# **Materials** Advances

# REVIEW



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# Colorimetric and fluorometric probes for the optical detection of environmental Hg(II) and As(III) ions

Tapendu Samanta and Raja Shunmugam D \*

Human exposure to Hg(II) and As(III) can lead to several physiological problems such as liver damage, kidney damage, lung cancer, skin cancer, motion disorder, brain damage, etc. To monitor and identify these harmful ions, throughout the years enormous effort has been put into the development of sensors. In this review, colorimetric and fluorometric chemical compounds (sensors) for Hq(ii) (since 2015) and As(iii) detection are described and discussed in detail. For Hg(II), sensors are divided on the basis of the compound's nature, such as heteroatom-based ligand-containing small molecules, rhodamine-based small molecules, reaction-based small molecules, and polymers. On the other hand, most As(iii) ion sensors are based on H-bonding interactions. **EVIEW COLORIMETE and fluorometric probes for the<br>**  $\frac{2}{3}$ **<br>**  $\frac{2}{3}$ **<br> \frac{2** 

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### 1. Introduction

A highly polluted living environment for humankind is a result of modern globalization and industrialization, where water sources are the most affected part while water is the basic and essential ingredient of human life on earth. Heavy metals are one of the most effective pollutants among other sources. Metals with a high atomic number, high density, and which are poisonous at low concentrations are known as heavy metals.<sup>1–3</sup> Heavy metals are harmful due to their tendency to bioaccumulation. Heavy metals can enter the human body through food, drinking water, and air sources. Metals such as arsenic, cadmium, lead, nickel, mercury, chromium, cobalt, zinc, copper and selenium are familiar heavy metals. The accumulation of these metals in our resources is a major concern as many industries discharge their metal wastes into freshwater without any purification.<sup>4,5</sup>

Among the mentioned heavy metals, arsenic (As) and mercury (Hg) are the topmost candidates in the context of toxicity. The World Health Organization (WHO) and Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) have defined the permissible limits of concentrations for both mercury and arsenic.<sup>6</sup>

Arsenic poisoning in groundwater is a major concern in several parts of the world, such as Bangladesh, West Bengal, the western USA, Mexico, Chile, and Argentina.<sup>7</sup> Many electronic component manufacturing industries use trace amounts of arsenic combined with silicon for light-emitting diodes (LEDs) and other devices.<sup>8</sup> Although in some cases arsenic is used in drugs, chronic exposure can damage the human body. Longterm exposure and usage of arsenic-contaminated water can

cause various health risks, such as kidney damage, liver damage, lung cancer, and skin cancer. $9-11$  Arsenic can exist in  $-3$  to  $+5$  oxidation states, though the As( $\text{m}$ ) form is the most toxic to the environment and human health. $12$  Due to such toxicity, the WHO set a limit of a safe arsenic (As) concentration in drinking water of 10 ppb.<sup>13,14</sup>

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Mercury is another heavy metal that is famous for Minamata disease $^{15}$  and poisoning in Iraq.<sup>16</sup> Mercury can spread in water, soil, and air from many sources, such as coal plants, mercury lamps, gold production, thermometers, barometers, and caustic soda.<sup>17</sup> Fish is one of the major sources of mercury in humans.<sup>18</sup> Mercury exposure has several harmful effects on health, like kidney failure, motion disorder, and brain damage.<sup>19–21</sup> Methylation of mercury promotes lipid solubility and, as a result, it can easily penetrate biological membranes along with the blood–brain barrier to damage the central nervous system. To avoid the harmful effects of mercury, an upper limit for Hg has been set at 10 nM by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). $^{22}$ 

The extent of toxicity for arsenic and mercury makes it necessary to monitor them in drinking water and different environmental sources with high selectivity and sensitivity. Techniques such as atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS), inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS), atomic fluorescence spectrometry (AFS), high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), surface-enhanced Raman scattering, chromatographic techniques, hydride-generation atomic absorption spectroscopy (HG-AAS), and voltammetry studies are used for the detection of arsenic and mercury.<sup>23-33</sup> The above-mentioned techniques are well known for their detection ability in very low concentrations, but they need costly instrumentation and extensive sample preparation. Therefore, the development of simple, cost-effective, and rapid detection methods is very much needed for real-time and 'on-field'

Polymer Research Centre, Department of Chemical Sciences, Indian Institute of Science Education and Research, Kolkata, India. E-mail: sraja@iiserkol.ac.in

monitoring of industrial, environmental, and biological contaminated samples.

Among different methods, optical detection through changes in fluorescence or color are most advantageous due to their simple nature and low limit of detection.<sup>34-37</sup> Colorimetric sensors can be useful in the case of the naked eye and rapid detection of analytes without any prior set-up where fluorogenic probes can detect contaminants at the cellular level. Thanks to such advantages, fluorescent and colorimetric sensors have been developed throughout the last few decades for the detection of toxic elements.

To date, three reviews have reported which have provided collective information about various detection systems for environmental  $Hg^{2+}$ . These reviews discussed optical probes developed up to  $2015$ .<sup>38-40</sup> Furthermore, there have been several reviews for arsenic detection based on the electrochemical method, $41$  surface-enhanced Raman spectroscopy (SERS), $42,43$ and nano-material systems.<sup>44-46</sup> However, to the best of our knowledge no review based on fluorogenic and chromogenic compounds for  $\text{As(m)}$  detection has been reported.

In this review, we discuss in detail fluorescent and colorimetric chemical sensors for mercury and arsenic detection. We have classified the sensors depending upon their chemical behavior, such as interaction-based ligand systems, reaction-based irreversible systems, and polymeric materials for a clear and general overview of available sensing materials that have been developed in recent years. Until 2015, there were not such extensive studies on cellular-level tracking of toxic ions. But the new trend of tracking toxic ions at the cellular level has emerged as an excellent technique for a better understanding of their effects on the biological system. Exclusive selectivity and high sensitivity along with cell imaging have become the better outcomes of the sensing field at the present time for mercury and arsenic. Also, many new strategies have been developed in the field of polymer research, where functionalized polymers with sensing moieties have overcome the solubility issue with respect to small molecules and have triggered an improvement in 'in-field' applications for the

detection of toxic ions. We have tried to give an overall idea of new ways and new developments in mercury and arsenic detection systems based on typical fluorogenic and chromogenic probes.

## 2. Fluorescent and colorimetric sensors for  $Hg^{2+}$  detection

#### 2.1 Heteroatom-based ligand-containing small molecules

Heteroatom-containing ligands associated with a chromogenic or fluorogenic moiety are excellent candidates for the detection of analytes. Ligand-based sensors have been developed over the years with desirable signals and effectiveness for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  ions in different contaminated sources. In this section we will discuss the formation of Hg–O, Hg–S, Hg–N, etc. bonds due to the interaction of Hg and a ligand to promote some change in color or emission as a detection signal.

In this regard, an N,N-bis(2-(pyridin-2-ylmethoxy)ethyl)aniline receptor containing a boron-dipyrromethene (BODIPY) molecule  $1^{47}$  acts as a fluorescence 'turn-off' to 'turn-on' sensor for Hg<sup>2+</sup> (Fig. 1). Here 1 can detect mercury in  $CH<sub>3</sub>CN$ -water (1:1) medium with a limit of detection (LOD) of 1.81  $\times$  10 $^{-7}$  M. In this case due to the presence of an N,N-bis(2-(pyridin-2-ylmethoxy)ethyl)aniline receptor along with BODIPY, the PET process is in the active mode which results in a fluorescence-off mode in the system. But the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$  stopped the photoinduced electron transfer (PET) process by interaction with the N and O atoms of the ligand which triggered the strong emission signal. All these observations made sensor 1 a highly selective and sensitive system for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  by the naked eye. A pyrene derivative  $2^{48}$  formed a 1:2 complex with  $Hg^{2+}$  in 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)piperazine-1-ethanesulfonic acid (HEPES) buffer-CH<sub>3</sub>CN (3:7, v/v, 10 mM buffer, pH = 7.4) medium (Fig. 1). Due to complexation, 2 showed an unusual red fluorescence and a change in color from yellow to orange along with a 36 nM LOD. The change in color as well as in emission is an advantage for 2. Review Moreoview Metale of interaction, environmental, and biological contains determined on the step areas are comparisoned interaction controlled on the step areas are comparisoned on the comparisoned on the common the



Fig. 1 The structures of 1 and 2, and their proposed mechanisms of binding with Hg<sup>2+</sup>



Fig. 2 The proposed structures and sensing mechanisms of 3 and 4

A Schiff-base 3<sup>49</sup> synthesized from 4-nitro-o-phenylenediamine and 4-formylbenzoic acid showed interesting sensing phenomena for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in DMF-water (2:3) medium with an LOD of 0.061  $\mu$ M. Initially, 3 showed green fluorescence, though upon addition of mercury at pH 7 the fluorescence was quenched, but at pH 7.45 fluorescence was turned on again (Fig. 2). The whole phenomenon was described as due to the reduction of intramolecular charge transfer (ICT) caused by the formation of a strong 5-membered ring between  $Hg^{2+}$  and two imine nitrogens at pH 7 and again the introduction of ICT with increasing pH. Due to this interesting behavior of 3 in physiological pH, it has been used in cell imaging studies to extend their application. Sensor  $4^{50}$ also exhibits a ratiometric emission changing phenomenon due to the binding of heteroatoms of 1,8-naphthalimide-sulfamethizole compound with  $Hg^{2+}$  in DMSO–water (1:99) medium with an LOD 14.7 nM. Binding of  $Hg^{2+}$  with -SO<sub>2</sub> and the thiadiazole ring of the sulfamethizole segment of 4 leads to aggregation-induced emission enhancement (AIEE) which is responsible for the selective detection of mercury (Fig. 2).

Tetraphenylethene derivatives are known for their aggregationinduced emission property. Using this as an advantageous property, sensor  $5<sup>51</sup>$  has been developed by the reaction of 2-(aminooxy)acetic acid and 4-(1,2,2-triphenylvinyl)benzaldehyde. With the addition of mercury to sensor  $5$  in ethanol–water  $(3:7)$  medium, the –CH $=$ N and –OH groups coordinate with Hg<sup>2+</sup> (Fig. 3) and form an aggregate to give a distinct emission with a low LOD of 45.4 nM. BODIPY derivatives are known to have excellent chromophore photochemical and thermal stability, and salen is an

excellent ligand system due to its effective coordination behavior with an electron-deficient Lewis-acid (metal center).<sup>52,53</sup> Sensor  $6^{54}$ was designed by the combination of the two above-mentioned advantageous segments for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$ . Sensor 6 selectively detected  $Hg^{2+}$  among other metal ions by complexation in MeCN–H<sub>2</sub>O (v/v, 1:1, HEPES 10 mM, pH = 7.4) medium with an LOD of 1.21  $\mu$ M (Fig. 3). In this particular case, metal-induced intramolecular charge transfer is the reason behind the change in color from colorless to pink to detect  $Hg^{2+}$  selectively and sensitively.

