



Dual-drive strategy-based modulation of the interfacial charge of S-scheme heterojunction and photoelectrochemical ultrasensitive detection of CD44

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ABSTRACT

The efficacy of charge carrier separation plays a crucial role in influencing the practical application of photoelectrochemical (PEC) detection platforms, which can be meticulously engineered to realize highly sensitive detection at the sensing interface. Hence, a novel dual-drive strategy was proposed to integrate thermally-assisted external drive behavior with the internal drive behavior of sulfur vacancies (SVs), realizing the rapid separation of charge at the S-scheme heterojunction sensing interface. On the one hand, unabsorbed solar energy was utilized an external driving force to facilitate efficient photothermoelectric conversion within the In₂S₃/CdS heterojunction, achieving the photocurrent response intensity 1.5 times higher than conventional PEC detection methods. On the other hand, introducing sulfur vacancies (SVs) as internal driving forces induced ordered migration and directional flow of charge carriers. Moreover, density functional theory (DFT) calculations and experimental results demonstrated that photo-generated carriers achieved rapid separation along the S-scheme heterojunction. Under the optimal conditions, a biosensor constructed based on the dual-drive strategy exhibited high sensitivity for the CD44 (cluster of differentiation-44) cluster, with a low detection limit of 0.132 pg mL⁻¹ and a wide linear range of 0.001 ~ 1000 ng mL⁻¹. The proposed strategy offers new insights into how to effectively harness excess energy in the traditional ultraviolet spectral range for ultrasensitive biosensors.

1. Introduction

Cluster of differentiation-44 (CD44), as a cell surface transmembrane glycoprotein, is over-expressed in many cancers through cell adhesion, migration, proliferation, differentiation and signal transduction, which seriously endangers human health [1,2]. Clinical medicine have indicated that the effective detection of CD44 antigen may become the key to explore the diagnosis of breast cancer [2]. As an emerging detection method, photoelectrochemical (PEC) biosensing analysis realizes the quantification of targets through the PEC responses generated by the combination of semiconductor materials and specific biometric recognition elements. Compared with methods such as enzyme-linked adsorption and surface-enhanced Raman scattering, the PEC technique

enables highly efficient detection and provides a new perspective for clinical diagnosis [3]. The separation efficiency and migration rate of photo-generated carriers in semiconductor materials are crucial factors that impact the PEC response of sensing platforms [4]. To construct a high-sensitivity PEC sensor, researchers employ various methods such as constructing heterojunctions, introducing defects, and utilizing catalysts to enhance the photoelectric conversion performance of the detection platform [5–7]. For example, Jia et al. developed a molecularly imprinted PEC biosensor utilizing the In₂O₃/Bi₂S₃ S-scheme heterojunctions, demonstrating excellent detection capability for florfenicol (FF) [8]. Yin et al. introduced vacancy engineering in the CdIn₂S₄/CdS S-scheme heterojunction to realize selective photocatalytic oxidation of toluene [9]. Despite the significant progress of these sensing strategies in

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improving the PEC performance, the limitation of the spectral utilization range of photoactive materials still constrains the further improvement of the photoelectric conversion efficiency in PEC sensing platforms.

Most photoactive materials primarily focus on the utilization of energy in the UV-visible region, therefore enhancing the exploitation of energy in other spectral ranges holds promise for improving photoelectric conversion efficiency [10,11]. Recent studies have found that integrating nanomaterials with photothermal and thermoelectric conversion properties in the same analytical platform can effectively exploit excess thermal energy to enhance photocatalytic performance [12,13]. Inorganic nanomaterials (e.g., two-dimensional nanomaterials, transition metal sulfides, etc.) exhibit higher photoelectric conversion efficiencies due to better water solubility as well as photostability [14]. For instance, Liu et al. used reduced graphene oxide (rGO) to improve the catalytic rate significantly by thermally assisted photocatalytic reduction of CO_2 [15]. Li et al. applied the pyroelectric material of CdS into the field of photocatalytic hydrogen evolution, which reduced the use of noble metals and improved the apparent quantum efficiency, demonstrating the feasibility of the pyroelectric effect to enhance photocatalytic efficiency [16]. Therefore, rationally utilizing the potential of solar energy and transcending the limitation of solar energy spectra, the thermally assisted photocatalytic behavior provides a viable pathway for the early realization of practical applications of PEC sensing platforms [17].

Inspired by the above results, a dual-drive sensing platform for the ultrasensitive detection of CD44 was developed based on S-scheme heterojunction constructed from $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ (Scheme 1). The photothermal agent In_2S_3 synergized with the pyroelectric material CdS to efficiently convert unutilized light energy into thermal energy, providing a strong external driving force for the efficient separation of electrons and holes [18]. Meanwhile, the effective regulation of interfacial charge was realized by using sulfur vacancies (SVs) as the internal driving force of the system. In summary, the externally driven mechanism of thermal energy synergized with the internally driven mechanism of SVs through the ordered pathways provided by the S-scheme heterojunction jointly contributed to the direction of carrier migration and the separation rate at the heterojunction interface [19]. The dual-drive strategy fully utilized the excess energy of solar energy to construct the PEC sensor with high detection performance, which

provides a new idea for sensing technology.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Materials and instruments

The antigens and antibodies used in this experiment, such as CD44 and anti-CD44, are all from Wuhan Fine Biotech Co., Ltd. Additional information can be found in the [supporting information](#).

