



Layer-by-layer assembled film of TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/graphene quantum dots for simultaneous electrochemical determination of guanine and adenine

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ABSTRACT

This work proposed an electrochemical biosensing method for simultaneous detection of guanine and adenine. This electrochemical biosensor was constructed by layer-by-layer assembling TiO₂ nanoparticles, poly(L-lysine) and graphene quantum dots (GQDs) on a glassy carbon electrode. The assembled film of TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs showed better conductivity and significantly increased effective surface area for the electrochemical oxidation of guanine and adenine along with a quasi-reversible electrode process. Under optimal preparation and square wave voltammetric detection conditions, the proposed electrochemical methods could simultaneously detect guanine and adenine ranging from 1.0 to 35.0 μM with detection limits of 0.56 μM for GA and 0.81 μM for AD. The limits of quantification for sample analysis were 1.90 and 2.70 μM, respectively. The developed electrochemical biosensor exhibited good reproducibility, anti-interfering properties, and stability, and could be practically applied in the simultaneous determination of guanine and adenine in calf thymus DNA, cow milk, and urine samples with acceptable precision.

1. Introduction

Guanine (GA) and adenine (AD) are significant purine components that make up the fundamental building blocks of the DNA structure, together with cytosine and thymine, play important roles in life processes [1]. The regulation of blood flow, prevention of cardiac arrhythmias, inhibition of neurotransmitter release, etc are all significantly impacted by GA and AD [2]. Therefore, the detection of these compounds has become very important in clinical fields because the unusual changes of DNA bases in organisms may lead to a deficiency of mutation in the immune system and cause a variety of diseases, including cancer, epilepsy, mental retardation, etc [3]. There have been significant efforts to use modern electrochemical techniques in nucleic acid research and DNA analysis ever since the electroactivity of DNA was discovered. Since GA is the nitrogenous base that oxidizes the easiest, a thorough investigation of its oxidation mechanism has been studied in detail. Several techniques, including chromatography, spectroscopy, capillary electrophoresis, etc, have been developed for the determination of GA and AD [4–6]. All these techniques are very useful, show high sensitivity but time-consuming, and require expensive

instruments, pre-treatments, and expert handling. The development of electrochemical nucleic acid biosensors based on the detection of GA and AD oxidation would benefit from this knowledge. Electrochemical methods are attractive due to their low cost, fast detection, simplicity, rapidity, and high sensitivity [7–12]. However, the development of sensitive electrochemical sensors for fast and low-cost detection of GA and AD is still challenging.

Many carbon-based materials such as pyrolytic graphite, glassy carbon and carbon nanotubes have been used as electrode materials for the preparation of electrochemical sensors. However, the direct determination of purine in biological matrices at bare carbon-based electrodes faced many problems, such as high overpotential and poor reproducibility. To solve these issues, ionic liquids [13,14], gold nanoparticles [15], Nafion-ruthenium oxide pyrochlore [16], boron-doped carbon nanotubes [17], magnetic nanoparticles [18], graphene [19,20] and carbon nanotubes [21–24] have been used to modify the electrodes for improving the performance of GA and AD sensing. TiO₂ nanoparticles (rutile) have also been incorporated on carbon or carbon-based materials modified electrode surface to improve the electrochemical sensing performance of GA and AD due to their unique

