

Electrochemical cardiac troponin I immunosensor based on nitrogen and boron-doped graphene quantum dots electrode platform and Ce-doped SnO₂/SnS₂ signal amplification



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ABSTRACT

The detection of acute myocardial infarction directly depends on the concentration of the cardiac troponin I (CTnI) in human blood plasma. In this study, the sensitive, selective, and fast sandwich-type electrochemical CTnI immunosensor was developed by using nitrogen and boron-doped graphene quantum dots -as electrode platform and two-dimensional Ce-doped SnO₂/SnS₂ (Ce-SnO₂/SnS₂) as signal amplification. In preparation of electrochemical CTnI immunosensor, the coordinated covalent bond between capture antibody (anti-CTnI-Ab₁) and nitrogen and boron-doped graphene quantum dots as electrode platform led to immobilization of anti-CTnI-Ab₁, and the strong esterification between the secondary antibody (anti-CTnI-Ab₂) and thioglycolic acid-modified Ce-SnO₂/SnS₂ resulted in anti-CTnI-Ab₂ conjugation. Finally, the resultant electrochemical CTnI immunosensor was formed via antigen-antibody interaction. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy, X-ray diffraction, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy, UV-Vis spectroscopy and Raman spectroscopy, as well as some electrochemical characterization techniques, including cyclic voltammetry, differential pulse voltammetry and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy were used to characterize the prepared immunosensor. The detection limit of CTnI in plasma samples was calculated as 2.00 fg mL⁻¹, making it an effective tool for acute myocardial infarction testing.

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1. Introduction

Coronary artery blockage causes cardiovascular disease, which is one of the most severe illnesses for people's health. Acute myocardial infarction (AMI) is a life-threatening illness that has become a primary risk factor for mortality among seniors [1,2]. Therefore, a precise determination of AMI is critical to avoid fatality and morbidity. The I subtype (CTnI), T subtype, and C subtypes of cardiac troponin are regulative proteins for cardiac muscular contractions [3,4]. Once the AMI arises, CTnI is transferred to the circulation for a brief moment, in time without being influenced by other troponin subtypes. Hence, as a specific biomarker, CTnI is

essential in the diagnosis and treatment of AMI [5]. The average concentration of CTnI in healthy people is ca.1.25 ng mL⁻¹, whereas the CTnI concentration of more than 2.0 ng mL⁻¹ implies an elevated risk of AMI [6,7]. Laboratory test procedures for determining CTnI are precise and trustworthy; however, they are time-consuming, necessitate expert staff, and are not suitable for moment-in-time testing [8,9]. A range of methods for detecting CTnI has recently been proposed, including enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays, chemiluminescence, surface plasmon resonance, fluorescence analysis, and electrochemiluminescence [10–13]. A key priority is the development of a straightforward, practical, and low-cost method for detecting CTnI. Recently, owing to their efficient operation and low reagent consumption, precise and straightforward electrochemical methods used in place of conventional techniques have piqued attention [14–17].

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Electrochemical immunosensors are a viable option because of their quick reaction time and ease of scaling, which enables portability. The electrochemical immunosensors, in particular, can effectively accomplish the detection by using straight and particular immunologic intercommunication between the antibody and antigen. All immunosensors rely on the specificity of antigen molecular sensing to achieve a stable pair [18]. Numerous studies have shown that using diverse types of nanostructures (e.g. carbon-based nanomaterials, noble metal nanoparticles, and their nanocomposites) may significantly boost the performance of the electrochemical analysis [19–22]. The morphological structure and particle size distribution of nanomaterials are directly related to the specificity of immunosensors, which are linked to mass transport, as well as biomolecule loading [23].

Graphene quantum dots (GQDs), as zero-dimensional material, is produced from both graphene and carbon dots and are regarded as graphene's small pieces [24,25]. GQDs has important quantum confinement and edge effects similar to carbon dots [24]. In addition, it shows superior properties, such as high biocompatibility, low toxicity, and electrochemical catalysis effect [26]. The doping modification of graphene/GQDs by several atoms such as B, N, Al, and O has been currently confirmed as the effective technique for the modulation of morphological and electronic features of graphene nanosheets in terms of sensor/biosensor applications [27–31]. Especially, B and N atoms have significant attention owing to their atomic size close to C atom. It is concluded that B and N atoms' electron acceptor and donor properties can produce p-type and n-type graphene, respectively [30,32,33]. In addition, nitrogen and boron-doped graphene type materials demonstrate tunable properties with respect to the doping sites [34,35].

Sn-based composites present superior biological compatibility, high catalysis performance, and low toxicity for catalytic applications, such as biomolecule and environmental pollution detections [36,37]. These composites are generally composed of tin, sulfur, and oxygen. Nonetheless, single-atom Sn-based compounds, including SnS₂ and SnO₂, offer limited electric conversion efficiency. As a result of the formation of heterostructures, electron/hole separation may be achieved, suggesting enhanced both usage range and catalytic efficiency [38].

Herein, in the light of all aforementioned points in mind, the goal of this work is to establish a state-of-art electrochemical cardiac troponin I immunosensor relied on nitrogen and boron-doped graphene quantum dots (N–B-GQDs) and Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ for the first time in literature. The fabricated immunosensor provides a number of benefits, including ease of use, speed, and selectivity. Moreover, a precise LOD of 2.00 fg mL⁻¹ was observed with high selectivity and no interference in plasma samples. Hence, the proposed electrochemical cardiac troponin I immunosensor paws the way for developing a novel approach in the early-stage detection of possible cardiac disorders.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

CTnI, anti-CTnI monoclonal capture antibody (anti-CTnI-Ab₁), anti-CTnI monoclonal secondary antibody (anti-CTnI-Ab₂), myoglobin (MYG), bovine serum albumin (BSA), cardiac troponin T (cTnT), 3-aminophenyl boronic acid monohydrate (3-ABAM), hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O, SnCl₄·5H₂O, thioacetamide, thioglycolic acid (TGA), N-(3-dimethylaminopropyl) (EDC) and N-hydroxysuccinimide (NHS) were supplied from Sigma-Aldrich. As a supporting electrolyte and diluting buffer solution, a 0.1 M phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) solution (pH = 7.0) were used.

