

A glassy carbon electrode modified with a nanocomposite consisting of MoS₂ and reduced graphene oxide for electrochemical simultaneous determination of ascorbic acid, dopamine, and uric acid

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Abstract We describe the synthesis of a hybrid nanocomposite consisting of MoS₂ and reduced graphene oxide (MoS₂/rGO) by a one-pot hydrothermal process, and the use of the material in an amperometric sensor. Scanning electron microscopy and nitrogen adsorption-desorption tests revealed that the nanocomposite possesses a porous and flower-like structure and a large specific surface. Cyclic voltammetry and differential pulse voltammetry demonstrated the nanocomposite to perform excellently in the electrochemical oxidation of ascorbic acid (AA), dopamine (DA), and uric acid (UA), respectively. The oxidation potentials are well separated (oxidation peaks at -64, 168 and 320 mV vs. Ag/AgCl) for AA, DA, and UA, and the respective detection sensitivities are strongly enhanced (0.12, 4.11 and 1.59 $\mu\text{A } \mu\text{M}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$). The sensor was applied to the detection of the three species in spiked human serum samples where it gave recoveries ranging from 98.9 to 104.1 % (for $n=3$).

Keywords MoS₂ · Cyclic voltammetry · Differential pulse voltammetry · High-resolution transmission electron microscopy · FTIR · Electrochemical sensor

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Introduction

Ascorbic acid (AA), dopamine (DA) and uric acid (UA) are considered as crucial small biomolecules in the physiological processes of human metabolism. AA, i.e. vitamin C, is one of the essential nutrients for most mammal, but also associated with various disorders in human body, such as scurvy, mental illness, hepatic disease, infertility, common cold, cancer and AIDS [1, 2]. As one of the most important catecholamine neurotransmitters, DA plays a vital role in the function of central nervous, renal, hormonal and cardiovascular systems, abnormal levels of which may lead to serious neurological disorders, like Parkinson's disease and schizophrenia [3, 4]. UA is the primary end product of purine metabolism, abnormal levels of which in urine and serum was a symptom of several diseases such as gout, hyperuricemia, pneumonia and Lesch-Nyhan syndrome [5, 6]. On the other hand, AA, DA, and UA usually co-exist in human physiological fluids. The simultaneous determination of these three small biomolecules is a challenging issue for the prediction and prevention of multiple diseases. Electrochemical methods are an effective toolbox for the detection of AA, DA, or UA due to their high sensitivity, simplicity, low costs and fast response for analysis [7–12]. However, these three species usually foul the detection electrodes and can be oxidized at almost the same potential at the traditional electrodes [13, 14]. Therefore, the technique difficulties for electrochemically simultaneous determination lie in how to achieve distinguishable oxidation potentials and sensitive current response at modified electrode.

Graphene oxide (rGO) has been considered as a versatile scaffold for nanomaterials to form hybrid nanocomposite with improved properties [15–23]. Compared with pure graphene

(GN), rGO was hydrophilic and easily dispersed into many solvents for various modification, due to its defects and numerous oxygen functions (-OH, C=O, -COOH). Up to now, rGO has been used as an effective support matrix to disperse or stabilize noble metal such as Ag, Au, Pt, Pd, and alloys [7–11]. In addition, those hybrid nanocomposites combining rGO sheets with noble metal nanomaterials have been applied to electrochemically simultaneous detection of AA, DA, and UA. However, those methods to composite rGO sheets with precious metal nanomaterials suffered from some disadvantages such as high cost, multiple-step and time-consuming processes [7–11]. Furthermore, the obtained analytical performance based on those nanocomposites, was highly demanded to be improved. For instance, the detection sensitivity was still not high enough and the separation of the oxidation potential was of necessity to be further extended. Therefore, it is urgently necessary to develop alternatives to noble metals to obtain a low-cost and high-performance rGO-based nanocomposite for electrochemically simultaneous detection of small biomolecules in practical applications.

MoS₂-based materials exhibit superior performance in the energy conversion and storage field including solar cells, electrocatalysis, supercapacitors and lithium ions batteries, due to their unique physical and chemical properties such as graphene-like 2D structure, tunable band gap, edge/defective sites and so on [24, 25]. Although there have been increasing reports on the MoS₂-based materials for bioactive macromolecules detection like DNA, micro-RNA and protein [26–28], it is still desirable to develop new MoS₂-based nanocomposite for the detection of small biomolecules such as AA, DA, and UA. Herein, MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite with porous nanostructure, large specific surface area and good electric conductivity, was prepared simply by a one-pot hydrothermal treatment. The MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite combining rGO and MoS₂ was used as electrode material to successfully construct a selective, stable and reproducible electrochemical biosensor for simultaneous detection of AA, DA, and UA.