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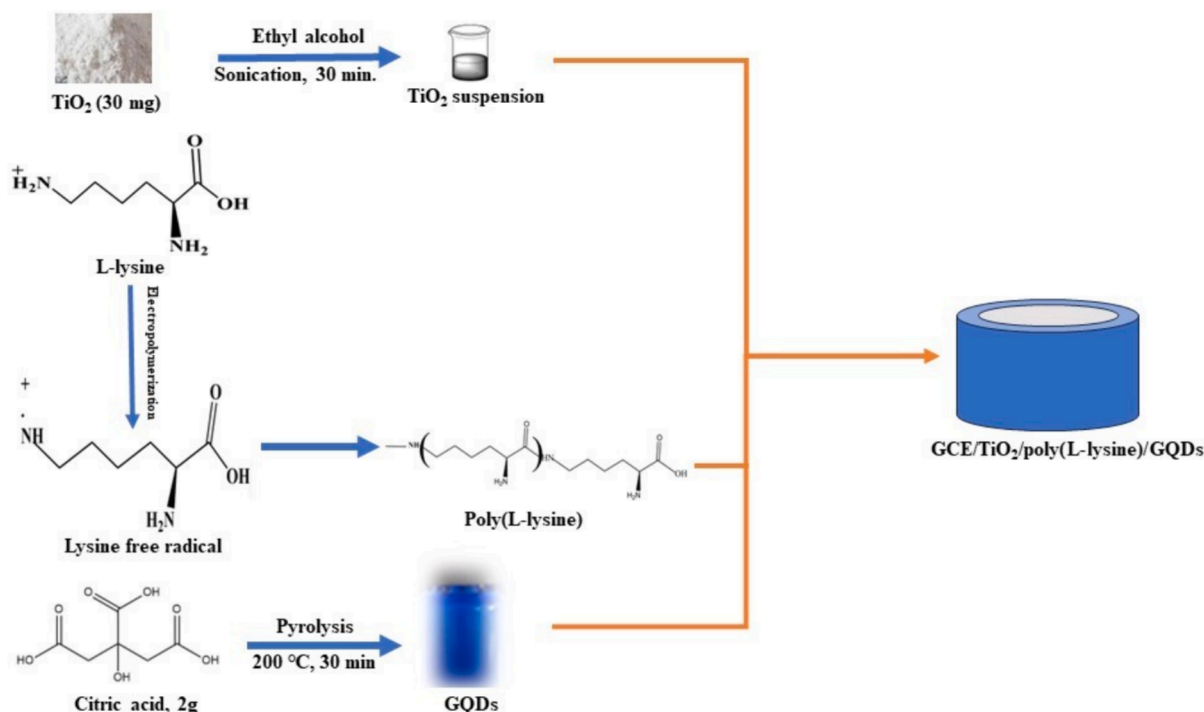
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Scheme 1. Synthetic processes of $\text{TiO}_2/\text{poly}(\text{L-lysine})/\text{GQDs}$ composite material.

properties such as biocompatibility, absorptivity, and catalytic properties [25–28].

To improve the physical and chemical properties of modified electrode, the electrode modification with different polymers has also attracted much attention for sensor preparation. These polymers can be conveniently prepared in situ by electropolymerization technique, and show the advantages of uniform deposition, charge transfer characteristics, good stability, and reproducibility [29–37]. As a conductive polymer, poly(L-lysine) shows many advantages, such as simple preparation, stability, more active sites and availability, and has been widely used in the manufacturing of some sensors for trace metals [38], proteins [39], cancer cells [40], and glucose [41]. Therefore, this work integrated the advantages of poly(L-lysine) and TiO_2 nanoparticles with the high conductivity and catalytic properties of graphene quantum dots (GQDs), a type of zero-dimensional nanosized fragments of graphene [42–46], to construct a sensitive electrochemical biosensor for the simultaneous determination of GA and AD.

The assembled film of $\text{TiO}_2/\text{poly}(\text{L-lysine})/\text{GQDs}$ possessed high conductivity and significantly increased effective surface area for the oxidation of guanine and adenine, leading to excellent analytical performance of the proposed electrochemical detection method, such as appropriate range of detectable concentration, low detection limit, and good reproducibility, anti-interfering properties and stability. The proposed method could successfully be applied for the quantification of GA and AD in calf thymus DNA, cow milk, and urine samples, demonstrating a promising modification material for the preparation of electrochemical biosensors.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Chemicals

L-lysine and calf thymus DNA were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Monosodium di-hydrogen phosphate (NaH_2PO_4), and disodium hydrogen phosphate (Na_2HPO_4) were obtained from Aladdin. Phosphate buffer solution (PBS) with a concentration of 0.1 M was used as a supporting electrolyte, which was prepared by mixing a suitable quantity of