2.2. Apparatus for evaluation of nanomaterials

Surface morphological characteristics were explored by using a JEOL 2100 TEM. X-ray patterns of nanomaterials were recorded by a Rigaku X-ray diffractometer with Cu–K radiation ($\lambda = 0.150$ nm). The PHI 5000 Versa Probe spectrometer was used to perform the XPS survey. FTIR, UV–Vis and Raman measurements were performed by Jasco FTIR Spectrometer, Mettler Toledo and LabRam HR Raman Spectrometer, respectively. Electrochemical characterization methods including CV, EIS and DPV were also conducted via the Gamry Reference 600 workstation (Gamry, USA).

2.3. Synthesis of N–B-GQDs

First, the dissolution of 3-ABAM (0.10 g) was prepared in acetone (50.0 mL) under strong stirring. After that, H₂O₂ (10.0 mL) was introduced into the as-obtained solution. Followed by the ultrasonication of this dispersion, it was transferred into a Teflon stainless autoclave and heated to 240 °C. The product was dialyzed for 10 days using a molecular porous membrane after cooling to room temperature. Afterward, N–B-GQDs was collected and dried at 25 °C [39].

2.4. N–B-GQDs-modified glassy carbon electrode (N–B-GQDs/glassy carbon electrode) as electrochemical sensor platform with anti-CTnI-Ab₁ and CTnI immobilizations

The glassy carbon electrode (GCE) was prepared as follows to be used in the further steps [40]. First, 0.1 μ m and 0.05 μ m Al₂O₃ slurries were transferred on cleaning pads, respectively. Following, the GCE were polished with these alumina slurries for 20 min. Subsequently, the electrodes were rinsed with isopropyl alcohol and acetonitrile, respectively, to remove the alumina remains at 25 °C. The electrode modifications with N–B-GQDs suspension (10.0 μ L, 0.1 mg mL⁻¹) were performed by dropping the suspension on the clean GCEs. After 20 min, the solvent removal was carried out by an infrared heat lamp, providing N–B-GQDs modified GCEs (N–B-GQDs/GCE). Anti-CTnI-Ab₁ (20.0 μ L, 20.0 μ g mL⁻¹) was introduced drop wise onto the surface of N–B-GQDs/GCE, providing anti-CTnI-Ab₁/N–B-GQDs/GCE via the coordinated covalent bond at 37.0 °C for 20 min. Following that, BSA (3.0% w/v) was incubated on anti-CTnI-Ab₁/N–B-GQDs/GCE at 37.0 °C for 20 min to eliminate the non-specific interactions (BSA/anti-CTnI-Ab₁/N–B-GQDs/GCE). Various CTnI proteins were incubated to BSA/anti-CTnI-Ab₁/N–B-GQDs/GCE for 20 min (CTnI/BSA/anti-CTnI-Ab₁/N–B-GQDs/GCE). Finally, non-contacting CTnI proteins were eliminated via interfacing the prepared CTnI/BSA/anti-CTnI-Ab₁/N–B-GQDs/GCE with 0.1 M PBS (pH 7.0).

2.5. Preparation of Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ and TGA-modified Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂

A facile one-step hydrothermal production technique was used for the synthesis of Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂. With this regard, the mixture of Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O (0.30 mmol) and SnCl₄·5H₂O (5.0 mmol) was prepared in ultra-pure water (40.0 mL) under stirring for 20 min. Subsequently, thioacetamide (8.0 mmol) was gently introduced into the previous solution for 10 min. The solution was then placed into a Teflon stainless autoclave, and the thermal annealing was conducted at 200 °C for 20 h. After the cooling to the ambient temperature, Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ was collected via centrifugation at 5000 rpm, following it was rinsed with ethanol several times, and as-obtained Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ was dried at 25 °C [41].

Finally, the dispersion of Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ (10.0 mmol, 20.0 μ L) was treated with TGA solution (20.0 mmol, 20.0 μ L) and stirred for 20 min,

providing TGA-modified Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ via [Sn–S–CH₂–COOH] (TGA/Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂).

2.6. TGA-modified Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ signal amplification with anti-CTnI-Ab₂ conjugation

The mixture (10.0 μL) of EDC/ N-hydroxysuccinimide dispersion (1:1, v/v) was interacted with TGA/Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ (10.0 μL, 10.0 mg mL⁻¹) to activate –COOH groups on TGA/Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂. Then, the binding of anti-CTnI-Ab₂ (20.0 μL, 20.0 μg mL⁻¹) to TGA-modified Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ was performed by interaction between –COOH of TGA-modified Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ and –NH₂ of anti-CTnI-Ab₂ via strong ester bond, providing **anti-CTnI-Ab₂/Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂** [42].

