1	Lactate biosensor based on a bionanocomposite composed of titanium
2	oxide nanoparticles, photocatalytically reduced graphene, and lactate
3	oxidase
4	
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#### 19 Abstract

20 We have developed a lactate biosensor based on a bionanocomposite (BNC) 21 composed of titanium dioxide nanoparticles (TiO<sub>2</sub>-NPs), photocatalytically reduced 22 graphene, and lactate oxidase. Graphene oxide was photochemically reduced (without 23 using any chemical reagents) in the presence of  $TiO_2$ -NPs to give graphene nanosheets 24 that were characterized by atomic force microscopy, Raman and X-ray photoelectron 25 spectroscopy. The results show the nanosheets to possess few oxygen functionalities 26 only and to be decorated with TiO<sub>2</sub>-NPs. These nanosheets typically are at least 1 µm 27 long and have a thickness of 4.2 nm. A BNC was obtained by mixing lactate oxidase 28 with the nanosheets and immobilized on the surface of a glassy carbon electrode. The 29 resulting biosensor was applied to the determination of lactate. Compared to a sensor without TiO<sub>2</sub>-NPs, the sensor exhibits higher sensitivity (6.0  $\mu$ A mM<sup>-1</sup>), a better 30 31 detection limit (0.6 µM), a wider linear response (2.0 µM to 0.40 mM), and better 32 reproducibility (3.2%).

33

34 Keywords: bionanocomposite, photocatalitically reduced graphene, titanium dioxide
35 NPs, biosensors platforms, lactate oxidase.

## 37 Introduction

38 Bionanocomposites based on carbon nanomaterials and metal/metal oxide 39 nanoparticles offer a friendly platform to immobilize biomolecules due to the 40 synergistic effect provided by their different components [1].

41 Among the different carbon nanomaterials, graphene, a two-dimensional lattice of 42  $sp^2$ -hybridized carbon, has attracted a great interest in recent years because of its unique 43 mechanical, electrical, thermal and optical properties, opening up an exciting new 44 research field due to its enormous potential [2-3]. In particular, a vast amount of 45 research in this field has been focused on the development of different methods for 46 generating graphene, each one with different advantages and disadvantages [4-6]. 47 Among these methods, a chemical procedure, based on graphite powder oxidation in the 48 presence of oxidants compounds and strong acids, has been widely employed because it 49 allows to obtain graphene mass production, at low cost and with simple equipments [7-50 8]. This synthesis method leads to a final product, graphene oxide (GO), presenting a 51 highly hydrophilic character due to the large number of oxygen-containing functional 52 groups created during the oxidation process. Thus, stable suspensions of GO in water or 53 polar organic solvents can be easily obtained by sonication. From GO, following 54 different procedures, it is possible to diminish the oxygen-containing functional groups 55 giving rise to reduced graphene. The most usual reduction strategy is based on the 56 employment of chemical agents such as hydrazine or hydroquinone [9-10]. However, as 57 a consequence of the increasing requirements towards a green chemistry, alternative 58 methods, precluding contamination caused by the chemical reducing agents, are 59 developed [11-12]. The as-synthesized reduced graphene is suitable for a wide number 60 of applications ranging from electronics [13] to energy storage and conversion, i.e., 61 supercapacitors [14], batteries [15], and fuel cells [16]. In particular, since it is a

conductive and transparent material with a high surface area, graphene has found a great
applicability for electrochemical and optical biosensors development [17-19].

Nowadays, metal and metal oxide NPs have also attracted great interest as a 64 65 promising interface for proteins immobilization and, therefore, for biosensor 66 development, due to their advanced properties, such as large specific surface area, 67 strong adsorption ability and a remarkable tendency to enhance electron-transfer 68 between enzymes and electrodes. Although until now gold NPs and silver NPs are the 69 most employed in fabricating biosensors [20-21], other metal and metal oxide NPs, such 70 as palladium, platinum, ZrO<sub>2</sub> and ZnO ones, have also been used for this purpose [22-71 23]. An alternative interesting possibility is the employment of titanium dioxide NPs. 72 This material is considered a quasi ideal narrow band gap semiconductor for 73 photocatalysis due to its high stability, low cost and green character.

74 Taking into account the excellent individual properties of the as-mentioned 75 nanostructures, their combination presents new opportunities to develop biosensors devices with improved performances. In particular, nanocomposites based on graphene 76 77 and metal or metal oxides NPs have been employed to develop genosensors for the 78 detection of sequence-specific DNA and enzymatic biosensors for glucose, cholesterol 79 and alcohol determination [24-25]. As result of the synergistic effect of both 80 components, the nanocomposite offers a friendly platform for enzyme or DNA 81 immobilization and facilitates the electron transfer between the enzyme or a redox 82 indicator and the transducer.

