



Biodegradable nanoprobe based on MnO₂ nanoflowers and graphene quantum dots for near infrared fluorescence imaging of glutathione in living cells

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Abstract

Near infrared (NIR) emitting semiconductor quantum dots can be excellent fluorescent nanoprobe, but the poor biodegradability and potential toxicity limits their application. The authors describe a fluorescent system composed of graphene quantum dots (GQDs) as NIR emitters, and novel MnO₂ nanoflowers as the fluorescence quenchers. The system is shown to be an activatable and biodegradable fluorescent nanoprobe for the “turn-on” detection of intracellular glutathione (GSH). The MnO₂-GQDs nanoprobe is obtained by adsorbing GQDs onto the surface of MnO₂ nanoflowers through electrostatic interaction. This results in the quenching of the NIR fluorescence of the GQDs. In the presence of GSH, the MnO₂-GQDs nanoprobe is degraded and releases Mn²⁺ and free GQDs, respectively. This gives rise to increased fluorescence. The nanoprobe displays high sensitivity to GSH and with a 2.8 μM detection limit. It integrates the advantages of NIR fluorescence and biodegradability, selectivity, biocompatibility and membrane permeability. All this makes it a promising fluorescent nanoprobe for GSH and for cellular imaging of GSH as shown here for the case of MCF-7 cancer cells.

Keywords NIR · GSH · GQD · Bioimaging · Carbon nanoparticle · Manganese dioxide · Biodegradability · Nanoprobe · Redox reaction

Introduction

Glutathione (GSH, L-γ-glutamyl-L-cysteinyl-glycine) is the most abundant cysteine-containing tripeptide thiol (1–10 mM) in cells. It acts as an antioxidant and defender against free radicals, playing a crucial role in the cellular redox homeostasis [1, 2]. Abnormal GSH concentrations have been proved to be related with many diseases, such as cancer,

Parkinson’s disease, aging, cystic fibrosis and heart problems [3, 4]. Thus, it is considerable to develop applicable methods for monitoring the intracellular GSH levels in living cells.

Fluorometric assays have gained increasing attention for their good reproducibility, high sensitivity, in situ monitoring, real-time spatial image, and non-damaging detection [5–8]. Lots of fluorescent probes based on organic fluorophores have been utilized to sense the intracellular GSH in living cells [9, 10]. However, these fluorescent probes are not applicable for the long-term assays due to such defects as easy photobleaching, poor photostability, low tissue penetration depth and quick renal clearance. NIR fluorescence nanomaterials [11, 12] have attracted significant attention due to their outstanding properties, such as good photostability, deep tissue penetration, good membrane permeability, and reduced autofluorescence, which can effectively avert the renal filtration and help to realize the long-term assays with improved signal-to-noise ratio in living cells and vivo. Quite a few of NIR nanomaterials have been developed for the detection in biological samples. Notably, NIR semiconductor quantum dots (QDs), demonstrating excellent optical properties, have been widely utilized [13–15]. However, due to the concerns of the biodegradability and the

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potential toxicity of degradation by-products (including heavy metals), the semiconductor QDs have suffered great hindrance in the clinical translation [16, 17]. Therefore, it is imperative to constitute a biocompatible NIR nanosystem for the long-term assays. Alternatively, NIR carbon quantum dots (CQDs) [18–20], including the graphene quantum dots (GQDs) [21] would be the ideal NIR fluorescence nanomaterials, due to the characteristics, such as ultra-small size, non-blinking fluorescence, photostability, aqueous solubility, biocompatibility, photostability and NIR fluorescence emission.

In addition, biodegradable nanoquencher is also a vital component to fabricate the biocompatible “turn-on” NIR nanoprobe. As is well-known, manganese dioxide (MnO_2) nanomaterial is an outstanding quencher [22–24] and can be biodegraded to be Mn^{2+} upon reduction from GSH [25–29]. Zhang group [29] integrated two-photon (TP) mesoporous silica associated with MnO_2 nanosheets, achieving the TP detection of GSH. However, the size and morphology of the above-mentioned MnO_2 were irregular and heterogeneous, which maybe tend to cause the poor reproducibility in vivo analysis. In addition, the used fluorescent nanoprobe were not easy to biodegrade to be the small quantum dots (<5 nm) or chemical molecules, impeding the quick renal clearance. Apparently, it is very significant for facilitating biodegradable “turn-on” NIR nanoprobe of GSH to synthesize uniformed MnO_2 nanomaterials functionalized with NIR GQDs.