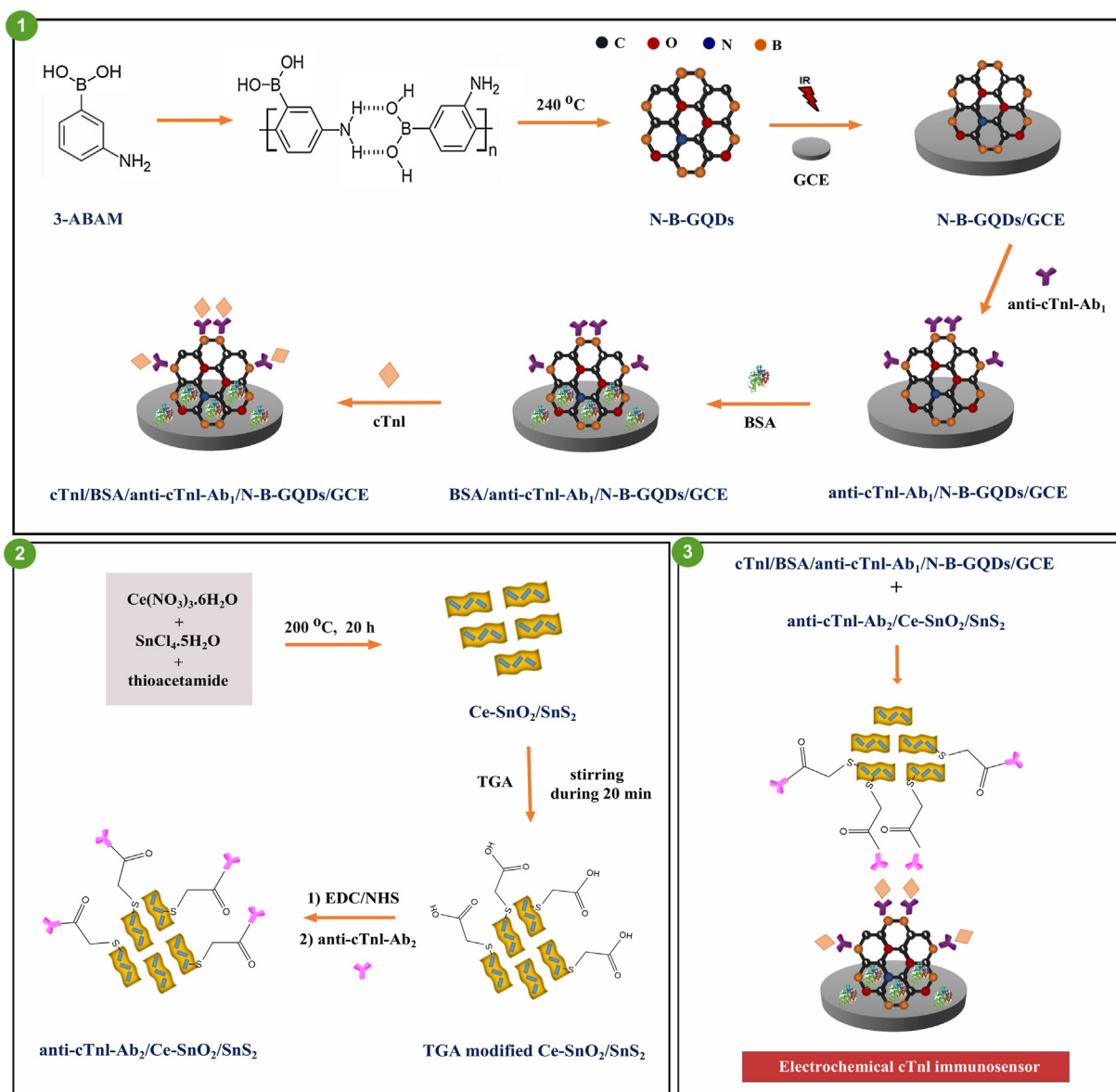
2.7. Electrochemical measurements

The dispersion of anti-CTnI-Ab₂/Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ (20.0 μL, 20.0 mg mL⁻¹) was dropped on CTnI/BSA/anti-CTnI-Ab₁/N–B–

GQDs/GCE electrode surface at a 20 min immunological response time. The fabricated electrochemical immunosensor was tagged as **Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂/anti-CTnI-Ab₂/CTnI/BSA/anti-CTnI-Ab₁/N–B–GQDs/GCE** and stored in 0.1 M PBS (pH 7.0, 5.0 mL) at 25 °C. Before the electrochemical measurements, high purity Ar gas (99.999%) was circulated through the electrochemical cell for 10 min to remove dissolved oxygen and eliminate corrosive effects. The voltammograms were acquired at 25 °C in an isolated cabinet with no pressure fluctuations to avoid the external ambient effects. For monitoring the electrochemical performance toward CTnI, the potential ranging from +0.0 to +0.3 V was applied to 1.0 mM H₂O₂ solution. **Scheme 1** showed the preparation procedure of electrochemical CTnI immunosensor, including the preparations of electrode platform and signal amplification.

2.8. Processing of samples

Sample preparation process was detailed on Supplementary Data [43].



Scheme 1. Schematic illustration of the fabrication procedure of electrochemical CTnI immunosensor.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Fundamental of electrochemical immunosensor based on N-B-GQDs and Ce-SnO₂/SnS₂

3-ABAM, H₂O₂, and acetone were used as a precursor, an oxidizing agent, and a solvent, respectively, for the preparation of N-B-GQDs at 240 °C via a two-step reaction. In the first step, the incorporation of 3-ABAM monomers into macromolecules was performed; thanks to the hydrogen bonds formed between the amino and boric acid groups. Afterward, the bonds between carbon and hydrogen of phenyl rings on macromolecules were broken off for the generation of nitrogen and boron-doped carbon-based free radicals, following larger carbon-based fragments at higher temperatures because of acetone's gasification. Thus, the decomposition of H₂O₂ into O₂, H₂O, and free radicals such as HO• and HOO• occurred. The improved pressure by O₂ and H₂O formed the crystallization of carbon-based fragments, providing N-B-GQDs formation. O₂ also reacted with N-B-GQDs, resulting in inner vacancy defects [44] and free radicals reacted with N-B-GQDs, resulting in hydrophilic groups, providing N-B-GQDs' dispersibility. Furthermore, the octet gap in the boron atom led to the formation of stable chemical structures with biomolecules, including unpaired electrons; thanks to the coordinated covalent bond [45]. In sensor platform development, N-B-GQDs as Lewis acid with electron deficiency via boron atoms and anti-CTnI-Ab₁ as Lewis base with unbound electron pairs via -NH₂ groups formed anti-CTnI-Ab₁/N-B-GQDs by the coordinated covalent bond.