For biimidazole push-pull dye, sensor  $7^{55}$  coordinates with  $Hg^{2+}$  through the thiophene unit (Fig. 4) and stopped the charge transfer process to change the color to colorless from yellow in a CH<sub>3</sub>CN-water  $(1:1)$  mixture with an LOD of 32.8 ppb. With a combination of thiosemicarbazone and 4-(diphenylamino) benzaldehyde, sensor  $8^{56}$  can detect Hg<sup>2+</sup> in DMSO/ Tris–HCl (8:2, v/v, pH = 7.0) medium. Hg<sup>2+</sup> can bind with the sulfur of thiocarbonyl and the nitrogen of the imine group of 8 (Fig. 4) to induce a chelation-enhanced fluorescence quenching (CHEQ) effect. This fluorescence turn-off sensor 8 can detect Hg $^{2+}$  up to a low concentration of 3.11  $\times$  10 $^{-8}$  M. Sensor  $9^{57}$  is a coumarin–thiol based receptor that detects  $Hg^{2+}$  in a CH<sub>3</sub>CN– water  $(3:2, v/v, pH = 7)$  mixture in both colorimetric and fluorometric fashion with an LOD of  $5.01 \times 10^{-8}$  M. In this case binding of  $Hg^{2+}$  with -SH, N of the imine group, and the  $-C=O$  group of the coumarin unit of 9 (Fig. 5) induce a color change as well as change in fluorescence. This dual-sensing nature makes 9 a good candidate for mercury detection.



Fig. 3 The chemical structures and proposed mechanisms of sensing of 5 and 6.



Fig. 4 The chemical structures and proposed binding modes with  $Hq^{2+}$  of 7 and 8



Fig. 5 The chemical structures of 9 and 10 along with their proposed sensing mechanisms.

Phenothiazine-based sensor  $10^{58}$  was designed to detect  $Hg^{2+}$  in an ethanol–water (6:4, v/v) mixture with an LOD of 17.8 nM. Complexation of  $Hg^{2+}$  diaminomalenonitrile moieties of 10 (Fig. 5) inhibits the original ICT process; as a result, quenching of fluorescence and a change in color are observed. With this fluorescence change property, 10 can track cellular Hg<sup>2+</sup> successfully. Receptor-based sensing models have

emerged as a useful tool for the development of  $Hg^{2+}$  sensors. A sulfonamide group containing an unnatural peptide receptor with cyanostilbene-based ratiometric fluorogenic probe 11 has been developed.<sup>59</sup> It binds with  $Hg^{2+}$  in such a fashion that it can form an aggregate which is red-emissive (Fig. 6). Sensor 11 is highly selective towards  $Hg^{2+}$  in an aqueous buffered solution (10 mM HEPES,  $pH = 7.4$ ) with an impressive detection limit of 65 nM. This red-emissive nature of 11 is useful for imaging of HeLa cells with  $Hg^{2+}$  contamination.

Macrocycles containing sulfur atoms are capable of capturing  $Hg^{2+}$ . Also, if the BODIPY unit can be functionalized with receptors in the 3 and 5 positions, then the recognition can induce a variation in both emission and absorption. Combining these facts, sensor  $12^{60}$  was developed where N-phenyl-1aza-4,13-dithia-7,10-dioxacyclopentadecane is attached to the 3 positions of the BODIPY unit (Fig. 6). This BODIPY derivative (12) can detect Hg<sup>2+</sup> in CH<sub>3</sub>CN–water (5:95, v/v) medium by a color change as well as turn-on mode of emission change with an LOD of 99 ppm. The design of a fluorescent probe can detect an analyte depending upon different phenomena like PET, FRET, ICT TICT, etc. for the output emission signal. 4-(Methylthio)-2-oxo-2H-pyrano[3,2-c]julolidine-3-carbonitrile derived sensor  $13^{61}$  is a twisted intramolecular charge transfer



Fig. 6 The chemical structures of 11, 12, and 13 with the proposed mechanism of sensing for 11

(TICT) active fluorophore, where dipicolyl amine acts as a chelator to bind Hg<sup>2+</sup> (Fig. 6). The sensing behavior of 13 has been studied in a methanol–HEPES buffer  $(7:3, v/v, pH = 7.2)$ medium. Sensor 13 detects  $Hg^{2+}$  in a ratiometric fashion by changing the emission from red to green with an excellent detection level of 5.7  $\times$  10<sup>-9</sup> M along with tracking of Hg<sup>2+</sup> in the MCF-7 cell line. Binding with a dipicolylamine unit of 13 with  $Hg^{2+}$  restricts the TICT activity which is responsible for the drastic change in emission signal.

Aggregation induced emission (AIE)-based fluorogenic probes are very useful due to their unique fluorescence phenomenon. The tetrathenylethene unit is a well-established moiety for designing AIE-active molecules. Cationic AIE-active sensor  $14^{62}$  consists of tetraphenylethene and quinoline units, and can detect  $Hg^{2+}$  by a different method. Initially, 14 showed red fluorescence in aqueous solution (containing 1% DMSO) due to aggregation, but the emission was quenched due to the addition of  $I^-$  to it. This  $I^-$ -containing sensor 14 system can now act as an Hg $^{2+}$  sensor. Addition of Hg $^{2+}$  to the 14–I $^-$  system turns on the red emission again. By this process, 14 can be used as a turn-on fluorescence sensor for  $Hg^{2+}$  with a detection limit of 591.9 nM. Another AIE-active sensor  $15^{63}$  is developed by the conjugation between tetraphenylethene and pyrido[2,3-b]pyrazine units. Sensor 15 has an excellent AIEE phenomenon itself. In the presence of  $Hg^{2+}$  in the acetonitrile solution sensor, 15 changed its emission color from red-orange to colorless with a moderate LOD of 7.46  $\times$  10<sup>-6</sup> M. The chemical structure of sensors 14 and 15 are depicted in Fig. 7.



Fig. 7 The chemical structures of sensors 14 and 15

The 8-hydroxyquinoline based sensor 16 was successfully applied for the recognition of  $Hg^{2+}$  (Fig. 8).<sup>64</sup> In a solution of MeOH–water (1 : 4, v/v), fluorescence quenching was observed for  $Hg^{2+}$  with a simultaneous change in emission from blue to colorless. This is a typical example of a turn-off fluorescent sensor where complexation between the sensor and the analyte is responsible for fluorescence quenching.

Fluorescein as a fluorophore is widely used due to its high molar extinction coefficient, high quantum yield, and strong absorbance along with strong emission signals in the visible range.<sup>65–67</sup> Sensor  $17^{68}$  is a fluorescein dithia-cyclic skeleton



Fig. 8 The chemical structure of 16 and the proposed sensing mechanism.

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which show selective detection ability for  $Hg^{2+}$  in an MeOH– Tris–HCl (95:5,  $v/v$ , pH = 7.2) medium. Upon interaction with  $Hg^{2+}$ , a drastic color change from yellow to orange was observed along with quenched fluorescence due to the inherent quenching property of mercury (Fig. 9). Another sensor 18,<sup>69</sup> a Schiff base receptor of fluorescein–phenylalaninol conjugate has been successfully applied for the detection and removal of  $Hg^{2+}$ . The addition of  $He^{2+}$  to 18 in aqueous medium changed the color from yellow to pink with quenching of the fluorescence of the system. Binding of  $Hg^{2+}$  with the -CH=N and -OH groups is responsible for the quenching of fluorescence as well as color (Fig. 9). Sensor 18 has impressive LODs of 1.65  $\mu$ M and 0.34  $\mu$ M, as calculated from absorption and fluorescence studies, respectively. Another fluorescein-derived chemosensor 19 has been reported for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$ . Sensor  $19^{70}$  is a fluorescein hydrazide coupled 2-(pyridine-2-ylmethoxy)-naphthalene-1 carbaldehyde moiety which exhibited excellent selectivity and sensitivity towards  $Hg^{2+}$  in buffer solution (pH = 7.2, HEPES buffer). Hg<sup>2+</sup>-induced spirolactam ring-opening of the fluorescein moiety is the reason behind the drastic enhancement in fluorescence (Fig. 9). An LOD of 1.24  $\mu$ M and the ability to track  $Hg^{2+}$  at the cellular level make sensor 19 a good candidate in the area of mercury detection. Review Match show selective detection ability for  $H_B^{\text{C}}$  in an obsett are written with a specific in the selection of the selection and common line of the selection and common in the selection of the selection and com

Excited-state intramolecular proton transfer (ESIPT)-active molecules are advantageous due to their excellent photostability, large Stokes shift, and unique emission properties. Naphthalene-derived sensor  $20^{71}$  is an ESIPT-active probe that has been able to detect  $Hg^{2+}$  in CH<sub>3</sub>CN–water (9:1, v/v, pH = 7.0, HEPES buffer) medium in a fluorescence on to off fashion accompanied by a drastic change in color from colorless to yellow. The interaction between the N and –OH groups of 20 and  $Hg^{2+}$  stopped the ESIPT process, resulting in fluorescence quenching (Fig. 10).

Terpyridine is a good chromophore that can be introduced to design colorimetric chemical sensors for metal ions. Sensor 21 is a colorimetric fluorescent probe, a combination of a terpyridine unit as a fluorescent moiety and three pyridine rings with ether linkers as receptors (Fig. 10). Sensor  $21^{72}$  is a typical ratiometric fluorescent sensor for  $Hg^{2+}$  in aqueous medium by changing the fluorescence from blue to green with an LOD of 0.138 ppm. Initial blue fluorescence is due to weak ICT generated from the terpyridine segment. But after the strong complexation of  $Hg^{2+}$  by the receptor, the PET process becomes the driving force for the change in emission color to green. Due to this colorimetric fluorescence change, sensor 21



Fig. 9 The chemical structures of sensors 17, 18, and 19.



Fig. 10 The chemical structures of sensors 20, 21, and 22, and the proposed sensing mechanism of sensor 20.

can be coated on filter paper as paper strips, for the detection of the contaminant in various water sources with the naked eye.

Calix[4]arene-based fluorescent sensing probes are a combination of two parts, *i.e.*; an ionophore that is responsible for the analyte interaction and a fluorogenic moiety responsible for signal generation. Sensor  $22^{73}$  is an example of a calix[4]arene-based probe where pyrene is used as a signaling unit (Fig. 10). Sensor 22 can detect  $Hg^{2+}$  selectively in CH<sub>3</sub>CN–HEPES (6:4, v/v, pH = 7.2) medium with an excellent detection limit of 2.94  $\times$  10<sup>-9</sup> M. Complexation between  $Hg^{2+}$  and the carbonyl groups of the amide linkages of 22 is the reason behind the fluorescence quenching.

Naked-eye detection of analytes has its uses for costeffectiveness and simplicity. Sensor  $23^{74}$  is an NBD-based chemosensor (Fig. 11) which detects  $Hg^{2+}$  in a methanol–water (1:1) mixture by changing the color of the solution from pale yellow to pink with a detection limit of 4.7  $\times$  10<sup>-7</sup> M. The formation of a



Fig. 11 The chemical structures of 23, 24 and  $25-\text{Hg}^{2+}$ .



Fig. 12 The chemical structures of 26, 27, and 28

complex by interaction between 23 and  $Hg^{2+}$  triggered the intramolecular charge transfer (ICT) process; as a result, a pink color was observed. Another colorimetric sensor 24, <sup>75</sup> an azobenzene gelator, acts as a multianalyte detection system (Fig. 11) by changing color. The addition of  $Hg^{2+}$  to an acetonitrile solution of 24 resulted in a color change to vermeil from yellow due to complexation. Sensor 24 has an LOD of 9.22  $\times$  10<sup>-9</sup> M towards  $He^{2+}$  ions.

4-Amino-1,8-napthalimide based fluorogenic probe  $25^{76}$  has been developed to detect  $Hg^{2+}$ , and it contains iminodiacetic acid and picolinic acid as receptors. Sensor 25 is highly selective and sensitive towards Hg<sup>2+</sup> in HEPES buffer solution (pH = 7.4) with a moderate LOD of 1.03  $\times$  10 $^{-7}$  M. A reduced PET process due to the binding of  $Hg^{2+}$  with the picolinic acid and iminodiacetic acid receptor of 25 (Fig. 11) is responsible for the turn-on fluorescence signal. Due to the turn-on fluorescence feature, 25 is also able to image cells in the presence of  $Hg^{2+}$ .