Experimental

Reagents and apparatus

Graphene oxide (GO) powders (JCGO-99-1-150n; the contents of O and N tested by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) were 20.31 and 1.71 %, respectively) were purchased from JCNANO (Nanjing, China, www.jcnano.com). All the other chemicals were of analytical grade from commercial sources and used without further purification unless otherwise specified. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images were taken from a JEOL Model

JEM-2100F TEM at 200 kV (www.jeol.de/electronoptics-en). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were determined with a Hitachi S-4800 microscope (www.hitachi.com). XPS was conducted using an Escalab 250 X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (ThermoFisher, American, www.thermoscientific.com). Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra were recorded on FTIR spectroscopy (Tensor 37, Bruker, Germany, www.bruker.com). X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis was performed on a Rigaku D/max-IIB X-ray diffractometer using Cu K α radiation ($\lambda=1.5418 \text{ \AA}$) (www.rigaku.com). An ultrasonic bath (KQ218, 40 kHz, 100 W, China, www.ks-csyq.com) was used as the ultrasonic source. In all the procedures, the double-distilled water (resistivity =18.2 M $\Omega \text{ cm}^{-1}$) was obtained from an Olst ultrapure K8 apparatus (Olst, Ltd., www.olst.cn). All the electrochemical measurements were carried out at room temperature on CHI-842C electrochemical workstation (Chen-hua Instruments Inc., Shanghai, China, www.chinstruments.com). A three-electrode system was used in the experiment with a glassy carbon electrode (GCE) (ca. 0.0707 cm²) as the working electrode, an Ag/AgCl electrode (saturated KCl) as reference electrode and a Pt wire electrode as counter electrode, respectively. Phosphate buffer (PB) comprising NaH₂PO₄, Na₂HPO₄, and KCl was used as the supporting electrolyte throughout the experiment without otherwise specification.

Synthesis of MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite

For a typical synthesis [29, 30], 50 mg of GO powders were dispersed into 100 mL of H₂O and ultrasonicated until the mixture turned yellow-brown and clear, indicating GO aqueous suspensions were obtained. Afterward, 0.6 g of Na₂MoO₄·2H₂O and 0.75 g of NH₂CSNH₂ were dissolved into the above GO suspensions (30 mL) and stirred until the solution became homogeneous. Then the mixture solution was transferred into a 50 mL Teflon-lined autoclave and heated in an oven at 220 °C for 24 h. After cooling to room temperature naturally, the black precipitates obtained were centrifuged and washed with double-distilled water and anhydrous ethanol in sequence for three times and then dried under vacuum at 50 °C overnight. For comparison, pure MoS₂ was prepared with the same procedure in the absence of GO.

Electrode preparation

To prepare the working electrode, the dried and ground MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite was dispersed in a mixed solution (the volume ratio of DMF vs water was 3:1) and ultrasonicated until the mixed solution was homogeneous. The concentration of composite suspension was 10 mg mL⁻¹. Then, 10 μ L of suspensions were cast onto a mirror-polished and clean GCE and dried under an infrared lamp. The obtained modified

electrode was denoted as MoS₂/rGO/GCE and stored at room temperature when not in use. For comparison, the pure MoS₂ modified GCE (MoS₂/GCE) was prepared in the same way.

Results and discussion

Characterization of the nanocomposite

As shown in Fig. 1a, the pure MoS₂ with sheet-like nanostructure tended to tightly stack together, which implied the aggregated nature of the synthesized pure MoS₂. In contrast, the MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite (Fig. 1b) displayed a loose porous and flower-like nanostructure consisting of 2D petal-like nanoflakes. A representative lamellar structure of the pure MoS₂ and MoS₂ component in MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite can be seen in the inset of Fig. 1a and b, consistent with the (002) plane of hexagonal atomic lattices in bulk MoS₂. The interlayer distance of 0.63 nm for MoS₂ component in MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite was slightly larger than that of 0.61 nm in the pure MoS₂, which corresponded to the previous literatures [31, 32].

