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Exploring the reactivity of formylporphyrins with 3-(diethylamino)phenol. Synthesis, spectroscopic properties and singlet oxygen generation of a new porphyrin–rosamine conjugate

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ABSTRACT

The design of novel molecular structures with tunable photophysical properties is an important research field for many applications including optoelectronics, sensing and bioimaging. Porphyrin and rhodamine/rosamine derivatives are among the most studied and relevant chemosensors and imaging probes due to their attractive photophysical properties, such as high absorption coefficients and long emission wavelengths. In this work, we present the synthesis and the structural characterization of a new porphyrin–rosamine conjugate H₂P3 and its related triarylmethane precursors H₂P1 and H₂P2. The photophysical properties of H₂P1, H₂P2 and H₂P3, and their ability to chelate iron(III) and copper(II) ions, were evaluated by absorption and emission spectroscopy. The formation of copper(II) complexes was confirmed by electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR), which also allowed the detection of an intense and stable radical signal for the free-base H₂P3. Further studies involving the addition of the 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine spin trap to derivatives H₂P1, H₂P2 and H₂P3, showed that only H₂P3 gives rise to an EPR detectable signal due to a strong generation of singlet oxygen.

1. Introduction

Fluorescent organic dyes are key tools in modern chemical, biochemical and biomedical research. With the development of these challenging scientific fields, new and sophisticated fluorescent dyes with unique and useful attributes are demanded [1-3].

Rhodamines and their rosamine analogues are important classes of organic dyes that possess very attractive photophysical properties including high photostability, long excitation and emission wavelengths and high fluorescence quantum yield. The success of these derivatives as analyte-responsive fluorogenic probes for sensing and imaging is responsible for the interest of the scientific community in exploring structural modifications of the xanthene ring, aiming to obtain new systems with improved fluorescence properties, selectivity, sensitivity, and good reversibility, as well as rapid dynamic responses [4–8]. One of the most relevant modification approaches involves the derivatization of

the phenyl ring at position 9 of the xanthene moiety, thereby potentiating the photoinduced electron transfer (PET) mechanism. The PET process occurs from a donor unit (D) to an acceptor unit (A) leading to the formation of a charge-separated state consisting of the donor radical cation and the acceptor radical anion. In rosamine derivatives containing an amino group at the 4-position of the 9-phenyl ring, PET involves an electron transfer from the amino group to the xanthylium moiety, leading to the quenching of the fluorescence of these derivatives [9–11]. Other studies revealed that excited state lifetimes and fluorescence quantum yields are very different in rosamines with phenyl and thienyl substituents, due to a combination of torsional and inductive effects [12].

Porphyrins also present appealing features as fluorescent dyes. These tetrapyrrolic macrocycles, with great structural diversity, present large molar extinction coefficients in the visible region and high fluorescence quantum yields, as well as rich coordination chemistry. Among the

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numerous applications, the porphyrin macrocycle can be used as a functional platform to develop sensors for metal ions and anions, *via* coordination and hydrogen bond interactions, respectively [13], and also as valuable probes for photodiagnosis/fluorescence imaging [14]. In addition, porphyrins have been used as photosensitizers for photodynamic therapy (PDT), mainly due to their ability to generate singlet oxygen *via* photoinduced intersystem crossing [15].

The conjugation of porphyrins with other chemical entities, including rhodamine dyes, has been explored as a strategy to obtain new molecular structures with different electron and energy transfer mechanisms [16]. Indeed, Zhang's group [17] prepared a rhodamine-linked porphyrin dyad, whose fluorescence was effectively quenched and the fluorescence lifetime was significantly reduced by an intramolecular electron transfer process. More recently, Vinogradov and co-workers [18] reported an elegant Pt(II) porphyrin-rhodamine B dyad linked by an oligo-*p*-phenylene bridge, that allows the generation of a phosphorescent triplet state via a pathway involving a photoinduced electron transfer process. Also, Neves and co-workers have developed a series of amide-linked porphyrin-rhodamine dyads with peculiar electro-optical properties that include: (i) utmost intense red-shifted electronic transitions beyond the near-infrared region [19], and (ii) sensing ability towards divalent metal ions such as Cu^{2+} , Zn^{2+} , Cd^{2+} , Pb^{2+} and Hg^{2+} [20].

In addition, porphyrin–rhodamine conjugates have also attracted much attention as potent photosensitizers (PS) for PDT, as cationic rhodamines can specifically accumulate in mitochondria, being able to operate as a mitochondrial targeting vector, and since they are able to potentiate the photophysical properties and the singlet oxygen ($^{1}O_{2}$) generation [21–25]. In these dyads, the two-photon energy absorbed by the rhodamine moiety is effectively transferred to the porphyrin moiety *via* intramolecular resonance energy transfer [24]. The excited PS then undergoes intersystem crossing to the triplet state, where it can transfer its energy to molecular oxygen, producing reactive oxygen species, such as the highly cytotoxic $^{1}O_{2}$, capable of destroying malignant tissues.

Curiously, despite the numerous studies related to porphyrin–rhodamine conjugates, to our knowledge, there are no examples of porphyrin–rosamine structures in the literature. The advantages of using rosamine over rhodamine can be: (i) the rosamine lacks the carboxylate group at the 2-position of the phenyl ring at the 9-position of the xanthene, and therefore it does not participate in spirolactone-quinoid equilibria, which means they are *always-on* and permanently cationic probes and (ii) are easier to synthesize and purify.