Colorimetric fluorescent sensors have their own advantages due to their dual-mode of signaling, *i.e.*; by the naked eye and under UV light. Sensor 26,<sup>77</sup> which is based on one indole ring (Fig. 12), is a typical example of a colorimetric fluorescent probe. Sensor 26 was applied for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in HEPES buffer solution  $(pH = 7.0)$  by changing the color of the system from light yellow to pink and quenching the emission with a detection limit of  $1.08 \times 10^{-6}$  M. 1:1 binding between Hg<sup>2+</sup> and 26 resulted in a color change and fluorescence quenching. Sensor 26 can successfully image HeLa cells at pH 7.4 in the presence of  $Hg^{2+}$ .

An imidazo[1,2-a]pyridine-based fluorogenic probe  $27^{78}$  was developed to detect  $Hg^{2+}$ . Sensor 27 (Fig. 12) was able to detect  $Hg^{2+}$  in a fluorescence turn-off fashion in EtOH–water (8:2, v/v) medium. A 2 : 1 binding stoichiometry is observed between 27 and  $Hg^{2+}$  with an excellent detection limit of 1 ppb with imaging of HeLa cells. Unfortunately, 27 suffers from interference by  $Fe^{3+}$ .

Earlier we discussed one ESIPT sensor. Another ESIPT sensor  $28^{79}$  is a Schiff base type system where an 8-aminoquinoline moiety acts as the binding site for  $Hg^{2+}$  ions (Fig. 12). In MeCN-water  $(3:2, v/v, 10 \text{ mM HEPES buffer}, pH = 7.0) \text{ medium, sensor } 28 \text{ is}$ able to sense Hg<sup>2+</sup> with a detection limit of 0.11  $\mu$ M. Upon binding of  $Hg^{2+}$  with 28, a strong emission signal is observed due to the disruption of the ESIPT process. Sensor 28 is useful for detecting  $Hg^{2+}$  at the cellular level due to the intense emission signal. Again, an ESIPT probe  $29^{80}$  was also developed for the detection of Hg<sup>2+</sup>. Sensor 29 (Fig. 13) differentiates  $Hg^{2+}$  from other competitive ions in a fluorescence turn-on fashion in DMF–HEPES solution (1 : 1, v/ v, 10 mM,  $pH = 7.4$ ). The free probe shows a very weak emission as it is in both PET and ESIPT active mode. Upon the addition of

mercury, both processes are disrupted to turn on the intense emission. This change in emission from off to on demonstrates the sensing ability of 29 with an LOD of 6.45  $\times$  10<sup>-6</sup> M.

Similar to PET, ESIPT, AIEE, etc., TICT is also a well-known phenomenon in the case of fluorescence spectroscopy. Sensor  $30^{81}$ is an example of a TICT-active probe, where naphthalene diimide acts as the signaling unit. It can detect  $Hg^{2+}$  in acetone medium with a change in emission from colorless to red with a moderate LOD of  $3 \mu M$ . The change in emission is attributed to the restriction of the TICT process of 30 due to binding with  $Hg^{2+}$ . Another TICT-active molecule  $31^{82}$  was developed with naphthalene diimide as a signaling unit and bis[2-(3,5-dimethylpyrazole-1 yl)ethyl]amine as an electron donor and ligand for the binding of  $Hg^{2+}$ . In an acetone–water (1:1) medium, sensor 31 can recognize  $Hg^{2+}$  (Fig. 14) with a change in fluorescence from colorless to red. The sensing mechanism is quite similar to that of sensor 30. With a 1.3  $\times$  10<sup>-6</sup> M detection limit, sensor 31 is useful for carrying out a biological study for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in MCF-7 cells. Materials Advances<br>
Fig. 12 The cherical stuctures  $(26, 27, \sin 28)$ <br>
Fig. 12 The cherical stuctures  $(26, 27, \sin 28)$ <br>  $\frac{1}{2}$ <br>
complex by interaction between 23 and H<sub>2</sub><sup>2</sup> triguened the inter-more as a regula, plus com

Benzothiazole-based sensor  $32^{83}$  is an example of a colorimetric and fluorescent probe. The addition of  $Hg^{2+}$  to 32 (Fig. 15) in  $CH<sub>3</sub>CN–water (1:1, v/v, pH = 8.0) medium resulted in a change in$ color from pink to blue accompanied by a strong emission signal at 425 nm. Thus 32 can be applied to detect  $Hg^{2+}$  with a significant range of 2.5  $\mu$ M by UV-vis and 1.8 ppb by fluorescence emission.



Fig. 13 The chemical structure and proposed sensing mechanism of 29



Fig. 14 The chemical structures of 30 and  $31-\text{Hg}^{2+}$ .



Fig. 15 The chemical structures of 32 and 33

#### 2.2 Rhodamine-based ligand systems for the detection of  $He^{2+}$

Table 1 A comparison of different chemo-sensors (1-33)

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	OН ŅH2		A summary of the information about the above-mentioned sensors is given in Table 1.		
			2.2 Rhodamine-based ligand systems for the detection		
			of $Hg^{2+}$ We have discussed heteroatom-based ligand systems (1-33) which		
	33 Fig. 15 The chemical structures of 32 and 33.		consist of different fluorogenic and chromogenic moieties apart from rhodamine, for the detection of $Hg^{2+}$ . Among several dyes available as a fluorophore, rhodamine dyes are well known for		
			their unique features, such as high absorption coefficient, long excitation wavelength, strong absorption, emission signal in the		
	A combination of dansyl group and tyrosine developed a turn-on fluorescence sensor $33^{84}$ which was applied to detect $Hg^{2+}$ in HEPES		visible range and high quantum yield. Due to such extensive features, rhodamine is being used as the basic unit for the		
	buffer solution (pH = 7.4). With interaction between two molecules		development of fluorescent and colorimetric probed to detect		
	of the sensor 33 (Fig. 15) and one $Hg^{2+}$ , the distance between dansyl		metal ions. <sup>85-89</sup> In this section we are going to discuss reported		
	units is reduced forming a dimer which is responsible for the enhanced fluorescence signal. Such high selectivity and an impress-		$Hg^{2+}$ sensors based on rhodamine derivatives with ligand systems. For the binding of $Hg^{2+}$ , a phthalaldehydic has been combined		
	ive LOD of 22.65 $\times$ 10 <sup>-9</sup> M towards Hg <sup>2+</sup> make sensor 33 an		with rhodamine 6G to synthesize sensor 34. <sup>90</sup> Spirolactam ring-		
excellent detection system with cell imaging capability.			closed derivative 34 formed a colorless solution in a MeOH-water		
We have discussed chemosensors which are based on ligand systems attached to some signaling units. Systems based on			$(1:1, v/v)$ mixture with no emission. Upon the addition of Hg <sup>2+</sup> , the solution instantly changed color to pink with a strong yellow		
	different phenomena such as ICT, PET, ESIPT, TICT, and AIEE		fluorescence. Strong 1:1 binding between 34 and $Hg^{2+}$ resulted		
	of these sensors can image the cell in the presence of mercury. Table 1 A comparison of different chemo-sensors (1-33)		an excellent lower detection limit of 5 pM, Due to this turn-on		
Compound	Medium	<b>LOD</b>	Type of sensing	Biological study	
1 2	$CH3CN-water (1:1, V/V)$ $CH3CN-HEPES (7:3, V/V)$	$1.81\,\times\,10^{-7}$ M $36\,\times\,10^{-9}$ M	Turn-on fluorescence Turn-on fluorescence	NA NA	
3	DMF-water $(2:3, v/v)$	$0.061\times10^{-6}$ M	Ratiometric fluorescence	Done	
$\boldsymbol{4}$ 5	DMSO-water $(1:99, v/v)$	$14.7$ $\times$ $10^{-9}$ $\textrm{M}$ $45.4\,\times\,10^{-9}$ M	Turn-on fluorescence	NA	
6	Ethanol–water $(3:7, v/v)$ MeCN-water $(1:1, v/v)$	$1.21\times10^{-6}$ M	Turn-on fluorescence Colorimetric	NA NA	
7	MeCN-H <sub>2</sub> O $(1:1, v/v)$	$32.8$ ppb	Colorimetric	NA	
8	DMSO-Tris-HCl $(8:2, v/v)$	$3.11 \times 10^{-8}$ M	Turn-off fluorescence	NA	
9	MeCN-H <sub>2</sub> O $(3:7, v/v)$	$5.01\times10^{-8}$ M	Turn-off fluorescence and colorimetric	NA	
10 11	EtOH-water $(6:4, v/v)$ Buffered solution containing 1% DMSO	$17.8\times10^{-9}$ M $65\times10^{-9}$ M	Turn-off fluorescence Turn-off fluorescence	Done Done	
12	$CH3CN-water$ (5:95, v/v)	99 ppm	Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence	NA	
13	MeOH-HEPES $(7:3, v/v)$	$5.7 \times 10^{-9}$ M	Turn-on ratiometric fluorescence and	Done	
			colorimetric		
14 15	DMSO-water $(1:99, v/v)$ CH <sub>3</sub> CN	$591.9 \times 10^{-9}$ M $7.46\times10^{-6}$ M	Turn-on fluorescence Turn-off fluorescence	NA Done	
16	MeOH-water $(1:4, v/v)$	$3.12\,\times\,10^{-9}$ M	Turn-off fluorescence	Done	
17	MeOH-Tris-HCl $(5:95, v/v)$	$7.38\,\times\,10^{-9}$ M	Turn-off fluorescence and colorimetric	NA	
18	Water	$0.34\times10^{-6}$ M	Colorimetric and turn-off fluorescence	NA	
19	HEPES buffer	$1.24 \mu M$	Turn-on fluorescence	Done	
20 21	$CH3CN-water (1:9, v/v)$ Water	$1.24\times10^{-6}$ M 0.138 ppm	Turn-off fluorescence Turn-on ratiometric fluorescence	NA NA	
22	$CH3CN-HEPES (6:4, V/V)$	$2.94 \times 10^{-9}$ M	Turn-off fluorescence	NA	
23	Methanol–water $(1:1, v/v)$	$4.7\times 10^{-7}$ M	Colorimetric	NA	
24	CH <sub>3</sub> CN	$9.22\times10^{-9}$ M	Colorimetric		
25	HEPES buffer	$1.03\,\times\,10^{-7}$ M	Turn-on fluorescence	Done	
26	HEPES buffer	$1.08\times10^{-6}$ M 1 ppb	Turn-off fluorescence and colorimetric Turn-off fluorescence	Done Done	
27 28	EtOH-water $(2:8)$ MeCN-water $(3:2, v/v)$	$0.11 \times 10^{-7}$ M	Turn-on fluorescence	Done	
29	DMF-HEPES solution $(1:1, v/v)$	$6.45\,\times\,10^{-6}$ M	Turn-on fluorescence		
30				Done	
	Acetone	$3\times10^{-6}$ M	Turn-on	NA	
	Acetone-water $(1:1, v/v)$	$1.3\times10^{-6}$ M	Turn-on	Done	
31 32 33	$CH3CN-water$ (1:1, v/v) HEPES buffer	$2.5\times10^{-6}$ M $22.65\times10^{-9}$ M	Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence Turn-on fluorescence	NA Done	



Fig. 16 The chemical structures of sensors 34 and 35 along with their proposed sensing mechanism.

fluorescence behavior of 34, it has been used for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in HeLa and macrophage cells.

