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**Application of Fluorescence Spectroscopy Using a Novel Fluoroionophore for
Quantification of Zinc in Urban Runoff**

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29

30 **ABSTRACT**

31 Fluorescence spectroscopy has great potential for on-site and real-time monitoring of

32 pollutants in aquatic environments; however, its application to environmental aquatic

33 samples has been extremely limited. In this study, a novel fluoroionophore based on a

34 BODIPY-terpyridine conjugate was developed and applied to determine Zn concentrations

35 in urban runoff. The fluoroionophore selectively bound to Zn^{2+} in water, which led to an

36 instant red-shift of the fluorescence peak of the fluoroionophore from 539 nm to 567 nm

37 that could be seen by the naked eye. Zn concentrations could be quantified using the ratio of

38 fluorescence intensities, and the detection limit was 9 $\mu\text{g/L}$, which is sufficiently low for

39 environmental aquatic samples. To demonstrate applicability of the method to

40 environmental samples, we measured Zn concentrations in urban runoff samples with a

41 complex matrix (~60 mg/L dissolved organic carbon and ~20 mS/cm electrical

42 conductivity). The total and dissolved fractions of Zn in the samples could be determined by

43 fluorescence spectroscopy and its relative error was estimated to be less than 30% by

44 inductively coupled plasma-atomic emission spectroscopy analysis. The proposed method

45 is rapid and easy-to-use with simple pretreatment for Zn determination in environmental

46 aquatic samples with complex matrices.

47

48 **Keywords:** Fluorescence spectroscopy; Zinc; Fluoroionophore; Urban runoff;

49 Spearman's rank correlation analysis

50

51 **1. Introduction**

52 Rapid urbanization is a global phenomenon that is often associated with adverse
53 environmental effects. In urban environments, contaminants from vehicles and buildings
54 accumulate on road surfaces until they are washed off into local aquatic systems by
55 rainfall events, where they compromise water resources. In such areas, reuse and
56 recycling of water may be needed to enable sustainable water management (Bischel et al.,
57 2012). Accordingly, on-site and real-time monitoring technologies are necessary to
58 measure contaminant levels and ensure water quality. Heavy metals are one of the most
59 hazardous pollutants in aquatic environments. Zn is a common metal that is widely used
60 for industrial applications in chemical and alloyed products, fabricated metal products,
61 and paper products (Naito et al., 2010). In recent years, Zn has received increased
62 attention owing to concerns about its toxic effects on aquatic life. In Japan, the
63 environmental quality standard for Zn is 30 µg/L in freshwater (Japanese Ministry of
64 Environment, Environmental quality standards for water pollution). Urban runoff is
65 considered to be one of the main sources of Zn found in surface water (Naito et al., 2010).

66 Currently, the most common analytical methods for heavy metals including Zn are
67 atomic absorption spectrometry (AAS) and inductively coupled plasma (ICP)
68 spectroscopy (Adeloju et al., 2009; Majedi et al., 2012). Although these methods are
69 precise, they are expensive and often require complex sample preparation. In addition,

they are not applicable to continuous on-site monitoring and measure only the total concentration of heavy metals. Simple analytical methods such as colorimetric or electrochemical techniques have recently been developed for rapid detection of heavy metals (Yan et al., 2012; Gong et al., 2010). Among these methods, fluorescence spectroscopy has attracted a great deal of attention from environmental engineers owing to its high sensitivity, simplicity, and versatile instrumentation (Lakowicz, 2006). Although fluorescence excitation-emission matrix (EEM) measurements have been employed to monitor water quality, their application to detection of trace amounts of contaminants is limited to monitoring of dissolved organic matter, such as humic-like and protein-like matters (Henderson et al., 2009). In contrast, fluoroionophores are usually used for detection of heavy metals in biochemistry (Domaille et al., 2008). A fluoroionophore is an organic molecular indicator that exhibits quantifiable changes in fluorescence spectra upon binding a particular guest ion. The design and development of novel fluoroionophores remains an active area of research, and various fluoroionophores for heavy metal ions have been reported (Li et al., 2009; Weng et al., 2009; Li et al., 2008). However, their application for environmental use has been extremely limited. Here, we developed a fluoroionophore for determination of total and dissolved Zn concentrations in urban runoff by fluorescence spectroscopy. The photo-physical properties of the fluoroionophore were also reported. This approach enabled screening of the Zn levels with no complicated pretreatment processes.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Urban runoff sampling and testing

Urban runoff samples were collected from heavy traffic areas in four cities in March and April 2012 during rainfall events: Gifu (+35° 26' 54.88", +136° 44' 28.15"), East-Hiroshima (+34° 24' 4.40", +132° 43' 1.43"), Osaka (+34° 43' 50.46", +135° 32' 48.40"), and Tsukuba (+36° 3' 38.05", +140° 7' 11.92"). Samples were preserved in 500-mL polypropylene bottles at 4°C. All polypropylene bottles and glassware were previously soaked for at least 24 h in 2 M HNO₃ and then rinsed thoroughly with Milli-Q water. Following filtration through a 0.45-μm-pore-size membrane, the dissolved organic carbon (DOC) was measured by total organic carbon analyzer (TOC-VCSH; SHIMADZU Corporation, Kyoto, Japan). pH and electrical conductivity (EC) were measured by pH meter (D-54; HORIBA, Ltd., Kyoto, Japan) and EC meter (ES-51; HORIBA, Ltd., Kyoto, Japan). Additionally, 0.45-μm-pore-size cellulose ester membrane was used to fractionate dissolved metals. Nitric acid digestion was performed before metal analysis by ICP/atomic emission spectrometry (AES) [ICPE-9000; SHIMADZU Corporation, Kyoto, Japan]. To accomplish this, each urban runoff sample (9 mL) and concentrated HNO₃ (1 mL) were added into 10-mL test tubes and samples were then digested on an aluminum heating block with watch glasses at 95°C for 2.5 h and cooled to room temperature. Following filtration through a 0.45-μm-pore-size membrane, the concentrations of Zn, Al, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mn, Ni, Pb, and Sb were determined by ICP/AES. These metals were selected because they are generated by motor vehicles (Mahbub et al., 2010). All reported data are the averages of at least three replicates.

2.2 Fluorescence spectroscopic measurement

116 The fluoroionophore designed in our laboratory was synthesized according to a
117 previously described method (Hafuka et al., 2013). Milli-Q water (18.25 MΩcm) was
118 used to prepare all aqueous solutions. Stock solutions of fluoroionophore (40 μM) were
119 prepared by dissolving the fluoroionophore in acetonitrile, while stock solutions of metal
120 ions for calibration were prepared by dissolving appropriate amounts of perchlorate or
121 chloride salts in Tris-HCl buffer. For analysis of total zinc (T-Zn) in actual urban runoff
122 samples, the samples were acidified with HCl to dissolve the complexed Zn. HNO₃ was
123 not used in this experiment because Tris-HCl buffer was appropriate for our
124 fluoroionophore in terms of fluorescence intensity. Each urban runoff sample (36 mL)
125 and 1 M HCl (2 mL) were added into 50-mL beakers and vigorously mixed at room
126 temperature for 15 min. After mixing, each sample solution was filtered through a
127 0.45-μm-pore-size membrane to remove suspended solids, after which 1 M NaOH
128 solution was added to neutralize the pH. To measure the dissolved Zn (D-Zn), samples
129 were filtered through a 0.45-μm-pore-size membrane as the sole pretreatment. All
130 spectroscopic measurements were carried out in an aqueous acetonitrile solution
131 (CH₃CN/H₂O=1/1, v/v). Test solutions were prepared by adding an appropriate aliquot of
132 the fluoroionophore stock solution into a volumetric flask, followed by 4.5 mL of the
133 pretreated urban runoff samples and 0.5 mL of a Tris-HCl buffer adjusted to pH 7.0, and
134 finally by diluting the solution to 10 mL with acetonitrile. Quartz cells with a cross
135 section of 1 cm × 1 cm were used for fluorescence and absorption spectroscopic
136 measurements (FP-6600 and V-630; JASCO Corporation, Tokyo, Japan). The excitation
137 and fluorescence slit widths were 5.0 and 6.0 nm, respectively. The detection limit (LOD,
138 3σ/slope) and quantification limit (LOQ, 10σ/slope) for Zn²⁺ were determined based on