It is well known that development of lactate biosensors receives significant interest, due to the potential interest of this analyte as biomarker. The level of lactate in blood is an important parameter for diagnosis of patient conditions during intensive care and surgical operation process, as well as for estimating physical conditions of athletes. In

addition, in food industry the lactate level is an indicator of the fermentative process and
is related to freshness, stability and storage quality of products such as tomato sauces,
fruits, juices, wine and milk.

90 The aim of the present work is to explore the great potential of bionanocomposites 91 based on reduced graphene, titanium dioxide NPs and lactate oxidase, deposited onto a 92 glassy carbon surface, as environment-friendly biosensing platforms. As mentioned 93 above, the employment of TiO<sub>2</sub>-NPs in the development of bionanocomposites provides 94 additional advantages for biosensor applications such as its high biocompatibility. 95 Furthermore, since titanium dioxide is an excellent photocatalysist, it can also play a 96 mediating role in the reduction of graphene oxide giving rise to photocatalytically 97 reduced graphene (PRG) that is decorated with TiO<sub>2</sub>-NPs [11, 26]. Therefore, this 98 method offers a strategy to fabricate TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG nanocomposites in a single step and 99 following a green method.

Previously to the incorporation of the enzyme, the as-synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG nanocomposite has been characterized by atomic force microscopy (AFM), Raman spectroscopy and X-Ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) in order to determine the lateral dimensions/thickness of the sheets and to assure that the oxygen functionalities have been reduced.

As far as we know, this is the first time that photocatalytically reduced graphene and  $TiO_2$ -NPs have been employed to develop lactate oxidase based biosensors. The performance of the resulting device has been compared with that obtained for a biosensor, also developed by us [27], based on electrochemically reduced graphene and, therefore, free of titanium dioxide NPs.

110

# 112 **Experimental Section**

## 113 Materials

114 Ultrapure spectroscopic graphite powder (C, particle size 50.0-50.3 µm) was 115 obtained from United Carbon Products Co. Inc. (Bay City, MI, USA). Lactate oxidase 116 (LOx, EC 232-841-6 from Pediococcus species) lyophilized powder containing 41 117 units/mg solid was obtained from the Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO, 118 http://www.sigmaaldrich.com). Stock solution was prepared dissolving 1.3 mg of the 119 LOx lyophilized powder in 250 µL of 0.1M phosphate buffer solution (pH=7.0), 120 aliquoted (10 µL) and stored at -30°C. Under these conditions the enzymatic activity several weeks. L-(+)-lactic 121 remains stable for acid lithium salt 97%, 122 hydroxymethylferrocene (HMF), N,N'-Dimethylformamide, potassium persulfate, 123 phosphorus pentoxide, potassium permanganate and hydrogen peroxide were obtained 124 from Aldrich Chemical Co. (Milwaukee, WI, http://www.sigmaaldrich.com). Titanium 125 (IV) isopropoxide (C<sub>12</sub>H<sub>28</sub>O<sub>4</sub>Ti) was also purchase from Aldrich Chemical Co (Product 126 Number: 377996, CAS-No.: 546-68-9). Other chemicals used in this work, such as 127 sulphuric acid, ethanol (99.5% v/v), hydrochloric acid and sodium phosphate were 128 reagent grade quality and used as received without additional purification steps. Sodium 129 phosphate (http://www.merck.com) was employed for the preparation of buffer 130 solutions. Water purified with Millipore Milli-Q-System was a 131 (http://www.millipore.com). All solutions were prepared just prior to use.

132

#### 133 **Experimental techniques**

134 The phases present in the coating were determined by using a X-ray diffractometry 135 (X'Pert PRO XRD, Panalytical) at a glancing angle of 0.5° using a Cu K<sub> $\alpha$ </sub> line generated 136 at 40 mA, 45 kV: start position [°2theta] 5.0100; end position [°2theta] 39.9900; step size [°2theta] 0.0167; scan step time [s] 100 with x'celerator detector. The
diffractometer works with the wavelength of copper, which is 1.5406 nm.

139 The AFM measurements were performed in air with Nanoscope IIIa (Veeco) and 140 Agilent 5500 (Agilent) equipments. The images were taken in the dynamic mode using 141 silicon cantilevers (Bruker) with a nominal force constant of 40 N/m. First, large areas (around 100  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup>) were scanned in order to locate the graphene structures which were 142 143 then imaged at higher resolution. The images, 512 x 512 pixels, were taken with 144 different cantilevers in order to ensure that the imaged structures were not due to tip 145 artefacts. Supports used in AFM and XPS measurements were Si substrates from 146 University Wafer, USA. Note that on the Si surface there is a very thin layer of native 147  $SiO_2$  (1-2 nm) formed after air exposure. Thus, we denote these substrates as  $Si/SiO_2$ .