Sensor  $35<sup>91</sup>$  is a rhodamine–tryptamine-coupled fluorogenic and chromogenic sensor. Tryptamine is analogous to tryptophan and acts as a neurotransmitter. The carbonyl oxygen of rhodamine is replaced by sulfur as  $Hg^{2+}$  has a high affinity towards thio groups. Initially, 35 has no color or fluorescence in MeOH–water (7 : 3) medium, but the sudden appearance of a pink color along with orange-red emission has been observed upon the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$ . The high thiophilic affinity of  $Hg^{2+}$  results in spirolactam ring-opening (Fig. 16) and a simultaneous change in color and fluorescence. A strong 1:1 binding stoichiometry between  $Hg^{2+}$ and 35 and naked-eye visualization of a change in color as well as fluorescence established the excellent sensing capacity of the sensor with an extremely low detection limit of 2.1 nM.

Another rhodamine-derived sensor 36 has been applied for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$ . Slight modification has been undertaken to make the sensor different from the rhodamine B unit, where one side of the xanthene moiety has been substituted by piperazine and further functionalized with naphthyl chloride to develop sensor 36.92 A closed spirolactam ring has been formed by the introduction of hydrazine, which acts as the binding segment for  $Hg^{2+}$ . In an MeCN–water (7 : 3, v/v) mixture, sensor 36 showed no color or emission. But upon the introduction of  $Hg^{2+}$  to the solution, the sudden appearance of a pink color and yellow fluorescence has been observed. Initial binding of  $Hg^{2+}$  (Fig. 17) with 36 induces spirolactam ring-opening followed by hydrolysis for the formation of rhodamine acid, leading to the change in color as well as fluorescence. Sensor 36 has a moderate LOD of 0.38  $\mu$ M and can

be applied to stain living cells. Similarly, a combination of thioxorhodamine B hydrazine with [2,2'-bithiophene]-5-carboxaldehyde and [2,2'-bithiophene]-5,5'-dicarboxaldehyde leads to the development of sensors  $37a$  and  $37b$ , respectively.<sup>93</sup> These two sensors have different modes of action, although  $Hg^{2+}$ –induced spirolactam ring-opening is common to both. The sensing behavior of both sensors was carried out in EtOH-HEPES (1:1) medium. Initially, the solutions of both 37a and 37b have no color or emission. Upon the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$ , both showed a pink color with reddish-orange emission. Complexation of  $Hg^{2+}$  with 37a triggers spirolactam ringopening to activate the color and fluorescence of the rhodamine unit upon the excitation wavelength of the bithiophene moiety which suggests a FRET mechanism. In the case of 37b, the sensing mode is different from that of 37a, a traditional  $Hg^{2+}$ –induced spirolactam ring-opening upon binding in the cavity formed by thiophene and rhodamine unit is credited with the color change and emission change. The LOD values for 37a and 37b are 3.1  $\times$  $10^{-9}$  M and 2.92  $\times$   $10^{-9}$  M, respectively. These naked-eye fluorescent sensors are capable of detecting  $Hg^{2+}$  in living cells. The proposed sensing mechanisms of 37a and 37b are mentioned in Fig. 18. Materials Advances<br>
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> Another sensor  $38^{94}$  was designed by the attachment of hexaphenylbenzene and rhodamine units (Fig. 19). Initially, sensor 38 showed AIEE in a water–MeCN  $(1:1)$  mixture and formed fluorescent aggregates. The aggregates showed blue fluorescence due to the stacking of hexaphenylbenzene units. After the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$ to the solution, the fluorescence signal of 475 nm (blue emission) decreased and a new signal at 582 nm (orange-red emission) appeared with an intense pink color. The opening of the



Fig. 17 The chemical structure and proposed sensing mechanism of sensor 36



Fig. 18 The chemical structures of 37a and 37b and their proposed sensing mechanisms



Fig. 19 The chemical structure and proposed sensing mechanism of 38.

spirolactam ring by  $Hg^{2+}$  triggers the FRET process from hexaphenylbenzene (donor) to the rhodamine unit (acceptor). Thus, sensor 38 has evolved as an excellent tool for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  both in water sources and at a cellular level with a detection limit of 100 nM.

Slightly modified rhodamine B derivative  $39^{95}$  was developed by the reaction between thiocarbonyl-functionalized rhodamine B and different substituted cinnamyl aldehydes. In an EtOH–water  $(1:1, v/v, PBS, Ph 7.4)$  mixture, all the derivatives of 39 have been applied for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  with the same mode of action. Spirolactam ring-opening and binding of  $Hg^{2+}$ through  $C=$ S and  $C=N$  segments resulted in a color change and fluorescence change (Fig. 20). All the derivatives are capable of tracking  $Hg^{2+}$  in living cells as well as in animal systems. The sensor consisting of H-functionalized cinnamyl aldehyde, has the maximum efficiency towards  $Hg^{2+}$  detection.

Another sensor 40,<sup>96</sup> a combination of diphenyl selenium and rhodamine B hydrazide was applied for the selective and sensitive detection of Hg<sup>2+</sup> in MeOH-water (9:1, v/v) medium. Traditional  $Hg^{2+}$ -induced spirolactam ring-opening followed by complexation with 40 resulted in a color change and fluorescence change (Fig. 20). With an impressive LOD of 12 nM, sensor 40 is capable of detecting  $Hg^{2+}$  in living cells and zebrafish. A similar kind of rhodamine  $6G$  derivative  $41^{97}$  has been developed for the selective and sensitive detection of  $Hg^{2+}$ in DMSO-water  $(1:1)$  medium with an acceptable LOD of  $2.07 \times 10^{-8}$  M. An initial weak emission band at 575 nm of 41 is due to a PET process but after the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$ , a drastic enhancement in fluorescence intensity at 575 nm has been observed as a result of a chelation-enhanced fluorescence (CHEF) process (Fig. 20). The visual detection ability of





Fig. 20 The chemical structures of 39, 40, and 41, and the proposed sensing mechanisms of 39 and 40.

41 enabled the development of paper strips for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$ .

From the condensation of thiobisethylamine with rhodamine B was developed a simply synthesized sensor 42.<sup>98</sup> A solution of 42 in MeCN-HEPES (1:99, v/v) showed no color and no fluorescence, but the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$  resulted in a sudden color change and fluorescence change. Complexation between  $Hg^{2+}$  and 42 through an oxygen atom of the amide carbonyl group, S, and N atoms of the thiobisethylamine unit (Fig. 21) simultaneously opened the spirolactam ring which triggered the color and fluorescence change. With a moderate LOD of 0.14  $\mu$ M, 42 has the capability of imaging cells in the presence of  $Hg^{2+}$ .

Another sensor 43,<sup>99</sup> a combination of 2-hydroxy acetophenone and rhodamine hydrazine, was applied for the selective and sensitive detection of Hg<sup>2+</sup> in an EtOH–water (2:1, v/v) buffer (10 mM, HEPES, pH = 7.2) mixture. The solution of 43 turned pink upon the addition of Cu<sup>2+</sup> and Hg<sup>2+</sup>, though enhanced reddish-



Fig. 21 The chemical structures of 42 and 43. The proposed sensing mechanism of 42.

orange fluorescence has been observed only in the case of  $Hg^{2+}$ . Strong 1 : 1 binding (Fig. 21) between the ion and 43 is attributed to spirolactam ring-opening and subsequent color and fluorescence change with a detection limit of 150 nM.

A combination of a dialdehyde derivative of bisphenol A and N-(rhodamine-B) lactam-ethylenediamine developed a dualchannel probe  $44,^{100}$  which has been applied for the selective detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  by the FRET phenomenon. In an MeCN–water  $(8:2, v/v, HEPES, Ph = 7.0)$  mixture, 44 showed an excellent pink color along with orange fluorescence upon the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$ . Spirolactam ring-opening of the rhodamine unit by  $Hg^{2+}$  forms a new conjugate system and activates the FRET process from the bisphenol (donor) unit to the rhodamine (acceptor) unit to give the orange emission as an output signal (Fig. 22). This emissive property of 44 can be used in the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in living cells.

Ratiometric sensor  $45$ ,  $101$  a combination of a BODIPY unit and a rhodamine unit, was developed very cleverly. A combination of these two units has been used as a FRET pair, where the BODIPY unit can act as a donor and the rhodamine unit as an acceptor. These two units have been attached by a thiophene unit, which can act as a binding unit of  $Hg^{2+}$ . An ethanolic solution of 45 showed only a green fluorescence due to the BODIPY unit. But upon the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$ , reddish-orange emission observed upon excitation at 480 nm (BODIPY moiety) due to spirolactam ring-opening followed by FRET activation (Fig. 22). This FRET pair has an excellent LOD value of 1.56 ppb.

Sensor  $46^{102}$  was also developed by the sequential reactions between rhodamine B, triethylenetetramine, and phenyl isothiocyanate (Fig. 23). Thiourea segments of 46 are responsible for the interaction with Hg<sup>2+</sup>. In MeCN-HEPES (9:1, v/v) medium, 46 and  $Hg^{2+}$  formed a stable 1:3 complex with a strong orange emission accompanied by a pink color. Similarly, another rhodamine-based sensor 47 (Fig. 23) has been





Fig. 22 The chemical structures of 44 and 45 and their proposed sensing mechanisms.



developed with the combination of rhodamine B and -thiophene acetyl chloride.<sup>103</sup> This thiophene-coupled rhodamine derivative 47 was applied for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in an EtOH-water (2:1, v/v) mixture. Spirolactam ring-opening induced by  $Hg^{2+}$ , followed by the complexation with 47 resulted in a pink coloration and reddish emission. An LOD of  $0.11 \mu M$ and the ability to image living cells and zebrafish helped 47 to become a potential tool for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$ .

In this section, we have discussed reported sensors of  $Hg^{2+}$ based on heteroatom-containing ligands and rhodamine units as the signaling moiety. The rhodamine unit has been successfully used as the signaling unit as it has both colorimetric and fluorometric properties in spirolactam ring-closed form. Rhodamine-based sensors can show turn-off to turn-on fluorescence activity upon interaction with metal ions.  $Hg^{2+}$  can induce the opening of the spirolactam ring in rhodamine derivatives and switch on the color as well an emission. Due to this unique feature, modified rhodamine molecules are one

of the most commonly used tools for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  ions. All the comparative data are described in tabular form in Table 2.

#### 2.3 Reaction-based irreversible sensors for  $Hg^{2+}$

The above-mentioned sensor systems can detect  $Hg^{2+}$  complexation with the ligands and they can also be reversible. These interaction-based systems are one kind of developed tool that can be used for the detection of analytes, but there is always a chance of interference by other metal ions with the same type of chemical properties. But reaction-based detection systems are preferable due to their high selectivity over other competitive metal ions. Thioacetal deprotection, 1,3,4-oxadiazole formation, ester hydrolysis, hydrolysis of an imine bond, and alkyne or vinyl ether oxymercuration are well-known reactions which are preferably carried out by  $Hg^{2+}$ . These reactions have been used to design and develop different sensing systems for  $Hg^{2+}$  over the years. In this section, we are going to discuss reaction-based sensing systems that have evolved over the last few years.

