

## A NOVEL TURN-ON THE FLUORESCENCE SENSOR FOR H<sub>2</sub>S AND ITS APPLICATIONS IN BIOIMAGING

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*A fluorescent probe II, 6-azido-2-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1H-benzo[de]isoquinoline-1,3(2H)-dione with specific identification environment H<sub>2</sub>S, was designed and synthesized based on 4-bromine-1,8-naphthalimide and ethanamine. We used 4-bromine-1,8-naphthalimide as raw materials to synthesize a new type of reactive fluorescent probe based on the mechanism of intramolecular charge transfer. These two materials are easily obtainable, low in cost, and can be synthesized through a simple two-step reaction. 1,8-Naphthalene anhydride has a moderate fluorescent ability as it introduces an electron-donating group at position 4. A change to its conjugate system can cause a push-pull electronic effect in the molecule and result in a very strong luminous effect. The structure of probe II was characterized by IR, ESI, and NMR. The preliminary screening was under the UV lamp. We found that probe II had a certain specific recognition effect on H<sub>2</sub>S in the DMSO solvent. After the solvent screening, DMSO was selected as a solvent to identify H<sub>2</sub>S specifically for the probe. The fluorescence spectroscopy illustrated that probe II showed green fluorescence in the DMSO solution. With the continuous addition of H<sub>2</sub>S, probe II showed red fluorescence at 510 nm, which produced a strong fluorescence emission peak that stood out from the rest of the spectrum. The experimental results showed that the probe had a very good sensitivity at detecting H<sub>2</sub>S (with a minimum concentration of  $1 \times 10^{-7}$  mol/L). Meanwhile, dozens of cations and anions do not interfere with the recognition of H<sub>2</sub>S by the probe molecule in the DMSO system. At the same time, we found that probe II could also recognize H<sub>2</sub>S by cell imaging technology.*

**Keywords:** fluorescence probe, hydrogen sulfide, intramolecular charge transfer.

**Introduction.** Hydrogen sulfide is an important endogenous gaseous compound that plays an important role in cells. In addition to nitric oxide and carbon monoxide, it is considered to be the third most important gas that regulates the cardiovascular, neuronal, immune, endocrine, and gastrointestinal systems [1, 2]. Hydrogen sulfide possesses different characteristics and plays different physiological roles such as mediation of neurotransmission [3], cardioprotection [4], modulation of blood pressure [5], and exertion of anti-inflammatory effects. Endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S was mostly biosynthesized from cysteine or cysteine derivatives by three distinctive enzymes, including cystathionine- $\beta$ -synthase (CBS), cystathionine- $\gamma$ -lyase (CSE), and 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase (3-MST) in mitochondria or cytosol [6, 7]. These enzymes are found in a variety of biological cells and tissues, and their expression can be induced by a variety of diseases [8, 9]. Endogenous H<sub>2</sub>S can also be produced by nonenzymatic methods, such as a spontaneous reaction of reduced glutathione (GSH) with sulfur to produce H<sub>2</sub>S. Meanwhile, the iron-sulfur cluster contains another nonenzymatic protein carrying Fe<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>, Fe<sub>3</sub>S<sub>4</sub>, or a Fe<sub>4</sub>S<sub>4</sub> cluster protein promoting H<sub>2</sub>S source [10, 11]. To understand the roles of H<sub>2</sub>S in a biological system, the development of new convenient and efficient detection methods for detecting H<sub>2</sub>S is required. Typical instrumental techniques, including spectrophotometric [12] and electrochemical assays [13], gas chromatography analysis [14], and sulfur chemiluminescence detection [15], have been used to monitor H<sub>2</sub>S. However, these methods are limited in accuracy. So, a variety of novel detection methods have been developed [16–25]. Among them, the most promising is based on using fluorescent probes. Recently, several fluorescent probes have been reported to detect H<sub>2</sub>S in living systems [26–29]. Common strategies include the H<sub>2</sub>S mediated reduction of azide to amine [30, 31]. H<sub>2</sub>S is trapped by nucleophilic addition [32, 33], copper sulfide precipitation [34, 35], and thiolysis of dinitrophenyl ether [36, 37]. Fluorescent probes based on these strategies usually utilize the dual nucleophilicity of H<sub>2</sub>S.