the standard deviation (σ) of 11 blank solutions (Han et al., 2010). As a natural organic matter (NOM) standard, IHSS Suwannee River NOM (RO isolation, 1R101N) was used. The NOM was dissolved in Tris-HCl buffer (pH 7) and the solution was filtered through a 0.45- μm -pore-size membrane. The DOC concentration was obtained by analyzing the NOM solution and the Tris-HCl buffer by using total organic carbon analyzer. The NOM solution was used for fluorescence titration of the fluoroionophore with and without Zn^{2+} solution (10 μM). The fluorescence quantum yields were obtained by comparing the area under the corrected fluorescence spectrum of the test sample with that of a solution of Rhodamine 6G in H_2O , which has a reported quantum yield (Φ_{R}) of 0.76 (Olmsted, 1979). The quantum yields of fluorescence (Φ_{S}) were obtained from multiple measurements ($N = 3$) using the following equation:

$$\Phi_{\text{S}} = \Phi_{\text{R}} \times S_{\text{S}}/S_{\text{R}} \times A_{\text{R}}/A_{\text{S}} \times (\eta_{\text{S}}/\eta_{\text{R}})^2,$$

where Φ is the quantum yield, S is the integrated area of the corresponding fluorescence spectrum, A is the absorbance at the excitation wavelength, η is the refractive index of the solvent used, and S and R refer to the sample and the reference fluorophore, respectively. All reported data are the averages of at least three replicates.

2.3 Data analysis

To investigate the interference effects on fluorescence measurements of Zn in urban runoff samples, Spearman rank correlation coefficients (r_{s}) for metals, protons, DOC, and EC were computed toward the absolute difference between a Zn concentration determined by ICP and that of fluoroionophore. The procedure for computing the Spearman rank correlation coefficient is described as follows (Rosner, 2011). Detailed

procedure of the data analysis is in the supporting information section.

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Fluorescence titration of the fluoroionophore with Zn^{2+}

The fluoroionophore consisted of a 4,4-difluoro-4-bora-3a,4a-diaza-s-indacene (BODIPY) fluorophore and a 2,2':6',2''-terpyridine receptor. BODIPY fluorophores possess many valuable characteristics, such as sharp and intense absorption and fluorescence bands, high fluorescence quantum yields, high molar absorption coefficients, and good photo-chemical stability (Loudet et al., 2007). The terpyridine receptor is a metal ion ligand known to bind to Zn^{2+} with a high binding constant (Piao et al., 2009). Figure 1-(a) shows the absorption and the fluorescence spectra of the fluoroionophore. The fluoroionophore exhibited a strong absorption band around 516 nm with a large molar absorption coefficient ($\epsilon = 7.5 \times 10^4 \text{ Lmol}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$). The fluoroionophore also showed a sharp fluorescence peak at 539 nm (half bandwidth was 26 nm) with a shoulder around 580 nm, which is typical of BODIPY fluorophores (Karolin et al., 1994). The fluorescence quantum yield was high ($\Phi = 0.73$). Upon addition of excess Zn^{2+} (100 eq.), both the absorption and the fluorescence bands were red-shifted (Figure 1-(a)) from 516 nm to 533 nm (17 nm) and from 539 nm to 567 nm (28 nm), respectively, with a decrease in the intensity. The molar absorption coefficient decreased to 5.4×10^4 upon complexation with Zn^{2+} . The fluoroionophore still exhibited high fluorescence quantum yield (0.49), and changes in fluorescence and absorption color were easily distinguishable by the naked eye (Figure 1-(b)). The red-shifted spectra of the fluoroionophore upon complexation could be explained by enhanced intramolecular charge transfer (ICT) between the 1-alkyloxy

BODIPY fluorophore and the terpyridine ionophore moieties (Hong et al., 2011). Because of the d^{10} electron configuration of Zn^{2+} ions, metal-to-ligand charge-transfer processes do not occur in this system (Liang et al., 2012). Terpyridine might be slightly electron-withdrawing when compared with the BODIPY with the electron-donating 1-alkyloxy group. The electron-withdrawing property of terpyridine is enhanced upon complexation with Zn^{2+} , which promotes the ICT process from the BODIPY core to the terpyridine- Zn^{2+} moiety. Therefore, the red-shifted fluorescence and absorption were observed because the energy level of the lowest unoccupied molecular orbital decreased more than that of the highest occupied molecular orbital upon complexation with Zn^{2+} (Shiraishi et al., 2011).

Figure 2-(a) shows the fluorescence spectral change in the fluoroionophore with increasing concentrations of Zn^{2+} . The original strong fluorescence band at 539 nm (F_{539}) gradually decreased, and a new fluorescence peak at 567 nm (F_{567}) appeared and increased. The spectral change was largely terminated by the addition of 200 eq. of Zn^{2+} . This red-shift of the spectra enabled ratiometric measurement by calculating the ratio of F_{567} to F_{539} . Ratiometric fluoroionophores are more favorable for quantitative determination than those exhibiting only fluorescence enhancement (“turn-on”) or fluorescence quenching (“turn-off”) because the ratio of the fluorescence intensities is independent of fluctuation of the source light intensity and sensitivity of the instrument (Valeur, 2002). The ratio of fluorescence intensities at 567 nm and 539 nm (F_{567}/F_{539}) increased as the Zn^{2+} concentration increased (Figure 2-(b)), and the sigmoidal plot generated enabled quantitative determination of Zn^{2+} . Job’s method was used to further investigate the binding stoichiometry of the fluoroionophore and Zn^{2+} (Connors, 1987). In

solutions in which the total concentration of the fluoroionophore and Zn^{2+} was maintained at 4 μM , F_{567} was highest when the mole fraction of Zn^{2+} was 0.5, suggesting 1:1 stoichiometry (Figure 2-(c)). Furthermore, we calculated a dissociation constant (K_d) of 4.36×10^{-6} M for Zn^{2+} using a Benesi-Hildebrand plot (Figure 2-(d)) (Benesi et al., 1949).

3.2 Effect of metal ions, pH and DOC on the fluoroionophore

To assess the selectivity of the fluoroionophore toward Zn^{2+} , the interfering effects of various ions were investigated. In this selectivity test, the concentrations of each ion solution were set higher than those in real urban runoff samples described below. As shown in Figure 3, Na^+ , Mg^{2+} , K^+ , and Ca^{2+} did not influence the fluorescence intensity ratio (F_{567}/F_{539}) of the fluoroionophore. In addition, no change in F_{567}/F_{539} was observed upon addition of Al^{3+} , Mn^{2+} , Fe^{3+} , and Pb^{2+} . In contrast, F_{567}/F_{539} increased significantly in Hg^{2+} and Cd^{2+} solutions. It is difficult for most ionophores to discriminate Cd^{2+} , Hg^{2+} , and Zn^{2+} because they have similar chemical properties (Li et al., 2012). However, further addition of Zn^{2+} to the solutions resulted in further increases in the ratio (F_{567}/F_{539}), and these spectra overlapped those of Zn^{2+} , indicating that the fluoroionophore has much greater selectivity for Zn^{2+} than Cd^{2+} and Hg^{2+} . These characteristics of the fluoroionophore are advantageous for analysis of Zn^{2+} in environmental aquatic samples. Addition of Fe^{2+} , Co^{2+} , Ni^{2+} , and Cu^{2+} quenched the fluorescence. Interestingly, the fluorescent signals of Co^{2+} and Ni^{2+} solutions were recovered by the addition of Zn^{2+} , suggesting that Co^{2+} and Ni^{2+} do not significantly affect recognition of Zn^{2+} by the fluoroionophore. Fe and Cu are known to efficiently

quench fluorescence. Specifically, when these heavy metal ions are bound to fluoroionophores, fluorescence quenching is usually observed owing to an energy or electron transfer mechanism (e.g., paramagnetic Cu^{2+}) (Varnes et al., 1972).

