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Iridium-Triggered Allylcarbamate Uncaging in Living Cells

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ABSTRACT: Designing a metal catalyst that addresses the major issues of solubility, stability, toxicity, cell uptake, and reactivity within complex biological milieu for bioorthogonal controlled transformation reactions is a highly formidable challenge. Herein, we report an organoiridium complex that is nontoxic and capable of the uncaging of allyloxycarbonyl-protected amines under biologically relevant conditions and within living cells. The potential applications of this uncaging chemistry have been demonstrated by the generation of diagnostic and therapeutic agents upon the activation of profluorophore and prodrug in a controlled fashion within HeLa cells, providing a valuable tool for numerous potential biological and therapeutic applications.

he ability to custom-design synthetic catalysts that can perform artificial chemistry in complex biological milieu has opened up new horizons in medicinal chemistry, chemical biology and the therapeutic treatment of deadly diseases such as cancer. Recently, transition-metal catalysts (TMCs) have emerged as a promising tool for carrying out unnatural chemical transformations via bioorthogonal catalysis in a myriad of cellular environments.^{1,2} These chemical transformations have been demonstrated for a variety of applications such as biomolecular labeling,³ metabolite detection,⁴ intracellular probe release,^{1,5} and in situ enzyme⁶ and prodrug activation.^{15,7} Designing TMC-mediated reactions in living organisms, however, still remains a formidable task for (1) maximization of the catalyst activity at low substrate concentrations, (2) minimization of the catalyst reactivity toward air, water, and other cellular components in high abundance, (3) problems associated with the catalyst toxicity, water solubility, and selectivity toward the desired substrates, and (4) slow uncaging of prodrug for sustained drug release to reduce drug toxicity. Metal-containing catalysts are also often prone to deactivate in the combined presence of air, water, and millimolar concentrations of nucleophilic thiols, raising concerns of their stability in cellular environments.

In the past, researchers have overcome these challenges by developing metal catalysts based on copper-catalyzed azide– alkyne cycloaddition^{7d,8} and depropargylation,⁹ rutheniummediated allylcarbamate cleavage,^{1a,5a,b,7b,c,10} redox isomerization,¹¹ azide reduction¹² and protein labeling,¹³ ironmediated azide reduction,¹⁴ palladium-mediated uncaging of allylcarbamate,^{1b,7a,15} propargyloxycarbonyl^{Sc,6,7a,16} and allenyl groups,¹⁷ etc. In addition, there are cited examples of palladium-mediated N-dealkylation,^{7a} O-dealkylation,¹⁸ Suzuki–Miyaura,^{1b,3} and Sonogashira cross-couplings,¹⁹ goldmediated uncaging of a structurally diverse range of functional



groups,^{7e} propargyl ester amidation,²⁰ alkyne hydroarylation²¹ and hydroamination,^{7f} and iridium-catalyzed transfer hydrogenation.²² While pioneering work on bond cleavage and bond formation reactions was done earlier with copper, iron, ruthenium, palladium, and gold complexes, an important transition metal, iridium, has been unexplored for the same reactions. Like the above-mentioned catalysts, organoiridium complexes can also maintain their catalytic activity in air and biological media^{22,23} which makes them suitable for bioorthogonal catalysis reactions inside living cells.

In this study, we report organoiridium(I) complexes for the in situ generation of imaging and therapeutic agents via bioorthogonal allylcarbamate uncaging chemistry in both biological and nonbiological systems without the need of any additives (Figure 1). The uncaging results were demonstrated in protic solvents, phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) buffer, and human cervical cancer (HeLa) cell lysates under air. In addition, the applications of this uncaging chemistry have been displayed by generating diagnostic and therapeutic agents upon the activation of profluorophore and prodrug within HeLa cells.

The organometallic iridium(I) complexes Ir1–Ir3 were developed for the uncaging of *N*-allylcarbamates to their respective amines under biologically relevant conditions and within living cells (Figure 1a). The iridium(I) centers in the synthesized complexes were coordinated with dibenzocyclooc-

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Figure 1. (a) Molecular structures of the iridium(I) complexes (Ir1-Ir3) used for the uncaging of allylcarbamates in this study. (b) X-ray crystal structure of complex Ir1. The hydrogen atoms have been omitted for clarity. (c) Iridium(I)-mediated uncaging of allylcarbamates under biologically relevant conditions or within living cells.