Crystalline structures of MoS₂ and MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite were investigated by XRD. As shown in Fig. 2a, both samples displayed the similar typical hexagonal structure of crystalline MoS₂ (JCPDS 37-1492). The primary peak of both appeared around 14.06°, corresponding to the diffraction from (002) plane of MoS₂ with the layer-to-layer spacing of 0.62 nm [29, 30]. This was also consistent well with the HRTEM results, indicating successful preparation of the nanocomposite. The nitrogen adsorption-desorption isotherms of MoS₂ and the MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite exhibited type IV with type H3 hysteresis loop and possessed mesoporous structure (Fig. 2b). The specific surface area of MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite was measured to be 96.5 m² g⁻¹, which was much larger than that of MoS₂ (23.6 m² g⁻¹). The MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite exhibited an average pore size of 14.13 nm which was slightly smaller than 17.69 nm of MoS₂ (BJH analysis, the inset of Fig. 2b). Those results implied that increased specific surface area and unique porous nanostructure of the nanocomposite may provide more active sites for the

adsorption of target molecules, which contributed to enhancing electrocatalytic performance of the modified electrode [33].

The compositions of the pure MoS₂ and MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite and chemical states of C, S, and Mo element were then characterized by XPS. The XPS results showed that both samples consisted of Mo, S, C, and O element, and the atomic ratio of Mo to S for both was approximately 1:2 (Fig. S1). As shown in Fig. 3a, four different peaks of C(O)-O, C=O, C-O-C and sp²-hybridized C-C proved a considerable degree of oxidation in GO while the C 1s peak-fitting results of MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite (Fig. 3b) just exhibited C-C peak and smaller peaks of C=O and C-O-C compared with that of GO. The disappearance of the C(O)-O peak obviously suggested the effective reduction of GO during the one-pot hydrothermal treatment, which was in accordance with FTIR analysis (Fig. S2). As shown in Fig. S3A, the main doublet located at binding energies of 162.03 and 163.18 eV consisted well with the S 2p_{3/2} and S 2p_{1/2} of MoS₂, respectively. The S 2s and Mo 3d peaks of pure MoS₂ are shown in Fig. S3B, and three resolved peaks can be observed. The two main peaks of Mo 3d_{5/2} (229.13 eV) and Mo 3d_{3/2} (232.33 eV) were characteristic of MoS₂ and the peak around 226.15 eV was in accordance with S 2s of MoS₂. As for the MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite, the above binding energies were all slightly larger than that of pure MoS₂ [30]. This result indicated a possible electron transfer between MoS₂ layer and rGO sheets in the nanocomposite, which may effectively increase the conductivity and improve the catalytic activity [31].

Electrochemical behaviors of AA, DA, UA at the modified electrode

As displayed in Fig. S4A-C, the individual electrooxidation of AA, DA, and UA occurred at the bare GCE with a large overpotential at different levels and extremely low current response, indicating a sluggish electron transfer process at the bare GCE due to the electrode fouling resulted from the oxidation product of small biomolecules [13, 14]. Compared with the bare GCE, an obvious electrooxidation peak with

Fig. 1 SEM images and HRTEM images (insets) of the pure MoS₂ (a, c) and the MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite (b, d), respectively

