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Rational Development of a New Reaction-Based Ratiometric Fluorescent Probe with a Large Stokes Shift for Selective Detection of Bisulfite in Tap Water, Real Food Samples, Onion Tissues, and Zebrafish

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ABSTRACT: Bisulfite (HSO_3^{-}) is usually widely added to tap water and food because it has antibacterial, bleaching, and antioxidant effects. However, its abnormal addition would cause a series of serious diseases related to it. Therefore, development of an effective method for HSO_3^{-} detection was of great significance to human health. In this work, a new reaction-based ratiometric fluorescent probe $KQ-SO_2$ was rationally designed, which could be used for the highly selective detection of $HSO3^{-}$ in tap water, real food samples, onion tissues, and zebrafish. Specifically, a positively charged benzo[*e*]indolium moiety and a carbazole group through a condensation reaction resulted in $KQ-SO_2$, which displayed two well-resolved emission bands separated by 225 nm, fast response (1 min), and high selectivity and sensitivity toward $HSO3^{-}$ upon undergoing the Michael addition reaction, as well as low cytotoxicity in vitro. In addition, $KQ-SO_2$ has been successfully applied for the detection of HSO_3^{-} in tap water, real food samples, onion tissues, and zebrafish with satisfactory results. We predict that $KQ-SO_2$ could be used as a powerful tool to reveal the relationship between $HSO3^{-}$ and the human health.

KEYWORDS: bisulfite, fluorescent probe, fluorescence imaging, Michael addition reaction, real food samples

INTRODUCTION

Bisulfite (HSO3⁻) as a food additive had a long history of development in food processing due to its antibacterial, bleaching, and antioxidant effects.^{1,2} However, a large amount of intake led to disturbances in the body's circulatory system.³ In the past few decades, studies showed that excessive uses of HSO3⁻ could cause respiratory tract mucosal thickening, nasopharyngitis, neurological disorders, heart and lung diseases, and other diseases.⁴⁻⁷ In order to avoid excessive sulfur residues in foods causing adverse reactions such as edible poisoning, many countries formulated a series of standards to strictly control the intake of sulfur. For instance, food with more than 20 mg/L sulfites should be marked as per the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) guidelines.^{8,9} The maximum usage of sulfur dioxide in wine should not exceed 0.25 mg/kg in China.¹⁰ Motivated by these needs, we urgently need to develop some novel, reliable, rapid, and convenient methods for HSO3⁻ detection in real samples and biological systems.

In recent years, the fluorescence detection imaging technology has shown many advantages, such as real-time detection, simple operation, less damage to the object under test, high sensitivity, and high selectivity, and has attracted more and more attention from scientific researchers.^{11–15} Until now, many fluorescent sensors for detecting SO₂ were developed, which is based on nucleophilic addition reactions with the electron-deficit "C=C", ketone, or aldehyde groups and inhibition of C=N isomerization. However, there are also many challenges for rapid and highly selective detection in real

samples and biological systems. For instance, low selectivity due to the influence of some nucleophiles in food samples; the response linear range of the probe could not satisfy the low concentration of SO3²⁻/HSO3⁻ in food samples; certain foods had high background signals, difficult preparation processes, and autofluorescence interference; the reliability, precision, and reproducibility need to be improved, when these probes were used to detect the concentration of SO3²⁻/HSO3⁻ in food samples. Therefore, in the process of designing responsive small-molecule probes, we should consider and solve these problems, which could improve the practicability of the probes in food samples.¹⁶ This is because in water, real food samples, and biological systems, SO2 mainly existed in the forms of HSO3⁻. Compared with organic solvents, water as a solvent reduced the sensitivity of fluorescent sensors.¹⁷ In order to solve this problem, related studies reported that the cyanine dye had good water solubility, large maximum absorption wavelengths and fluorescence quantum yields, and so forth because the $\alpha_{\mu}\beta$ -unsaturated bonds (Michael addition reaction) were easily added by nucleophiles to form the $-SO_3H$ adducts and could be used to detect HSO3^{-.18,19} In addition, most of the previously reported HSO3⁻ sensors were disturbed

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by the single-channel signal output or interfered by light crosstalk between channels during imaging due to the small Stokes shift. Moreover, they were susceptible to interference from various factors, such as instruments, environments, and the concentration of sensor molecules. Compared with ratiometric sensors, which had a built-in correction of the dual-emission peak, could eliminate most of these interferences, or if not all. Therefore, development of some new ratiometric fluorescent sensors with a large Stokes shift for HSO3⁻ detection will be highly desired to reduce the crosstalk of light between channels and increase the precision of the sensors.