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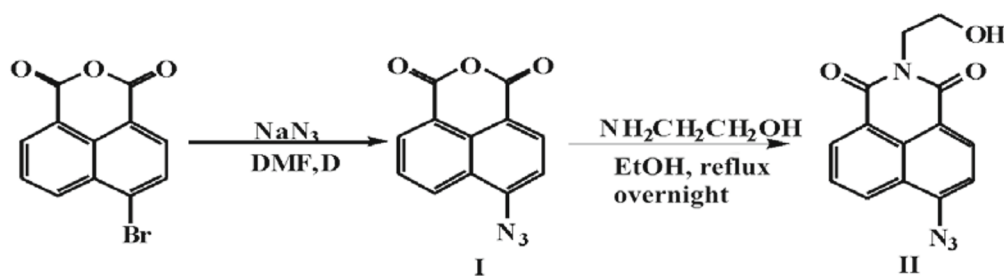
In recent years, the design of fluorescent probes for hydrogen sulfide has mainly used the unique chemical properties of hydrogen sulfide, such as dual nucleophilicity, reducibility, and complexation with copper ions. The dual nucleophilicity of hydrogen sulfide has good prospects in the design of hydrogen sulfide molecular probes, but there is an unavoidable problem in the hydrogen sulfide probe molecules designed using dual nucleophilicity, namely, although the probe molecules are not affected by cysteine biological thiols such as acid and glutathione interfere, they are easily consumed by biological thiols. As a result, they cannot be used in vivo. In addition, the detection limit of most probes is  $10^{-4}$  mol/L. The dual nucleophilicity, as the name suggests, means that hydrogen sulfide can nucleophilically attack the probe molecule twice. Although cysteine and glutathione can react with the probe molecule, they cannot perform a second nucleophilic attack. The probe we designed cannot be interfered by other biological thiols, anions, and cations, and has an obvious color reaction under visible light.

On the basis of previous technologies, a new probe was designed and synthesized. The probe, which can detect  $H_2S$ , was based on 4-bromine-1,8-naphthalimide and ethanamine. This probe has better water solubility, simple synthesis steps, and small interference between anions and cations. After a series of tests, we have obtained a probe that emits yellow fluorescence under the excitation of a UV lamp. Through further research, we found that this probe can be used for the selective and sensitive detection of  $H_2S$ . All the results were fully tested by IR, ESI, and NMR.

**Experimental.** 4-Bromine-1,8-naphthalimide and ethanamine and sodium azide were purchased from Shanghai. The salts solutions of metal ions, such as NaCl, KCl,  $MgCl_2 \cdot 6H_2O$ ,  $CaCl_2$ ,  $Na_3PO_4$ ,  $NaH_2PO_4$ ,  $NaHCO_3$ ,  $NaNO_3$ ,  $Na_2C_2O_4 \cdot H_2O$ ,  $Na_2HPO_4$ ,  $NaNO_2$ ,  $NaAC \cdot H_2O$ , NaBr,  $NaCO_3$ ,  $NaSO_4$ , and NaI, and GSH and Gly were purchased from Shanghai Experiment Reagent Co, Ltd (Shanghai, China). All the other chemicals used were of analytical grade. Deionized water was used to prepare all aqueous solutions.

Scanning in the range of  $4000-400\text{ cm}^{-1}$  was performed on a Shimadzu-FTIR-8300 Fourier transformation infrared spectrometer (KBr tablet) to measure the infrared spectrum. The hydrogen nuclear magnetic resonance spectrum and the carbon nuclear magnetic resonance spectrum were measured on an AVANCE III HD nuclear magnetic resonance spectrometer produced by Bruker in Switzerland. Mass spectrometry was performed on an AB 5600 MALDI-TOF ultra-high resolution time-of-flight mass spectrometer produced by AB SCIEX. The proton nuclear magnetic resonance spectrum and the carbon nuclear magnetic resonance spectrum supplemented by infrared spectroscopy and mass spectrometry were used to verify the consistency of the probe with the expected design structure, and mass spectrometry analysis was used to verify the postulated recognition mechanism. Using Gaussian16 (DFT-B3LYP-6-31G\*), we calculated the HOMO-LUMO Gap of original state II and reduced state III.

The synthesis of II is summarized in Scheme 1. To a 100-mL flask we added 2 g (7 mmol) of 4-bromine-1,8-naphthalimide into 65 mL of DMF until they completely dissolved. Sodium azide (1.85 g, 28 mmol) dissolved in 3 mL of pure water was slowly dripped into the flask. The color of the solution changed to a dark brown. The reaction proceeded for 6 h at  $50^\circ\text{C}$ . After that we put the reaction mixture into an ice-water mixture until mass precipitation appeared. We filtered and dried them in the air. A total of 1.8 g of yellow-green powder was obtained. The above-mentioned compounds were dissolved in 65 mL of ethyl alcohol. We added 0.0.625 g (10 mmol) of ethanamine into the solution and heated it up to reflux. The final product was obtained. The dark yellow crystal was recrystallized from the ethyl alcohol at room temperature.



Scheme 1. Synthesis of probe II.