Micro-Raman experiments were performed at room temperature with the 488 nm line of an  $Ar^+$  laser with incident power in the range 0.1–1 mW. The light is focused and collected with an Olympus microscope (x100 objective) and a "super-notch-plus" filter from Kaiser is used to eliminate the elastic light. The scattered light is analyzed with a Jobin -Yvon 460HR monochromator coupled to liquid nitrogen cooled CCD.

153 The XPS experimental set up consists in an ultra high vacuum chamber with a base pressure of  $10^{-10}$  mbar. The chamber is equipped with a Phoibos 150 hemispherical 154 155 energy analyzer and an X-Ray source XR50 both from SPECS. The XPS spectra 156 analysis was done using the FITT program after a Shirley background subtraction, the 157 default lorentzian width is 0.3 eV and the default gaussian width is 1.6 eV. The sample 158 energy was calibrated using the Si2p core level peak which appears at 99 eV, using this 159 reference we find shifts of -0.19 eV and -0.79 eV for GO and TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG, respectively. 160 UV-irradiation of TiO<sub>2</sub>-GO mixtures was performed using an Oriel 450 W xenon

161 arc lamp in order to obtain photocatalytically reduced graphene.

162 Cyclic voltammetric studies were carried out with an Ecochemie Autolab 163 PGSTAT12 system (Utrecht, The Netherlands, http://www.ecochemie.nl). The 164 electrochemical experiments were carried out in a three-compartment cell with a 165 working glassy carbon electrode and a platinum wire as counter electrode 166 (http://www.metrohm.com). All potentials were reported with respect to a Ag/AgCl 167 reference electrode without taking into account the liquid junction. All solutions were 168 deaerated with nitrogen gas before use, keeping the gas flow over the solutions during 169 experiments.

170

#### 171 **Procedures**

# 172 Synthesis of graphene oxide

Graphene oxide was synthesized from graphite powder by a modified Hummers method [7]. The solid obtained was dried in air and mixed with 5 mM phosphate buffer solution (pH=7.0), obtaining a 0.5 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> graphite oxide dispersion. Exfoliation was carried out by sonicating it during one hour. The resulting product, denoted as graphene oxide, was subsequently reduced following photocatalytical procedures [11].

# 178 Synthesis of TiO<sub>2</sub> colloidal suspension

179 The preparation of the  $TiO_2$  colloids in the nanometer range can be performed 180 through the hydrolysis and condensation of titanium alkoxides. In order to prepare a 181 TiO<sub>2</sub> colloidal suspension, 20 µL of titanium isopropoxide was added to a vigorously 182 stirred solution of 10 mL of ethanol (99.5% v/v) at room temperature [11]. Since there 183 is a 0.5% of water, the  $[H_2O] / [C_{12}H_{28}O_4T_i]$  molar ratio was of 28 and the pH was 8.6. 184 Stirring is mandatory in order to prevent agglomeration of the particles. The resulting 185 colloidal suspension was subsequently employed for the UV-induced photocatalytic 186 reduction of graphene oxide.

# 187 Synthesis of photocatalytically reduced graphene

188 UV-induced photocatalytic reduction was carried out from the as-synthesized GO and

189 TiO<sub>2</sub> colloidal suspension, following a published procedure [11]. The resulting product,

- 190 denoted as photocatalytically reduced graphene, was redispersed in EtOH, leading to a
- 191 final concentration of  $0.5 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$ .

#### 192 Preparation of the samples used for XRD, AFM, Raman and XPS measurements

193  $TiO_2$  samples for XRD and AFM measurements were prepared by deposition of 100

194  $\mu$ L and 10  $\mu$ L of TiO<sub>2</sub> stirred colloidal suspension in ethanol on Si/SiO<sub>2</sub> surfaces,

195 respectively and allowing them to air-dry.

196 GO and/or  $TiO_2/PRG$  samples for AFM, Raman and XPS measurements were 197 prepared by deposition of 10  $\mu$ L of the corresponding stock dispersion on Si/SiO<sub>2</sub> 198 surfaces and allowing them to air-dry.

# 199 Preparation of the electrochemical biosensing platforms

200 Prior to each experiment, glassy carbon (GC) electrodes were polished with 1 µm 201 diamond paste (Buehler) and rinsed with water. The TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG/GC modified electrodes 202 were prepared by placing 10  $\mu$ L of the TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG stock suspension on the GC electrode 203 surface. After air-dried, the modified electrodes were washed with ethanol. The 204 electrochemical biosensing platform, denoted as LOx/TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG/GC, was developed by 205 placing 10 µL of the LOx stock solution onto the TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG/GC electrode surface. After 206 air-dried, the modified electrodes were washed with water to remove any weakly bound 207 material.

