Luminescent probes for the bioimaging of small anionic species in vitro and in vivo

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| Complete List of Authors: | Ashton, Trent; Deakin University, Centre for Chemistry and Biotechnology, School of Life and Environmental Sciences  
               Jolliffe, Katrina A; The University of Sydney, Chemistry  
               Pfeffer, Frederick; Deakin University, School of Life and Environment Sciences |
Luminescent probes for the bioimaging of small anionic species in vitro and in vivo

Trent D. Ashton, Katrina A. Jolliffe and Frederick M. Pfeffer*

Abstract

The ability to spatiotemporally identify the formation of specific anionic species, or track changes in their concentration inside living systems, is of critical importance in deciphering their exact biological roles and effects. The development of probes (also called bioimaging agents and intracellular sensors) to achieve this goal has become a rapidly growing branch of supramolecular chemistry. In this critical review the challenges specific to the task are identified and for a select range of small anions of environmental and biological relevance (fluoride, chloride, iodide, cyanide, pyrophosphate, bicarbonate, hydrosulphide, peroxynitrite, hypochlorite and hypobromite) a comprehensive overview of the currently available in vitro and in vivo probes is provided.

Keywords

Fluorescence, luminescence, microscopy, probe, imaging, bioimaging, ROS, RNS, RSS, anion, anion recognition, anion imaging.

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1. Introduction

1.1 Overview

The study of anion recognition is now a relatively mature science in line with the closely related field of cation recognition.\(^1-^5\) Over the last 10–15 years sustained effort from the supramolecular chemistry community has refined the fundamental principles relating to how a host interacts with a negatively charged guest.\(^1-^17\)

Similarly anion sensing has matured and an array of effective molecular detectors, operating by means of well understood principles, are now available.\(^11, ^18-^32\) An excellent recent tutorial review by Gale (see also other articles in this special issue) neatly highlights the strategies that are now widely employed in the detection and/or quantification of anionic species.\(^33\) While the field has matured, challenges still exist for the detection of anions in water, indeed, the heavily hydrated nature of anions in water makes strong binding difficult and also hinders their reactivity.\(^7, ^12, ^26, ^34\)

As the study of anion recognition and sensing has advanced supramolecular chemists have applied their fundamental knowledge to the detection of anions of biological significance.\(^14, ^21, ^35-^46\) Indeed the rise of anion recognition as a field of study was in no small part due to the fact that the majority of intracellular operations involve anionic species.\(^47\) A natural extension of such efforts is the detection or sensing of biologically relevant anions in a biologically relevant setting such as inside living cells or in living organisms.\(^30, ^35, ^43, ^45, ^48-^60\) Thus the field of anion imaging has emerged and supramolecular chemists now find themselves planning and executing the synthesis of reporters to selectively detect and indicate the presence of anions inside living cells and organisms. Probes capable of achieving this feat are amongst the most powerful resources available for elucidating the exact biological role of the target anion. While the number of probes capable of efficiently communicating an anion recognition event from such a venue is growing, it is still small when compared to the large number of intracellular sensors/probes for cationic species\(^61\) (see also other articles in this special issue). As such the field provides fertile ground for both emerging and established researchers alike.

1.2 Challenges

The ideal anion sensor functioning in vitro or in vivo must satisfy a demanding set of criteria (outlined in brief in table 1.1)\(^62-^64\) and it is clear from this list that an imaging agent must ‘do more’ than a sensor. Key challenges include (i) selecting a suitable fluorophore, (ii) choosing an effective switching mechanism and (iii) catering for the biological environment in which the probe must function (see additional discussion for these three points below). Few, if any, of the currently available probes satisfy all of these criteria and given that sensors that are truly selective for specific anions in water have only emerged in the last 10-15 years it is no surprise that the development of selective anion sensors for bioimaging applications is currently at the forefront of applied supramolecular chemistry.
Table 1.1 Design criteria for anion sensors versus anion probes in vitro and in vivo.

<table>
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<th>For recognition/sensing in water</th>
<th>For recognition/sensing in vitro and in vivo</th>
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<td>Selective for the target in water</td>
<td>Selective for target in cells/small organisms</td>
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<tr>
<td>Strong binding/signalling and low detection limit</td>
<td>Sensitive at relevant biological concentrations (e.g. Cl(^-) vs ONOO(^-))</td>
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<tr>
<td>Water Soluble</td>
<td>Water soluble yet amphiphilic for cell permeability.</td>
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<td>“switch on” or ratiometric</td>
<td>“switch on” or ratiometric</td>
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<tr>
<td>Large extinction coefficient, quantum yield and Stokes shift.</td>
<td>Large extinction coefficient, quantum yield and Stokes shift.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red or NIR emissive</td>
<td>Photostable and metabolically stable</td>
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1.2.1 The fluorophore

An extensive range of fluorophores are now available, however, for in vivo work those that are not just bright (ε × Φ) but have NIR emission are of considerable benefit.\(^{54,65-67}\) A “window” of increased optical transparency exists in the range 650 to 950 nm and at these wavelengths tissue autofluorescence is minimised and the major interferences (haemoglobin, lipids and water) absorb to a less significant extent.\(^{66}\) The use of NIR emission also minimises light scattering and is far less likely to damage the living system. The use of multiphoton excitation (or inverse Stokes) techniques is also of particular relevance for in vivo studies\(^{68,69}\) and several multiphoton probes for anions are described herein. For in vitro studies which require little photon penetration the requirements are slightly more forgiving and probes with emission wavelengths ranging to 350 nm have been successfully used. In all cases a large Stokes shift is desirable to minimise light scattering. Emission wavelengths (and in turn Stokes shift) are known to be influenced by a number of factors including the structure and solvent reorganisation upon excitation.\(^{70-72}\) Recently, quantum chemical calculations have been employed in the design of fluorophores with ca. 200 nm Stokes shift.\(^{73}\)

While well-known fluorophores (such as rhodamine, fluorescein, BODIPY and cyanine\(^{48,64,74-77}\)) are common in anion imaging studies, several unconventional fluorophores (e.g. Si, Se, Ge and Te rhodamines\(^{78,79}\) and squarine-rotaxanes\(^{54}\)) have successfully been used in recent years. An increasing number of effective probes also employ lanthanide based luminescence for signal transductance.\(^{45,56,80-83}\)

1.2.2 The switch

The ideal probe must either “switch on” in the presence of the target analyte or if quantitation is required the probe should arrive with an “internal standard” present i.e. the active signalling luminophore should be coupled to a fluorophore that has a constant unwavering response in the biological environment. Such ratiometric sensing\(^{84,85}\) allows exact quantification of the target as the response from the active signalling moiety can be measured against that of the “constant” fluorophore. Such requirements can also be met if both the unbound and bound probe are fluorescent at measurably distinct wavelengths. A recent article by Sessler highlights the use of
ratiometric probes for bioimaging applications. Unfortunately, for many anions (such as Cl⁻, I⁻, HCO₃⁻ and BrO⁻) the current list of selective “switch on” and ratiometric probes is limited. A probe can also be classified according to the electronic event by which fluorescence is “switched” or modulated (for example ICT/PET modulation, FRET, heavy ion effect, and excimer formation). Many sensors—known as chemodosimeters—have been designed such that a chemical reaction controls this modulation and it is logical that these strategies have been adopted by those pursuing the goal of in vitro and in vivo imaging. While the chemodosimeter approach is by far the most popular (and is excellent for the selective detection of a specific species) the chemodosimeter is, in most instances, irreversibly transformed to the signalling moiety and as such true spatiotemporal information cannot be gleaned. Continued effort from the research community is required to achieve the goal of tracking rather than trapping the anionic species of interest. Another very popular approach to modulating fluorescence is the displacement approach. The luminophore is quenched by a species that is non-covalently attached and the luminophore/quencher combination is chosen such that the target anion interacts with the quencher more strongly than it does with the luminophore. Hence the quencher is displaced, the luminophore is released and fluorescence is “switched on”.

1.2.3 The biological environment

The solvent for life is water, hence the probe must possess a degree of water solubility and many hydrophobic probes have been made more biocompatible by attaching either a PEG or a sugar. Nevertheless, a hydrophilic/hydrophobic (amphipathic) balance must be struck such that the sensor can passively diffuse through cell membranes. In the wider field of cellular imaging a commonly employed manoeuvre to ensure uptake is to mask polar hydroxy groups and carboxylates as esters (especially acetoxymethyl (AM) esters) that are subsequently hydrolysed by one of the myriad of intracellular esterases to release the desired probe. This approach has been adopted in the field of anion imaging agents and three peroxynitrite probes are shown in Figure 1 as examples. The early (1997) dichlorodihydrofluorescein was used as the diacetate diester DA-DCHF and the more recent (2010) HKGreen3 employed a single acetate. The tetra-acetoxymethyl ester AM-DTTA passively diffused into cells whereupon the tetracarboxylate ligand (DTTA) was liberated and in the presence of terbium and europium the desired lanthanide probes assembled in cellulo. An added benefit of this approach is that the unmasked probe is typically retained inside the cell, nevertheless, even probes containing carboxylates can be expelled from the cell by active anion transport mechanisms.
Fig 1.1 Examples of peroxynitrite probes DA-DCHF, HKGreen3 and AM-DTTA in which intracellular uptake and subsequent trapping was performed using a lipophilic ester (highlighted in red) that was cleaved \textit{in vivo} by intracellular esterases.

Ideally once the probe is inside the living entity it should localise in the most relevant sub-cellular compartment. Guidelines to predict the likely compartmentalisation of new probes are not unequivocally established\textsuperscript{63, 95} and colocalisation studies with well-established dyes are generally required. Nevertheless some general trends exist: (i) cationic probes gravitate to the mitochondria\textsuperscript{96, 97} as the mitochondrial membrane is negative polarised and (ii) weakly basic probes accumulate within the more acidic lysosomes.\textsuperscript{98} These general guidelines have also been adopted in the field of anion bioimaging, for example, the recently described probes for hypochlorite Rh-TPP and Rh-Py (figure 2)\textsuperscript{99} employ a triphenylphosphonium and pyridinium appendage respectively for mitochondrial localisation. The intracellular sensor for hydrosulfide Lyso-NHS used a morpholine substituent for lysosomal localisation.\textsuperscript{100}

Fig 2 Examples of probes that localise in the mitochondria (Rh-TPP, Rh-Py) and lysosome (Lyso-NHS).

1.3 Structure of this review

In conjunction with a comprehensive listing of recent examples (the majority of examples are from the last 5 years) the broad concept of this review is to provide both a “\textit{why}” and “\textit{how to}” target the specific anion of interest. For each of the anions covered herein a justification of the cellular relevance is first provided—even anions of obvious environmental importance (such as cyanide and fluoride) have considerable relevance and interest for intracellular studies (see section 2). Also covered are a number of anions that are of relevance \textit{primarily} at a cellular level (see section 3), for example bicarbonate plays a critical role in living systems as a measure of CO\textsubscript{2} uptake/respiration.
(hypercapnia/hypercapnia = CO₂/HCO₃⁻ poisoning respiratory acidosis). Similarly, reactive oxygen and nitrogen species (such as hypochlorite ClO⁻ and peroxynitrite ONOO⁻) have critical in vivo roles and elevated levels of these species are associated with many disease states (see section 4). Where possible examples have been grouped examples by the means (mechanism) by which sensing is achieved and also whether the probes are: intensity modulated ("switch off" or "switch on") or ratiometric (wavelength modulation). The terms fluorescent probe, anion imaging agent and intracellular sensor are all used interchangeably.
2. Anions of environmental and biological relevance

There now exists a number of excellent sensors for anions such as fluoride and cyanide,\textsuperscript{35, 37, 39, 101} widely recognised as anions of environmental concern. While not commonly appreciated, these anions also have significant relevance in a biological setting and a number of intracellular probes have been developed for their detection. Chloride has a more passive, nonetheless important, role in the environment and, like iodide, plays an important physiological role.\textsuperscript{102} Anions covered in this section are fluoride, chloride, iodide and cyanide.

2.1 FLUORIDE

Fluoride is a very well-known anion due to its use in drinking water and toothpaste to prevent dental caries and osteoporosis.\textsuperscript{103} Nevertheless excess fluoride is responsible for a number of deleterious conditions including dental and skeletal fluorosis and is now linked to cancer and neurotoxicity.\textsuperscript{104-106} Probes capable of selectively indicating fluoride \textit{in vitro} and \textit{in vivo} may assist in clarifying the exact biological roles of this anion.

Given its “Janus” behaviour the recognition and sensing of fluoride has been a focus of supramolecular chemists.\textsuperscript{37, 39, 101, 107, 108} Two approaches that have been widely used in the design of both sensors and bioimaging agents are (i) deprotonation (section 2.1.1) and (ii) desilylation (section 2.1.2). \textit{Deprotonation}, mediated by the strongly basic fluoride anion, leading to enhanced ICT of a luminophore, was one of the first means by which this anion was detected,\textsuperscript{18, 109-112} and while the approach has been used for imaging, this design is prone to interference from other basic anions (such as acetates). By far the most common approach employs the fluoride mediated \textit{desilylation} reaction of chemodosimeters that have been designed with a silyl ether.

2.1.1 Fluoride mediated deprotonation

The phenolic naphthalimde probe \textit{NIM} (Fig 2.1) was reported in 2014.\textsuperscript{113} The probe was both colourimetric (strong absorption band emerging at 641 nm in the presence of F\textsuperscript{-}) and fluorescence “switch off” (\(\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 490\) nm, \(\lambda_{\text{em}} = 582\) nm decreases). In solution, a similar, yet less pronounced, change was also recorded with acetate—a common interferent for probes operating by means of deprotonation. Of interest, and hinting at an additional role for this probe, the fluorescence of the unreacted probe was considerably enhanced in the lysosomes of cancer cells as opposed to healthy cells. Preliminary experiments indicate that both a protein-rich and an acidic environment (such as in cell lysosomes) were required for the enhancement.

![Fig 2.1 Structure, and deprotonation, of NIM with fluoride.](image)

The ratiometric probe 2 (Fig 2.2) containing a similar OH (hydroxynaphthalene) was reported by Liu and Ke in 2014.\textsuperscript{114} A PEG cyanoacrylate was included to enhance ICT and also balance solubility. The probe was selective to fluoride (no significant fluorescent changes were elicited by AcO\textsuperscript{-}) and the
emission intensity ratio $I_{490}/I_{450}$ nm could be used to quantitate fluoride up to 10 equivalents with a limit of detection (LOD) of 8.5 μM. The probe was cell permeable, non-toxic to prostate cancer (PC3) and epithelial cervical cancer (HeLa) cells and located in the cytoplasm of these cells (confirmed using the red nuclear stain propidium iodide—PI). In PC3 cells a clear change in emission colour was observed when cells pre-treated with 2 were exposed to fluoride.

![Fig 2.2](image)

**Fig 2.2** TOP: Structure of hydroxynaphthalene 1. BOTTOM: PC3 cells incubated with 1 (10 μM) and nucleus stain propidium iodide (a) Red channel image; (b) Green channel image of (a); (c) overlay of (a) and (b). PC3 cells incubated with 1, NaF and propidium iodide (d) Red channel image; (e) blue channel image of (d); (f) overlay of (d) and (e). Image reproduced with permission.

A recent report by Mahapatra (2014) outlined the ratiometric BODIPY azaindole 4 (Fig 2.3) which was synthesised in three steps. In solution studies (7:3 CH$_3$CN:H$_2$O) the strong emission at 512 nm ($\lambda_{ex} = 350$ nm) decreased upon addition of fluoride (and to a similar extent acetate) as weak emission at 425 nm increased and the ratio $F_{425}/F_{512}$ was used to determine $F^-$ concentration (< 200 equivalents). The N-H of indole has been used previously for the recognition and sensing of fluoride anions and for probe 4 deprotonation significantly enhanced ICT and a clear change in fluorescence emission was recorded in murine macrophages (RAW264.7) upon addition of fluoride.

![Fig 2.3](image)

**Fig 2.3** TOP: Structure, and deprotonation, of probe 2 by $F^-$. BOTTOM: Images of RAW 264.7 cells. (a) Bright field image; (b) nuclei stained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI); (c) cells treated with probe 4; (d)
In 2013 Chellappa reported the rhodamine based probe RDF-1 (Fig 2.4) that operates by means of deprotonation leading to spirocycle ring opening. A strong “switch on” fluorescence response at 557 nm was observed in the presence of \( \text{F}^- \). In HeLa cells RDF-1 was non-toxic and within 10 minutes of NaF addition significant fluorescence enhancement was observed.

![Image of RDF-1 structure and reaction with F⁻](image)

Fig 2.4 TOP: Structure and reaction of rhodamine probe RDF-1 with F⁻. BOTTOM: (a) fluorescence image of HeLa cells incubated with RDF-1; (b) corresponding bright-field image; (c) fluorescence image of HeLa cells incubated with RDF-1 and NaF; (d) Overlaid images of HeLa cells (b and c). Image reproduced with permission.

2.2.2 Fluoride mediated desilylation

Many chemodosimeter have been designed to use the selective reaction of fluoride with silicon (incorporated as a Si-O-C bond) to form the exceptionally strong Si-F bond (> 800 kJ mol\(^{-1}\)). The approach is essentially identical to the fluoride mediated cleavage of silyl containing protecting groups. For the probes shown herein the hydroxy fragment is released as a phenoxide anion which is a component of an ICT fluorophore; hence the desilylation reaction leads to a dramatic fluorescence “switch on”.

One of the earliest “switch on” probes functioning by means of desilylation, a TBDPSO-coumarin (TBPCA, Fig 2.5), was published by Park and Hong in 2009. The probe readily entered cells and was retained with no toxicity. Images in human epithelial lung carcinoma A549 cells show clear blue fluorescence upon exposure to NaF.

![Image of TBDPSO-coumarin and its fluorescence](image)
The “switch on”, red emitting probe 8 (Fig. 2.6) was recently published by Zhu (2014).\textsuperscript{121} Synthesis of the masked ICT fluorophore involved aldol type reaction of the potential electron donor 4-OTBPS-benzaldehyde with the electron withdrawn 2-dicyanomethylene-3-cyano-4,5,5-trimethyl-2,5-dihydrofuran (TCF). For probe 8 a linear emission “switch on” at 612 nm was observed upon reaction with fluoride and a LOD = 0.07 mM was determined. The absorbtion spectra could be used to quantify the amount of fluoride present in solution due to the linear relationship between the increase at 596 nm and the decrease at 438 nm. Imaging was performed in live HeLa cells and 10 μM NaF was readily visualised using fluorescence microscopy.

The highly selective, ratiometric, benzothiazolium hemicyanine 10 (Fig 2.7) developed by Ma, Du and Zhang (2011)\textsuperscript{122} could monitor fluoride concentration using the ratio $F_{500}/F_{558}$. A limit of detection (0.08 nM) was identified and in live RAW 264.7 macrophages a distinct ratiometric fluorescence response was observed upon addition of buffered NaF. The probe was also shown to penetrate rapidly (< 5 minutes) and was non-toxic.
A variation on the desilylation probe was reported by Zhang in 2013. In the presence of fluoride, desilylation of the functionalised naphthalimide chemodosimeter 12 (Fig 2.8) was immediately followed by fragmentation to give the conjugate base of 4-hydroxynaphthalimide 13. In solution studies a linear fluorescence “switch on” ($\lambda_{em} = 560$ nm) was realised (20-fold increase in one hour with only 1.0 equivalent of $F^-$; LOD = 0.35 $\mu$g L$^{-1}$). After incubation of probe 12 with human epithelial carcinoma cells (A549) addition of a solution of NaF elicited a distinct green fluorescent response.

![Fig 2.8](image)

**Fig 2.8** TOP: Functionalised naphthalimide probe 12 and its reaction with $F^-$; inset shows fragmentation mechanism. BOTTOM: (a) Bright-field image of A549 cells incubated with 12 (20 $\mu$M) for 24 h (a) bright field (b) without NaF (c) with NaF (50mM). Image reproduced with permission.

