



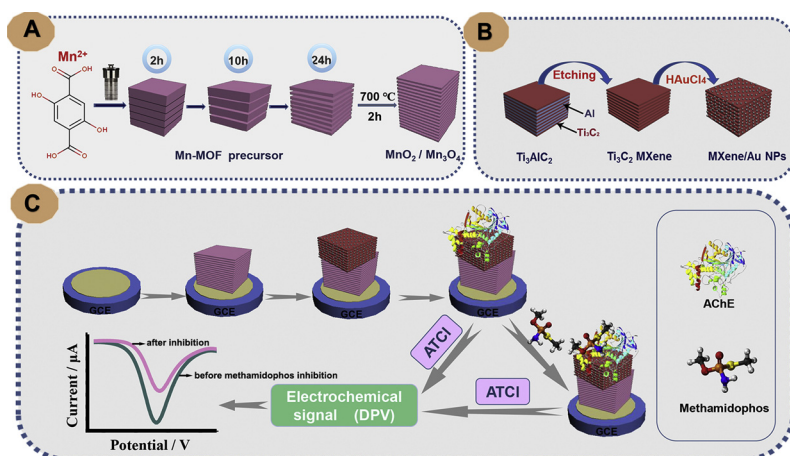
Metal – organic frameworks-derived $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ microcuboids with hierarchically ordered nanosheets and Ti_3C_2 MXene/Au NPs composites for electrochemical pesticide detection

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GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

Transition metal oxides (TMOs) derived from metal – organic frameworks (MOF) combined with two-dimensional (2D) transition metal carbides possibly pave an innovative pathway for designing promising biosensors. Herein, a novel electrochemical sensing platform has been fabricated for ultra-sensitive determination of organophosphorus pesticides (OPs), based on MOF-derived $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ and Ti_3C_2 MXene/Au NPs composites. Remarkably, the three-dimensional (3D) $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ hierarchical microcuboids derived from Mn-MOF are composed of vertically aligned, highly ordered nanosheets, and further combined with MXene/Au NPs yields synergistic signal amplification effect, with outstanding electrochemical performance, large specific surface area, and good environmental biocompatibility. Under the optimum conditions, the reported sensing platform AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ /GCE can be utilized to detect methamidophos in a broad concentration range (10^{-12} – 10^{-6} M), together with a good linearity ($R = 0.995$). Besides that, the biosensor possesses a low limit of detection (1.34×10^{-13} M), which far exceeds the maximum residue limits (MRLs) for methamidophos (0.01 mg/kg) established by European Union. Additionally, the feasibility of the proposed biosensor for detecting methamidophos in real samples has been demonstrated with excellent recoveries (95.2%–101.3%). Interestingly, the unique structures and remarkable properties of these composites make them attractive

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materials for various electrochemical sensors for monitoring either pesticide residuals or other environmentally deleterious chemicals.

1. Introduction

A wide array of environmental contaminants are routinely released into the environment resulting from agricultural activities. Organophosphate pesticides (OPs), are extensively used worldwide to increase agricultural productivity, whereas the excessive use of pesticides may trigger contamination in ecosystems and pose a great potential human health threat [1–3]. The high toxicity of pesticides is associated with their ability to irreversibly bind to acetylcholinesterase (AChE), which inhibit the activity of AChE and then could seriously destroy the human nervous system, eventually leading to organ failure and death [4–7]. Hence, it is of significant importance to devise an ultra-sensitive and accurate assay for the rapid screening of pesticide residues. The currently accepted standard techniques include the fluorescent bioprobes, high pressure liquid chromatography, antibody-based immunoassays, and chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry [8–13]. Despite these analytical technologies are sensitive and effective in the analysis of OPs, there exist several shortcomings of requirements of sophisticated instruments and skilled technicians, complex and time consuming sample pretreatment process, thus leading to high determination cost [14–17]. As a promising alternative, AChE-based biosensors have been developed for rapidly monitoring OPs compounds via enzymatic inhibition pathway, ascribed to their instrumental simplicity, moderate cost, high sensitivity, and selectivity [18–21].