IR ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , s strong, m medium, w weak): 1697.21s,  $\nu(\text{C}=\text{O})$ , 2132.95s,  $\nu(\text{N}=\text{N})$ .  $^1\text{H-NMR}$ (400MHz, DMSO)  $\delta$  7.89–7.85 (m, 2H), 7.81 (d,  $J = 4.4$  Hz, 1H), 7.69 (d,  $J = 8.5$  Hz, 1H), 7.44 (t,  $J = 7.4$  Hz, 2H), 7.39 (t,  $J = 7.2$  Hz, 1H), 6.83–6.79 (m, 2H), 6.77 (ddd,  $J = 8.1, 6.0, 1.8$  Hz, 1H), 4.49–4.43 (m, 1H), 4.26–4.17 (m, 2H), 4.14–4.08 (m, 2H), 2.45 (s, 3H).  $^{13}\text{C-NMR}$  (101MHz, DMSO)  $\delta$  163.73 (s), 163.20 (s), 143.09 (s), 131.80 (d,  $J = 11.8$  Hz), 128.57 (s), 127.59 (s), 123.69 (s), 122.52 (s), 118.54 (s), 116.29 (s).

The fluorescence spectrum and UV-Vis procedures were performed in a quartz optical cell of 1.0 cm optical path length at room temperature. All fluorescence measurements were performed under 420 nm excitation; the slit width was 3 nm/3nm. The fluorescence procedures were as follows: Ions were slowly added into DMSO containing 1.0  $\mu\text{M}$  of the probe; then the titration experiment and the interference experiment were carried out. In the experiment on the UV-vis spectra, a 20  $\mu\text{M}$  probe was prepared in a quartz cell containing DMSO, and  $1 \times 10^{-2}$  mol/L  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  was gradually added. After adding the ions, we recorded all the fluorescence spectra and the UV-vis data.

In a humid environment containing 5%  $\text{CO}_2$ , we cultivated SiHa in DMEM with 10% fetal bovine serum, and then a subculture with 0.05% trypsin at  $37^\circ\text{C}$  in a  $35 \times 35$  mm glass Petri dish. After waiting for 24 h, the probe solution was aspirated, the cells were washed three times with PBS, mounted with 50% glycerol, and then observed with a laser confocal fluorescence microscope.

Firstly, we cultured SiHa cells with probe II (10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) for 30 min. Secondly, the SiHa cells were cultured with probe II (10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) for 30 min, and then  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (40  $\mu\text{M}$ ) was added and the whole cultured for 30 min. Lastly, we also cultured SiHa cells for 30 min, then put  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (40  $\mu\text{M}$ ) and cultured it for 30 min.

The cytotoxicity of probe II was assessed in SiHa cells with a CCK-8 kit (Dojindo). In brief, the cell density was 10000/well, cultured for 24 h, and then checked. Then probe II was added to it. The medium was removed after 24 h, 10  $\mu\text{L}$  of the CCK-8 reagent was added to each, and a temperature of  $37^\circ\text{C}$  was set for 1 h. Absorbance values were measured at 450 nm using a SpectraMax® M5 microplate reader (Molecular Devices, WI, USA). The experiment was repeated five times for each sample.

We calculated the probe and the state when the probe was combined with hydrogen sulfide on Gaussian16. Moreover, we calculated the HOMO–LUMO gap of the original state and the reduced state.

**Results and Discussion.** As shown in Scheme 1, the probe was designed and synthesized. Its chemical structure was proved by  $^1\text{H}$  NMR,  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR, infrared spectroscopy (IR), and electrospray ionization mass spectra (ESI–MS) (Figs. S1–S4).

In order to verify the probe's ability to detect  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  at room temperature, we put 0.8  $\mu\text{L}$  of the probe solution with  $1.0 \times 10^{-2}$  mol/L concentration into a cuvette containing 2 mL of DMSO and then gradually added dropwise the sodium sulfide solution (concentration  $2 \times 10^{-4}$  mol/L, 0.5  $\mu\text{L}$  added each time). As shown in Fig. 1, as the amount of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  continues to increase, the fluorescence intensity at 530 nm gradually increases, and the color of the fluorescence gradually changes from bright yellow to purple. It can be seen that in the DMSO system the probe can specifically recognize hydrogen sulfide.

We added 20  $\mu\text{L}$  of the DMSO solution with concentration  $1.0 \times 10^{-2}$  mol/L of probe molecules to a quartz cuvette containing 2 mL of analytically pure ethanol, and then gradually added the  $2.0 \times 10^{-4}$  mol/L  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  solution. As shown in Fig. 2, as the concentration of the  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  solution gradually increases, the broad absorption peak at 330–390 nm gradually weakens, and the broad absorption peak at 410–500 nm gradually increases. When the concentration of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  in the system reaches  $3.2 \times 10^{-6}$  mol/L, the intensity of the absorption peaks no longer changes. With increase in the  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  concentration, the color of the system changes from golden yellow to purple.