tatetraene (DBCOT) and chloro- and phosphine-based ligands. The iridium(I) center provided a stable square-planar geometry and intracellular uncaging chemistry. The DBCOT ligand was utilized for better cellular uptake due to its hydrophobic nature, which could assist in the effective crossing of the complexes through the lipid bilayers of the cell membranes. In addition, different π -acceptor capabilities of phosphine ligands were coordinated to the metal center to modulate the solubility, reactivity, and cellular uptake of the complexes. In contrast, the chloride ion, an innocent ligand, was added to increase the stability of the complex and to render it ready for direct activation under aqueous environments. The synthesis and characterization data of the ligands and the iridium complexes are described in Schemes S1-S3 and Figures S1-S11. The solid-state structure of Ir1 was also characterized by X-ray crystallography (Figure 1b and Tables S1 and S2). The stability of the complexes was accessed in organic and aqueous media at room temperature by NMR and absorption spectroscopy (Figures S12 and S13). The complexes exhibit good stability in organic solvents over 72

h but comparatively lower stability in the aqueous medium. The reactivity of iridium complexes due to dissociation of the Ir–Cl bond was investigated by the halide abstraction method (Figure S14).

The synthesized organoiridium complexes (Ir1-Ir3) were employed for the catalytic deprotection of an allylcarbamate group from a variety of aromatic and aliphatic substrates under air and in the presence of polar protic solvents. For instance, the reaction of p-chlorophenyl allylcarbamate (1a) with 5 mol % of catalysts Ir2 and Ir3 in CH₂Cl₂/MeOH (95:5) at 30 °C under air for 48 h provided isolated yields of p-chloroaniline (1b) equal to 83 and 76%, respectively (Figure 2). To demonstrate the versatility of these catalysts, we performed the uncaging of allylcarbamates from the electron-rich $(2a \rightarrow 2b)$ and electron-poor $(3a \rightarrow 3b \text{ and } 4a \rightarrow 4b)$ aromatic substrates and found that the catalysis reaction worked efficiently in all cases. Also, these catalysts were utilized for the uncaging of allylcarbamate from the aliphatic amine $(5a \rightarrow 5b)$ with very good yields. However, Ir1 worked moderately for the above reactions under the same conditions. The low catalytic activity

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		Catalyst (5 mol%)	H N N	
	1a-5a	CH ₂ Cl ₂ : MeOH (95:5) 30 °C, 48h, in air	К° [°] Н 1b-5b	
SI.No.	Substrates	Products	Catalysts	Yield (%)
1			lr1 lr2 lr3	44 83 76
2	1a MeO 2a	MeO 2b	lr1 lr2 lr3	38 92 87
3	EtO_2C $3a$ H O O	EtO ₂ C 3b	lr1 lr2 lr3	28 87 89
4	$O_2N \xrightarrow{H} O_{O_2N} O_{Aa}$	O_2N $4b$ NH_2	ir1 ir2 ir3	35 63 61
5	5a H J O V	Sb H	0 Ir1 0 Ir2 Ir3	48 90 65

Figure 2. Catalytic deprotection of allylcarbamate-protected amines with organoiridium complexes (Ir1–Ir3). Reaction conditions: substrate (0.118 mmol, 1 equiv) and catalyst (0.0059 mmol, 0.05 equiv) in 118 μ L of CH₂Cl₂/MeOH (95:5, v/v) at 30 °C under air. Shown are the isolated yields of the products.

of **Ir1** was attributed to the bulky structure of its PPh₃ ligand coordinated to the metal center that likely provided steric hindrance toward substrate binding. Notably, no products were isolated in the absence of catalyst. Thus, it was concluded that the organoiridium complexes **Ir2** and **Ir3** smoothly catalyzed the deprotection of allylcarbamates from aromatic and aliphatic amines to their respective amines under mild conditions, without the need of any additives and in the presence of protic solvents and air.

To examine the catalytic activity of organoiridium complexes, we carried out the uncaging of bis(N,N'-allyloxycarbonyl)rhodamine 110 (**Rho-alloc**) to its corresponding rhodamine 110 (**Rho**) under biologically relevant conditions, which mimicked the native cellular environment. The reactions were carried out either in PBS with trace amounts of glutathione (GSH) or in HeLa cell lysates in the presence of air. The progress of the reaction was simply checked by monitoring the fluorescence readout of the released **Rho**. The best results were obtained with **Ir3** (20 mol %) in which the incubation of nonfluorescent caged rhodamine (**Rho-alloc**, 500 μ M) in the presence of GSH (5 mM) in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO)/PBS (1:1, 10 mM, pH 7.4) at 37 °C led to a gradual increase in the fluorescence intensity (Figure 3a). The signal reached saturation around 48

h, giving a Rho yield of $32 \pm 0.8\%$. In contrast, negative control experiments performed in the absence of an iridium complex showed no fluorescence signal $(0.1 \pm 0.1\%)$.