Metal – organic frameworks (MOFs), structured by coordinating polytopic organic ligands with metal ions or clusters [22,23], have aroused tremendous interest for applications in energy storage, gas adsorption and desorption, chemical sensor and catalysis, owing to their promising features, including exceptionally large surface areas, highly ordered pores, adjustable internal surface properties and various functionalities [24,25]. In particular, the extraordinarily tunable structures and properties of MOF are expected to outperform other traditional chemo-sensory materials for constructing sensors [26,27]. Furthermore, various crystal structures of MOFs can be formed in accordance with the different coordination modes between the organic ligands and metal centers. MOFs can crystallize into particles, bulk as well as layered structures [28]. Notably, the layered MOF structure might show superiority than other crystal structures, as a result of its larger surface area as well as more accessible active sites on their surfaces. Unfortunately, most MOFs are natively along with poor electrical conductivity [29,30], which dramatically limits the efficient utilization of MOF in the fabrication of biosensors. Therefore, either translating to MOF derivative or combining MOFs with highly conductive materials is expected to further achieve improved electrochemical performance. More intriguingly, MOFs can be used as precursors to derive tailorable functional materials such as metal oxide and their carbon composites through thermal/chemical treatments [31–33]. Transition metal oxides (TMO) derived from MOFs possess good electrical conductivity and keep the same structure as the parent MOFs, as well as large surface areas [34], which make these electrochemically active materials desirable as electrode materials to achieve superior performance for constructing sensing platform.

Very recently, two-dimensional (2D) transition metal carbides (labelled MXenes), are a novel class of 2D materials produced by the extraction of the intermediate element from MAX phases, where M generally represents an early transition metal (e.g., Ti, Mo, Sc, Zr, Hf, V, Nb, Ta, Cr), A is an A group element (Al or Si), and X is either carbon or nitrogen [35,36]. Given their outstanding properties e.g., hydrophilicity, combined high electronic conductivity, high volumetric capacitance, superior electrochemical properties and extremely large

specific surface areas, the MXenes have attracted great interest for a wide variety of applications in supercapacitors [37], electrocatalysis [38], fuel cells [39], lithium ion batteries [40], sensors [41,42] and hydrogen storage [43]. Moreover, embedded with noble metal (Au, Ag) nanoparticles could significantly tune MXene with improved conductivity and enhanced electrochemical properties, further exploiting their application to electrochemical biosensors.

Inspired by these considerations, in this contribution, highly conductive MOF-derived $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ and Ti_3C_2 MXene/Au NPs composites were prepared and employed as a sensing platform for electrochemical pesticide detection. As known, although ultrathin 2D nanomaterials have been extensively employed as electrode materials for constructing electrochemical sensors, there also exist disadvantages. It should be noted that these ultrathin nanomaterials possess low long-time stability and the nanosheets easily stacked attributed to their ultrathin nature [44]. Simultaneously, the nanomaterials lost some exposed active sites due to the stacking. To realize layered structure merits and long-time stability, multiple layers of composites are highly desirable. Herein, the MOF-derived $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composites with a layered structure of stacked nanosheets were prepared for the first time. The $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composed of vertically aligned, highly ordered nanosheets, not only provides an excessively large specific surface area for the electrochemical reactions, but also exhibits excellent electrochemical property and long-time stability. Especially to deserve to be mentioned, the combination of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ and MXene/Au NPs is anticipated to realize synergistic signal amplification as a result of excellent performance of the AChE biosensor.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Materials and apparatus

Acetylcholinesterase (AChE; E.C.3.1.1.7; 518 U/mg protein) from *Electrophorus electricus* (electric eel) and acetylthiocholine chloride (ATCI) were purchased by Sigma-Aldrich (USA). Titanium aluminum carbide (Ti_3AlC_2 , $\geq 98\%$) powder was purchased by Forsman Technology Company (Beijing, China). 2,5-dihydroxyterephthalic acid and $\text{MnCl}_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ were purchased from Aladdin. Methamidophos was obtained from LGC Promochem (Wesel, Germany). Chitosan (Chit), 1% (w/v), was prepared in 0.1 M acetic acid. Stock solutions of phosphate buffer saline (PBS, 0.1 M) were prepared by mixing 0.1 M Na_2HPO_4 and NaH_2PO_4 solutions. All chemicals and materials used in this work were of analytical reagent grade.

2.2. Characterizations

X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were performed with a Rigaku D/MAX-2500 powder X-ray diffractometer by Cu K α ($\lambda = 0.15406$ nm, 40 kV, 200 mA). The morphology and structure of the composites were characterized by employing a scanning electron microscope (SEM, Hitachi S4800, Japan) and a transmission electron microscope (TEM, JEOL JEM-200EX, Japan). X-ray photoelectron spectrum was carried out to analyze the element and oxidation state of the composites by using a photoelectron spectrometer (Thermo Scientific ESCALAB 250Xi) employing Mg-K α as X-ray source (1253.6 eV). Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was collected on a SDT Q600 thermoanalyzer under air atmosphere with a heating rate of $10^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$. Raman spectrum was recorded using a WITec, alpha300R.