The pH of a sample solution usually affects fluorescence spectra because of the protonation reaction of a fluoroionophore (Valeur, 2002). Therefore, the pH dependence of the fluoroionophore was investigated at pH 1.5–9.0 (Figure 4). In solutions with a pH < 3.5, the F_{567}/F_{539} of the fluoroionophore increased with decreasing pH owing to decreasing fluorescence intensity at 539 nm. These findings might be attributed to di-protonation of the terpyridine unit (Resch-Genger et al., 2006). In solutions with a pH of 4.0–9.0, the pH value did not affect the fluorescence of the fluoroionophore, and F_{567}/F_{539} was stable. Hence, there was no need to control the pH of the sample solutions unless it was below pH 4.0.

To investigate the interference effect of organic matter on the fluorescence determination of Zn^{2+} , fluorescence titration with NOM was conducted (Figure 5). NOM did not affect the F_{567}/F_{539} of the samples without Zn^{2+} , which suggested NOM does not interfere with the fluorescence of the fluoroionophore. In the presence of Zn^{2+} , the F_{567}/F_{539} gradually decreased with increasing DOC concentration. The F_{567}/F_{539} decreased 16% at 5.9 mg-DOC/L. This result revealed organic matter can affect the fluorescence determination of Zn^{2+} because it can bind to Zn^{2+} .

3.3 Determination of Zn^{2+} concentrations in urban runoff samples

Prior to measurement of the fluorescence of urban runoff samples with different concentrations of Zn^{2+} , the concentrations of a variety of metals, pH, and EC in the

samples were determined (Table 1). The T-Zn concentrations in most of the samples were above the environmental quality standard. Samples collected in Osaka contained higher concentrations of Zn than those from other cities, which was likely due to the heavy traffic load of Osaka. Most of the samples contained high concentrations of Al and Fe (up to 2600 µg/L and 3500 µg/L, respectively); however, Cd was not detected in all samples. The pH values of the samples were around 7.0 for all cities. The EC values were high for samples from Osaka and low for those taken in Tsukuba. Table 2 shows the concentrations of the dissolved fraction of metals, pH, and DOC. The Al concentrations were relatively high in the samples collected in Osaka, Gifu, and East-Hiroshima. Especially, one sample of Osaka city contained 720 µg-Al/L. The Zn concentrations of were higher up to 140 µg/L in the samples taken at Osaka than those taken at other cities. The Cu concentrations were over 100 µg/L in the three samples. Almost all the samples included Fe at tens of µg/L level. Among the four sampling sites, dissolved metal concentrations were lowest in Tsukuba. Pb and Cd were not detected in all samples. When compared with the T-Zn concentrations (Table 1), D-Zn accounted for 32% of the T-Zn on average. Taken together, these findings indicate a great diversity of chemical compositions among samples.

Following ICP analysis, we measured Zn concentrations in the same urban runoff samples using the fluoroionophores. To accomplish this, we generated a calibration curve of Zn^{2+} from analysis of Zn standard solutions prepared with Milli-Q water by plotting fluorescence intensity ratios (F_{567}/F_{539}) of the fluoroionophore in standard solutions containing 0–2.5 µM of Zn^{2+} (Figure 5). The calibration curve was fitted by a quartic function ($F_{567}/F_{539} = 1.51 \times [\text{Zn}^{2+}]^4 + 0.87 \times [\text{Zn}^{2+}]^2 + 0.28$) because it produced a better

determination coefficient ($R^2 = 0.9996$) than quadratic and cubic functions. The detection limit was 1.4×10^{-7} M (9 $\mu\text{g/L}$), which was sufficiently low for screening of Zn in many environmental and industrial aqueous samples.

The applicability of fluorescence spectroscopy to measurement of Zn in urban runoff samples was investigated. As shown in Tables 1 and 2, 25 real urban runoff samples were collected from four cities in Japan and the Zn concentrations were determined by the proposed fluorescence spectroscopy (C_{flu}) method and conventional ICP-AES (C_{ICP}) to determine whether the developed method is applicable to analysis of actual urban runoff samples. Figure 6 shows relationship between concentrations of D-Zn and T-Zn in urban runoff samples determined by fluorescence spectroscopy and ICP measurements. The results revealed an almost linear relationship with a slope of 1, indicating that the fluoroionophore is applicable to determination of Zn in environmental samples with complex matrices. The relative errors in the concentrations of D-Zn determined by these two methods were within 25% for most samples. Errors in the concentrations of T-Zn were within 30% for most samples; thus, we concluded that T-Zn as well as D-Zn in urban runoff samples was successfully determined by using our new fluorescence method with simple pretreatments.

However, there were some limitations of the fluorescence method; (1) T-Zn was not detected by fluorescence spectroscopy in two samples collected from East-Hiroshima, even though those were detected by ICP-AES analysis. (2) The fluorescence method overestimated D-Zn in samples collected in Tsukuba. (3) On the whole, the fluorescence spectroscopy tended to underestimate T-Zn concentrations. It is likely that, because Zn complexes that remained in the samples were more stable than complexes of the

terpyridine receptor in the fluoroionophore with Zn^{2+} (Scheinost et al., 2002), the fluoroionophore could not remove Zn from the complexes. It is known that Zn^{2+} can bind to organic matter (Figure 5) or that Zn exists as an inorganic compound in aqueous environmental systems (Priadi et al., 2012). The results presented here suggest that the Zn species in an aqueous sample can be fractionated using a set of BODIPY derivatives with metal ion ligands that have different binding constants.

We conducted Spearman's rank correlation analysis to investigate interfering effects of organic and inorganic matter in the samples (Tables 1 and 2). A two-tailed test at the 1% significance level revealed no significant components selected in this study (Tables 1 and 2) that interfered with fluorescence measurements of D-Zn. Conversely, the Spearman rank-correlation coefficients (r_s) of Mn, Ni, and Pb toward T-Zn quantification were 0.525, 0.728, and 0.519, respectively (Table 3), which were significant (> 0.01), indicating that these three metals had the potential to affect the fluorescence measurements of T-Zn in urban runoff samples. However, the selectivity test revealed that these metals did not inhibit the fluorescence of the fluoroionophore (Figure 3). Our data analysis also indicated that the interfering effects of the sample matrix, especially organic matter, Cu and Fe present in the samples (Tables 1 and 2), were negligible, even though the fluoroionophore was quenched by the addition of Cu and Fe (Figure 3), and Zn^{2+} could bind to organic matter (Figure 5). These findings indicate that other interfering components for fluorescence measurements of Zn could exist in the samples.

4. Conclusions

In this study, we demonstrated the potential for application of fluorescence spectroscopy for measurement of T-Zn and D-Zn in real environmental samples using a fluoroionophore based on a BODIPY-terpyridine conjugate. The presented approach is easy to use and requires no special pretreatment. We also showed potential effects of other metal ions, pH, and DOC as interfering substances. Further research about Zn species in aqueous environment and interfering effects of sample matrix are needed to solve the limitations of the new method. Fluorescence detection has great promise for onsite, rapid screening of toxic metals, as well as monitoring of other anthropogenic pollutants in aquatic environments.

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Figure and table captions

Figure 1. (A) Absorption (gray) and fluorescence (black) spectra of the fluoroionophore (1 μM) with (solid line) and without (dashed line) Zn^{2+} (100 μM). The excitation wavelength was 535 nm. (B) Absorption (left) and fluorescence (right) of the fluoroionophore with and without Zn^{2+} , respectively.