208

## 209 Results and discussion

210 We have synthesized photocatalytically reduced graphene by subjecting a mixture 211 of graphene oxide and a  $TiO_2$  colloidal suspension to UV irradiation. Therefore, in a first step we have obtained a titanium dioxide NPs following the procedure described in the experimental section and subsequently we have characterized them by XRD and AFM. Figure S1A shows the X-ray diffraction pattern of the as-synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub>-NPs deposited onto a Si/SiO<sub>2</sub> surface. The observed diffraction peaks, centered at  $2\theta=25^{\circ}$ ,  $38^{\circ}$ ,  $48^{\circ}$ ,  $55^{\circ}$  and  $63^{\circ}$ , correspond to (110), (200), (112), (220) and (310) planes, which indicates the formation of single phase titanium dioxide [28].



Figure S1. (A) XRD pattern, (B) AFM image of TiO<sub>2</sub>-NPs deposited onto a Si/SiO<sub>2</sub>
substrate, (C) Height distribution corresponding to the image in figure S1B.

221 In addition, atomic force microscopy technique was employed to study the 222 morphological characteristics of the same sample. Figure S1B shows a 2.5 µm x 2.5 µm 223 AFM image of TiO<sub>2</sub>-NPs deposited onto a Si/SiO<sub>2</sub> surface. Isolated nanoparticles are 224 imaged displaying different sizes. As the measured diameter is affected by tip 225 convolution effects, in order to obtain the size distribution of the nanoparticles, we have 226 measured their height. Thus, we have measured up to 300 nanoparticles to have enough 227 statistics and the corresponding height histogram is shown in figure S1C. From this 228 distribution, we obtain an average size of  $3.4 \text{ nm} \pm 1.7 \text{ nm}$ .

In a second step, graphite oxide was prepared following the modified Hummers method described in the experimental section, which involves oxidation of graphite powder by addition of strong acids and oxidant agents. Since the degree of oxidation

232 deeply depends on both the reaction conditions and the graphite precursor employed, an 233 exhaustive characterization of the synthesized nanomaterial has been performed by 234 several techniques. In order to do this, the resulting graphite oxide obtained by the 235 modified Hummers method is exfoliated by sonication in an aqueous media to produce 236 stable dispersions of thin graphene oxide sheets. These GO sheets have been 237 characterized by X-Ray diffraction spectroscopy (XRD), X-Ray photoelectron 238 spectroscopy (XPS) and atomic force microscopy (AFM). The information gathered by 239 this combination of techniques can be summarized as follows: i) from XRD, it can be 240 concluded that the synthesis of GO is successfully achieved because the spectra displays 241 a diffraction peak centered at  $2\theta=10.4^{\circ}$ , which is typical of GO; ii) AFM allows to 242 conclude that the synthesis methodology affords the production of GO nanosheets that 243 present a typical lateral dimension of several hundreds of nanometers and a thickness value of  $1.3 \pm 0.1$  nm; iii) XPS data shows that the synthesized GO contains sp<sup>2</sup>-244 245 hybridized carbon and at least four types of carbon bonded to different oxygen 246 functional groups (C-OH, C-O, C=O and O-C=O), indicating a considerable oxidation 247 degree [27].

248 From the as-synthesized GO, we have prepared reduced graphene. The reduction 249 step, which can be achieved by different methods, a diminution of the oxygenated 250 functionalities. In our case, we have employed a photocatalytic method based on 251 irradiating a mixture of GO and TiO<sub>2</sub>-NPs with UV-light [11]. As GO accepts electrons 252 from UV irradiated TiO<sub>2</sub> suspensions, a change in color of the suspensions from brown 253 to black takes place, as can be observed in figure S2 (A, B, C). TiO<sub>2</sub> is a semiconductor 254 whose band gap corresponds to light of approximately 350 nm. Irradiation at this 255 wavelength promotes electrons from the valence band of the material to the conduction 256 band, generating electron-hole pairs (figure S2D, reaction 1). Most of these pairs (90%) recombine within picoseconds, but some persist for at least a few nanoseconds [29]. These surviving electron-hole pairs can produce various reactive species, depending upon the environment in which they are created. In a N<sub>2</sub>-saturated ethanolic environment, the holes are scavenged to produce ethoxy radicals (figure S2D, reaction 2), leading to an electron accumulation in TiO<sub>2</sub>-NPs.



Figure S2. 10 mM TiO<sub>2</sub> colloidal suspension in ethanol (A), mixture of GO and TiO<sub>2</sub>
colloidal suspension before (B) and after (C) 3 hours of UV irradiation. (D) Mechanism
of the TiO<sub>2</sub>-UV-assisted photocatalytic reduction of graphene oxide.