We have fabricated activatable and biodegradable NIR fluorescent nanoprobe for intracellular GSH, with the NIR GQDs as the fluorescence reporters and the MnO_2 nanoflowers as the quenchers (Scheme 1). First, the novel MnO_2 nanoflowers were synthesized through the redox reaction of carbon and KMnO_4 (Scheme 1a). Such strategy of taking advantage of the carbon nanoparticle as both reactant and template proposed a novel approach toward the growth of uniformed MnO_2 nanostructures. Then, MnO_2 nanoflowers were linked with the NIR GQDs by electrostatic interaction, effectively quenching the NIR fluorescence of GQDs and achieving low background fluorescence for the MnO_2 -GQDs nanoprobe. In the presence of GSH, the MnO_2 -GQDs nanoprobe was degraded to Mn^{2+} ions and free GQDs,

leading to the fluorescence recovery of NIR GQDs. Such nanoprobe showed high sensitivity to target GSH. It also exhibited high selectivity, good biocompatibility and excellent membrane permeability, making it a promising nanoprobe for detecting and imaging GSH in living cells.

Experimental section

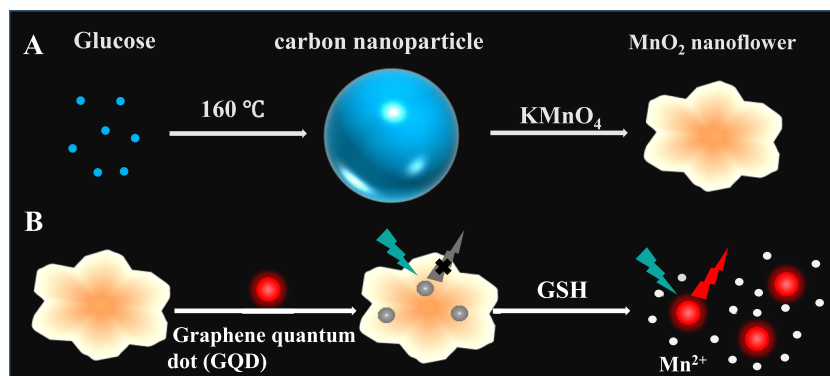
Chemicals

N,N-Dimethyldodecylamine, thiophene-3-boronic acid, 4-bromobenzyl bromide, tetrakis (triphenylphosphine) palladium (0) and polyoxyethylenestearyl ether (MW = 4000) were purchased from Alfa Aesar (<http://chemicals.thermofisher.cn>). Na_2CO_3 , MgSO_4 , CH_2Cl_2 , CH_3OH , FeCl_3 , NaH_2PO_4 , Na_2HPO_4 , CHCl_3 , diethyl, EtOH, methanol, L-glutathione (GSH), glucose, KMnO_4 , N-methylmaleimide (NMM) and α -lipoic acid (LPA) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich Chemical Co (<http://www.sigmaaldrich.com>). RPMI-1640 medium, penicillin streptomycin solution, and fetal bovine serum were obtained from Hyclone. Cysteine (L-Cys) and homocysteine (Hcy) were purchased from Adamas-beta (<http://www.tansoole.com>). Tris-HCl buffer solutions (containing Tris, 100 mM NaCl, and 2 mM MgCl_2 , pH 7.4) and phosphate buffered saline (PBS, containing 0.9% NaCl, pH 7.4) were utilized as working solutions. Human breast cancer cells (MCF-7) were purchased from Guangzhou Cellcook Biotech Co., Ltd., (Guangzhou, China). All other chemicals were of analytical grade and purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China, <https://www.sinoreagent.com>). Double-distilled water (resistivity >18 $\text{M}\Omega\cdot\text{cm}$) obtained from a Milli-Q water purification system was used throughout.

Preparation of MnO_2 Nanoflowers

The MnO_2 Nanoflowers were prepared by hydrothermal treatment with the carbon nanoparticles as templates. First, 0.5 g of glucose was dissolved in 10 mL water, and then the solution was transferred to an autoclave and maintained at 160 °C for

Scheme 1 a Schematic illustration of the synthesis of MnO_2 nanoflower. b Schematic illustration of the MnO_2 -GQDs nanoprobe for the detection of GSH