2.3.1 Thioacetal deprotection. Thioacetal deprotection is one of the most important reactions which is done selectively by the  $Hg^{2+}$  ion. Using this to their advantage, many sensing systems have been developed to sense mercury with high selectivity. With this virtue, a simple benzothiazole-based fluorescent probe  $48^{104}$  has been designed for the detection of Hg<sup>2+</sup>. In this compound, one of the aldehyde groups has been protected by 1,3-propanedithiol to form thioacetal which is the reaction site for  $Hg^{2+}$ . Initial green fluorescence of 48 in PBS buffer (pH 7.4, containing 2% DMSO) solution is observed

Biological study





Similarly, an oligothiophene-based thioacetal system  $49^{105}$ has been developed as an excellent colorimetric and fluorometric probe for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in EtOH-water (1:1) medium. Sensor 49 has a strong blue fluorescence due to the stopped ICT process as well as having no color. But upon addition of  $Hg^{2+}$ , the color of 49 changed from colorless to yellow accompanied by yellow fluorescence. The formation of an aldehyde group from thioacetal is promoted by  $Hg^{2+}$  (Fig. 24) which activates the ICT process, which is responsible for the color change as well as the fluorescence change. Sensor 49 can detect  $\rm Hg^{2+}$  in water, soil, and seafood with a detection limit of  $1.03 \times 10^{-8}$  M.

Benzothiazole-based "ESIPT + AIE"-active probe  $50^{106}$  was designed for the selective detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in THF–water (1:1,  $v/v$ , PBS, Ph = 8.5) medium. The aldehyde group was protected by



Type of sensing

12 Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence Done<br>12 Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence NA

Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence MA<br>Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence Done

Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence Done<br>Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence Done

Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence Done<br>Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence Done

Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence Done

Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence Done<br>Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence NA

8 Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence MA<br>8 Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence Done

Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence MA<br>Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence Done

Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence Done<br>Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence NA

Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence NA

Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence NA

Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence Done

Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence Done<br>Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence NA

Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence

Colorimetric and turn-on fluorescence

A 1,3-dithiane group has been incorporated into a dicyanomethylene-4H-pyran fluorophore for the design of a dual colorimetric and NIR fluorescent probe 52.<sup>108</sup> Sensor 52 has been applied for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in a PBS–DMSO buffer (20 mM, pH 7.4, 5:5, v/v) mixture.  $Hg^{2+}$ -Induced deprotection of the thioacetal segment changes the color to pink from purple with an emission signal around the NIR area (Fig. 26). 52 can



Fig. 24 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of 48 and 49.



Fig. 25 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of 50 and 51.



Fig. 26 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of sensors 52 and 53.

successfully detect selectively only  $Hg^{2+}$  among other metal ions due to the thiophilic nature of mercury. This dual-channel detection system has an LOD value of 6.8  $\times$  10<sup>-8</sup> M. Due to its prominent and visual color change as well as emission signal around the NIR zone, it can be applied in biological systems and the environment for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$ .

Another sensor  $53^{109}$  consists of benzothiazole as a core unit. The presence of the thioacetal group stops the ICT process and activates the ESIPT between –OH and the benzothiazole unit; as a result, blue fluorescence has been observed in a pH 7.4, 10 mM HEPES buffer-ethanol  $(1:1, v/v)$  mixture. Upon addition of  $Hg^{2+}$  to the mixture of 53, intense greenish-yellow emission was observed by decreasing the blue emission. ICT along with ESIPT has been activated due to the appearance of the -CHO group by  $Hg^{2+}$ -triggered deprotection of thioacetal (Fig. 26). Due to the ratiometric nature of the detection and low LOD of 5.8 nM, sensor 53 can act as a good tool for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$ , though it lacks biological application.

A simple pyrene derivative  $54a^{110a}$  containing a bisethylsulfane moiety has been applied to sense  $Hg^{2+}$  in semi-aqueous medium and biological systems. Sensor 54 can detect  $Hg^{2+}$ selectively due to the presence of the bisethylsulfane segment.  $Hg^{2+}$  promotes the removal of bisethylsulfane to produce 1pyrenecarboxaldehyde (Fig. 27) in MeCN-water (1:1, v/v) medium with the appearance of blue emission. Sensor 54a has a detection limit of 57 nM and can successfully detect  $Hg^{2+}$  in living cells and zebrafish.

Another dithiolane-based probe  $54b^{110b}$  has been successfully applied to identify Hg(II) in ethanol/water (2:8, v/v; pH = 7.40) medium. Due to the protected form of the –CHO group in the naphthalene moiety, the fluorescence intensity is weak initially. After addition of  $Hg(\pi)$ , a colour change to light green from light yellow and strong emission were observed. This change in colour and emission is expected due to the transformation of dithiolane to a formyl group (Fig. 27). Sensor 54b turned out to be an excellent sensor for  $Hg(\Pi)$  with a detection limit of 4.0  $\times$  10<sup>-8</sup> M and ability for cell imaging.

Probe  $54c^{110c}$  has been reported as an excellent small molecular probe for  $Hg(II)$  detection. In a 99% PBS buffer solution of 54c, with the addition of  $Hg(u)$ , the solution turned green-emissive from non-emissive. Here also the dithiolane segment has been used as selective reaction site for  $Hg(II)$ . By virtue of this the formation of a -CHO group triggered by  $Hg(u)$ 



Fig. 27 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of 54a, 54b and 54c.

leads to the observed green emission (Fig. 27). As a reactionbased sensor, 54c is highly selective towards  $Hg(n)$  and suffered zero interference by other analytes. It has been successfully applied in a paper-strip model and for analysis of  $Hg(\pi)$  contamination in real samples. The limit of detection for 54c is calculated as 19.3 nM.

Another sensor 55 consists of a  $\pi$ -extended anthracene moiety bearing thioacetal segments within it. $111$  In a solution of a THF-PBS buffer  $(1:1, v/v, pH = 7.4)$  mixture, sensor 55 showed weak blue fluorescence. After the addition of mercury, successful deprotection of thioacetal formed the aldehyde. Aldehyde formation from thioacetal (Fig. 28) triggered the intense green emission which contributed to the effectiveness of the chemodosimetric nature of 55 with an LOD of 59 nM. Due to this ratiometric change in emission, 55 was utilized for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in living cells.

Coumarin-based fluorescent probe  $56^{112}$  was developed by introducing a 2-aminophenyl group to the  $Hg^{2+}/CH_3Hg^+$ -reactive thioacetal group. In a PBS buffer solution of 56, the introduction of  $Hg^{2+}$  ions resulted in aldehyde formation from thioacetal followed by condensation with an adjacent  $-NH<sub>2</sub>$  group to form a heterocyclic aromatic compound with large conjugation (Fig. 28). Due to the formation of the heterocyclic aromatic compound with a coumarin ring, bright green emission was observed with the shifting of the emission spectrum. Sensor 56 is able to detect both  $Hg^{2+}$  and CH<sub>3</sub>Hg<sup>+</sup> with the same mode of sensing mechanism and green emission as an output signal. The LOD values are 27 nM and 5.7  $\mu$ m for Hg<sup>2+</sup> and CH<sub>3</sub>Hg<sup>+</sup>, respectively.

In this section, we have discussed thioacetal-based probes for the irreversible detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in the environment and biological systems.

2.3.2 Vinyl ether oxymercuration. The hydrolysis of vinyl ether by  $Hg^{2+}$  is one design that can make the sensor highly selective. This so-called oxymercuration reaction can overcome





Fig. 28 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of 55 and 56

the selectivity issue compared to probes based on heteroatomcontaining ligands. Also, in most cases this vinyl ether hydrolysis leads to turn-on fluorescence which is much preferable for tracing  $Hg^{2+}$  as well as  $CH_3Hg^+$  in both the environment and biological systems. In this section, we are going to discuss some reported chemodosimeters for mercury detection based on the hydrolysis of the vinyl ether group.

Fluorescent probe  $57^{113}$  consisting of coumarin as a fluorophore moiety and vinyl ether as the reactive site was developed for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$ . Sensor 57 in HEPES buffer solution showed no emission but upon addition of  $Hg^{2+}$  the sudden appearance of blue emission was observed. The irreversible hydrolysis reaction of the vinyl ether group promoted by  $Hg<sup>2+</sup>$ (Fig. 29) is the reason behind the turn-on fluorescence response of 57 with a detection limit of 0.12  $\mu$ M. Similarly, another sensor  $58^{114}$  comprises an O-vinyl protected hydroxyl benzaldehyde coupled with rhodamine hydrazone. Initially 58 in CH<sub>3</sub>CN–PBS buffer (3/7, v/v, 10.0 mM, pH = 7.40) solution exhibited green fluorescence due to the ICT process. After the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$ , the green fluorescence of 58 decreased due to the deprotection of the vinyl ether group which inhibited the ICT process (Fig. 29). With the turn-off emission of 58 in the presence of  $Hg^{2+}$ , it has a detection limit of 244 ppb.

Sensor 59,<sup>115</sup> based on a vinyl ether derivative of hemicyanine, has been developed for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$ . Deprotection of the –OH group of hemicyanine by a vinyl group blocks the ICT process. Hydrolysis of vinyl ether promoted by  $Hg^{2+}$  in 59 (Fig. 30) activates the ICT process in the HEPES buffer solution, which is responsible for the appearance of an orange color as well as reddish-yellow fluorescence. This drastic change in color and fluorescence of 59 appears to be advantageous in the field of  $Hg^{2+}$  detection with biological applications.

An NIR-fluorescent probe  $60^{116}$  was developed, where 9-(2carboxyphenyl)-6-(diethylamino)-1,2,3,4-tetrahydroxanthylium was used as a fluorophore and vinyl ether acted as the reactive site for Hg<sup>2+</sup>. Sensor 60 in ethanol–H<sub>2</sub>O (2:8, v/v 50 mM HEPES buffer solution,  $pH = 7.4$ ) solution initially showed a weak red emission at 660 nm but upon the introduction of  $Hg^{2+}$ , a drastic enhancement in 660 nm peak with strong red emission was observed. This change in emission was due to the removal of the vinyl ether group and the formation of an –OH group which increases the ''push–pull'' property to activate the ICT process



Fig. 29 The chemical structures of 57 and 58 along with their proposed sensing mechanisms



Fig. 30 The chemical structure and proposed sensing mechanism of 59

(Fig. 31). Due to the turn-off to turn-on nature of 60 in the presence of  $Hg^{2+}$ , it is very useful in the environment and biological systems. This NIR probe has an LOD value of 3.2 nM. Another sensor  $61^{117}$  was developed for the selective and

sensitive detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  with the help of a vinyl ether group as the reaction site. Initially, blue fluorescence of 61 was observed in 10 mM PBS buffer (1%  $CH<sub>3</sub>CN$ ) solution which was due to the stopped ESIPT process. But after the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$  to the PBS buffer solution, an equivolume of DCM was added and fluorescence was recorded, a drastic red shift of the emission spectrum was observed with a cyan emission. Deprotection of the vinyl ether group promoted by  $Hg^{2+}$  and formation of –OH group (Fig. 31) activate the ESIPT process which was the reason for cyan fluorescence. Sensor 61 is an excellent chemodosimeter due to its ratiometric nature and an impressive LOD of 7.8  $\times$  10<sup>-9</sup> M. It can also be applied in biological systems to detect  $Hg^{2+}$  with good efficiency. Review Materials Advances<br>
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2.3.3 Other reaction-based sensors. In this section, we are going to discuss other reaction-based approaches for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$ , such as hydrolysis of esters or imine bonds, and 1,3,4oxadiazole formation. Sensor 62<sup>118</sup> consists of a 2-mercapto-benzyl ester group as the reaction site forester hydrolysis. 4-[2-(4-Hydroxyphenyl)-vinyl]-1-methyl-pyridinium[e]iodide was used as the signaling unit due to its high water solubility. In a 100% PBS buffer solution, sensor 62 shows no emission due to the ester moiety which inhibits the intramolecular charge transfer process. But upon addition of Hg<sup>2+</sup> ion, it coordinates with the –SH and C= $O$ groups of the 2-mercapto-benzyl segment to facilitate the hydrolysis reaction to form an –OH group of the fluorophore (Fig. 32). This hydrolysis reaction triggers activation of the ICT process to show a green-yellow emission signal. Sensor 62 acted as a turn-on chemodosimeter for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  with a detection limit of 6.5 nM. Another sensor  $63$ ,<sup>119</sup> a Schiff base type of compound

COOH HOO!  $He<sup>2</sup>$ 61

Fig. 31 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of 60 and 61.

containing benzimidazole and coumarin units as fluorophores, was developed for the selective detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in HEPES buffer/ DMSO ( $v/v = 9:1$ ,  $pH = 7.2$ ) medium. Initial weak blue emission turned intense blue upon the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$  into the solution of 63. This enhanced emission signal is expected to be due to the cleavage of the imine bond by  $Hg^{2+}$  and the formation of the coumarin part (Fig. 32). With a high sensitivity of 70 nM, 63 can be applied for the detection of  $He^{2+}$  in biological systems.