Ce-SnO₂/SnS₂ as a signal amplification was prepared by a facile one-step hydrothermal production technique. The valance and conduction band levels of SnO₂ and SnS₂ indicated the ladder pattern, suggesting a strong contact interface [46]. Owing to Ce doping, the electron transfer and electron-hole pairs recombination

occurred, providing the improvement of electrochemical activity. Then, the strong esterification between anti-CTnI-Ab₂ and TGA-modified Ce-SnO₂/SnS₂ via -NH₂ and -COOH groups provided a highly stable and conductive anti-CTnI-Ab₂/Ce-SnO₂/SnS₂. Finally, H₂O₂ was used as a redox probe in this work because of its easy oxidation into O₂ and continuous monitoring [47,48].

3.2. Characterizations of N-B-GQDs

The TEM micrograph of N-B-GQDs provided in Fig. 1A offered a mean particle size of 4–5 nm. The inset of Fig. 1A presenting the high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HR-TEM) image suggested that the N-B-GQDs with a highly crystalline structure belonging to an interplanar distance of about 0.211 nm, attributing to (100) lattice planes of graphene [49]. Atomic force microscopy (AFM) image (Fig. 1B) proved that the height of N-B-GQDs was to be 1.8 nm and the thickness of about 0.65–0.75 nm [50]. Hence, the preparation of N-B-GQDs with 2 or 3 layers was successfully achieved in this work. XRD (Fig. 1C) and Raman spectrum (Fig. 1D) were obtained for the determination of crystallographic structure and phase purity. XRD peak at 18.9° corresponded to 002 plane of bulk graphite. Raman spectrum confirmed the high degree of graphitization, suggesting the stronger G band at 1579 cm⁻¹ than the D band at 1349 cm⁻¹ (the peak intensity ratio is about 2.0) [51]. The existence of defects in N-B-GQDs was also verified via D-band [52,53].

Fig. 2A showed XPS survey, confirming O1s, N1s, C1s, and B1s on N-B-GQDs. According to the N1s spectrum (Fig. 2B), the peaks at 397.1 eV and 399.1 eV corresponded to pyridinic nitrogen. Moreover, the peaks that appeared at ca.399.8 eV and 401.8 eV were attributed to pyrrolic and quaternary nitrogen, respectively [54]. B1s spectrum (Fig. 2C) showed three XRD peaks attributing to C-B at 190.4 eV, C=B at 192.1 eV and O-B-C at 193.8 eV [39]. The peaks

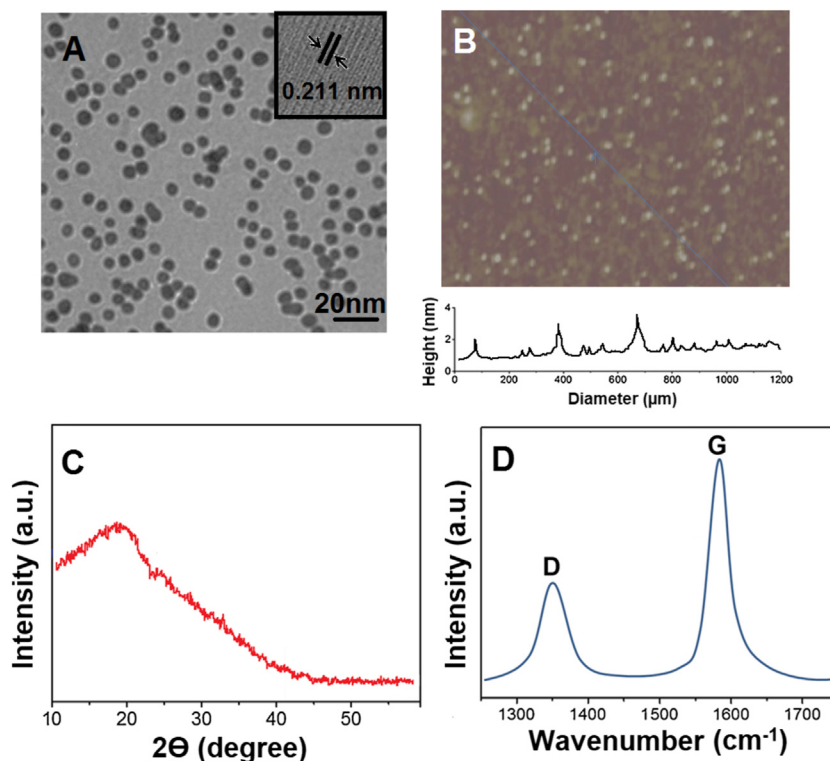


Fig. 1. (A) TEM image of N-B-GQDs (Inset: the lattice fringe of an N-B-GQD), (B) AFM image of N-B-GQDs, (C) XRD pattern and (D) Raman spectrum of N-B-GQDs. N-B-GQDs, nitrogen and boron-doped graphene quantum dots; TEM, transmission electron microscopy; XRD, X-ray diffraction.