We also explored whether the probe's recognition of hydrogen sulfide in the DMSO system is interfered by the presence of anions and cations in the living system. We screened 18 anions and cations. We added 2 mL of analytically pure DMSO to the quartz cuvette, then used a pipette to add 0.8  $\mu\text{L}$  of the probe with a concentration of  $1.0 \times 10^{-2}$  mol/L. The fixed excitation wavelength was 420 nm, and the slit width 3 nm/3 nm. We got the maximum emission wavelength and added 0.5  $\mu\text{L}$  of  $1.0 \times 10^{-4}$  mol/L of ions into the system to obtain the change value of the maximum emission wavelength. The results of the experiment are shown in Figs. 3 and 4. The probe molecule is for the detected anions and cations such as  $\text{Br}^-$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{CO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^-$ ,  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\Gamma^-$ , GSH, Gly,  $\text{AC}^-$ ,  $\text{HPO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-}$ , and  $\text{NO}_2^-$ . The probe has no obvious response signal to the above-mentioned ions. At the same time, we also explored whether the above interfering ions interfere with the visual recognition of hydrogen sulfide in the probe. We added about 1.5 mL of DMSO and  $1.0 \times 10^{-2}$  mol/L of the probe to each small sample bottle. The probe molecule is 1.0  $\mu\text{L}$ , and the above-mentioned ions to be screened are added to each sample bottle. After shaking evenly, we placed them under visible light and ultraviolet light for observation. We found that under visible light and ultraviolet light, anions, cations, and biothiols (cys) show significant interference to the probe molecule, and under visible light, a small amount of hydrogen sulfide can cause a strong color change in the DMSO solution of the probe molecule, which shows that probe II is good at visual recognition of hydrogen sulfide with great application prospects.

*Cellular imaging.* The ultimate goal of the synthetic fluorescent probe is its application in biological systems. In order to measure the probe's ability to detect  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  in living cells at  $37^\circ\text{C}$ , we used a LeicaTCS, SP5 laser scanning

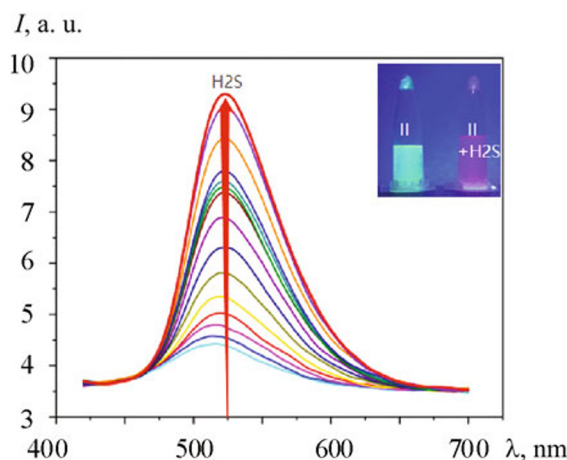


Fig. 1. Fluorescent spectral changes of probe II ( $4 \mu\text{M}$ ) upon addition of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  (0, 0.05, 0.10, 0.15, 0.20, 0.25, 0.30, 0.35, 0.40, 0.45, 0.50, 0.55, 0.60, 0.65, and  $0.70 \mu\text{M}$ ) in DMSO at room temperature. Inset: the visible fluorescence changes upon UV irradiation.

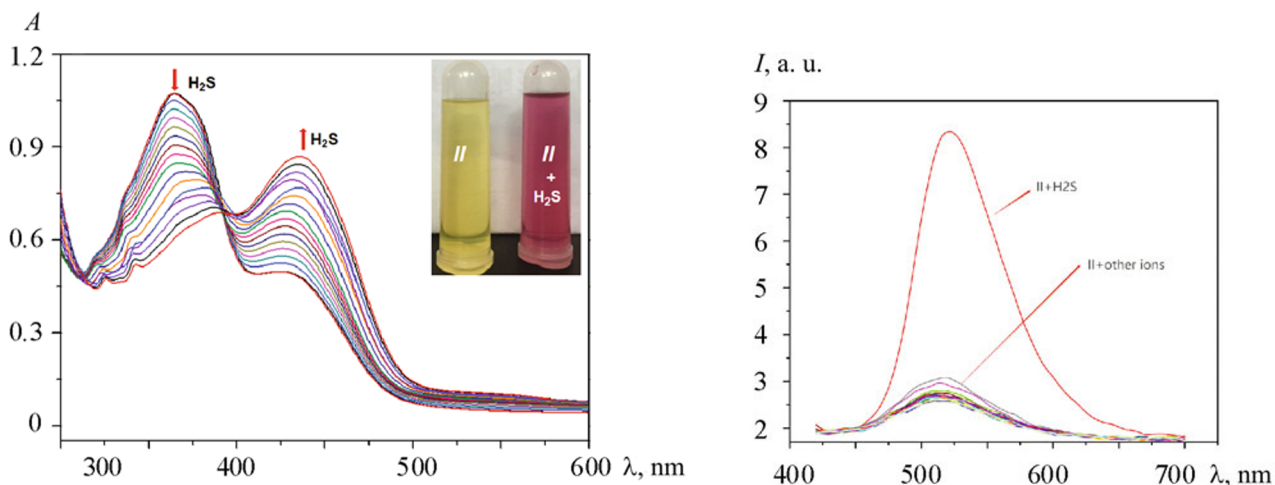


Fig. 2. UV-Vis spectra of probe II upon addition of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  in DMSO at room temperature. Inset: The visible fluorescence changes upon UV irradiation.

