Selective Electrochemiluminescent Sensing of Saccharides using Boronic Acid-Modified Coreactant

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We report a strategy for modulating the electrogenerated chemiluminescence (ECL) response by integrating a boronic acid to the chemical structure of coreactants. Excellent selectivity for D-glucose was achieved by tuning the linker length of a bis-boronic acid amine coreactant.

The discovery of electrogenerated chemiluminescence (ECL) in aqueous media has resulted from intense fundamental research on the mechanisms of the phenomenon\(^\text{1-2}\) and has led eventually to important bioanalytical applications including commercialized immunoassays for clinical diagnostics.\(^\text{3-4}\) The corresponding ECL process is based on a reaction cascade initiated at an electrode surface between a tandem system composed of a luminophore and a sacrificial coreactant species. The luminophore reaches the excited state by the highly exergonic reactions with the electrogenerated coreactant radicals. It relaxes then to the ground state by emitting ECL light which is the analytical signal. During the process, the luminophore is regenerated, whereas the coreactant is consumed by the electrochemical reactions. The amount of light generated directly depends on the concentration of the luminophore but also of the coreactant. The luminophore has been used as ECL labels in numerous bioassays\(^\text{5}\) or as molecular probes with different receptor sites.\(^\text{6-11}\) For example, ruthenium and iridium complexes have been modified with crown ether moiety to measure different metal cations.\(^\text{5-9}\) In this case, the role of the coreactant is just to generate efficiently electrochemically suitable radicals with adequate redox potentials and life-times. Another enticing possibility is to detect and to quantify any ECL-active coreactant treated thus as an analyte as its concentration will directly influence ECL intensity. An example of the ECL detection of coreactants is the determination of oxalate and peroxydisulfate. Another class of analytes that may act as coreactants is amines. ECL assays for amine-based compounds find many analytical applications because amine groups are present in a large variety of pharmacologically important compounds such as antibiotics, anti-histamines, opiates, etc.\(^\text{5,12-21}\) However, a major limitation is that the analytes have to be electro-active and also able to generate strong reducing or oxidizing radicals to bring the luminophore to the excited state. So it limits strictly the nature of the possible molecules to detect.

As an alternative strategy, we propose to confer recognition properties to the coreactant by integrating a receptor site to its chemical structure (Scheme 1). The recognition of the target analyte would then modulate its electrochemical properties and the resulting ECL emission of the luminophore. Here, we develop an approach using a boronic acid as the receptor group.

Scheme 1 Chemical structures of the boronic acid based coreactants E0, E3 and E6 and Fluorescent boronic based saccharide sensors F0, F3 and F6.\(^\text{14}\)
We chose the boronic acid receptor group as our first target due to its proven ability to bind saccharides in water.\textsuperscript{15} Model systems providing high ECL efficiency in water consist of the luminophore Ru(bpy)\(^{3+}\) with coreactants such as tri-n-propylamine (TPrA) or 2-(dibutylamino) ethanol.\textsuperscript{16-18} The pursuit of efficient ECL reagents is an intense area of investigation and several groups have studied the ECL mechanism using amine coreactants.\textsuperscript{19} In general, tertiary amines produce ECL emission more efficiently than secondary amines and primary amines, following this order.\textsuperscript{5} Recently, it has been reported that increasing the electrochemical oxidation rate of amines leads to higher ECL efficiency. For instance, ECL emission is amplified with amines bearing electron-donating groups.\textsuperscript{18} In addition, aromatic amines, such as the pyridine ring of NAD\(^+\), the coenzyme of the dehydrogenase enzyme class, do not produce chemiluminescence or ECL with the ruthenium luminophore.\textsuperscript{20} By contrast, NADH, the reduced form of the coenzyme, may generate ECL emission because the aromaticity of the pyridine ring is destroyed and the aliphatic tertiary amine group undergoes ECL emission. Herein, inspired by the remarkable structure/reactivity relationship of this very efficient biomolecule, we designed and prepared a series of amine-based coreactants (EO, E3 and E6) integrating boronic acid function as receptor units (Scheme 1). For the first time, we demonstrated that the recognition of the saccharide modifies both the structure and the reactivity of the coreactant and thus the resulting ECL emission (Fig. 1). With the presented approach, ECL generation depends on target molecules that are electro-inactive and do not to change the conformation of the luminophore as classically performed with molecular probes. Moreover, differential selectivity for D-glucose and D-fructose is achieved by tuning the number of boronic acid groups and the spacer length.