NaH_2PO_4 and Na_2HPO_4 . GA and AD were procured from Heowns and stock solutions were prepared by dissolving appropriate amounts of analytes in diluted NaOH (0.2 M) solution. Citric acid and TiO_2 nanoparticles (rutile, 60 nm) were purchased from Macklin. NaOH, KCl, HCl, and $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$ were purchased from Nanjing Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd. All reagents were used as received without further purification. Ultrapure water ($\geq 18.2 \text{ M}\Omega$, Milli-Q, Millipore) was used throughout the experiment.

2.2. Apparatus

A CHI 630D potentiostat was used to conduct all the electrochemical measurements with Pt wire as counter, saturated calomel electrode (SCE) as reference electrode, and glassy carbon electrode (GCE) or modified GCE as working electrodes. The solution pH was monitored using a pH meter from BANTE Instrument. Field emission scanning electron microscopic (FE-SEM) measurements were carried out using a JSM-7800F instrument, operating at 5.0 kV. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was performed using a JEM-2800 instrument, operating at 100 kV.

2.3. Preparation of graphene quantum dots and samples

GQDs were synthesized through the pyrolysis of citric acid at an elevated temperature. In brief, 2 g citric acid was heated at a temperature of 200 °C for 30 min, which showed the color change from colorless to pale yellow, and ultimately produce an orange liquid, indicating the formation of GQDs. Subsequently, 100 mL of 10 mg mL^{-1} NaOH was added while stirring continuously, and the pH was adjusted to 8.0 with 1 mol/L HCl to ensure the stability of GQDs [47,48].

3 mg of calf thymus DNA was digested with 1 mL of 1 M HCl over a boiling water bath for 1 h. Afterward, the solution pH was adjusted to neutral with 1 M NaOH. Cow milk samples was bought from the nearest local supermarket, and the urine samples (1 mL of each sample was dissolved in 25 mL of PBS, and the experiment was carried out with the standard addition method) were collected from the healthy volunteer, which were detected by adding the sample in 0.1 M pH 7.0 PBS without