Figure 2. (A) Change in the fluorescence spectra of the fluoroionophore (1 μM) with increasing Zn^{2+} concentrations. The spectra shown are for Zn^{2+} concentrations of 0, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0, 1.2, 1.4, 1.6, 2.0, 2.4, 3.0, 4.0, 6.0, 10.0, 14.0, 16.0, 20.0, 40.0, 100.0, and 200.0 μM . The excitation wavelength was 535 nm. (B) Plot of the fluorescence intensity ratio (F_{567}/F_{539}) versus increasing concentrations of Zn^{2+} . The concentration of the fluoroionophore was 1 μM and the excitation wavelength was 535 nm. (C) Job's plot of the fluoroionophore and Zn^{2+} system. The total concentration was 4 μM and the fluorescence intensity was measured at 567 nm. (D) Benesi-Hildebrand plot of fluorescence intensity at 539 nm.

Figure 3. Changes in the fluorescence intensity ratio (F_{567}/F_{539}) upon addition of different metal ions. White bars represent the addition of an excess of a metal ion (10 μM) to a 1 μM solution of the fluoroionophore. Black bars represent the subsequent addition of 10 μM of Zn^{2+} to a solution with each metal ion. Excitation was provided at 535 nm.

Figure 4. Effect of pH on the fluorescence intensity ratio (F_{567}/F_{539}) of the

fluoroionophore.

Figure 5. Effect of DOC on the fluorescence intensity ratio (F_{567}/F_{539}) of the fluoroionophore with (circles) and without (squares) Zn^{2+} . Zn^{2+} concentration was kept constant at 10 μM .

Figure 6. Curve of fluorescence intensity ratio (F_{567}/F_{539}) of the fluoroionophore at Zn^{2+} concentrations below 2.5 μM .

Figure 7. Relationship between concentrations of D-Zn (A) and T-Zn (B) in urban runoff samples determined by fluorescence spectroscopy with the fluoroionophore and by ICP measurements. Samples were taken in Osaka (circles), Tsukuba (crosses), Gifu (triangles), and East-Hiroshima (squares).

Table 1. Concentrations of metals ($\mu g/L$), pH, and EC (mS/cm) in urban runoff samples.

Table 2. Concentrations of dissolved fraction of metals ($\mu g/L$), pH, and DOC (mg/L) in urban runoff samples.

Table 3. r_s , t , and P values of metals, protons, and EC toward T-Zn concentration errors.

Graphical Abstract

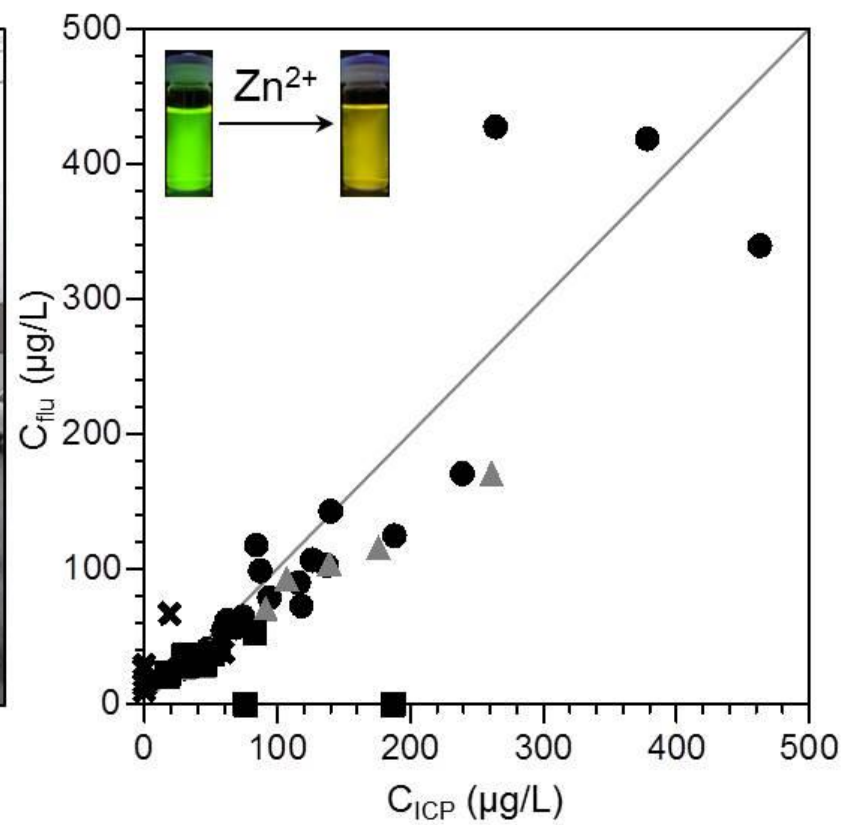
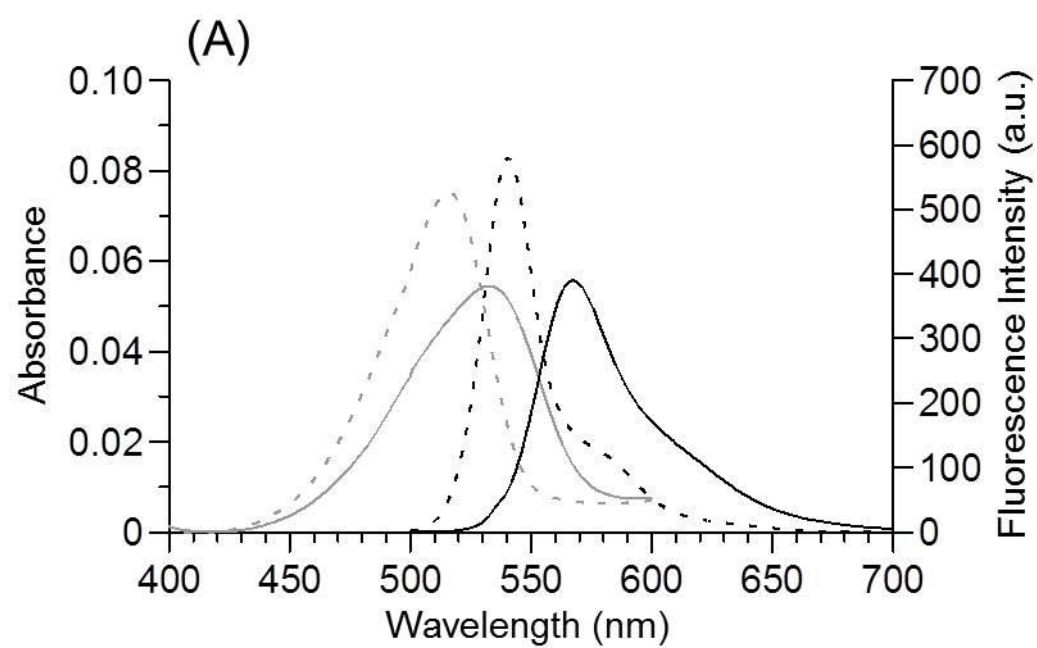


Figure 1.



(B)

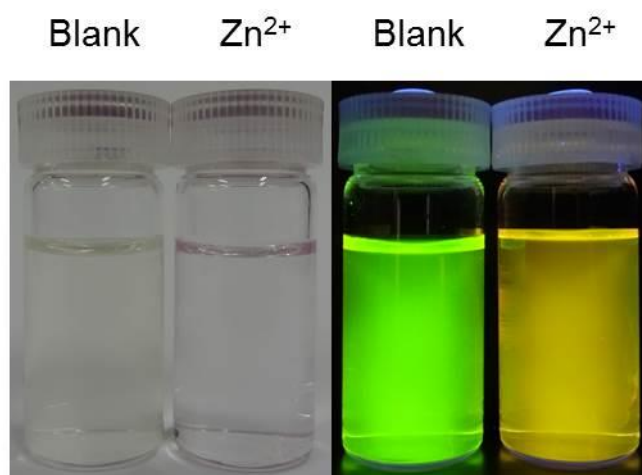


Figure 2.