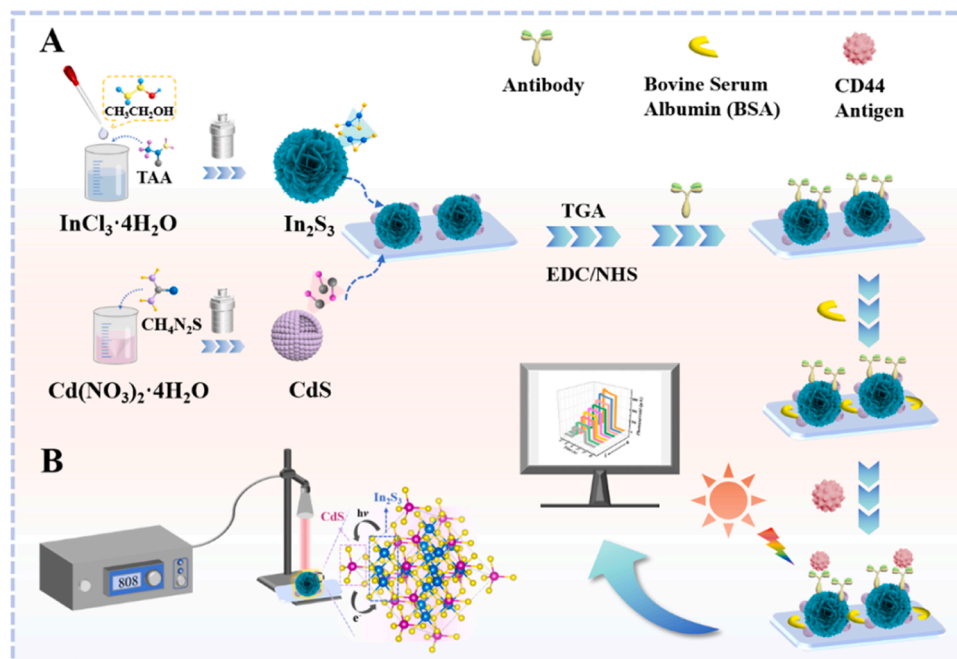
2.2. Synthesis of In_2S_3 and CdS

In_2S_3 was synthesized by a typical one-pot hydrothermal method [20]. The preparation process of In_2S_3 is shown in Scheme 1A. 0.8 mmol of InCl_3 with 1.6 mmol of TAA was dissolved in 30 mL of a mixed solution of ethanol and deionized water with a volume ratio of 1:1. After stirring for 30 min, the solution was heated at 180 °C for 24 h. The samples were collected after natural cooling, washed and dried.

CdS was prepared by hydrothermal synthesis [21]. 0.01 mmol of $\text{Cd}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 4 \text{H}_2\text{O}$ was added to 40 mL of ethanol and stirred with the same molar ratio of thiourea. The mixture was heated at 150 °C for 24 h. The sample was washed several times by centrifugation and dried under vacuum.

2.3. Photoelectrical sensing of CD44

The process of constructing the dual-drive PEC sensing platform is described in Scheme 1A. To introduce CdS hollow spheres after modifying In_2S_3 nanoflowers on bare indium tin oxide (ITO) electrodes. Carboxyl-containing thioglycolic acid (TGA) provided the carboxyl group, and 1-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-3-ethyl carbodiimide hydrochloride (EDC)/N-hydroxysuccinimide (NHS) was used for the activation of the carboxyl group to achieve antibody connection. After incubation with a certain concentration of capture antibody (Ab), bovine serum albumin (BSA) was introduced to block the non-specific site to avoid unnecessary interference. Then, the PEC sensor was successfully constructed by adding different concentrations of CD44. A phosphate buffer solution (PBS) containing 0.1 mol L^{-1} ascorbic acid (AA) was added to the aluminum foil-wrapped electrolytic cell and PEC



Scheme 1. (A) Synthesis of In_2S_3 , CdS and fabrication steps of the PEC sensing platform. (B) Photothermal detection schematic diagram.

was measured using a three-electrode system. In addition, the sensor was irradiated by an 808 nm near-infrared laser (1.5 w cm^{-2}) for 140 s to verify the photothermoelectric effect on its performance (Scheme 1B).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization of In_2S_3 , CdS and $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$