With an eye to enhanced solubility the PEG-thiourea-fluorescein probe PEG-FITC-Si (Fig 2.9) was synthesised by Zeng and Wu (2013) in two steps from the corresponding fluorescein isocyanate. Again in the presence of fluoride a dramatic increase in fluorescence ($\lambda_{ex} = 490$ nm, $\lambda_{em} = 526$ nm) was observed (LOD = 19 ppb). Imaging was successfully achieved in HeLa and murine fibroblasts (L929) only 15 minutes following addition of fluoride (100 $\mu$M) with perinuclear probe localisation.

![Fig 2.9](image)
The TBSO-benzothiazole **BBTGA** (Fig. 2.10), also deliberately designed for biocompatibility by conjugating glucosamine to improve solubility, was reported by Wang in 2013. A linear 30-fold fluorescence enhancement ($\lambda_{em} = 508$ nm) was noted 5 minutes after the addition of NaF in PBS buffer. The probe was water soluble, non-toxic and when a buffered solution of NaF (0.1 mM) was added to human nasopharyngeal epidermal carcinoma (KB) cells that had been pre-treated with a dilute solution of **BBTGA** strong fluorescence was observed.

Again with solubility and biocompatibility in mind the carbohydrate conjugate probe **15** (Fig. 2.10) was synthesised by Du (2011) using the well-known copper assisted azide alkyne cycloaddition (CuAAC). A very strong (160 fold), linear, fluorescence “switch on” response ($\lambda_{em} = 520$ nm) was observed with increasing NaF (from 0 to 1.4 mM, probe concentration 50 $\mu$M) and a limit of detection of 10.5 $\mu$M was identified. A strong fluorescence response was observed upon addition of NaF solution to Hep2G cells that had been incubated with **15** (Fig 2.11).

The pyrene dimer **16** (Fig. 2.12) containing a disilane (Si-Si) bond was designed and constructed by Li and Shen (2012). Ratiometric measurement in solution (THF:H$_2$O) was possible as the well-known pyrene excimer fluorescence at 470 nm ceased upon reaction of the probe with fluoride and only monomer emission at 378 nm was present. Up to 6 equivalents of F$^-$ could be measured using
Loading of 16 into HeLa cells was performed using polylactic acid nanoparticles and upon exposure to fluoride a clear change in emission was detected.

\[ \lambda_{\text{ex}} = 475 \text{ nm}, \lambda_{\text{em}} = 378 \text{ nm} \]

\[ \lambda_{\text{ex}} = 365 \text{ nm}, \lambda_{\text{em}} = 470 \text{ nm} \]

**Fig 2.12** TOP: Structure and reaction of pyrene dimer 16 with F\(^{-}\). BOTTOM: Images of live HeLa cells incubated with probe 16; (a) emission 410–440 nm (blue channel) (b) emission 440–600 nm (green channel), (c) overlaid a and b, (d) bright-field transmission image. The above cells after addition of 100 μM F\(^{-}\) (e) emission 410–440 nm, (f) 440–600 nm, (g) overlaid e and f, (h) bright-field transmission image. Image reproduced with permission.

In 2012 Lee, Kim and Ahn published an interesting variant on the desilylation probe.\(^{126}\) Upon desilylation the carefully functionalised aminonaphthalene P1 (Fig 2.13) reacts in an additional intramolecular process to give the extended aminocoumarin 20. A fluorescence “switch on” (\(\lambda_{\text{em}} = 595 \text{ nm}\)) was observed in both murine metastatic melanoma (B16F10) cells and also in live zebrafish. Imaging was accomplished using two photon microscopy (TPM) and the lower excitation energy associated with this technique is perfect for \textit{in vivo} research to understand how fluoride is distributed in a whole body context. In the zebrafish, increased concentrations of F\(^{-}\) in the tail and abdomen were observed at \(t = 2 \text{ hr}\) versus \(t = 30 \text{ min}\).
A recent report (2014) by Song also outlined a dicyanoacrylate “switch on” probe (21, Fig 2.13) in which a desilylation cascade approach was used to create a red fluorescent iminocoumarin. The probe itself was non-fluorescent and for the product a Stokes shift of more than 140 nm was recorded. Using fluorescence microscopy the probe was shown to be readily internalised and was capable of indicating the presence of fluoride in living human keratinocyte (HaCaT) cells (not shown).

The related probe FP (Fig 2.13) from the group of Peng (2014), also relies on an additional reaction occurring post Si cleaving. The probe was synthesised from the corresponding quinolinecarbaldehyde and the final product of the reaction sequence is a highly fluorescent (Φ_F = 0.84, λ_ex = 441 nm, λ_em = 485 nm) aminobenzopyranimine. The probe was shown to be relatively non-toxic, localised in the mitochondria of both breast cancer (MCF-7) and fibroblast-like (COS-7) cells and fluorescence was dramatically “switched on” when the cells were treated with dilute solutions of NaF (Fig 2.14).
2.1.3 Miscellaneous

A Se-B bond can be selectively cleaved by fluoride and the unusual red emitting BODIPY probe \text{22} (Fig 2.15) reported by Tang (2011) was designed on this principle.\textsuperscript{129} The presence of Se quenched fluorescence but upon reaction with fluoride the “usual” F-B bond was formed (\text{23}) and red fluorescence ($\lambda_{ex} = 640$ nm, $\lambda_{em} = 690$ nm) was “switched on” (ca. three-fold enhancement). The chemodosimeter was selective for fluoride and the increased fluorescent response was readily observed in human hepatoma cells (HepG2) pretreated with F$^-$.  

\begin{align*}
&\text{22} & & \text{F}^- & & \text{23} \\
&\text{Br} & & \text{F} & & \text{Br} \\
&\text{F} & & \text{Se} & & \text{Br} \\
&\text{Br} & & \text{CF}_3 & & \\
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\lambda_{ex} &= 660 \text{ nm}, \\
\lambda_{em} &= 690 \text{ nm}
\end{align*}

Fig 2.15 TOP: structure and reaction of Se BODIPY \text{22} with F$^-$. BOTTOM: Images of living HepG2 cells incubated with (a) probe \text{22} for 1 h; (b) F$^-$ for 1 h then probe \text{22} for 1 h. Images (c) and (d) are bright field images of (a) and (b), respectively. Image reproduced with permission.\textsuperscript{129}

2.2 CHLORIDE

Chloride is the most abundant anion in living organisms and its transport across cellular membranes is essential for a number of physiological processes including the maintenance of cell volume, acidification of internal compartments and even electrical excitability. Impaired transport of this anion due to a of genetic mutation in a cAMP-regulated Cl$^{-}$ channel defines the condition known as cystic fibrosis (CF).\textsuperscript{130} Indeed, the pursuit of biologically active chloride transporters to remedy this condition is an important current goal for supramolecular chemists.\textsuperscript{131-138}

Other than some recent developments (section 2.2.3) the strategy employed in the design of chloride imaging agents relies on halide mediated collisional quenching (section 2.2.1) and as such the majority of Cl$^-$ probes are “switch off”. Nevertheless by attaching such probes to “constant” fluorophores several ratiometric probes have been successfully designed and used (section 2.2.2).
2.2.1 Chloride mediated collisional quenching

Due to its recognised physiological importance the development of functionalised quinolones (such as SPQ and MEQ, Fig. 2.16) as chloride imaging agents was accomplished long before other anions were targeted and several are commercially available. Nevertheless, these quinolone based probes are “switch off”; they are not selective for chloride amongst other halides and they also suffer from photobleaching. Furthermore, unless invasive techniques are used to deliver the probe into cells, probes such as MEQ must be reduced (using NaBH₄) to the charge neutral, cell permeable dihydro form (diHMEQ) first which following uptake is oxidised back to the Cl⁻ responsive form. Despite their limitations, functionalised quinolone probes have proven very useful. Clear images were obtained by Inglefield who used MEQ (λ_em = 320 nm) to confirm Cl⁻ transport (mediated by manipulating the GABA_A ion channel, Fig. 2.16) into neuronal cells obtained from a rat brain slice, and Durack employed SPQ to measure intracellular chloride in porcine lymphocytes using flow cytometry. Recently this style of probe has also been shown to be compatible with two-photon excitation.

![Fig 2.16](image)

**Fig. 2.16** TOP: Structure of SPQ, MEQ and the cell permeable diHMEQ probes for Cl⁻. BOTTOM: images of MEQ-loaded neurons (left) before and (right) 20 min after GABA application. Scale = 15 μm. Image reproduced with permission.

The identification of N-methylacridinium-9-carboxamide MACA (λ_em = 500 nm) and also the bisacridinium lucigenin (λ_em = 506 nm) as longer wavelength variants was a welcome development. However, while these compounds have been used successfully in vesicle/liposome based studies they were shown to be unstable in cell based studies.

![Fig 2.17](image)

**Fig. 2.17** Acridine and quinolinium “switch off” probes MACA and lucigenin.

2.2.2 “Switch on” and ratiometric probes

Ratiometric measurement of intracellular chloride has been achieved by conjugating the chloride sensitive methoxyquinoline to the “constant” dimethyaminoquinoline fluorophore to give bis-
DMXPQ ($\lambda_{em} = 450$ for MQ vs $\lambda_{em} = 565$ nm for DMQ, Fig 2.18). This dimer distributed uniformly in the cytoplasm and was reported to be stable and non-toxic. Related compounds could be reduced (in a similar process to that for MEQ) for non-invasive cell loading. While not classed as a small molecule the bisacridinium tetramethylrhodamine conjugate BAC-TMR-dextran (Fig 2.18) was constructed from the carbohydrate aminodextran. Green emission from the bisacridinium ($\lambda_{em} = 505$ nm) was quenched on addition of Cl$^-$ while red rhodamine emission remained constant. The ratiometric probe was successfully used for intracellular imaging to link chloride concentration to endosomal acidification.

More recently, the ratiometric probe MQAF (Fig 2.19) was reported by Tang (2012). The structure consisted of the “switch off” methoxyquinolium combined with aminofluorescein and monitoring at two channels [chloride sensitive emission $\lambda_{ex} = 318$ nm, $\lambda_{em} = 436$ nm and insensitive $\lambda_{ex} = 494$ nm, $\lambda_{em} = 519$ nm] gave accurate measurements of Cl$^-$ concentration. This probe was successfully used in ventricular myocytes to illustrate that induced ischemia results in increased Cl$^-$ concentration. In 2014 the same group published the ratiometric methoxyquinolium dansyl combination (MQDS, Fig 19) and the ratio $\lambda_{em} = 440$ nm against $\lambda_{em} = 560$ nm was used to monitor chloride concentration. Imaging of liver cancer cells (HepG2) was performed and intracellular chloride concentration was successfully monitored as the extracellular levels in the surrounding media were deliberately increased (Fig 2.19).
Fig 2.19. TOP: Structures of ratiometric quinolium conjugates MQAF and MQDS. BOTTOM: Images of HepG2 cells loaded with MQDS exposed to: A-F, 0-140 mM chloride. Top in each row is blue channel, middle is red channel and the bottom is a ratio image ($F_{\text{red}}/F_{\text{blue}}$). Scale = 25 μm. Image reproduced with permission.\(^\text{154}\)

2.2.3 Recent developments

A “switch on” probe selective for \textit{in vitro} or \textit{in vivo} chloride has yet to be reported however the groups of Fusi and also Smith are getting close. Fusi reported that both the Cd(II) complex with nitrobenzooxadiazole-tetraazacyclododecane \(^\text{24}\) ($\lambda_{\text{ex}}$=410 nm, $\lambda_{\text{em}}$=520 nm) and also the bis Zn(II) complex of \(^\text{25}\) ($\lambda_{\text{ex}}$ = 325 nm $\lambda_{\text{em}}$ =543 nm) act as “switch on” sensors for halides (Cl$^-$ and F$^-$).\(^\text{155, 156}\) It was postulated that for both complexes the metal to nitrogen (nitrobenzooxadiazole) distance and M to N (cyclam) distances change upon binding of chloride and it is the balance between fluorescence enhancement (ICT to nitrobenzooxadiazole) from freeing the N-nitrobenzooxadiazole nitrogen and quenching (PET) of nitrobenzooxadiazole fluorescence by the cyclam that leads to the fluorescence modulation. The ligands have been internalised in human neuroblastoma (HeLa) cells to give fluorescence signals, however, images of the halogen sensitive metal complexes functioning in cells have not yet been published.

Fig 2.20 NBD-cyclam ligand \(^\text{24}\) and related ditopic \(^\text{25}\).
Another new, and very interesting, class of chloride probes are the squaraine-rotaxanes developed by Smith (Fig 2.21). The squaraines have been somewhat overlooked as a biologically compatible fluorophore due to their susceptibility to hydrolysis. In contrast, hydroxysquaraines have been found to be much more stable and for rotaxane interaction with chloride shifts the surrounding macrocycle slightly along the squaraine “axle” which in turn leads to fluorescence modulation. While not yet demonstrated in an intracellular setting squaraine-rotaxane probes are red emissive, ratiometric (in acetone \( \lambda_{\text{em}} = 698 \text{ nm} \) decreases and \( \lambda_{\text{em}} = 665 \text{ nm} \) increases) and, unlike the first generation of probes they are selective for chloride (I\(^-\) is not bound; Br\(^-\) binding is 10 fold weaker than that of Cl\(^-\)) and thus have tremendous potential for further development in an intracellular setting.

![Fluorescent Cl⁻ sensor](image)

**Fig. 2.21** Fluorescent Cl⁻ sensor 26 based on a squaraine-rotaxane shuttle. Image reproduced with permission.

2.3 Iodide

In the environment iodide occurs naturally in minerals (alutarite and iodargyte) and it is interesting that AgI is used by humans as a as a nucleation agent in “cloud seeding” programs due a similarity in crystal structure to that of water ice. Iodide is also a common additive to table salt as deficiencies can lead to the condition known as goitre. Indeed the consumption of trace amounts of iodide is essential for human health—the anion is transported to, and accumulated in, the thyroid gland for incorporation into the iodine containing hormones.

Selective probes for iodide bioimaging are rare. It is interesting to note that the early probes for chloride such as SPQ and MEQ (see Fig 2.16) were actually more sensitive to iodide than chloride, nevertheless the far greater concentration of chloride resulted in minimal interference.

2.3.1 Recent developments

A recent publication from Mahapatra (2012) outlines a successful displacement approach for the detection of iodide in *Candida albicans* (IMTECH3018) cells. The complexation of Hg(II) by the thiosemicarbazole ligand 27 (Fig 2.22) quenches the inherent fluorescence of the carbazole
fluorophore (heavy metal effect). Iodide is capable of displacing Hg(II), liberating the highly fluorescent carbazole ($\lambda_{em} = 425$ nm) and a four-fold fluorescence “switch on” ($\lambda_{em} = 425$ nm) was observed. Importantly, selectivity for iodide over other halides was excellent.

![Fig 2.22](image)

**Fig 2.22** TOP: Structure and reaction of iodide probe $27-\text{Hg(II)}$; BOTTOM: Fluorescence images of *Candida albicans* (a) cells only, (b) cells with $27$, (c) cells with $27$ after addition of Hg(II) (5 μM), (d) cells with $27$ and Hg(II) (25 μM), (e) cells with the preformed $27-\text{Hg(II)}$ complex and KI, (f) same as (e) after 10 min. Image used with permission.

2.4 CYANIDE

Cyanide has a long history of use in industry and is also well known as an environmental poison but for cystic fibrosis (CF) sufferers $\text{CN}^{-}$ has a particularly sinister role. Infection with *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (PA) is common amongst patients with CF and PA is a cyanogenic bacteria (synthesises $\text{CN}^{-}$) and *in vivo* cyanide functions as a potent inhibitor of cellular respiration. Indeed PA-mediated cyanogenesis has an acknowledged role in the pathogenesis of CF lung disease. Less common, but more problematic is infection with *Burkholderia cepacia* complex (Bcc) which is typically multidrug resistant and is also cyanogenic. Hence diagnostics for $\text{CN}^{-}$ *in vivo* would be welcome for rapid identification of these problematic lung infections. Other sources of *in vivo* cyanide come from cyanogenic glycosides produced by some plants as part of their innate defence system (for example in almond seeds) and these glycosides can be enzymatically hydrolysed to produce free $\text{CN}^{-}$ in living tissues.

A number of strategies exist for the detection of cyanide but the most common approaches for imaging $\text{CN}^{-}$ rely on its (i) nucleophilicity or (ii) affinity for copper ions. The nucleophilicity of cyanide has been exploited in the design of chemodosimeters (see section 2.4.1). Typically, nucleophilic attack of $\text{CN}^{-}$ at a chemodosimeter incorporating a C=O (aldehyde), C=N, C=C-CN or related functionality results in a product in which conjugation at some point of the probe is broken and in turn the fluorescence response is modulated. The other successfully used approach involves the displacement of copper (Section 2.4.2). These probes are functionalised with copper chelating groups such that when Cu(II) is introduced the resultant assembly exists in quenched form (heavy/transition metal ion induced quenching). Cyanide has a very high affinity for copper and is...
capable of selectively displacing the fluorophore. A very stable Cu(CN)$_2$ species is formed and the fluorophore is liberated—“switched on”.

2.4.1 Cyanide as a nucleophile

A relatively early example (2007) was the coumarin aldehyde 28 (Fig 2.23) by Kim and Hong.\textsuperscript{169} This probe incorporated a structure known to function by means of the excited state intramolecular proton transfer (ESIPT) principle.\textsuperscript{170} Attack at the aldehyde occurs in the vicinity of an acidic OH (phenol) which ultimately leads to formation of a cyanohydrin and a phenoxide anion. As the phenoxide is part of an ICT fluorophore, its formation leads to a dramatic enhancement of fluorescence ($\lambda_{em} = 450$ nm). Proton transfer to form 30 was confirmed by the significant upfield shift in the $^1$H NMR spectrum as the phenolic proton ($\delta_H = 10.1$ ppm) was “transferred” to the cyanohydrin ($\delta_H = 6.1$ ppm). While microscopy was not performed a fluorescent plate reader was used to confirm selective “switch-on” ($\lambda_{ex} = 350$ nm, $\lambda_{em} = 450$ nm) cyanide sensing in murine embryonal carcinoma (P19) cells.

![Fig 2.23](image)

Fig 2.23 Coumarin based ESIPT sensor 28 for the detection of cyanide.

Yoon, designed the ESIPT hydroxyfluorescein aldehyde probes (both mono and di were synthesised; dialdehyde 31 shown in Fig. 2.24) for microfluidic sensing of cyanide as well as both in vitro and in vivo probes for cyanide.\textsuperscript{171, 172} Formation of the phenoxide in this instance leads to spirocyclic ring opening and strong fluorescence “switch on” ($\lambda_{em} = 520$ nm). Using dialdehyde 31 the imaging of cyanide in BALB/c nude mouse model was accomplished (Fig 2.24) in vivo.\textsuperscript{172} This probe was able to detect, in the lungs of the mice, increased levels of cyanide due to infection caused by PA and Bcc. The probe itself did not cause adverse effects when injected as a DMSO solution directly into the lungs of the mice.

![Fig 2.24](image)

Fig 2.24 TOP: Fluorescein dialdehyde chemodosimeter 31 for $\text{CN}^-$.$\text{CN}^-$. BOTTOM: In vivo images of $\text{CN}^-$ in the lungs after various incubation times after infection with PA and Bcc. Colour images were reconstructed from inverted fluorescence images. Image reproduced with permission.\textsuperscript{172}

The salicaldehyde functionalised fluorene ESIPT probe FSal (Fig. 2.25) was reported by Malik in 2014.\textsuperscript{173} The sensor could detect cyanide in solution at very low concentration (< 0.1 ppb) by
reaction to form the corresponding cyanohydrin leading to a strong fluorescence ‘switch-on’ ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 329 \text{ nm}, \lambda_{\text{em}} = 520 \text{ nm}$). The probe was capable of imaging cyanide (as tetrabutylammonium cyanide, TBACN) in human neuroblasts (SH-SY5Y) and the probe was both highly selective and non-toxic.

