1i). Therefore, a weaker Cu⋯Cu interaction and longer intermolecular Cu⋯Cu distances of 3.183 and 3.446 Å, compared to that of $1 \supset$ Ph, were observed. In the other inclusion complexes of $1 \supset OX$ and $1 \supset Ph-NO_2$, similar intermolecular Cu \cdots Cu distances (from 3.043 to 3.689 Å) were also observed, indicating the intermolecular Cu⋯Cu distance can indeed be tuned by controlling the volume occupancy.

Although $1 \supset \text{PX}$ crystallizes in the same space group as $1 \supset$ Ph-Me, due to the largest guest volume and highest percent occupancy of PX among all the aromatic guests, five

ethyl groups were flipped outward from the aperture of the cage unit (Fig. 1j), leading to the largest steric hindrance between two cage units and longest intermolecular Cu⋯Cu distances of 3.793 and 3.925 Å (Table 1). Furthermore, unlike the inclusion crystals with aromatic guests, the crystal structure of $1 \supset$ DCM showed that two inequivalent cage units were present in the asymmetric unit and two inequivalent column structures were formed during the tight packing of cage units. The small steric hindrance and lowest percent occupancy with DCM led to the shortest intermolecular Cu…Cu distance of 2.796 Å.

To further understand the guest effects on the crystal packing, the electrostatic potential (ESP) surfaces of the inclusion complexes were calculated (see ESI† for the calculation details). The charge distribution on the surface of host 1 is significantly affected by the guest molecule (Fig. S27†). The Py, Ph and Ph-Me guests lead to a uniform charge distribution on the host 1 surface, resulting in relatively shorter intermolecular Cu–Cu distances. $1 \supset MX$, $1 \supset OX$ and $1 \supset PX$ display similar ESP where negative charges are enriched near the pyrazole ring of the $Cu₃L₆$ unit, which could induce the strong electrostatic repulsion interaction during crystal packing. The ESPs on the top and bottom surfaces of $1 \supset$ Ph-NO2 are not symmetrical, the charges distributed on the three pyrazole rings within the same surface are not identical. Local electrostatic interactions might produce more complicated total intermolecular interactions. The calculated results are well consistent with the shortest intermolecular $d_{\text{Cu}\cdots\text{Cu}}$ in the crystal structure (Table 1), which further supported that the crystal packing can be fine-tuned by variation of guests.

Photoluminescence properties of inclusion complexes

The solid-state absorption spectra of the inclusion complexes illustrate that $1 \supset P$ y and $1 \supset P$ h-NO₂ show broad absorption bands in the range from 300 to 550 nm, while other inclusion complexes have absorption bands in the range from 300 to 500 nm (Fig. S16†). The charge-transfer (CT) band at 375–550 nm for $1 \supseteq Py$ in the UV-vis spectrum might suggest a strong host-guest interaction. The ligand, $H₂L$, does not show phosphorescence in either the solid state or in $CH₂Cl₂$ solu-

tion. In contrast, all inclusion complexes exhibit bright luminescence upon exposure to UV irradiation and the observed lifetimes (τ) in the microsecond regime (Table 1) indicate phosphorescence. Upon cooling from room temperature to 78 K, the consistent increase in lifetime suggests a reduction in the nonradiative decay rate, as expected.

As shown in Fig. 2a, the emission spectrum of $1 \supset DCM$ clearly exhibited an unstructured emission peak located at 643 nm at 298 K. At 78 K, it showed a broadened emission peak located at 675 nm and a structured high-energy emission band located from 450 to 550 nm which is mainly contributed to by ligand $H₂$ L (Fig. 3a, S24 and S25†). The emission spectra of the inclusion complexes with aromatic guests at room-temperature suggest that these crystalline samples produce red phosphorescence and display a broad emission band (λ_{em}) in the range from 636 to 694 nm, while $1 \supseteq P$ y exhibits orange color luminescence and dual-emission bands at 580 nm for the high-energy (HE) band and 673 nm for the low-energy (LE) band (Fig. 3a). It is worth noting that $1 \supset \text{Ph-NO}_2$ is not emissive due to the electron transfer quenching mechanism and such fluorescence quenching phenomena have been commonly observed when nitroaromatic guests were used.³⁶

Interestingly, variation of the aromatic guests leads to a large red shift of 58 nm (from $1 \supset P X$ to $1 \supset P h$) and the emis-

Fig. 2 (a) Intensity normalized emission spectra of inclusion complexes showing the guest-dependent red-shifted maximum emission peaks (694 nm for $1 \supset$ Ph to 636 nm for $1 \supset$ PX); (b) relationship between the emission maximum (cm⁻¹) and the ionization potential (eV) of the inclusion complexes.