In this work, we designed a cationic ratiometric sensor $(KQ-SO_2)$ for hemicyanine dye derivatives, which was obtained by the condensation reaction of carbazole formaldehyde with positively charged indoline. The sensor KQ-SO₂ had a maximum emission of 600 nm with an orange fluorescence emission. After the addition of HSO3⁻, KQ-SO₂ could provide a α_{β} -unsaturated C=C bond binding site for the Michael addition reaction with HSO3^{-.20-22} Through the Michael addition reaction, the ICT process was blocked and emitted blue fluorescence to achieve ratiometric HSO3⁻ detection. The unique response site and the large Stokes shift (225 nm) met the need for HSO3⁻ detection in vitro with a rapid response time and high selectivity and sensitivity. In addition, the newly designed cationic ratiometric sensor (KQ- SO_2) was not only successfully utilized to detect HSO3⁻ in food but also was applied to a biological model of zebrafish.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals and Instruments. Unless otherwise noted, all chemicals were obtained from commercial suppliers, and no further purification was required for use. 9-Ethylcarbazole, 2,3,3-trimethy-lindolenine, piperidine, and dimethyl sulfoxide- d_6 (DMSO- d_6) were all purchased from Adamas Reagent Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China). All reactions were carried out on magnetic stirrers, and their reaction process was monitored by thin layer chromatography (TLC). TLC was performed using silica gel 60 F₂₅₄, and column chromatography was performed on silica gel (200–300 mesh), both of which were obtained from Qingdao Ocean Chemical Company (Qingdao, China). The fluorescence intensity was measured at 5.0 nm and 5.0 nm excitation and emission slits on the G-9800A fluorescence spectrometer, respectively. Real food samples were purchased from a local supermarket (Changsha, China).

Synthesis and Characterization of the Probe KQ–SO₂. Synthesis of N-Ethyl-3-carbazolecarboxaldehyde. 1 mL of DMF and 0.15 g (1 mmol) of POCl₃ were prepared in a 50 mL roundbottomed flask equipped with a stirring bar; then, 0.8 g of 1 (4 mmol) and 10 mL of CH₃Cl were added into the flask. The reaction mixture was refluxed for 12 h. After that, the reaction was stopped and cooled to room temperature.²³ The solvent was removed by rotary evaporation, and the crude product was removed without further purification to directly use in the following synthesis.

Synthesis of 1,2,3,3-Tetramethyl-3H-indolium lodide (4). In a 25 mL round-bottomed flask equipped with a magnetic stirrer, 0.2 g (1.25 mmol) of 2,3,3-trimethylindolenine was dissolved in 5 mL of toluene, and then, 0.2 g (1.43 mmol) of methyl iodide was added, and the reaction mixture was heated at 100 °C for 20 h under N₂ protection.²⁴ After the reaction, the reaction mixture was cooled to room temperature, and then, the solid was vacuum filtered and dried in a vacuum drying oven, without further purification in the next synthesis.

Synthesis of the Fluorescent Sensor KQ–SO₂. 0.4 g of 2 (1.8 mmol) and 0.3 g of 4 (1 mmol) were added to a 100 mL roundbottomed flask containing 20 mL of absolute ethanol and 0.5 mL of piperidine; the reaction mixture was stirred at 80 °C for 4 h under N₂ pubs.acs.org/JAFC