2.3. Preparation of MOF-derived $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composites

The MOF-derived $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ with layered structure was prepared for the first time. $\text{MnCl}_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and 2,5-dihydroxyterephthalic acid were used as the precursors. Typically, $\text{MnCl}_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (17.8 mg) together with 2,5-dihydroxyterephthalic acid (59.4 mg) was dissolved in a mixture of DMF-ethanol-water (30 ml, 15:1:1 (v/v/v)) and then poured into a 75 mL Teflon-lined stainless steel autoclave. Subsequently, it was heated at 135 °C for 24 h to synthesize Mn-MOF. After several hours of cooling down, the collected samples were centrifuged and washed with ethanol and water several times and dried in vacuum at 50 °C for 12 h. Finally, the collected precipitate was heat-treated at 700 °C in N_2 gas for 2 h to obtain the layered MOF-derived $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composite.

2.4. Preparation of Ti_3C_2 MXene/Au NPs

The Ti_3C_2 MXene was synthesized via a conventional method (in Supplementary material) [45]. Ti_3C_2 MXene/Au NPs were prepared by following steps. 20 mg of Ti_3C_2 MXene was ultrasonically dissolved in 50 mL ultrapure water. Into this uniform suspension, 600 microliters of 100 mM HAuCl_4 aqueous solution was slowly added with mild shaking. After 10 min of reaction, the MXene/Au NPs suspension was then centrifuged at 5000 r.p.m. for 20 min and the collected precipitate was re-dispersed in absolute ethyl alcohol for further tests.

2.5. Fabrication of the AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ /GCE

Prior to modify the electrode, the GCE was polished thoroughly with 0.3 μm and 50 nm alumina slurry, followed by ultrasonically washing with ethanol and water. 3 microliters of the suspension of MOF-derived $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ with appropriate concentration was dropped on freshly electrode surface and dried naturally. Then, 5 microliters of the suspension of MXene/Au NPs was further cast onto the $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ modified electrode. Finally, a mixture of AChE and Chit (1:6 (v/v)) were next spread to the surface of MXene/Au NPs/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ /GCE. The modified electrode was stored in a refrigerator kept at 4 °C for further measurements.

2.6. Electrochemical measurements

Cyclic voltammetry (CV), differential pulse voltammetry (DPV), amperometric and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) measurements were conducted on a CHI 750E electrochemical working station (Chenhua Apparatus Co., Shanghai, China) by a three-electrode system. A saturated calomel electrode (SCE) was served as the reference electrode, a Pt plate as an auxiliary electrode, and the modified glass carbon electrode (GCE, $d = 3 \text{ mm}$) as working electrode. EIS tests were performed in 0.1 M KCl solution containing 5 mM $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]/\text{K}_4[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$ (1:1), with an amplitude of 5 mV in a frequency range of 0.01 Hz–100 kHz. CV was conducted in 0.1 M KCl solution containing 5 mM $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{3-/4-}$, with scan rate from 10 mV s^{-1} to 200 mV s^{-1} . All measurements were carried out at a steady temperature ($25 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$).

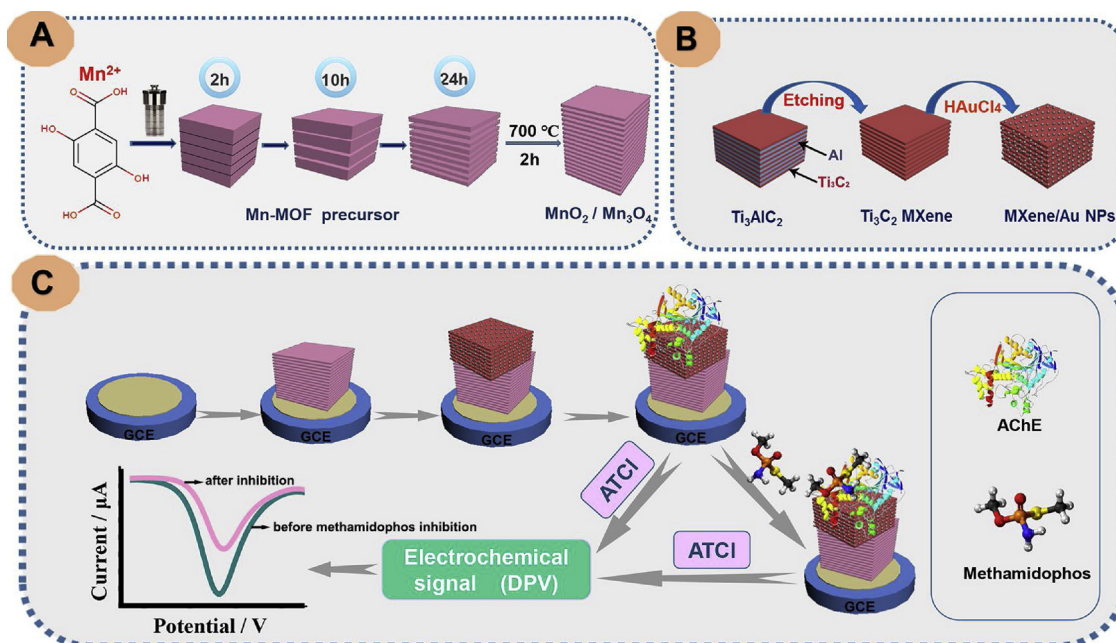
The AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ /GCE biosensor was employed for detecting methamidophos using DPV methods (pulse width, 0.005 s; amplitude, 0.05 V; pulse period, 0.02 s; from 0.1 to 0.9 V). Methamidophos, is a representative organophosphate pesticide. DPV measurements were conducted in PBS (0.1 M, pH 7.4) containing 4 mM ATCI to record the response of the AChE biosensor without or with incubation in different concentrations of pesticides. The inhibition efficiency of pesticides was calculated by the relative reduction of electrochemical response:

$$\text{Inhibition (\%)} = [(I_0 - I_i)/I_0] \times 100$$

Here, I_0 and I_i refer to the peak current before and after methamidophos inhibition, respectively.

3. Results and discussion

The fabrication process of the AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ /GCE biosensor for monitoring methamidophos is illustrated in Scheme 1. In summary, the MXene/Au NPs and $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ were successively deposited onto a glassy carbon electrode (GCE), and then AChE-Chit mixture was immobilized. In order to explore morphology of biosensing interfaces in each step, SEM images of GCE, $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ /GCE, MXene/Au NPs/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ /GCE and AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ /GCE were provided in Fig. S1 (in Supplementary Materials).



Scheme 1. Illustration of the formation of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composite (A), MXene/Au NPs (B), the fabrication process of AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ /GCE biosensor for methamidophos assay (C).

3.1. Characterization of MOF-derived $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composite

The formation of multilayered $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composite is illustrated in Scheme 1A. The precursor Mn-MOF composed of orderly stacked layers was prepared by solvothermal reaction without any surfactants added. The growth process of Mn-MOF has been explored with different solvothermal time (Fig. S2A–C). From the viewpoint of thermodynamics, individual layers which possess high surface energy tend to aggregate vertically to planes to reduce the high surface energy. As a result, the sheets aggregate to generate a layered structure of stacked nanosheets to minimize the overall surface energy. The MOF-derived $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composite was obtained after Mn-MOF was heat-treated at 700 °C in N_2 gas, in which carbon frameworks partly lost. The morphology and microstructure of the $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composites were characterized by SEM and TEM. A panoramic view of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ shown in Fig. S2D indicates that it consists of monodisperse microblocks with sizes of several micrometers. A close observation shows that these microblocks possess an opened interspace and are composed of vertically aligned, highly ordered nanosheets with an average thickness of ~150 nm (Fig. 1A–D). Such well-defined multilayer architecture of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composite could provide a large specific surface area. In addition, a high-resolution TEM image (Fig. 1E) clearly illustrates the lattice fringe of 0.495 nm associated with the (101) plane spacing of Mn_3O_4 and 0.238 nm related to the (211) plane spacing of MnO_2 , which is in accordance with the following XRD results. As shown in Fig. 1F, the elemental distribution maps of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composites clearly demonstrate the homogeneous distribution of Mn (blue) and O (green).

Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was employed to study the thermal behavior of Mn-MOF. As what can be seen in Fig. S3, the mass loss is ascribed to the oxidation of the ligands as well as the decomposition of skeleton. Consequently, 700 °C was selected as the calcination temperature to ensure the transformation of Mn-MOF precursors to metal oxides products. The composition and structure of as-prepared Mn-MOF and their derived $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ are confirmed by X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) measurement. The XRD pattern of Mn-MOF (Fig. S4) is in accordance with previous reports [46]. The XRD results of MOF-derived manganese oxide are shown in Fig. 2A. The main