![Reaction scheme](image)

Fig 2.25 TOP: Structure and reaction of fluorene based FSal with $\text{-CN}$. BOTTOM: images of SH-SY5Y neuronal cells which were incubated with (left) FSal alone and (right) FSal then TBACN. Image reproduced with permission.\textsuperscript{173}

The “switch off” BODIPY dialdehyde 34 (Fig. 2.26) was reported by Ravikanth in 2013.\textsuperscript{174} Using NMR spectroscopy the probe was clearly shown to react with two equivalents of $\text{-CN}$ and fluorescence ($\lambda_{\text{em}} = 554 \text{ nm}$) was quenched with the addition of 2.2 equivalents of the anion. In human breast adenocarcinoma cells (MDA-MB-231) the probe was non-toxic and the intense green fluorescence of the probe was quenched upon treatment of the cells with $\text{-CN}$.

![Reaction scheme](image)

Fig 2.26 TOP: structure and reaction of BODIPY dialdehyde 34 with $\text{-CN}$. BOTTOM: images of MDA-MB-231 cells (A) treated with 34 only and (B) after incubation with 34 and $\text{-CN}$. Left is bright field, centre is fluorescence and right is overlay image. Scale = 50 μm. Image reproduced with permission.\textsuperscript{174}
The ratiometric aminocoumarin probe **Coum-1** (Fig 2.17) reported by Li (2012)\(^{175}\) possesses a reactive dicynoacrylate appendage (readily installed using the reaction of malononitrile with the corresponding coumarin aldehyde). A distinct response (both colourimetric and fluorescent) was observed following the conjugate addition reaction of cyanide to the alkene. The diminished length of the ICT system leads to a shift in both absorption and emission maxima and using excitation at \(\lambda = 447\) nm ratiometric measurement of cyanide could be performed [initial coumarin \((\phi_F = 0.45, \lambda_{em} = 585\) nm), product **Coum-CN** \((\phi_F = 0.33, \lambda_{em} = 495\) nm)]. An impressive 470 fold increase in \(F_{495}/F_{585}\) was realised with the addition of only 1.0 equivalent of \(\bar{CN}\). The probe was successfully used for the detection of cyanide in HeLa cells by comparing emission from the red and green channels.

![Fig 2.27](image)

**Fig 2.27.** TOP: Structure and chemodosimetric reaction of **Coum-1** with \(\bar{CN}\). BOTTOM: images of HeLa cells incubated with **Coum-1** with and without \(\bar{CN}\); (a, d) red channel (b, e) green channel and (c, f) brightfield differential interference contrast (DIC). Image reproduced with permission.\(^{175}\)

Also relying on the conjugate addition of \(\bar{CN}\) the BODIPY chemodosimeter **36** (Fig 2.28) was developed by Jang (2012).\(^{176}\) The reaction of cyanide with the dicynoethylene appendage interrupts the ICT and as a consequence both visible and fluorescent properties were modulated. Interference from fluoride was noted in CH\(_2\)Cl\(_2\) but in water the strong solvation of fluoride rendered it less competitive. A clear “switch on” response \((\lambda_{ex} = 480\) nm, \(\lambda_{em} = 520\) nm) was observed in the cytoplasm of HeLa cells that had been incubated with the probe for 20 min then treated with NaCN.
A “switch-on” phenothiazine-hemicyanine probe $\text{Phc}$ was reported by Yang and Li (2014). The cyanide anion readily attacked the C=N bond of the indolium and a 20 fold enhancement in fluorescence ($\lambda_{\text{em}} = 488 \text{ nm}$) was observed when solutions of the probe were exposed to only 3.0 equivalents of $\text{CN}$. The probe was selective amongst other anions tested and was used in both human breast cancer (GES) and HeLa cells to demonstrate a quick (15 min) “switch on” effect in the presence of \textit{in vitro} cyanide. Furthermore in adult zebra fish exposed to $\text{Phc}$ and cyanide (30μM) a strong fluorescent response was observed, particularly in the gills and abdomen.

The related red-emitting phenazine(di)cyanine-based chemodosimeters $\text{PMI}$ and $\text{PDMI}$ were reported by Hua (2014) and again these probes rely on nucleophilic attack of cyanide on a indolium cation. As $\text{PDMI}$ has two indolium appendages an excess of $\text{CN}$ was required before the fluorescence “switch on” ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 425 \text{ nm}, \lambda_{\text{em}} = 580 \text{ nm}$) occurred. In contrast, for $\text{PMI}$ an instantaneous response was observed ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 530 \text{ nm}, \lambda_{\text{em}} = 620 \text{ nm}$). Of interest, given that aldehydes are also used as a reactive group for $\text{CN}$, $^1$H NMR spectroscopy was used to monitor the intact CHO even as an excess of cyanide was added. The probe located in the cytoplasm in HeLa cells (confirmed using co staining) and a clear “switch on” response to cyanide was noted within 30 minutes of exposure.
Several papers from the group of Yoon describe probes for cyanide bioimaging based on Cu(II) displacement (shown schematically in Fig 2.31—the probe is introduced to the cells in the Cu(II) complexed quenched state (heavy metal effect) and upon cyanide mediated displacement of the Cu(II) from the complex fluorescence is restored). The fluorescein tetracarboxylate “switch-on” probe 38-Cu(II) was published in 2009 and was one of the first to prove that the copper displacement method could be used both in vitro and in vivo. When 38-Cu(II) was trialled in solution studies, the addition of 100 equivalents of $\text{CN}^-$ increased the quantum yield from 0.057 to 0.53 ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 505 \text{ nm}, \lambda_{\text{em}} = 522 \text{ nm}$). When Caenorhabditis elegans nematodes (a model host for studying microbial pathogenesis and innate immunity) that were initially incubated with 38 and Cu(II) were subsequently incubated with $\text{CN}^-$ a strong fluorescence “switch on” was observed. Of interest when these fluorescent nematodes were again incubated with Cu(II), fluorescence was quenched.
In additional work from the group of Yoon, the NIR emissive cyanine fluorophore (λ\text{ex} = 680 nm, λ\text{em} = 748 nm) functionalised with picolylamino groups \textbf{39} (Fig 2.32) was synthesised in a short overall sequence from commercially available cyanine IR-780.\textsuperscript{181} In the presence of Cu(II) no significant fluorescence was observed (ϕ\text{F} < 0.01) and initial solution based studies confirmed selective, “switch on” sensing (ϕ\text{F} = 0.65, λ\text{em} = 748 nm) of cyanide. Again using the \textit{C. elegans} nematode as a model organism, aqueous NaCN was readily detected \textit{in vivo}. Of significant interest when the nematodes were infected with \textit{P. aeruginosa} (PA14) labeled with green fluorescent protein, the °CN that the bacteria are known to produce was also detected \textit{in vivo}. Such a result neatly conveys the significance of such small fluorescent probes for medically relevant assays.

![Image of Cyanine based ligand 39](image)

**Fig. 2.32** TOP: Cyanine based ligand 39. BOTTOM: Imaging of cyanide in \textit{C. elegans} infected with \textit{P. aeruginosa} (GFP). Prior to incubation with 39-Cu(II) \textit{C. elegans} nematodes were fed for 2 d on non-infectious \textit{E. coli} OP50 (a) or GFP-labelled PA14 (b–d). (b) the anterior end, (c) the medial part, (d) the posterior. (I = intestine; IL = intestinal lumen; I = intestine; E = eggs; PA = PA14-GFP; A = anus). Scale = 20 μm. Image reproduced with permission.\textsuperscript{181}

The Cu(II) displacement approach has also been used by Ghosh and Das to develop a “switch on” probe for cyanide, however, in this instance the emitting species (λ\text{ex} = 380 nm, λ\text{em} = 583 nm) was a phosphorescent DPA-functionalised iridium complex.\textsuperscript{182} Detection of cyanide was achieved inside live HeLa cells within 2 minutes using cells pre-incubated with 40-Cu(II) then exposed to a 0.2 ppm aqueous solution of °CN.
Fig 2.33. TOP: Structure of Ir complex 40–Cu(II). BOTTOM: Images of live HeLa cells in the presence of 40–Cu(II) acquired after treatment with increasing concentrations of NaCN. Image reproduced with permission.\textsuperscript{182}

A Cu(II) displacement probe operating by both a colour change and also fluorescent enhancement was reported by Kim.\textsuperscript{183} Coumarin imine 41 (Fig. 2.34) was synthesised in four steps from \textit{m}-anisidine with the last step involving condensation with 2-aminophenol. A crystal structure of the stable non-fluorescent 41-Cu(II) ($\Phi_f = 0.02$) confirmed that the metal was complexed by both oxygen atoms and the imine nitrogen atom as shown in Fig 2.34. Similar to the previous examples the probe operates by means of Cu(II) displacement, however, unlike the Cu(II) complex, the free coumarin imine 41 is prone to hydrolysis (cyanide actually enhances the rate of hydrolysis) and ultimately it is the coumarin aldehyde 42 ($\lambda_{ex} = 479$ nm, $\lambda_{em} = 514$ nm, $\Phi_f = 0.65$) that functions as the reporting species. Again, excellent selectivity for cyanide amongst a selection of anions was reported (CN detected at $10^{-8}$ M). No adverse effects were noted when human hepatoma cell line HepG2 cells were treated with the complex and a strong intracellular fluorescence response was detected when cells were treated with solutions of KCN.
Fig 2.34  TOP: Structure, °CN displacement and hydrolysis of 41–Cu(II).  BOTTOM: Images of human HepG2 cells pre-treated with 41–Cu(II) (1.0 μM) acquired 1 min after addition of KCN (125, 250, and 500 μM). Image reproduced with permission.  

An interesting copper displacement probe for cyanide was devised by Zheng (2014). The non-fluorescent Cu(II) Schiff base complex of benzimidazole hydroxynaphthalene 43 (Fig 2.35) was itself formed by displacing Zn(II) from the corresponding, highly fluorescent Zn complex (both the Cu and the Zn complexes were characterised by means of X-ray diffraction). Displacement of copper from the 43–Cu(II) complex was effected by cyanide to give the fluorescent free 43 (λex = 366 nm, λem = 425 nm). Displacement of Cu(II) was also effected by S2– and it should be noted that this anion (known to have an affinity for Cu) is often omitted from the standard suite of anions used to evaluate the selectivity of many Cu based probes. In HeLa cells incubated with the Zn(II) complex addition of Cu(II) quenched the fluorescence, however, the corresponding addition of °CN to restore fluorescence was not performed.

The Hg(II) complex of benzimidazole 44 (Fig 2.35) was described by Zhang and Liu (2013) for the intracellular sensing of °CN. The complex is non-fluorescent (heavy metal effect) and in the presence of cyanide a strong fluorescence "switch on" (λex = 345 nm, λem = 467 nm) was observed due to displacement of Hg(II). Unfortunately both sulphide and also iodide displaced the cation to give an equivalent response. While these competitors might ultimately limit in-vivo applications (toxicity was also not evaluated), successful in-vitro sensing of cyanide was demonstrated when HeLa cells that had been incubated with 44-Hg(II) were treated with cyanide.

Fig 2.35  Structure of the naphthalene-benzimidazole complex 43-Cu(II) developed by Zheng and the 44-Hg(II) complex from Zhang and Liu.

2.4.3 Miscellaneous

Very few in-vitro or in-vivo probes that function by means of H-bonding exist—a testament to the lack of truly selective anion sensors that function by H-bonding in highly competitive media. The bispyrene-carbohydrazide 45 reported by Yoon (2014) bound cyanide such that excimer emission (λex = 500 nm, λem = 550 nm) was "switched on". A proposed "clamshell" H:G complex of 45 with cyanide was proposed leading to close proximity of both pyrene moieties. In aprotic solvents fluoride also elicited a “turn on” response, however, when small amounts of protic solvents were
present $^\sim$CN was targeted more selectively. Again HeLa cells were used for imaging and, in addition to rapid uptake, a distinct fluorescence “switch on” was observed when $^\sim$CN was added.

![Structure of $^\sim$CN probe 45](image)

**Fig. 2.36** TOP: Structure of $^\sim$CN probe 45. BOTTOM: Images of 45 in HeLa cells with (left) 30 μM 45 and (right) 30 μM 45 and 30 μM NaCN. Upper images: fluorescence. Lower images: bright-field. Image reproduced with permission.¹⁸⁶
3. Anions of biological relevance

Many crucial intracellular processes involve anionic species and the dysregulation of these species is known to accompany a number of disease states. Indeed, the dysregulation of intracellular pyrophosphate (PPI) levels is associated with many conditions including cancer (see section 3.1). Imaging agents for specific anionic targets in vitro and in vivo can be used to confirm the exact biological role of these anions and importantly they can also function as diagnostics for specific medical conditions. Anions covered in this section are: pyrophosphate, bicarbonate and hydrosulfide.

3.1 PYROPHOSPHATE

Pyrophosphate (PPI) is produced or used in many cellular metabolic processes, such as ATP hydrolysis and DNA/RNA polymerisation reactions. Intracellular PPI concentrations can provide information on important cellular processes and have recently been suggested as a means of cancer diagnosis. The concentration of PPI in other physiological fluids, such as synovial fluid and urine, can also be used to identify diseases such as chondrocalcinosis or calcium pyrophosphate dihydrate (CPPD) crystal deposition disease.

This knowledge has led to the recent development of numerous colourimetric and fluorescent sensors for PPI (see also the review by Yoon in this special issue). However, significant challenges remain in the development of such probes, due to the difficulties associated with binding PPI in water and distinguishing it from related polyphosphates such as ATP. As many of the fluorescent sensors developed for PPI to date are “switch-off” or only exhibit weak fluorescence they are of only limited use in bioimaging applications. Nevertheless, there are several examples where such compounds have been successfully used to image the presence of cellular PPI and there are a handful of recent examples where “switch on” sensors have been developed and effectively used in imaging applications.

3.1.1 PPI binding to metal complexes

One of the earliest examples of the use of a PPI sensor in cellular imaging was reported by Kim. The 1,8-naphthalimide-DPA-Zn(II) complex (Fig 3.1) was prepared in good overall yield over five steps and in CH$_3$CN:HEPES buffer, ligand 46 exhibited weak emission at 476 nm ($\lambda_{ex}$ = 360 nm), characteristic of the 4-amino-1,8-naphthalimide fluorophore. Formation of the 46-2Zn(II) complex resulted in a 59-fold fluorescence enhancement together with a 29 nm bathochromic shift to 505 nm, attributed to suppression of PET from the DPA amine. The addition of PPI to 46-2Zn(II) resulted in a hypsochromic shift (23 nm) and ca. 50% quenching of fluorescence (10 equivalents of PPI). Calculations indicated that PPI bound to only one Zn(II)DPA centre and PET quenching was mediated by PPI. Imaging was performed using mouse myoblasts (C2C12) and cells were first incubated with 5 μM Zn(OAc)$_2$, then with 1 μM 46. Subsequent addition of PPI lead to a dose-dependent decrease in cellular fluorescence (Fig 3.1).
Hong and co-workers reported the three step synthesis of the NIR emissive benzothiazolium hemicyanine ligand 47 (Fig. 3.2), which readily forms a bis Zn(II) complex as a PPI binding site. In aqueous buffer (pH 7.4) Probe 47-2Zn(II) showed weak emission at 548 nm ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 500$ nm, $\Phi_F = 0.08$) and addition of PPI (1.0 equivalent) “switched on” emission ($\Phi_F = 0.10$) with a bathochromic shift to 558 nm. While ATP also gave a measurable response, 47-2Zn(II) was used to image PPI uptake in a C2C12 myoblast cell line with a clear increase in intracellular fluorescence observed 30 minutes following addition of 2.5 equivalents of PPI. Importantly, the cells remained viable as determined using Hoechst nuclear stain and the probe had good cell permeability.
Fig 3.2 Fluorescence live-cell pseudo-color images of C2C12 myoblast cells. (A and C) Cells stained by Hoechst nuclear dye. (B) Cells incubated with Hoechst nuclear dye and then with 47-2Zn(II). (D) Cells incubated with Hoechst nuclear dye followed by 47-2Zn(II), then Na₄P₂O₇. Emission collected at (A, C) blue channel and (B, D) Cy3 channel upon excitation at (A, C) 350 ± 25 nm and (B, D) 543 ± 11 nm. Image reproduced with permission.

3.1.2 PPI mediated displacement

The [DCCA]₂Cu complex, comprising both a dicyanomethylene-4H-chromene fluorophore and a copper(II) complex of iminodiacetic acid group for PPI binding, has been reported as a NIR emissive “switch on” sensor for PPI. In aqueous buffer DCCA (Fig 3.3) is highly fluorescent ($\lambda_{ex} = 500$ nm; $\lambda_{em} = 675$ nm; $\Phi_F = 0.79$), but upon addition of Cu(II) the fluorescence intensity decreased and complete quenching was observed with five equivalents of Cu(II). On addition of PPI to a 1:5 mixture of DCCA and Cu(ClO₄)₂ fluorescence “switch on” was observed, and peaked after 15 equivalents PPI ($\Phi_F = 0.48$). The enhancement was attributed to the displacement of one of the ligands from the Cu(II) complex. This probe was evaluated in KB cells and almost no intracellular fluorescence was observed for the [DCCA]₂Cu complex alone. After incubation with PPI, a significant increase in cellular fluorescence was observed within 30 minutes with signals localized in the perinuclear area of the cytosol, indicating a subcellular localisation of PPI and good cell membrane permeability of the [DCCA]₂Cu complex.

**Fig. 3.3** TOP: Structure of copper ligand DCCA. BOTTOM: Confocal fluorescence images in KB cells: (A–C) cells incubated with DCCA₂–Cu(II) alone. (D–F) cells incubated with DCCA₂–Cu(II), then K₄P₂O₇. Emission collected at
The imino-thiophenyl calix[4]arene derivative 48 has been used to image both Zn(II) and PPi in HeLa cells. Ligand 48 was prepared in three steps from p-tert-butylcalix[4]arene and upon addition of Zn(II) in a fluorescence turn-on response (\(\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 390\) nm, \(\lambda_{\text{em}} \sim 450\) nm) was observed. Subsequent addition of PPI resulted in complete quenching of the emission, attributed to the displacement of Zn(II) from the 48-Zn(II) complex as a result of the higher binding affinity of PPi for Zn(II). In HeLa cells incubated with 10 µM 48, very low fluorescence intensity was observed. After subsequent incubation with ZnSO\(_4\)/pyrithione for 20 minutes, the cells exhibited highly intense blue fluorescence (4 times higher than with 48 alone). Further treatment with PPI resulted in a decrease in fluorescence intensity (1.5 times higher than 48 alone).

The bis Zn(II) complex of the pyridine-naphthalene based SPHN (Fig 3.5) has been reported as a PPI selective fluorescent chemosensor. Compound SPHN was readily prepared by condensation of the bis-glycine adduct of 2,6-diaminopyridine and 2-hydroxy-1-naphthaldehyde. In 7:3 CH\(_3\)CN:aqueous HEPES buffer the addition of ZnCl\(_2\) to SPHN resulted in a “switch-on” of fluorescence (\(\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 400\) nm; \(\lambda_{\text{em}} = 450\) nm, \(\Phi_F = 0.940\)) which was suggested to be a result of the formation of a 1:2 L:Zn(II) complex. The addition of PPI to SPHN-2Zn(II) led to quenching of this fluorescence as a result of displacement of Zn(II) from SPHN and importantly, a selective response for PPI was observed in the presence of ATP. In HeLa cells preincubated with exogenous Zn(II) the addition of SPHN elicited
a fluorescence response, however, when PPI was added at the same time as SPHN, significantly lower levels of fluorescence were observed.