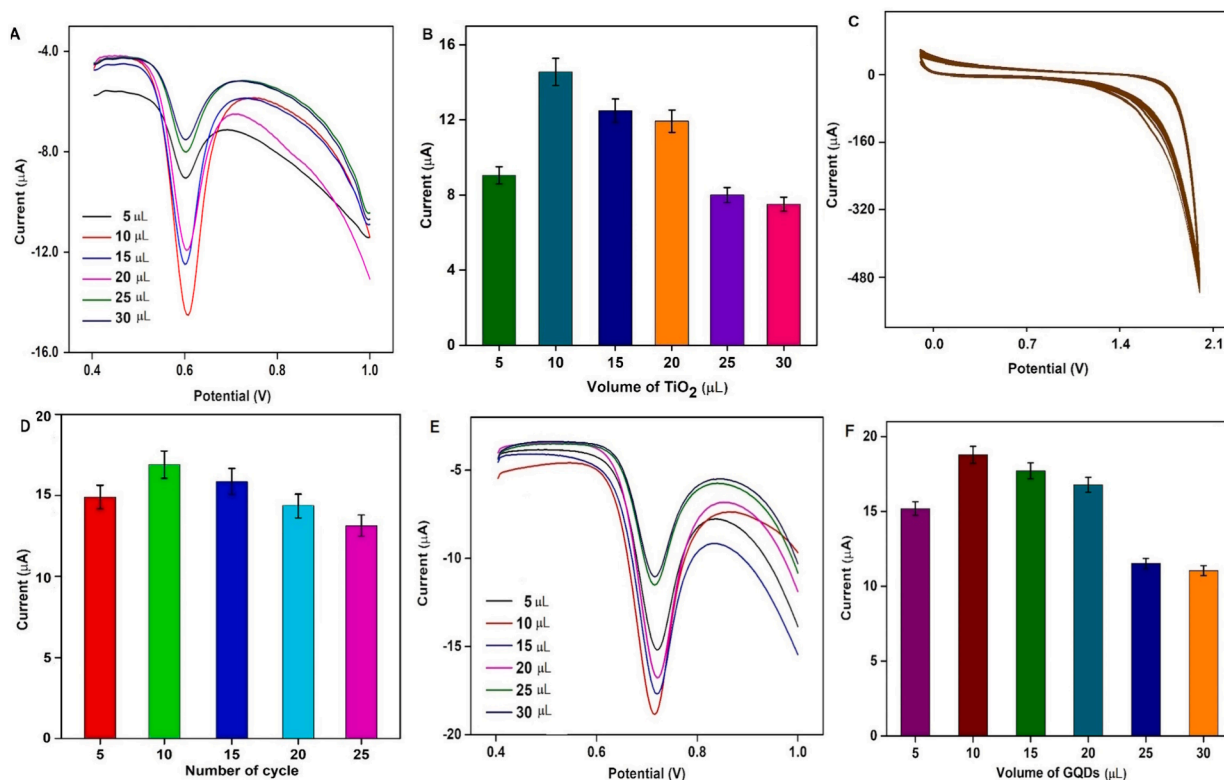


Fig. 1. (A) Square wave voltammograms of 10 μM GA at GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs prepared with different volumes of TiO₂ suspension (3 mg/mL). (B) Peak currents of 10 μM GA at different volumes of TiO₂ suspension. (C) Continuously cyclic voltammogram for electropolymerization of 1 mM L-lysine at GCE/TiO₂ in 0.1 M pH 5.0 PBS at 0.1 V/s. (D) Peak currents of 10 μM GA at different cycle numbers for polymerization. (E) Square wave voltammograms of 10 μM GA at different volumes of GQDs (1 mg/mL) coated at GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine). (F) Peak currents of 10 μM GA at different volumes of GQDs.

any pretreatment.

2.4. Biosensor preparation

GCE (2 mm in diameter) was polished to a reflective finish using a polishing pad with 0.3 and 0.05 μm alumina slurry. The electrode was then sonicated with ethyl alcohol and ultrapure water to remove any residual polishing materials. GCE/TiO₂ was obtained by casting an appropriate amount of TiO₂ suspension, which was prepared by adding 30 mg TiO₂ nanoparticles in 10 mL ethyl alcohol to sonicate for 30 min,

on the freshly prepared GCE to dry for 5 min. Poly(L-lysine) was then electropolymerized on GCE/TiO₂ in 0.1 M PBS (pH 5.0) containing 1.0 mM L-lysine by sweeping the potential between -0.1 and + 2.0 V at 0.1 V/s for 10 cycles. After rinsing the electrode with ultrapure water, 10 μL GQDs (1 mg/mL) was coated on its surface to obtain GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs as the biosensor for simultaneous detection of GA and AD. Scheme 1 illustrates the synthetic processes of TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs composite material.