protection, and then, the mixture was subjected to rotary evaporation and purified by column chromatography (DCM/MeOH/HAc = 100:1:1, v/v/v) to afford KQ–SO₂ as a purple solid with a yield of 80%.¹ H NMR (400 MHz, DMSO-*d*₆): 9.14 (s, 1H), 8.68–8.64 (d, *J* = 16.0 Hz, 1H), 8.41–8.39 (d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 8.28–8.26 (d, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 7.89–7.85 (dd, *J*₁ = 8.0 Hz, *J*₂ = 4.0 Hz, 3H), 7.74–7.61 (t, *J* = 26.0 Hz, 2H), 7.61–7.57 (m, 3H), 7.40–7.36 (t, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 1H), 4.59–4.54 (dd, *J*₁ = 8.0 Hz, *J*₂ = 4.0 Hz, 2H), 4.17 (s, 3H), 1.65 (s, 6H), 1.40–1.36 (t, *J* = 8.0 Hz, 3H); ¹³C NMR (100 MHz, DMSO*d*₆): δ(ppm) 181.57, 155.59, 143.67, 143.41, 142.42, 140.85, 129.44, 129.34, 129.10, 127.48, 126.26, 125.39, 123.28, 122.83, 121.22, 121.04, 115.03, 110.75, 110.70, 109.76, 56.49, 52.15, 34.53, 26.27, 19.04, 14.35; LC–MS: *m*/*z* [C₂₇H₂₇N₂]⁺, calcd 379.22; found, 378.74.

Spectrophotometric Measurements. Fluorescence measurement experiments were measured in 10 mM phosphate buffer solution with DMSO as cosolvent solution ($H_2O/DMSO = 99:1$, v/v). The pH value of PBS solution used was from 4.0 to 10.0, which was achieved by adding minimal volumes of HCl solution or NaOH solution. Fluorescence emission spectra were recorded at an excitation wavelength of 375 nm with an emission wavelength range from 385 to 740 nm. A 1 mM stock solution of probe KQ-SO₂ was prepared by dissolving KQ-SO₂ in DMSO. The procedure of calibration measurements with KQ-SO₂ in the buffer with different SO₂ concentration is as follows: 5 μ L of stock solution of KQ-SO₂ and 1993 μ L of PBS buffer solution with 2 μ L of different NaHSO₃ concentration solutions were combined to afford a test solution, which contained 5.0 μ M of KQ-SO₂ to obtain the test sample. The solutions of various testing species were prepared from F⁻ (NaF), Cl⁻ (NaCl), Br⁻ (KBr), I⁻ (KI), N3⁻ (NaN₃), NO2⁻ (NaNO₂), NO3⁻ (NaNO₃), AcO⁻ (NaAcO), PO4³⁻ (K₃PO₄), HPO4²⁻ (K₂HPO₄), SCN⁻(NaSCN), HS⁻ (NaHS), ClO⁻ (NaClO), Cys, GSH, and Hcy, using twice-distilled water with final concentrations of 100 μ M.

Detection of HSO3⁻ **in Real Food Samples.** Zebrafish (Guangzhou China), Lycium chinensis (the Ningxia Hui Autonomous Region China), deionized water (20 mL), and tap water (20 mL) were from a local area (Changsha china). Prior to the HSO₃⁻ analysis, the fish samples and Lycium chinensis samples were respectively treated with deionized water, sonicated for 3 min, and filtered with an organic membrane to prepare water samples. A 20 μ L solution of each sample was used to determine the HSO₃⁻ content in the solution. The above experiment was repeated three times for each sample, and the fluorescent signal of the sample was recorded at I_{475}/I_{500} .

Cell Cytotoxic Assays and Onion Tissue and Zebrafish Imaging. MTT analysis was used to evaluate the cytotoxicity of HeLa cells. The sensor was added to the incubated cells, and the microplate reader was used for spectrophotometric determination at 575 nm. The percentage of viability of control cells and probe-treated cells represented the toxicity of the probe, and the above experiment was repeated three times for each sample. Next, for imaging HSO3⁻ in onion tissues, the onion tissues were incubated with 5.0 μ M KQ–SO₂ for 30 min at 37 °C and washed three times with PBS, and then, 20.0 μ M HSO3⁻ was added for 30 min. Before imaging, onion tissues were washed with PBS three times. Fluorescence images were acquired with an Olympus FV 1000-MPE.

BiospaceLab PhotonIMAGER Imaging for Zebrafish. 5.0 μ M KQ–SO₂ and 20.0 μ M HSO3⁻ were injected into the abdominal position by hypodermic injection in the same area; zebrafish were incubated with KQ–SO₂ at 37 °C for real-time imaging. The fluorescence emission was collected at the blue channel (460–490 nm) and red channel (580–650 nm) when excited at 450 nm.