![Diagram](image)

**Fig 3.5** HeLa cells showed intense blue fluorescence in the presence of both SPHN and Zn\(^{2+}\) (d) and did not show any fluorescence in the absence of Zn\(^{2+}\) (a) and in the presence of PPI (g). Corresponding differential interference contrast (DIC) images (e, b and h) and merge images (f, c and i) of the cells are shown. Image reproduced with permission.\(^{194}\)

More recently, Rissanen and co-workers have reported a terpyridine –Zn(II) complex 49-ZnCl\(_2\) (Fig 3.6) capable of the detection of nanomolar PPI concentrations in water, together with the first example of a small molecule probe to image native PPI concentrations in cells (i.e. without the addition of exogenous PPI).\(^{195}\) The complex was prepared by mixing 4’-(4-\(N,N’\)-dimethylaminophenyl)-2,2’:6’,2”-terpyridine in a 1:1 ratio with ZnCl\(_2\) and an X-ray crystallographic structure, confirmed the formation of a 1:1 complex. While 49-ZnCl\(_2\) is fluorescent in the solid state, in water the fluorescence is quenched. The addition of PPI to a solution of 49-ZnCl\(_2\) in 0.01 M HEPES buffer resulted in an approximately 500 fold increase in fluorescence (\(\lambda_{ex} = 440\) nm; \(\lambda_{em} = 591\) nm), attributed to the formation of a 1:3 complex between PPI and 49. Cellular imaging was performed in HeLa cells. Cells were treated with 10 \(\mu\)M 49-ZnCl\(_2\) for 30 min and bright orange-yellow emission was observed that allowed mapping of PPI concentration in different parts of the cells with the maximum emission observed in the nuclei as well as the cytoplasmic membranes.
3.2 BICARBONATE

The bicarbonate anion is the primary species responsible for maintaining cellular acid-base homeostasis. The enzyme carbonic anhydrase (CA) produces HCO$_3^-$ inside cells from dissolved CO$_2$ and dysregulation of CA is associated with a number of tumour types. The bicarbonate anion also plays a role in physiological processes such as cyclic AMP regulation, osteoporosis and kidney disease. Unfortunately only indirect methods have been available for measuring bicarbonate in cells including total H$^{14}$CO$_3^-$ concentration or estimates based on pH; each of these are prone to significant error and do not provide spatiotemporal information. As such a more direct means for the bioimaging of this anion using fluorescent probes, would be a welcome advance.

3.2.1 Recent developments

Very few small molecule probes exist for the cellular imaging of bicarbonate and these can be divided into two classes: dipyridylalkylbenzenes and luminescent lanthanide complexes.

The dialkynylbenzene probe $50$ for the imaging of bicarbonate in vitro was reported by Murphy, Wong and Lee in 2011. A NIR multiphoton approach was used for excitation and probe emission also tailed into the NIR region. Solution studies identified strong binding of bicarbonate ($\log K = 7.13$) and a four-fold enhancement in fluorescence intensity ($\lambda_{\text{em}} = 450$ nm) was observed as well as a redshift of 30 nm. Binding was tentatively assigned to the $\delta^+$ of the amide N leading to enhanced electron transfer (1:2 H:G binding stoichiometry supported this theory). In solution, binding of citrate was also observed ($\log K = 7.83$), nevertheless, in vitro imaging of HCO$_3^-$ was performed in both HeLa and A549 cells ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 900$ nm and $\lambda_{\text{em}} = 400$–$650$ nm) and after 3 h the probes had localised in the cytoplasm and the emission profiled matched the 30 nm red shift observed in solution indicating binding of the target anion.
With the aim of sensing bicarbonate and other oxyanions (such as malate and citrate) “in cellulo” a large body of research effort has been undertaken by the group of Parker using luminescent lanthanide probes. The cellular uptake, localisation, stability and toxicity of these probes have all been studied in detail. These sensors have sharp emission bands (ΔJ = 1, 2, 3 and 4) and as they rely on energy transfer from a chromophore/sensitiser (normally incorporated as part of the ligand) to the metal the emission can be modulated by the target anion disturbing either the metal excited state or the ligand singlet or triplet states (for excellent overviews of the photophysical properties of lanthanides and how they can be manipulated for sensing and imaging see the excellent recent reviews by Meade, Parker, and Pierre). Lanthanide complexes are capable of selectively binding anions if both the ligand and metal are judiciously selected. Typically, but not always, the mode of action involves displacement of a bound water (q) by the target anion leading to a modulated emission profile in which the ΔJ = 2 band (e.g. Eu at ca. 620 nm) is considerably altered whereas other bands such as ΔJ = 1 (e.g. Eu at ca. 590 nm) are not. Changes in these two distinct outputs allows the probe to function in a very useful ratiometric fashion. Combinations of individual Tb and Eu complexes (one complex is responsive, the other is not) can also function in a ratiometric manner.

The detection of bicarbonate by the lanthanide complexes 51-Eu(III) and 52-Eu(III) containing the 1-azaxanthone-4-carboxyl sensitiser was reported by Parker in 2011 and in a follow up study in 2012. The probes were non-toxic and indicated the presence of bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻ formed by exposing the cells to a CO₂ atmosphere) in the mitochondria of a number of cell lines including A549, MCF-7 and HeLa cells. While solution based binding studies indicated little selectivity of the probes over the common carboxylate interferents citrate and lactate, in cells the concentration of bicarbonate is typically 10 fold greater than lactate and 100 times greater than citrate. Of additional interest the same ligands with terbium were unresponsive and could serve as in internal control for ratiometric imaging. Direct detection in A549 cells and selectivity for bicarbonate was confirmed as when the known carbonic anhydrase inhibitor acetazolamide was introduced to the cells little fluorescence was observed. Binding of the bicarbonate anion modulates either triplet sensitiser to metal energy transfer or the lanthanide excited state directly and ultimately leads to significant enhancement of the ΔJ = 2 band at ~620 nm (λ_ex = 340 nm).
3.3 HYDROSULPHIDE

Hydrogen sulphide (H\textsubscript{2}S), along with NO and CO\textsubscript{2}, is considered to be the third gaseous signalling agent, or gasotransmitter\textsuperscript{207}. Endogenous hydrogen sulphide is produced from homocysteine (Hcy) by the cytosolic enzymes; cystathionine-\(\beta\)-synthase (CBS) and cystathionine-\(\gamma\)-lyase (CGL).\textsuperscript{208} In addition hydrogen sulphide is also produced from cysteine (Cys) by 3-mercaptopyrate sulfurtransferase (3MST) mediated metabolism; 3MST is present in both the cytosol and mitochondria.\textsuperscript{208} Considering the first and second \(pK_a\) values for H\textsubscript{2}S are 7.05 and 15 respectively (at 25 °C and pH 7.4 the ratio of H\textsubscript{2}S/HS\textsuperscript{−}/S\textsubscript{2}− can be calculated as 30:70:0.00002 respectively.\textsuperscript{207} As such, for the purpose of this review we can assume that appreciable quantities of HS\textsuperscript{−} are present. Nevertheless the challenge of targeting HS\textsuperscript{−} is complicated as pH varies between subcellular compartments and as such the H\textsubscript{2}S/HS\textsuperscript{−} ratio will also vary accordingly.

Hydrogen sulphide has been linked to a number of physiological processes such as inflammation, angiogenesis, respiration, ischaemic reperfusion injury as well as oxidative stress.\textsuperscript{208, 209} As such the development of HS\textsuperscript{−} releasing drugs is an active area of research.\textsuperscript{210}

Due to the rapid catabolism of HS\textsuperscript{−} by sulphide quinone oxidoreductase (SQR), persulfide dioxygenase (SDO), thiosulfate reductase (TR) and sulphite oxidase (SO),\textsuperscript{208, 211, 212} any probe must react quickly and emit brightly (high quantum yield (\(\phi_F\)) and molar absorptivity (\(\varepsilon\))). This formidable challenge is made more difficult by the fact that the typical concentration of HS\textsuperscript{−} in blood are in the order of \(10^{-6}\) M to \(10^{-9}\) M and 30–300 \(\mu M\) in tissues have been reported.\textsuperscript{207, 212} There is still debate...
over the physiologically active form of hydrogen sulphide,\textsuperscript{212} therefore a selective means to detect low concentrations of the anionic form could unlock some of the secrets of its remarkable biology.

The development of fluorescent indicators to sense HS\textsuperscript{−} in living systems is a rapidly developing field.\textsuperscript{52, 213-216} Given the large number of examples this review will highlight bioimaging agents that either (i) present significant advances in sensitivity, (ii) target particular cellular locations, (iii) emit in the NIR range and (iv) have been demonstrated to be applicable to \textit{in vivo} studies.

For probes that target hydrosulphide, three strategies are commonly employed to modulate fluorescence. The first two are chemodosimeter approaches that rely on HS\textsuperscript{−} as a \textit{nucleophile} or HS\textsuperscript{−} mediated \textit{reduction}. The third strategy is sulphide mediated metal \textit{displacement}. \textit{Nucleophilic} reactions (typically \textit{S}_{\text{N}}\textit{Ar} or nucleophilic addition) are used to restore ICT or remove a group involved in a PET process, displace a trigger or interrupt a conjugated system. Anionic HS\textsuperscript{−} is a superior nucleophile compared to thiols (pK\textsubscript{a} > 8.5) at physiological pH. When two proximal electrophiles are present interference from endogenous sulphur species such as cysteine (Cys), homocysteine (Hcy) and glutathione (GSH) is further circumvented. \textit{Reduction} of an azide is an often utilised approach as the azide can be introduced directly to a fluorophore bearing an arylamine as a component of an ICT system, or as a sulfonylazide. Reduction of nitro groups, hydroxyl amines, and N-oxides are related examples of this strategy, however the reduction of the nitro-group invariably suffers from poor reaction kinetics. The \textit{Displacement} of a metal, typically Cu(II) or Zn(II), from a chelating ligand has also been widely used for bioimaging HS\textsuperscript{−}. There are obvious parallels between this approach and the probe design for \textsuperscript{−}CN selective probes (see section 2.4).

3.3.1 \textit{Hydrosulfide as a nucleophile}

Lin \textit{et al.} made use of both the donor photoelectron transfer (d-PET) properties and HS\textsuperscript{−} reactivity of the 2,5-dinitrophenylether in their hybrid cyanine-BODIPY probe, \textit{NIR-H}_\textsubscript{2}S (Fig 3.9).\textsuperscript{217} \textit{NIR-H}_\textsubscript{2}S is essentially non-fluorescent due to the d-PET process, however, upon treatment with HS\textsuperscript{−} the fluorescent phenol \textit{53} (\lambda\textsubscript{ex} = 650 nm, \lambda\textsubscript{em} = 708 nm,) is revealed. \textit{NIR-H}_\textsubscript{2}S has a detection limit of 50 nM although this value was determined at pH 7.0. Using probe \textit{NIR-H}_\textsubscript{2}S visualisation of varying concentrations of exogenous HS\textsuperscript{−} in MCF-7 cells was achieved. Notably higher fluorescent intensity at the mitochondria was observed which was confirmed by colocalisation studies using Hoeschst 33342.
Fig 3.9 Structure and reaction of Cyanine-BODIPY hybrid probe NIR-H$_2$S with HS$^-$; INSET shows fragmentation mechanism.

Zheng and Cui (2014) functionalised nile red with this trigger to give a NIR-emissive ($\lambda_{ex} = 488$ nm, $\lambda_{em} = 655$ nm) HS$^-$ responsive probe NR-HS (Figure 3.10).$^{218}$ Upon reaction with HS$^-$ the quantum yield of NR-HS ($\Phi_F = 0.05$ in simulated physiological conditions) increased to 0.32 as nile red was regenerated. Maximum fluorescence was obtained after 20 minutes with a limit of detection of 270 nM. Fluorescence microscopy experiments were carried out using MCF-7 cells and NR-HS responded to exogenous HS$^-$. 

The 2,5-dinitrophenylether trigger was incorporated onto a 4-hydroxynaphthalimide fluorophore by Liu et al to give Lyso-NHS (Fig 3.10). The probe also contained a basic morpholine substituent (Lyso-NHS $pK_a = 3.12$) which was responsible for compartmentalisation of the sensor into the lysosome (Fig 3.11).$^{100}$ The reaction of HS$^-$ with Lyso-NHS led to a significant increase in fluorescent intensity ($\lambda_{ex} = 450$ nm, $\lambda_{em} = 555$ nm) with a maximal response after 20 minutes. The probe had a nanomolar (480 nM) detection limit and was used to visualise exogenous HS$^-$ in MCF-7 cell lysosomes (confirmed by co-staining with neutral red (NR) a known lysosomal stain) and was not toxic (MTT assay) at the concentrations used.

Also using the 2,5-dinitrophenylether trigger, the group of Govindaraju synthesised the HS$^-$ probe DNOPCy (Fig 3.12).$^{219}$ Dislodging the 2,5-dinitrophenyl group of DNOPCy ($\lambda_{em} = 555$ nm) gave Cy-quinone which has a red-shifted emission maximum at $\lambda = 695$ nm. This change in fluorescence emission was ideal for ratiometric detection and visualisation of exogenous NaSH in human embryonic kidney cells (HEK293T) was successfully accomplished.
Through the judicious placement of a proximal aldehyde, Feng (2014) developed the dinitrophenyl ether probe 54 (Fig 3.13) that reacted fully within two minutes of exposure to HS\(^{-}\) to give maximum fluorescence.\(^{220}\) The reaction generates the modified HMBT ESIPT fluorophore 55 (\(\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 450\) nm, \(\lambda_{\text{em}} = 555\) nm, \(\Phi_{F} = 0.18\)) and HS\(^{-}\) at concentrations as low as 48 nM were detected in simulated physiological conditions. This probe was successfully used for the visualisation of exogenous HS\(^{-}\) in HeLa cells.

![Fig 3.13 Structure and reaction mechanism of benzothiazole probe 54 with HS\(^{-}\).]

In 2012 Qian and co-workers reported a rapidly reacting HBMT based HS\(^{-}\) activated fluorescent probe.\(^{221}\) Probe E1 can undergo thiol exchange with both HS\(^{-}\) and thiols, however only the persulfide generated from HS\(^{-}\) can cyclise to release the fluorescent HBMT (\(\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 295\) nm, \(\lambda_{\text{em}} = 487\) nm). Probe E1 was weakly fluorescent due to PET from the pendant dithiol and reacted rapidly (2 min) with HS\(^{-}\) with an detection limit of ca. 120 nM. Once again this probe readily detected exogenous HS\(^{-}\) in HeLa cell.

![Scheme 3.14 Structure and reaction mechanism of E1 with HS\(^{-}\).]

In 2013 the Tang group reported the HS\(^{-}\) responsive ratiometric probe HS-Cy (Fig 3.15) which incorporates a proximal electrophile.\(^{222}\) Nucleophilic addition of HS\(^{-}\) at the aldehyde of HS-Cy leads to a rapid (within 3 min) loss of fluorescence emission (\(\lambda_{\text{em}} = 780\) nm, \(\Phi_{F} = 0.24\)). This decrease in fluorescence was speculated to be caused by a PET process from the free hydroxyl or sulfhydryl groups of the intermediate qHS-Cy. The intramolecular cyclisation between the free sulfhydryl and the ester the releases the ketone cyanine (ketone-Cy) resulting in a 155 nm blue-shifted emission (\(\lambda_{\text{em}} = 625\) nm). The cyclisation step is a much slower process, with the emission at 625 nm increasing slowly over 35 min. In the mitochondria of HepG2 cells (pH 8.0) the nucleophilic addition and substitution occurred within 30 sec and 5 min respectively. The fluorescence intensity ratio
$F_{625}/F_{780}$ rises from 0.01 to 24.8 following the addition HS$^-$. Probe HS-Cy was used to image exogenous HS$^-$ in HepG2 cells and could detect endogenous HS$^-$ in A549 cells stimulated with sodium nitroprusside (SNP). A decrease in the $F_{625}/F_{780}$ ratio was observed when an inhibitor (DL-propargylglycine, PPG) of the HS$^-$ producing enzymes (CBS and CES) was added to the cells, confirming HS$^-$ as the analyte responsible for the response.

![Image of HS-Cy structure and reaction](image)

**Fig 3.15** TOP: Structure and reaction of HS-Cy with HS$^-$. BOTTOM: Confocal fluorescence ratiometric images of endogenous HS$^-$ in living A549 cells. A549 cells loaded with 5 mM HS-Cy for 30 min (a). Cells were pre-stimulated with SNP, then incubated with HS-Cy for 10 min (b) and 20 min (c). Scale = 50 mm. Image reproduced with permission.

Guo and co-workers reported a fast reacting flavilyum derived ratiometric HS$^-$ probe 59 (Fig. 3.16). Nucleophilic attack of HS$^-$ on this NIR emissive probe ($\lambda_{ex} = 450$ nm, $\lambda_{em} = 690$ nm) disrupts conjugation and the fluorescent product is essentially a substituted aminocoumarin ($\lambda_{em} = 485$ nm). In pure PBS buffer, the reaction was complete in 20 sec, making probe 59 one of the fastest probes yet reported. Upon treatment with HS$^-$ a 694-fold increase in the ratio $F_{485}/F_{690}$ (0.07–83.90) was noted allowing a detection limit of 140 nM. While this probe did react with mercaptoethanol, selectivity for HS$^-$ over cysteine and GSH was apparent. It was suggested that electrostatic repulsion between the benzopyrylium ion and the protonated amines of Cys and GSH prevents addition. Probe 59 was found to be non-toxic (MTT assay) and was subsequently used for the ratiometric imaging of exogenous HS$^-$ in HeLa cells.

![Image of CouMC structure and reaction](image)

**Fig 3.16.** Structure and reaction of 59 with HS$^-$

The mitochondria selective HS$^-$ probe CouMC (Fig 3.17) was reported by the groups of He and Guo in 2013. The coumarin-hemicyanine probe CouMC has two fluorescent emissions ($\lambda_{em} = 510$ and 652 nm) with the red emission, which corresponds to the full conjugated system, being the more intense. Nucleophilic attack of HS$^-$ at the indolium C=N interrupts the conjugated system of CouMC.
and the resultant truncated π-system of CouMC-SH exhibits coumarin-like fluorescence (λ_{em} = 510 nm). Maximum fluorescence emission was achieved in 30 sec in simulated physiological conditions. The red fluorescence could be reinstated when the media containing CouMC-SH was acidified to pH 2.5; CouMC itself, was stable over the pH range of 2.5 to 8.0. In vitro ratiometric imaging studies with CouMC in MCF-7 cells revealed high localisation in the mitochondira (colocalisation with Deep Red 633). The intracellular reaction of the probe with HS\(^-\) occurred rapidly (< 80 sec) and as such this probe may find utility in the spatiotemporal tracking of this anion.

![Structure and reversible reaction of CouMC with HS\(^-\).](image)

**Fig 3.17 TOP:** Structure and reversible reaction of CouMC with HS\(^-\). **BOTTOM:** a–c) Fluorescence images of MCF-7 cells co-stained by CouMC and Mito marker Deep Red 633. a) Pseudocoloured image obtained with band path of 660–750 nm (λ_{ex} = 488 nm); b) image from band path of 665–750 nm upon excitation of Deep Red (λ_{ex} = 633 nm); c) overlay of (a) and (b). d–k) Fluorescence imaging of MCF-7 cells (λ_{ex} = 488 nm). d–f) Images of cells stained by CouMC; g–i) images of cells preincubated with CouMC followed by NaSH. d, g) Green-channel images collected with band path of 500–560 nm; e, h) red-channel images collected with band path of 640–700 nm; f, i) ratiometric image Scale bar in (d): 20 mm. Image reproduced with permission.