Fig. 3. Fluorescence response of probe II upon the addition of several ions in DMSO.

microscope to obtain laser confocal fluorescence imaging. Then we put SiHa cells in the probe and incubated it for 30 min, and then added  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  to the system and continued to incubate it for 30 min. As shown in Fig. 5, the probe of the cell system shows green fluorescence under the induction of laser copolymerization when there is no  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ . The cells show obvious red fluorescence, the cell penetration of the probe, and the fluorescence ability in the cell when  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is added to the cell system for culture. This result shows the prospect of the probe's bio-utilization.

In order to further prove the potential application of probe II in living cells, we applied it to SiHa cells for fluorescence imaging. Since the cytotoxicity of probe II is the main consideration for its biological application, the cytotoxicity study of probe II was carried out on SiHa cells by the CCK-8 kit. As shown in Fig. 6, the cell viability decreases slightly while the concentration of probe II increases (0, 4, 8, 16, 32, and  $60 \mu\text{M}$ ). When the concentration of probe II is  $60 \mu\text{M}$ , the viability of the cells is about 80% of its initial value, indicating that the cytotoxicity of probe II is relatively low, thus beneficial for the biological imaging subject.

*Computational simulation.* As shown in Fig. 7, we used Gaussian16 (DFT-B3LYP-6-31G<sup>\*</sup>) to calculate the HOMO–LUMO gap of original state II and reduced state III. It can be seen that the HOMO–LUMO gap (9.3559 eV) of the original

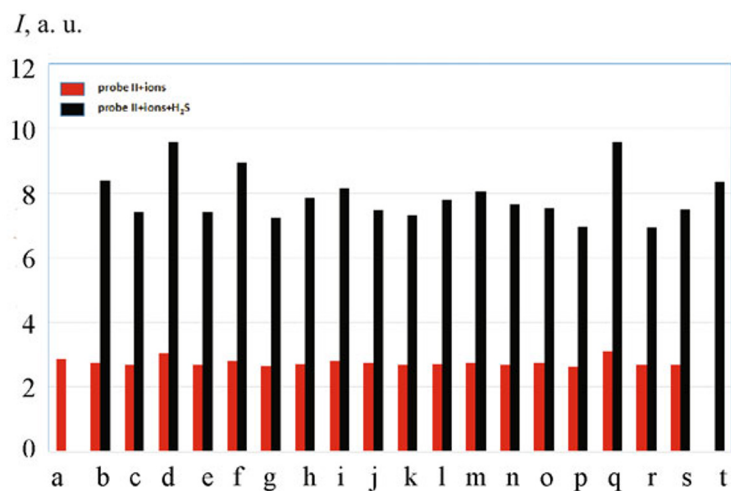


Fig. 4. Fluorescence intensity of probe II (a) and its reaction with H<sub>2</sub>S in the presence of various ions in DMSO.  $\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 420 \text{ nm}$ , slit: 3 nm/3 nm. b) Br<sup>-</sup>; c) Cl<sup>-</sup>; d) CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>; e) Ca<sup>2+</sup>; f) Mg<sup>2+</sup>; g) K<sup>+</sup>; h) NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>; i) HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>; j) H<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>; k) PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup>; l) SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>; m) I<sup>-</sup>; n) GSH; o) Gly; p) AC<sup>-</sup>; q) HPO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>; r) C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>; s) NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>; t) probe + H<sub>2</sub>S.

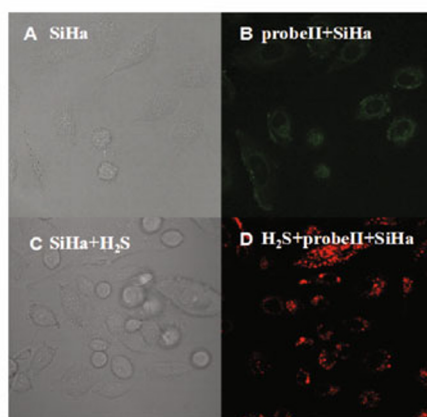


Fig. 5. Probe cells are shown as experimental results.

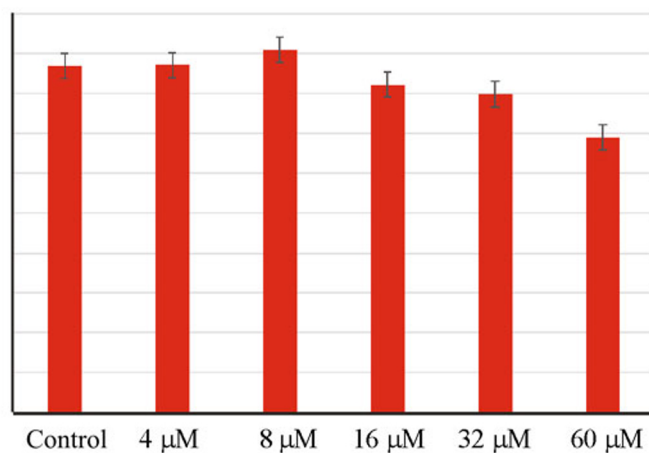


Fig. 6. Cell viability incubated with probe II at various concentrations. The experiments were repeated five times.