Similarly, sensor  $64^{120}$  was developed using a coumarin derivative and a 5-aminoisophthalic acid methyl ester unit. Due to the formation of the Schiff base between coumarin dye and the amino isophthalic acid methyl ester derivative in  $CH_3CN-H_2O$  (8/2, v/v, 0.1 M KClO<sub>4</sub> buffer, pH = 7.34) medium, no emission was observed. Upon the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$ , a highly intense peak at 490 was observed. The resulting emission signal corresponded to the coumarin aldehyde unit which was a result of imine bond cleavage promoted by  $Hg^{2+}$  to suppress the PET process (Fig. 33). Sensor 64 was successfully applied to detect mercury at the nanomolar level with biological applications.

An imidazo[1,2-a]pyridine-rhodamine ratiometric fluorescent probe  $65^{121}$  was developed for the detection of Hg<sup>2+</sup> in PBS/EtOH (9:1, v/v) medium. Upon addition of  $Hg^{2+}$  to the solution of 65, it turned pink in color with a reddish emission.  $Hg^{2+}$  promoted spirolactam ring-opening followed by the formation of 1,3,4-oxadiazole by thiosemicarbazide (Fig. 34). Due to this new structure formation and extended conjugation, the FRET process was generated to give a unique color and emission. Sensor 65 has an LOD of 9.1 nM and the capability of tracking mercury at the cellular level with excellent efficiency.

Another sensor  $66^{122}$  was developed as a pyrido[1,2-a]benzimidazole-rhodamine based FRET system. In this system, benzimidazole was used as the energy donor and a piperazinefunctionalized rhodamine unit was used as the acceptor of energy. In a solution of EtOH-water  $(2:8, v/v)$ , 66 shows blue emission with no color. After the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$ , the sudden appearance of a pink color with red emission was observed upon excitation at 380 nm which corresponds to the benzimidazole moiety. The mechanism is similar to that of sensor 65, where the formation of 1,3,4-oxadiazole and spirolactam ringopening (Fig. 34) is the reason behind the color change and emission change. Sensor 66 with a good LOD of 18.8 nM, can be applied for detecting  $Hg^{2+}$  in biological systems.

Sensor  $67^{123}$  was developed with the combination of rhodamine B, o-phenylenediamine, and phenyl isothiocyanate. Initially a solution of 67 in MeCN-HEPES  $(1:9, v/v, pH = 7.2)$ medium showed no color and no emission. The addition of  $Hg^{2+}$  to the solution resulted in a pink color and reddish emission.  $Hg^{2+}$  promoted spirolactam ring-opening followed by the formation of a benzimidazole-appended rhodamine intermediate (Fig. 35) to generate the color as well as the emission output. The dual-mode of detection of 67 in a chemodosimetric manner made it much more useful with an LOD of 1.6 nM and biological applicability.

Another sensor 68 was designed with a perimidine moiety for the detection of Hg<sup>2+</sup> ions. In a MeCN-water (3:7, v/v) mixture,  $68a^{124a}$  showed no emission. A strong blue emission



Fig. 32 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of 62 and 63



Fig. 33 The chemical structure and proposed sensing mechanism of 64

was observed for 68a upon the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$ . The blue emission signal is attributed to the  $Hg^{2+}$ -mediated formation of a double bond in the junction of the coumarin and naphthalin moiety (Fig. 35). Sensor 68a suffered from a low LOD of  $1.08 \mu M$ although it can be applied in biological systems to detect  $Hg^{2+}$ .

Another azo-based sensor  $68b^{124b}$  has been introduced for the successful colorimetric detection of  $Hg(n)$  in a DMSO–water  $(1:99, v/v)$  system. Here the Hg( $u$ )-triggered desulfurization and subsequent rearrangement leads to the change in colour for 68b (Fig. 35). This system is an excellent molecule to detect  $Hg(n)$  with an LOD of 8.1 nM and can be used as a solid chip to visualize the colour change.

A combination of the dye pyronin and the chelating agent *meso-2*,3-dimercaptosuccinic acid developed sensor  $69^{125}$  for the detection and removal of  $Hg^{2+}$ . This one of the rare systems which can detect and sense  $Hg^{2+}$  ions. In PBS buffer solution, 69 remained in turn-off fluorescence mode and was colorless to the naked eye. Upon introduction of  $Hg^{2+}$ , a solution of 69 turned pink in color and emitted reddish fluorescence. Strong binding of  $Hg^{2+}$  with the ligand and subsequent removal of the chelated complex generated free pyronin dye to which was attributed the appearance of the pink color and reddish emission (Fig. 36). With the excellent dual-sensing signal and high LOD of 300 pM, sensor 69 was successfully applied at the cellular level and in a zebrafish model for tracking  $Hg^{2+}$ .

The thiocarbonate-appended fluorescein-based chemodosimeter  $70^{126}$  was developed for the turn-on fluorescent detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in a HEPES buffer solution (20 mM, pH 7.4, 1% EtOH). Initially, with no color and emission, 70 showed green emission upon the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$ .  $Hg^{2+}$  promotes the hydrolysis of the

thiocarbonate segment and forms free fluorescein acid which results in a greenish emission (Fig. 36). Sensor 70 has a detection limit of 40 nM.

Another thiocarbonate-based sensor  $71^{127}$  was developed, where 2-(2'-hydroxyphenyl)benzothiazole was used as the fluorophore unit. Benzothiazole segments are well known for their ESIPT activity as well as their AIEE activity. Upon functionalization of the –OH group, the ESIPT process stopped for 71. An appearance of yellow fluorescence was observed in an EtOH– water (5/5, v/v, HEPES pH = 7.4) solution of 71 upon the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$  ions. This yellow color was generated due to the  $Hg^{2+}$ -triggered hydrolysis of thiocarbonate to form an -OH group and activate the ESIPT process (Fig. 37). Sensor 71 has a detection limit of 55 nM.

Similarly, sensor  $72^{128}$  was designed based on the ESIPT phenomenon, where 2-(2'-hydroxyphenyl)benzothiazole also acted as a signaling unit and thiophosphate as a reaction site. Blocking of –OH group with thiophosphate deactivated the ESIPT process and turned off the emission. In a solution of  $CH_3CN/HEPES$  (1:4, v/v, 10 mM, pH = 7.4), 72 turned blueemissive upon addition of  $Hg^{2+}$  ions. Removal of the thiophosphate group resulted in the formation of an –OH group (Fig. 37) which activated the ESIPT to give blue emission. With an LOD of 12 nM, 72 can be applied for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  at the cellular level.

In this section, we have successfully discussed  $Hg^{2+}$  sensors based on reactions, which are chemodosimetric in nature as they irreversibly detect the analyte. In comparison to heteroatom-containing ligand systems, reaction-based sensors are superior due to their excellent selectivity towards  $Hg^{2+}$  ions.



The chemical structures and sensing mechanisms of 65 and 66.

All the summarised information about reaction-based sensors (48–72), is given in Table 3.

#### 2.4 Polymer-based sensors for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$

Above we have discussed small-molecule systems to detect  $Hg^{2+}$ ion in environmental sources and biological systems. Among the sensors (1–72), only a few compounds can detect  $Hg^{2+}$  in pure water or buffer medium. To overcome this issue, polymeric sensors were introduced for this detection process. Not only their water solubility but also the presence of many repeating units throughout the backbone, means polymers can produce highly amplified intensity to which can be attributed their high sensitivity. $129-134$  Due to these advantageous features, polymeric materials have been developed in recent times for the detection of analytes such as  $Hg^{2+}$ . In this section, we are going to discuss some polymeric materials which were applied for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  ion under different conditions.

A dithioacetal-based conjugated polymeric sensor  $73^{135}$  was developed for detecting  $Hg^{2+}$  in THF medium with high selectivity and sensitivity. Initial green fluorescence turned into red emission upon the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$  to a solution of 73. The



Fig. 35 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of 67, 68a and 68b.

intramolecular charge transfer process was inhibited in the dithioacetal containing 73, but  $Hg^{2+}$  promoted deprotection of dithioacetal and the formation of –CHO group again triggered the ICT process to give red emission (Fig. 38). This visual color change of fluorescence for 73 can be used as a good tool for detecting Hg<sup>2+</sup> with a detection limit of 1  $\mu$ M.

Another polymeric sensor 74, <sup>136</sup> consisting of a hydrophilic segment and a functionalized BODIPY segment, was developed for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$ . A 4-amino phenol functionalized BDIPY unit used as the responsible site for  $Hg^{2+}$  sensing. Due to the water solubility of random polymer 74, it can detect  $Hg^{2+}$  in a pure water medium. The appearance of a brown color and intense green emission was observed after the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$  to the solution of 74. This drastic change in color and emission was due to the hydrolysis of the imine bond by  $Hg^{2+}$  and the formation of an aldehyde group (Fig. 38). Sensor 74 has an LOD of 1.10  $\mu$ M.

Sensor  $75^{137}$  is a thermoresponsive diblock copolymer with colorimetric detection ability towards  $Hg^{2+}$  ions. Polymeric sensor 75 has an LCST value of  $\sim$  55 °C and is molecularly soluble in water. Below the LCST, PHPDEA units are exposed to water. Upon the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$ , the exposed PHPDEA unit is hydrolyzed to form the strong electron-withdrawing group cyanide. With this formation of a strong –CN group (Fig. 39), the intramolecular charge transfer process was maximized and an obvious sudden color change to pink from yellow was observed. But above LCST, 75 was unable to detect  $Hg^{2+}$  ions as the HPDEA units were then inside the hydrophobic core of the multi-molecular micelles. Sensor 75 was demonstrated as



Fig. 36 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of 69 and 70.



Fig. 37 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of 71 and 72.

an excellent highly selective tool for the detection  $Hg^{2+}$  colorimetrically with a detection limit of 0.03 mM.