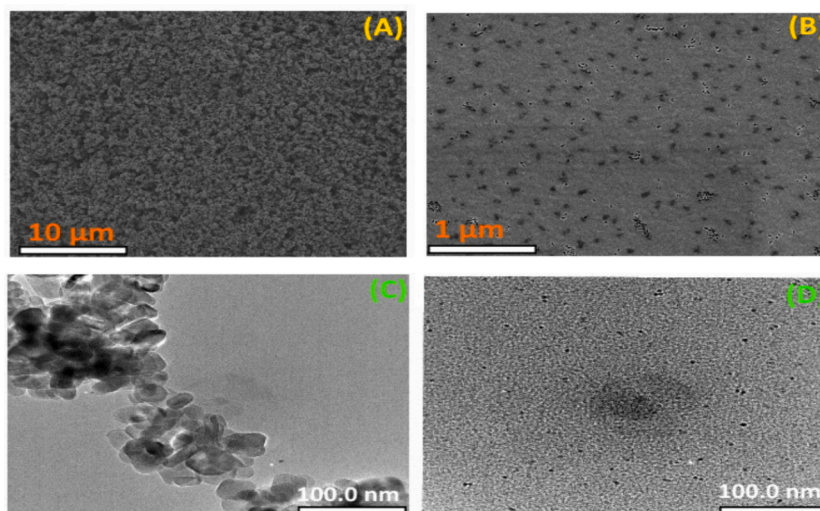


Fig. 2. (A, B) FE-SEM and (C, D) TEM images of TiO₂ nanoparticles (A, C) and GQDs (B, D).

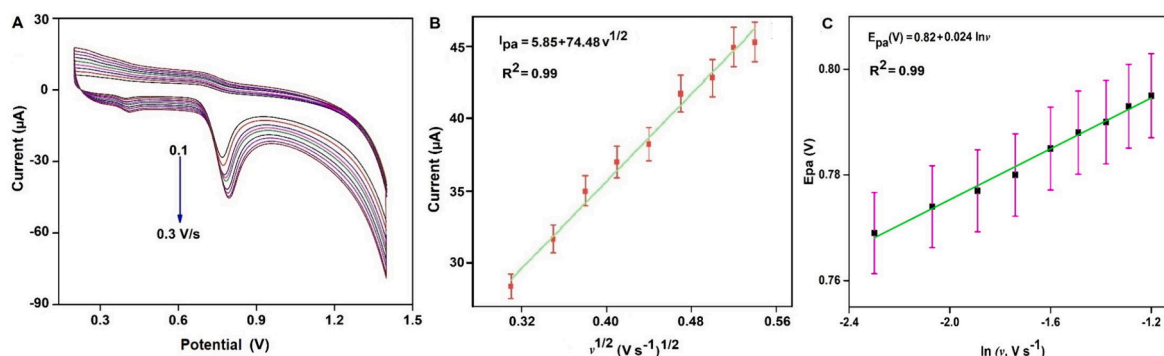


Fig. 3. (A) Cyclic voltammograms of 100 μM GA at GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs at 0.1 to 0.3 V/s in 0.1 M pH 7.0 PBS, (B) Plot of I_{pa} vs $v^{1/2}$, (C) Plot of E_{pa} vs $\ln v$.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Optimization of preparation conditions

The volume of TiO₂ suspension for the preparation of the biosensor was optimized by measuring the square wave voltammetric (SWV) response of 10 μM GA in 0.1 pH 7.0 PBS at GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs. As shown in Fig. 1A, B, with the increasing volume of TiO₂ suspension (3 mg/mL), the current response of GA increased, and reached the maximum value at 10 μL , which was thus used as an optimal volume. The increased response resulted from the unique properties of TiO₂ such as biocompatibility and catalytic properties [25–28]. The response decrease at a higher volume of TiO₂ suspension could be attributed to the increased electron transfer impedance because the assembled film became too thick.

The continuously cyclic voltammogram of 1 mM L-lysine at GCE/TiO₂ in 0.1 M pH 5.0 PBS was shown in Fig. 1C, which indicated obvious electropolymerization of L-lysine on the electrode surface, and led to increasing SWV response of 10 μM GA at GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs (Fig. 1D) due to the presence of positively charged poly(L-lysine) to interact with negatively charged GA. The possible electropolymerization mechanism of L-lysine on the surface could be described as follows: the monomer L-lysine was oxidized at high potentials to produce the free radical form of amino, which bound with the surface group on GCE/TiO₂ [49]. After 10 cycles of polymerization, the SWV response gradually decreased due to the increase of polymer film thickness, which restricted electron exchange between GA and electrode.

The amount of GQDs on GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs greatly affected the electrochemical response of 10 μM GA at the electrode

(Fig. 1E). With the increasing amount of GQDs, the peak current of square wave voltammogram increased quickly (Fig. 1F), which was attributed to the high conductivity of GQDs to improve the electron transfer of electrode surface for the oxidation of GA. After the volume of 10 μL , the peak current gradually decreased. As a result, 10 μL of 1 mg/mL GQDs was used for the preparation of the biosensor.