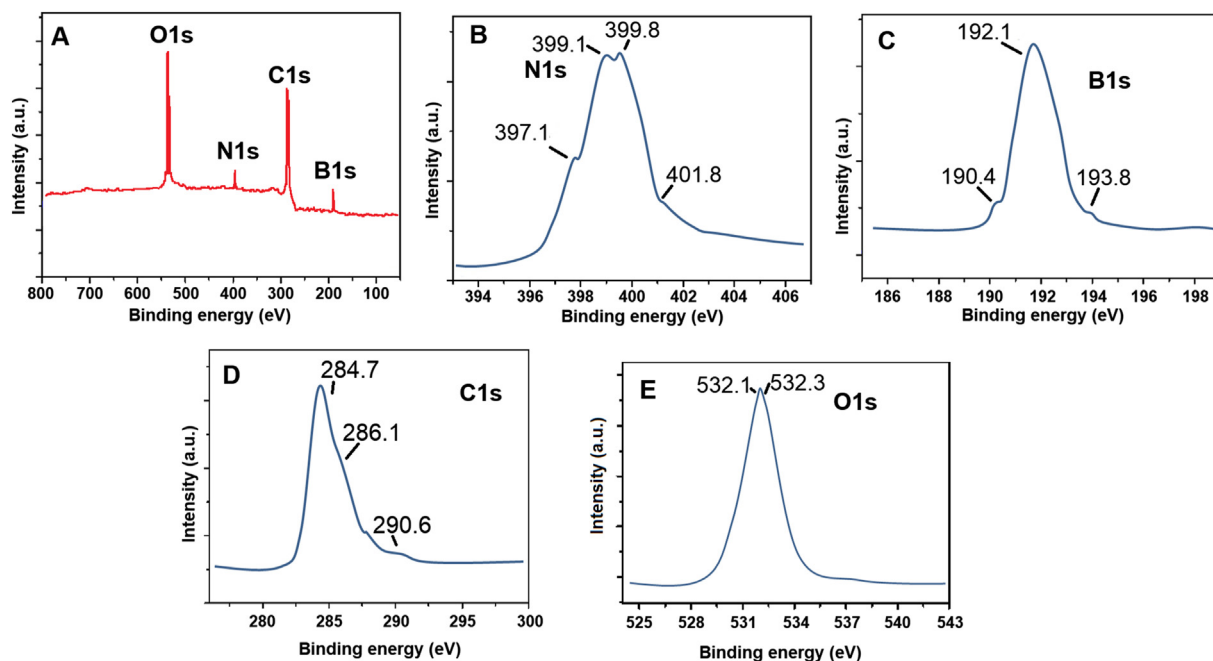


Fig. 2. (A) XPS survey of N-B-GQDs and high-resolution XPS spectrum of (B) N1s, (C) B1s, (D) C1s, and (E) O1s. N-B-GQDs, nitrogen and boron-doped graphene quantum dots; XPS, X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy.

at 284.7, 286.1, and 290.6 eV were ascribed to the C–C/C=C, C–O, and O–C=O groups, respectively, as per C1s's high-resolution XPS survey (Fig. 2D) [55]. Moreover, the peaks at 532.1 and 532.3 eV were detected in the high-resolution O1s spectra (Fig. 2E), which were attributed to CO and C–OH groups, respectively [56].

FTIR spectrum (Fig. S1A) was also acquired for N-B-GQDs. The absorption bands at 1710 cm^{-1} and 3440 cm^{-1} were ascribed to the carboxylic acid's C=O stretching and OH groups, respectively. The hydrophilic groups on N-B-GQDs, such as –COOH, was expected to provide the nanomaterial to be water-soluble. In addition, N-B-GQDs' surface charge (Fig. S1B) was calculated to be -16.8 mV , resulting from hydrophilic groups' presence. Moreover, the UV–Vis spectra (Fig. S2A) was obtained for N-B-GQDs and two absorption peaks at 270 nm and 309 nm were observed. The absorption peak at 270 nm corresponded to $n-\pi^*$ transition of C=O, whereas the peak at 309 nm was ascribed to the specific absorption of GQDs [57]. A

wide absorption peak ranging between 600 nm and 900 nm was attributed to the conjugated system, including delocalized electrons in N-B-GQDs [58]. In addition, several excitation wavelengths were used to gather photoluminescence spectra of N-B-GQDs, and N-B-GQDs exhibited an excitation wavelength and upconverted fluorescence (Fig. S2B and C) [39]. According to the results, the distribution of emission intensity and peak position varied with wavelength.

3.3. Characterizations of Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂

According to Fig. S3 of Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂, SnO₂/SnS₂, SnO₂ and SnS₂, the specific XRD peaks at 14.82° , 28.17° , 31.89° , 50.17° and 52.49° attributing to (001), (100), (101), (110) and (111) lattice planes of tetragonal structure, respectively, confirmed the presence of SnS₂ (curve d). Curve c of Fig. S3 showed a hexagonal phase of SnO₂, in

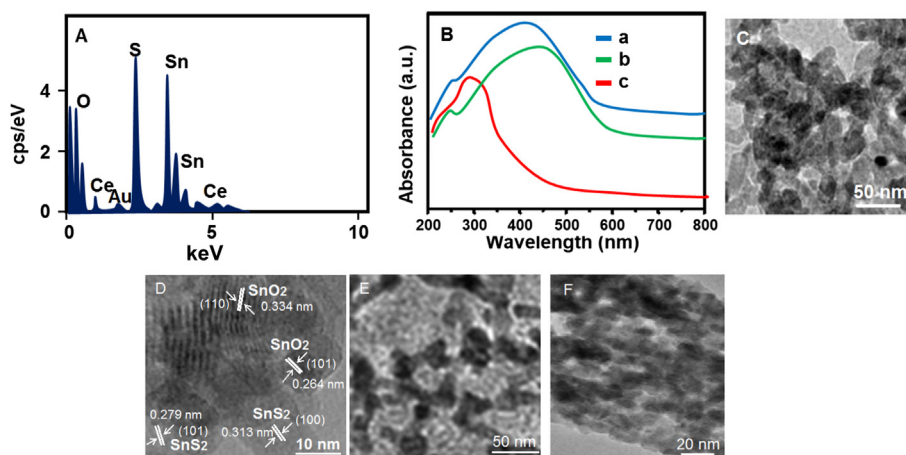


Fig. 3. (A) EDX image of Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂, (B) UV–Vis spectra of Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ (spectrum a), SnS₂ (spectrum b) and SnO₂ (spectrum c), (C) TEM and (D) HR-TEM images of Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂, TEM images of (E) SnS₂ and (F) SnO₂. HR-TEM, high-resolution transmission electron microscopy; TEM, transmission electron microscopy; UV–vis, ultraviolet visible.