Further stimuli-responsive polymeric sensors 76a and 76b were developed for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in a colorimetric way with pHtunable sensitivity.<sup>138</sup> Sensor 76a was developed by the protection of the aldehyde group of the azo-polymer with ethanethiol and 76b was developed by the protection of the aldehyde of the azo-polymer with 3-marcaptopropionic acid. These azo-polymer derivatives can detect  $Hg^{2+}$  in a HEPES buffer solution of pH 7.4 in a colorimetric fashion. But, interestingly, 76a detected Hg<sup>2+</sup> in  $\sim$  60 minutes and 76b in  $\sim$  15 minutes at pH = 7.4. So the deprotection of dithioacetal promoted by  $Hg^{2+}$  was 4 times faster in the case of 76b compared to 76a due to the formation of  $C=O \cdot Hg$  interaction, which further triggered the C $\cdots$ S-Hg cleavage which leads to aldehyde formation. But in the case of  $pH = 11$ , 76b showed a  $\sim$  60 minute reaction time in the presence of excess of Hg<sup>2+</sup> ions, which suggested the pH-tunable sensitivity of the sensors. Ultimately the pH-dependent deprotection of dithioacetal was the main mechanism (Fig. 39) for the colorimetric detection ability of both sensors (76a and 76b).

A set of sensors 77a and 77b were developed as PEGylated BODIPY polymers.139 The presence of a dithia-dioxa-aza cyclopentadecane ligand to the BODIPY core triggered the ICT process and

both sensors were non-emissive. Due to the presence of PEG units, 77a and 77b can be used for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  ions in pure water (Fig. 40). In the presence of  $Hg^{2+}$ , a drastic change in color and enhanced fluorescence were observed in both 77a and 77b. A yellow emission with a pink color to the naked eye for 77a and red emission with blue color to the naked eye for 77b were observed in the presence of Hg<sup>2+</sup>. Complexation of Hg<sup>2+</sup> with the dithiadioxa-aza cyclopentadecane ligand leads to the color and emission change. Due to the intense and bright emissive nature of 77a and 77b, they can be used at the cellular level to detect  $Hg^{2+}$  ions. The LOD value for 77a is 8.1 ppb and that for 77b is 129.3 ppb.

A tryptophan-dithiocarbamate-based fluorogenic polymeric probe 78<sup>140</sup> was developed for the selective detection and removal of Hg<sup>2+</sup> ions. In pure aqueous medium, 78 was able to detect Hg<sup>2+</sup> by an enhancement in fluorescence signal at 366 nm due to the inhibition of the PET process. Due to the presence of a dithiocarbamate unit, it can bind the  $Hg^{2+}$  ion and stop the PET process to give the fluorescence signal (Fig. 41). With a detection limit of 1.5 nM, sensor 78 is able to detect  $Hg^{2+}$  at the cellular level. Another water-soluble copolymer  $79^{141}$  was developed with a tryptophan unit and a pyridine segment attached through an imine bond. Due to the complexation of  $Hg^{2+}$  through the N atoms of the imine bond and pyridine units, quenching of fluorescence was observed (Fig. 41). This quenched fluorescence of 79 was used to detect  $Hg^{2+}$  ions at the cellular level with an LOD value of 7.41 nM.

Another BODIPY-based thiosemicarbazone moiety containing polymeric sensor  $80a^{142a}$  was developed for detecting Hg<sup>2+</sup> ions in a pure aqueous (HEPES buffer solution, pH = 7.4) medium. Upon the addition of  $Hg^{2+}$ , a solution of 80a showed yellow emission from fluorescence-off mode. The binding of  $Hg^{2+}$  ions with two thiosemicarbazone groups of nearby polymeric chains stopped the  $C=N$  isomerization and resulted in a yellow fluorescence (Fig. 42). Complexation of  $Hg^{2+}$  with 80a resulted in a precipitate to remove  $Hg^{2+}$  successfully from the contaminated water source. Highly selective polymeric sensor  $80a$  has a detection limit of 0.36  $\mu$ M and the capability to remove mercury.

For the first time a chitosan thiomer,  $80b^{142b}$  has been synthesized successfully and applied for the colorimetric







Fig. 38 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of 73 and 74.

detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  in aqueous solution. As  $Hg^{2+}$  has strong affinity towards thiol groups, 80b turned out to be an excellent binding material for it. Due to the formation of an S–Hg–S bond

(Fig. 42), a drastic change in colour is observed from colorless to yellow to light brown to brown. This polymeric material has also been applied for removal of  $Hg^{2+}$  ions due to strong



Fig. 39 The chemical structures and sensing mechanisms of sensors 75, 76a, and 76b.



Fig. 40 The chemical structures of 77a and 77b

binding. Polymer 80b has been developed as an excellent sensor material with an ultra-low LOD of 0.465 ppb.

In this section, we have discussed polymeric sensors for the detection of  $Hg^{2+}$  ions. In recent years polymeric sensors have been developed to treat the analyte in pure water, which can be achieved by the synthesis of functionalized polymers with hydrophilic and hydrophobic segments. A summary of the information about polymeric sensors (73–80b) is given in Table 4.

We have now discussed the development and implementation of different types of detection systems based on heteroatom-containing ligand systems, reaction-based systems, and polymeric systems, for sensing  $Hg^{2+}$  ion in various sources.

# 3. Fluorescent and colorimetric detection systems for As(III)

The most toxic form of arsenic is the +3-oxidation state. In groundwater, arsenic exists as arsenite  $(As(m))$  and arsenate  $(As(v))$ , though the arsenite form is more toxic than  $As(v)$ . Except for conventional methods, rapid detection techniques using color change or emission change are very rare in number. In this section, we are going to discuss some of the chemical sensors which have been used to detect  $\text{As(m)}$  in a colorimetric way or a fluorometric way.

A combination of boron trifluoride diethyletherate  $((C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>2</sub>OBF<sub>3</sub>)$  and curcumin produced sensor  $81<sup>143</sup>$  for the



Fig. 41 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of 78 and 79.

selective detection of  $\text{As(m)}$  colorimetrically. A solution of 81 in 60% ethanol showed an orange color, but upon addition of  $As(m)$ , it turned blue. This redshift in absorbance spectra was observed due to the deprotonation of the hydroxyl groups by  $As(m)$  to promote the delocalization of the negative charges towards the acceptor part (Fig. 43). This prominent change in color in the presence of  $\text{As(m)}$  can be used for the selective detection of As( $\text{III}$ ) with an LOD of 0.26  $\mu$ M. Amberlite XAD-2 resin coated with 81 was used for the detection of  $\text{As(m)}$  in a solid phase with an LOD of 3  $\times$  10<sup>-5</sup> M.

Two isatin-appended Schiff bases  $82a$  and  $82b^{144}$  were developed for the colorimetric detection of As(III). DMSO solutions of 82a and 82b showed a brown color but upon adding  $\text{ASO}_2$ <sup>-</sup>, they turned blue with absorption maxima of 600 nm and 624 nm, respectively. The formation of a charge-transfer complex between  $\text{As(m)}$  and  $\text{82a/82b}$  resulted in the changed colors. For both sensors As( $\text{III}$ ) was bound through C $=$ O and C $=$ N segments, as depicted in Fig. 43. In a colorimetric fashion, 82a and 82b can be used as selective sensors for As $(m)$  detection with detection limits of 0.26 ppm and 0.56 ppm.

Sensor 83,<sup>145</sup> a combination of 2,6-diformyl-p-cresol and 4aminoantipyrine was developed for the selective detection of

arsenite in colorimetric and fluorometric fashion. A HEPES buffer (1 mM, pH 7.4; water/DMSO  $(v/v)$ , 9:1) solution of 83 showed no color and no emission due to the strong PET effect originating from the hydroxyl group. Addition of  $\mathrm{AsO}_3^{-3-}$  ions to the solution of 83 produced a light-yellow greenish color and green emission. This drastic and prominent change in color and emission was the result of the binding of arsenite with 83, which disturbed the PET process and triggered the CHEF process via intermolecular hydrogen bonding (Fig. 44). Its turn-on fluorescence feature was used effectively for intracellular tracking of arsenite. The dual-mode sensing process and excellent LOD value of 4.12 made 83 a potential tool in the field of rapid and effective arsenite detection.

Condensation between rhodamine 6G hydrazide and 5 methyl salicylaldehyde produced sensor 84.<sup>146</sup> In acetonitrile: HEPES buffer  $(4:1, v/v, pH 7.4)$  solution, 84 did not show any color or emission due to the spirolactam ring-closed form. After the addition of  $As(m)$ , a solution of 84 turned pink in color with an intense yellow emission. Spirolactam ring-opening followed by strong 1:1 binding between As( $\text{m}$ ) and 84 resulted in the observed color and emission change (Fig. 45). Due it turn-on fluorescence, 84 was also used for detecting  $\text{As(m)}$  at the cellular level. Dual-channel sensor 84 emerged as an excellent material for the selective detection of  $\text{As(m)}$  with an LOD of 0.164 ppb.

An aggregation-induced emission-based sensor 85 was developed using tetraphenylethene (TPE) as a fluorescent moiety and cysteine as a binding ligand for  $\text{As(m)}$ .<sup>147</sup> An aqueous solution (THF-water,  $1:99$ ,  $v/v$ ) of 85 (Fig. 45) was nonfluorescent, but upon addition of  $\text{As(m)}$  an intense blue fluorescence was observed and it gradually became more intense with an increasing concentration of  $\text{As(m)}$ . Binding of As( $III$ ) with the -SH group of cysteine of 85 through the formation of As–S bond promoted the  $\pi-\pi$  stacking of TPE units to produce the intense blue emission which is typical of the AIE process. Sensor 85 has a detection limit of 0.5 ppb, which is much lower than the WHO limit.

An oxime-based fluorogenic probe  $86^{148}$  was applied for the detection of arsenite with turn-on fluorescence. In a pure aqueous medium of pH 7.24, 86 did not show any prominent fluorescence signal, but upon the introduction of  $\text{ASO}_2^-$  a strong blue emission was observed. This turn-on fluorescence signal helped to detect AsO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> in pure aqueous medium with a detection limit of 1.32  $\mu$ M.



Fig. 42 The chemical structures of 80a and 80b +  $Hg^{2+}$  complex.

Table 4 A comparison of different polymer-based sensors ( $73-80b$ ) for Hg<sup>2+</sup> detection

Compound	Medium	LOD.	Type of sensing	Biological study
73	<b>THF</b>	$1 \times 10^{-6}$ M	Turn-on fluorescence	NA
74	Pure water	$1.1\times10^{-6}$ M	Turn-on fluorescence	NA
75	Water	$0.03 \times 10^{-3}$ M	Colorimetric	NA
76a and 76b	Pure water	<b>NA</b>	Colorimetric	NA
77a	Pure water	$8.1$ ppb	Turn-on fluorescence and colorimetric	Done
77b	Pure water	129.3 ppb	Turn-on fluorescence and colorimetric	Done
78	Pure water	$1.5 \times 10^{-9}$ M	Turn-on fluorescence	Done
79	Pure water	$7.41 \times 10^{-9}$ M	Turn-off fluorescence	Done
<b>80a</b>	HEPES buffer	$0.37 \times 10^{-6}$ M	Turn-on fluorescence	NA
80b	Aqueous medium	$0.465$ ppb	Colorimetric	NA



Fig. 43 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of 81, 82a, and 82b.



Fig. 44 The chemical structure and proposed sensing mechanism of sensor 83.

The output fluorescence signal was the result of H-bonding interaction between  $\text{AsO}_2^-$  and 86 (Fig. 46). This H-bonding interaction leads to the formation of different nano/microstructures in pure aqueous solution. Sensor 86 was successfully utilized for cell imaging in the presence of  $\text{AsO}_2$ <sup>-</sup> ions. This sensor suffered from a selectivity issue, as it showed similar fluorescence properties in the presence of arsenate as well. Along with the sensitivity issue, the LOD value of 86 towards  $\text{AsO}_2^-$  is not up to the mark compared to the WHO level.