4 h in oven to synthesize carbon nanoparticles around 100 ± 10 nm. Then, the achieved carbon nanoparticles were collected by centrifugation and washed thoroughly with water for 4 times and then re-dispersed in 5 mL water for further experiments. In order to guarantee the thorough oxidation of carbon nanoparticles, we added rather excess KMnO_4 and took long reaction time for a complete reaction between KMnO_4 and carbon. 3.5 mL of the above solution was mixed with 11.5 mL of KMnO_4 aqueous solution (0.3 M). After being stirred for 15 min, the mixture was added into an autoclave followed by being sealed and maintained at 160°C for 3 h in oven. After cooling, MnO_2 nanoflowers were collected by centrifugation and washed with water for 2 times. In order to improve the stability and dispersibility of MnO_2 nanoflowers, 1 wt% polyoxyethylenestearyl ether (MW = 4000) was added to the above solution and sonicated for 15 min. Then the mixture solution was washed with water for 2 times to through centrifugation to remove the free polyoxyethylenestearyl ether. Finally, $600 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ MnO_2 nanoflowers were gained by re-dispersing them in water and stored at 4°C for further experiment. The concentration of MnO_2 nanoflowers was tested by the Optima 8000 ICP-MS (PerkinElmer), as well as the UV-2450 UV-vis spectrophotometer (Shimadzu).

Synthesis of MnO_2 nanosheets

The process was similar with that of MnO_2 nanoflowers but without the templates of carbon nanoparticles. Briefly, 11.5 mL of 0.03 M KMnO_4 solution was added into an autoclave followed by being sealed and maintained at 160°C for 3 h in oven. After cooling, the MnO_2 nanosheets were collected by centrifugation and washed with water for 4 times. Then MnO_2 nanosheets were re-dispersed in water and stored at 4°C for further use.

Synthesis of GQDs

The GQDs were synthesized by hydrothermal treatment of polythiophene (PT2) according to previous report by Wang's group [21], in which the sheet-like structures of PT2 turned to be nanodots and the hydrophilic groups spread out to improve the solubility. PT2 shows poor solubility in water, but after the hydrothermal treatment the GQDs product displays commendable solubility in water. Moreover, along with the carbonization of PT2 polymers to water-dispersible nanodots, the GQDs product showed red shift of the fluorescence emission. In brief, 15 mg PT2 was dispersed in 20 mL of NaOH solution (0.5 mM), with a subsequent ultrasonication for about 30 min. The mixture was then removed into a Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave and reacted at 170°C for 24 h in oven. After cooling to the room temperature, the reaction product obtained above was filtered through $0.22 \mu\text{m}$ pore-diameter membranes and then filtrate was dialysed against water. Then, the

GQDs were collected by centrifugation. Finally $3 \mu\text{M}$ GQDs was gained by re-dispersing them in water and stored at 4°C for further experiment.

Preparation of MnO_2 -GQD nanoprobe

0.5 mL MnO_2 (1.2 mg mL^{-1}) were mixed with 0.5 mL GQDs ($3 \mu\text{M}$) for about 10 min, following by ultrasonic treatment for 5 min. Then MnO_2 -GQDs nanoprobe was obtained for the later experiment.

MnO_2 -GQDs nanoprobe for the analysis of GSH in vitro

For the analysis of GSH in vitro, 10 μL MnO_2 -GQDs solution were mixed with 90 μL GSH in Tris-HCl buffer solutions (20 mM Tris, 100 mM NaCl, and 2 mM MgCl_2 , pH 7.4) and reacted for 8 min before fluorescent analysis. Finally, the analytical solution was detected through F-7000 fluorescence spectrometer with excitation at 480 nm, and the resulted fluorescence peak intensity at 660 nm was read out and analyzed for the detection of GSH.

Confocal microscopy imaging

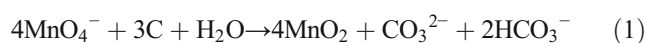
Human breast cancer cells (MCF-7) were employed to investigate intracellular GSH levels in cancer cells. MCF-7 cells were purchased from Guangzhou Cellcook Biotech Co., Ltd., (Guangzhou, China). MCF-7 cells were cultured at 37°C in RPMI 1640 culture medium mixed with 10% premium fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% penicillin-streptomycin in a 5% CO_2 environment. In the proliferative period, MCF-7 cells were cultured in a 3 cm optical culture dish with MnO_2 -GQDs nanoprobe at 37°C in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere for 3 h. After discarding the culture medium, the cells were washed three times with 1 mL of Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline (DPBS, Gibco) (pH 7.4, containing 137.9 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 8.1 mM Na_2HPO_4 , 1.5 mM KH_2PO_4 , 0.9 mM CaCl_2 and 0.5 mM MgCl_2). And then 1 mL of culture medium was added for subsequently cell imaging. The cellular images were performed with a Leica TCS SP5 inverted confocal microscope using a $20\times$ objective. The excitation source for MnO_2 -GQDs nanoprobe was 488 nm, and a 620–700 nm band-pass filter was utilized for fluorescent signal detection.