3.2. Characterization of nanoparticles

The FE-SEM image of TiO₂ nanoparticles showed their agglomeration in nature [49] (Fig. 2A), while the FE-SEM image of GQDs showed small particles dispersed uniformly without any agglomeration (Fig. 2B), which led to a large surface area upon the casting of GQDs on electrode surface. The TEM image demonstrated a cube-like structure of TiO₂ nanoparticles with a size of about 60 nm (Fig. 2C). The TEM image of GQDs revealed the dark spherical particles with 4–6 nm in size (Fig. 2D), as observed in [48].

3.3. Electroactive surface areas and electrochemical responses of GA at different electrodes

The cyclic voltammograms of 2.0 mM K₃[Fe(CN)₆] at different GCEs were shown in Fig. S1. With the successive layer-by-layer assembly of TiO₂ nanoparticles, poly(L-lysine), and GQDs, the peak current of [Fe(CN)₆]³⁻ increased, and the difference of cathodic and anodic peak potentials slightly decreased, indicating the increased electron transfer rate and active surface area. The increased charging current upon assembly of GQDs on GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine) (Fig. S1) demonstrated the increase in active surface area. From the Randles-Sevcik equation [50]: $I_p = 2.65 \times 10^5 n^{3/2} A D^{1/2} v^{1/2} c$, where I_p represents the peak current, n

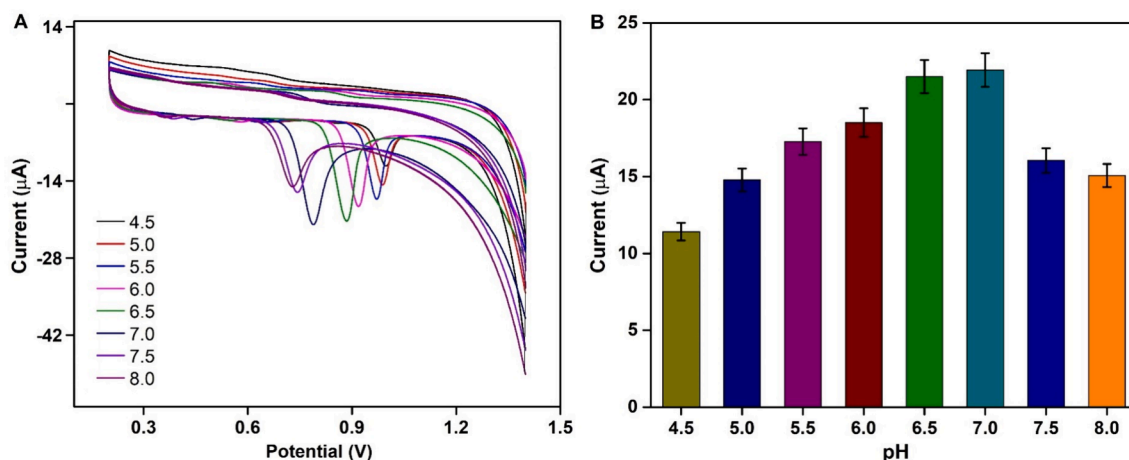


Fig. 4. (A) Cyclic voltammograms of 100 μM GA in 0.1 M PBS (pH 4.5–8.0) at GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs at 0.1 V/s. (B) I_{pa} at different pHs.