Scanning electron microscopes (SEM) and transmission electron microscopes (TEM) were used to characterize the structure and morphology of materials. Initially, In_2S_3 displayed nanoflowers with diameters of about $3 \sim 5 \mu\text{m}$, containing ruffled petals that facilitated uniform material dispersion (Fig. 1A). In Fig. 1B, the CdS exhibited a hollow sphere morphology with a diameter of approximately 300 nm, which reduced the diffusion path length of photo-generated carriers and improved the charge transfer efficiency. The uniformly loaded CdS hollow spheres on the surface of In_2S_3 nanoflowers could be observed in Fig. 1C. The change of crystalline phase after composite was analyzed by X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) diffraction pattern (Fig. 1D). No shifts of the $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ composite diffraction peaks shifted, but the crystallinity decreased, indicating the composite had high concentration defects [22]. Furthermore, Fig. 1E observed CdS hollow spheres loaded with In_2S_3 microflower surfaces in TEM. The crystal structure of $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ and elemental composition (S, Cd and In) were shown by high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) (Fig. 1F) and element mapping (Fig. 1G). The In_2S_3 and CdS lattice spacing distances were 0.62 and 0.362 nm, corresponding to the (103) and (100)

crystal planes, respectively. As shown in Fig. 1H, with the introduction of CdS, the absorption intensity of $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ in the visible region was significantly increased. Photoluminescence (PL) was another index of the recombination of photo-generated electrons and holes, where a low PL intensity indicated a low rate of electron-hole recombination [23]. The PL spectra showed a distinct emission peak at 610 nm for both original In_2S_3 and $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ composites, and the intensity of the composites was much lower, illustrating that the formation of heterojunction suppressed the recombination of photo-generated carriers, which was conducive to the enhancement of photocatalytic activity (Fig. 1I). In Fig. S1, the interaction force between particles was measured by Zeta potential to determine the bonding force of the heterojunction interface [24]. The CdS surface was positively charged, while In_2S_3 had the opposite charge, suggesting that the heterojunction interface achieved stable composite bonding through electrostatic interactions.

The chemical composition and valence state of the surface elements of pure In_2S_3 , CdS and $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ composite were determined by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) [25]. As shown in Fig. S2, Cd, In and S elements have been observed in the full spectrum of the $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ composite, indicating that the composite was successfully prepared. As observed from the high-resolution spectra of Cd 3d and In 3d (Fig. 2A-B), when In_2S_3 nanoflower was composited with CdS hollow spheres, the characteristic peaks of Cd 3d in the $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ composite shifted towards higher electron binding energy. Conversely, the peaks of In 3d moved in the opposite direction, suggesting the presence of significant electronic interactions between them. The change of SVs on the surface of the original sample In_2S_3 and $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ heterojunction was analyzed by

