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Glucose plays an extremely important role in organisms, since it is involved in many biological and pathological processes. Glucose transport is the main energy source for organism metabolism, but its breakdown is correlated with the occurrence of renal glycosuria, signal transduction, cell adhesion, cystic fibrosis, diabetes and 48 some cancers in humans.¹⁻⁶ Thus, real-time accurate glucose detection is very important.

At present, the main challenge in diabetes control is how to accurately trace the glucose concentration. Glucose oxidase (GOD) is employed in many sensors for optical and electrochemical glucose determination based on the enzyme-catalyzed 53 oxidation mechanism.⁷⁻¹² However, since these glucose sensors are mostly based on enzymes (e.g. GOD and glucose dehydrogenase), they are faced with inevitable defects: frequent and extremely inconvenient blood sampling, detection discontinuity, harsh test conditions, instability, and limitation to only a few types of glucoses. Nevertheless, these defects in glucose detection can be overcome by using phenylboronic compounds as a recognition receptor. Boric acid and its derivatives, which can bind with glycol via reversible and efficient covalent bonds to form circular borate, can all be used as a molecular probe of biological sensors to identify glucose 61 compounds.^{13, 14} Compared with conventional glucose sensors, the boric-acid- based sensors are more promising with lower cost, higher stability, and reversibility in 63 regeneration. However, the optimal pH for glucose identification is generally \geq the pKa of boric acid and most of its synthetic derivatives (pKa 8-9), which becomes the bottleneck in boric-acid-based glucose detection.

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2. Experimental

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109 method^{19, 33} with minor modification. The specific steps are showed below. First, 5

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110 mL of 0.1 M $Zn(Ac)_2$, 2 mL of 0.01 M $Mn(Ac)_2$, and 50 mL of 0.04 M MPA were added to a three-neck flask. The mixture was adjusted to pH 11 with 1 M NaOH. After 30 min of argon ventilation at room temperature, the mixture was injected with 5 mL 113 of 0.1 M Na₂S via injection. After stirring for 20 min, the solution was aged at 50 °C and open air for 2 h. The resulting QDs were purified successively by precipitation with ethanol, centrifugation, washing with ethanol, and vacuum drying.

2.4. Synthesis of BBV

The synthesis process of BBV from 2-(bromomethyl) phenylboronic acid and $4,4'$ -bipyridyl is showed in Fig. S1. The specific steps are showed below.^{34, 35} First, 4.05 mM 2-(bromomethyl)phenylboronic acid was dissolved into 15 mL of N,N-dimethylfomamide (DMF), which were poured into a 50 mL three-necked bottle equipped with a magnetic stirrer; then the solution was added with 1.6 mM 4,4'-bipyridyl and mixed under argon protection and 70 ℃ for 48 h. Solids were formed after cooling and filtration, and then washed with DMF, acetone and ether successively. The final product BBV was prepared after vacuum-drying. The product 125 was characterized by FT-IR and 1 H NMR.

2.5. Assay conditions and RTP measurement

To study the BBV effect of the MPA-capped Mn-doped ZnS QDs on the RTP 128 intensity, we prepared a 4.0×10^{-5} M mother liquor from BBV. Then different volumes of the mother liquor were added into a phosphate-buffered saline solution (PBS, pH 7.4, 10 mM) to form different BBV solutions. MPA-capped Mn-doped ZnS 131 QDs were dissolved in water to form a 2.0 mg mL^{-1} solution, which (100 μ L) was

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138 **3. Results and discussion**

137 spectrophotometry.

139 3.1. Characterization of the

140 The size of the MPA 141 nm (Fig. S2a). The maximum excitation peak occurred at 295 nm and a narrow 142 emission band was centered at 590 nm: hv_1 is the fluorescence occurring from the 143 surface defect of ZnS QDs; hv_2 is the phosphorescence attributed to the transition of 144 Mn²⁺ from the triplet state $({}^{4}T_{1})$ to the ground state $({}^{6}A_{1})$ (Fig. S2b). As reported, 145 Mn-doped ZnS QDs exhibit an orange phosphorescence emission (about 590 nm), 36 146 which is attributed to the energy transfer from the band gap of ZnS to the dopant Mn^{2+} 147 and the subsequent ${}^{4}T_{1}$ -to- ${}^{6}A_{1}$ transition of the Mn²⁺ incorporated into the ZnS 148 $lattice.³⁷$

149 *3.2. Characterization of the BBV*

The infrared spectra of BBV measured with KBr tablet compression (Fig. S3) 151 show peaks at 3408, 3019, 2962, 1639, 1597/1505, 1448 and 1324 cm⁻¹, which are attributed to the stretching vibrations of O-H, benzonic C-H, -CH2 (asymmetric and symmetric), C=N, benzene ring skeleton, C-N, and B-O (asymmetric), respectively.