In presence of electron acceptors, such as fullerenes and carbon nanotubes, decreases the trapped electrons in the  $TiO_2$  particles [30]. In the same way, the excited  $TiO_2$ -NPs reduce the oxygenated functionalities of GO, such as carboxylic acid, epoxy and hydroxyl groups, allowing to obtain reduced graphene (figure S2D, reaction 3).

A typical image of the resulting composite material ( $TiO_2/PRG$ ) is shown in figure 1A. A sort of platelet is imaged that resembles those found for electrochemically reduced graphene [27], but clearly rougher and higher. This increase in roughness and height is related to the relative large amount of rounded nanostructures imaged at the surface that we associate to the presence of titanium dioxide NPs. Thus, from these data, we consider that the platelet is composed by the PRG sheet and  $TiO_2$  nanoparticles.



Figure 1. (A)  $1.6 \times 1.6 \mu m^2$  AFM image of a photocatalytically reduced graphene sheet with TiO<sub>2</sub> nanoparticles on Si/SiO<sub>2</sub> substrate obtained in dynamic mode at air. (B) Height distribution corresponding to the image in figure 1A. The height difference between the two maxima corresponds to the average thickness of the platelet structure.

It is worth to note that these nanoparticles are also found scattered on the surrounding Si/SiO<sub>2</sub> substrate area.

283 As it is mentioned above, the figure clearly shows that there are  $TiO_2$ -NPs on top of 284 the platelet structure, which leads to a relatively rough morphology. Moreover, it is very 285 likely that, due to the sample preparation, below this structure there are also some  $TiO_2$ 286 nanoparticles since they could become attached to both sides of the graphene sheet. This 287 fact, which can further contribute to the observed uneven morphology of the platelet 288 surface, clearly hampers the estimation of the PRG sheet thickness. Thus, the average 289 height of the platelet, which includes both the graphene and TiO<sub>2</sub>-NPs, can be estimated 290 from the height distribution of the image (figure 1B). In this distribution two maxima

are clearly observed, the narrowest one corresponding to the bare silicon surface and the broadest to the platelet structure. These maxima are separated (x-axis) by 8.5 nm, which is then the average thickness of the rough platelet. In order to have an estimation of PRG sheet thickness, we can consider the height of the lowest site on the platelet, which is 4.2 nm. However, this value is likely an overestimation of the PRG sheet thickness since the presence of TiO<sub>2</sub>-NPs between the silicon substrate and the bottom side of the PRG sheet cannot be discarded but rather is very likely.

298 In order to further evaluate the quality of the as- synthesized TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG, we have 299 employed Raman spectroscopy that is a powerful technique to characterize 300 carbonaceous materials. The Raman spectra of GO and TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG are compared in figure 2. In GO, the band around 1350 cm<sup>-1</sup>, denoted as D, is related to the presence of a 301 302 high concentration of defects but, since it is associated to a breathing mode of the  $sp^2$ -C 303 rings, its intensity increases during the first steps of the reduction processes. The 304 elimination of functional groups during the reduction increases the density of rings and 305 therefore the intensity of the D band increases, as observed in figure 2 where the  $I_G/I_D$ ratio increases from 0.8 to 1.03. The decrease of D and G band widths (in the present 306 307 case around 25%) is also an evidence of the elimination of defects. The photochemical 308 process is therefore able to eliminate a significant fraction of the functional groups.



309

Figure 2. Raman spectra of GO and TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG samples. Red and blue lines are the
fits of the experimental data for GO and TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG respectively. Excitation at 488 nm.

313 In order to determine the fraction of the functional groups eliminated during the 314 reduction process, we have performed X-Ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) 315 measurements. This technique is very helpful to determine the chemical composition of 316 substances, since the XPS core level peak of a given element can be decomposed in 317 different components, each one can be attributed to a particular chemical state. The XPS 318 spectra (C1s) of GO and TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG are presented in figure 3A and 3B, respectively. The 319 C1s core level of GO results in a highly asymmetric peak and several curves are needed for a good fit (figure 3A). Following previous works, its decomposition can be 320