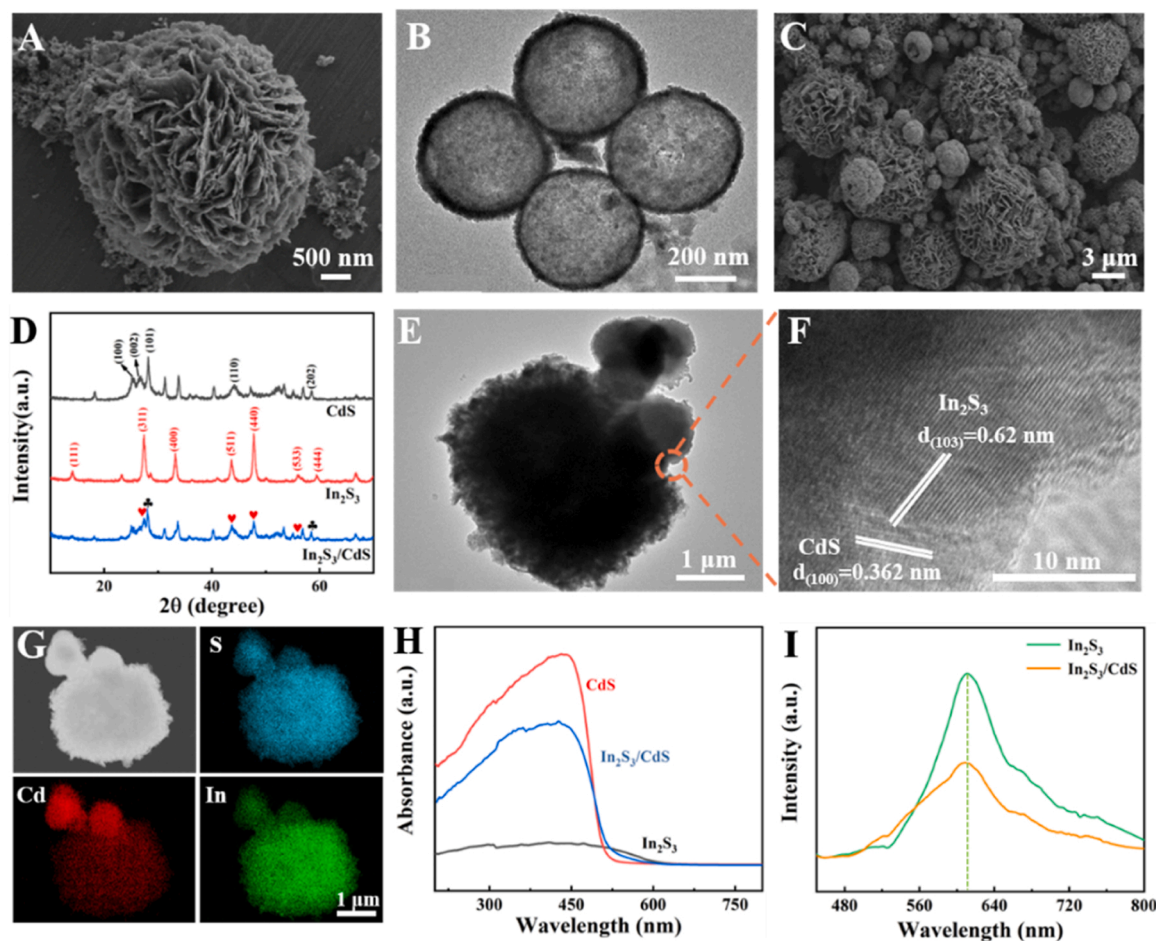


Fig. 1. (A) SEM images of the In_2S_3 . (B) TEM images of the CdS. (C) SEM images of the $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$. (D) XRD patterns of In_2S_3 , CdS and $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$. (E) TEM images of $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$. (F) HRTEM image of $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$. (G) Element mapping corresponding to S, Cd and In in the composite material. (H) UV-Vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy of In_2S_3 , CdS and $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$. (I) PL spectra of the prepared samples.