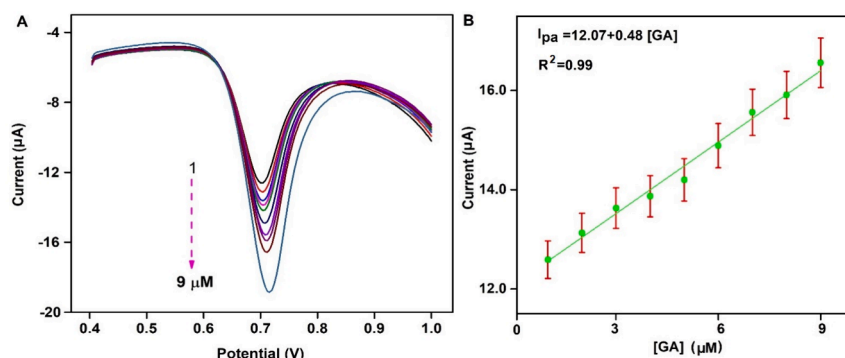


Fig. 5. (A) Square wave voltammograms of GA at 1.0 to 9.0 μM at GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs in 0.1 M pH 7.0 PBS. (B) Plot of I_{pa} vs concentration of GA.

denotes the number of electrons involved in the electrode reaction, A refers to the effective surface area (cm^2), c represents the concentration of electroactive species (mol/mL), D is the diffusion coefficient ($7.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$), and ν is the scan rate (V/s), the surface areas of GCE, GCE/TiO₂, GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine) and GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs were calculated to be 0.05, 0.06, 0.07 and 0.15 cm^2 , respectively. Thus, the GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs showed the quick electron transfer and the maximum active surface area for the oxidation of analytes on the electrode surface.

The electrochemical responses of analytes at GCE, GCE/TiO₂, GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine), and GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQD were examined with square wave voltammetry (SWV). At bare GCE, both GA and AD showed weak oxidation peaks, which increased with the successive assembly of TiO₂ nanoparticles, poly(L-lysine) and GQDs along with negative shift of the oxidation peak potentials (Fig. S2 and S3), indicating the accelerated electron transfer due to the improved conductivity and the increased active surface area.

With the increasing scan rate from 0.1 to 0.3 V/s , the oxidation peak current of GA at GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs increased, and the peak potential positively shifted (Fig. 3A). The plot of peak current vs $\nu^{1/2}$ showed a linear relationship (Fig. 3B), while the oxidation peak potential was proportional to the logarithm of scan rate, indicating a quasi-reversible electrode process. From the slope of the plot of peak potential vs $\ln \nu$ (Fig. 3C), the αn value (α is charge transfer coefficient, n is the electron transfer number) was calculated to be 2.13 [51].

3.4. Effect of solution pH on GA response

The oxidation of GA at GCE/TiO₂/poly(Lysine)/GQDs showed obvious dependence on solution pH (Fig. 4A). With the increasing pH, the oxidation peak potential moved in the negative direction, indicating that the oxidation of GA was a deprotonation process. While the oxidation peak current of GA increased until pH 7.0, exhibiting easier-to-follow redox activities with higher peak currents and catalytic activity, and then decreased with further increase in pH (Fig. 4B), which indicated an optimum solution pH for the electrochemical detection of GA.

3.5. SWV detection of guanine

With the increasing concentration of GA at pH 7.0, the SWV response at GCE/TiO₂/poly(Lysine)/GQDs increased (Fig. 5A), and the plot of peak current vs GA concentration in the range of 1.0–9.0 μM showed good linearity (Fig. 5B). The linear regression equation was $I_{pa}(\text{A}) = 12.07 + 0.48 [\text{GA}]_{\mu\text{M}}$ ($R^2 = 0.99$), from which the limit of detection was calculated to be 0.44 μM at three times the standard deviation (5 measurements of the blank), and the limit of quantification was calculated as ten times the standard deviation (5 measurements of the blank) to be 1.48 μM [52].

3.6. Simultaneous SWV determination of guanine and adenine

In the presence of 1.0 μM AD, the square wave voltammograms of GA with increasing concentration (Fig. S4A) showed the increasing peak current at the same potential at GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs, as those in the absence of AD (Fig. 5A), and the plot of peak current vs GA concentration also showed good linearity (Fig. S4B). Meanwhile, the peak current of AD linearly increased with the increasing AD concentration in the presence of 1.0 GA (Fig. S4C, D). Therefore, the coexistence of AD and GA did not affect their electrochemical oxidation, and GCE/TiO₂/poly(L-lysine)/GQDs could well distinguish their responses, leading to an electrochemical method for simultaneous SWV determination of guanine and adenine.