performed in terms of C-C sp<sup>2</sup> (284.8 eV), C-OH (285.7 eV), C-O (286.6 eV), C=O 321 322 (287.5 eV) and O-C=O (289.0 eV) components [27, 31, 32]. The ratio between the largest component, corresponding to the signal coming from carbon atoms in the  $sp^2$ 323 configuration, and the other four components, corresponding to signals coming from 324 325 carbon bonded to different oxygen functionalities (C-OH, C-O, C=O and O-C=O), is 326 0.73, indicating a considerable oxidation degree. After the reduction process (figure 327 3B), this ratio reaches a value of 2.05. Thus, the amount that can be attributed to carbon in the sp<sup>2</sup> configuration rises from an original 42.3% in GO to 67.2% in TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG. 328 329 Moreover, from a visual comparison between figure 3A and 3B, it is clear that after the 330 reduction process, an increase of the peak intensity of the component corresponding to C-C  $sp^2$  concomitant with a decrease of the peak intensities of the components 331 332 corresponding to carbon bonded to oxygen functionalities has been occurred. In 333 particular, the C=O, C-OH, C=O and O-C=O components diminish by 9.4%, 8.9%, 334 5.8% and 0.8%, respectively, which represents a global diminution of 25% in the peak 335 intensities of the oxygen-related components. Note that although the C=O and O-C=O 336 components diminish their relative area, they become less modified than the C=O, C-337 OH components. Thus, from these data it can be concluded that photoreduction is an 338 efficient process able to diminish the oxidation degree of a GO sample up to 25% and 339 particularly effective for C=O and C-OH species.



Figure 3. C1s XPS spectra of (A) graphene oxide (GO) and (B) photocatalytically reduced graphene (TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG). The decomposition in curve components is shown in color scale underneath the data points. The black line corresponds to the sum of all the individual components.

345

346 The reduction process can also be corroborated from the O1s peak (data not shown). 347 For TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG, the energy of this peak appears at 532.5 eV, which is the energy value of 348 the oxygen peak in Si/SiO<sub>2</sub> used as substrate. When GO is measured on a Si/SiO<sub>2</sub> 349 substrate, the value shifts to 533.0 eV due to the sum of both contributions (oxygen 350 functionalities coming from GO and from SiO<sub>2</sub>). Finally, it is important to note that 351 there also appears a component with an energy value of 530.6 eV, corresponding to oxygen bonded to Ti (in a TiO<sub>2</sub> stoichiometry) and a peak around 460 eV corresponding 352 353 to Ti2p. Both peaks confirm the presence of  $TiO_2$  in the nanocomposite (data not 354 shown).

355 In a previous work [27], we have reported the synthesis, characterization and 356 applicability of graphene oxide and electrochemically reduced graphene in the 357 development of lactate biosensing platforms, as case of study. In order to continue with 358 this line of research, we have also employed the as-synthesized nanocomposite 359 (TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG) to fabricate a biosensor for lactate determination, as described in the 360 experimental section. The resulting LOx/TiO2/PRG/GC biosensor, in presence of 361 oxygen, catalyzes the oxidation of lactate into pyruvate and hydrogen peroxide. Thus, 362 the activity of the immobilized LOx can be electrochemically detected by monitoring 363 the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> produced in the enzymatic reaction. The resulting cyclic voltammetric 364 response (data not shown) exhibits an irreversible anodic wave at high overpotential. 365 However, the measurement of the direct oxidation of the hydrogen peroxide generated 366 in the enzymatic reaction does not represent an adequate strategy to determine lactate

367 because it can be affected by potential interfering species present in the sample, which 368 could also be oxidized at the high potential required for  $H_2O_2$  amperometric detection. 369 In order to minimize the contribution of interfering substances to the lactate biosensor 370 response, one of the most important approaches reported in the literature is based on the 371 replacement of the natural electron acceptor (O<sub>2</sub>) by an artificial mediator. Based on our 372 previous experience with other oxidases, we have selected the hydroxymethylferrocene 373 (HMF) to act as a redox mediator in solution. In this case, LOx catalyzes the oxidation 374 of lactate to pyruvate, while the electrons involved in the process are immediately 375 transferred to the oxidized form of the soluble redox mediator (HMF), regenerating the 376 enzyme activity. The re-oxidation of HMF on the electrode surface leads to a catalytic 377 response of the biosensor proportional to the amount of substrate, lactate, present in the 378 solution.

Figure 4A displays the cyclic voltammetric response for LOx/GC in contact with a 0.1 M pH=7.0 phosphate buffer containing 1.0 mM HMF in the absence (a) and in the presence (b) of lactic acid.



Figure 4. (A) Cyclic voltammetric response in 0.1 M phosphate buffer pH=7 containing
1.0 mM HMF for: a) LOx/GC in the absence of lactate, b) LOx/GC in the presence of 3
mM of lactate and c) LOx/TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG/GC in the presence of 3 mM of lactate. Scan rate
0.01 V/s. (B) Calibration curve obtained from chronoamperometric measurements
(E=+0.25 V) for LOx/TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG/GC biosensor in phosphate buffer 0.1 M pH=7

containing 1.0 mM HMF in presence of increasing amounts of lactate. Inset: Linear partof 4B and the corresponding fit to a linear regression equation.