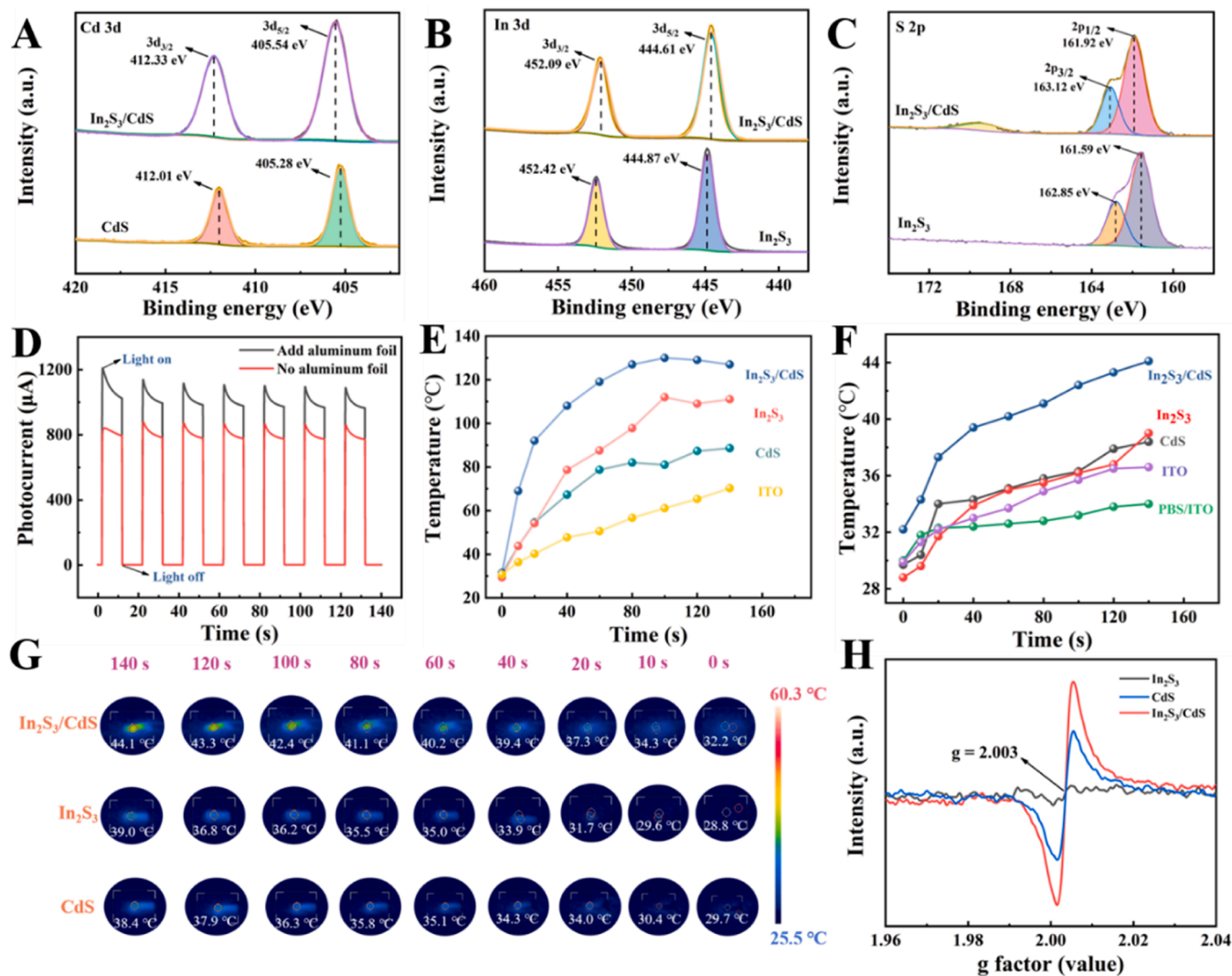


Fig. 2. The high-resolution XPS spectra of (A) Cd 3d, (B) In 3d and (C) S 2p. (D) Photocurrent response of $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ under Xe lamp illumination. (E) Temperature increment curves under 808 nm laser irradiation ($P = 1.5$ W). (F) Temperature increment curves of ITO/ In_2S_3 , ITO/CdS and ITO/ $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ in PBS containing AA. (G) Heating images of ITO/ In_2S_3 , ITO/CdS and ITO/ $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ under Xe lamp illumination (PBS containing AA). (H) EPR spectra of In_2S_3 , CdS and $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$.

XPS. In Fig. 2C, the S 2p electron binding energy of S 2p_{3/2} and S 2p_{1/2} were 161.92 eV and 163.12 eV, respectively, while the electron binding energy of In 3d_{5/2} and In 3d_{3/2} were 444.87 eV and 452.42 eV, respectively. However, on the $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ heterojunction, the electron binding energy of S 2p shifted to a higher direction, while the signal of In 3d shifted slightly to a lower direction. The peak shift in the opposite direction corresponded to the oxidation of S centers and the reduction of In centers, which strongly confirmed the existence of SVs at the $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ heterojunction interface [26].

3.2. PEC and photothermal tests of In_2S_3 and $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$

The transformation of external light energy into thermal energy further influenced the migration of photo-generated carriers. Fig. 2D showed the increase of the photocurrent value to 1.5 times of the original one while using an electrolyzer wrapped with aluminum foil and the standard test. With the continuous irradiation of the light source, the temperature of the buffer solution fluctuates from the initial 32.0 °C to the final 34.1 °C, as shown in Fig. S3. To further investigate the influence of photothermal conversion on the direction of electron flow at the heterojunction interface, measurements were carried out using an 808 nm near-infrared laser, and the change of surface temperature was

observed. As shown in Fig. 2E, the photothermal test illumination under 808 nm near-infrared laser irradiation for 140 s revealed that the temperatures of In_2S_3 , CdS and $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ were gradually increased and stabilized. Among them, $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ has strong absorbance in the near-infrared (NIR) spectrum, showing excellent photothermal performance. Photothermal tests were performed in the phosphate buffer solution under the same conditions, and a thermal imager was used to visualize the temperature changes on the surface of material further (Fig. 2F-G). The above test results indicated that the n-type semiconductor photothermal agent In_2S_3 tended to provide electrons to the ITO electrode and the unique nanoflower structure could expose more active sites, exhibiting efficient anodic photocurrent [27]. Based on this, In_2S_3 transfers excess thermal energy from the environment to the pyroelectric material CdS [18], which accelerates charge transfer and enhances the PEC process [28].

During the illumination process, the changing temperature of the pyroelectric material CdS produced spontaneous polarization, which provided a favorable driving force for carrier separation [29]. Besides that, the SVs in $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ heterojunction were characterized by an electron paramagnetic resonance spectrometer (EPR). As shown in Fig. 2H, the EPR response of In_2S_3 was almost negligible, indicating the absence of localized unpaired electrons in In_2S_3 . In contrast, CdS

samples showed a sharp increase in EPR signal at $g = 2.003$, confirming abundant SVs in CdS [30]. With the introduction of CdS to construct heterojunction, the EPR signal became increasingly apparent, indicating the formation of more SVs on $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$. New defect levels of SVs were introduced into the energy band structure of the heterojunction to drive the organized charge migration, consequently enhancing photoelectric conversion efficiency [26].

3.3. Mechanism analysis

Density functional theory (DFT) calculation is an effective method to study the migration of photo-generated carriers in S-scheme heterojunctions. According to the band theory, the work function (Φ) represents the energy difference between the vacuum and the Fermi energy level, which guides the direction of charge transfer in the heterojunction [31]. Based on the calculation of DFT (Fig. 3A-B), the work functions of In_2S_3 (200 crystal plane) and CdS (200 crystal plane) were 5.427 eV and 5.228 eV, respectively. Electrons can flow from the semiconductor with a low work function to the semiconductor with a high work function at the contact surface [32]. In Fig. 3C, when the two semiconductors were in close contact, the Fermi energy level difference drove the transfer of electrons from CdS to In_2S_3 until the Fermi energy levels reached equilibrium [33]. The migration of electron resulted in the formation of

the Helmholtz electric double layer structure at the interface of heterojunction. The band edge of In_2S_3 was bent downward due to the electrical gain, while CdS's band edge was bent upwards because of the electron loss. Eventually, the migration of electron at the interfaces of In_2S_3 and CdS led to the formation of an electron accumulation layer and an electron depletion layer, respectively, which is responsible for the establishment of the internal electric field (IEF) [34]. Combining the band gap and conduction band values of In_2S_3 and CdS obtained from the Tauc equation and Mott-Schottky curves (Fig. S4), the above results are consistent with typical S-scheme heterojunction charge transfer paths.