Results and discussion

Synthesis and characterization of MnO_2 nanoflower and GQDs

The novel MnO_2 nanoflower was synthesized with the prefabricated carbon nanoparticle as templates and followed

by hydrothermal treatment. As shown in Scheme 1, the carbon nanoparticle is synthesized by hydrothermal treatment at first and then served as both the template and reductant to fabricate the MnO₂ nanoflower in situ. Notably, the synthesis of MnO₂ nanoflower is based on the redox reaction between carbon and KMnO₄ as Eq. 1 [30]. To verify the feasibility of such strategy, Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and scanning transmission electron microscopy (SEM) was utilized to depict the morphological structure. In Fig. S1A (in the Supporting Information), the generated carbon nanoparticles exhibit highly uniform spherical nanostructure. In Fig. 1, as measured from TEM and SEM images, the MnO₂ nanoflowers demonstrate highly uniform nanoflower structure and the average size is about 70 ± 9 nm (the number of nanoparticles for calculation $n = 150$). Dynamic light scattering (DLS) characterization further certified the average size (Fig. S1B). Moreover, Raman spectroscopy further certified the successful synthesis of MnO₂ (Fig. S1C), in which the two marked peaks of MnO₂ at around 565 cm⁻¹ and 640 cm⁻¹ were characterized. Briefly, the carbon nanoparticle confines the growth reaction of MnO₂ specifically to the surface, giving rise to be macroscopically uniform and well-constructed. As a contrast, without the carbon nanoparticles as templates and reactants, the irregular MnO₂ nanosheets were synthesized (Fig. S1D), which certified the importance of carbon nanoparticles for the fabrication of MnO₂ nanoflowers.



NIR QDs were synthesized by hydrothermal treatment. As shown in Fig. S2, the QGDs product displays commendable solubility and NIR fluorescence in water. TEM (Fig. 1c) was also utilized to depict the morphological structure of QGDs, showing the size distribution around 4 ± 2 nm ($n = 120$). DLS measurement further certified the average size of the QGDs (Fig. S3A). Fig. S3B displays the UV-vis absorption and fluorescence spectrum of the QGDs aqueous solution, demonstrating the broad absorption ranging from 400 to 700 nm, and the NIR emission peak at around 660 nm ($\lambda_{\text{ex}} = 480$ nm). The

QGDs possessed large Stokes shift and strong NIR fluorescence, which helped to achieve the high-resolution fluorescent imaging with low autofluorescence interference and increase penetration depth in living cells and tissues.

Feasibility of MnO₂-QGDs nanoprobe for the analysis of GSH

To investigate the feasibility of MnO₂-QGDs nanoprobe, the optical properties including UV-vis absorption and fluorescence emission were tested. In Fig. 2a, the QGDs demonstrate strong fluorescence emission peak at 660 nm with excitation at 480 nm, while MnO₂ nanoflowers shows the maximum absorption wavelength at UV region. In fact, MnO₂ nanoflowers has wide absorbance from UV-vis to NIR region. Although the absorbance intensity of low concentration of MnO₂ at NIR region is weak, it can be enhanced obviously with the increase of MnO₂ concentration. MnO₂ nanoflowers possess wide UV-vis absorption spectrum, which is overlapping highly with the fluorescent emission spectrum of QGD. Therefore, the fluorescence of QGDs tends to be effectively quenched by the MnO₂ nanoflowers. The fluorescence emission spectra further verified the reduction of MnO₂ nanoflowers in the presence of GSH. As seen from Fig. 2b, the fluorescence of QGDs is quenched obviously with the formation of MnO₂-QGDs nanoprobe. When GSH was added to the nanoprobe, the fluorescence of QGDs recovered quickly, demonstrating the successful release of free QGDs from MnO₂-QGDs nanoprobe along with the reduction of MnO₂ nanoflowers to Mn²⁺ (Eq. 2) [51]. The telegraphs further declared the efficient degradation of MnO₂, in which the brown MnO₂ solution turned into be colorless in the presence of GSH (Fig. S3C). Moreover, the X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (Fig. S4) were also used. QGDs had obvious O (1 s) and C (1 s) peak, while MnO₂-QGDs showed additional Mn (2p) peak, indicating the corresponding formation of MnO₂-QGDs. The apparent zeta potential measurement was further utilized to testify the feasibility (Fig. S5). QGDs, owning