390 As can be seen, in scan a, the typical redox response of the ferrocene/ferrocinium 391 process in aqueous media is observed. Upon addition of lactic acid to a final 392 concentration of 3 mM, there is an enhancement of the anodic peak current concomitant 393 with a decrease of the cathodic peak current, which is consistent with an electrocatalytic 394 effect (scan b). The cyclic voltammetric response for LOx/TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG/GC, in the same 395 experimental conditions, is displayed in scan c. From comparison between the catalytic 396 currents obtained with (scan c) and without (scan b) TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG, it is evident that the 397 employment of the nanomaterial in the biosensor construction enhances significantly 398 the analytical response of the resulting device. Chronoamperometric measurements of 399 LOx/TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG/GC platforms for different lactate concentrations were carried out by 400 posing the biosensor at a constant potential of +0.25 V (starting at -0.05 V, where no 401 redox process occurs). The current measured at this time was plotted as a function of the 402 concentration of lactate in solution (figure 4B). These experimental data were fitted to a Michaelis-Menten equation by means of non-linear regression, obtaining a K'<sub>M</sub> value of 403 404 0.32 mM. This value indicates the grade of affinity of the immobilized enzyme to the 405 substrate and it is correlated to the linear range biosensor response. The K'<sub>M</sub> value 406 obtained is comparable to other ones reported in the literature for LOx based biosensors, 407 in which the enzyme is covalently bound to modified gold electrodes [33]. The 408 analytical properties of the developed biosensor, such as sensitivity, linear concentration 409 range, detection limit and reproducibility were evaluated (table 1). As can be seen in 410 this table, the biosensor can measure lactate from 2.0 x  $10^{-3}$  mM to 0.40 mM and its sensitivity, calculated as the slope of the calibration curve, was 6.0  $\mu$ A mM<sup>-1</sup>. 411 412 Concerning the detection limit, calculated as the ratio between three times the standard

deviation of the blank signal and the sensitivity, a value of  $0.60 \times 10^{-3}$  mM was 413 414 obtained. Finally, the reproducibility was evaluated from the RSD for five different 415 measurements of 0.25 mM of lactate with the same biosensor, yielding around 3.2%. In 416 order to compare the analytical properties obtained for the developed biosensor with 417 those of other lactate biosensors, we have also included in table 1 data concerning linear 418 concentration range, sensitivity, detection limit and reproducibility of several lactate-419 based biosensors reported in the literature [21, 22, 23, 27, 34, 35]. It is important to 420 highlight that most of the biosensors summarized in the table include nanomaterials, 421 such as metal nanoparticles, carbon nanotubes and graphene or they employed 422 nanostructured transducers such as rough gold surfaces and 3-dimensional ordered 423 macroporous (3DOM) gold electrodes. Due to the different nature of biosensors 424 displayed in table 1, a high variability of data is observed for each analytical parameter. 425 However, it can be concluded that most of the analytical properties of the biosensor 426 designed by us are comparable or even better than those reported in the literature for 427 other lactate-based biosensors.

Table 1. Analytical properties of several lactate based biosensors reported in the literature including the present work.

	Linear range	Sensitivity	Detection	R.S.D.
Lactate sensors	( <b>mM</b> )	(µA mM <sup>-1</sup> )	limit (µM)	(%)
LOx/TiO <sub>2</sub> /PRG/GC (Present work)	$2.0 \times 10^{-3} - 0.40$	6.0	0.60	3.2 (C=0.25 mM, n=5)
LOx/ERG/GC [27]	0.025 - 0.25	3.2	7.5	6.1 (C=0.20 mM, n=5)
LOx/Au [35]	Up to 0.3	0.77±0.08	10	8 (C=0.15 mM, n=3)
LOx/DTSP/Au [35]	Up to 0.2	0.69±0.08	40	8 (C=0.15 mM, n=3)
LOx /AuNPs /MPTS/Au [21]	0.05-0.25	3.4	4.0	5
LOx/MWCNT/PtNPs/TEOS/GC [22]	0.25–2.0	6.36	0.3	-
LOx/CoPh/MnO <sub>2</sub> NPs/chitosan/GC [34]	0.020–4.0	3.98	8	4.6
LOx/Au <sub>R</sub> [33]	Up to 1.3		29.8	4.2 (C=0.5 mM, n=5)
LOx/DTSP/Au <sub>R</sub> [33]	Up to 1.2		21.5	3.9 (C=0.5 mM, n=5)
LOx/Au <sub>3DOM</sub> [33]	Up to 0.6		16.2	3.9 (C=0.5 mM, n=5)
LOx/DTSP/Au <sub>3DOM</sub> [33]	Up to 1.3		3.9	3.5 (C=0.5 mM, n=5)
PDDA/LOx/ZnO/MWCNT/PG [23]	0.2-2.0	7.3	6	-

