COMMUNICATION

Highly selective detection of copper(II) by a "ligand-free" conjugated copolymer in nucleophilic solvents

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Abstract The synthesis of N-cyclohexyl carbamateattached fluorene-alt-phenylene copolymer (PFPNCC) and the use of PFPNCC as a "ligand-free" fluorescent chemosensor for Cu(II) are described. Addition of Cu(II) can efficiently quench the fluorescence of PFPNCC in nucleophilic solvents such as DMF and DMSO, but not in low nucleophilic solvents such as 1,4-dioxane and THF. Ultraviolet-visible spectra of the mixture of the conjugated polymer and Cu(II) indicate the presence of a reduced Cu (I) ion in the solution. Furthermore, fluorescence recovery of PFPNCC observed at low temperature suggests that the quenching and reducing mechanism is most probably due to a photo-induced electron transfer from excited PFPNCC to Cu(II). Our findings provide a novel strategy for highly selective conjugated polymer-based chemosensors for various target analytes, albeit "ligand-free".

Keywords ligand-free, fluorescent chemosensor, copper, photo-induced electron transfer

1 Introduction

Copper ions, the third abundant trace metal ions in human body, are often employed for metal centers of over 30 proteins [1,2] such as superoxide dismutase, ceruloplasmin, lysyl oxidase, cytochrome c oxidase, tyrosinase and dopamine- β -hydroxylase [3–5]. Although copper ions play a positive role in human body, their disorder induces various neurodegenerative diseases [6–9]. In addition, the contamination of environmental water by copper ions leads to heavy-metal pollution, because certain microorganisms

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E-mails: iamqlfan@njupt.edu.cn (Fan Q); tminami@iis.u-tokyo.ac.jp (Minami T) are affected by even sub- μ mol/L concentrations of copper ions [10]. In this regard, World Health Organization (WHO) recommends that the concentration of copper ions in drinking water must not exceed 2 mg/L (30 μ mol/L) [11]. Therefore, much attention has been paid to the selective recognition and sensing of copper ions.

Fluorescent chemosensors for copper ions have attracted considerable interest, because the conventional methods, including high performance liquid chromatography, mass spectrometry and atomic absorption spectroscopy, suffer either from expensive procedures or the use of sophisticated instruments [12]. To date, a variety of fluorescent chemosensors with copper ion ligands such as pyridine [13,14], Schiff-base [15], crown ether [16], and their derivatives has been developed. Moreover, conjugated polymers have emerged as one of the most important classes of backbone and reporter moieties for chemosensors [17]. A key advantage of conjugated polymer-based chemosensors is their potential to exhibit collective properties that are sensitive to very minor perturbations [18]. Thus, several conjugated polymer-based chemosensors with bipyridine or imidazole have been developed for the detection of copper ions [19-21]. Most of the reported chemosensors have copper chelating sites linked to reporter-backbones [22-24]. However, these chemosensors suffer from complicated synthesis and interference from competing metal ions. Hence, the development of a highly selective and simple detection strategy for copper ions "without" any ligand cites remains a challenge.

We herein report a "ligand-free", *N*-cyclohexyl carbamate-attached fluorene-*alt*-phenylene copolymer (PFPNCC) as a highly selective fluorescent chemosensor for copper ions. The bulky side-chain, *N*-cyclohexyl carbamate, can improve the solubility of the π -conjugated polymer. More importantly, the fluorescence of PFPNCC can be quenched by Cu(II) in nucleophilic solvents. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time to report a

conjugated copolymer-based chemosensor for Cu(II) without any metal ligands in molecular structures.

2 Experimental

2.1 Materials

All chemical reagents and organic solvents used were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, Acros, and Alfa and were used without further purification. All organic reactions were performed under a nitrogen atmosphere.

2.2 Methods

NMR spectra were recorded on a Bruker Ultra Shield Plus 400 MHz. Gel permeation chromatography analysis of PFPNCC was conducted on Shim-pack GPC-80X columns with THF as an eluent and polystyrenes as standard polymers. Ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV–vis) and fluorescence spectroscopic measurements were performed on a Shimadzu UV–3600 and a Shimadzu RF-5301PC spectrophotometer, respectively. The solutions of metal ions were prepared by dissolving an appropriate amount of metal salts in Milli-Q grade water. To evaluate the metal ion detectability of PFPNCC, the aqueous solutions with metal ions were added into a N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF) solution (2 mL) of PFPNCC (1.0×10^{-6} mol/L).