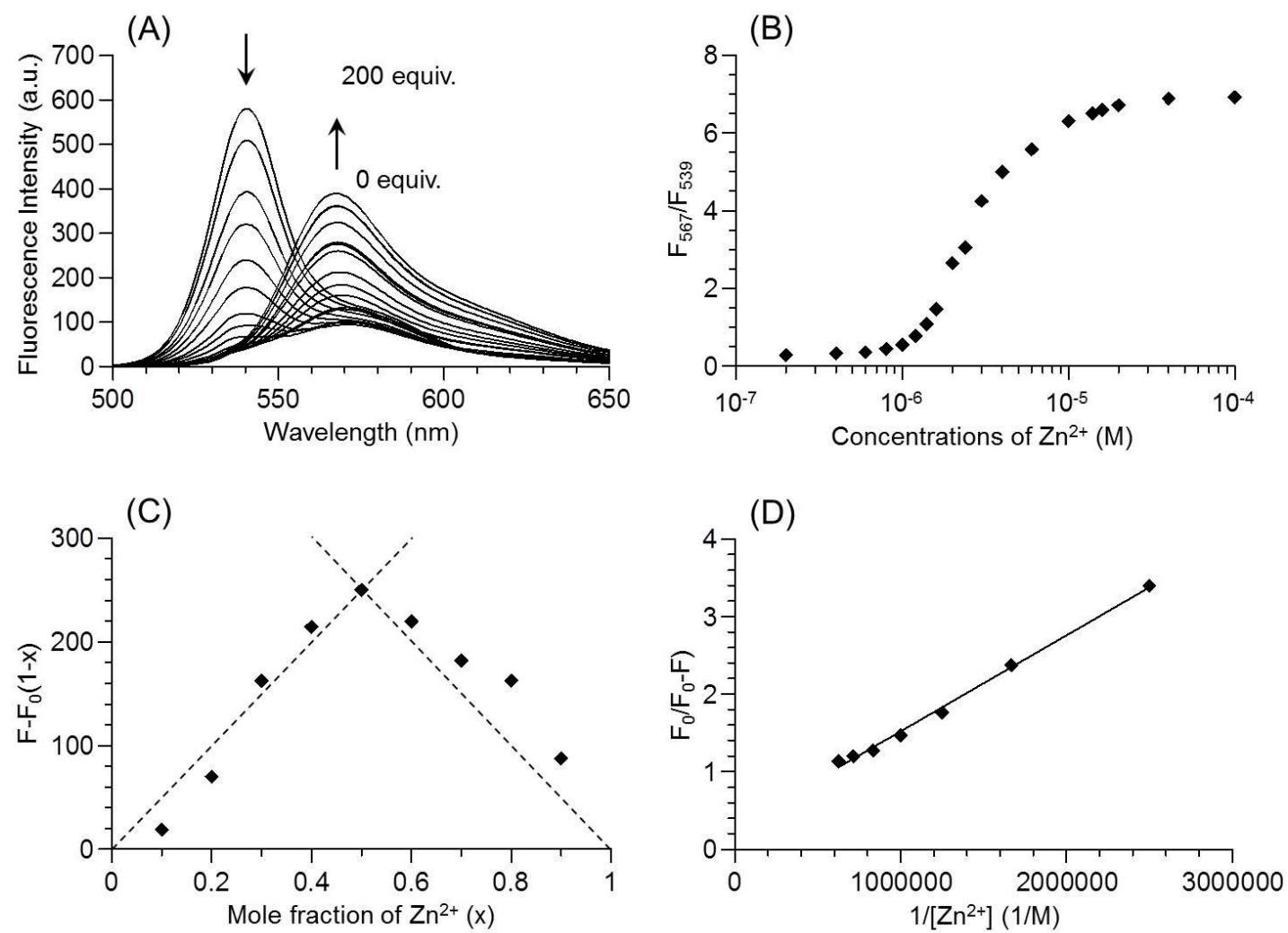


Figure 3.

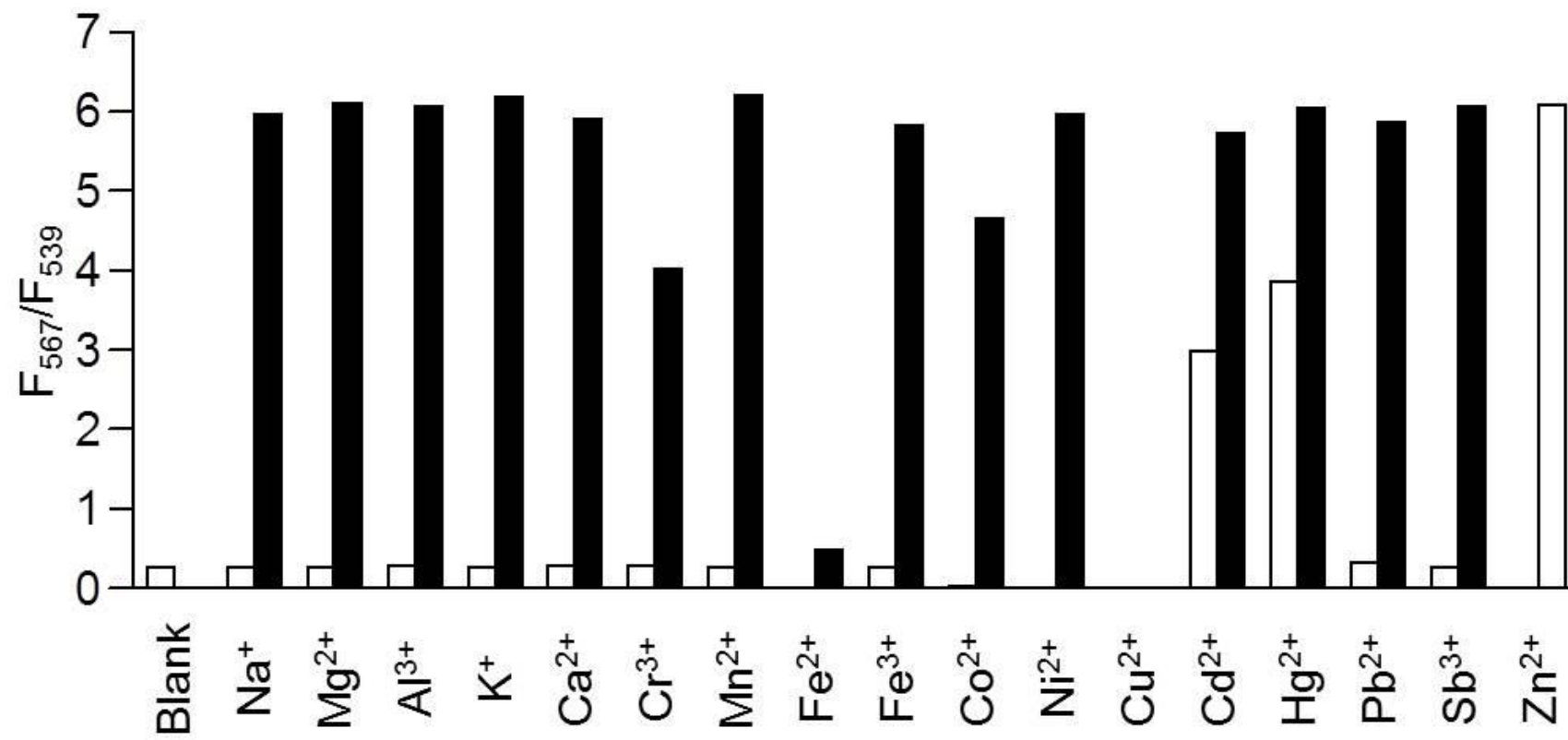


Figure 4.