Based on the energy band structure, a potential mechanism was proposed to elucidate how dual-drive forces accelerate the transition of photo-generated carriers within the S-scheme heterojunctions (Fig. 3D). The In_2S_3 nanoflowers converted the excess light energy absorption into thermal energy, which made the temperature of the pyroelectric material CdS fluctuate and produced apparent dipole oscillation. Exposing CdS to both external light and thermal energy accelerated the transport rate of photo-generated carriers and significantly improved the photoelectric response [29]. The defect energy levels of SVs induced CdS photo-generated carriers to transfer to VB of In_2S_3 and recombined with holes, promoting the rapid separation of photo-generated carriers on In_2S_3 . Briefly, the photo-generated carriers could be separated and

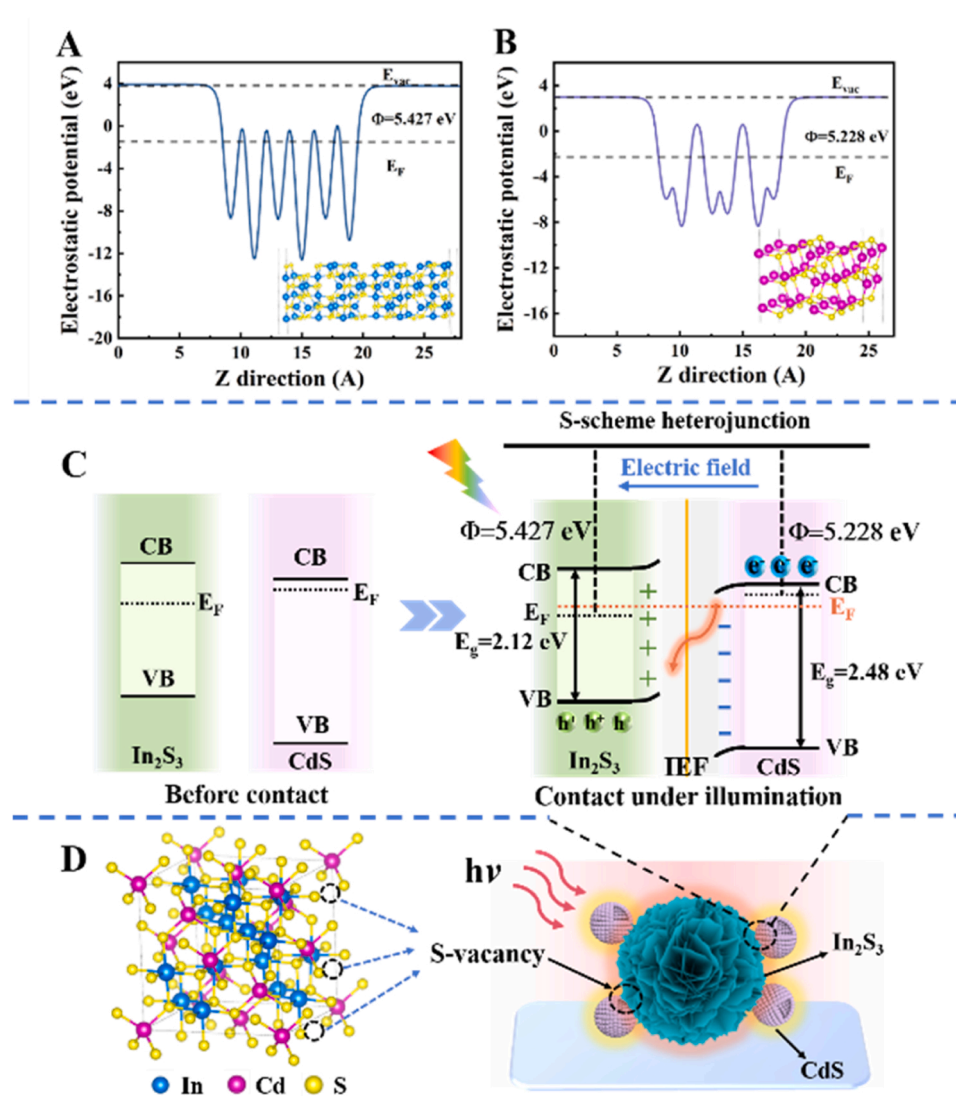


Fig. 3. (A, B) Work functions of In_2S_3 and CdS. (C) Electrons transfer paths of $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ S-scheme heterojunction. (D) The possible PEC mechanism of $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$ heterojunction.

moved along the S-scheme heterojunction due to the synergistic effect of the photothermoelectric effect and SVs induction at the interface.