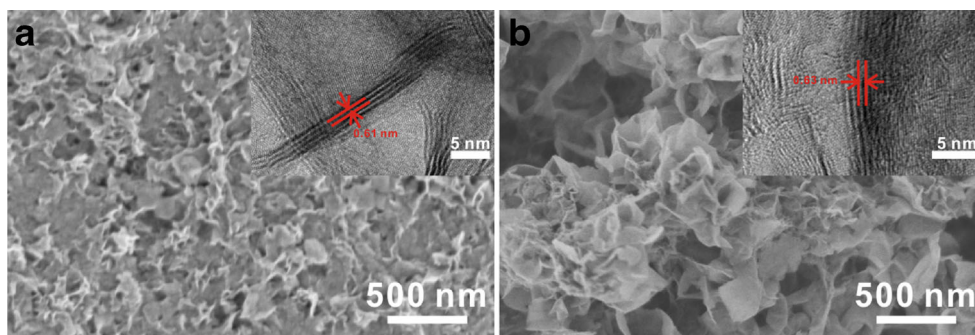
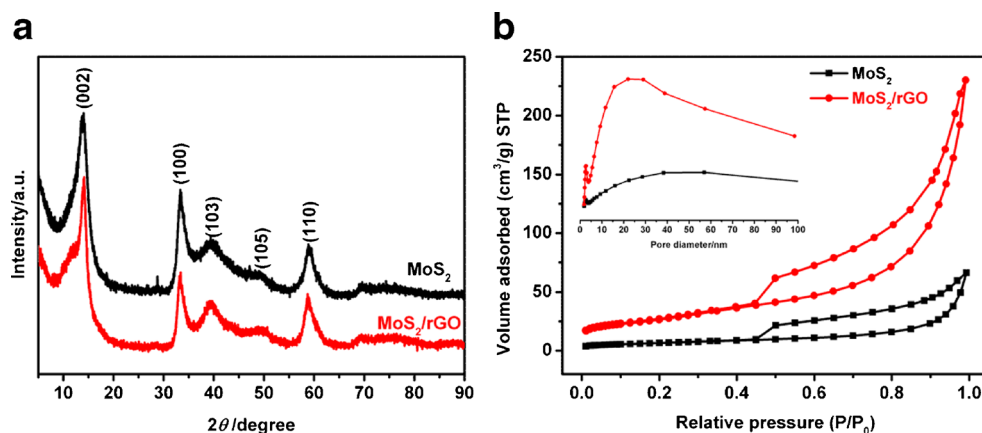


Fig. 2 **a** XRD patterns of pure MoS₂ and the MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite. **b** N₂ adsorption isotherms and the corresponding pore size distribution (inset) for MoS₂ and MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite

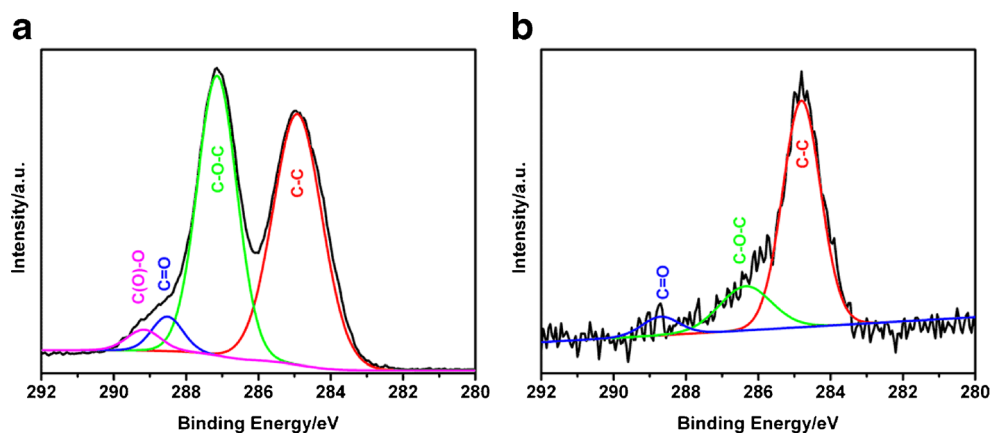


distinct potential shift and high current response appeared at the MoS₂/rGO/GCE because of the enhanced conductivity and catalytic activity. As shown in Fig. S4D, a broad, overlapped and quite small anodic peak appeared at bare GCE while three well-resolved and large oxidation peaks stood out at the MoS₂/rGO/GCE. This result obtained demonstrated that the MoS₂/rGO/GCE had a rather better capacity to effectively distinguish the oxidation potentials of the three biomolecules than the bare GCE. From Fig. S4A to 4D, the MoS₂/GCE only presented a large background current response and no remarkable separating ability. To further verify the separating ability and current sensitivity of the MoS₂/rGO/GCE, differential pulse voltammetry (DPV) curves for the oxidation of AA, DA, and UA in their mixture at MoS₂/rGO/GCE were shown in Fig. S5. It can be seen that the DPV peaks of these three species were well-resolved with the electrooxidation potentials at about -64 mV (AA), 168 mV (DA), and 320 mV (UA), respectively. Thus, the separation of peak potentials at MoS₂/rGO/GCE was 232 and 152 mV for AA-DA and DA-UA, respectively, which was large enough to determine AA, DA, and UA simultaneously. Effects of solution pH and scan rate on the peak potential and current of electrochemical oxidation of the three species were also investigated by DPV (Fig. S6 and S7).