Considering our experience with porphyrin and xanthene derivatives, we decided to explore the unprecedented synthesis of new porphyrin–rosamine dyads and explore their optical properties. To do so, we performed the reaction of 3-(diethylamino)phenol with 2-formyl-5,10,15,20-tetraphenylporphyrin. Although H_2P1 could be obtained in good yield, the corresponding cyclized derivative was not obtained, probably due to steric hindrance effects considering the close proximity of the bulky diarylmethane substituent to the porphyrinic core (Fig. 1). To circumvent this result, condensation of 3-(diethylamino)phenol with 2-(4-formylphenyl)-5,10,15,20-tetraphenylporphyrin was conducted. The resulting H_2P2 was subsequently subjected to oxidative cyclization using *p*-chloranil to give the desired H_2P3 conjugate (Fig. 1), which directly links a rosamine moiety to position 2 of the 5,10,15,20tetraphenylporphyrin.

Compounds H₂P1, H₂P2 and H₂P3 (Fig. 1) were characterized by NMR and mass spectrometry, and their optical properties (UV–Vis and fluorescence) were studied in several solvents. The interactions of these compounds towards Fe(III) and Cu(II) metal ions were also studied due to their importance in biological and environmental systems. EPR studies were performed to characterize the isolated complexes and also to better understand the interaction of the ligands with the paramagnetic Cu²⁺ ion. Furthermore, during the EPR analysis, the unexpected appearance of a radical signal for the H₂P3 conjugate was observed. Further studies involving the addition of the 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine (TEMP) spin trap to derivatives H₂P1, H₂P2 and H₂P3, showed that only H₂P3 leads to the formation of the nitroxyl radical TEMPO, which indicates a strong generation of singlet oxygen by this conjugate.

2. Results and discussion

2.1. Synthesis

The synthetic approach to obtain H_2P1-H_2P3 is outlined in Scheme 1. The starting free-base 2-formyl-5,10,15,20-tetraphenylporphyrin (**TPPCHO**) and its Cu(II) complex **CuTPPCHO** [26] and 2-(4-formylphenyl)-5,10,15,20-tetraphenylporphyrin (**TPP-C₆H₄CHO**) [27] were previous synthesised following reported procedures.

The synthesis of **H**₂**P1** and **H**₂**P2** involved the condensation of the appropriate formyl-porphyrin derivative with 5 equivalents of 3-(diethylamino)phenol in the presence of a catalytic amount of 4-methyl-benzenesulfonic acid (10 mol%) in a mixture of toluene/propanoic acid (2:1) at reflux. The reaction with **CuTPPCHO** afforded, after 4 h, a main product that, based on its mass spectrum (m/z = 1016.5), was identified as the expected **CuP1** (Scheme 1A). This compound was isolated in 85% yield. All attempts to convert **CuP1** into the corresponding **CuPorph**-



Fig. 1. Porphyrin derivatives H₂P1, H₂P2 and H₂P3.



Scheme 1. Synthetic approaches to prepare H_2P1 , H_2P2 and H_2P3 .

Ros under oxidative conditions (e.g., *p*-chloranil in refluxing toluene) were unsuccessful and the starting material was recovered.

This fact prompted us to try the oxidative step using the corresponding free-base TPPCHO considering that the presence of the metal in the porphyrin inner core was, in some way, limiting the external group to acquire the adequate conformation for the required oxidative cyclization step. Since the demetallation reaction of the CuP1 derivative under conventional acidic conditions (10% H₂SO₄ in CHCl₃) [28] provided the required H₂P1 in unacceptable yield (17%) for further studies, we decided to perform the condensation reaction of 3-(diethylamino) phenol with the free-base TPPCHO (Scheme 1A). After 4 h at 120 °C, the free-base H₂P1 was isolated with an excellent 91% yield. This compound was then treated with p-chloranil in refluxing toluene but the desired oxidative cyclization did not occur and, again, only the starting porphyrin derivative H₂P1 could be isolated. Other conditions, including the use of 2,3-dichloro-5,6-dicyano-1,4-benzoquinone (DDQ) as oxidant in refluxing toluene or by heating H₂P1 in 1,2,4-trichlorobenzene at reflux, conducted to complex mixtures of compounds enabling further purification.

Considering that the difficulties experienced in the synthesis of a porphyrin derivative with a xanthene moiety directly linked to the porphyrin macrocycle are probably due to steric hindrance effects, we decided to try the previous conditions but using the 2-(4-formylphenyl)-5,10,15,20-tetraphenylporphyrin (Scheme 1B). It was expected that a 1,4-phenylene group between the porphyrin macrocycle and the xanthene ring could allow the formation of H_2P3 .

In order to avoid potential drawbacks during the removal of Cu(II), these studies were performed using the free-base **TPP-C₆H₄CHO**. The condensation with 3-(diethylamino)phenol afforded, after 4 h at 120 °C, the desired derivative **H₂P2** as the solo product and in excellent yield (88%). Porphyrin **H₂P2** was then successfully oxidized to the desired porphyrin–rosamine conjugate **H₂P3** with *p*-chloranil in refluxing toluene for 1 h. The excellent yield obtained for **H₂P3** (92%) confirmed that the unsuccessful formation of the porphyrin–rosamine dyad from

 H_2P1 is probably related to steric strain; the close proximity of the bulky porphyrin macrocycle prevented the successful oxidative cyclization or conducted to non-desired reactions.