2.3 Synthesis of PFPOH

Monomer units were synthesized according to the previously reported methods [25,26]. 0.744 g (1.00 mmol) of (9,9-bis(6-bromohexyl))fluorene-2,7diboronic acid di(pinacol) ester (1), 0.384 g (1.00 mmol) of 1,4-dibromo-2,5-di(hydroxypropyloxy)-benzene (2) and 1 mol-% of Pd(PPh₃)₄ were placed into a two-neck flask. Subsequently, 30 mL of 1,4-dioxane and 2 mL of an aqueous solution with 0.69 g (5.00 mmol) of K_2CO_3 were added to the flask. The resulting mixture was stirred at 85°C for 3 d. After this period, phenylboronic acid (5 mol-%) was added, and the mixture was further heated at 85°C for 8 h. Then, bromobenzene (5 mol-%) was added to the mixture and stirred at 85°C for 16 h. After cooling down, 1,4-dioxane was removed in vacuo and the residue was dissolved in dichloromethane. The dissolved residue was purified by an alumina column chromatography. The collected solution was partially concentrated, followed by reprecipitation by using in *n*-hexane. In this way, 0.7 g of PFPOH was obtained. Yield: 56%. ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃, δ ppm): 7.28–7.86 (m, 6H, fluorene–H), 7.20 (s, 2H, phenylene–H), 4.15 (t, J = 5.6 Hz, 4H, Ar–O–CH₂–), 3.77-4.10 (m, 8H, -CH₂OH, -CH₂Br), 2.07 (quint., J = 8.8 Hz, 4H, -CH₂-CH₂OH), 1.80-1.90 (m, 8H, -CH₂-CH₂Br, fluorene-CH₂-), 1.17-1.40 (m, 12H, -CH₂-).

2.4 Synthesis of PFPNCC

PFPOH (0.2 g) was dissolved in 20 mL of dry 1,4-dioxane at room temperature, and 1.1 mL (8.6 mmol) of cyclohexyl isocyanate was added dropwise in 10 min. The mixture solution was stirred for 24 h. The solution was concentrated in vacuo, and then *n*-hexane was added. The resulting precipitates were collected and dried in vacuo to give PFPNCC as a powder. Yield: 0.19 g (96%). ¹H NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃, δ ppm): 7.28–7.92 (m, 6H, fluorene– H), 7.10 (s, 2H, phenylene-H), 4.64 (br, 2H, -NH-), 4.16-4.41 (m, 8H, -CH2-CH2-CH2O-), 3.99-4.09 (m, 4H, -CH₂Br), 3.40-3.55 (m, 2H, -NH-CH-), 2.10- (m, 4H, -CH2-CH2OH), 1.83-1.98 (m, 12H, -CH2-CH2Br, -CH-CH₂-, fluorene-CH₂-), 1.61-1.71 (m, 8H, -CH₂-), 1.50-1.13 (m, 20H, $-CH_2$ -). The ¹H NMR spectrum of PFPNCC is shown in Fig. S1. ¹³C NMR could not be measured due to its low solubility. $M_{\rm n}$ = 1.1 × 10⁴ g/mol, $M_{\rm w}/M_{\rm p} = 2.0$.

3 Results and discussion

The synthetic route of the polymer PFPNCC is summarized in Scheme 1. The precursor PFPOH was synthesized via a Suzuki coupling polymerization [23], and PFPNCC was subsequently obtained by the reaction of PFPOH with cyclohexyl isocyanate. The ¹H NMR spectrum of the product clearly showed a broad carbamate-NH peak at around 3.5 ppm, which supported that the aforementioned reaction was successfully achieved. More details of synthetic methods and assignments of the polymers are summarized in the Experimental section. We also characterized optical properties of PFPNCC. The UV–vis spectrum of PFPNCC showed the maximum absorbance at 370 nm in DMF. The DMF solution of PFPNCC exhibited fluorescence with an emission peak at around 420 nm (λ_{ex} = 370 nm).