LOx=lactate-oxidase, TiO<sub>2</sub>=Titanium dioxide nanoparticles, PRG=photocatalytically reduced graphene, GC=glassy carbon electrode, Au= gold electrode, DTSP=3,3'-dithiodipropionic acid di(N-succinimidyl ester, AuNPs= gold nanoparticles, MPTS= (3-mercaptopropyl)-trimethoxysilane, MWCNTs=multiwalled carbon nanotubes, PtNPs: platinum nanoparticles, CoPh=cobalt phthalocyanine colloid, MnO<sub>2</sub>NPs=Manganese dioxide nanoparticles, LDH=lactate dehydrogenase, Au<sub>R</sub>=rough gold electrode, Au<sub>3DOM</sub>=three-dimensional ordered macroporous gold electrode, PDDA= polydiallyldimethylammonium chloride, ZnO=zinc oxide nanoparticles, , PG= pyrolytic graphite, PET=polyester

In particular, when we compare the analytical properties of the lactate biosensor based on  $TiO_2/PRG$  nanocomposite with those of a similar biosensor developed by us, but including graphene that has been reduced following electrochemical procedures,  $TiO_2/PRG/GC$  shows a higher sensitivity and reproducibility, as well as a lower detection limit [27].

443

# 444 4. Conclusions

445 TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG nanocomposite has been fabricated by a green method consisting in UV-446 assisted reduction of graphene oxide, previously synthesized employing a modified 447 Hummers method, in the presence of TiO<sub>2</sub>-NPs. The employment of AFM, Raman and 448 XPS techniques allows to confirm that the resulting material is formed by graphene 449 nanosheets (around 1  $\mu$ m of lateral dimension and a thickness smaller or equal than 4.2 450 nm), with a low amount of oxygen functionalities and decorated with TiO<sub>2</sub> 451 nanoparticles.

This nanocomposite, in conjunction with LOx, leads to a bionanocomposite that deposited onto a glassy carbon electrode was employed as a lactate biosensing platform. This integrated LOx/TiO<sub>2</sub>/PRG/GC system, photocatalytically generated, exhibits a higher electrocatalytic activity for lactate determination with a wider linear range and a lower LOD, when compared with an electrochemically reduced graphene based lactate biosensor.

458

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# 563 FIGURE CAPTIONS

564	Figure S1. (A) XRD pattern, (B) AFM image of $TiO_2$ -NPs deposited onto a $Si/SiO_2$
565	substrate, (C) Height distribution corresponding to the image in figure S1B.
566	
567	Figure S2. 10 mM TiO <sub>2</sub> colloidal suspension in ethanol (A), mixture of GO and TiO <sub>2</sub>
568	colloidal suspension before (B) and after (C) 3 hours of UV irradiation. (D) Mechanism
569	of the TiO <sub>2</sub> -UV-assisted photocatalytic reduction of graphene oxide.
570	
571	<b>Figure 1.</b> (A) 1.6 x 1.6 $\mu$ m <sup>2</sup> AFM image of a photocatalytically reduced graphene sheet
572	with $TiO_2$ nanoparticles on $Si/SiO_2$ substrate obtained in dynamic mode at air. (B)
573	Height distribution corresponding to the image in figure 1A. The height difference
574	between the two maxima corresponds to the average thickness of the platelet structure.
575	
576	Figure 2 Raman spectra of GO and TiO <sub>2</sub> /PRG samples. Red and blue lines are the fits
577	of the experimental data for GO and $TiO_2/PRG$ respectively. Excitation at 488 nm.
578	
579	Figure 3. C1s XPS spectra of (A) graphene oxide (GO) and (B) photocatalytically
580	reduced graphene (TiO <sub>2</sub> /PRG). The decomposition in curve components is shown in
581	color scale underneath the data points. The black line corresponds to the sum of all the
582	individual components.
583	
584	Figure 4. (A) Cyclic voltammetric response in 0.1 M phosphate buffer pH=7 containing
585	1.0 mM HMF for: a) LOx/GC in the absence of lactate, b) LOx/GC in the presence of 3
586	mM of lactate and c) LOx/TiO <sub>2</sub> /PRG/GC in the presence of 3 mM of lactate. Scan rate
587	0.01 V/s. (B) Calibration curve obtained from chronoamperometric measurements

588 (E=+0.25 V) for LOx/TiO2/PRG/GC biosensor in phosphate buffer 0.1 M pH=7

- 589 containing 1.0 mM HMF in presence of increasing amounts of lactate. Inset: Linear part
- 590 of 5B and the corresponding fit to a linear regression equation.
- 591
- 592 Table 1. Analytical properties of several lactate based biosensors reported in the
- 593 literature including the present work.