Simultaneous determination of AA, DA, and UA

As shown in Figs. 4, 5 and 6, the DPV responses of MoS₂/rGO/GCE toward AA, DA, or UA were displayed when the concentration of one species changed with the other two keeping constant. The peak current of AA was linear to the AA concentrations in the range from 12 to 5402 μM with a regression equation of $I_{p,AA} (\mu A) = 0.0108 C_{AA} (\mu M) + 0.738$ ($R^2 = 0.9994$). The detection sensitivity was calculated to be 0.12 μA μM⁻¹ cm⁻² based on the slope of the regression equation divided by electroactive surface area (ECSA) of the MoS₂/rGO/GCE (Fig. S8). The corresponding limit of detection (LOD) was 0.72 μM (S/N=3). As for DA and UA, the peak currents were proportional in the concentration range from 5 to 545 and from 25 to 2745 μM, respectively. The linear functions were $I_{p,DA} (\mu A) = 0.364 C_{DA} (\mu M) + 2.758$ ($R^2 = 0.9988$) and $I_{p,UA} (\mu A) = 0.141 C_{UA} (\mu M) + 0.339$ ($R^2 = 0.9986$), respectively. The corresponding detection sensitivity of DA and UA was 4.11 and 1.59 μA μM⁻¹ cm⁻² while the LOD of DA and UA were 0.05 and 0.46 μM, respectively. The various analytical performances of the electrochemical sensor were compared with those reported in the literature (Table S1). Notably, compared with those high-cost noble metal-based biosensors, MoS₂/rGO/GCE exhibited a higher sensitivity,

Fig. 3 **a** Typical C 1 s XPS spectra and peak-fitting results of GO and **b** MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite, respectively



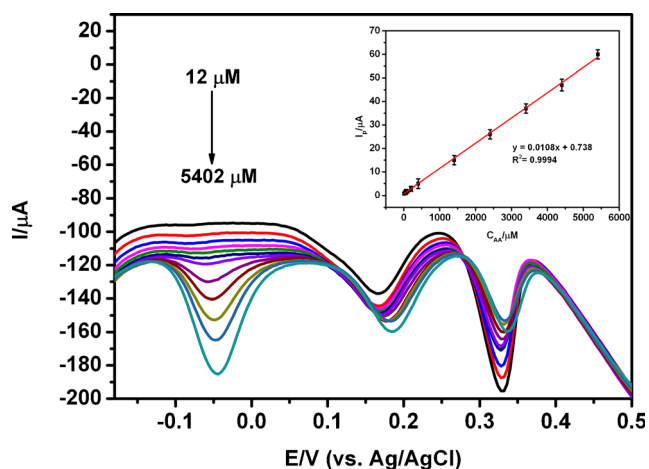


Fig. 4 DPVs of MoS₂/rGO/GCE in 0.1 M PB (pH 7.0) containing 100 μM DA, 200 μM UA and different concentration of AA (from inner to outer): 12, 22, 42, 62, 102, 202, 402, 1402, 2402, 3402, 4402, 5402 μM. Insets: plots of peak current I_p vs concentration of AA (data recorded from -0.2 to 0.6 V, vs. Ag/AgCl)

lower detection limit and wider linear range. The MoS₂/rGO nanocomposite was thus one of the promising candidates for selective and sensitive determination of AA, DA, and/or UA.

Selectivity, stability and reproducibility

To investigate the anti-interference ability of MoS₂/rGO/GCE, the peak current ratio was compared as shown in Fig. S9. I_0 , I_1 , I_2 meant the DPV current response for 1 mM AA, 100 μM DA, 200 μM UA and I for 1 mM of various interferential compounds and ions. Peak current ratio changed less than $\pm 6\%$ (Fig. S9), indicating the biosensor exhibited good selectivity for the detection of AA, DA and/or UA. The stability