The SWV responses of both GA and AD increased with the simultaneously increasing concentrations (Fig. S4E). The plots of peak currents vs GA and AD concentrations resulted in the linear regression equations of $I_{pa}(\mu\text{A}) = 13.80 + 0.32 [\text{GA}]_{\mu\text{M}}$ ($R^2 = 0.98$) and $I_{pa}(\mu\text{A}) = 19.21 + 0.46 [\text{AD}]_{\mu\text{M}}$ ($R^2 = 0.99$), respectively (Fig. S4F). The limits of qualification were 1.90 μM for GA, and 2.70 μM for AD, and the detection limits were 0.56 and 0.81 μM for GA and AD, respectively, which were comparable with those reported previously (Table S1).

3.7. Interference, reproducibility and stability

The anti-interference properties of the developed biosensor was examined by detecting the SWV signals of 10 μM GA in the presence of different metal ions, such as Ca^{2+} , Cl^- , Cu^{2+} , Fe^{3+} , K^+ , Zn^{2+} and some other compounds such as glucose, L-cysteine, glycine and urea. The signal changes of GA were found to be $< 2\%$ at 50-fold concentration of Ca^{2+} , Cl^- , Cu^{2+} , Fe^{3+} , K^+ , Zn^{2+} and some other compounds such as glucose, L-cysteine, glycine and urea, indicating the good selectivity of the designed sensor.

The reproducibility of the biosensor was evaluated by measuring the electrochemical responses of GA using 4 independently prepared biosensors. The relative standard deviation was 4 %, which demonstrated the satisfactory reproducibility of the developed biosensor. In addition, the stability of the developed biosensor was also tested by consecutive potential scanning for 100 cycles, which did not show any change in peak potential, and the peak current could retain 86.6 % of the initial value, indicating acceptable stability.

3.8. Sample testing

The developed biosensor was used for the simultaneous determination of GA and AD in calf thymus DNA, cow milk, and urine samples. After these samples were treated, respectively, two SWV peaks corresponding to GA and AD oxidation could be readily detected. In calf thymus DNA, GA and AD were found in the molar ratio of 22.9 % and 30.8 %, respectively. The ratio of $(G + C)/(A + T)$ was found to be 0.74, which was close to the standard value of 0.77 [53]. The detection results

Table 1
Detection of GA and AD in urine and milk samples.

Sample	Added (μM)		Found (μM)		Recovery (%)
	GA	AD	GA	AD	
Urine	1.0	1.06	1.00	106.0	100.7
	2.0	2.00	1.91	100.4	95.9
	3.0	2.97	2.91	99.3	97.0
Cow milk	1.0	1.00	0.90	100.4	90.4
	2.0	1.90	1.86	95.0	93.0
	3.0	2.90	2.94	96.8	98.0

of cow milk and urine samples were listed in Table 1. The recovery rates of GA and AD ranged between 99.3 to 106.0 %, 95.9 to 100.7 %, and 95.0 to 100.4 %, and 90.4 to 98.0 %, respectively, demonstrating the practicality of the proposed biosensor in real sample analysis of GA and AD.

4. Conclusions

A simple, low-cost and sensitive biosensor has been developed for simultaneous electrochemical detection of GA and AD. The biosensor can be conveniently prepared by successively casting TiO_2 nanoparticles, electropolymerizing poly(L-lysine) and coating GQDs on GCE. The GCE/ TiO_2 /poly(L-lysine)/GQDs possesses good conductivity and significantly increased effective surface area for the oxidation of guanine and adenine. The sensitive SWV responses of GA and AD at the biosensor can be well distinguished, and the proposed method shows excellent performance along with high selectivity, satisfactory reproducibility, and acceptable stability, and good practicality in real sample analysis of GA and AD.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jelechem.2024.118482>.

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