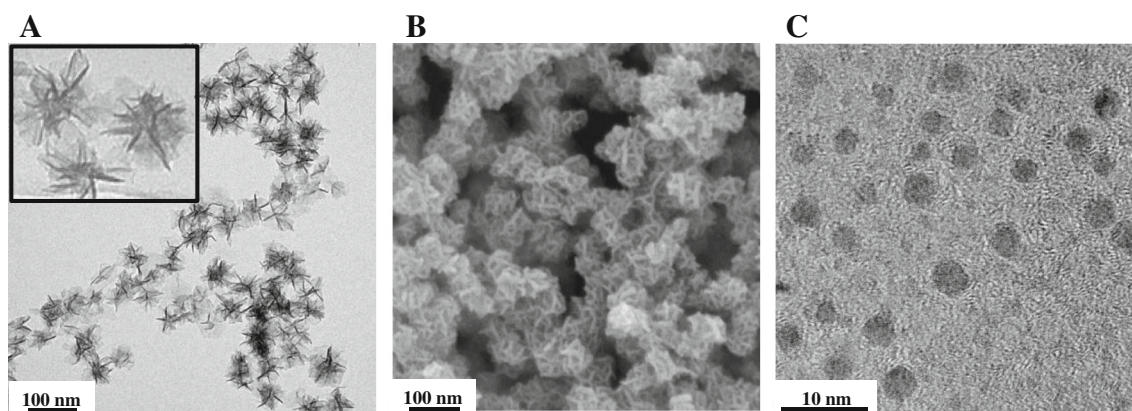


Fig. 1 a TEM image of MnO₂ nanoflowers. Inset shows the amplifying image. b SEM image of MnO₂ nanoflowers. c TEM image of QGDs

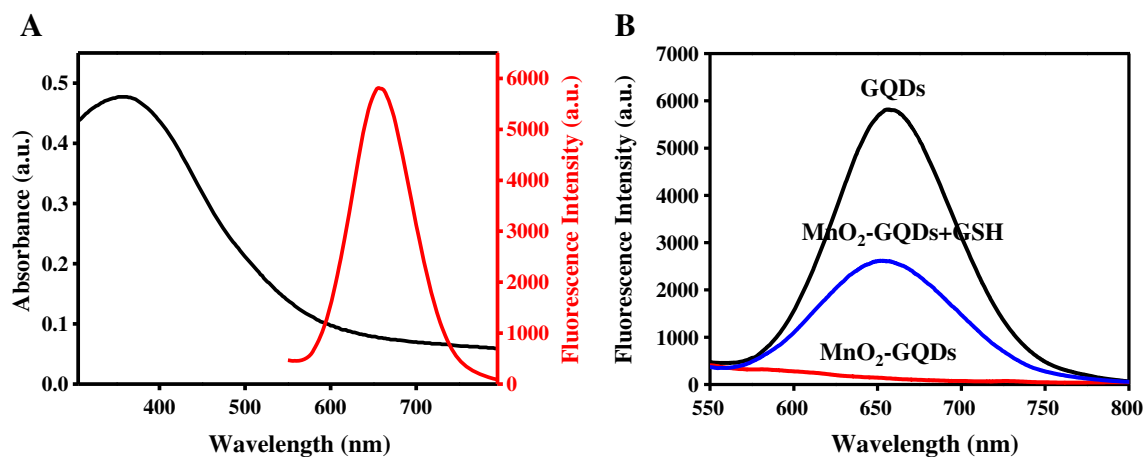
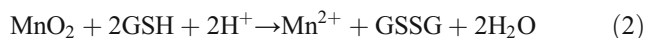


Fig. 2 a UV-vis absorption spectrum of MnO₂ nanoflowers (black line) and the fluorescence emission spectrum of the GQDs (red line). b Fluorescence emission spectra of the GQDs (black line), MnO₂-GQDs

(red line) and MnO₂-GQDs with 1 mM GSH added (blue line) (Excitation wavelength (Ex) at 480 nm; Emission wavelength (Em) at 660 nm)

abundant quaternary amine groups, showed positive apparent zeta potential at around +38 mV, while MnO₂ nanoflowers possessed ample hydroxyl groups and showed negative potential at around -43 mV. Reasonably, MnO₂-GQDs displayed intermediate potential at around +5.52 mV, while in the presence of target GSH, MnO₂-GQDs exhibited positive potential at around +26.6 mV due to the generation of free GQDs. All the measurements demonstrated that MnO₂-GQDs nanoprobe was suitable to detect GSH.



Stability of the nanoprobe

It is vital for the ideal fluorescence nanoprobe to detect the target with stable fluorescence performance. In Fig. S6, GQDs display outstanding fluorescence stability even after storage for three months at room temperature. Additionally, the fluorescence stability of the MnO₂-GQDs nanoprobe at different pH was tested (Fig. S7A), which showed almost constant fluorescence intensity from pH 6.8 to 8.4 with the addition of 1 mM GSH, suggesting the super stability in different pH conditions. The fluorescence stability of the nanoprobe in different media was further investigated. In Fig. S7B, the fluorescence intensity of the nanoprobe (with 1 mM GSH added) still shows no obvious changes in different media (H₂O, Tris-HCl and phosphate buffer), demonstrating the commendable stability in different conditions.