Statistical Analysis. All data are expressed as means \pm s.e.m. The data are accumulated under each condition from at least three independent experiments. The statistical analyses are performed using the Student's *t*-test.

Other Methods. Additional experimental information and results (chemistry and biology) are provided in the Supporting Information

Scheme 1. Synthetic Route for the Reaction-Based Fluorescent Probe KQ-SO₂; (a) DMF, POCl₃, CHCl₂, Reflux, 12 h; (b) Toluene, under N₂, 100 °C, 20 h; (c) Absolute Ethanol, Piperidine, N₂, 80 °C, 4 h



Figure 1. (A) UV/vis absorption spectra of 5.0 μ M KQ–SO₂, 5.0 μ M 2, and 5.0 μ M KQ–SO₂ response to 20 μ M HSO3⁻ in 10 mM PBS buffer (pH 7.4); (C, D) naked-eye confirmation of color change of KQ–SO₂ under visible light; the photographs of KQ–SO₂ in the absence (left) or presence (right) of 40 μ M HSO3⁻; (B) fluorescence spectra of 5.0 μ M KQ–SO₂ in the presence of concentrations of HSO3⁻ (0–40.0 μ M) in 10 mM PBS buffer (pH 7.4), excited at 375 nm; (E, F) photographs of KQ–SO₂ solution in the absence (left) or presence (right) of 40 μ M HSO3⁻ under 365 nm UV radiation; (G) calibration curve of fluorescence ratio (I_{475}/I_{600}) vs HSO3⁻ concentration (0–40.0 μ M) ; (H) plot of fluorescence ratio (I_{475}/I_{600}) vs the concentration of HSO3⁻ (0–1.0 μ M).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Design and Synthesis of the Probe KQ–SO₂. In order to obtain a better detection and imaging resolution, a ratiometric sensor KQ–SO₂ was synthesized in this work in three steps, as shown in Scheme 1. This sensor was composed of *N*-ethyl-3-carbazolecarboxaldehyde and 1,2,3,3-tetramethyl-3*H*-indolium iodide conjugated together in a yield of 80%. We introduced the indoline group to endow the sensor with good hydrophilicity due to its well-known hydrophilic group. This design not only solved the problem of hydrophilicity but also provided specific reaction sites of HSO3⁻ for the Michael addition reaction and realized the ratiometric detection of HSO3⁻ in real-food samples and biological models. The structure of KQ–SO₂ was fully characterized by ¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR, and ESI–MSS analyses (see the Supporting Information).

Spectral Response to Bisulfite. We discuss the in vitro sensing performance of sensor KQ-SO₂ for HSO3⁻ in the 10 mM PBS buffer solution (1% DMSO, pH 7.4). Figure 1A shows the UV/vis absorption of 5.0 μ M KQ–SO₂ or 2 and 5.0 μ M KQ–SO₂ incubated with 40 μ M HSO3⁻. The sensor has a broad absorption band (320-580 nm); among them, KQ-SO₂ had a remarkable absorption at 500 nm; upon addition of HSO3⁻, it would decrease rapidly and match well with the carbazole derivatives between 320 to 350 nm. We further tested the sensor's fluorescence response to HSO3⁻; the results are shown in Figure 1B. In the absence of HSO3⁻, the sensor exhibited only an emission band at 600 nm, while in the presence of HSO3 $^-$ (0–40 $\mu M), the reaction was blue-shifted$ due to the Michael addition reaction of HSO3⁻ with KQ-SO₂. Moreover, KQ-SO₂ had a large Stokes shift 225 nm and a considerable distance of 225 nm between the two emission peaks of 475 and 600 nm. Figure 1B indicated that the disappearance of a long-wavelength band at 600 nm and the

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Table 1. Comparison of Detection Methods for HSO3⁻ Derivatives