When the above experiments were repeated in the presence of HeLa cell lysates, a more complex and biologically realistic environment, the iridium-promoted reactions still showed great response albeit with slightly lower yields. The yield was $11 \pm 0.5\%$ after 48 h and continued to rise even up to the fourth day, before gradually leveling off at $16 \pm 0.5\%$ (Figure S15). When similar experiments were, however, repeated with complexes Ir1 and Ir2 either in PBS or HeLa cell lysates, Ir2 gave only ~ $6.5 \pm 0.6\%$ yield of Rho, while Ir1 was found to be almost inactive (ca. ~1.5% yield) after 48 h.

In general, the yield of **Rho** in PBS or cell lysates was lower compared to the yield of uncaged amine (**1b**-**5b**) in CH₂Cl₂/MeOH. The reason for this lower yield of **Rho** under biorelevant conditions might be associated with the slow deactivation of catalyst (Figure S13). Besides, **Ir1** was found to be inactive, which may possibly be due to its low solubility in an aqueous medium because of the hydrophobic PPh₃ ligand^{15b} and, in addition, to its bulky structure, which can cause steric crowding toward substrate binding.

Further, we investigated the catalytic uncaging of allylcarbamate from the prodrug of doxorubicin (DOX), a well-known



Figure 3. (a) Uncaging of **Rho-alloc** (0.5 mM, 1 equiv) mediated by an organoiridium complex (0.1 mM, 0.2 equiv) in DMSO/PBS (1:1, v/v) at 37 °C in the presence of GSH (5 mM, 10 equiv). Yields were determined by comparing the fluorescence intensities (λ_{ex} = 488 nm; λ_{em} = 520 nm) of diluted samples with a standard curve of different concentrations of **Rho**. (b) Catalytic uncaging of caged DOX (100 μ M) with **Ir3** (20 μ M) and GSH (5 mM) in water/DMSO (99:1) at 25 °C monitored by HPLC.

chemotherapeutic anticancer drug used in the treatment of a wide range of cancers. For this purpose, the allylcarbamateprotected doxorubicin prodrug (caged DOX, 100 µM) was incubated with 20 µM Ir2 or Ir3 and 5 mM GSH in water/ DMSO (99:1) at room temperature under air. The deprotection of allylcarbamate was monitored for 48 h, and the results were analyzed using analytical high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC; Figures 3b and S16 and S17). The results showed that the loading of 20 mol % Ir2 and Ir3 to caged DOX gave 29% and 76% DOX release, respectively. As expected, the yield decreased upon reduction of the catalyst loading, and there was no product formation in the absence of the catalyst. This clearly proved that the catalyst was able to activate the prodrug in the extracellular medium. On the basis of these observations, we tentatively proposed an iridiumtriggered allylcarbamate uncaging pathway (Figure S18).

Next, we carried out iridium-triggered artificial chemistry for allylcarbamate uncaging within the highly complex biological milieu for translation to cellular habitats. For this, cultured HeLa cells were incubated with caged rhodamine (Rho-alloc, 100 μ M) for 30 min, followed by multiple washings with PBS to remove the caged fluorophore from the extracellular solution and to ensure that Rho-alloc is located only within the HeLa cells, not in the culture medium. A fresh medium was added to the cells along with Ir3 (20 μ M), which led to the development of cellular green fluorescence, indicating the formation of Rho (Figures 4a and S19 and S20). The development of green fluorescence intensity was monitored by live-cell confocal microscopy imaging, and the results revealed a 56-fold increase in the fluorescence intensity within HeLa cells over a period of 8 h. In contrast, the cells treated with the caged substrate in the absence of catalyst were found to be

nonfluorescent. These results indicated the successful uncaging of allylcarbamate from **Rho-alloc** by the catalyst within live HeLa cells and the subsequent release of fluorescent **Rho**. More notably, the catalyst showed a high efficiency, as determined by the significant increase in the fluorescence intensity, and long periods of activity suggest its slow deactivation in complex biological environments.