### 3.3.2 Hydrosulfide mediated reduction

In 2012 Cho reported FS-1 (Fig. 3.18), the earliest example of a two-photon probe for HS\(^-\).\(^{225}\) The sensor employed the azide “trigger”, which was pioneered by the Chang group for bioimaging.\(^{226}\) When treated with HS\(^-\), a 21-fold increase in fluorescent enhancement (λ_{em} = 548 nm, Φ_{F} = 0.46) was observed.\(^{225}\) The probe also displayed an increase in two-photon cross section under the same conditions (HEPES buffer, Φδ = 15–302 GM). Endogenous HS\(^-\) was visualised in live HeLa cells using FS-1, pre-treatment with cysteine and GSH both led to enhanced two-photon excited fluorescence (TPEF) (λ_{ex} = 750 nm, λ_{em} = 520 nm). Phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) induced oxidative stress led to a decrease in observed emission intensity.
In 2012 Han and co-workers reported the NIR-emitting ratiometric cyanine-azide probe \( \text{Cy-N}_3 \) (Fig 3.19).\(^{227}\) Upon treatment with NaSH the azide probe (\( \lambda_{\text{ex}} = 625 \text{ nm}, \lambda_{\text{em}} = 710 \text{ nm} \Phi_F = 0.11 \)) is reduced to give \( \text{Cy-NH}_2 \) (\( \lambda_{\text{em}} = 750 \text{ nm}, \Phi_F = 0.12 \)) with a concomitant increase in molar absorptivity (\( \epsilon_{660} = 130,000 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1} \)). The maximum fluorescence response was achieved in 20 min which was superior to related examples at that time. The ratio of emission intensities (\( F_{750}/F_{710} \)) increased from 0.6–2.0 with the addition of 10 equivalents of NaSH, and a detection limit of 80 nM was established.

The probe was successfully used to detect endogenous HS\(^{-} \) in live RAW264.7 macrophages (stimulated using PMA). The fluorescence emission intensity also increased in cells treated with NaSH and \( \text{Cy-N}_3 \) was also used to study the time dependent decomposition of the HS\(^{-} \) releasing agent 5-(4-hydroxyphenyl)-3\( H \)-1,2-dithiole-3-thione (ADT-OH) in fetal bovine serum.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Cy-N}_3: & \lambda_{\text{ex}} = 610 \text{ nm}, \epsilon = 94,000 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}, \\
& \lambda_{\text{em}} = 710 \text{ nm}, \Phi_F = 0.11 \\
\text{Cy-NH}_2: & \lambda_{\text{ex}} = 680 \text{ nm}, \epsilon = 130,000 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}, \\
& \lambda_{\text{em}} = 750 \text{ nm}, \Phi_F = 0.12
\end{align*}
\]

In 2013 the groups of Xu and Peng independently reported the red emitting dicyanomethylenebenzopyran probe \( \text{DCMC-N}_3 \) (Fig 3.20).\(^{228,229}\) Probe \( \text{DCMC-N}_3 \) is essentially non-fluorescent, however, upon reaction with HS\(^{-} \) fluorescence was “switched on” (\( \lambda_{\text{em}} = 670 \text{ nm} \) in 1:1 PBS buffer:DMSO or \( \lambda_{\text{em}} = 655 \text{ nm} \) in 1:1 phosphate buffer:MeCN). The Xu group showed that \( \text{DBMC-N}_3 \) could be used to indicate the presence of exogenously administered HS\(^{-} \) in human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVEC). Similarly, preliminary experiments by the Peng group used \( \text{DBMC-N}_3 \) to image exogenous HS\(^{-} \) in HeLa cells. The Peng group also utilised the favourable
properties of DCMC-N$_3$ (NIR, large Stokes shift and good $\Phi_s$ at 820 nm in DMSO) to visualise the presence of HS$^-$ in MCF-7 cells using two photon microscopy. Furthermore, a skin-pop injection of probe DCMC-N$_3$ and NaSH (25 equiv) into ICR mice revealed that the probe could be used \textit{in vivo} as an enhanced fluorescent response ($\lambda_{ex} = 530$ nm, $\lambda_{em} = 655 \pm 20$ nm) was observed. The development of the fluorescent response over 4 h is shown in figure 3.20.

![Figure 3.20](image)

**Fig 3.20** TOP: Structure and reaction of probe DCMC-N$_3$ with sulphide. BOTTOM: Representative fluorescence images of mice (pseudo-colour) given a skin popping injection of probe DCMC-N$_3$ and then injected with NaSH. Images were taken after incubation of NaSH for different times (0, 0.5, 1, 2, 3 and 4 h). Image reproduced with permission.

Through a simple two-step azidation procedure Ma (2012) converted cresyl violet to the ratiometric azide probe 61 (Fig. 3.21). Both 61 ($\lambda_{em} = 566$ nm, $\Phi_F = 0.54$) and cresyl violet ($\lambda_{em} = 620$ nm, $\Phi_F = 0.44$) were strongly fluorescent ($\lambda_{em} = 620$ nm). The emission ratio ($F_{620}/F_{566}$) ranged from 0.34–10.5 upon addition of HS$^-$ and a detection limit of 100 nM was determined. Probe 61 was used to visualise exogenous HS$^-$ added to MCF-7 cells, and the emission could be quenched with addition of ZnCl$_2$ to the cells, confirming that switching is a result of azide reduction. The utility of 61 to visualise HS$^-$ \textit{in vivo} was demonstrated in live zebrafish. As the concentration of HS$^-$ was increased (10–500 µM) fluorescence emission ratio ($F_{620}/F_{566}$) of the probe (10 µM) ranged from 0.73–1.64 with no visible fluorescence decrease on standing for elongated times, indicating that probe 61 was stable \textit{in vivo}.

![Additional figures](image)
Chang in 2013 reported probe SF7-AM; which incorporated AM-esters to facilitate passive diffusion into cells. Intracellular ester hydrolysis gave the free carboxylates and the probe was subsequently retained within the cells. The inclusion of two azide triggers to the rhodamine-based fluorophore gave enhanced sensitivity and SF7-AM was used as a tool to study vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) stimulated HUVEC HS⁻ production as a model for angiogenesis.

As an advancement on their Lyso-NHS probe (Figure 3.10) Cui and Xu developed the lysosome targeting probe Lyso-AFP. When HS⁻ mediated reduction of the essentially non-fluorescent azide (Φₐ = 0.012) occurred an increase in fluorescence response (Φₐ = 0.263, λₑₓ = 426 nm, λₑₘₚ = 535 nm) was observed over 20 min. As with Lyso-NHS the pendant morpholine of Lyso-AFP lead to lysosomal localisation.
Another lysosome specific probe; rhodamine-based SulpHensor (Fig 3.24) was described by Yang (2014).233 No fluorescent response at physiological pH was observed for this probe upon treatment with HS⁻. The acidic lysosome environment is required to open the spirocycle which results in a weakly fluorescent species \((\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 540 \text{ nm}, \lambda_{\text{em}} = 550 \text{ nm}, \Phi_F = 0.05)\). Subsequent azide reduction by HS⁻ greatly enhances the ICT fluorescent emission at 550 nm \((\Phi_F = 0.05)\) and a limit of detection of 500 nM for HS⁻ was determined. The HS⁻/H⁺ induced fluorescent response of SulpHensor was demonstrated in vitro using HeLa cells. Lysosomal accumulation was confirmed by co-staining with LysoTracker green and comparing the intensity profiles (Fig 3.24) from the red (SulpHensor) and green channels (LysoTracker) over a selected region.

Bae et al. employed the 4-azidobenzylcarbamate trigger in their two photon fluorescent probe SHS-M2 (Fig 3.25). Hydrosulphide mediated reduction initially yields the aminobenzylcarbamate which subsequently fragments to give the observed products. In addition, the attachment of a pendant triphenylphosphonium moiety lead to mitochondrial accumulation in astrocytes.234 Upon reduction with HS⁻ the emission wavelength of SHS-M2 \((\lambda_{\text{em}} = 464, \Phi_F = 0.24)\) was red-shifted by 81 nm \((\lambda_{\text{em}} = 545 \text{ nm}, \Phi_F = 0.12)\) and despite a decrease in quantum yield the two photon cross section was improved \((\Phi\delta_{\text{max}} = 17–55 \text{ GM})\). The probe was successfully used to detect mitochondrial HS⁻ in HeLa cells; metabolic precursors (GSH or Cys) of HS⁻ were added prior to the SHS-M2 and an increase in the \(F_{545}/F_{464}\) ratio was recorded. The probe was also used to demonstrate the relationship between the DJ-1 gene and CBS mediated HS⁻ production in astrocytes as a model of Parkinson’s disease.
**Fig 3.25.** TOP: Two-photon fluorescent probe **SHS-M2** developed by Kim. BOTTOM: (A–D) Pseudocoloured ratiometric TPM images \( F_{545}/F_{464} \) of (A, D) HeLa cells with (A) **SHS-M2** or (D) **SHS-M2** and (B, C) HeLa cells pretreated with (B) GSH or (C) cysteine prior to **SHS-M2**. (E) Average values of \( F_{545}/F_{464} \) in (A–D). Image reproduced with permission.\(^{234}\)

The 4-aminonapthalimide-based HS\(^{-}\) probes **NAP-1** and **AcSH-2** also bearing the 4-azidobenzylcarbamate trigger were independently reported by Zhao and Song in 2014.\(^{235,236}\) Reaction of **NAP-1** (AcSH-1) with HS\(^{-}\) gives the fluorescent aminonaphthalimide and a corresponding red-shift in emission (from \( \lambda_{em} = 474 \text{ nm} \) to \( \lambda_{em} = 540 \text{ nm} \)).\(^{235}\) A low limit of detection for HS\(^{-}\) was determined (50 nM at pH 7.0 and 110 nM at pH 7.4) and the probe was used by Song for monitoring endogenous HS\(^{-}\) production in sodium nitroprusside stimulated MCF-7 cells (Fig 3.26) as well as quantifying HS\(^{-}\) levels in murine hippocampus. Zhao used **AcSH-2** to visualise exogenous HS\(^{-}\) in MCF-7 cells using TPM (\( \lambda_{ex} = 800 \text{ nm} \), \( F_{530}/F_{468} = 0.38–2.90 \)). It was also evident that the \( N)-(2\)-hydroxylethyl)-imide of **AcSH-2** promoted mitochondrial localisation.\(^{236}\)
(3A, 3B, 3C) were thereafter treated with SNP (4A, 4B, 4C). Cells were incubated with NAP-1 alone (D). The average fluorescence intensity from the regions of interest a, b, and c in (D) was recorded with 60 sec intervals (E) (n = 3). Ratiometric images \((F_{530}/F_{468})\) generated by the Olympus software (1C, 2C, 3C, 4C). Scale bars = 10 μm. Image reproduced with permission. 235

Chen and co-workers built the \textit{m}-nitrophenyloxycyanine Cy-NO\textsubscript{2} (Fig. 3.27) as a d-PET based probe for HS\textsuperscript{−}. 237 The 3-nitrophenylether attached to the cyanine framework could accept an electron from the excited state of the cyanine fluorophore. Reduction of the nitro group with HS\textsuperscript{−} disrupts the d-PET process resulting in significantly enhanced emission (from \(\Phi \textit{F} \), \(\lambda \text{ex} = 755\) nm, \(\lambda \text{em} = 789\) nm). The probe localised in the cytosol of RAW264.7 macrophages and was used to detect exogenous HS\textsuperscript{−}. A significant drawback associated with unassisted nitro group reduction is that it is a kinetically slow process, and in this instance fluorescence intensity peaked only after 60 min, even at 37 °C.

Fig 3.27 Structure and reaction of hydrosulphide probe Cy-NO\textsubscript{2}

3.3.3 Hydrosulfide mediated Metal displacement

In 2014 Huang and Deng reported a NIR emitting probe based on Cu(II) displacement from the Cu(II)-cyclen complex 68-Cu(II) (Fig. 3.28). 238 The probe was originally designed to function by means of HS\textsuperscript{−} mediated NO\textsubscript{2} reduction, but no reaction occurred at ambient temperatures. The probe was redesigned and the nitro group was reduced to an amine and functionalised with the cyclen-macrocycle. Complexation of 68 with Cu(II) gave the non-fluorescent probe which, when treated with HS\textsuperscript{−} in buffered solution studies gave a significant fluorescence “switch on” response (\(\lambda \text{ex} = 716\) nm, \(\lambda \text{em} = 765\) nm). Visualisation of exogenous HS\textsuperscript{−} in RAW264.7 macrophages was successfully demonstrated as was the detection of endogenous HS\textsuperscript{−} which was produced by the overexpression of wild-type (WT) cystathionine-γ lyase (CSE) in human embryonic kidney (HEK293). In vivo studies were then performed by injecting Imprinting Control Region (ICR) mice with 68-Cu(II) by skin-pop injection. One 68-Cu(II) treated mouse was then injected with Na\textsubscript{2}S (as source of HS\textsuperscript{−}) and the fluorescence images were recorded (\(\lambda \text{ex} = 670\) nm, \(\lambda \text{em} = 790\) nm). The fluorescence signal increased seven-fold 1 h after treatment with HS\textsuperscript{−} (compared to the control) and continued to rise gradually over 5 h.
Fig 3.28  TOP: NIR emissive cyclen dosimeter 68 by Deng and Huang. BOTTOM: Representative fluorescence images of mice (pseudocolour) that were injected with 68-Cu(II) (40 mm), followed by Na₂S. The images were recorded after the injection of Na₂S within 5 h. Image reproduced with permission.

In order to keep this section to a reasonable length and highlight the most relevant recent examples it was not possible to include all recent examples of probes functioning by way of (i) nucleophilicity, (ii) reduction (arylazides, sulfonylazides, nitro groups, hydroxyl amines, and N-oxides) as well as (iii) displacement and readers are referred to these citations for additional information.
4. Reactive anions

In addition to the well-known oxidative stress caused by reactive oxygen and nitrogen species, it is becoming increasingly apparent that these moieties are involved in a wide range of physiologically essential processes (such as cellular migration and circadian rhythm). Reactive oxygen/nitrogen species can be neutral, anionic, radicals or even radical anions (table 4.1) and as many of these species exist only fleetingly they are exceptionally challenging targets for small molecular probes.

Table 4.1. Reactive oxygen/nitrogen species

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Anionic</th>
<th>Radical Anion</th>
<th>Radical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hydrogen peroxide HOOH</td>
<td>Peroxynitrite ONOO⁻</td>
<td>Superoxide O₂⁻</td>
<td>Nitric oxide NO⁺</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singlet oxygen O₂⁺</td>
<td>Hypochlorite ClO⁻</td>
<td></td>
<td>Hydroxyl HO⁺</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hypobromite BrO⁻ *</td>
<td></td>
<td>Nitrogen dioxide NO₂⁺</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Peroxy radicals ROO⁺</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*A percentage of this species can also be found in neutral form (HOBr pK_a = 8.7)

At physiological pH (ca. 7.4) several of these species exist to a considerable extent as an anion (peroxynitrite, hypochlorite and hypobromite) and can therefore be considered biologically relevant anionic targets. Given their diverse roles interest in detecting these species in vitro and in vivo has been strong and several reviews on the topic are available.

4.1 PEROXYNITRITE

Peroxynitrite is formed from the rapid reaction of two other RO/N species: superoxide O₂⁻ and nitric oxide NO⁺ (Figure 4.1) and its detection in living systems is hampered by a number of factors including (i) its reactivity (it is a potent nucleophile and is a more powerful oxidant than superoxide) with a number of in vivo targets such as proteins, nucleic acids and lipids (especially those containing thiols) and (ii) degradation to other highly reactive species (including both the hydroxyl radical and the nitrogen dioxide radical). The pK_a of ONOOH is 6.8 and as a result ~80% of the species is found in the anionic form at pH 7.4. Typically the anion adopts a cisoid structure that is responsible for its ‘relative’ stability compared to the parent acid.

\[
\text{NO}^+ + \text{OO}^\ominus \rightarrow \text{ONOO}^\ominus
\]

**Fig. 4.1** Formation and cisoid structure of peroxynitrite.

Elevated levels of this species are associated with cardiovascular and neurodegenerative disorders, metabolic diseases, inflammation, pain, and cancer. Hence the development of probes for its detection in vivo is is an important task en route to fully understanding its diverse physiological roles.

Peroxynitrite has long been known as a cellular oxidant and hence sensors to monitor this anion emerged last century. Probes for peroxynitrite rely on the same reactivity that the anion exhibits in vivo; ONOO⁻ is both nucleophilic (reacts with CO₂ in vivo to form carbonate) and highly oxidative (by one and two electron processes) and is a known nitrating agent. All three of these
reaction types has been employed in the design of imaging agents for the species however probes that employ the oxidation power of ONOO$^-\text{ }$are by far the most prominent (section 4.1.1). Amongst these, probes based on the oxidation of B, Se, and Te form an interesting subset (section 4.2.2). Common interferents with the detection of ONOO$^-\text{ }$are typically other ROS in particular hypochlorite (ClO$^-\text{ }$) and nitrooxide radical (\textsuperscript{•}NO).

Early anion sensors for peroxynitrite inside cells include the "switch on" probes dichlorodihydrofluorescein DCHF and dihydrorhodamine DHR-123.\textsuperscript{278-280} While many imaging studies, and even flow cytometry assays,\textsuperscript{281} were performed using these, (and similar) probes they are somewhat non-selective and in some instances light sensitive.\textsuperscript{272}

![Fig 4.2 Early chemodosimeter based agents for peroxynitrite; dihydrodichlorofluorescein (DCHF) and dihydrorhodamine (DHR-123).](image)

4.1.1 Peroxynitrite mediated oxidation/fragmentation

A recent report by Shivanna (2013) detailed the use of rhodamine B phenyl hydrazide RBPH (Fig 4.3).\textsuperscript{282} The probe was readily oxidised by ONOO$^-\text{ }$to give the highly fluorescent ($\lambda_{\text{em}} = 580$ nm) ring open rhodamine B; the product confirmed by $^1$H NMR spectroscopy ESMS. Interferents such as H$_2$O$_2$ did not elicit the same reaction (ClO$^-\text{ }$ was not tested) and as such some selectivity was noted. Live MCF-7 cells incubated with the probe gave a clear “switch on” response within 30 min when exogenous ONOO$^-\text{ }$ was added.

![Fig 4.3 TOP: structure and reaction of RBHP with ONOO$^-\text{ }$; inset shows the diazo intermediate 69 that forms prior to fragmentation. BOTTOM: (A) Bright-field image of MCF-7 cells incubated with RBPH. (B) Corresponding fluorescence image (C) Fluorescence image of MCF-7 cells incubated with RBPH then peroxynitrite. Image reproduced with permission.](image)

A strategy developed by Yang involves ONOO$^-\text{ }$ nucleophilic attack on a reactive trifluoromethyl ketone group followed by formation of a spirohemiacetal via a dioxirane intermediate.\textsuperscript{283} Three
separate probes have been developed: employing dichlorofluorescein HKGreen1, BODIPY HKGreen2, and rhodol HKGreen3 fluorophores (Fig 4.4). For these chemodosimeters fluorescence is quenched in the ketone form but following spirohemiacetal formation (and for HK1 and HK3 fragmentation) fluorescence is “switched on”. For HKGreen2 a 21-fold enhancement of fluorescence ($\lambda_{em} = 539$ nm) was observed upon reaction with just one equivalent of ONOO$. The probes react to a small extent with HO$^*$ but not the common ClO$^-$ interferent. Evaluation in cells was performed for all probes (Results for HKGreen3 in RAW264.7 macrophages shown in Figure 4.4). This cell line is known to produce ROS/RNS, including ONOO$, in response to immunological and inflammatory stress and after stimulation of endogenous ONOO$^-$ production using bacterial endotoxin lipopolysaccharide (LPS), interferon-$\gamma$ (IFN-$\gamma$) and phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) strong fluorescence was noted. No fluorescence enhancement was noted when ONOO$^-$ production was inhibited by (2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidin-1-yl)oxy (TEMPO) a superoxide scavenger or aminoguanidine (AG) an inhibitor of NO synthase confirming that endogenous production of ONOO$^-$ was being detected.