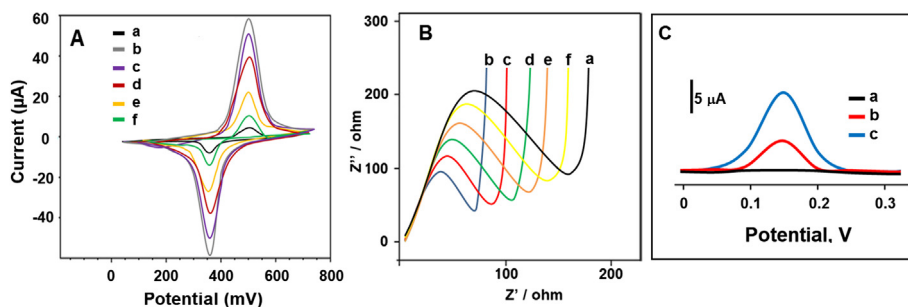


Fig. 4. (A) Cyclic voltammograms, (B) EIS responses at (a) bare GCE, (b) N–B–GQDs/GCE, (C) anti-CTnI–Ab₁/N–B–GQDs/GCE, (D) BSA/anti-CTnI–Ab₁/N–B–GQDs/GCE, (E) CTnI/BSA/anti-CTnI–Ab₁/N–B–GQDs/GCE, (F) the final immunosensor including c-anti-CTnI–Ab₁, CTnI and anti-CTnI–Ab₂ (scan rate of 50 mV s⁻¹) in 1.0 mM [Fe(CN)₆]³⁻ containing 0.1 M KCl and (C) DPV responses of the proposed immunosensors incubated with 0.500 pg mL⁻¹ CTnI using anti-CTnI–Ab₂/SnO₂/SnS₂ (curve b) and anti-CTnI–Ab₂/Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ (curve c) in absence of H₂O₂ (curve a) and in presence of 1.0 mM H₂O₂. BSA, bovine serum albumin; DPV, differential pulse voltammetry; GCE, glassy carbon electrode; EIS, electrochemical impedance spectroscopy; N–B–GQDs, nitrogen and boron-doped graphene quantum dots.

which the peaks detected at 26.54°, 34.17°, 38.24°, 52.19° and 66.19° was attributed to (100), (101), (200), (211), (112) lattice planes. Curve a and curve b verified the presence of SnO₂/SnS₂, providing the successful synthesis of nano-heterostructure. Finally, it was realized that due to the modest doping of Ce on the nano-heterostructure, the divergence between curves a and b was minor. However, according to the energy dispersive x-ray (EDX) image (Fig. 3A), the presence of O, S, Sn, and Ce elements confirmed the successful doping treatment of Ce on nano-heterostructure. Fig. 3B demonstrated UV–Vis spectra of Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂, SnS₂ and SnO₂. There were weak absorption bands of SnO₂ and SnS₂ in comparison with Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂, indicating the improved absorption capacity of Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂. TEM image (Fig. 3C) of Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ showed the rod type nano-heterostructure. According to Fig. 3E and F, the large pieces, including in SnO₂ and SnS₂, were observed. Finally, HR-TEM image (Fig. 3D) of Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ indicated the lattice spaces, including 0.313, 0.279, 0.334, and 0.264 nm, corresponding to (100), (101) of SnS₂ and (110), (101) of SnO₂, respectively [41].

Fig. S4A showed XPS survey, providing the presence of Ce, O, S, and Sn elements on Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂. Furthermore, the peaks detected at ca.886.8 eV, 902.1 eV, and 918.2 eV were attributed to Ce³⁺ 3d5/2, Ce⁴⁺ 3d3/2, and Ce⁴⁺ 3d3/2 states, respectively (Fig. S4B) [59]. On the other hand, the peaks at 161.2 eV and 162.2 eV corresponded to S²⁻ 2p3/2 and S²⁻ 2p1/2, respectively, confirming sulfur presence (Fig. S4C) [60]. In addition, O²⁻ 1s binding energy at 531.4 eV was attributed to oxygen element in SnO₂ (Fig. S4D). Finally, XPS peaks at 485.7 eV and 495.1 eV were attributed to Sn⁴⁺ 3d5/2 and Sn⁴⁺ 3d3/2, respectively. Hence, the preparation of Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ was successfully accomplished (Fig. S4E).