Methods	LOD	Examination range	Detection time	Real food	Structure	Reference
UV–vis	$4\mu g$ /L	-	_			1
HPLC	21µg /L	10-250mg/L	-	\checkmark		2
spectrophotometric	5.6 mg/L	10-250mg/L	70s	\checkmark		3
Capillary electrophoretic	0.1mM	0.01-0.5mM	-			4
HPLC	1.5 mg/L	-	8min	\checkmark		5
spectrophotometric	10 ng/mL	0.03-25 µ g/mL	-	V		6
capillary electrophoretic	2 µ M	10-800 µ M	-	\checkmark		7
enzyme electrode	10ppm	-	3-5min			8
electrochemical sensor	100 ppb	0.1 – 2 ppm	2.5min			9
CdSe nanoparticles	36 µg/L	-	>30 min			10
Flow-injection fluorimetric	85 nM		30s		Effer of the suc	11
Two-Photon Fluorescent Probe	0.09 µ M		Within sec		CN-H BPyr eci	12
Ratiometric Fluorescent Probe	$5.6 imes 10^{-9} \mathrm{M}$		<90s	Å	84.0.	13
Reversible Fluorescent Probe	$7.3\times 10^{-7}M$		<58		dage	14
two-photon-based fluorescent probe	0.39 μΜ		<5s		y	15
Ratiometric fluorescent probe	2.67nM	-	<90s			16
Molecular Rotor-Based fluorescent probe	7.9 × 10 ⁻⁵ M	-				17
ICT-based fluorescent probe	13.1 nM		30min		are the second s	18
water-soluble fluorescent probe	8.3nM		<15s		jang	19
Ratiometric fluorescent probe	0.29 μΜ		<2min	V		20
Reaction-Based Ratiometric fluorescent probe	10.28 nM		<1min	A	CHN -N+ -N+	This work



Figure 2. Proposed sensing mechanism of KQ–SO₂ response to HSO3⁻. (A) KQ–SO₂ undergoes a Michael addition reaction with HSO3⁻; (B) ¹H NMR characterization of KQ–SO₂ before (DMSO- d_6) and after (DMSO- d_6 + D₂O + 20 μ M HSO3⁻) response to HSO3⁻.



Figure 3. (A) Photograph of KQ–SO₂ (5.0 μ M) upon addition of various species in 10 mM PBS buffer (pH 7.4, 1% DMSO) under 365 nm UV radiation. (1, blank; 2, F⁻; 3, Cl⁻; 4, Br⁻; 5, I⁻; 6, N3⁻; 7, NO2⁻; 8, NO3⁻; 9, AcO⁻; 10, PO4³⁻; 11, HPO4²⁻; 12, SCN⁻; 13, HS⁻; 14, ClO⁻; 15, Cys; 16, GSH; 17, Hcy; 18, HSO3⁻). The acquisition of photograph 5 min after mixing; (B) Fluorescence ratio ($F_{475nm}/F_{600 nm}$) of KQ–SO₂ with various species and pH (4.0–10.0) when excited at 375 nm.



Figure 4. Photograph of the neutral filter papers subjected to various species (1, blank; 2, F^- ; 3, CI^- ; 4, Br^- ; 5, I^- ; 6, $N3^-$; 7, $NO2^-$; 8, $NO3^-$; 9, AcO^-; 10, PO4³⁻; 11, HPO4²⁻; 12, SCN⁻; 13, HS⁻; 14, ClO⁻; 15, Cys; 16, GSH; 17, Hcy; 18, HSO3⁻) under visible light and 365 nm UV radiation.

appearance of a short-wavelength band at 475 nm due to the ICT process were destroyed by the HSO3⁻ addition reaction with sensor KQ-SO₂ of the α_{β} -unsaturated bond to induce π conjugation system blocking, thereby achieving HSO3⁻ ratiometric detecting. Moreover, as expected, when excited at 375 nm, as the HSO3⁻ concentration changed from 0 to 40.0 μ M, fluorescence emission of KQ-SO₂ at 475 nm increased significantly and at 600 nm, decreased rapidly and was accompanied by the color changes from red to blue (Figure 1E,F). Therefore, the probe KQ-SO₂ displayed a good colorimetric and ratiometric fluorescence response to HSO3⁻. The ratiometric response (I_{475}/I_{600}) of KQ-SO₂ was linear with the change of $HSO3^-$ concentration (0-1.0 μ M). The detection limit of the KQ–SO₂ response to HSO3⁻ was calculated as low as 10.28 nM (Figure 1G,H). Thus, this implies that the sensor may quantitatively detect HSO3within a certain minimal concentration range. More impressively, the response of the sensor KQ-SO₂ to HSO3⁻ exhibited more excellent analytical performance compared to other reported detection methods for HSO3⁻ derivatives; the results are shown in Table 1.