3.4. Characterization of PEC sensor construction process

To verify the success of the biosensor preparation, we used the PEC test and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) to characterize its construction process [35]. As observed in the Fig. 4A, it showed an excellent anodic photocurrent (curve b) when In_2S_3 was modified on a bare ITO electrode (curve a). The photocurrent of CdS on ITO/ In_2S_3 increased significantly (curve c), which could be attributed to the absorption of heat by the photothermal agent In_2S_3 leading to the rapid migration of photo-generated carriers within the pyroelectric semiconductor material (CdS), slowing down the electron-hole recombination rate [36]. In Fig. 4B, due to the increase of protein hindrance, the photocurrent gradually decreased when Ab (curve d), BSA (curve e) and CD44 (curve f) were steadily modified, and the equivalent circuit was fitted to give the corresponding R_{et} value (Table S1). All the above test results demonstrated that the fabricated sensor achieved perfect construction.

3.5. Performance analysis

To evaluate the analytical performance of the biosensor, the PEC response of different concentrations of CD44 to the biosensor was studied under optimal experimental conditions (Fig. S5) [3]. In Fig. 5A, the anode photocurrent signal decreased as the CD44 antigen concentration increased (from 0.001 ~ 1000 ng mL^{-1}). Besides, we found that the difference between the photocurrent and CD44 concentration logarithm showed a better linear relationship (Fig. 5B) with a linear equation of $I = 386.1 - 74.47 \times \lg c_{\text{CD44}}$ ($R^2 = 0.9972$). Compared with other reported methods (Table S2), this PEC sensing platform was preferable for the analytical detection of CD44.

In the practical CD44 detection, stability and selectivity were essential factors in evaluating PEC detection platforms [37]. The photocurrent density and shape barely fluctuated during 21 repetitive switching on/off irradiation cycles, indicating that the PEC platform has good stability (Fig. 5C). Furthermore, selectivity was validated using several potential disruptors (CA72-4, CA125 and HFABP) at 100 ng mL^{-1} concentrations. Satisfactorily, these disturbances all showed a weak effect and only a solution with the target subject could alter the photocurrent signal (Fig. 5D). The results demonstrated that the PEC sensor platform utilizing an internal and external dual-drive strategy exhibited outstanding selectivity towards CD44, thereby ensuring the reliability of detection results in complex samples. The relative standard deviation (RSD) of the sensor reproducibility test in Fig. 5E was 0.48 %, indicating good reproducibility among the sensors. After storing the successfully constructed PEC sensor in a refrigerator at 4 °C for four weeks, the photocurrent remained at 85.2 % of the initial

intensity (Fig. 5F), suggesting credible stability.

3.6. Analysis of real samples

To evaluate the performance of the PEC biosensor in actual detection, we tested the recovery of CD44 in serum samples at different concentrations by the spike recovery test. In Table S3, the acceptable recovery rate of CD44 ranged from 99.44 ~ 100.1 % and the RSD was 0.19 ~ 1.8 %. The above results demonstrated that this sensing strategy possessed great potential for the application of CD44 in clinical detection.

4. Conclusions

In summary, a PEC biosensing platform was developed based on the dual-drive strategy to achieve ultrasensitive detection of CD44. The advantages of the designed innovative platform are as follows: (1) The innovative introduction of photothermal materials fully utilized the excess energy in the environment as an external driving force, successfully increasing the photocurrent response of the sensing platform to 1.5 times that of the original. (2) Sulfur vacancies (SVs) functioned as an internal driving force that altered the initial atomic arrangement within the heterojunction, thereby diminishing the impediment to charge transfer and facilitating the induced separation of interfacial charges. (3) In contrast to the conventional heterojunction sensing interface, the developed S-scheme heterojunction established an ordered separation pathway conducive to directed charge transport. In consequence, the well-designed dual-drive strategy offers a novel approach to achieving ultrasensitive detection, which is conducive to facilitating the extensive research of photothermal materials in immunoassays.

Associated content

None.

Supporting information

Materials and instruments; apparatus, Zeta potential of In_2S_3 , CdS and $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$, the band gap values, Mott-Schottky plots, temperature rise curve of buffer solution under xenon lamp irradiation, optimization of experimental conditions for PEC sensor, the R_{et} of EIS in Fig. 2B, comparison of proposed methods for the detection of PD-L1, detection of the PD-L1 in human serum samples and the calculation of LOD.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Hongmin Ma: Methodology. **Dan Wu:** Supervision. **Hongying Jia:** Writing – review & editing. **Tingting Wu:** Writing – review & editing. **Huangxian Ju:** Supervision, Resources. **Qin Wei:** Writing – review &