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155 The structure of BBV was further characterized via ${}^{1}H$ NMR with Methanol-D4

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3.4. Mechanism of BBV in quenching the RTP of Mn-doped ZnS QDs

181 The quenching of QD with methyl viologen (MV^{2+}) has already been reported.³⁸⁻⁴⁴ This process occurs through an excited-state electron transfer from the QD to the 183 viologen, resulting in the reduced viologen to MV⁺. Viologen is extremely efficient in statically quenching the fluorescence of many organic dyes by forming a complex 185 with fluorophore.^{45, 46} We reason that the RTP of Mn-doped ZnS QDs bears surface polar groups, or that the complex formation with BBV quenchers might similarly quench the carboxy groups. Thus, BBV might quench the RTP of Mn-doped ZnS QDs through the Photoinduced Electron Transfer (PIET) (Fig. 3).

3.5. Detection of Glucose using Mn-doped ZnS QDs/BBV complex

The RTP intensity of the Mn-doped ZnS QDs/BBV was gradually and regularly enhanced with the increase of glucose content (Fig. 4a). Figure 4b illustrates the recovering process of QDs after the addition of glucose. The RTP intensity of the glucose sensor was basically stable after 5 min (Fig. S5b).

In comparison, with the absence of BBV, the increase of glucose content between 0 and 20 mM does not severely change the RTP intensity of separate Mn-doped ZnS QDs (Fig. 4c).

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3.6. Working mechanism between glucose and BBV

The tetrahedral anionic borate formed from glucose and BBV can effectively neutralize the positive charge of BBV, thus largely weakening the electrostatic bonding ability between the MPA-capped Mn-doped ZnS QDs and BBV. As a result, BBV falls off from the Mn-doped ZnS QDs to recover their RTP.

3.7. Characterization of Mn-doped ZnS QDs as RTP probes

Based on these results, a quantitative glucose detection sensor with the use of Mn-doped ZnS QDs RTP was designed. RTP was quenched by the complex formed between BBV and Mn-doped ZnS QDs, but was gradually recovered by adding different contents of glucose into the complex. Under pH 7.4, the RTP recovery rate 215 (RTP/RTP_0) and the glucose concentration are linearly related within modest ranges (Fig. 6).

The linear ranges of glucose concentration are 0-4 mM and 4-16 mM, with the 218 linear equations RTP/RTP₀ = 0.338 C_{glucose} + 1.028 ($R = 0.998$) and RTP/RTP₀ =

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219 0.120 C_{glucose} + 1.877 ($R = 0.993$), respectively. This new sensor has a detection limit 220 (3σ) of 0.09 mM. For systems with 0.4 mM glucose RTP, the relative standard deviation of 11 continuous parallel detections is 2.7%.

This novel sensor outperforms other glucose detection sensors in many aspects. First, no enzyme is required. Second, compared with some fluorescence detection 224 methods, $48-51$ this boric-acid- based sensor is featured with lower cost, higher stability, reversibility in regeneration, and in particular, higher ability in glucose detection at physiological pH 7.4.

Since RTP compared with fluorescence is a rarer phenomenon and thus is more selective during detection. Moreover, RTP has a longer life and can effectively avoid the interference from background fluorescence or scattering light (e.g. from biofluids). RTP detection also does not require any complex pretreatment, such as addition of deoxidant or revulsive. Thus, the RTP method compared with the fluorescence method in Ref. 46 is simpler, more efficient and more stable in real applications. Moreover, since RTP can efficiently avoid the interference of background fluorescence and scattering in biofluids, our method has wide application prospects for glucose detection in biofluids.

4. Conclusions

A sensitive sensor for quantitative glucose detection was designed. BBV was adsorbed via electrostatic attraction onto the surface of MPA-capped Mn-doped ZnS QDs, quenching the phosphorescence of the QDs via PIET and rendering the restore of RTP. With the addition of glucose, BBV intercalated with glucose and was

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Fig. 2 (a) BBV-concentration-dependent RTP emission of 40 mg L⁻¹ MPA-capped 392 Mn-doped ZnS QDs; (b) The change of the RTP intensity with the increase of BBV 393 concentration; (c) The zeta-potential histogram of QDs, BBV/QDs and 394 BBV/GQDs/glucose; (d) The effect of ionic strength on the QDs quenching degree 395 caused by BBV.

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414 **Fig. 4.** (a) Glucose-concentration-dependent RTP emission of the MPA-capped 415 Mn-doped ZnS QDs/BBV; (b) The recovering process of QDs after the addition of 416 glucose**;** (c) Glucose-concentration-dependent RTP emission of the MPA-capped 417 Mn-doped ZnS QDs without BBV.

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Glucose

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433 **Fig. 6.** Plots of RTP/RTP₀ as a function of glucose concentration show two linear 434 ranges. Buffer, 10 mM PBS (pH 7.4); MPA-capped Mn-doped ZnS QDs, 40 mg L^{-1} ; 435 BBV, 1.6 µM. 436

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