In order to study the mechanism of KQ-SO₂ response to HSO3⁻, we performed mass spectrometry analysis and ¹H NMR. It was clearly observed that the signal of m/z (378.76) corresponds to KQ-SO₂ (Figure S1). In addition, a mass peak

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Table 2. Determination of the Concentration of Bisulfite inReal Food Samples

sample	HSO3 ⁻ level (µmol/L)	added (µmol/L)	found (µmol/L)	recovery (%)
fish	0.0231	0.1000	0.1240	100.7
		0.3000	0.3239	100.2
Lycium chinensis	0.0324	0.1000	0.1322	99.85
		0.3000	0.3316	99.76
deionized water	0.0000	0.1000	0.1010	101.0
		0.3000	0.3003	100.3
tap water	0.0177	0.1000	0.1163	98.81
		0.3000	0.3170	99.78

at m/z (482.18) corresponds to KQ-SO₂ + HSO3⁻ (Figure S1). Moreover, the ¹H NMR results also clearly show the displacement of H atoms before and after reacting KQ-SO₂ with HSO3⁻ with remarkable changes, as shown in Figure 2. Thus, the mechanism of the probe for sensing HSO3⁻ was most likely based on the Michael addition reaction of double C=C bonds.

Selectivity and pH Effects. The effect of selectivity and pH on the fluorescence intensity ratio ($I_{\rm 475}/I_{\rm 600})$ of KQ–SO $_2$ was then carried out. First, as shown in Figure 3A,B, we investigated the reaction of KQ–SO $_2$ (5.0 μ M) with various potential interfering species (100 μ M); the results showed that the exception of HSO3⁻, blank, F⁻, Cl⁻, Br⁻, I⁻, N3⁻, NO2⁻, NO3⁻, AcO⁻, PO₄³⁻, HPO₄²⁻, SCN⁻, HS⁻, ClO⁻, Cys, GSH, and Hcy could not show remarkable fluorescence changes at 600 and 475 nm upon excitation at 375 nm. This was to say; the sensor had an excellent selectivity for HSO3⁻ over other species. In addition, we measured the fluorescence efficiency of $HSO3^{-}$ for the sensor under different pH (4.0-10.0) conditions. As demonstrated in Figure 3B, the sensor showed that the fluorescence intensity ratio (I_{475}/I_{600}) was more effective under neutral and alkaline conditions than under acidic conditions, indicating that the reaction between HSO3⁻



Figure 5. (A) Photograph of real food samples: (a, b) normal food samples and (c, d) polluted food samples; (B) photograph of deionized water (e) and tap water (f).



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Figure 6. Fluorescence images of onion tissues incubated for 30 min without $HSO3^-(A-C)$ and with $HSO3^-(D-F)$; (A, D) red channel (580–650 nm) when excited at 453 nm; (B, E) blue channel (460–490 nm) when excited at 453 nm; (C) merged image of A–B; and (F) merged image of D–E. Scale bar: 20 μ m.



Figure 7. Fluorescence images of KQ–SO₂ with exogenous HSO3⁻: the average fluorescence intensity ratios of the red channel and the blue channel (from 0 to 12 min). Red channel (580–650 nm) when excited at 580 nm. Blue channel (460–490 nm) when excited at 450 nm. Scale bar: 20 μ m.

and KQ-SO₂ was mostly a combination reaction under these conditions. This phenomenon may be related to the combination of H⁺ and HSO3⁻, which weakens the reaction between HSO3⁻ and KQ-SO₂. However, it is worth mentioning that the sensor still displayed a satisfactory fluorescence intensity ratio (I_{475}/I_{600}). Therefore, in this work, pH 7.4 was employed in all tests to detect HSO3⁻.

Furthermore, in order to detect HSO3⁻ quickly and conveniently, the paper test strip system was developed (Figure 4). Neutral filter papers when dipped in the solution of the sensor appeared orange under natural light (Figure 4A). Then, the addition of various potential interfering substances (100 μ M) only HSO3⁻ caused an obvious color change (Figure 4C). For fluorescence response, only HSO3⁻ caused a large change from orange to blue in the fluorescence spectra of KQ–SO₂ (Figure 4B,D). The sensing behavior could be easily observed by naked eyes from the color change.