diffraction peaks of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composite can be indexed to the (110), (200), (310), (400), (211), (411), (521) lattice planes of MnO_2 (JCPDS No. 44-0141) and (101), (112), (200), (103), (211), (220), (224) lattice planes of Mn_3O_4 (JCPDS No. 18-0803), implying that the derivative is a mixed-phase material composed of MnO_2 and Mn_3O_4 phases. To further investigate the electronic state and chemical composition, X-ray photoelectron spectrum (XPS) was carried out. In the full-survey-scan spectrum in Fig. S5A, the characteristic peaks of Mn, C, and O were observed, confirming the presence of these three elements in the composite. The oxidation state of Mn in manganese oxides was confirmed by the separation energy between Mn 3s doublet peaks, and it was obtained as 5.01 eV (Fig. S5B), manifesting an intermediate oxidation state between Mn^{3+} and Mn^{4+} [47]. As shown in Fig. 2B, the high-resolution XPS spectrum of Mn 2p is deconvoluted into four peaks at 640.6 eV, 642.1 eV, 652.8 eV and 654.9 eV. A couple of peaks at 642.1 eV and 654.9 eV arises from Mn^{III} cations, suggesting the existence of Mn_3O_4 in the composite [48]. Fig. 2C presents the O 1s spectrum, which is deconvoluted into four peaks with binding energies at 529.8 eV, 531.0 eV, 532.4 eV and 533.5 eV. The peak at 529.8 eV is generally relevant to metal-oxygen bonds (Mn–O), while 531.0 eV possibly correspond to defects, undercoordinated lattice oxygen, or chemisorbed oxygen surface species. Additionally, the peak at 532.4 eV is related to physis/chemisorbed water and another peak at 533.5 eV is ascribed to C–O bonds. The composite was further investigated by Raman spectroscopy. From Fig. S6, the Raman spectrum presents a D band located at 1327 cm^{-1} (sp^3 defects emanating from disordered carbon) as well as a G band situated at 1581 cm^{-1} (sp^2 -hybridized graphitic carbon). The intensity of G peak and D peak has similar values with an IG/ID band intensity ratio of ~0.983, which implies the graphitization degree of the carbon for the composite.

3.2. Characterization of Ti_3C_2 MXene and MXene/Au NPs

The formation of MXene/Au NPs composite is illustrated in Scheme 1B. Firstly, Ti_3C_2 MXene was prepared by selective etching of the Al layer from Ti_3AlC_2 powders, generating an opened interspace. As shown in the SEM image in Fig. 3(A,B), the synthesized Ti_3C_2 MXene

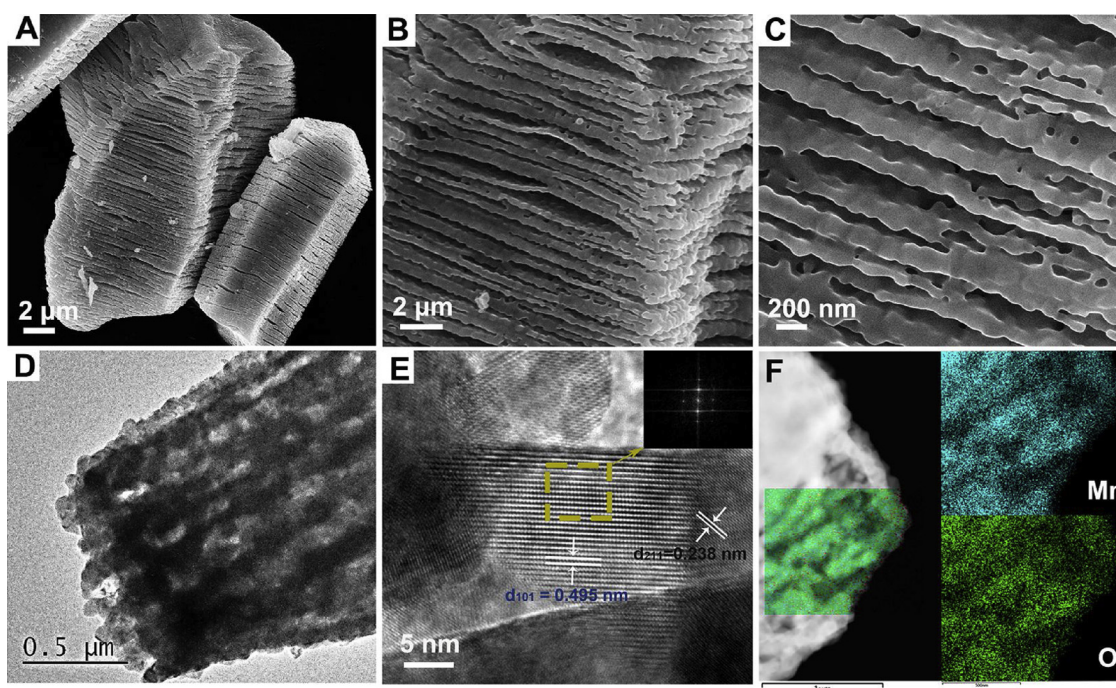


Fig. 1. Morphology and structure characterization. (A–C) SEM images with different magnifications of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$. (D) TEM image of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$. (E) High-resolution TEM image of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$, the corresponding FFT pattern is shown in the inset. (F) HAADF-STEM image of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ with elemental mapping analyses of Mn (blue), O (green) (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article).