The structures of H₂P1, H₂P2 and H₂P3 were confirmed by NMR spectroscopy (¹H and $^{\overline{13}}$ C) and mass spectrometry (see Figs. S2–S15, Supporting information). The ¹H NMR spectra of H₂P1 and H₂P2 exhibit a singlet at around δ 5.5 ppm due to the resonance of the benzylic proton. In the ¹H NMR spectrum of H_2P1 a broad singlet at δ 4.77 ppm, due to the resonances of the protons from the hydroxy groups, and a quartet at around δ 3.3 ppm and a triplet at *ca*. δ 1.2 ppm, due to the resonances of the protons from the diethylamino moieties, are observed. The signals due to the resonances of the beta-pyrrolic protons are the most deshielded ones and appear between δ 8.97 ppm and δ 8.46 ppm. The protons from the *meso*-phenyl groups appear as multiplets between ca. δ 8.4 ppm and δ 7.3 ppm. For the H₂P1 derivative, the resonances of the aromatic protons from the (diethylamino)phenol units generate two doublets at δ 6.32 ppm and δ 5.88 ppm, with a coupling constant of *J* 8.4 Hz, and a singlet at δ 6.20 ppm. For the H₂P2 derivative, and comparing with the spectrum of H_2P1 , the protons from the equivalent units are more deshielded, appearing in the range from δ 7.40 ppm to δ 6.78 ppm. The ¹H NMR spectrum of the H_2P2 displays an additional multiplet ranging from δ 6.5 ppm to δ 6.1 ppm due to the resonances of the protons from the 1,4-phenylene group. For compound H₂P2 the signals attributed to the resonances of the diethylamino moieties appear as multiplets at δ 3.55–3.25 ppm and δ 1.28–1.06 ppm assigned to the formation of atropoisomers due to the hindered rotation related with the steric repulsion between the substituents at the diethylamino moieties.

Comparing the spectra of the porphyrin–rosamine conjugate H₂P3 and the corresponding precursor H₂P2, the most remarkable difference is the absence of the benzylic proton. The ¹H NMR spectra of all free base derivatives display the characteristic peak at *ca.* δ - 2.6 ppm due to the resonances of the *N*–H protons at the porphyrin inner core.

The mass spectra of the non-cyclized derivatives display a peak corresponding to the $[M + H]^+$ ion, while the mass spectrum of the

porphyrin–rosamine conjugate exhibits the peak corresponding to the $[\mathbf{M}]^+$ ion.

2.2. Optical properties of the porphyrin derivatives H₂P1- H₂P3

The spectrophotometric measurements for compounds H_2P1-H_2P3 were undertaken in anhydrous dichloromethane, anhydrous methanol, water and 3-(*N*-morpholino)propanesulfonic acid (MOPS), pH = 7.40, 0.1 M NaCl at 25 °C. For comparison purposes, the same was performed for **RosH** and 5,10,15,20-tetraphenylporphyrin (**TPP**) (Fig. S1). The photophysical data obtained in dichloromethane were more interesting, namely in terms of fluorescence quantum yield, and are reported in Table 1. The results for the other solvents are included in the Supporting information (Table S1).

Fig. 2 shows the absorption and emission spectra of H_2P1 , H_2P2 and H_2P3 in dichloromethane. H_2P1 and H_2P2 absorption spectra show the characteristic bands of free base *meso*-tetraarylporphyrin derivatives with the intense Soret band at 419 and 421 nm, respectively, associated to the allowed transition from $S_0 \rightarrow S_2$; the four Q-bands of weak intensity and associated to $S_0 \rightarrow S_1$ transitions, appear between 518 and 646/649 nm. H_2P3 also shows the Soret band at 421 nm, however, the region between 519 and 557 nm presents some differences associated with the presence of the xanthene ring, as can be deduced by comparison with the **RosH** absorption bands. The band at 557 nm overlaps with the 2nd and 3rd Q-bands, nevertheless, the first and 4th bands are visible in the same region of H_2P2 (518 and 649 nm). Compared with **TPP**, the Soret bands of compounds H_2P1 , H_2P2 and H_2P3 show a slight red shift of 2–4 nm, which can be caused by the steric hindrance and electron effects of the β -substituents in the porphyrin ring [30].

The emission spectra of H₂P1 and H₂P2 show two bands characteristic of porphyrin derivatives, one at 652/657 nm and the other, of lower intensity, at 716/720 nm, which are similar to the TPP emission bands. In contrast, the porphyrin-rosamine conjugate H₂P3 exhibits poor emission efficiency in solution, as evidenced by its low fluorescence quantum yield and the absence of measurable emission bands. Several values of fluorescence quantum yield are presented in the literature for **TPP** [29], but the value 0.11 is the most frequently used as reference. Taking this value into consideration, it is clear that the presence of the xanthene ring in H₂P3 affects severely its quantum yield. Similar fluorescence quenching behaviours have also been reported for rhodamine-porphyrin dyads and attributed to electron and energy transfer processes between the porphyrin and rhodamine units [17]. Fluorescence lifetime decays obtained for H₂P3 also confirm the presence of the rosamine and porphyrin units in this conjugate (See SI Table S2 and Fig. S20 for more details).

Table 1

Optica	l properties	of H ₂ P1–H ₂ P3,	and a	lso of TPF	and	RosH,	in CH ₂ Cl _{2.}	
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Compound	$\lambda_{\rm abs}/\rm nm$	ϵ ($ imes$ 10 ³)/ mol ⁻¹ dm ³ cm ⁻¹	λ _{em} / nm	Stokes Shift/ cm ⁻¹	$\Phi_{ m F}$
H ₂ P1	419, 443,	379, 17.2, 21.1,	652	142	0.03
	518, 550,	6.35, 6.58, 1.45	716		
	593, 646				
H ₂ P2	421, 518,	349, 17.1, 4.95,	657	188	0.06
	554, 594,	6.92, 4.74, 2.75	720		
	649				
H ₂ P3	421, 519,	279, 40.1, 98.8,	658	211	0.02
	557, 649	5.05	718		
TPP	417	449, 18.7, 7.85,	651	95	0.04-0.15
	(shoulder	3.92, 6.65	715		[29]
	401), 514,				
	549, 599,				
	647				
RosH	557	751	574	532	0.56 [9]
	(shoulder				
	520)				

2.3. Spectrophotometric and spectrofluorimetric titrations and metalinteraction effects

The complexation of transition metal ions at the porphyrins core has been used as a recurrent strategy to adjust the electronic and photophysical properties of these compounds. In this work, we decided to focus on the complexation of the newly synthesised porphyrins with the bivalent transition metal ion Cu^{2+} (d⁹ configuration) and the trivalent Fe³⁺ (d⁵ configuration). These metal ions were selected primarily because they play important roles in biological and environmental systems, and also because they represent two important classes of metal ions with different oxidation states, which can lead to the formation of different complexes through coordination with porphyrins, either in their periphery or in the inner core.