A colorimetric probe 87 was designed as a benzothiazole Schiff base for the highly sensitive and selective detection of  $As<sup>3+</sup> ions<sup>149</sup>$ Sensor 87 showed a light yellow color in DMSO–water  $(1:1)$ medium. After the addition of  $As<sup>3+</sup>$  ions, a solution of 87 turned brownish orange. Due to strong 1:1 binding between 87 and  $As<sup>3+</sup>$ (Fig. 46), a strong change in color was observed. But unfortunately, the same characteristics were observed when 87 was treated with  $As<sup>5+</sup>$  with the same absorbance spectrum. Though the drastic change in color was helpful for recognizing  $As<sup>3+</sup>$  ions, the selectivity



Fig. 45 The chemical structures of 84 and 85 along with the proposed sensing mechanism of 84

issue was a drawback for this system. It can be used for detecting arsenic  $(As^{3+}/As^{5+})$  in water but cannot be used for the selective detection of  $As<sup>3+</sup>$ . Sensor 87 suffered from selectivity issues, but the detection limit was excellent with an LOD value of 7.2 ppb for  $As<sup>3+</sup> ions.$ 

A chromogenic–fluorescence probe 88<sup>150</sup> was applied for the detection of  $\text{As}^{3+}$  along with  $\text{Cr}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Al}^{3+}$ ,  $\text{Ga}^{3+}$ , and  $\text{In}^{3+}$  ions. In a water–MeCN (95:5,  $v/v$ ) solution, in the presence of As<sup>3+</sup>, the color of 88 changed to violet from colorless along with a quenching of fluorescence. For all other trivalent cations as well, the same observation was found. It was hypothesized that cation-induced dehydration formed a highly conjugated cationic molecule and that led to the color change (Fig. 47). Sensor 88 has LODs of 10.4  $\mu$ M (UV-vis) and 10.7  $\mu$ M (fluorescence). Though the color change is drastic in the case of 88, it suffered from low selectivity towards  $As<sup>3+</sup>$  and a low detection limit. Due to these issues, 88 cannot be used to separately detect  $As<sup>3+</sup>$  ions. Similarly, another sensor 89 was developed by the combination of 2-hydroxy-1 naphthaldehyde and thiosemicarbazide.<sup>151</sup> With no color or emission in DMF–water (9:1,  $v/v$ , HEPES,  $pH = 7.2$ ), 89 changed its color to yellow with a unique emission at 495 nm upon addition of AsO $_2^{-}$  ions. A strong hydrogen bonding interaction between AsO $_2^{-}$ and the –OH and –NH groups of 89 leads to a color and emission change (Fig. 47). Eventually, 89 could be a useful sensor with an LOD value of 66 nM but it suffers from the selectivity issue as it can also detect CN<sup>-</sup> ions with the same spectroscopic properties. Review Maximum and the method of the section of 17 AM. The method on 17 AM. The method of 17 AM. This article is licensed under the method of the method of the section of 18 AM. The method of the section  $\lambda^2$  and  $\lambda^2$ 

Another hydrazine-based thiocarbamide chemosensor 90 was applied for the colorimetric and fluorometric detection of  $\text{AsO}_3^{\text{3}-}$ ions.<sup>152</sup> Sensor 90 detected AsO<sub>3</sub><sup>3-</sup> ions in MeCN-water (9:1, v/v,  $pH = 7.2$ ) by changing the color from colorless to yellow and non-



Fig. 47 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of sensors 88 and 89.

fluorescent to yellow fluorescence. Here also the H-bonding interaction between the anion, the –NH group of thiocarbamide segment, and the Ar–OH group was the reason behind the change in color as well as in fluorescence (Fig. 48). The dual-sensing properties of 90 with an excellent detection limit of 15 nM meant it emerged as a good tool for detecting  $As(m)$  in real applications as it was able to detect the analyte in contaminated real samples. It can also detect phosphate ions with the same color and emission change as  $AsO<sub>3</sub><sup>3-</sup>$ , so there might be interference.

Another fluorogenic probe 91 was designed by the combination of pyrene and calix[4]arene for detecting  $As^{3+153}$  Due to the presence of an amide group in the system, it can be a catalysis binding site as well as helping the CHEF process. In the presence of  $As<sup>3+</sup>$  ions, the fluorescence intensity of 91 decreased, as a result of binding between the sensor and analyte for activation of the PET process (Fig. 48). This turn-off fluorescence of 91 was used to analyze real samples contaminated by  $As^{3+}$ , as the sensor has an LOD value of 11.53 nM for  $As<sup>3+</sup>$ . Besides the excellent sensitivity of **91** towards  $As^{3+}$ , selectivity was a problem as the sensor was able to detect  $Nd^{3+}$  and  $Br^-$  by turn-on and turn-off fluorescence, respectively, under the same experimental conditions.

A colorimetric sensor 92 was developed with condensation between 2,4-dinitrophenyl hydrazine and 2,4-dihydroxy benzaldehyde.<sup>154</sup> Due to the presence of 2,4-dinitrophenyl hydrazine, it can act as an H-bonding formation segment with some unique chromophoric features. Sensor 92 (Fig. 49) showed different colors in water–DMSO (9 : 1) and water–MeCN



Fig. 46 The chemical structures and proposed sensing mechanisms of 86 and 87.



Fig. 48 The chemical structures of 90 and 91 along with the proposed sensing mechanism of 91.



Fig. 49 The chemical structures of 92, 93, and 94, and the proposed sensing mechanisms of 93 and 94.

(9 : 1) mixtures. The color of 92 in water–DMSO solution changed to purple from orange in the presence of  $As<sup>3+</sup>$  but in the case of a water–MeCN solution, it changed from yellow to red. The presence of Ar–OH and –NH groups in the sensor was attributed to the strong bonding of  $As<sup>3+</sup>$  by H-bonding interaction which resulted in a drastic and intense color change. So, sensor 92 can serve as a good naked-eye sensor with high selectivity and an LOD value of 0.35  $\times$  10<sup>-6</sup> M for As<sup>3+</sup> ions.

Two coumarin-based sensors  $93^{155}$  and  $94^{156}$  were designed as coumarin-appended benzothiazolines for the detection of  $As(m)$  in organic media. Both sensors were able to detect  $As(m)$ in THF medium by turn-on fluorescence. It was expected that  $As(III)$  coordination with the Schiff-base thiolate form of the sensors followed by the formation of benzothiazole was the reason behind the turning on of emission in both cases (Fig. 49). Both sensors were able to detect  $\text{As(m)}$  with high selectivity in pure THF medium. Sensor 94 was able to sense inorganic  $\text{As(m)}$  with an LOD value of 0.14 ppb. Similarly, sensor 93 was also extremely sensitive towards  $\text{As(m)}$  with a detection limit of 0.24 ppb. But both sensors were able to sense  $As(m)$  in an organic medium, which could be a drawback for them.

A norbornene-derived monomer 95a and its homopolymer 95b were developed for detecting  $As(m)$ , where rhodamine B was used as the signaling unit.<sup>157</sup> Both the monomer and polymer solution in methanol–water solution remained colorless as well as non-emissive due to the spirolactam ring-closed form of the rhodamine unit. In the presence of  $KIO<sub>3</sub>$  and HCl, the solution of 95a turned pink in color and reddish in emission due to the opening of the spirolactam ring. After the addition of  $\text{As(m)}$  solution, the pH changed from 1.34 to 4.23, and the color of the solution changed to brown, and the emission changed to greenish. In the presence of  $KIO<sub>3</sub>$  and HCl, As(III) oxidized to As(v) and generated  $I_2$  in the solution. This  $I_2$ further reacted with the double bond of the norbornene unit, and as a result, the color and fluorescence were changed (Fig. 50). A similar mechanism was followed by polymer 95b.



Fig. 50 The chemical structures of 95a and 95b along with the proposed sensing mechanism of 95a.

Table 5 A comparison of different sensors (81-95b) for As(III) detection



The oxidation process was further supported by cyclic voltammetry which suggested that two-electron oxidation took place during the sensing process. Paper strips coated with polymer 95b were successfully used for the "in-field" detection of  $As(m)$ in water sources. So it is clear that 95a and 95b are unique for their selective detection of  $\text{As(m)}$  in both colorimetric and fluorometric processes in a novel mechanistic pathway. Sensor 95a has a detection limit of 200 nM for  $\text{As(m)}$  ions.

We have discussed reported chemical sensors for the detection of  $\text{As(m)}$  in different mediums with different mechanisms. Most of the sensors preferably interact with  $\text{As(m)}$  to produce a new signal for the identification of the analyte. All the information about sensors 81–95b is given in Table 5.

### 4. Conclusions and perspectives

Due to the toxic extent of  $Hg^{2+}$  and As( $\text{m}$ ) in humans and in different biological systems, these ions have received extensive interest from researchers with the aim of creating detection tools. The initial section of our review covered reported colorimetric and fluorescence sensors for  $Hg^{2+}$  developed after 2015. Recognition of  $Hg^{2+}$  ions was achieved successfully by ligand-based systems and rhodamine systems; many of the systems suffered from selectivity issues, but most of them are reversible. This reversible nature can be used for the reuse of the sensor for detection purposes, which is a great advantage. These selectivity issues have been overcome by the development of reaction-based sensor systems where  $Hg^{2+}$ mediated new molecule formation leads to output signals. Unfortunately, most of the small molecule sensors we have discussed here suffer from low solubility in water. Despite the solubility issues, many of these have excellent sensitivity, with LOD values lower than the permissible concentration of  $Hg^{2+}$  set by the EPA/ WHO. However, solubility issues have been taken care of by introducing polymeric materials, where different hydrophilic segments were used to increase the water solubility of the sensors. Despite the water solubility of the polymeric materials, the sensitivity of these sensors is not up to the mark compared to small molecular sensors. Many of the discussed sensors were able to

successfully track  $Hg^{2+}$  ions in biological systems with a distinct emission change, which is a new development in the field of mercury sensors. Apart from  $Hg^{2+}$ , some of the sensors discussed here can detect  $CH<sub>3</sub>Hg<sup>+</sup>$  in both environmental samples and biological systems, which is an impressive development and opens up a new area for the design and development of new sensors. On the other hand, the development of  $\text{As(m)}$  ion sensors is still very rare due to their complicated chemical behavior. We have tried to cover most of the available chemical sensors for  $\text{As(m)}$  in this review. Most of the sensors for  $\text{As(m)}$  are based on H-bonding interactions, which leads to a color change or fluorescence change. Unfortunately, most of the discussed sensors suffer from interference from other trivalent metal ions or anions with the same output signal. This interference is harsh in the case of the distinct identification of  $\text{As(m)}$ , either in cationic form or in anionic form. Apart from the selectivity viewpoint, most of the sensors have a detection limit way below the WHO/EPA guidelines.

For both toxic ions, different new methods have been developed in the last decade with new strategies, new applications, *etc*. We believe that in the case of  $Hg^{2+}$  ion detection, polymeric sensors can evolve as an excellent system due to their many advantages, such as signal amplification (as many repeating units are present), water solubility, and the stability of the probes. The detection limits should be improved for better implementation of ''in-field'' applications of polymeric materials. On the other hand, in the area of  $As(m)$  detection, there is a huge chance for improvement with respect to the design and development of sensors. For a more useful toolkit for  $\text{As(m)}$ detection, highly selective and sensitive sensors are in high demand to date. More and more development of polymeric sensors for  $\text{As(m)}$  detection is needed for device fabrication to provide a permanent solution for societies that are greatly affected by arsenic poisoning.

### List of abbreviations





# Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts to declare.

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