**Fig. 4.4** TOP: Structure of HKGreen1, 2 and 3 and reactivity of BODIPY based chemodosimeters HKGreen1 with peroxynitrite to form 70. BOTTOM: Images of live RAW 264.7 cells were treated with stimulants to elicit endogenous ONOO$^-$ production then stained with HKGreen-3 (green channel) and Hoechst 33342 (blue channel). (a) Cells without stimulation. (b) Cells stimulated with LPS, IFN-$\gamma$, and PMA. (c) Cells pre-treated with...
TEMPO, and then stimulated with LPS, IFN-γ, and PMA. (d) Cells pre-treated with AG, then stimulated with LPS, IFN-γ, and PMA. Image reproduced with permission.

In a more recent article from the Yang group a functionalised rhodol chemodosimeter HKGreen-4 (Fig 4.5) was described in which the oxidation of electron rich aromatics was exploited. The “switch on” probe (290-fold increase in $\lambda_{em} = 535$ nm) was capable of discriminating between peroxynitrite and other reactive oxygen species including hydroxyl radical and hypochlorite. HKGreen4 also performed in the presence of CO$_2$, a molecule known to react quickly with ONOO$^-$. The probe was water soluble and was successfully used with either conventional or two photon microscopy to image endogenous ONOO$^-$ production in $E$.coli challenged RAW264.7 cells. In conjunction with a number of enzymatic inhibitors the probe was used to further confirm the generation of endogenous ONOO$^-$ production in response to the presence of $E$. coli. Generation of ONOO$^-$ is thought to be an immune effector for bacterial clearance, and the results of this study suggest that the ONOO$^-$ formation in $E$. coli challenged macrophages is enzymatically regulated.

![Fig. 4.5 TOP: Structure and reaction of HKGreen4 with ONOO$^-$. BOTTOM: Images of RAW264.7 macrophages.](image)

Cells were co-treated with heat-killed $E$. coli and various enzyme inhibitors then stained with HKGreen4A, MitoSOX, and Hoechst 33342 before imaging. Aminobenzoic acid hydrazide (ABAH) is an inhibitor of myeloperoxidase that produces ClO$^-; 1400W$ and DPI are inhibitors for iNOS and NOX, respectively. The merged images are overlays of all fluorescence channels. Scale = 10 μm. Image reproduced with permission.

The “switch on” coumarin pyridinium probe C-Py-1 was reported by Yu in 2014. The probe was selective for peroxynitrite amongst other reactive oxygen/nitrogen species with a 25-fold enhancement of emission at $\lambda_{em} = 493$ nm. The emitting species was identified ($^1$H NMR spectroscopy and ESI-MS) to be the coumarin aldehyde 72 formed from oxidative cleavage of the alkene in the presence of ONOO$^-$. Excellent cell membrane permeation and low cytotoxicity were noted and the probe was successfully applied to the imaging of endogenous ONOO$^-$ in RAW264.7 cells. In vitro fluorescence was “switched on” within 30 min of the addition of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) to the cells to stimulate endogenous production of ONOO$^-$. 
The related hemicyanine probe \textit{CHCN} (Fig 4.7) has recently been published by Yoon (2015).\textsuperscript{289} Oxidative cleavage of the alkene gives coumarin aldehyde 73 and 1,3,3-trimethyloxindole; both products confirmed using ESMS and $^1$H NMR spectroscopy. This probe indicated ONOO$^-$ in a linear ratiometric fashion ($F_{515}$/$F_{635}$ increase), had a low LOD (49.7 nM) and displayed excellent selectivity—only a very slight response to a large excess of hypochlorite was noted. The probe was shown to operate successfully in RAW264.7 macrophages when the cells were stimulated to produce ONOO$^-$ using a number of agents (LPS, IFN-$\gamma$ and PMA). No response was observed when inhibitors of endogenous ONOO$^-$ production were introduced (TEMPO and aminoguanidine).

Fig 4.6 TOP: Structure and reaction of ONOO$^-$ probe \textit{C-Py-1}. BOTTOM: Images of RAW 264.7 cells. (a) Bright-field image; (b) cells stained with \textit{C-Py-1}; (c) cells were stained with LPS and IFN-$\gamma$ then PMA and finally with \textit{C-Py-1}; (d) merged image of (a) and (c). Scale = 10 $\mu$m. Image reproduced with permission.\textsuperscript{288}

Fig 4.7 TOP: Structure and reaction of coumarinindolium probe \textit{CHCN}. BOTTOM: Images of RAW 264.7 cells for endogenous ONOO$^-$ during phagocytic immune response. The cells were stained with \textit{CHCN}. (a) Control; (e) LPS, IFN-$\gamma$ and PMA; (i) LPS, IFN-$\gamma$ and PMA then AG; (m) LPS, IFN-$\gamma$ and PMA then TEMPO. Green channel (a, e, i, m); red channel (b, f, j, n); images (c, g, k, o) are differential interference contrast; images (d, h, l, p) are merged red and green channels. Image reproduced with permission.\textsuperscript{289}
A multichannel probe $\text{PN}_{600}$ (Fig 4.8) that can clearly distinguish $\text{ONOO}^-$ from $\text{ClO}^-$ has been developed by Yang (2012). While both hypochlorite and peroxynitrite can oxidise the coumarin $\text{PN}_{600}$ to the corresponding aminophenol 74, only $\text{ONOO}^-$ is powerful enough to oxidise 74 to the red emitting iminoquinone 75. Due to differing excitation yet similar emission wavelengths either of $\text{OCl}^-$ or the $\text{ONOO}^-$ could be inferred by monitoring emission at 620 nm and selectively exciting at 355 465 or 575 to identify which fluorophore had formed and hence which oxidant was present. In human glioma cell line U87 the probe was shown to quickly penetrate the cell membrane and was non-toxic (MTT assay). Using 3-morpholinosydnonimine (SIN-1), a compound known to decompose to $\text{NO}^*$ which in turn forms $\text{ONOO}^-$, a clear fluorescent response was observed. 

![Fig 4.8](image)

**Fig 4.8 TOP:** Probe $\text{PN}_{600}$ showing reaction with both $\text{ONOO}^-$ and $\text{ClO}^-$ to form 74, however only $\text{ONOO}^-$ can oxidise 74 to the red iminoquinone 75. **BOTTOM:** Live-cell imaging using $\text{PN}_{600}$. Phase contrast and fluorescence images of human glioma cells treated with (A, B) $\text{PN}_{600}$, (C, D) $\text{PN}_{600} + \text{ClO}^-$, and (E, F) $\text{PN}_{600} + \text{SIN}-1$. Scale = 50 μm. Image reproduced with permission.

Probes containing boron have recently emerged for the cellular sensing of peroxynitrite. The nucleophilicity of $\text{ONOO}^-$ leads to initial formation of a C-O-B bond in place of the original C-B bond (Scheme 4.1). This insertion is followed by hydrolysis to afford C-O-H. The process is similar to the established hydroboration/oxidation using alkaline $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ however the reaction of boronates with $\text{ONOO}^-$ is nearly $1 \times 10^7$ times faster than the reaction with $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ and hence discrimination between these species is possible.

![Scheme 4.1](image)

**Scheme 4.1.** Conversion of arylboronates to phenols using $\text{ONOO}^-$. 

The naphthalimide-based “switch off” probe 80 was reported by James in 2014. The fluorescent $\text{D-fructose}$ complex ($\lambda_{\text{em}} = 525 \text{ nm}$) of 79 in which PET from the spacer N is prevented was “switched off” by $\text{ONOO}^-$ mediated oxidation to the corresponding phenol 81. The product again has a free
amine and PET quenches fluorescence. All other ROS except ClO$^-$ did not elicit a significant response. In RAW264.7 macrophages ONOO$^-$ production was stimulated by a number of immunological factors (again including LPS) and the “switch off” was easily visualised. When TEMPO or aminoguanidine was added to the stressed cells prior to addition of the probe fluorescence was maintained due to a lack of endogenous ONOO$^-$.}

![Chemical Structure](image)

**Fig 4.9** Structure and three stage reaction of naphthalimide boronate 79 with D-fructose and ONOO$^-$. BOTTOM: Fluorescent imaging for endogenous ONOO$^-$ in RAW 264.7 cells. The probe 80 was formed by mixing 79 and D-fructose *in situ*. (a) Blank without probe; (b) probe 80 only; (c) probe 80 and LPS, IFN-$\gamma$, PMA; (d) c + aminoguanidine; (e) c + TEMPO. Image reproduced with permission.

In 2012 Han reported the “switch on” dioxaborolane pyrene probe PyBor (Fig 4.10) which was synthesised in three steps from pyrene. Reaction with ONOO$^-$ was complete in seconds (PyBor is converted to PyOH) and was accompanied by a significant increase in quantum yield from $\phi_F = 0.08$ to 0.60 (PyOH, $\lambda_{ex} = 347$, $\lambda_{em} = 410$ nm). While slightly sensitive to $H_2O_2$, ClO$^-$ and BrO$^-$ co-staining confirmed PyBor localised in the cytoplasm of RAW264.7 cells and intense intracellular fluorescence was observed when cells that had been incubated with PyBor were treated with LPS, IFN-$\gamma$ and PMA. When the cells were pre-treated with aminoguanidine, only weak fluorescence was detected.

![PyBor Reaction](image)
4.1.2 ONOO\textsuperscript{−} mediated chalcogen oxidation

Fully reversible, NIR emissive, phenylselenylaniline probes BzSe-Cy, Cy-PSe and a related Te containing cyanine probe Cy-NTe have been developed by Tang and Han (Fig 4.11). The first, benzylselenylcyanine BzSe-Cy,\textsuperscript{296} is a “switch off” probe that can be recycled with ascorbic acid. In BzSe-Cy the selenium is an electron donating component of the cyanine system, however, in its oxidised Se=O form (readily accomplished by ONOO\textsuperscript{−}) electron donation is “switched off” and fluorescence is quenched. The second probe, Cy-PSe\textsuperscript{297} is a “switch on” probe that uses PET from the dibenzylselenoether to quench BODIPY fluorescence. When oxidised to Se=O, electron transfer is inhibited and fluorescence is “switched on”. The third, Cy-NTe\textsuperscript{298} another “switch on” probe also operates using this principle. The Te component required six steps to construct prior to coupling with commercially available cyanine chloride. Both Cy-PSe and Cy-NTe are easily oxidised by ONOO\textsuperscript{−} and also easily reduced by glutathione (GSH) which makes them mimics of the Se containing glutathione peroxidase enzymes (GPx). In the non-oxidised state the metals quench fluorescence by PET, however PET is not possible in the oxidised forms and strong fluorescence enhancement is observed (23-fold for Cy-PSe and 13-fold for Cy-NTe). The successful “switch on” oxidation, “switch off” reduction cycles for both Cy-PSe and Cy-NTe were demonstrated in RAW264.7 cells by successive treatment with LPS then an ROS scavenger glutathione S-transferase (GST) to “switch off” fluorescence. Mitochondrial localisation of Cy-NTe was reported as was a lack of toxicity (MTT assay) and the switching behaviour of the probe was sensitive enough to be visualised \textit{in vivo} using BALB/c mice.
The selenium containing “switch off” BODIPY probe BOD-Se (Fig. 4.12) was reported by Han in 2012. The authors proposed that, in light of the long time required to elicit a response, oxidation of the Se itself by ONOO⁻ did not modulate fluorescence but that the product containing Se=O was hydrolysed (fig 4.13) to liberate a new selenium free fluorescent BODIPY. The BOD-Se probe itself was highly fluorescent (λ_em = 572 nm, φ_F = 0.96) and a colour change from red to blue was noted upon exposure to ONOO⁻ with an isosbestic point at 567 nm. Fluorescence intensity decreased more than 200-fold along with a shift of the emission maximum (λ_em = 680 nm, φ_F = 0.05). Again murine macrophage RAW264.7 cells were stressed using LPS/IFN-γ and PMA to induce endogenous production of ONOO⁻ prior to imaging.
Fig 4.12 TOP: Structure and reaction of BOD-Se with ONOO⁻; inset: proposed tandem hydrolysis/cyclisation of oxidised BOD-Se leading to fragmentation. BOTTOM: images RAW264.7 cells incubated with BOD-Se then treated with (a,e,i) Controls. (b,f,j) SIN-1 (c,g,k) LPS, IFN-γ then PMA. (d,h,l) AG, LPS and IFN-γ then PMA (e–h) overlay showing BOD-Se fluorescence and Hoescht dye; (i–l) bright-field overlay of BOD-Se and Hoescht dye. Image reproduced with permission.

4.1.3 Peroxynitrite mediated nitration/nitrosylation

The Ds-DAB probe (Fig 4.13) was described by Wang in 2013 and its synthesis was remarkably easy—one step from commercially available materials. Fluorescence was initially quenched (presumably by PET) and the selective, “switch on” (6.5-fold enhancement) chemodosimeter reacts readily with ONOO⁻ to form fluorescent dansyl acid (Φ_F = 0.15, λ_em = 505 nm, λ_ex = 350 nm) and benzotriazole as indicated by ESMS, ¹H NMR spectroscopy and LC-MS. The proposed mechanism involves formation of a nitrosamine which subsequently fragments. Rapid uptake of the probe was
reported as was no toxicity and again the probe was used to visualise production of endogenous ONOO\(^-\) inside RAW264.7 macrophages when treated with LPS and PMA to induce cell stress.

![Fig. 4.13](image)

**Fig. 4.13** TOP: Structure and reaction of Ds-DAB with peroxynitrite BOTTOM: *in vitro* detection of ONOO\(^-\) in RAW264.7 macrophages. Cells were treated with LPS then PMA and subsequently incubated with Ds-DAB for the time stated prior to imaging. *Top* = fluorescence, *middle* = bright-field, *bottom* = overlay; scale = 20 μm. Image reproduced with permission.

A probe for nitrative stress (**NiSPY-3**, Fig. 4.14) was rationally designed by Nagano (2006)\(^{300}\) and is an interesting example in which nitration leads to fluorescence “switch on” (\(\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 505\) nm, \(\lambda_{\text{em}} = 520\) nm) based on an a-PET process. The probe was selective for peroxynitrite and was successfully used to visualise exogenous ONOO\(^-\) in live HeLa cells.
4.1.4 Miscellaneous

An interesting lanthanide-based probe for ONOO\(^{-}\) bioimaging was reported by Guan in 2010 (see section 3.2 for the general principles by which Ln emission is modulated).\(^{93}\) The DTTA ligand (a combination of dimethoxyphenyl and terpyridinetetraacid, Fig. 4.15) was designed to be both a Ln chelator and also sensitive to a d-PET process. In practice the terbium complex \([\text{DTTA}]\text{Tb}^{-}\) (\(\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 335\) nm, \(\lambda_{\text{em}} = 612\) nm) was sensitive to ONOO\(^{-}\) whereas the corresponding europium complex (\(\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 335\) nm, \(\lambda_{\text{em}} = 541\) nm) was not. The authors postulated that quenching by charge transfer, not PET, was responsible for the quenching, however, the electron rich dimethoxyphenyl substituent of DTTA is similar to that of NiSPY-3 (shown in figure 4.14). Thus, with a “cocktail” of both lanthanides \([\text{DTTA-Eu(III)}]^{-}\) and \([\text{DTTA-Tb(III)}]^{-}\) ratiometric measuring was possible with only very slight interference noted from nitrate. The tetraacetoxymethyl ester form AM-DTTA readily entered HeLa cells esters along with solutions of both lanthanides. Ester hydrolysis inside cells was followed by assembly of the lanthanide complexes and their formation could be visualised using microscopy. Again using SIN-1 as a source of NO\(^{\bullet}\) (reacts immediately with superoxide to form ONOO\(^{-}\)) a clear decrease in Tb emission in proportion to increasing SIN-1 concentration was observed.
An interesting example of a probe for the sensing of ONOO\(^-\) by means of luciferin bioluminescence was reported in 2013 by Bonini using the peroxy-caged luciferin PCL-1 (Fig. 4.16).\(^{302}\) Unfortunately, cell images were not shown in this instance. The boronic acid based chemodosimeter PCL-1 (originally designed and used by Chang for the \textit{in vivo} bioimaging of H\(_2\)O\(_2\) in mice)\(^{303}\) reacts far more rapidly with ONOO\(^-\) than it does with H\(_2\)O\(_2\) to form luciferin which in turn forms oxyluciferin with concomitant emission of light (\(\lambda_{em} = 560\) nm).

![Fig 4.15](image)

**Fig. 4.15** TOP: Structure of the DTTA-Tb(III) complex, BOTTOM: Bright-field (left) and normal luminescence (right) images of the [Eu(III)/Tb(III)(DTTA)]-loaded HeLa cells in the presence of ONOO\(^-\) generated from SIN-1 (A: negative control; B: 100 \(\mu\)M; C: 200 \(\mu\)M; D: 500 \(\mu\)M of SIN-1). Scale = 10 \(\mu\)m. Image reproduced with permission.\(^{93}\)

![Fig 4.16](image)

**Fig 4.16** Structure and reaction of luciferin based probe PCL-1 with ONOO\(^-\).
4.2 HYPOCHLORITE

Hypochlorite plays an important physiological role defending against invading pathogens and endogeneous hypochlorite is produced from the reaction of H$_2$O$_2$ with Cl$^-$ and is catalysed by the heme enzyme myeloperoxidase (MPO). Over stimulation of the MPO immune response, and increased hypochlorite levels can lead to host tissue damage and inflammation that is associated with a number of serious disorders such as cancer, neurodegeneration, arthritis and cardiovascular disease.

\[ \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{Cl}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{ClO}^- \]  

(Eq 1)

Bioimaging agents must be selective for ClO$^-$ over H$_2$O$_2$ if the MPO/H$_2$O$_2$/Cl$^-$ enzymatic system is used to generate endogenous ClO$^-$ otherwise the fluorescent signal may be due to exogenous H$_2$O$_2$. Another consideration is pH; the parent acid HOCl has a pK$_a$ of 7.463 at 35 °C, therefore at physiological pH approximately 50% of the acid is dissociated; so it possible that either the hypochlorite anion or the protonated form could be the detected species. Most researchers evaluate their probe over a pH range to identify whether hypochlorite or hypochlorous acid is being detected.

The majority of chemodosimeter for hypochlorite rely on oxidation; indeed ClO$^-$ is well known, even at a household level, as a strong oxidising agent. The most common triggers include the oxidation of p-hydroxy and p-aminophenyl ethers to give quinones or iminoquinones (section 4.2.1) although the p-aminophenyl ethers typically elicit a larger response to ClO$^-$ and are more selective over ONOO$^-$ (versus p-hydroxy). Oximes provide a pathway for non-radiative decay and are also readily react with hypochlorite (section 4.2.2). As for probes that target ONOO$^-$, the oxidation of S, Se, and Te has been employed in spirocyclic ring opening triggers for fluorescein and rhodamine dyes. This class of probe (notably the Se and Te based examples) are conveniently reversible as they can be reduced back to the parent structure by thiols (e.g. Cys, GSH) or hydrosulfide.