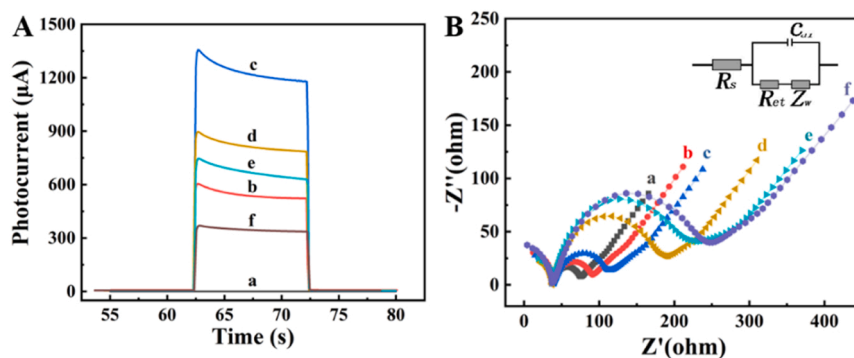


Fig. 4. (A) Photocurrent response and (B) EIS results with (a) ITO, (b) ITO/ In_2S_3 , (c) ITO/ $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}$, (d) ITO/ $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}/\text{Ab}$, (e) ITO/ $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}/\text{Ab}/\text{BSA}$, (f) ITO/ $\text{In}_2\text{S}_3/\text{CdS}/\text{Ab}/\text{BSA}/\text{CD44}$.

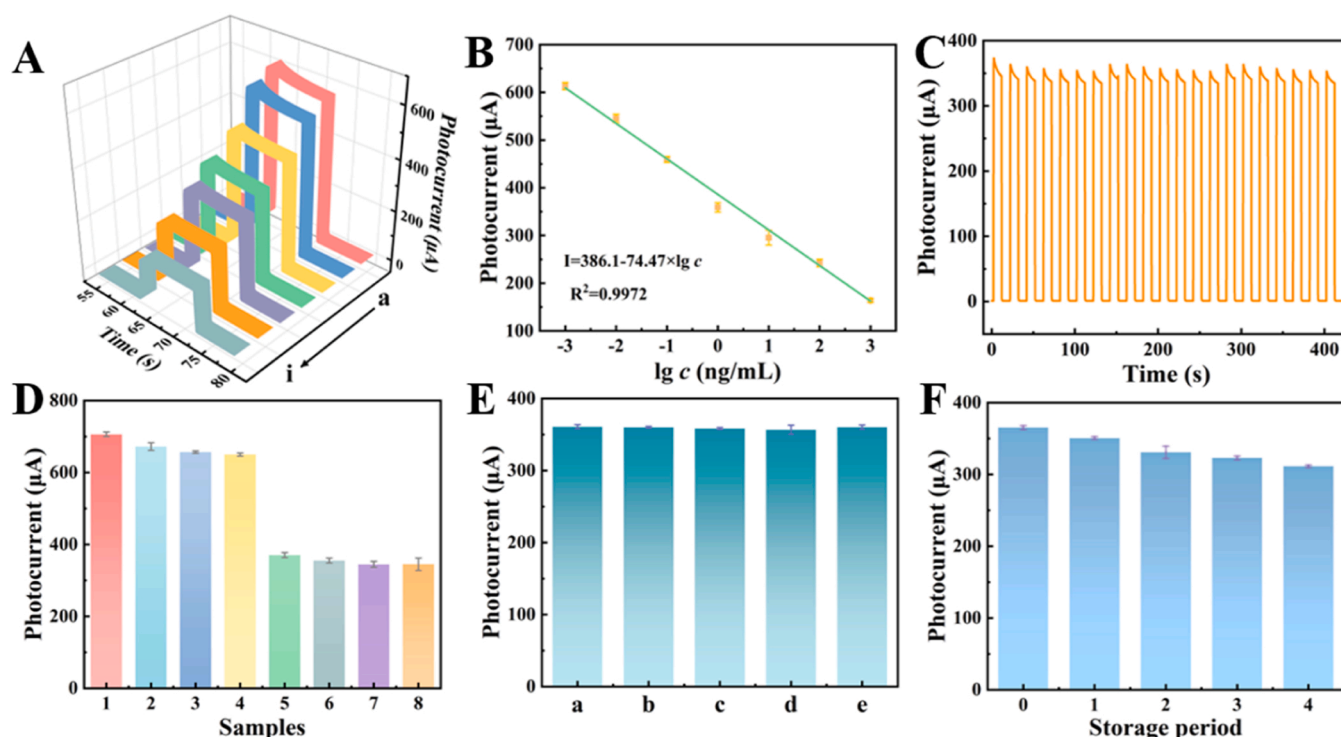


Fig. 5. (A) Photocurrent response of PEC immunosensors with different concentrations of CD44 ($0.001 \sim 1000 \text{ ng mL}^{-1}$). (B) Calibration curve. (C) Stability of the PEC sensor in response to CD44 (1 ng mL^{-1}). (D) Selective testing: (1) the blank samples, 100 ng mL^{-1} of (2) CA72-4, (3) CA153 and (4) HFABP were added to the blank samples, and 100 ng mL^{-1} (6) CA72-4, (7) CA153 and (8) HFABP were added to 1 ng mL^{-1} CD44. (E) Reproducibility test. (F) Storage stability. (Error bar, $n = 3$).

editing, Supervision. **Yamei Li**: Writing – original draft. **Xuan Kuang**: Investigation. **Faying Li**: Data curation.

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.

Data Availability

The authors do not have permission to share data.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.snb.2024.136056](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.snb.2024.136056).

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