Analysis of GSH

We then investigated the analytical capabilities of the MnO₂-GQDs system for GSH activity. In Fig. S8, the quenching efficiency of GQDs with different concentrations of MnO₂ nanoflowers is displayed, and a Stern-Volmer (SV) plot

indicates both static and dynamic quenching mechanisms work in the method. [31] Furthermore, when the concentration of MnO₂ was 60 μg mL⁻¹ (GQDs, 0.15 μM), the MnO₂-GQDs platform demonstrated the highest fluorescence sensitivity (Fig. S8). Figure 3 exhibits the fluorescence emission spectra of the MnO₂-GQDs system upon adding different concentrations of target GSH. With the increasing concentration of GSH (from 0 mM to 10 mM) added to the solutions, a gradually increased fluorescence response was observed. The plots of relative fluorescence intensity with different GSH concentrations are shown in Fig. 3b. The fluorescence emission intensity at 660 nm shows a relationship to the concentration of GSH (0 mM to 10 mM). Figure 3b inset shows the line correction between the relative fluorescence intensity of MnO₂-GQDs nanoprobe and the GSH concentration, ranging from 10 to 500 μM. The linear equation is $F/F_0 = 22.72 [\text{GSH}] + 0.7803$ (correlation coefficient $R^2 = 0.9971$). The calculated detection limit of GSH was 2.8 μM based on the 3σ rule.

The reaction kinetics were further studied (Fig. S9). Upon the GSH (1 mM) was added to the mixed solution, the fluorescence intensity of the MnO₂-GQDs nanoprobe instantly showed an increase and achieved a stable value in several minutes, which demonstrated the reduction of MnO₂ to Mn²⁺ by GSH led to the recovery of fluorescence accompanied with the release of free GQDs from MnO₂ surface. Moreover, with biodegradable performance and rapid response for the target and such nanoprobe would be capable for the bioanalysis and rapid test.

Selectivity

The selectivity is a key factor for the nanoprobe to detect the target in complex practical biological samples. Some reactive species including metal ions and biomolecules

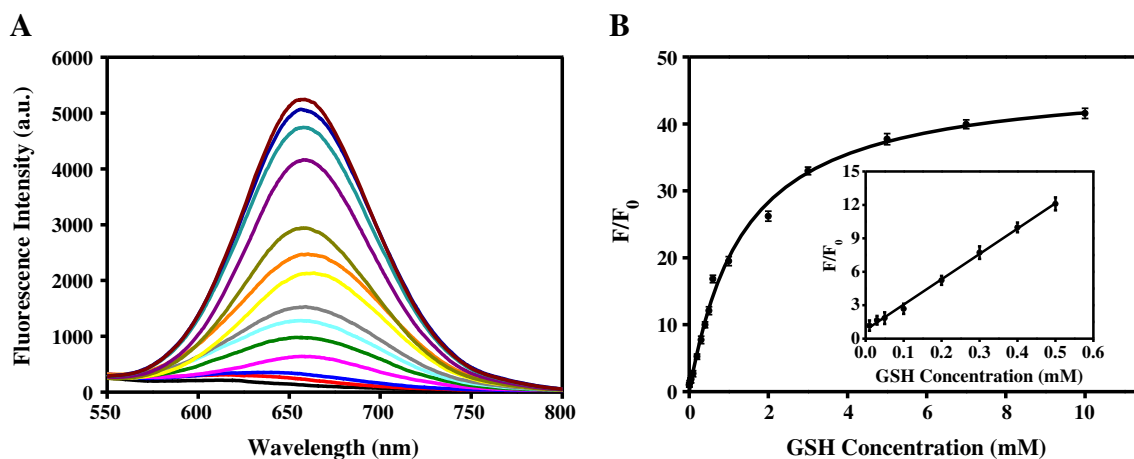


Fig. 3 MnO_2 -GQDs fluorescence method for the detection of GSH. **a** Fluorescence-emission spectra of MnO_2 -GQDs after incubation with different concentrations of GSH, ranging from 0 to 10 mM. **b** The relationship between F/F_0 and the target concentration. Inset shows the

linear responses at low GSH concentrations (F_0 and F are the fluorescence intensity without and with GSH, respectively). Error bars denote the standard deviation ($N=4$)