4.2.1 Hypochlorite mediated oxidation/fragmentation

An early example of a “switch on” probe for ClO$^-$ was reported by Nagano in 2003. Nagano’s fluorescein system used hypochlorite to oxidise either a pendant p-hydroxyphenyl ether (HPF) or p-aminophenyl ether (APF) attached to the fluorescein fluorophore. Removal of the phenyl ethers (as the corresponding quinone or aminooquinone) restored ICT and gave rise to high fluorescence emission ($\lambda_{\text{em}} = 514 \text{ nm}$, $\Phi_F = 0.81$). Unfortunately, and confirming the challenging nature of selective ClO$^-$ detection, HPF was more reactive towards HO$^+$ and to a lesser extent ONOO$^-$ and APF also gave a fluorescence response to HO$^+$ and ONOO$^-$ which was greater than HPF but unlike HPF, APF gave a large response when treated with hypochlorite. While HPF and APF were not completely selective, the difference in reactivity was demonstrated in neutrophils which contain azurophilic granules that are abundant in the ClO$^-$ generating MPO enzyme. Both APF and HPF loaded neutrophils were stimulated with PMA to stimulate endogenous ClO$^-$ production and fluorescence images were collected after 10 minutes. Only the cells containing APF exhibited a significant increase in fluorescent emission.
An extension on the Nagano fluorescein system was reported in 2007 by Libby,\(^{306}\) whereby the \(p\)-aminophenyl ether moiety was attached to a water soluble sulfonaphthofluorescein (SNAPF, Fig 4.17). Oxidation with hypochlorite resulted in the expulsion of the aminoquinone moiety to reveal a fluorescein derivative with an extended \(\pi\)-system (\(\lambda_{\text{em}} = 676\) nm). SNAPF was then used to detect hypochlorite produced by human neutrophils stimulated with PMA (Fig 4.18). When a MPO inhibitor was co-administered in stimulated cells no fluorescence was observed, indicating that MPO produced hypochlorite was being detected. SNAPF was also used to detect hypochlorite in stimulated mouse macrophages transgenic for human MPO (h-MPOTg) and stimulated human MPO-containing macrophages. Using SNAPF the successful bioimaging of hypochlorite generated \emph{in vivo} was also performed in h-MOPTg mice with thioglycollate induced peritonitis. The SNAPF probe was administered 24 hours after thioglycollate stimulation, and after a further hour a 1.4-fold increase in fluorescence was observed.

In conjunction with a rhodamine fluorophore the \(p\)-aminophenyl ether trigger (MitoAR, Fig 4.17) was also exploited by Nagano (2007).\(^{307}\) It was envisaged that the inherent positive charge of the ring open rhodamine would lead to accumulation of the probe within the mitochondria of living cells. In this instance the phenyl ether was located in the 2-position of the phenyl substituent in an effort to facilitate PET to the xanthene. Hypochlorite mediated oxidation of the \(p\)-aminophenyl ether correlated with a large increase in fluorescence response (\(\lambda_{\text{em}} = 574\) nm) but only moderate selectivity over HO\(^{\bullet}\) was noted. Nevertheless, MitoAR was used to monitor the MPO-catalysed production of mitochondrial ROS in HL-60 cells using H\(_2\)O\(_2\) stimulation (Fig 4.19).
Yuan et al. successfully employed the 4-amino-3-nitrophenyl moiety as a hypochlorite responsive PET trigger to modulate the luminescence of terpyridine polyacid lanthanide complexes, ANMTTA-Tb(III) and ANMTTA-Eu(III) (Fig 4.20). Oxidation of the 4-amino-3-nitrophenyl substituent gave the benzofurazan-1-oxide (BFO), which reacted with a further equivalent of $\text{ClO}^-$ to restore the luminescent terbium and europium complexes HTTA-Tb(III) and HTTA-Eu(III). Probe ANMTTA-Eu(III) was used for the time-gated spatiotemporal luminescence visualisation of exogenous hypochlorite in HeLa and in LPS/IFN-γ/PMA-stimulated RAW264.7 macrophages. Addition of the MPO inhibitor, ABAH, to cells resulted in no fluorescence emission.

An elegantly designed system HKOCI-1 (Fig 4.21), related to the aforementioned probes, was reported by Yang in 2008. This example used a BODIPY fluorophore which was suitably quenched.
by a \( p \)-methoxyphenol substituent by means of PET. Oxidative demethylation of \textbf{HKOCl-1} to the quinone (\textbf{HKOCl}) was effected by hypochlorite; the greater oxidation potential of the quinone makes PET unfavourable and fluorescence is “switched on” (\( \lambda_{\text{em}} = 541 \text{ nm} \)). This process was selective for hypochlorite, with ONOO\(^-\) eliciting a response only at a 10-fold higher concentration. The probe was used for the visualisation of live MPO producing RAW264.7 murine macrophages stimulated using lipopolysaccharide (LPS), interferon-\( \gamma \) (IFN-\( \gamma \)) and PMA. Stimulated cells showed an increase in the fluorescent output compared to the control. Additionally, when cells were stimulated in the presence of 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidinox (TEMPO), much weaker fluorescent was observed. TEMPO is a known superoxide (\( \text{O}_2^{**} \)) scavenger which is an intermediate in hypochlorite synthesis from the MPO system.

In 2012 Yao reported the dihydrofluorescein based probe \textbf{FCN2} (Fig 4.22) which, unlike preceding examples, is triggered by oxidation dealkylation rather than spirocycle ring opening.\(^{310}\) Ether cleavage from \textbf{FCN2} restores the ICT of the dihydrofluorescein system (86) and results in a 1643-fold increase in fluorescent intensity (\( \lambda_{\text{em}} = 485 \text{ nm}, \Phi_F = 0.71 \)). \textbf{FCN2} was completely soluble in aqueous solution and, although some autooxidation was noted (over 24 h), reacted rapidly enough (30 min) to be applicable for \textit{in vitro} (NIH3T3 cells) and \textit{in vivo} applications (larval and adult zebrafish). The fluorescent response generated from the treatment of 3 month old zebrafish with exogenous hypochlorite and \textbf{FCN2}, indicated the accumulation of hypochlorite in gall bladder, intestine, eye, liver and eggs.

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**Fig 4.21** Structure and reaction of \textbf{HKOCl-1} with ClO\(^-\).

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**Fig 4.22** Adult zebrafish were (a) exposed to ClO\(^-\) in E3 embryo media then incubated with \textbf{FCN2}. (b) The average emission intensities of isolated organs. Image reproduced with permission.\(^{310}\)
Peng and co-workers reported the oxidation-activated “enhanced PET” BODIPY-based probe \( \text{BCIO} \) (Figure 4.23) which was synthesised in an exquisite two step procedure from 2,4-dimethylpyrrole.\(^{311}\) The PET quenching was mediated by a pendant pyrrole unit which was envisaged to provide “enhanced PET” compared to single electron donors (such as heavy metal containing probes). The resultant probe, \( \text{BCIO} \) was essentially non-fluorescent at \( \lambda_{\text{em}} = 505 \text{ nm} \) (\( \Phi_F = 0.006 \)), however, oxidation with hypochlorite afforded the pyrrol-3-one \( \text{BOClO} \) in which PET was restricted and a 56-fold “switch on” fluorescence response was observed (\( \Phi_F = 0.347 \)). In solution studies \( \text{BCIO} \) was highly sensitive to hypochlorite with a limit of detection of 0.56 nM. Facilitated by the remarkable sensitivity of \( \text{BCIO} \) the authors determined the basal hypochlorite levels in MCF-7 and HeLa cancer cell lines. When incubated with \( \text{BCIO} \) (1 \( \mu \text{M} \)) for 20 min at 37 °C, both MCF-7 and HeLa displayed an increased fluorescence response (in relation to healthy COS-7 and RAW264.7 cells) corresponding to intracellular ClO⁻ concentrations of 9.45 nM and 8.23 nM respectively. In both of the cancer cell lines visualised, pre-treatment with the antioxidant GSH or 4-aminobenzoic acid hydrazide (ABAH, an MPO inhibitor) resulted in a significant drop in fluorescence response. The authors suggest that it may be possible to use \( \text{BCIO} \) in a diagnostic capacity; differentiating healthy and cancer cells based on endogenous hypochlorite concentration. The utility of \( \text{BCIO} \) was further demonstrated by the detection of hypochlorite produced in MCF-7 cells stimulated with elesclomol (an ROS generating anticancer agent).

![Fig 4.23 TOP: Structure and reaction of \( \text{BCIO} \) with hypochlorite. MIDDLE: Structures of \( \text{ABAH} \) and \( \text{elesclomol} \). BOTTOM: Live MCF-7 cells were cultured with \( \text{BCIO} \) then confocal fluorescence images were recorded after the addition of elesclomol at different time points: (a) 0, (b) 30, (c) 60, (d) 90, (e) 120, and (f) 180 min. Image reproduced with permission.\(^{311}\) ](image)

### 4.2.2 Hypochlorite mediated oxime/imine oxidation

An early example of a probe that used the oxime oxidation approach (\( \text{Flu-1} \), Fig 4.24) was published by the Li group in 2011.\(^{312}\) The emissive species (\( \lambda_{\text{em}} = 530 \text{ nm} \), \( \Phi_F = 0.65 \)) was an aldehyde.
containing fluorescein derivative (Flu-0) and when the aldehyde was protected as the oxime (Flu-1), fluorescence was effectively quenched ($\Phi_F = 0.01$). Probe Flu-1 displayed good selectivity against a suite of anionic species, however screening against ROS such as ONOO$^\cdot$, HO$^\cdot$, O$_2$$^\cdot$ etc was not performed. Importantly, Flu-1 failed to illicit a fluorescent response with H$_2$O$_2$ and bioimaging of exogenous hypochlorite was successfully demonstrated using HeLa cells incubated with Flu-1.

Wu, Zhang and Wu (2013) employed the same oxime/aldehyde strategy using a BODIPY fluorophore. The water soluble BOD-OXIME (Fig. 4.24) was poorly fluorescent ($\Phi_F = 0.04$) but reacted in a dose dependant “switch on” manner (LOD = 17.7 nm) with hypochlorite to give BOD-CHO which exhibited extraordinary fluorescence in aqueous solutions ($\Phi_F = 0.96$, $\lambda_{em} = 525$ nm). The visualisation of both exogenous (ClO$^-$) and endogenous hypochlorite (PMA stimulation) in RAW264.7 macrophages was successfully demonstrated. Selectivity for ClO$^-$ in vitro was excellent as no emission was observed when ABAH or taurine (a ClO$^-$ scavenger) were added to the PMA stimulated cells.

A recent report from the Kumar group in 2014 identified 4-dimethylaminocinnimaldehyde oxime 87 ($\Phi_F = 0.008$, Fig 4.24) as a selective “switch on” probe for hypochlorite. Oxidation with hypochlorite gave the nitrile oxide and this group participates in an extended ICT system leading to strong emission at 556 nm ($\Phi_F = 0.51$). The formation of the nitrile oxide was confirmed by spectroscopic means ($^1$H and $^{13}$C NMR) and by in situ trapping using 2-butenes to give the 4,5-dihydroisoxazole. The ability of probe 87 to visualise endogenous and exogenous hypochlorite was
demonstrated using the brain resident murine macrophages (BV2 microglial) and C6 glial cell lines (Fig. 4.25). Addition of exogenous NaOCl and also LPS stimulated endogenous hypochlorite production led to increased fluorescence.

**Fig 4.25** Fluorescence and DIC images of C6 glial (A) and BV2 microglial (B) cell lines. (Ia) Control of C6 glial and BV2 microglial cell lines respectively. (Ib) DIC images of Ia. (IIa) Images of C6 glial and BV2 microglial cells with NaOCl. (IIb) DIC images of IIa. (IIIa) Red fluorescence images of C6 glial and BV2 microglial cells with NaOCl and LPS. (IIIb) DIC images of IIIa. Scale = 50 nm. Image reproduced with permission. 314

The first ratiometric fluorometric probe for hypochlorite was developed by Yuan using an analogous approach to those above. 315 The probe consists of a diaminomaleonitrile derived imine 88 of aminocoumarin aldehyde 89 (Fig 4.26) The weakly fluorescent imine (λ<sub>em</sub> = 585 nm, Φ<sub>F</sub> = 0.02) reacted with hypochlorite to give the parent aldehyde and a bathochromic shift to an emission maximum centred at λ<sub>em</sub> = 505 nm (Φ<sub>F</sub> = 0.59) was observed. At physiological pH a marked increase in emission ratio (F<sub>505</sub>/F<sub>585</sub>) from 0.12 to 28.2 was observed after the probe was treated with hypochlorite. Probe 88 was successfully used to visualise exogenous hypochlorite in MCF-7 cells.

**Fig 4.26** TOP: Structure and reaction of aminocoumarinimine 88 with ClO<sup>-</sup> (a) Bright-field image of live MCF-7 cells incubated with only probe 88 (b) fluorescence ratio image (F<sub>505</sub>/F<sub>585</sub>) of (a); (c) bright-field image of live MCF-7 cells incubated with probe 88 then with ClO<sup>-</sup>; (d) fluorescence ratio image (F<sub>505</sub>/F<sub>585</sub>) of (c). Image reproduced with permission. 315

4.2.3 Hypochlorite mediated Ring opening
A number of rhodamine based systems which react specifically with hypochlorite have been reported in recent years. Work in this area was pioneered by Nagano in 2007 with the rhodamine thioether spirocycle HySOx.\textsuperscript{316} The thioether was critical for the stability of the closed form of the HySOx probe, particularly at higher pH. Hypochlorite oxidation of the thioether triggers ring opening and fluorescence “switch on” ($\lambda_{em} = 575$ nm, $\Phi_F = 0.34$). Utilising this sensitivity to hypochlorite the authors were able to image phagocytosis in porcine neutrophils.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{fig4_27.png}
\caption{Structure and spirocycle ring opening reactions of HySOx and MMSiR with hypochlorite.}
\end{figure}

In an extension of this work, Nagano (2011) reported the silylrhodamine analogue MMSiR (Fig 4.27).\textsuperscript{317} The isosteric replacement of oxygen with silicon resulted in a significant red-shift in the emission wavelength to the near-infrared (NIR) region ($\lambda_{em} = 670$ nm, $\Phi_F = 0.31$). Similar to HySOx, the MMSiR probe was also used in the imaging of phagocytosis. In addition the hydrophilic probe wsMMSiR was synthesised and applied to the in vivo imaging of hypochlorite in a mouse peritonitis model (Fig 4.28). In this study C57BL/6 mice were treated with an intraperitoneal injection of zymosan to stimulate neutrophil invasion of the peritoneal cavity. Injection of wsMMSiR and PMA resulted in enhanced fluorescence emission in the abdomen.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{fig4_28.png}
\caption{Comparison of white light (left panels) and fluorescence (right panels) images of unstimulated mouse (left) and the peritonitis model mouse stimulated with zymosan and PMA (right). wsMMSiR and PMA were successively administered by intraperitoneal injection. Images were obtained just before (top) and 60 min after (bottom) PMA injection. Image reproduced with permission.\textsuperscript{317}}
\end{figure}

Using a more traditional rhodamine fluorophore, Yoon (2007) developed both a thio- and selenoester trigger for selective ClO\textsuperscript{−} sensing.\textsuperscript{318} Upon reaction with hypochlorite, the non-fluorescent R19-S, R19-Se and R101-S undergo ring opening and fluorescence is “switched on” at $\lambda_{em} = 550$ nm, 545 nm and 585 nm respectively. Probe R19-S was used to visualise hypochlorite production in phagocytes and microbial hypochlorite generation in intestinal epithelia of Drosophila melanogaster.
In the last few years a number of diacylhydrazine-rhodamine probes have been reported. These probes rely on selective oxidation by hypochlorite to give a diacyl diimide, then subsequent hydrolysis reveals the fluorescent rhodamine. An early example of this approach was reported by Ma and co-workers although high pH was required (pH 12). Modifications to the benzoyl substituent can be used to tailor probes which are more suited for imaging purposes. For example, by using a pendant alkoxyquinoline moiety (RHQ, Fig 4.30) Goswami and co-workers were able to image endogenous hypochlorite in human peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs). A similar fluorescein based system (90 R = O and 91 R = S, Fig. 4.30) from the Li group was used to monitor hypochlorite in *Rhodobacter ferrooxidans* prokaryotes as a potential model for hypochlorite induced stress.

In 2014 Hou *et al.* employed this trigger in the mitochondria targeting probes Rh-TPP and Rh-Py (Fig 4.31). The incorporation of a phosphonium (Rh-TPP) or pyridinium ion (Rh-Py) onto the probe facilitated the imaging of exogenous hypochlorite in the mitochondria of HeLa cells.
Fig 4.31 **TOP:** Structure of mitochondria targeting probes **Rh-TPP** and **Rh-Py**  **BOTTOM:** HeLa cells were stained with **Rh-TPP** or **Rh-Py**, incubated with ClO⁻, then Mito Tracker Green was added. (a) and (e): fluorescence images of **Rh-TPP** and **Rh-Py** with ClO⁻; (b) and (f): the fluorescence images of Mito Tracker Green; (c) and (g): merged images; (d) and (h): intensity profile of ROIs across HeLa cells. Red lines represent the intensity of synthetic probes and green lines represent the intensity of Mito Tracker Green. Scale = 25 µm. Image reproduced with permission. 99

The ability of **Rh-TPP** and **Rh-Py** to visualise hypochlorite in vivo was also demonstrated. Nude mice were injected with either probe followed by an injection with a ClO⁻ solution. In each case a persistent fluorescent response was elicited from hypochlorite.

Fig 4.32 Representative fluorescence images (pseudocolor) of nude mice given a skin-pop injection of (a) **Rh-TPP** and (b) **Rh-Py** (region A and C, respectively) and a subsequent skin-pop injection of ClO⁻. Representative fluorescence images (pseudocolor) of nude mice given a skin-pop injection of (a) **Rh-TPP** and (b) **Rh-Py** region B and D, respectively). Images were taken after incubation for 20 and 40 min, respectively. Image reproduced with permission. 99

A hydroxamic acid variant of this approach was outlined by Shin and Tae in 2013. 322 In this case it was proposed that the hydroxamic acid was oxidised to the corresponding ring opened acyl nitroso group and it was anticipated that this product was rapidly hydrolysed to **Rhodamine 19** (λ<sub>em</sub> = 547 nm). Probe 92 (Fig 4.33) could detect hypochlorite concentration at ca. 25 nM. Of interest, when the exocyclic amines had an additional ethyl substituent, or were replaced by hydroxyl groups (fluorescein) the probes did not respond to hypochlorite, even when a 20-fold excess was administered.

Fig 4.33 Structure and reaction of 92 with hypochlorite. Inset shows proposed acynitroso intermediate 93.
Probe 92 could be used to detect exogenous hypochlorite in A549 lung cancer cells with a clear dose responsive fluorescence “switch on” with increasing ClO⁻ concentration (Fig 4.34). Furthermore 92 was successfully used for the in vivo detection of exogenous hypochlorite added to live zebrafish.

![Images of A549 cells and zebrafish treated with and without hypochlorite](image)

**Fig 4.34** Bright field image of A549 cells treated with (a) 92 in the absence of ClO⁻. (b) with both ClO⁻ and 92. Fluorescence image of A549 cells treated with (c) 92 in the absence of ClO⁻. (d) both ClO⁻ and 83. Fluorescence images of zebrafish treated with (e) 92 in the absence of ClO⁻. (f) bright field image of zebrafish treated with 92 and ClO⁻. (g) Fluorescence images of zebrafish treated both 92 and ClO⁻. Image reproduced with permission.

### 4.2.5 Hypochlorite mediated chalcogen oxidation

In 2013 We and Liu described the PET based BODIPY probe HCSe (Fig 4.35) for hypochlorous acid. In this instance the BODIPY fluorophore was functionalised with a 2-(phenylselenyl)phenyl substituent and the presence of the selenide quenches fluorescence by PET (Φ_F = 0.005). When oxidised by hypochlorite, the corresponding selenoxide (HCSeO) is formed and PET is unfavoured and BODIPY fluorescence is restored (λ_{em} = 526 nm, Φ_F = 0.690). Using RAW264.7 cells the utility of this probe in vitro was explored; cells were pre-treated with HCSe and upon addition of ClO⁻ enhanced fluorescence emission was detected. Subsequent treatment of these cells with glutathione (GSH) resulted in the loss of fluorescence intensity, indicating that the selenoxide (HCSeO) could be reduced back to its non-emissive precursor. Similarly, the endogenous production of hypochlorite could be visualised in RAW264.7 cells that were stimulated using PMA.