To explore the usefulness of the above strategy, we selected the prototypical Ru(bpy)\(^{3+}\) complex as a luminophore and modified tertiary amines as oxidative-reduction coreactants because such a model system leads very efficiently to strong ECL emission.\textsuperscript{16} As a test case, we designed and prepared compound EO which is similar to the TPrA structure but containing a boronic acid as recognition unit. EO and the other coreactants shown in Scheme 1 (E3 and E6) were synthesised through the alkylation of their corresponding amine using 2-(bromomethyl)phenyl-4,4,5,5-tetramethyl-1,3,2-dioxaborolare (Schemes S1 and S2).

Once isolated, EO electrochemical and ECL properties were investigated by using cyclic voltammetry in PBS solution that contained 10 \(\mu\)M of Ru(bpy)\(^{3+}\) and 0.2 mM of EO (Fig. 2). The coreactant concentration was in excess in comparison to the luminophore, as very classically employed in ECL experiments because it is consumed during the ECL process. As shown in Fig. 2, irreversible oxidation of EO occurred at 0.77 V vs. Ag/AgCl/KCl and the oxidation wave is shifted to lower anodic potentials by 100 mV in comparison to the model TPrA reagent (Fig. S1a). It indicates that the phenylboronic acid group is a better donor than ethyl group. This donor effect makes the molecule much easier to oxidize and can also stabilize the radical cation by charge delocalization.
fructose (Fig. 3a). The same limit values for the ECL intensity and for the current were reached with 200 mM of D-glucose than with 50 mM of D-fructose. Such a difference was expected because the complexation constant of phenylboronic acid with D-fructose is much higher than with D-glucose (110 dm³ mol⁻¹) 15, 23

Therefore, heterogeneous oxidation of the coreactant in the presence of saccharide becomes a very inefficient process that limits drastically the ECL signal. However, even at high D-fructose concentrations where almost all the E0 is bound, we still observe an ECL signal. Since ECL is obtained at the oxidation potential of Ru(bpy)³⁺, the remaining ECL intensity resulted probably from the electrocatalytic mechanism where E0 is homogeneously oxidized by the electrogenerated Ru(bpy)³⁺.