To further determine the accumulation of catalyst at the subcellular level, we carried out inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS; Figure S21). The ICP-MS data showed a high accumulation of iridium inside the cell cytosol, suggesting that allylcarbamate cleavage from caged rhodamine (**Rho-alloc**) by **Ir3** mostly occurred within the cytoplasm, followed by slow diffusion of the green fluorescent product (**Rho**) throughout the cells. We also determined the tolerance of cells in the presence of catalyst before proceeding to prodrug activation. Our cell viability results revealed the catalyst to be nontoxic (ca. >96% viable cells) at 50 μ M concentration even after a long incubation period of 48 h, as determined by MTT assay (Figure 4b).

The ability to activate profluorophore by a catalyst within living cells and its high biocompatibility motivated us to study the bioorthogonal activation of a prodrug inside cells. Moreover, the slow uncaging of allylcarbamate by **Ir3** in the biological medium can be advantageous for the activation of prodrug for sustained drug release. The sustained release of drug is highly beneficial over the burst release because the latter can cause dangerous spikes in drug concentrations, resulting undesirable side effects. Hence, we demonstrated the bioorthogonal catalytic activation of a prodrug to establish our proof-of-concept. For this, we utilized our previously synthesized caged DOX, which was converted to DOX upon



Figure 4. (a) Uncaging of **Rho-alloc** (100 μ M) with (\blacksquare) and without (\blacktriangle) addition of **Ir3** (20 μ M) in HeLa cells monitored by live-cell imaging using confocal microscopy. Insets: (A) bright-field image of cells treated with **Rho-alloc** only (control) and (B) merged bright-field image of cells treated with **Rho-alloc** and **Ir3**. Both images were taken after 8 h. Scale bar: 10 μ m. (b) Cytotoxicity of **Ir3** in HeLa cells after 48 h of incubation (IC₅₀ = 76 μ M) as determined by MTT assay. (c) Activation of a prodrug (caged DOX) by **Ir3** inside HeLa cells. The cell survival rates were determined by MTT assay.

catalytic uncaging of the allylcarbamate group. We determined the cell viability of caged DOX in the presence of an iridium complex in HeLa cells by MTT assay (Figures 4c and S22 and \$23). The HeLa cells were incubated with different concentrations of caged DOX (20, 50, 75, and 100 μ M) for 3 h, followed by incubation with an iridium complex (20 μ M) in a fresh medium for 48 h. Not surprisingly, the caged DOX was found to be nontoxic to the cells in the absence of catalyst, whereas the free drug DOX showed toxicity. We observed only a small decrease in the cell viability when 20 μ M caged DOX was incubated with 20 μ M catalyst for 48 h. However, when the concentration of nontoxic caged DOX was increased from 20 to 100 μ M while the catalyst concentration was kept fixed at 20 μ M, the cell viability decreased drastically in a concentration-dependent manner. Interestingly, we could observe efficient reduction of the cell viability even with a decreased catalyst loading of 10 or 5 μ M in the presence of a high concentration of caged DOX (100 μ M). This drastic decrease in the cell viability with the prodrug in the presence of a catalyst suggests uncaging of the allylcarbamate group inside the cells.

In conclusion, we have reported three organometallic iridium(I) complexes (Ir1-Ir3) for catalytic deprotection of allylcarbamate-protected amines in biological and nonbiological conditions without the need of any exogenous agents. The catalysts Ir2 and Ir3 efficiently performed the uncaging of allylcarbamate from a variety of aromatic and aliphatic substrates in the presence of protic solvents and air. The uncaging results with profluorophore and prodrug under biologically relevant conditions showed good efficiency, with the best performance obtained with the catalyst Ir3. The catalyst Ir3 also exhibited a remarkably high activity, with up to a 56-fold increase in the fluorescence intensity over a period of 8 h for the uncaging of allylcarbamate from profluorophore within live HeLa cells. In addition, activation of the prodrug by the catalyst Ir3 inside HeLa cells provided both prodrug and catalyst concentration-dependent cell death. In the future, the prodrug and profluorophore systems could be suitably combined to allow the real-time tracking of cell death.

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ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.inorgchem.1c01790.

Materials and methods, experimental details, syntheses, characterization, single-crystal X-ray diffraction, biological studies, and figures and tables (PDF)

Accession Codes

CCDC 2052132 contains the supplementary crystallographic data for this paper. These data can be obtained free of charge via www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/data_request/cif, or by emailing data_request@ccdc.cam.ac.uk, or by contacting The Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre, 12 Union Road, Cambridge CB2 1EZ, UK; fax: +44 1223 336033.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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