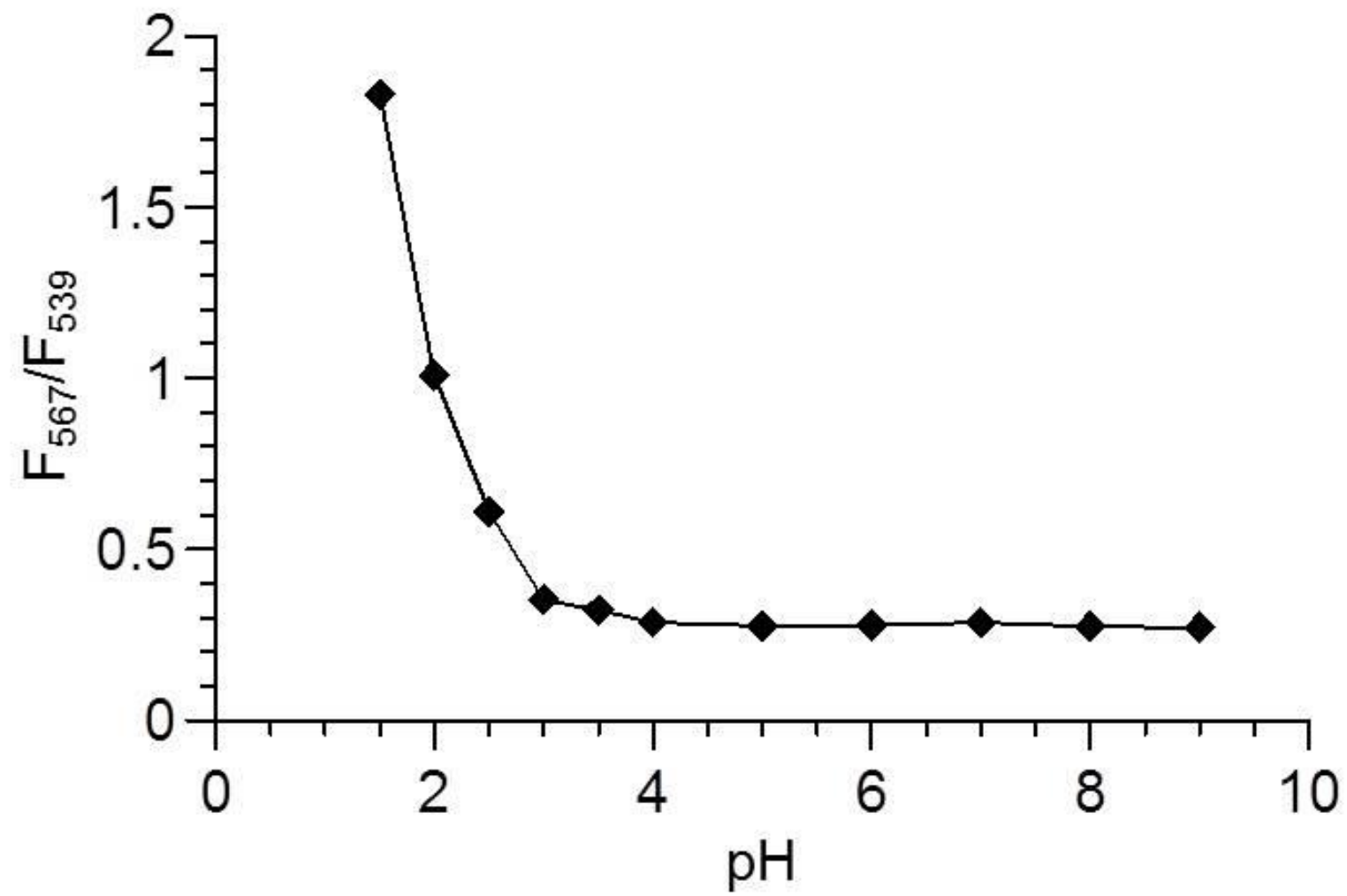


Figure 5.

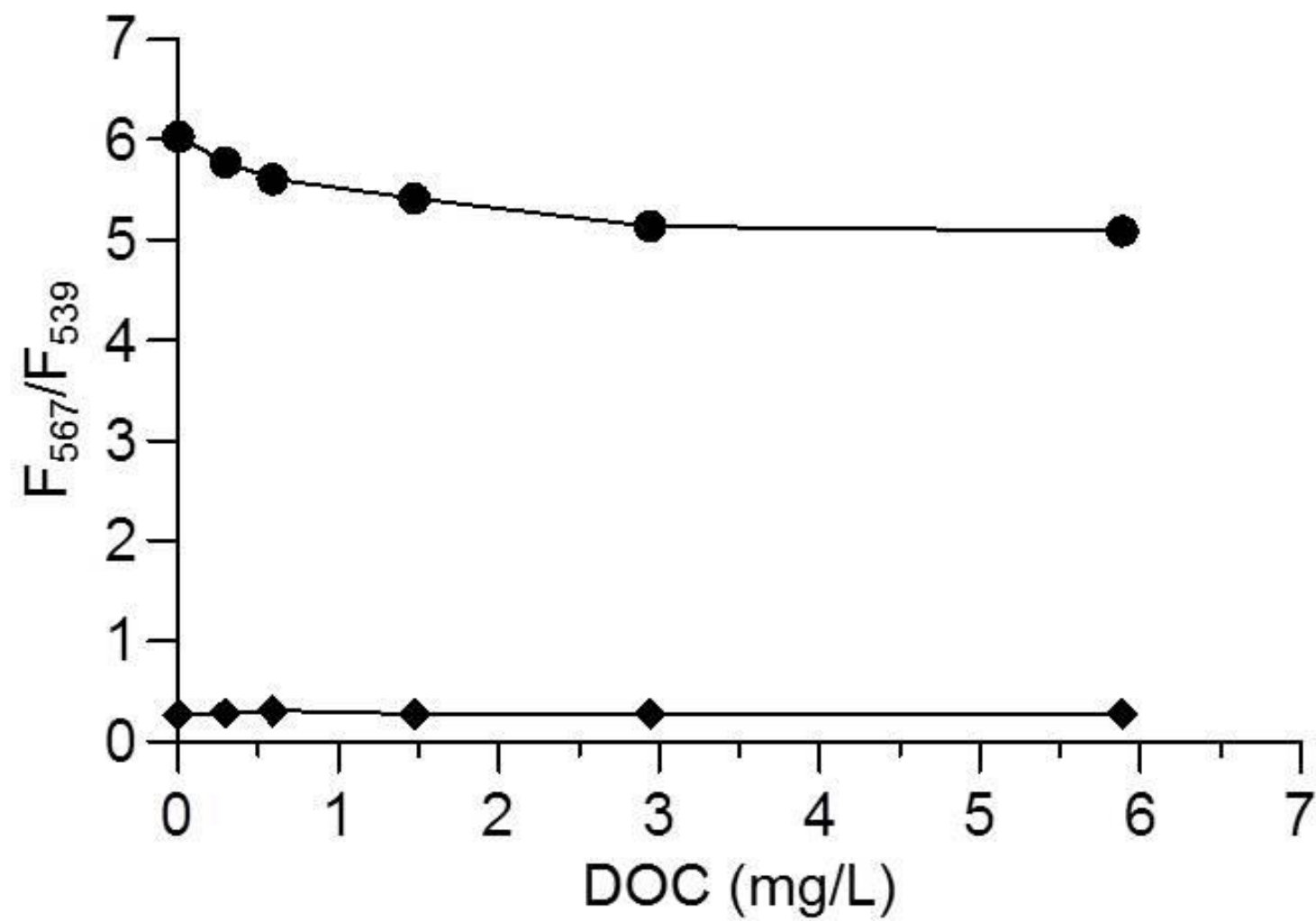


Figure 6.