The interaction of **H₂P1**, **H₂P2** and **H₂P3** with Fe³⁺ and Cu²⁺ – up to 10 equiv. – was investigated by the titration of each porphyrin derivative, dissolved in anhydrous dichloromethane, with the adequate metal salt dissolved in anhydrous methanol. The titrations were monitored by UV–Vis and fluorescence emission spectroscopy, at 298 K. Considering that some counterions, such as chloride, might affect the metal ion interaction with porphyrins [31], trifluoromethanesulfonate salts were chosen to perform these studies.

2.3.1. Titration with Fe³⁺

The titration of porphyrins with Fe^{3+} led to significant changes in the absorption and emission profiles. The absorption spectra of H_2P1 and H_2P3 with increasing amounts of Fe^{3+} are presented in Fig. 3. The spectrum for H_2P2 , being very similar to H_2P1 , is presented in the SI (Fig. S17). From the analysis of the spectra, it is evident that Fe^{3+} interacts similarly with the three porphyrin derivatives: i) a red shift of the Soret band occurs from 419 to 444 nm (H_2P1), 421–445 nm (H_2P2), and from 421 to 441 nm (H_2P3); ii) the number of Q bands decreases, from four to one, due to the increase in symmetry of the metallated porphyrin, being perceptible a band at 661 nm for H_2P1 and at 666 nm for H_2P2 and H_2P3 . This red shift of the Soret band, accompanied by the formation of a new absorption band at a longer wavelength, can be justified considering the formation of sitting-atop (SAT) complexes, where the coordination of the metal ion to the porphyrin nitrogen atoms occurred without their deprotonation [32–37].

For H_2P3 , the absence of changes in the band at 557 nm, associated to the xanthene moiety, is a clear statement of the lack of interaction of the xanthene ring with the metal ion. The presence of well-defined isosbestic points around 430, 431 and 434 nm for H_2P1 , H_2P2 and H_2P3 , respectively, allows better visualization of the decrease of the Soret band of the metal-free forms and the appearance of a prominent band at *ca.* 445 nm.

In terms of fluorescence emission, the spectra reveal for H₂P1: i) fluorescence intensity quenching of the two emission bands at 651 and 716 nm, when $\lambda_{exc} = 419$ nm, up to 7 equiv. of Fe³⁺ and the merge of the two bands in one, around 694 nm, for higher Fe³⁺ equiv. and ii) fluorescence intensity enhancement (200 times) of a new emission band at 701 nm when $\lambda_{exc} = 661$ nm (Fig. 4, for H₂P1). Similar behaviour is observed for H₂P2, the corresponding spectra are presented in the SI (Fig. S18). For H₂P3, no measurable fluorescence emission was obtained before and after the addition of Fe³⁺. At this point, through the interaction of the porphyrin core with Fe³⁺, we expected to perturb the electron and energy transfer processes between the porphyrin and the rosamine units. However, as evidenced by the weak fluorescence observed, this was not the case. Considering this, and looking at the structural features of H₂P3, we suggest that there is a strong twist between the porphyrin and the rosamine units, consistent with a twisted intramolecular charge transfer (TICT) mechanism [38,39], which may be responsible for the permanence of the fluorescence quenching state of H₂P3.



Fig. 2. Absorption (A) and emission (B) spectra of H₂P1 (black), H₂P2 (red) and H₂P3 (blue) in anhydrous dichloromethane (H₂P1 λ_{exc} = 419 nm, H₂P2 and H₂P3 λ_{exc} = 421 nm); [H₂P1] = 2.93 µmol dm⁻³, [H₂P2] = 2.84 µmol dm⁻³ and [H₂P3] = 3.11 µmol dm⁻³ for absorption spectra and [H₂P1] = 0.29 µmol dm⁻³, [H₂P2] = 0.28 µmol dm⁻³ and [H₂P3] = 0.31 µmol dm⁻³ for emission spectra.



Fig. 3. Spectrophotometric titrations of H_2P1 (A and B) and H_2P3 (C and D) in dichloromethane as a function of added iron(III) trifluoromethanesulfonate in methanol, at 298 K [H_2P1] = 2.81 µmol dm⁻³, [H_2P3] = 2.99 µmol dm⁻³.



Fig. 4. Spectrofluorimetric titration of H₂P1 in dichloromethane as a function of added iron(III) trifluoromethanesulfonate in methanol, at 298 K [H₂P1] = 0.28 μ mol dm⁻³; $\lambda_{exc} = 419$ nm (A) and [H₂P1] = 2.81 μ mol dm⁻³; $\lambda_{exc} = 661$ nm (B).



Fig. 5. Spectrophotometric (A, C and E) and spectrofluorimetric (B and D) titrations of H₂P1 (A and B), H₂P2 (C and D) and H₂P3 (E) in dichloromethane as a added function of copper(II) trifluoromethanesulfonate in methanol, at 298 K. The insets show the absorption at 419, 443, 518, 541, 592 and 659 nm (H₂P1); 421, 518, 543, 554, 594 and 649 nm (H₂P2) and 421, 519 and 556 nm (H₂P3). [H₂P1] = 2.81 μ mol dm⁻³; [H₂P2] = 2.76 μ mol dm⁻³ and $[H_2P3] = 3.11 \ \mu mol \ dm^{-3}$ (absorption spectra, A, B and E) and $[H_2P1] = 0.28 \ \mu mol \ dm^{-3}$; $\lambda_{exc} = 419 \ nm$ (B), $[H_2P2] = 0.28 \ \mu mol \ dm^{-3}$; $\lambda_{exc} = 421 \ nm$ (D) (emission spectra).