First, the fluorescence responsivity of PFPNCC against various heavy-metal ions and transition-metal ones was investigated. Figures 1 and S2 show the quenching behavior of PFPNCC against the addition of various metal ions $(Zn^{2+}, Pd^{2+}, Al^{3+}, Pb^{2+}, Ni^{2+}, Mn^{2+}, Li^+, K^+, Hg^{2+}, Fe^{3+}, Cr^{3+}, Co^{2+}, Cd^{2+}, Ca^{2+}, Ba^{2+}, Ag^+ and Cu^{2+})$ in DMF. As a result, the addition of metal ions except Cu (II) induced almost no or very weak fluorescence quenching (i.e., less than 10% changes). On the other hand, significant fluorescence quenching by adding Cu(II) was clearly observed. Furthermore, competitive experiments were carried out by monitoring changes in the fluorescence intensity at 420 nm upon addition of the mixture of all tested metal ions to the DMF solution of PFPNCC. No obvious fluorescence quenching was induced by mixed metal ions without Cu(II), whereas a very strong fluorescence quenching by a mixture of metal



Fig. 1 Fluorescence quenching efficiency of PFPNCC ($1.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol/L}$) in DMF by adding metal ions. $\lambda_{ex} = 370 \text{ nm}$, $\lambda_{em} = 420 \text{ nm}$. $C_{\text{Metal ion}} = 4 \text{ mmol/L}$

ions with Cu(II) was observed (Fig. S3). Any types of counter anions such as NO_3^- , Cl⁻, SO_4^{2-} and ClO₄ did not affect the fluorescence intensity of PFPNCC. These results demonstrate that the fluorescent chemosensor PFPNCC shows a high selectivity for Cu(II) over other cations.

We further studied the fluorescence response of PFPNCC to an increasing amount of Cu(II) (Fig. 2). As depicted in Fig. 2, a linearly dependent quenching was observed when the Cu(II) concentration was less than 60 μ mol/L. The Stern-Volmer quenching constant was estimated to be 1.1×10^4 M⁻¹ (Fig. S4). The 3 σ detection

limit of Cu(II) is \sim 5 µmol/L, which is lower than the WHO guideline level (30 µmol/L) for copper in drinking water.

To discuss the observed quenching phenomenon, UV–vis spectra was measured for the Cu(II) titration. As shown in Fig. 3, a new weak peak at 435 nm was also observed, which is attributed to a trace of Cu(I) derived from Cu(II) reduction in the presence of PFPNCC with solvent [27]. Upon addition of Cu(II), the color of the solution turned out to be bronze yellow, which could be seen by naked eyes. The similar phenomena and UV–vis spectral changes were also observed in other nucleophilic

Fig. 2 Fluorescence spectra of PFPNCC ($1.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol/L}$) in DMF upon addition of Cu(II). $C_{\text{Cu(II)}} = 0-5 \text{ mmol/L}$. $\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 370 \text{ nm}$. Inset shows titration isotherm corresponding to the Cu(II)-induced fluorescence quenching

Cu(II)

0-5 mmol/L

0.8

0.6

0.2

500

0

Wavelength/nm

1000 2000 3000 4000 5000

600

650

Concentration/(µmol·L⁻¹)

550

Π₀

solvents such as DMSO, but the absorbance peak derived from Cu(I) was not observed in low nucleophilic solvents such as 1,4-dioxane and THF. Figure 4 shows the solventdependency of the quenching behavior for the addition of Cu(II). The efficient fluorescence quenching was observed in nucleophilic solvents, whereas weak fluorescence quenching exhibited in low nucleophilic solvents. These



Fig. 3 UV-vis spectra of PFPNCC (1.0×10^{-6} mol/L) in DMF with various concentrations of Cu(II). Inset shows UV-vis spectra of PFPNCC (1.0×10^{-6} mol/L) with higher concentration of Cu (II) in DMF

results indicate that the fluorescence quenching by Cu(II) is related to the Cu(I) complexes with nucleophilic solvents [25].