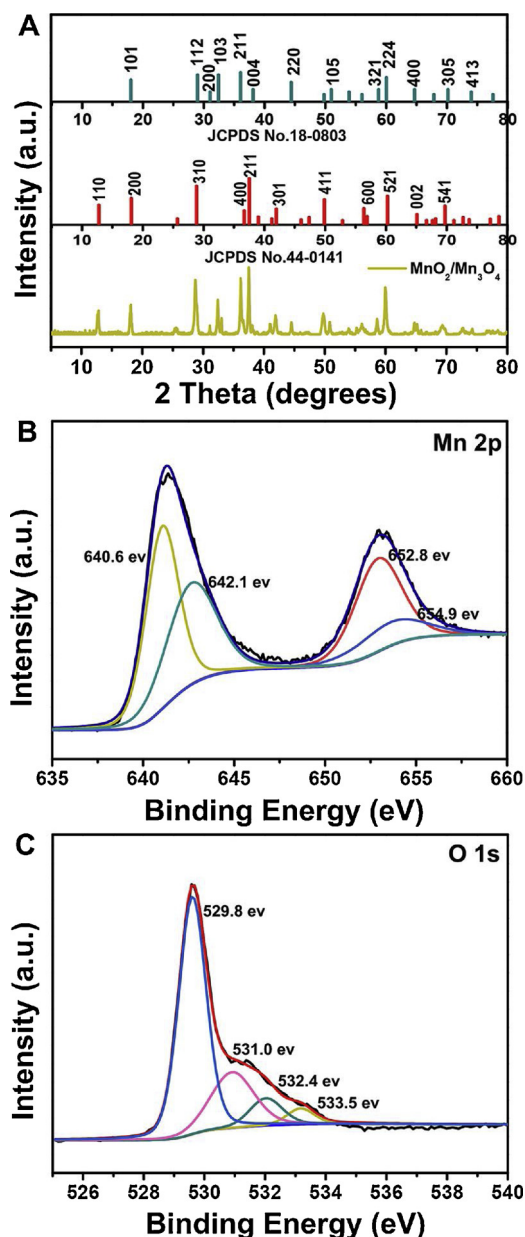


Fig. 2. (A) XRD patterns of MnO₂/Mn₃O₄. (B) and (C) XPS spectra of Mn2p and O1s.

shows an accordion-like structure along with the exfoliated multilayers less than 50 nm. Interestingly, the unique 2D multilayer nanostructure of Ti₃C₂ MXene could provide a large specific surface area. As shown in Fig. 3(C–E), Au nanoparticles were homogeneously absorbed on the surface of MXene with an average size of 10 nm. The XRD patterns of MXene and MXene/Au NPs are shown in Fig. 3F. There are four major characteristic peaks in XRD pattern of MXene/Au NPs, which could be assigned to the (111), (200), (220), and (331) lattice planes of the face-centered-cubic Au single crystal.

3.3. Electrochemical behavior of modified electrodes

Electrical conductivity, electroactive surface area (A), and electrochemical activity, are dominating critical factors of nanomaterials, which greatly impact their performance as electrode material for electrochemical sensors. Hence, CV and EIS measurements were utilized for characterizing these interfacial electrochemical properties of bare GCE, MXene/Au NPs, MnO₂/Mn₃O₄, MXene/Au NPs/MnO₂/Mn₃O₄ modified

electrodes, using [Fe(CN)₆]^{3−/4−} as redox probe. Fig. 4A shows the typical Nyquist plots of different modified electrodes, which include a semicircle section at higher frequencies representing electron-transfer-limited process and a linear portion at lower frequency corresponding to the diffusion-limited process. The electron-transfer resistance (Ret), pointing to the electron-transfer kinetics of the [Fe(CN)₆]^{3−/4−} redox probe on the electrodes surface, could be measured by the semicircle diameter. Evidently, both MnO₂/Mn₃O₄ and MXene/Au NPs-modified electrodes possessed a much smaller Ret (108 Ω, 48 Ω) in comparison with that bare GC electrode (410 Ω), indicating improved charge transfer kinetics with the addition of these two composites (Fig. 4A). Besides, the MOF-derived MnO₂/Mn₃O₄/GCE shows a much smaller Ret than Mn-MOF/GCE (Fig. S7), suggesting the improved conductivity of the transition metal oxide compared to the parent Mn-MOF. Incorporation of both MXene/Au NPs and MnO₂/Mn₃O₄, it displays a significantly smaller semicircle and Ret (12 Ω), ascribed to the synergistic effect and excellent conductivity. The results reveal that the combination of MXene/Au NPs and MnO₂/Mn₃O₄ acts as transducer could accelerate electron transfer in electrochemical reactions. After the immobilization of AChE, the Ret value obviously increased, implying that AChE has been successfully immobilized onto the modified electrode. The Ret values of bare and modified electrodes were shown in Fig. 4C.