2.3.2. Titration with Cu^{2+}

A similar spectroscopic study was performed for Cu^{2+} with H_2P1-H_2P3 . In contrast to Fe^{3+} , the addition of Cu^{2+} leads to smaller variations in the intensity of the absorption bands for all derivatives (Fig. 5 and Fig. S19 in Supporting information). The titration of H_2P1 with Cu^{2+} induces a two-step change in the absorption spectrum. In the first part, the appearance of two new bands at 443 and 659 nm suggests the formation of a SAT complex, which is followed in the second part by the insertion of the Cu^{2+} in the porphyrin inner core with the expected elimination of the two protons. This is corroborated by the profile of the final spectrum showing the Soret band with a 2 nm hypsochromic shift and the appearance of a new band at 543 nm typical of a metalloporphyrin. For H_2P2 , the Soret band remains practically with the same intensity and the Q bands collapse from 4 bands to one new band at 543 nm, while the band at 520 nm is still observed, which seems to indicate that the insertion of Cu^{2+} is not total.

For H₂P3, only small differences are observed in the absorption spectra, and considering the presence of the two bands at 519 and 557 nm associated to the rosamine contribution, it was not possible to extract more information about the porphyrin Q bands. In terms of fluorescence emission, again no relevant emission was observed for H₂P3 (no spectra are presented) and a fluorescence intensity quenching occurs for H₂P1 (Fig. 5B, bands at 652 and 716 nm) and H₂P2 (Fig. 5D, bands at 657 and 720 nm) with increasing amounts of Cu²⁺, although no new bands are observed even after the addition of 10 equivalents.

Considering the behaviour differences between the Fe^{3+} and Cu^{2+}

complexes, we decided to confirm if the interactions of ligands in solution with ${\rm Cu}^{2+}$ are consistent with their behaviour in the isolated complexes. To do that, the UV–Vis, fluorescence and EPR features of the ${\rm Cu}^{2+}$ complexes of $H_2P1,~H_2P2$ and H_2P3 isolated (powder) were analysed.

2.4. Optical properties of the Cu^{2+} complexes

The Cu²⁺ complexes of H_2P1 , H_2P2 and H_2P3 were prepared as described in the experimental section and their photophysical properties were evaluated in dichloromethane (Table 2 and Fig. 6).

Comparing the absorption spectra of the Cu^{2+} complexes formed during titrations (10 equiv.) and those of the Cu^{2+} complexes isolated, we can observe the same bands, with small shifts, 417 and 541 nm for **CuP1** (419 and 541 in solution), 419 and 542 nm for **CuP2** (421 and 543 nm in solution) and 418 and 556 nm for **CuP3** (421 and 556 nm in solution). This proves the formation of the copper complexes during

Table 2

Photophysical properties of complexes CuP1, CuP2 and CuP3 in dichloromethane (298 K).

Complex	λ_{abs}/nm	$\epsilon/mol^{-1}dm^3cm^{-1}$
CuP1 CuP2 CuP3	417, 541 419, 542 418, 556 (shoulder 516)	$\begin{array}{c} 3.16\times10^5,1.82\times10^4\\ 2.02\times10^5,1.09\times10^4\\ 2.01\times10^5,6.93\times10^4 \end{array}$



 λ / nm Fig. 6. Absorption spectra of CuP1 (black line), CuP2 (red line) and CuP3

(blue line) in anhydrous dichloromethane at 298 K ([CuP1] = [CuP2] = 1.4 $\mu mol~dm^{-3},$ and [CuP3] = 1.5 $\mu mol~dm^{-3}$).

titrations. The emission for all ${\rm Cu}^{2+}$ complexes is negligible, as expected for a paramagnetic metal ion.

2.5. EPR studies

To access information about the coordination sites of H_2P1 , H_2P2 and H_2P3 , EPR studies were performed on the Cu²⁺ complexes (CuP1, CuP2 and CuP3). The EPR spectra of these complexes, obtained in DMSO/CH₂Cl₂ (1:1) at 100 K, are depicted in Fig. 7.

Spectra signals are similar in the three conjugates and characteristic of one electron (S = 1/2) Cu²⁺ system and exhibit lines attributed to the hyperfine interaction of the unpaired electron with the copper nucleus (I = 3/2) and superhyperfine interaction with the four nitrogen atoms (I = 1) of the porphyrin macrocycle. For all conjugates, no Cu^{2+} coordination to the free oxygens was observed. To evaluate if O coordination could be detected for higher amounts of $\mbox{Cu}^{2+}\!\!\!\!$, titration of H_2P1 and H_2P2 with increasing amounts of \mbox{Cu}^{2+} was performed from 1:0 to a 1:10 M ratio [40]. For compounds H₂P1 and H₂P2, the study revealed that no O coordination occurred. Computer simulation considering the above interactions allowed a good fitting with the experimental spectra for all compounds. In Fig. S21 and Table S3 (SI) are presented the spin-Hamiltonian parameters and computational simulation for CuP3. The components of the g and A tensors for all complexes are consistent with an axial $(g_x = g_y)$ complex and very similar to those obtained in a previous work regarding a set of porphyrins functionalized with 3-hydroxy-4-pyridinone ligands [41].