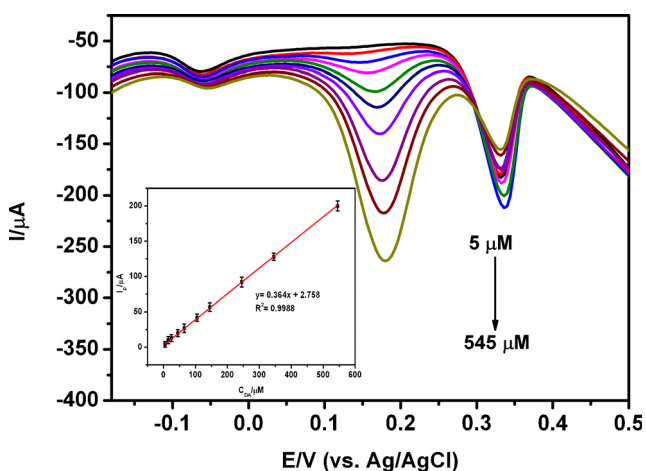


Fig. 5 DPVs of MoS₂/rGO/GCE in 0.1 M PB (pH 7.0) containing 1 mM AA, 200 μM UA and different concentration of DA (from inner to outer): 5, 15, 25, 45, 65, 105, 145, 245, 345, 545 μM. Insets: plots of peak current I_p vs concentration of DA (data recorded from -0.2 to 0.6 V, vs. Ag/AgCl)

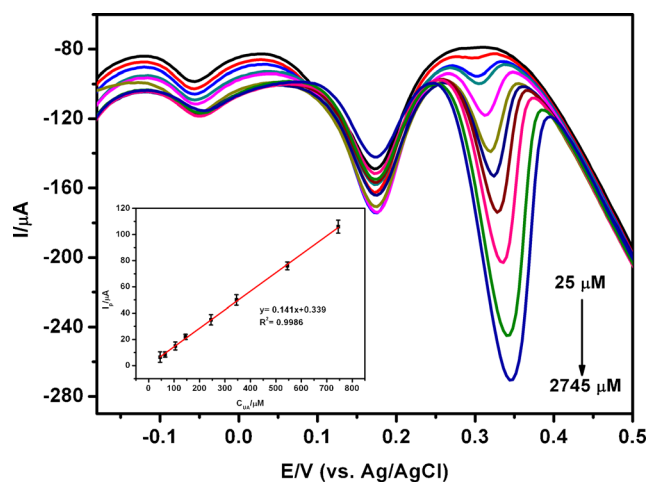


Fig. 6 DPVs of MoS₂/rGO/GCE in 0.1 M PB (pH 7.0) containing 1 mM AA, 100 μM DA and different concentration of UA (from inner to outer) 25, 45, 65, 105, 145, 245, 345, 545, 745, 1745, 2745 μM. Insets: plots of peak current I_p vs concentration of UA (data recorded from -0.2 to 0.6 V, vs. Ag/AgCl)

was quite essential for nanocomposite modified electrode to construct the biosensor [34]. The stability of MoS₂/rGO/GCE was investigated by CV with 50 circles of continuous scan in 5 mM [Fe(CN)₆]^{3-/4-} aqueous solution containing 0.1 M KCl. The results showed that there was a negligible decrease of the voltammetric current during the whole procedures, suggesting that an excellent stability of the electrode (Fig. S10). The reproducibility was studied by five modified electrode prepared independently using the same batch of composite material. By comparing the peak currents in 0.1 M PB (pH 7.0) containing 1 mM AA, 100 μM DA and 200 μM UA, the relative standard deviation (R.S.D) for AA, DA, and UA were 3.52, 2.78, 3.23 %, respectively, indicating excellent reproducibility.

Real sample analysis

To verify the feasibility of the MoS₂/rGO/GCE in practical analysis, it was applied to simultaneously detect the concentration of AA, DA, and UA in human serum samples using standard addition method. All the samples was filtrated and diluted with PB (pH 7.0) before the measurements. The analysis data were summarized in Table S2, showing the potential practical application of our biosensor for real samples.

Conclusions

In summary, a facile strategy for preparing MoS₂/rGO hybrid nanocomposite has been developed by a one-pot hydrothermal synthesis. Electrochemical measurements demonstrated that the nanocomposite can improve electrocatalytic performance toward oxidation of AA, DA, and UA by enlarging

peak separation and increasing peak current due to its unique porous nanostructure, large specific surface area and good electric conductivity. Simultaneous detection of AA, DA, and UA was achieved in a wide concentration range with high sensitivity and good selectivity. The biosensor herein may be applied to selectively detect other bioactive biomolecules such as epinephrine, nor-epinephrine, etc. Furthermore, other disulphide-based nanocomposites with rGO may also possess a wide range of applications in biosensors.

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