All CV curves show a pair of well-defined reversible redox peaks in Fig. 4B, which is relevant to Fe³⁺/Fe²⁺ redox probe. Compared to bare GCE (curve a), a significant increase of reversible redox peak currents and a decrease of peak potential separation (ΔEp) were observed after immobilization of MnO₂/Mn₃O₄ (curve b) or MXene/Au NPs composites (curve c). When simultaneously incorporated with MXene/Au NPs and MnO₂/Mn₃O₄ onto GCE, the reversible redox peak currents significantly increased and ΔEp decreased to minimum value of 0.103 V (curve d). Thus, improved reversibility of redox system and high electron transfer rate are acquired for these two composites, which is consistent with the EIS results. This phenomenon is possibly on account of the synergistic effect of distinguished electrical conductivity and large surface area of MXene/Au NPs and MnO₂/Mn₃O₄. However, when AChE is assembled on the modified electrode (curve e), the peak currents dramatically decreased and ΔEp increased, owing to AChE could severely block the electron transfer of [Fe(CN)₆]^{3−/4−}.

Electrochemically active surface area (A) was further measured by CV with different scan rates in 0.1 M KCl solution containing 5 mM [Fe(CN)₆]^{3−/4−}. As what can be seen in Fig. 4D–F, both anodic and cathodic peak currents increased with the increase of scan rate, demonstrating the process is controlled by diffusion. Meanwhile, the peak potential obviously shifted and the peak-to-peak potential separation gradually increased. Furthermore, anodic as well as cathodic peak currents increased proportionally to the square root of scan rate ($v^{1/2}$), respectively. The active surface area of different modified electrodes was calculated by Randles–Sevcik equation [49],

$$i_p = (2.69 \times 10^5) n^{3/2} A D^{1/2} c v^{1/2}$$

Where n is the number of electrons taking part in the reaction of the [Fe(CN)₆]^{3−/4−} system ($n = 1$), A represents the area of electrode, D is the diffusion coefficient ($6.7 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$) and c is the concentration of [Fe(CN)₆]^{3−/4−} ($c = 5.0 \text{ mM}$). From the slope of $i_p \sim v^{1/2}$, the active surface area of MnO₂/Mn₃O₄/GCE, MXene/Au NPs/GCE and MXene/Au NPs/MnO₂/Mn₃O₄/GCE, were obtained as 0.285, 0.394, 0.583 cm², respectively. The calculated results indicate that the combination of MXene/Au NPs and MnO₂/Mn₃O₄ can be a good alternative which could provide extremely large active surface area for electrochemical reaction.

3.4. Optimization studies of the biosensor

For the sake of improving the performance of biosensor, several

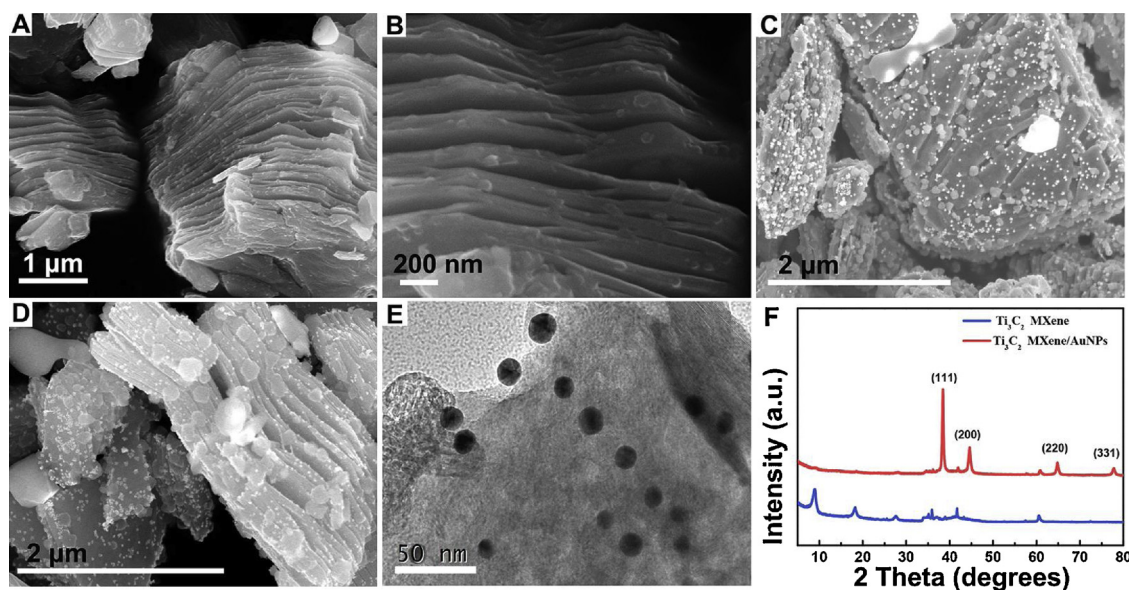


Fig. 3. Morphology and structure characterization. (A,B) SEM images with different magnifications of Ti_3C_2 MXene nanosheets, (C,D) SEM images with different magnifications of Ti_3C_2 MXene/Au NPs. (E) TEM image of Ti_3C_2 MXene/Au NPs. (F) XRD patterns of Ti_3C_2 MXene and Ti_3C_2 MXene/Au NPs.