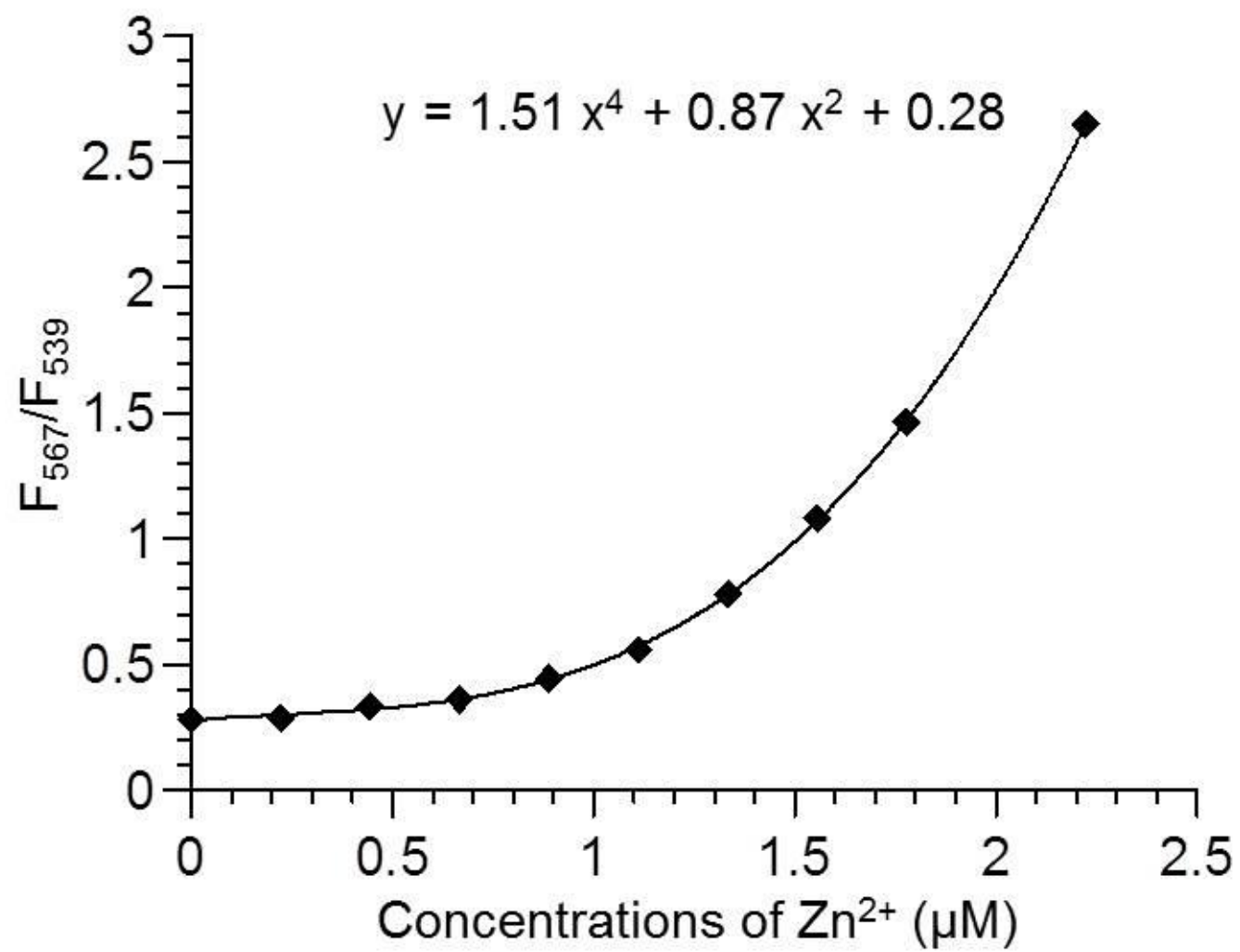


Figure 7..

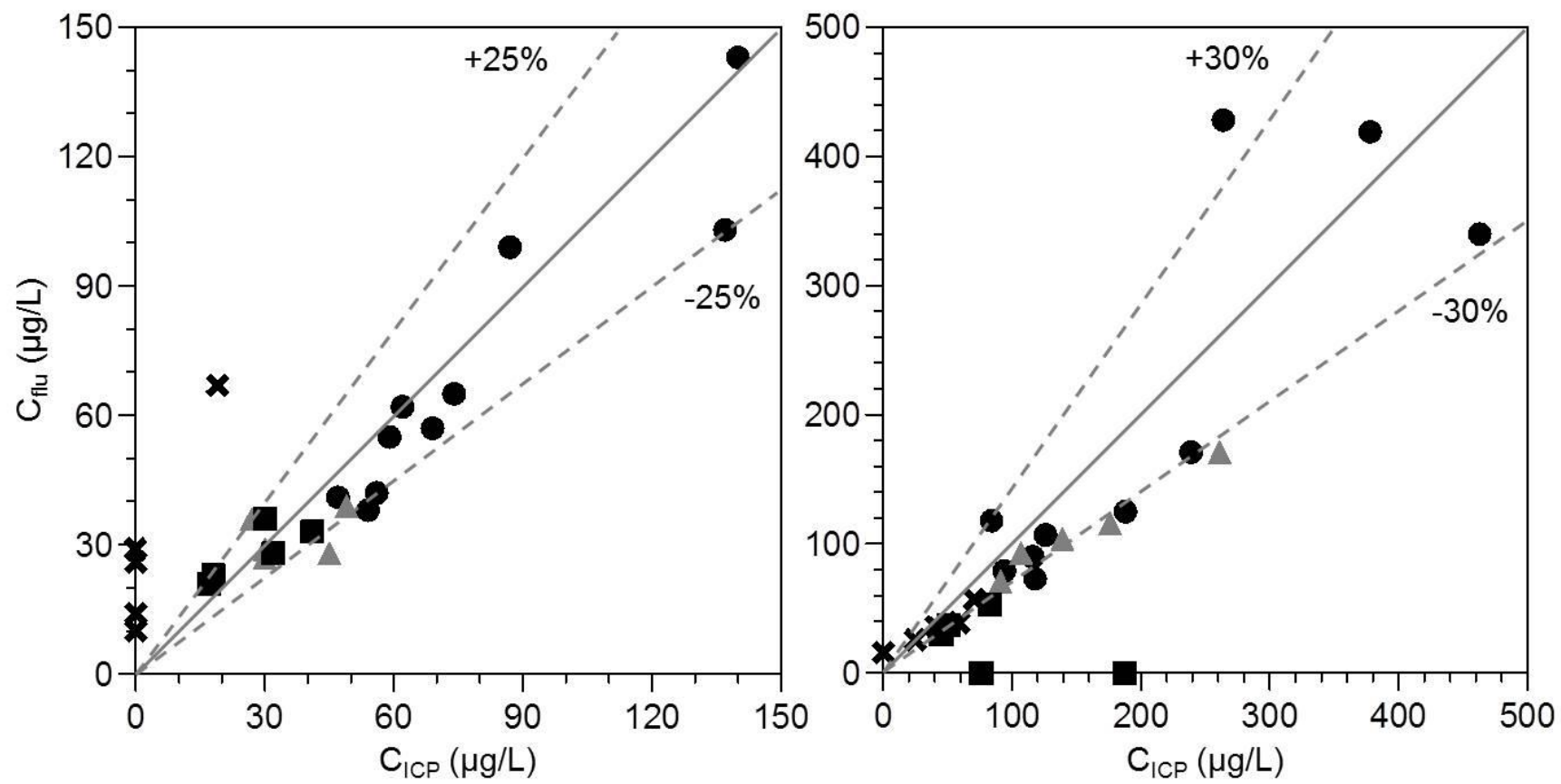


Table 1. Concentrations of metals ($\mu\text{g/L}$), pH, and EC (mS/cm) in urban runoff samples.