3.4. Evaluation of electrochemical performance of the sensor platform and signal amplification

The evaluation of the electrochemical performance of the as-prepared sensor platform was progressively performed, by using CV and EIS methods in the presence of 1.0 mM [Fe(CN)₆]^{3-/4-} as redox pair. First, the anodic and cathodic signals on bare GCE were observed at E_{pa} = 500 mV and E_{pc} = 350 mV, respectively, (curve a of Fig. 4A). As expected, when N–B–GQDs/GCE was used, the increased electrochemical sensor signals were observed because of GQDs' quantum confinement and edge effects [61,62] (curve b of Fig. 4A). Nonetheless, the anti-CTnI monoclonal capture antibody (anti-CTnI–Ab₁)'s blocking effect resulted in the decreases in anodic and cathodic signals (curve c of Fig. 4A). To confirm the successful anti-CTnI–Ab₁ immobilization, SEM image (Fig. S5) of anti-CTnI–

Ab₁/N–B–GQDs/GCE demonstrating a spherical size and agglomeration was obtained, providing a successful immobilization of anti-CTnI–Ab₁. After the immobilizations of BSA (curve d of Fig. 4A) and CTnI (curve e of Fig. 4A), respectively, the gradual decreases on anodic and cathodic signals were obtained owing to more electron transfer blocking. Thus, it is concluded that the immobilization treatments of BSA and CTnI on electrode surfaces were successfully carried out. In the case of the utilization of the final immunosensor (curve f of Fig. 4A), a further decrease in sensor signals was observed due to the more antibody-CTnI interactions. EIS measurements confirmed CV results in the immunosensor development process (Fig. 4B). The obtained charge transfer resistances were calculated as 190 Ω for bare GCE (curve a), 90 Ω for N–B–GQDs/GCE (curve b), 110 Ω for anti-CTnI–Ab₁/N–B–GQDs/GCE (curve c), 130 Ω for BSA/anti-CTnI–Ab₁/N–B–GQDs/GCE (curve d), 150 Ω for CTnI/BSA/anti-CTnI–Ab₁/N–B–GQDs/GCE (curve e) and 170 Ω for the final immunosensor, respectively. Thus, it was concluded that the preparation procedure of the immunosensor was completed successfully based on CV and EIS results.

For electrochemical performance characterization (Fig. 4C) of the prepared signal amplification, several immunosensors using anti-CTnI–Ab₂/SnO₂/SnS₂ (curve b) and anti-CTnI–Ab₂/Ce–SnO₂/

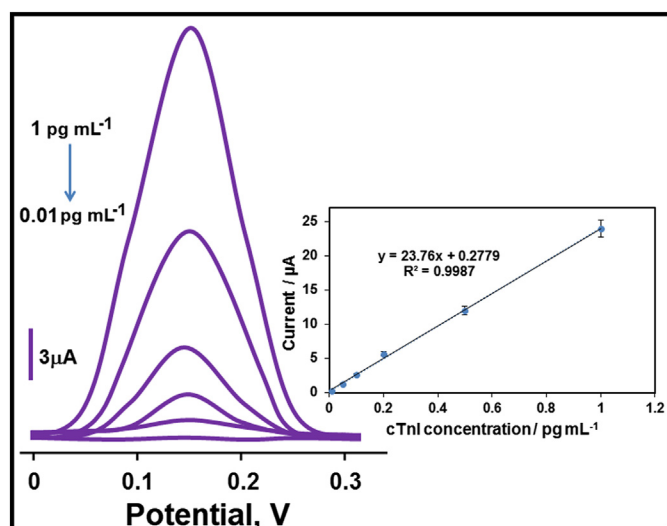


Fig. 5. Concentration effect (from 0.01 to 1.0 pg mL⁻¹ CTnI) on immunosensor signals. Inset: Calibration curve for electrochemical CTnI immunosensor (Potential range is +0.0/+0.3 V; Parameters are frequency of 100 Hz, pulse amplitude of 25 mV and scan increment of 5 mV).

Table 1
The comparison of electrochemical CTnI immunosensor with the other novel techniques.

Method	Linear Range	LOD	Ref.
Electrochemiluminescence	100.00 fg mL ⁻¹ – 20.00 ng mL ⁻¹	43.00 fg mL ⁻¹	[64]
Electrochemical	10.00 fg mL ⁻¹ – 100.00 ng mL ⁻¹	3.02 fg mL ⁻¹	[65]
Electrochemical	0.01–100.0 ng mL ⁻¹	3.0 pg mL ⁻¹	[7]
Photoelectrochemical	0.01 pg mL ⁻¹ – 1.00 ng mL ⁻¹	3.00 fg mL ⁻¹	[66]
Electrochemiluminescence	0.01–1000.0 pg mL ⁻¹	5.01 fg mL ⁻¹	[67]
Electrochemiluminescence	5.00 pg mL ⁻¹ – 20.00 ng mL ⁻¹	3.20 pg mL ⁻¹	[68]
Photoelectrochemical	0.001–100.0 ng mL ⁻¹	0.30 pg mL ⁻¹	[69]
QCM	25.00 pg mL ⁻¹ – 15.00 ng mL ⁻¹	18.0 pg mL ⁻¹	[70]
Electrochemical immunosensor	0.01 – 1.00 pg mL⁻¹	2.00 fg mL⁻¹	This study

SnS₂ (curve c) were fabricated by 0.50 pg mL⁻¹ CTnI at the immune reaction time of 20 min, and DPV signals were recorded in 1.0 mM H₂O₂. The optimal and highest electrochemical signals were observed by using Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂. Because of cerium's good catalytic activities and its superior chemical and electronic properties, the obvious electrocatalytic activity on sensor signals was obtained [63]. In addition, because of the strong esterification bond between anti-CTnI-Ab₂ and TGA-modified Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂, stable electrochemical signals were provided by using the developed electrochemical immunosensor in this study.

3.5. Optimization for electrochemical measurements

The influences of the solution pH, immune reaction time, H₂O₂, and anti-CTnI-Ab₂/Ce–SnO₂/SnS₂ solution concentrations were evaluated and detailly presented in Fig. S6.