generally exist in physiological environment, which would influence the reactive activity of the nanoprobe. To test its specificity for GSH, we challenged the nanoprobe with interfering species containing NaCl, KCl, CaCl_2 , MgCl_2 , MnSO_4 , NaHCO_3 , PBS, FeCl_3 , FeSO_4 , glucose, BSA, Glu, Gys, Gly and GSH (Fig. 4). Markedly higher recovery fluorescence was observed with the target GSH than with the other interfering species, which clearly demonstrated the fine specificity of the MnO_2 -GQDs nanoprobe for GSH. The fluorescent response of the nanoprobe for thiol-containing molecules such as L-Cys and Hcy were also measured (Fig. 4). These thiol-containing molecules in the millimolar range can react with the nanoprobe and trigger obvious fluorescent increase in vitro. However, their physiological level ($\sim\mu\text{M}$ level) is generally much

lower than that of GSH ($\sim\text{mM}$ level) in vivo, which indicates that the interfering effects of thiol-containing molecules in cell should be negligible. Therefore, this developed nanoprobe is practical for the detection and imaging of intracellular GSH, which is the amplest thiol-containing molecule in living cells.

Cytotoxicity

Biocompatibility is a key factor for an intracellular nanoprobe system. The cytotoxicity of the MnO_2 -GQDs nanoprobe was tested by MTS assay in MCF-7 cells added with different concentrations of nanoprobe ($0\text{--}80\ \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$). As shown in Fig. 5, no obvious cytotoxicity for the cancer cells is observed, which demonstrates that the MnO_2 -GQDs nanoprobe possesses good biocompatibility.

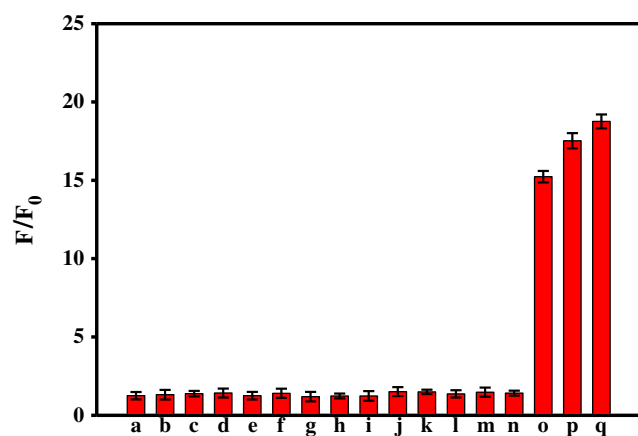


Fig. 4 Selectivity of the MnO_2 -GQDs nanoprobe for GSH over other biomolecules (the concentrations of GSH, L-Cys and Hcy is 1 mM, and other agents are 100 mM, respectively). (a, NaCl; b, KCl; c, CaCl_2 ; d, MgCl_2 ; e, MnSO_4 ; f, NaHCO_3 ; g, PBS (pH 7.4); h, FeCl_3 ; i, FeSO_4 ; j, glucose; k, BSA; l, Glu; m, Gys; n, Gly; o, L-cys; p, Hcy; q, GSH). F_0 and F are the fluorescence intensity without and with GSH, respectively. Error bars denote the standard deviation; $N=4$

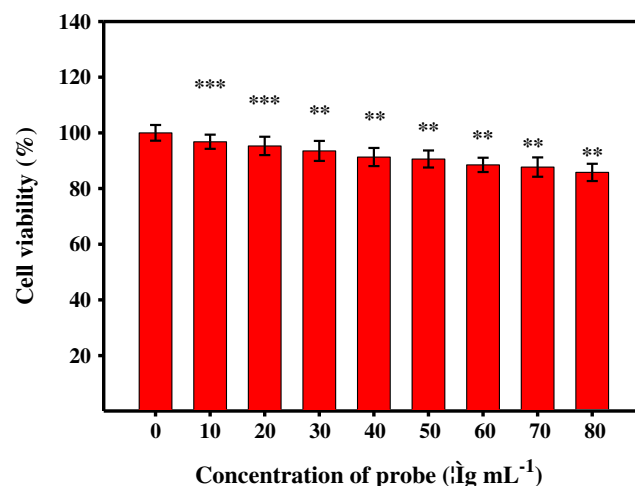


Fig. 5 Cytotoxicity assay of MCF-7 cells treated with MnO_2 -GQDs nanoprobe. Error bars denote the standard deviation ($N=4$). Statistical analysis was calculated through the Student's two-tailed t-test (** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$)