Fig. 3 (a) Representative temperature-varied emission spectra of inclusion complexes (red and blue dashed lines represent absorption and excitation spectra, respectively; red and blue solid lines represent the emission spectra at 298 and 78 K, respectively; (the inset photographs represent the inclusion crystals without (left) and with (right) exposure to UV light irradiation); (b) linear correlation between the quantum yield and ionization potential of inclusion complexes.

sion spectra (Fig. 2a) show a broad phosphorescence band that gradually shifts to lower energies with an increase in the electron-donating capacity of the guest molecules (Table 1). However, the emission maxima do not show a linear relationship with their ionization potentials (Fig. 2b). This might suggest that the emission is not only due to a mere charge transfer in host–guest complexes but also other mechanisms could also contribute to the luminescence. In addition, it has been reported that the emission of $Cu₃Pz₃$ CTC complexes is determined by the dimer rather than monomer and the main peak emission would red shift with a decrease in intermolecular $Cu \cdots Cu$ distance.³⁷ By examining the crystal packing of these inclusion complexes, we have found that the order of the $d_{\text{Cu}\cdots\text{Cu}}$ in the inclusion crystals is $1 \supset \text{Ph}$ < 1 \supset Ph-Me < 1 \supset MX < 1 \supset OX < 1 \supset PX, which is consistent with the order of the main peak emission (694 nm for $1 \supset$ Ph; 686 nm for $1 \supset$ Ph-Me; 669 nm for $1 \supset$ MX; 659 nm for $1 \supset OX$; 636 nm for $1 \supset PX$), suggesting the formation of cage stacks and short $d_{\text{Cu}\cdots\text{Cu}}$ are also responsible for the phosphorescence (Table 1). Such an observation strongly indicated that the control of aromatic guests could fine tune the photophysical properties of inclusion complexes, which could open a new approach for designing tunable photoluminescent $Cu₃Pz₃$ -based cage complexes.

To obtain further insights into the photophysical properties of inclusion complexes, temperature-varied emission spectra were recorded. The emission spectra of $1 \supset$ Ph, $1 \supset$ Ph-Me, $1 \supset MX$ and $1 \supset OX$ displayed similar shapes and tendencies, in which the intensity and peak position of the unstructured LE band (∼636 to 694 nm) negligibly shifted with variation of temperature (Fig. S19, 20, 22 and 23†). In addition, at the low temperature of 78 K, a relatively weak and structured emission band in the HE region (∼500 nm) appeared, which is similar to that observed in $1 \supset DCM$ and can be assigned to the emission of ligand H₂L. Unlike the others, $1 \supset \text{PX}$ presented one broad emission band ($\lambda_{\rm em}$ = 636 nm) at 298 K while dual-emission bands ($\lambda_{\rm em}$ = 636 and 700 nm) at 78 K (Fig. 3a), which could be attributed to the decrease in intermolecular Cu⋯Cu distance and the enhancing of host–guest CT at low temperature. More interestingly, $1 \supset P$ y showed dual-emission bands $(\lambda_{\text{em}} = 580 \text{ and } 673 \text{ nm})$ at 298 K, while an additional structured emission band at 450–520 nm appeared at 78 K attributed to the emission of the ligand. As shown in Fig. 1h, a short distance between the N atom and Cu (3.500 Å) was observed in the crystal of $1 \supset P$ y. We assumed, due to the lone pair electrons of N in Py, that the existence of N⋯Cu weak interactions may facilitate the host–guest CT process.

To further study the guest-mediated photoluminescence properties of inclusion complexes, we applied lifetime and quantum yield (QY) analysis. Radiative deactivation curves were collected at different temperatures for all samples. All inclusion complexes exhibit biexponential decay and the average emission lifetimes range from 18.53 to 27.70 μs at 298 K and 19.76 to 30.96 μs at 78 K (Table 1), suggesting phosphorescence emitting was mainly attributed to triplet, metalto-metal charge transfer (3 MMCT) excited states related to the Cu⋯Cu interaction (cuprophilicity) of the adjacent cages. Although the encapsulation of aromatic guests was able to extend the decay lifetime compared to the non-aromatic guest (*i.e.* DCM), there was no simple relationship between the ionization potential and emission lifetime (Table 1). Interestingly, the QYs of inclusion complexes show a linear relationship with the guest IP (Fig. 3b), and this confirms the emission can be fine-tuned by controlling the electronic properties of guests.

Conclusions

In summary, a series of inclusion complexes, composed of a $Cu₆L₃$ coordination cage and various aromatic guests, was synthesized by treating a thiophene-based bispyrazolyl ligand and $Cu₂O$ in a mixture of corresponding aromatic guests and acetonitrile. All inclusion crystals were fully characterized by NMR, powder X-ray diffraction, elemental analysis, and single-crystal X-ray diffraction. The X-ray structure analysis revealed that the intermolecular Cu⋯Cu distance (cuprophilicity) between two

adjacent cage units can be fine-tuned by controlling the volume occupancy of the guests. When the volume occupancy increases from 32.97% for Py to 47.04% for PX, the intermolecular Cu⋯Cu distance extends from 2.969 Å for Py to 3.925 Å for PX. In addition, by tailoring the ionization potential of the guest, the host–guest CT interaction can be also fine-tuned. Since the photoluminescence properties of the inclusion complexes largely related to the cuprophilic interaction and the host–guest CT process, we achieved the finetuning of the emission properties of the inclusion crystals. For instance, (1) the maximum emission peak exhibits a red shift with the decrease in volume occupancy; (2) the quantum yield decreases with the increase in ionization potential of the guests; (3) introduction of aromatic guests can increase the emission lifetime, but it did not show a linear relationship with ionization potential. These examples of mediating the phosphorescence properties of coordination cages may open a new approach for designing tunable phosphorescence metaorganic cage complexes.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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