The Sensor KQ–SO₂ Detects HSO3⁻ in Real Food Samples. Based on these above results, the sensor had a good response to HSO3⁻ in vitro. In order to further verify the ability of the sensor for detecting HSO3⁻ in food samples, the sensor was used to determine the concentration of HSO3⁻ in real samples. As could be seen from Figure 5A,B, in these real food samples and polluted food samples, HSO3⁻ was extracted with deionized water. After the probe KQ–SO₂ solution was added to the water samples, the fluorescent signal at I_{475}/I_{600} was recorded. The fluorescence spectra indicated that the ratio of the sensor KQ–SO₂ at I_{475}/I_{600} was significantly enhanced for polluted food samples, which was not affected by the matrix effect (Table 2). In addition, our work further confirmed the ability of KQ–SO₂ to detect HSO3⁻ levels in the food sample and water samples (Table 2). Thus, KQ–SO₂ could quantitatively detect HSO3⁻ in real samples.

Fluorescence Imaging of HSO3⁻ in Onion Tissues. The potential application of KQ-SO₂ for fluorescence detection of HSO3⁻ in onion tissues was explored. Before exploring the application of KQ-SO₂ for imaging HSO3⁻ biological systems, the cytotoxicity of KQ-SO₂ was evaluated. The results showed that more than 85% of cells still remained alive (Figure S2), suggesting that it could be applied to biological systems. In addition, incubation of onion tissues only with KQ-SO₂ (5.0 μ M) for 30 min at 37 °C was performed and then fluorescence images were taken. It was obvious that the fluorescence did not appear in the blue channel (460–490 nm) but in the red channel (580–650 nm) by the one-photon confocal laser microscope (OPM) (Figure 6A,B). After, being further incubated upon addition of HSO3⁻ $(20 \ \mu M)$ for 30 min, fluorescent signals decreased significantly in the red channel and increased in the blue channel (Figure 6D,E). These data suggested that the probe $KQ-SO_2$ was tissue penetrable and suitable for detecting the changes of HSO3⁻ in onion tissues.

Fluorescence Imaging of HSO3⁻ in the Zebrafish Model. Inspired by the excellent property of the sensor in onion tissue detection, finally, the newly designed sensor KQ– SO_2 was further utilized to detect HSO3⁻ in a zebrafish model. The detection of the zebrafish model was determined by a BiospaceLab PhotonIMAGER, as shown in Figure 7. Then, the

zebrafish was injected with KQ–SO₂ and HSO3⁻ in the belly for real-time imaging; bright fluorescence in the blue channel and weak fluorescence in the red channel were observed within 0–12 min. These time-dependent red fluorescence reduction and blue fluorescence enhancement were attributed to the consumption of HSO3⁻ for the Michael addition reaction, inducing sensor's π -conjugation to be blocked. Therefore, these results further confirmed that KQ–SO₂ not only had the ability to detect in an animal model but also was capable of dynamic detection of HSO3⁻ in zebrafish in real time.

In summary, we have demonstrated that an ICT fluorescent probe, KQ–SO₂, could be constructed from carbazole and positively charged indoline for the ratiometric detection of HSO3⁻. Importantly, the sensor displayed high selectivity, fast response, and great sensitivity, which benefited from the advantageous photophysical properties that resulted from the reaction between HSO3⁻ and KQ–SO₂. Specifically, nonoverlapping bright emission bands are observed due to a large distance (225 nm) between the dual-emission peaks for the fluorescence imaging. Moreover, KQ–SO₂ could rapidly detect HSO3⁻ in real food samples, onion tissues, and zebrafish. The novel reaction-based fluorescent sensor is promising to be used as an efficient tool in physiology and pathology.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jafc.1c00592.

Comparison of various methods, parameters, probes, and their structures reported in literature with our probe in real food detection; MS spectra of the reaction of probe with sodium bisulfite in PBS; viability of HeLa cells at various concentrations; time-dependent fluorescence intensity ratios of the probe upon the addition of sodium bisulfite; and NMR spectra (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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