During the titration experiments regarding the interaction between H_2P1 , H_2P2 and H_2P3 with Cu^{2+} and considering the initial measurements in the absence of copper, a very weak signal was obtained for compounds H_2P1 and H_2P2 , but a strong signal, typically attributed to radical species, was observed for H_2P3 (Fig. 8).

Porphyrins with different *meso*-substituted groups can originate EPR signals since these molecules display a cyclic highly conjugated system. For non-metallated, porphyrins the EPR signals observed can be attributed to two effects: (a) interaction of unpaired π electrons with the nuclear spin of the nitrogen atoms in the porphyrin ring and/or (b) due to the presence of reversibly absorbed oxygen in the porphyrin ring. Since **H**₂**P**₃ presents a very narrow EPR signal with a g value typical of organic radicals this signal can be attributed to the interaction between **H**₂**P**₃ and oxygen, that is reversibly absorbed in the porphyrin ring [30,42].

Then, taking into consideration that porphyrin derivatives can generate reactive oxygen species (ROS), namely singlet oxygen (¹O₂),



Fig. 7. X-band EPR spectra of CuP1 (black line), CuP2 (red line) and CuP3 (blue line) obtained in a DMSO/CH $_2$ Cl $_2$ (1:1) frozen matrix.



Fig. 8. X-band EPR spectra of H_2P1 (black line), H_2P2 (red line) and H_2P3 (blue line) obtained in a DMSO/CH₂Cl₂ (1:1) frozen matrix.

EPR trapping studies for H_2P3 were performed using the spin trap 2,2,6,6-tetramethylpiperidine (TEMP) as a specific probe for the detection of ${}^{1}O_{2}$. The spectra of the spin trap and compounds H_2P1 and H_2P2



Fig. 9. Spectra of TEMP (green line), H_2P1 (black line), H_2P2 (red line) and H_2P3 (blue line) at room temperature.

were also acquired as a control. When ${}^{1}O_{2}$ is produced, it can react with TEMP to form the stable nitroxyl radical TEMPO. In Fig. 9, it can be observed that only for compound H₂P3 the signal attributed to the radical TEMPO can be observed, which indicates the presence of ${}^{1}O_{2}$. For compounds H₂P1 and H₂P2 no signal is observed indicating that, under the used conditions, no ${}^{1}O_{2}$ is produced.

The production of ¹O₂ is regulated by the photophysical parameters of the photosensitizer, where the presence of substituents can exert a strongly positive effect on the required non-radiative transition intersystem crossing from its singlet excited state into the triplet state. Then, the photosensitizer in its excited triplet state reacts directly with molecular oxygen in the triplet ground state, ³O₂, resulting in the generation of singlet excited state of molecular oxygen $(^{1}O_{2})$. In this work, the presence of the rosamine moiety in H₂P3 favors, under EPR conditions [30,43], the formation of a porphyrin radical which is responsible by an efficient singlet oxygen generation via the triplet-triplet annihilation process [44]. On the other hand, the efficiency of ${}^{1}O_{2}$ generation is strongly dependent on the porphyrin chemical structures [42], often promoted by the presence of larger substituent groups at the peripheral positions of the macrocycle [30]. In our case, it is very evident that the introduction of the rosamine unit in the β -position of the porphyrin results in electron and stereo effects that strongly promote the generation of ¹O₂. Considering these results, further studies are currently being performed to better understand the generation of the reactive oxygen species under EPR conditions, including the comparison with other porphyrin derivatives.

3. Conclusions

A new porphyrin–rosamine conjugate H_2P3 was synthesised through the condensation of 3-(diethylamino)phenol with 2-(4-formylphenyl)-5,10,15,20-tetraphenylporphyrin, followed by the oxidative cyclization of the intermediate H_2P2 . The studies showed that the required oxidative cyclization is limited by the proximity of the bulky bis(4(diethylamino)-2-hydroxyphenyl)methyl unit to the porphyrin core, preventing the formation of the desired conjugate porphyrin–rosamine from H_2P1 .

The optical properties of the new porphyrin derivatives H_2P1-H_2P3 and their ability to chelate Fe(III) and Cu(II) were assessed by absorption and fluorescence emission, in dichloromethane, considering the most favourable fluorescence quantum yield values obtained in this solvent. Significant changes in the absorption and fluorescence spectra of H_2P1 , H_2P2 and H_2P3 were observed with increasing amounts of Fe³⁺, suggesting that the interaction occurs without deprotonation of the porphyrin inner core, resulting in the formation of SAT complexes, while for Cu²⁺, the formation of the metalloporphyrins is observed, particularly when a large excess of Cu²⁺ is used. Such differences in the metal ion interactions of the derivatives can be related with the difference in the oxidation state of the two metals.

The Cu²⁺ complexes of all derivatives (H_2P1-H_2P3) were characterized by EPR confirming the coordination of Cu²⁺ to the four nitrogen atoms of the porphyrin core, while no coordination of Cu²⁺ to the oxygen atoms of the phenol substituents in derivatives H_2P1 and H_2P2 was observed.

According to the EPR measurements performed in the absence of any spin-trapping agent, a strong EPR signal corresponding to a free radical was observed for the free-base conjugate H_2P3 , while a weak signal was detected for H_2P1 and H_2P2 . However, after titrating H_2P1 , H_2P2 and H_2P3 with copper(II) ion, the EPR signals obtained are all similar because the intensity of the EPR signal generated by the copper(II) ion is so high that it covers the EPR signal of H_2P3 . On the other hand, EPR trapping studies with conjugate H_2P3 using the spin-trapping agent TEMP, showed an intense signal attributed to the radical TEMPO, which revealed the formation of singlet oxygen.

The results obtained revealed that the electronic and stereo effects due to the rosamine unit linked to the β -pyrrolic position of the porphyrin strongly influence the EPR, UV–Vis and fluorescence emission spectra of **H**₂**P3**. Thus, **H**₂**P3** can be considered an attractive probe or photosensitizer for biological applications.