City	Sample No.	Zn	Al	Cd	Cr	Cu	Fe	Mn	Ni	Pb	Sb	pH	EC
Osaka	1	264	800	ND	4	122	488	56	13	ND	6	6.92	18.8
	2	126	142	ND	2	60	131	5	5	ND	6	6.80	10.7
	3	116	408	ND	4	ND	413	16	3	14	ND	7.03	19.4
	4	118	317	ND	2	ND	484	26	2	10	ND	6.94	2.0
	5	188	596	ND	5	ND	1026	32	5	11	ND	7.42	1.9
	6	94	119	ND	1	ND	287	15	3	ND	ND	6.76	9.2
	7	239	517	ND	5	36	1016	41	6	ND	6	6.90	10.9
	8	84	233	ND	1	ND	422	15	3	ND	ND	7.42	9.0
	9	378	1071	ND	7	104	2322	64	11	22	7	6.80	9.6
	10	463	1689	ND	9	68	3544	95	11	26	8	6.98	7.7
Tsukuba	1	59	1411	ND	5	ND	1144	31	ND	12	8	6.87	5.0
	2	25	1200	ND	4	ND	1244	34	ND	ND	9	6.90	6.1
	3	ND	367	ND	3	ND	512	18	ND	ND	ND	7.12	5.9
	4	41	1256	ND	4	ND	1433	47	ND	ND	ND	6.72	5.8
	5	71	1093	ND	6	ND	1400	39	ND	ND	7	7.10	6.3
Gifu	1	261	1678	ND	5	420	1944	83	4	12	7	7.20	8.8
	2	176	670	ND	2	158	871	33	2	ND	ND	6.98	8.5
	3	107	728	ND	2	119	784	32	ND	ND	ND	6.98	9.0
	4	91	706	ND	2	711	489	18	ND	10	ND	7.12	8.7
	5	139	971	ND	2	337	946	36	ND	ND	ND	6.56	8.4
East-Hiroshima	1	76	1433	ND	6	78	1478	53	2	16	ND	6.50	10.9
	2	187	2600	ND	10	266	2911	96	4	34	5	7.03	10.8
	3	51	480	ND	2	411	552	20	ND	ND	ND	6.97	9.8
	4	45	534	ND	3	289	574	21	ND	11	4	6.45	11.1
	5	83	580	ND	3	154	574	23	2	ND	5	6.67	10.9

ND: Not detected.

Table 2. Concentrations of dissolved fraction of metals (µg/L), pH, and DOC (mg/L) in urban runoff samples.

City	Sample No.	Zn	Al	Cd	Cr	Cu	Fe	Mn	Ni	Pb	Sb	pH	DOC
Osaka	1	140	158	ND	2	112	54	45	12	ND	7	6.92	59.8
	2	74	ND	ND	1	32	16	4	5	ND	5	6.80	24.3
	3	47	292	ND	2	ND	15	7	2	ND	ND	7.03	2.4
	4	54	720	ND	ND	ND	24	7	2	ND	ND	6.94	1.5
	5	56	126	ND	ND	ND	13	6	2	ND	ND	7.42	1.6
	6	62	ND	ND	ND	ND	22	8	2	ND	ND	6.76	2.7
	7	137	654	ND	2	ND	63	19	4	ND	ND	6.90	10.5
	8	59	81	ND	ND	ND	18	8	3	ND	ND	7.42	9.8
	9	69	ND	ND	ND	70	18	16	7	ND	ND	6.80	32.4
	10	87	ND	ND	ND	ND	14	23	5	ND	6	6.98	15.4
Tsukuba	1	19	ND	ND	4	ND	15	6	ND	ND	5	6.87	0.8
	2	ND	ND	ND	2	ND	13	8	ND	ND	6	6.90	1.5
	3	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	7.12	1.4
	4	ND	ND	ND	2	ND	5	5	ND	ND	5	6.72	1.1
	5	ND	ND	ND	4	ND	9	7	ND	ND	18	7.10	1.2
Gifu	1	45	201	ND	ND	152	99	17	ND	ND	4	7.20	3.3
	2	49	169	ND	ND	73	78	8	ND	ND	6	6.98	2.4
	3	30	284	ND	ND	ND	20	5	ND	ND	ND	6.98	0.9
	4	27	102	ND	ND	ND	36	4	ND	ND	ND	7.12	1.9
	5	30	91	ND	ND	ND	54	3	ND	ND	ND	6.56	0.9
East-Hiroshima	1	41	289	ND	1	20	23	7	ND	ND	ND	6.50	2.7
	2	32	249	ND	1	136	71	8	ND	ND	ND	7.03	7.2
	3	17	85	ND	1	63	17	4	ND	ND	ND	6.97	1.8
	4	18	81	ND	1	22	16	5	ND	ND	ND	6.45	1.7
	5	30	109	ND	1	92	35	7	ND	ND	ND	6.67	11.6

ND: Not detected

Table 3. r_s , t , and P values of metals, protons, and EC toward T-Zn concentration errors.

	Al	Cd	Cr	Cu	Fe	Mn	Ni	Pb	Sb	H ⁺	EC
r_s	0.292	0.000	0.412	0.300	0.281	0.525	0.728	0.519	0.118	-0.180	0.233
t	1.466	0.000	2.168	1.511	1.403	2.961	5.091	2.909	0.568	-0.877	1.150
P	0.156	1.000	0.041	0.144	0.174	0.007	0.000	0.008	0.575	0.389	0.262

For submission to Water Research as a **Research Paper**

Supporting Information

**Application of Fluorescence Spectroscopy Using a Novel Fluoroionophore for
Quantification of Zinc in Urban Runoff**

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Procedure of data analysis for obtaining Spearman rank correlation coefficients

To investigate the interference effects on fluorescence measurements of Zn in
urban runoff samples, Spearman rank correlation coefficients for metals, protons, DOC,
and EC were computed. The procedure for computing the Spearman rank correlation
coefficient is described as follows.

Assume we have n observations, X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n , each of which is the absolute difference between a Zn concentration determined by ICP and that of fluoroionophore. In this study, the number of observations was $n = 25$. Another data set, Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n , is also given, where Y_i is paired with X_i . The data, Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n , were of one of ten metals including Zn, Al, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mn, Ni, Pb, and Sb.

These n data, X_i s and Y_i s, are converted to ranks, x_i s and y_i s, respectively. The Spearman rank correlation coefficient was then defined as:

$$r_s = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}$$

where \bar{x} and \bar{y} are the average of x_i s and y_i s. Because x_i s and y_i s are ranks, the equalities of $\bar{x} = \bar{y} = (n + 1)/2$ are always established.

Spearman rank correlation coefficients are in the range of -1 to $+1$, with correlation coefficients further from zero implying strong relationships between X_i s and Y_i s and those closer to zero indicating weak relationships. However, the absolute correlation coefficients become large when there are few observations, suggesting that the relationships between two variables cannot be discussed based on only the Spearman rank correlation coefficient. Therefore, statistical hypothesis tests were performed to address this issue. If X_i s are statistically independent of Y_i s, the subsequent value follows the Student's t-test distribution with $(n - 2)$ degrees of freedom under some natural assumptions:

$$t = \frac{r_s \sqrt{n - 2}}{\sqrt{1 - r_s^2}}$$

This fact allows us to adopt the t-test using the null hypothesis of no correlation between X_i s and Y_i s. The P-value is then computed from the t-value. The P-value is the

44 probability of the null hypothesis, which quantifies how rare the obtained r_s is under the
45 null hypothesis. Stronger correlations yield a smaller P, and vice versa.

46 The Spearman rank correlation coefficients for proton concentrations, DOC, and
47 EC were obtained in a similar manner.

48