The aforementioned UV–vis spectra showed an overlap between the fluorescence spectrum of PFPNCC and the absorbance spectrum of the copper complex. In other words, fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET)



Fig. 4 Fluorescence spectra of PFPNCC in the presence or absence of Cu(II) in various solvents. $C_{Cu(II)} = 4 \text{ mmol/L}, \lambda_{ex} = 370 \text{ nm}$

1000

800

600

400

200

0

400

450

Intensity



Fig. 5 Fluorescence spectra of PFPNCC ($1.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol/L}$) in DMF in the presence or absence of Cu(II) (4 mmol/L) (I: no Cu(II), at 25°C; II: Cu(II), at 25°C; III: Cu(II), at about -75° C). $\lambda_{ex} = 370 \text{ nm}$

and/or photo-induced electron transfer (PET) could be considered for the origin of the quenching phenomenon [28]. The mechanism of FRET depends on an energy transfer without charge separation and reorganization of solvent molecules, and its transfer efficiency is inversely proportional to the sixth power of the distance between a donor and an acceptor. On the other hand, the PET process generates charge separation, and makes an orientation of solvent molecules near by the charged portions. According to those theories, a fluorescence recovery of PFPNCC quenched by the addition of Cu(II) would be observed at low temperature if the fluorescence quenching is induced by PET, because the prevention of the solvent reorganization at low temperature brings about inefficient electron transfer [29]. However, in the case of the FRET process, the fluorescence recovery will not happen [29]. As shown in Fig. 5, the fluorescence intensity of the PFPNCC quenched by the addition of Cu(II) was clearly recovered at low temperature, indicating that the fluorescence quenching at room temperature most probably stems from the PET process followed by the reduction of Cu(II) though the partial fluorescence recovery implies that the FRET process may also exist [29].

To discuss the PET process in detail, the Rehm–Weller equation was employed [30]. The thermodynamic driving force (ΔG_{PET}) should be calculated as:

$$\Delta G_{\rm PET} = eE^{\circ}(\rm PFPNCC^+/\rm PFPNCC)$$

$$-eE^{\circ}(\mathrm{Cu(II)}/\mathrm{Cu(I)}) - W_{\mathrm{p}} - E_{00}(\mathrm{PFPNCC}),$$

where $E^{\circ}(\text{PFPNCC}^+/\text{PFPNCC})$, $E^{\circ}(\text{Cu(II)/Cu(I)})$, W_{p} , $E_{00}(\text{PFPNCC})$ are the oxidation potential of the donor, the reduction potential of the acceptor, the radical ion pair energy and the singlet excitation energy of the donor, respectively. The values of $E^{\circ}(\text{PFPNCC}^+/\text{PFPNCC})$ and $E_{00}(\text{PFPNCC})$ are known to be 0.87 V and 3.57 eV, respectively [31]. $E^{\circ}(\text{Cu(II)/Cu(I)})$ is known to be 0.08 V [32], and the value of W_{p} is negligible [33]. Therefore, $\Delta G_{\text{PET}} = e \times 0.87 \text{ V} - e \times 0.08 \text{ V} - 3.57 \text{ eV} = -2.78 \text{ eV}.$ As shown the above-calculated value, ΔG_{PET} value is negative from these parameters, suggesting that the PET process can spontaneously occur.

Scheme 2 displays the plausible mechanism of copper ions-induced fluorescence quenching of PFPNCC. First, some Cu(II) ions form complexes with nucleophilic solvents. The electron transfer from the excited state of PFPNCC to Cu(II) ions in the complexes subsequently occurs, resulting in the fluorescence quenching of PFPNCC.

4 Conclusions

In summary, we have developed a highly selective detection method for Cu(II) by using a combination of the "ligand-free" PFPNCC and nucleophilic solvents. The fluorescence of PFPNCC can be efficiently quenched by the addition of Cu(II) in nucleophilic solvents such as DMF and DMSO, but not in low nucleophilic ones such as 1,4-dioxane and THF. This fluorescence quenching may be



Scheme 2 A plausible mechanism of the fluorescence quenching of PFPNCC by adding Cu(II) in nucleophilic solvents

explained by the PET process in which the Cu(II) ion after forming a complex with nucleophilic solvent is reduced by the excited PFPNCC. Although the recognition of Cu(II) was achieved in organic solvents, the designed chemosensor might be able to detect Cu(II) in biological fluids by incorporating the chemosensor into amphiphilic polymergel-matrices [34,35]. Such the "ligand-free" chemosensors would provide a novel strategy for the simpler detection of various metal ions using conjugated polymers in the near future.

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