4. Experimental section

4.1. Materials and methods

Iron(III) and copper(II) trifluoromethanesulfonate, anhydrous dichloromethane, anhydrous methanol (MeOH), 3-(*N*-morpholino)propanesulfonic acid hemisodium salt (MOPS) and sodium chloride were obtained from Merck and used as received.

¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra were recorded on Bruker Avance 300 (300.13 and 75.47 MHz, respectively) spectrometer. $CDCl_3$ was used as solvent and tetramethylsilane (TMS) as internal reference; the chemical shifts are expressed in δ (ppm) and the coupling constants (*J*) in Hertz (Hz).

Electrospray ionization mass spectra were acquired with a Micromass Q-Tof 2 (Micromass, Manchester, UK), operating in the positive ion mode, equipped with a Z-spray source, an electrospray probe and a syringe pump. Source and desolvation temperatures were 80 °C and 150 °C, respectively. Capillary voltage was 3000 V. The spectra were acquired at a nominal resolution of 9000 and at cone voltages of 30 V. Nebulization and collision gases were N₂ and Ar, respectively. Porphyrin solutions in methanol were introduced at a 10 μ L/min flow rate. Mass spectra HRMS-ESI(+) were recorded on a LTQ Orbitrap XL mass spectrometer (Thermo Fischer Scientific, Bremen, Germany) using methanol as solvent.

Electronic absorption spectra were recorded with a Varian Cary bio50 spectrophotometer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA), equipped with a Varian Cary single-cell Peltier accessory, using 1 cm path-length quartz cells. Steady-state fluorescence measurements were carried out in a Varian spectrofluorometer, model Cary Eclipse (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA), equipped with a constanttemperature cell holder (Peltier single-cell holder) with 5 nm slit width for excitation and emission. All photophysical assays were performed under controlled temperature conditions (25 °C), using the maximum $\lambda_{\rm exc}$ and the appropriate $\lambda_{\rm em}$ range, for each compound and considering the different solvents used. Compounds stock solutions were prepared in anhydrous dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO). Fluorescence quantum yields were determined using a Quantaurus-QY C11347-11 spectrometer (absolute luminescence quantum yield spectrometer).

Fluorescence lifetimes were obtained with a time-correlated singlephoton counting (TC-SPC) technique using a commercial equipment FluoroLog-3 spectrofluorimeter (Horiba Jobin Yvon). Excitation at 445 and 594 nm was achieved using a NanoLED (fwhm<1.0 ns) at a repetition rate of 1 MHz. Typical measurements involved accumulation of a maximum count per channel of 10 000. The instrument response function was obtained with a suspension of Ludox (colloidal silica beads) in water. Data analysis was performed with the software package Fluofit version 4.2 from PicoQuant. The goodness of the fit was evaluated by the usual statistical criteria and by visual inspection of the weighted residuals distribution.

Electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) spectra were recorded using an X-band (9 GHz) Bruker ELEXSYS E 500 spectrometer equipped with a variable temperature unit (ER4B1 VT), obtained under the following general experimental conditions: i) for Cu²⁺ complexes: a microwave frequency of 100 kHz, a microwave power of 20 mW, a modulation amplitude of 8 G, a gain of 60 dB, and an acquisition time of 300 s, at 100 \pm 1 K; ii) for spin-trapping assays: a microwave frequency of 100 kHz, a microwave power of 20 mW, a modulation amplitude of 2 G, a gain of 60 dB, and an acquisition time of 300 s, at room temperature. All samples were prepared by dissolution of the studied compounds in a mixture of dried DMSO/CH₂Cl₂ in a 1:1 ratio, in a capillary that was placed in a quartz tube and frozen. For the spin-trapping assays, the tap was added to the compounds. The spin Hamiltonian parameters were determined by simulation of the experimental spectra using the computer program Bruker WinEPR/SimFonia.

4.2. Syntheses

4.2.1. Synthesis of H₂P1, CuP1 and H₂P2: general procedure

A solution of the appropriate free-base formyl-porphyrin derivative (**TPP-CHO** or **TPP-C₆H₄CHO**) or the copper(II) complex of **TPP-CHO** (25 mg), the 3-(diethylamino)phenol (5 equiv.) and *p*-toluenesulfonic acid (10 mol%) in a toluene/propanoic acid (2:1) mixture (1.5 mL) was stirred for 4 h at 120 °C. The mixture was then cooled to room temperature and added to a 3 M NaOAc aqueous solution (20 mL) and washed with water. The organic layer was extracted with CH₂Cl₂ and the solvent evaporated under reduced pressure. The crude was purified by column chromatography using CH₂Cl₂ and CH₂Cl₂/MeOH (98:2) as the eluents. The corresponding H₂P1, CuP1 and H₂P2 derivatives were isolated in very good yields, ranging from 81% to 91%.

H₂**P1**: Yield: 91%. ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.90–8.76 (4H, m, H-β), 8.69 (1H, s, H-3), 8.55–8.45 (2H, m, H-β), 8.27–8.15 (4H, m, H-o-Ph), 8.14–8.06 (2H, m, H-o-Ph), 7.82–7.66 (9H, m, H-Ph), 7.65–7.55 (3H, m, H-Ph), 7.49 (2H, t, *J* = 7.0 Hz, H-Ph), 6.32 (2H, d, *J* = 8.4 Hz, H-6″), 6.20 (2H, s, H-3″), 5.88 (2H, d, *J* = 8.4 Hz, H-5″), 5.53 (1H, s, H-1′), 4.77 (2H, bs, -OH), 3.24 (8H, bq, *J* = 5.8, -*N*CH₂CH₃), 1.08 (12H, bt, *J* = 5.8 Hz, -*N*CH₂CH₃), -2.68 (2H, s, NH) ppm. ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 155.2, 148.6, 142.3, 142.2, 142.0, 141.3, 135.0, 134.7, 134.5, 133.0, 130.3, 128.2, 127.9, 127.7, 127.4, 126.8, 126.6, 126.44, 126.37, 120.3, 120.1, 119.8, 119.6, 116.3, 105.0, 100.4, 44.4 (*N*CH₂CH₃), 12.5 (*N*CH₂CH₃) ppm. MS (ESI(+)): *m*/*z* 955.6 [M+H]⁺. HRMS-ESI(+): *m*/*z* calculated for C₆₅H₅₉O₂N₆ [M+H]⁺ 955.4694; found 955.4671.