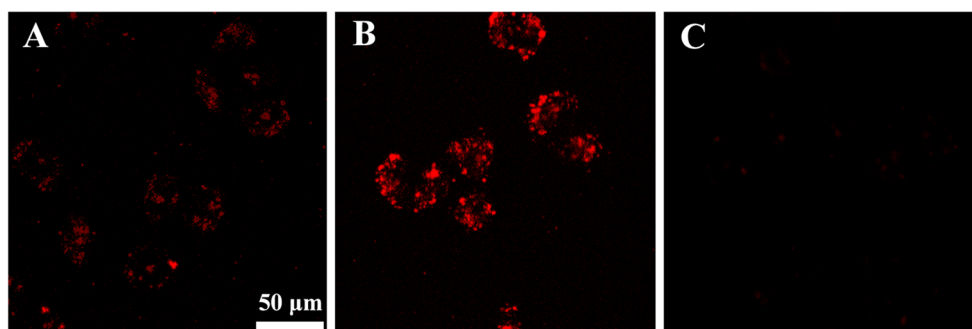


Fig. 6 Confocal microscopy images of GSH detection in live MCF-7 cells. **a** Microscopy image of MCF-7 cells incubated with the MnO₂-GQDs nanoprobe. **b** Microscopy image of MCF-7 cells pretreated with LPA (500 μM) for 24 h followed by incubation with the MnO₂-GQDs

nanoprobe. **(C)** Microscopy image of MCF-7 cells pretreated with NMM (500 μM) for 30 min followed by incubation with the MnO₂-GQDs nanoprobe. (Em:488 nm; collecting wavelength range at 620–700 nm)

Imaging of GSH in living cells

Possessing NIR fluorescence and a large Stokes shift, MnO₂-GQDs nanoprobe can facilitate the high-resolution fluorescent imaging with low autofluorescence interference and deep tissue penetration in living cells. Furthermore, endowed with high selectivity, rapid response, good biocompatibility and excellent biodegradability, MnO₂-GQDs nanoprobe are appropriate for NIR fluorescence imaging GSH in living cells. Then, the capability of such nanoprobe to monitor the intracellular GSH levels in living cells was investigated. With a typical assay, the MnO₂-GQDs nanoprobe was first incubated with MCF-7 cells, and then the sample fluorescence signal was analyzed by exciting with a laser (excitation wavelength at 488 nm) and collecting in the range of 620–700 nm. As shown in Fig. 6a, after incubation with the nanoprobe, MCF-7 cells displayed strong NIR red fluorescence emission, demonstrating the high concentration level of GSH in MCF-7 cancer cells. In addition, it also certified that the unified and homogeneous nanoflower structure endowed the probe with outstanding membrane-permeability. Furthermore, to investigate the capability of the nanoprobe to detect the variation of the GSH concentration level in the living cells, α-lipoic acid (LPA, synthesis enhancer of GSH) and N-methylmaleimide (NMM, scavenger of GSH) were respectively added to the MCF-7 cells in advance. In Fig. 6b, an enhanced fluorescence intensity is observed in the cells pretreated with LPA, while an obvious decreased fluorescence happens to the NMM treated cells, which demonstrates the MnO₂-GQDs nanoprobe is applicable for detecting the intracellular GSH levels with NIR fluorescence imaging. Compared with other fluorescent approaches [23–25, 32, 33], this proposed assay possesses some merits for the application in living cells with deep tissue penetration and reduced autofluorescence (Table S1). However, due to the abundant positive

charge and lacking target groups in the surface of the MnO₂-GQDs nanoprobe, our proposed method cannot distinguish different cell lines and has major limitations in the target imaging for the special organelles or cancer cells. We will make great efforts in the target imaging for the special organelles or cells in the future work.

Conclusions

A biodegradable NIR fluorescence nanoprobe (MnO₂-GQDs) for the “turn-on” detection of GSH in living cells was developed, with the NIR GQDs as the fluorescence reporters and the MnO₂ nanoflowers as the fluorescence quenchers. The novel MnO₂ nanoflowers were synthesized by redox reaction with the carbon nanoparticles as both the templates and reactants, exhibiting uniformed nanoscale and morphology. MnO₂-GQDs nanoprobe was established by adsorbing the positively charged NIR GQDs on the surface of negatively charged MnO₂ nanoflowers, and it displayed very low background fluorescence. Upon the activation of GSH, the enhanced NIR fluorescence was observed, because of the efficient degradation of MnO₂-GQDs to Mn²⁺ ions and free GQDs. Such “turn-on” nanoprobe showed high sensitivity and selectivity, good fluorescent stability, excellent biocompatibility and membrane permeability, and it was proved to be a promising nanoprobe for GSH imaging in living cells. Conceivably, this nanoprobe is a novel bioassay platform for targets analysis in-vitro and in-vivo.

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Compliance with ethical standards The author(s) declare that they have no competing interests

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