3.6. Linearity range

The calibration equation by using CTnI concentrations and the electrochemical immunosensor signals was $y = 23.76x + 0.2779$, with a correlation coefficient of $R^2 = 0.9987$, here, y and x stand for the current (μ A) and CTnI concentration (pg mL⁻¹), respectively (Fig. 5). The quantification limit and LOD were found to be 0.01 pg mL⁻¹ and 2.00 fg mL⁻¹, respectively. The comparisons between the prepared electrochemical CTnI immunosensor and the other new detection methods were tabulated in Table 1. According to the findings, it can be speculated that the ultra-sensitive and selective CTnI immunosensor was first presented in the literature, providing early detection of significant cardiovascular diseases in a shorter time. In contrast to conventional CTnI detection techniques,

the removal of time-consuming steps in CTnI immunosensor preparation allows for portable application. In addition, the production of fast immunosensor signals resulted in efficient analysis in a shorter time. Finally, the immunosensor preparation with the minimal waste generation showed that the prepared immunosensor was friendly to the environment and human health. Hence, the developed stable and reproducible electrochemical CTnI immunosensor may offer a potential for early cardiovascular detection.

3.7. Recovery

The recovery experiments including plasma samples were performed by the prepared electrochemical CTnI immunosensor. The close to 100.00% values suggested the high selectivity of the electrochemical immunosensor, providing the successful CTnI analysis without interference effect (Table S1). Furthermore, the standard addition method was applied to plasma samples and $y = 24.09x + 10.0963$, with $R^2 = 0.9993$ was obtained as a calibration equation. Hence, we can say that the close slope values between direct calibration (inset of Fig. 5) and standard addition methods confirmed the high selective CTnI analysis.

3.8. Selectivity, stability, and reproducibility

For the selectivity assessment, several electrochemical CTnI immunosensors were fabricated by using various target dispersions, such as (i) 100.0 pg mL⁻¹ MYG + 100.0 pg mL⁻¹ BSA + 100.0 pg mL⁻¹ cTnI, (ii) 0.500 pg mL⁻¹ CTnI + 100.0 pg mL⁻¹ MYG, (iii) 0.500 pg mL⁻¹ CTnI + 100.00 pg mL⁻¹ BSA, (iv) 0.500 pg mL⁻¹ CTnI + 100.00 pg mL⁻¹ cTnI. Afterward, these electrochemical immunosensors were applied to 1.0 mM H₂O₂ solution. Fig. 6A confirmed that the prepared electrochemical immunosensor was able to provide high selectivity toward CTnI protein. Moreover, Fig. 6B demonstrated the stability test of the prepared electrochemical immunosensor for 7 weeks. It was determined that the final immunosensor signals were about 99.08% of the first electrochemical signal, providing the high stability of the immunosensor. Finally, for the reproducibility test, 25 identical electrochemical CTnI immunosensors were prepared separately by the same protocol described in sections 2.4, 2.6, and 2.7. The relative standard deviation of 0.93 was calculated by using the observed 25 electrochemical signals, confirming the high reliability of the immunosensor production procedure.

4. Conclusions

Herein, highly selective and sensitive electrochemical cardiac troponin I immunosensor based on N–B–GQDs as electrode platform and 2D Ce-doped SnO₂/SnS₂ as signal amplification was presented. The developed electrochemical immunosensor was

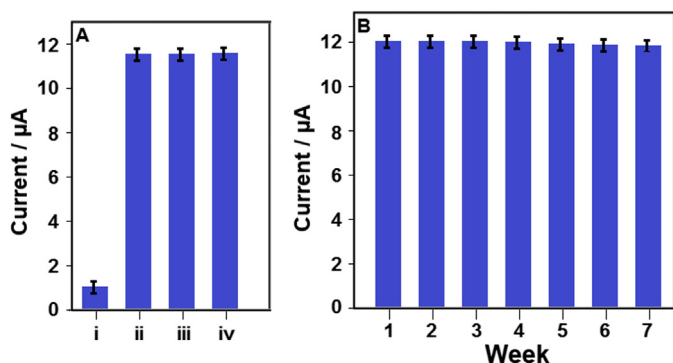


Fig. 6. (A) Immunosensor selective responses against the prepared solutions ($n = 6$), (i) 100.0 pg mL⁻¹ MYG + 100.0 pg mL⁻¹ BSA + 100.0 pg mL⁻¹ cTnI, (ii) 0.500 pg mL⁻¹ CTnI + 100.0 pg mL⁻¹ MYG, (iii) 0.500 pg mL⁻¹ CTnI + 100.00 pg mL⁻¹ BSA, (iv) 0.500 pg mL⁻¹ CTnI + 100.00 pg mL⁻¹ cTnI; (B) Stability test of electrochemical CTnI immunosensor, including 0.500 pg mL⁻¹ CTnI ($n = 6$) at 25.0 °C. BSA, bovine serum albumin; MYG, myoglobin.

fabricated via the coordinated covalent bond between capture antibody-N-B-GQDs, and the strong esterification between secondary antibody-Ce-doped SnO₂/SnS₂. Hence, the stable electrochemical signals were accomplished in terms of early cardiovascular detection. Moreover, the prepared immunosensor was reproducible biosensor and did not include time-consuming steps, such as sensor preparation. Finally, it can be speculated that the proposed immunosensor can be easily integrated into a commercial biosensor tool and used to diagnose AML.

Credit author statement

Onur KARAMAN: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **Nermin ÖZCAN:** Data curation, Visualization, Investigation. **Ceren KARAMAN:** Data curation, Visualization, Investigation. **Bahar BANKOGLU YOLA:** Data curation, Visualization, Investigation. **Necip ATAR:** Writing - original draft, Visualization, Investigation. **Mehmet Lütfi YOLA:** Supervision, Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing.

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 related to this article can be found at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mtchem.2021.100666>.

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