Structurally similar annulated BODIPY chalcogenides (discovered somewhat serendipitously during the synthesis of dichalcogenides such as 93) were reported by Churchill in 2013. These unexpected annulated heterocycles were formed by base induced S_{E-Ar} reaction of the dipyrrole dichalcogenide (93) and their structure confirmed by means of an X-ray structure of the selenide derivative (94). It is of note that the diselenide 93 has been utilised as a reversible superoxide probe. Despite not being applied to a living system, the annulated tellurium BODIPY (95) was
shown to be at least 62-fold selective for ClO\textsuperscript{−} over other ROS (O\textsubscript{2}\textsuperscript{−}, H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}, \textsuperscript{1}BuOOH, ClO\textsuperscript{−}, HO\textsuperscript{•}, and \textsuperscript{1}BuO\textsuperscript{•}) under physiological conditions (0.1 M PBS/EtOH (99:1 v/v), pH 7.5). Following oxidation with hypochlorite, PET from the tellurium was blocked and fluorescence was “switched on” (λ\textsubscript{em} = 597 nm, Φ\textsubscript{F} increased from 0.06 to 0.23). Similar to HCSe, telluride oxidation could be reversed by treatment with GSH.

\[
\text{MPhSe-BOD} \quad \text{is weakly fluorescent (Φ\textsubscript{F} = 0.13, λ\textsubscript{em} = 510 nm) due to a Se modulated PET process.}^{326}\]

Hypochlorite oxidation interrupts the PET process and restores strong fluorescence (MPhSeO-BOD, Φ\textsubscript{F} = 0.96). The reverse process (reduction) is selectively performed by HS\textsuperscript{−}. The probe was used to visualise endogenously produced hypochlorite in PMA stimulated RAW264.7 macrophages. The role of hypochlorite was confirmed by comparison to taurine and xanthine/xanthine oxidase controls. Imaging of the redox cycling between hypochlorite and HS\textsuperscript{−} was also demonstrated in RAW264.7 cells.

The tellurium containing rhodamine system (2-MeTeR, Φ\textsubscript{F} < 0.001) presented by Nagano in 2012 has the advantage that its oxidised form (2-MeTeOR) is red emissive (λ\textsubscript{em} = 686 nm, Φ\textsubscript{F} = 0.18).\textsuperscript{327} However, this probe suffers from intereference from other ROS such as HO\textsuperscript{•} and ONOO\textsuperscript{−}.

Nevertheless the probe was used to visualise endogenously produced ROS in human promyelocytic leukemia (HL-60) cells following stimulation with H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}. As the added H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} was consumed by MPO and/or the reaction was reversed by intracellular reductants, the increased fluorescent intensity was short lived. Fluorescence was restored following a second addition of H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2}. Fluorescence intensity was also reduced when the cells were treated with aminobenzoic acid hydrazide (ABAH).
Fig. 4.36 Time courses of the change in fluorescence intensity observed with 2-MeTeR for H$_2$O$_2$-stimulated or unstimulated HL-60 cells or H$_2$O$_2$-stimulated HeLa cells. H$_2$O$_2$ (100 µM and 200 µM final concentration) was added at 100 sec and 2400 sec, respectively. The myeloperoxidase inhibitor (MPOI) is aminobenzoic acid hydrazide (ABAH; 2 mM). The fluorescence intensity was measured at 690 nm with excitation at 660 nm. Image reproduced with permission.\textsuperscript{327}

In 2013 the Han group reported the 4-aminonaphthalimide-based hypochlorite sensor Ni-Se, shown in figure 4.37.\textsuperscript{328} While related to the aforementioned examples, the selenide was non-fluorescent ($\Phi_F = 0.04$) and oxidation gave the fluorescent selenoxide Ni-SeO ($\lambda_{em} = 523$ nm, $\Phi_F = 0.45$). Unlike the previously described selenide/selenoxide systems fluorescence was not modulated by a PET mechanism. Instead, the 2-(phenylselenyl)benzyl moiety induced an excited state configurational twist which was not present in the oxidised Ni-SeO. The reduction of the selenoxide could be reversed by the addition of HS\textsuperscript{-} to the system; this process was repeated up to six times with a decrease in fluorescence intensity of 50%. Cellular imaging of Ni-Se was performed using mouse macrophage RAW264.7 cells stimulated with LPS and PMA and enhanced fluorescence was observed. Weak fluorescence was also observed when cells were pre-treated with salicylhydroxamic acid (SHA), a known inhibitor of MPO. A similar result was obtained with the use of a ROS scavenger glutathione S-transferase (GST, EC: 2.5.1.18). Co-staining with Hoeschst 33342 revealed that probe was located mainly in the cytosol.

\begin{center}
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{ni-se.png}
\end{center}

Fig 4.37 TOP: Structure and reaction of Ni-Se with hypochlorite BOTTOM: Fluorescence images of ClO$^-\textsuperscript{$ in living RAW264.7 cells. (a–c) Cells were pretreated with LPS. (a) Incubated with Ni-Se. (b) Incubated with Ni-Se and then with PMA. (c) Incubated with SHA and co-incubated with PMA, then incubated with Ni-Se. (d) RAW264.7 cells loaded with Hoechst 33342 and Ni-Se, Image reproduced with permission.\textsuperscript{328}

Ni-Se was also used in living mice for the \textit{in vivo} imaging of hypochlorite produced in a LPS model of acute inflammation (Fig. 4.38). Similar to the \textit{in vitro} study, when LPS was injected, followed by Ni-
Se, an enhanced signal was collected compared to the control (NI-Se only). Injection of HS\textsuperscript{−} resulted in a decrease in fluorescence emission.

Fig 4.38 Fluorescent images of ClO\textsuperscript{−} production and HS\textsuperscript{−} reduction in the peritoneal cavity of the mice with NI–Se. (a) Control, neither LPS nor NI–Se was injected; (b) saline was injected in the intraperitoneal (i.p.) cavity of mice, followed by i.p. injection of NI–Se; (c) LPS was injected into the peritoneal cavity of the mice, followed by i.p. injection of NI–Se. (d) An additional HS\textsuperscript{−} was injected in parallel to (c). Image reproduced with permission.

A new strategy for the detection of hypochlorite involving a selenide containing probe was presented by Li et al. in 2013.\textsuperscript{329} The partially reduced coumarin derivatives CM1 and CM2, (Fig #) each bearing a 3-phenylselenyl moiety were synthesised and both were non-fluorescent (Φ\textsubscript{F} < 0.001). In this instance the selenoxide produced from hypochlorite oxidation underwent a Cope-type elimination to give the corresponding fluorescent reporters 96 (λ\textsubscript{em} = 480 nm, Φ\textsubscript{F} = 0.036) and 97 (λ\textsubscript{em} = 468 nm, Φ\textsubscript{F} = 0.047). The utility of probe CM1 was demonstrated \textit{in vitro}, by the quantitative determination of exogenous hypochlorite in NIH3T3 cells. CM1 was also used to indicate the endogenous formation of hypochlorite in H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} stimulated HL-60 human progranulocytic leukemia cell lines and RAW264.7 macrophages stimulated with lipopolysaccharide (LPS). In both of these instances there was a significant enhancement of the fluorescent response in relation to the controls.

Fig 4.39 TOP: Structure of CM1 and CM2 and the mechanism of their reaction with ClO\textsuperscript{−}. BOTTOM: (a) Fluorescence images of HL-60 cells with CM1 (b) Bright-field images of cells in panel (a). (c) After addition of H\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{2} (d) Bright-field images of cells in panel (c). (e) Fluorescence images of RAW 264.7 cells with CM1 (f) Bright-field images of cells in panel (e). (g) Cells loaded with CM1 then LPS (h) Bright-field images of cells in panel (g). Image reproduced with permission.\textsuperscript{329}
A PET-based Ru(bpy)$_3^{2+}$ based probe for the monitoring of ClO$^-$/HS$^-$ redox cycle was developed by the Sun group in 2014. A pendent phenothiazine (PTZ) was attached to one of the 2,2'-bipyridine ligands, which suppressed fluorescence emission from the complex. Upon oxidation of the PTZ sulfur with ClO$^-$ the fluorescence emission was restored ($\lambda_{em} = 605$ nm, $\lambda_{ex} = 450$ nm, $\Phi_F = 0.39$). This process could be reversed with HS$^-$ in a recyclable fashion (12 cycles). The authors were able to visualise this ClO$^-$/HS$^-$ redox cycle in live mice; weak fluorescence was observed after administration of probe 98 and this response was modulated during alternating additions of ClO$^-$ and HS$^-$.  

![Fig 4.40](image)

The luminescence imaging of the redox cycle between ClO$^-$ and HS$^-$ in live mice: (a) 98 was loaded into the leg cortex of the mice; (b) ClO$^-$ was loaded in the same position; (c) HS$^-$ was loaded in the same position; and (d) another ClO$^-$ was loaded in the same position. Image reproduced with permission.

The groups of Wang and Peng reported a cyanine-phenothiazine hybrid probe, PTZ-Cy2 which was sensitive to both hypochlorite and HO$^*$. The sulphur atom of the non-fluorescent probe was initially oxidised by OCl$^-$ and/or HO$^*$ to give the fluorescent sulfoxide OPTZ-Cy2 which gave a pink emission ($\lambda_{em} = 595$ nm). Continued addition of OCl$^-$ to OPTZ-Cy2 led to a blue shifted emission ($\lambda_{em} = 470$ nm) resulting from the degradation of the conjugated cyanine alkene to the aldehyde OPTA. This blue shifted emission was not seen during HO$^*$ addition, rather, excessive HO$^*$ lead to a decrease in the total emission indicating decomposition. PTZ-Cy2 was used to visualise the ROS in PMA stimulated HeLa cells (Fig 4.41). Co-staining with MitoTracker Deep Red FM indicates that fluorescence resulting from PTZ-Cy2 and OPTZ-Cy2 was localised in the mitochondria. Non-mitochondrial fluorescence was ascribed to the non-charged OPTA diffusing away from the mitochondria.
4.2.6 Miscellaneous

Lin and co-workers developed a series of rhodamine-merocyanine hybrid probes which absorb and emit in the NIR range. The non-fluorescent spirocyclic benzoyl thiosemicarbazide 100 (Fig. 4.42), in the presence of hypochlorite undergoes oxidative cyclisation to give the 2-amino-1,3,4-oxadiazole (101) which simultaneously opens the spirocycle and restores ICT ($\lambda_{ex} = 690$ nm, $\lambda_{em} = 746$ nm). Imaging of hypochlorite in LPS and PMA stimulated RAW264.7 macrophages established the viability of probe 100 in vitro and also revealed mitochondrial localisation. Probe 100 was applicable as a hypochlorite responsive probe in imprinting control region (ICR) mice treated with LPS; higher fluorescent emission was recorded when compared with the control or 100 alone.

![Figure 4.42](image)

**Fig 4.42** Representative fluorescent images (pseudocolour) of in vivo ClO⁻ production from the peritoneal cavity of the mice with 100 during an LPS-mediated inflammatory response: (a) negative control, neither LPS nor 100 was injected; (b) saline was injected in the intraperitoneal (i.p.) cavity of mice, followed by i.p. injection of 100; (c) LPS was injected into the peritoneal cavity of the mice, followed by i.p. injection of 100. Image reproduced with permission.
Ma (2010) described the PET system 9-AEF consisting of an anthracene linked by an alkene to ferrocene. The electron rich ferrocene instigates PET to the anthracene and fluorescence is quenched ($\Phi_F < 0.001$). Hypochlorite could oxidise the alkene, and in the product (not characterised) PET is unfavoured and anthracene-like emission was observed ($\lambda_{em} = 441$ nm, $\Phi_F = 0.12$). It should be noted that no single product was identified, nevertheless, the response to hypochlorite was dose dependant and the probe was successfully used to image hypochlorite in HeLa cells. No fluorescence was observed in cells containing 9-AEF unless they were pre- or post-treated with hypochlorite.

4.3 HYPOBROMITE

In an analogous manner to hypochlorite, hypobromous acid/hypobromite can be produced endogenously by macrophages and eosinophils from the reaction between H$_2$O$_2$ and bromide which is catalysed by eosinophil peroxidase (EPO) in response to invading pathogens. Overproduction of HOBr can lead to diseases such as cancer, arthritis, cardiovascular disease and asthma. There is a demonstrated correlation between clinical severity in asthma patients and serum EPO levels. While the fraction of HOBr/BrO$^-$ is likely to be high (the $pK_a$ for HOBr is 8.7–8.8 at 25 °C) a small percentage of the anionic species is likely to exist at physiological pH and in certain compartments such as mitochondria a considerable percentage of BrO$^-$ is likely. The design of fluorescent probes for in vitro detection of this species has recently received attention.

4.3.1 Recent developments

In 2012, the Han group reported two reversible fluorescent probes for the in vitro imagining of redox stress caused by HOBr. Both probes, mCyTem-OH and CyTem-OH (Fig. 4.44), respond through the HOBr mediated oxidation of a 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine-$N$-oxyl moiety to the corresponding oxammonium cation which leads to a donor-excited PET (d-PET) quenching mechanism ($\Phi_F$ decrease from 0.11 to 0.02 for mCy-TemOH). Oxidation of mCyTemOH ($\lambda_{em} = 550$ nm) results in a red-shifted emission centred at 632 nm. In vitro investigations used mCy-TeOH to monitor changes in endogenous HOBr concentration in RAW264.7 macrophages; treatment with EPO, H$_2$O$_2$ and KBr resulted in an increased in the $F_{632}/F_{550}$ ratio from 2.8 to 12.9. Addition of ascorbic acid to the system resulted in reduction of the oxammonium cation and a decrease in the $F_{632}/F_{550}$ ratio.
Fig 4.44 TOP: Structure of mCy-TemOH and Cy-TemOH and their reaction with BrO\(^{-}\). BOTTOM: Ratiometric fluorescence images \((F_{632}/F_{550})\) of living RAW264.7 cells with mCy-TemOH (a)–(d). Pseudo color images represent the ratio of emission intensities. (a) Control. (b) mCy-TemOH-loaded cells incubated with \(\text{H}_2\text{O}_2\), EPO and KBr. (c) mCy-TemOH loaded, EPO, and \(\text{H}_2\text{O}_2\) treated cells incubated with glutathione S-transferase, then ascorbic acid. (d) Cells exposed to a second dose of EPO, KBr and \(\text{H}_2\text{O}_2\). (e)–(f) Confocal microscopy imaging for subcellular locations of mCy-TemOH in living RAW264.7 cells. (e) Cells incubated with mCy-TemOH (red) and co-staining with Hoechst dye (blue). (f) Overlay of (e) and its bright-field image. Image reproduced with permission.

The full cyanine probe, Cy-TemOH, exhibited NIR absorption \((\lambda_{\text{abs}} = 702 \text{ nm})\) and emission \((\lambda_{\text{em}} = 755 \text{ nm})\). Cy-TemOH also responded to the HOBr/ascorbic acid redox cycle but suffered from severe bleaching after three cycles. Nevertheless, Cy-TemOH was successfully used to visualise the redox cycle in RAW264.7 cells. Both Cy-TemOH and mCy-TemOH localised in the cytoplasm and cells remained viable (MTT assay).

The same group then developed a NIR-reversible BODIPY-based probe which could monitor the redox cycle between HOBr and HS\(^{-}\). The probe, diMPhSe-BOD (Fig. 4.45) absorbs strongly \((\varepsilon_{672} = 22,770 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1})\) but was weakly fluorescent \((\lambda_{\text{em}} = 711 \text{ nm}, \Phi_{F} = 0.00083)\) due to the electron transfer (PET) from the diarylselenides. Oxidation with HOBr leads to a blue-shifted emission \((\lambda_{\text{em}} = 635 \text{ nm})\) and 118-fold increase in the \(F_{632}/F_{711}\) ratio. The reverse reaction is accomplished by HS\(^{-}\) (selectively over other RSS such as Cys, Hcys and GSH). It is also notable that the emission ratio generated from the reaction with HOBr was ca. 6-fold greater than with ClO\(^{-}\). The HOBr/HS\(^{-}\) redox cycle could be visualised in RAW264.7 cells and using diMPhSe-BOD HOBr and H\(_2\)S could be detected at concentrations as low as 50 and 100 nM respectively.
Fig 4.45 Confocal fluorescence images of the redox cycles between HOBBr and H$_2$S in RAW264.7 cells. Macrophage cells. (a) Control; (b) diMPhSe-BOD-loaded cells with H$_2$O$_2$, EPO, and KBr; (c) cells in (b) after addition of HS$^-$; (d) (c) was treated with a second dose of H$_2$O$_2$, EPO and KBr; (e) overlay of images showing fluorescence from diMPhSe-BOD and Hoechst dye; (f) Overlay of bright-field, diMPhSe-BOD, and Hoechst dye images. Image reproduced with permission.
5. Conclusion and future work

One of the key purposes of this review was to highlight that the strategies employed for the design of small fluorescent anion sensors can be applied to *in vitro* and *in vivo* bioimaging.

As such further developments in fluorophore design and strategies for signal modulation are likely to have immediate imaging applications. The emerging use of multiphoton excitation is already having an impact. Developments in the use of fluorescence lifetime will also broaden the range of approaches that can be used. Probes that are compatible with a super-resolution approach would also be beneficial for the ultimate aim of pinpointing the origin and/or fate of the species of interest.

Despite some impressive examples, many of the probes described herein do not meet the highly demanding criteria set out for an “ideal probe” in section 1.2. Selectivity for the analyte of interest is not always realised and probes that are not dependent on a chemical transformation are currently the most prone to interference. Indeed it is a truly formidable challenge to design a selective, *reversible*, recognition process that operates by means of non-covalent forces in an exceptionally competitive media! Further refinement of fundamental recognition principles and the ability to readily synthesise (or assemble) sophisticated structures is required to overcome this hurdle. While the selectivity of chemodosimeters is often excellent the reactions are typically *irreversible* and hence they are incapable of mapping in a truly spatiotemporal manner.

Furthermore, despite the obvious potential that these probes offer, many are destined to be research tools only; the widespread use of fluorescent probes in clinical settings is hampered by expensive operational set-up and sample by sample analysis. Nevertheless, several of the probes included herein have been successfully used in flow systems and with the current rapid progress in the field of micro-fluidics and micro-optics the goal of cost effective, “smartphone style”, point of care diagnostics using selective fluorescent probes is sure to be realised.

It is also interesting to note that for many small anions (Cl\(^-\), I\(^-\), HCO\(_3\)\(^-\), and BrO\(^-\)) the complete list of probes is very short and hence any progress would be welcome. Nevertheless, the field of anion sensing is rapidly advancing, and for the researchers involved in this field these challenges should be seen as nothing more than an excellent opportunity to further the fundamental understanding of our natural world.

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GLOSSARY OF CELL LINES

RAW264.7 Murine/mouse macrophages
PC3 Prostate cancer
HUVEC Human umbilical vein endothelial cell
NIH3T3 Murine/mouse fibroblast
HeLa Epithelial cervical cancer
MCF-7 Breast cancer
HEK-293 Human embryonic kidney cells
L929 Murine/mouse fibroblast
A549 Adenocarcinomic human alveolar basal epithelial cells
COS-7 Fibroblast-like
B16-F10 Murine/mouse skin melanoma
U266 Human myeloma
HepG2 Hepatocellular carcinoma
PMN Human polymorphonuclear neutrophils
BV2 Microglial Brain resident murine macrophages
MDA-MB-231 Human breast adenocarcinoma
SH-SY5Y Human neuronal neuroblasts
HL-60 Human promyelocytic leukemia
GES Human breast cancer cells

6. References


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