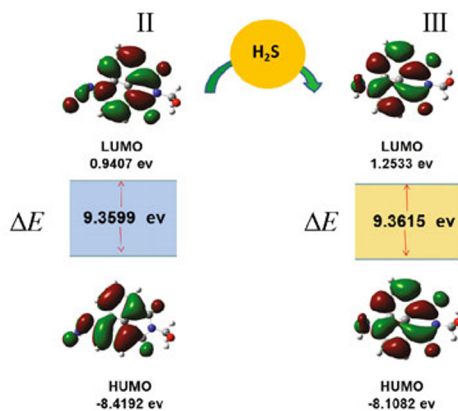


Fig. 7. HOMO–LUMO gap in original state II and reduced state III.

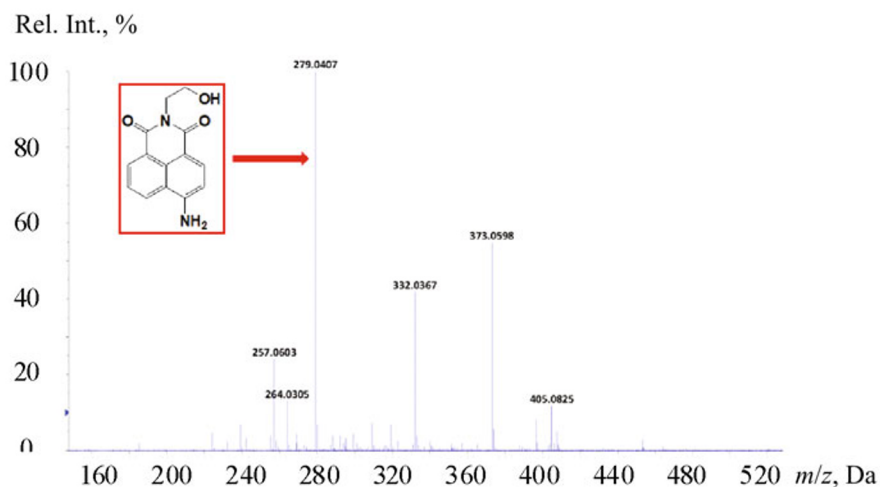


Fig. 8. Electrospray ionization mass spectrometry of the compound probe + hydrogen sulfide.

state II is smaller than the HOMO–LUMO gap (9.3615 eV) of the reduced state III. Therefore, state III is more stable than state II.

For the mechanism of the probe in recognizing hydrogen sulfide, we have made the following speculation.  $\text{HS}^-$  reduces the azide group to an amino group and is oxidized to elemental sulfur:

At the same time, this hypothesis was verified by the method of electrospray mass spectrometry. It can be seen from Fig. 8 that the molecular ion peak of the reaction product of the probe molecule and  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  is  $m/z = 257.0603$ . This can be attributed to  $[\text{compound} + \text{H}]^+$  (theoretical value 257.0926). The molecular ion peak  $m/z = 279.0407$  can be assigned as  $[\text{compound} + \text{Na}]^+$  (theoretical value 279.0746).

**Conclusions.** We have successfully synthesized a turn-on fluorescent probe for highly sensitive detection of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  with fast response time. This probe shows high selectivity for  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  compared to other ions and has a very fast discoloration reaction. Furthermore, fluorescence imaging indicates that probe II has great potential in biological imaging. It remains stable in cells when combined with hydrogen sulfide. More importantly, the probe shows low cytotoxicity and good cell membrane permeability in the above experiments and can be used for in vivo imaging of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ .

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# SUPPORTING INFORMATION

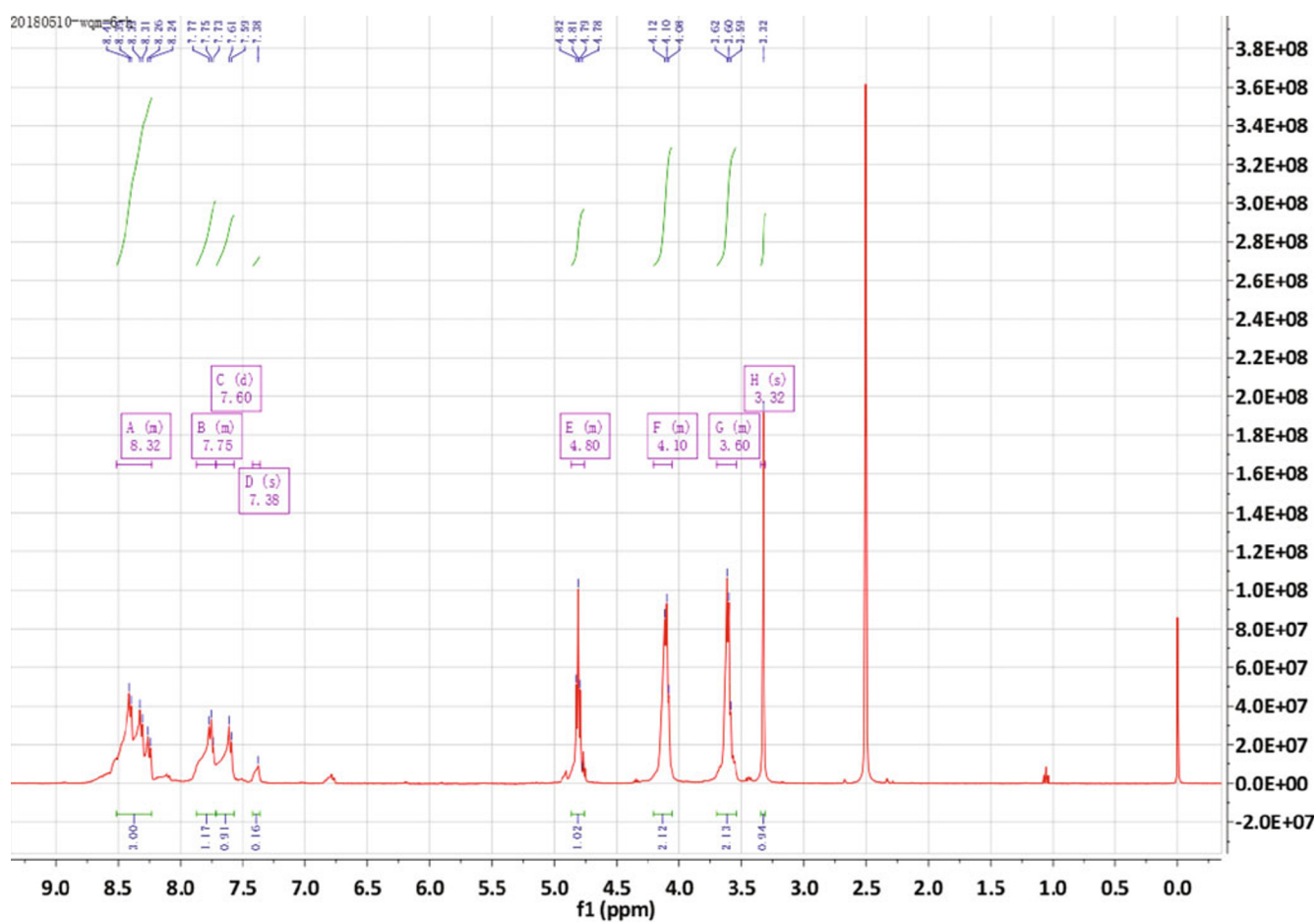


Fig. S1. <sup>1</sup>H NMR spectrum of probe.