CuP1: Yield: 85%. MS (ESI(+)): *m/z* 1016.5 [M+H]⁺.

H₂**P2**: Yield: 88%. ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.89–8.77 (4H, m, H- β), 8.76–8.71 (2H, m, H- β), 8.68 (1H, d, J = 4.9 Hz, H- β), 8.36–8.14 (4H, m, H-o-Ph), 8.00–7.88 (2H, m, H-o-Ph), 7.84–7.64 (9H, m, H-Ph), 7.47–7.27 (5H, m, H-Ph and H-3′′′), 7.13–6.87 (2H, m, H-6′′′), 6.78 (2H,

d, J = 8.5 Hz, H-5^(''), 6.49–6.13 (4H, m, H-2', 6' and H-3', 5'), 5.45 (1H, s, H-1''), 3.55–3.25 (8H, m, -NCH₂CH₃), 1.28–1.06 (12H, m, -NCH₂CH₃), -2.63 (2H, s, NH) ppm. ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 157.9, 157.6, 155.4, 142.4, 142.1, 141.7, 141.3, 141.1, 137.6, 136.5134.7, 133.6, 132.3, 130.6, 130.2, 129.3, 128.7, 128.1, 127.9, 127.6, 127.3, 126.9, 126.8, 126.3, 120.8, 120.6, 120.3, 120.1, 113.7, 113.3, 96.7, 46.2 (NCH₂CH₃), 12.7 (NCH₂CH₃) ppm. MS (ESI(+)): *m/z* 1031.7 [M+H]⁺. HRMS-ESI(+): *m/z* calculated for C₇₁H₆₃O₂N₆ [M+H]⁺ 1031.5007; found 1031.4989.

4.2.2. Synthesis of H₂P3

A round-bottomed flask containing a magnetic stirring bar was charged with H_2P2 (20 mg) and *p*-chloranil (2.2 equiv.) and toluene (1 mL). The solution was stirred at reflux for 1 h. The cooled reaction mixture was washed with water and the aqueous layer was extracted with CH₂Cl₂. The organic layer was collected and concentrated under vacuum. The crude was purified by column chromatography using CH₂Cl₂ and CH₂Cl₂/MeOH (95:5) as the eluents.

H₂**P3**: Yield: 92%. ¹H NMR (300 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 8.97–8.75 (6H, m, H- β), 8.70 (1H, d, J = 4.9 Hz, H- β), 8.35–8.12 (6H, m, H-o-Ph), 8.06–7.93 (2H, m, H-o-Ph), 7.85–7.67 (9H, m, H-m,p-Ph), 7.53 (2H, d, J = 6.9 Hz, H-Ph), 7.46–7.29 (5H, m, H-Ph, H-3″ and H-6″), 7.19–7.04 (2H, m, H-4″), 6.96–6.70 (4H, m, H-2′,6′ and H-3′,5′), 3.82–3.26 (8H, m, -NCH₂CH₃), 1.42–1.16 (12H, m, -NCH₂CH₃), -2.61 (2H, s, NH) ppm. ¹³C NMR (75 MHz, CDCl₃): δ 155.1, 148.6, 142.7, 142.0, 140.7, 136.1, 134.6, 134.5, 130.7, 128.3, 127.7, 126.8126.7, 126.2, 120.1, 104.8, 100.0, 44.4 (NCH₂CH₃), 12.8 (NCH₂CH₃) ppm. MS (ESI(+)): m/z 1011.7 [M]⁺. HRMS-ESI(+): m/z calculated for C₇₁H₅₉ON₆ [M]⁺ 1011.4745; found 1011.4727.

4.2.3. Synthesis of complexes CuP2 and CuP3

To a solution of the adequate free-base porphyrin H_2P2 or H_2P3 (20 mg) in a chloroform/methanol 2:1 mixture (4.5 mL) was added Cu (OAc)₂ and the mixture was heated at 60 °C for 20 min under stirring. Then, the reaction mixture was washed with water and the aqueous layer was extracted with CH₂Cl₂. The organic layer was collected and concentrated under vacuum. Compounds **CuP2** and **CuP3** were obtained in almost quantitative yields after crystallization from a CH₂Cl₂/hexane mixture.

CuP2: Yield: 98%. MS (ESI(+)): m/z calculated for $\rm C_{71}H_{61}N_6O_2Cu$ $\rm [M+H]^+$ 1092.4; found 1092.5.

CuP3: Yield: 97%. MS (ESI(+)): m/z calculated for $C_{71}H_{57}N_6OCu$ [M]⁺ 1073.4; found 1073.6.

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Author Contributions

N.M.M.M and A.F.R.C carried out the synthesis and structural characterization of all compounds. C.Q performed the UV-Vis and fluorescence studies. A.L. performed the EPR studies. M.G.P.M.S.N and A.C.T. performed the analysis of the spectroscopic studies and A.M.G.S. designed, supervised the work and manuscript writing. All authors discussed, wrote and commented on the manuscript.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dyepig.2023.111431.

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