



Singular thermochromic effects in dyeings with indigo, 6-bromoindigo, and 6,6'-dibromoindigo

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ABSTRACT

Fundamental dyeing properties of three dyes of historical importance – indigo, 6-bromoindigo, and 6,6'-dibromoindigo – on 13 fabrics are examined. The hues of the dyed fabrics vary from blue-green to blue for indigo, blue to violet for 6-bromoindigo, and violet–blue to purple for 6,6'-dibromoindigo, as determined by reflectance measurements. Many of the dyed fabrics change color markedly with application of gentle heat. For indigo and 6-bromoindigo, the color changes are predominantly towards absorption of longer wavelengths (giving a bluer fabric color), while for 6,6'-dibromoindigo, the color changes are towards absorption of shorter wavelengths (giving a redder fabric color). The greatest thermochromic effects are seen for dyed wool: with 6-bromoindigo, the color changes from violet to blue, while with 6,6'-dibromoindigo, the color changes from violet to red–purple upon brief boiling in water. Transmission electron microscopy analysis of 6-bromoindigo-dyed carbon nanotubes, used as surrogates for dyed fabric fibers, suggests that the basis of the thermochromic effect is a change in the size distribution of dye aggregates.

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1. Introduction

Indigoid dyes have long and fascinating histories. Dyeing with natural indigo, obtained from such plants as *Indigofera tinctoria*, dates to 4000 years ago [1,2]. Its application to fibers continued well into the nineteenth century. The first preparation of synthetic indigo was devised by von Baeyer [3]; this was the beginning of the end for industrial production of the natural dye. Scientists have long been interested to know why the small molecule indigo is blue [4,5]. A blue-colored molecule – blue because of a very small gap between its highest occupied molecular orbital (HOMO) and its lowest unoccupied molecular orbital (LUMO) – usually has an extended conjugated system of π electrons longer than that of indigo. The work of Klessinger and Luettker clearly illustrated that

the chromogen in indigo is the cross-conjugated H-chromophore which results in an unusually small HOMO–LUMO gap [6–8]. This gap may also be narrowed by factors which stabilize the LUMO, such as solvation or intermolecular hydrogen bonding [9]. This would result in absorption of longer wavelengths of light (giving a bathochromic or red shift), hence making the molecule appear more blue. Von Eller has explained the blue color of indigo based on the single-crystal X-ray structure analysis. She noted that indigo in the solid state forms aggregates *via* intermolecular hydrogen bonding, causing a red shift in light absorption compared to that of a single molecule [10]. In fact, indigo in the gas phase has a much shorter absorption λ_{max} in the visible region, making it appear red [11].

The brominated indigoids 6-bromoindigo (monobromoindigo, or MBI) and 6,6'-dibromoindigo (DBI) have also been used as dyes for millennia. A mixture of these two plus smaller amounts of indigo and indirubins constitutes the dye known as royal or Tyrian purple (Fig. 1) [12–16]. The highest quality of the dye was found in Tyre on the Levantine coast in ancient times; hence, the name Tyrian purple. The earliest known occurrence of this mixture,

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