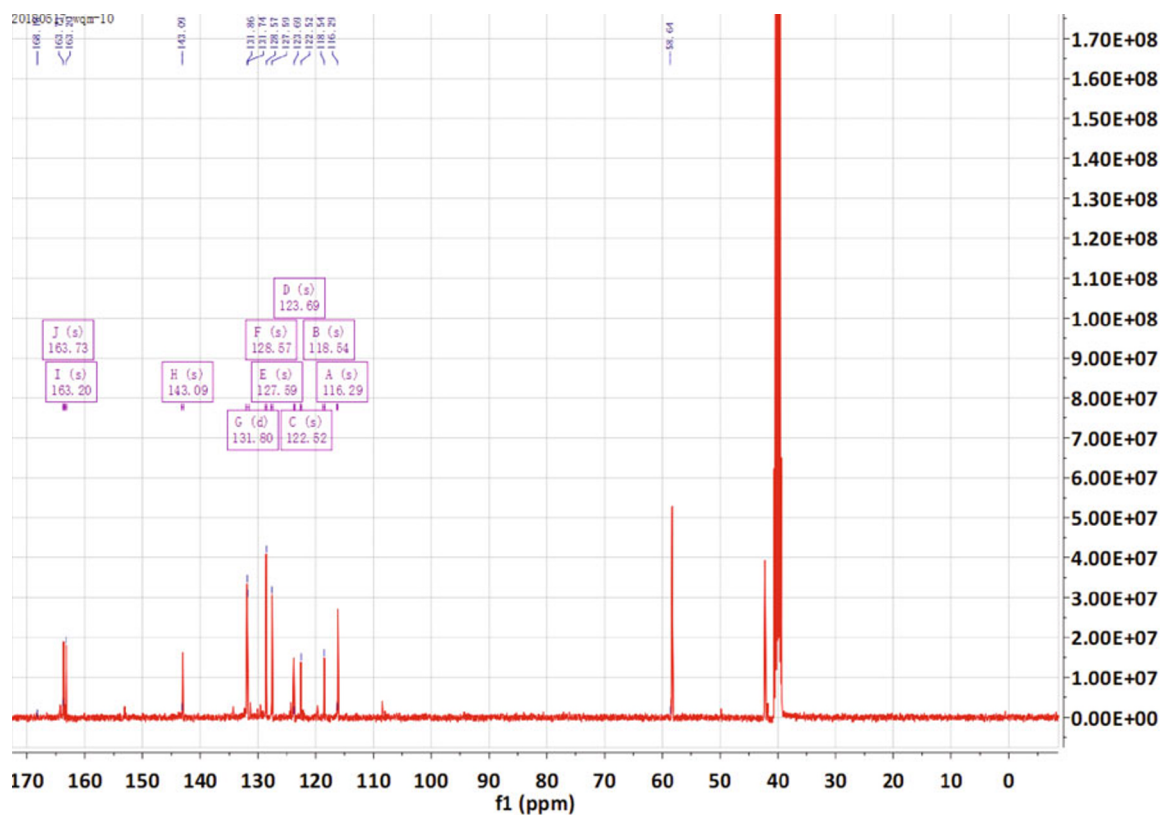


Fig. S2.  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectrum of probe.

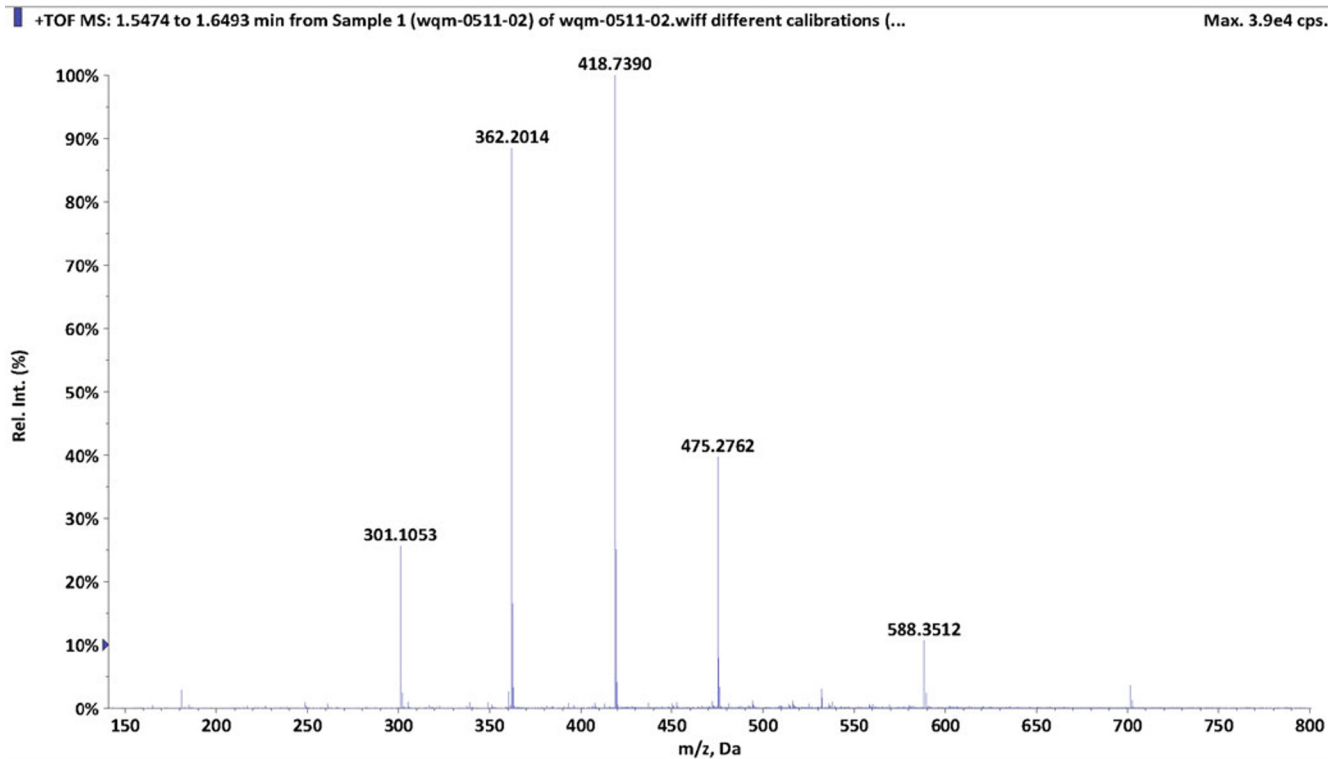


Fig. S3. Electrospray ionization mass spectrometry of probe.



Fig. S4. Infrared spectra of probe.