To further assess our approach and to improve the selectivity, we designed and prepared new symmetric tertiary bis amino reagents bearing boronic acid end-groups and having linkers with different lengths (Scheme 1). Previous, research has demonstrated that saccharide selectivity can be achieved in systems with two boronic acid groups. 14-15 We investigated first the properties of the compound E6 with a hexyl linker between both amino groups. The cyclic voltammogram in Fig. S1 a is dominated by the irreversible oxidation waves of the amino moieties at the same potential as TPrA. The peak current is increased by approximately 2.1-fold indicating that both amino groups are simultaneously oxidized. However, the ECL signal is 15% lower with E6 than with TPrA (Fig. S1b), even if two amino groups were oxidized and may participate to the ECL process. This low ECL response is probably related to the lower stability of the electrogenerated dication radicals. The addition of D-fructose or D-glucose induces the decrease of the oxidation current and the shift of the corresponding anodic wave, as reported for E0 (Fig. S5), which resulted in a decrease of the ECL response in the presence of both saccharides (Fig. S5-S6). To further investigate the properties of E6, additional competitive assays were performed. They clearly showed that D-fructose and D-glucose caused notable modification of the current and of the ECL signal (Fig. S7). The detection limits of D-glucose and of D-fructose for E6 were 20 µM and 10 µM, respectively (Fig. S8). Initially, it was somewhat surprising to us that E6 could not discriminate between D-fructose and D-glucose and detect them selectively. However, from our previous fluorescence work for F6 the measured binding constants for D-fructose and D-glucose are very similar 784±44 and 962±70 dm³ mol⁻¹.14 Further electrochemical experiments were performed on to investigate the influence of the linker length on the selective recognition of both saccharides. Fig. 4a presents the results obtained with E3 where the linker between both amino group and the phenylboronic acid moieties is shorter. The cyclic voltammogram showed that the oxidation process of E3 is more complex exhibiting a first anodic wave at 0.87 V vs. Ag/AgCl/KCl and a second at 0.95 V vs. Ag/AgCl/KCl (Fig. 4a). The fact that both waves are partially separated indicates that the electronic communication between both amino groups is not negligible, in contrast to what was observed for E6. Adding D-glucose induces the decrease of the current for both oxidation waves as well as the parallel decrease of the ECL response (Fig. 4b). Remarkably, an invariant voltammetric signal and ECL response (Fig. 4 c-d) was observed for D-fructose, allowing discriminating between both saccharides (Fig. 5). While this result seems quite strange, our observations with similar fluorescence systems14 can help explain the observed selectivity. Since, the binding of F3 with D-fructose is

![Fig. 3](image_url)

**Fig. 3** a) Variation of the normalized ECL peak intensity (triangles) and of the oxidation peak current (dots) for the system Ru(bpy)³⁺/E0 as a function of the concentration of D-glucose (red markers) or of D-fructose (blue markers). b) Correlation between the ECL signals and the peak current corresponding to the E0 oxidation for the addition of different concentrations of D-glucose or of D-fructose.
significantly impaired when compared with the model system $F_0$ evidenced by a 4-fold reduction in binding for D-fructose from $395 \pm 11$ dm$^{-3}$ mol$^{-1}$ for $F_0$ to $95 \pm 9$ dm$^{-3}$ mol$^{-1}$ for $F_3$. However, for D-glucose the binding is enhanced 2-fold from $44 \pm 3$ dm$^{-3}$ mol$^{-1}$ for $F_0$ to $103 \pm 3$ dm$^{-3}$ mol$^{-1}$ for $F_3$.$^{14}$

The proportional decrease of the ECL readout signal with the D-glucose concentration allowed for facile quantification. Finally, the correlation of the ECL variation with the current for $E_3$ confirmed that the oxidation step of the coreactant is the one determining the efficiency of the ECL process.

In summary, we have developed a saccharide selective electrogenerated chemiluminescence (ECL) system that functions in aqueous media. To our knowledge this is the first report of a sensing strategy based on the recognition of the target analyte by the ECL coreactant which directly impacts the CL readout. We achieved excellent D-glucose selectivity by varying the linker length of a bis-boronic acid amine coreactant. Our approach allows manipulating the ECL readout signal with an additional parameter and not by playing only with the structure of the luminophore and the electrode potential. The simplicity of the system ensures that it will find many applications from biological and chemical sensing to incorporation in molecular logic circuits.

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Notes and references


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Fig. 4 Effect of (a-b) D-glucose or (c-d) D-fructose addition on electrochemical oxidation of $E_3$ and on the corresponding ECL responses. Cyclic voltammograms and ECL signals of a PBS solution (pH 7.4) containing 10 mM Ru(bpy)$_3^{2+}$, 0.1 mM $E_3$ and different concentrations of D-glucose or of D-fructose. The arrow indicates increasing concentrations of D-glucose or of D-fructose (0, 0.5, 1, 10 and 50 mM). Experiments were performed on glassy carbon (GC) electrode at a scan rate of 0.1 V s$^{-1}$.

Fig. 5 Variation of the ECL peak intensity for the system Ru(bpy)$_3^{2+}$/$E_3$ as a function of the concentration of D-glucose or of D-fructose.