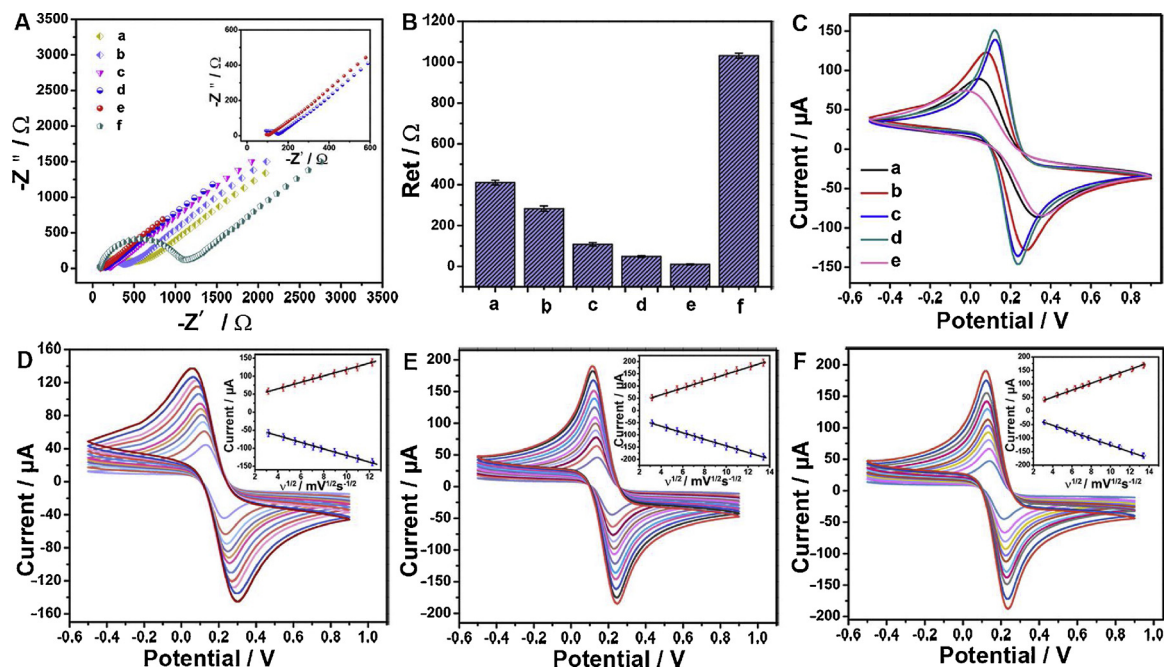


Fig. 4. (A) Nyquist plots of GCE (a), $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4/\text{GCE}$ (b), MXene/Au NPs/GCE (c), MXene/Au NPs/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4/\text{GCE}$ (d) and AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4/\text{GCE}$ (e), in 0.1 M KCl solution containing 5 mM $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{3-/4-}$. (B) The histogram for charge transfer resistance (R_{et}) of bare and modified electrodes. (C) Cyclic voltammetry curves of bare and modified electrodes in 0.1 M KCl containing 5 mM $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{3-/4-}$ at scan rate of 100 mV s^{-1} . (D), (E) and (F), Cyclic voltammetry curves of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4/\text{GCE}$, MXene/Au NPs/GCE and MXene/Au NPs/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4/\text{GCE}$ in 0.1 M KCl containing 5 mM $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{3-/4-}$ at different scan rates. Inset (D), (E) and (F) Plots of peak current vs square root of scan rate ($v^{1/2}$). Error bars are coefficient of variation across three repetitive experiments ($n = 3$). Error bars are graphical representations of the variability of data and used on graphs to indicate the error or uncertainty in a reported measurement.

experimental parameters were optimized. The performance of an enzyme-based biosensor is largely dependent on the amount of AChE, which is used as the bio-recognition element. Hence, to choose an optimal amount of AChE for constructing the biosensor was set for the first phase of this work. Biosensors were fabricated with different loading amounts of AChE from 0.05 U to 0.25 U and amperometric responses were recorded in 0.1 M pH 7.4 PBS solution containing 3.5 mM ATCl. As what can be seen in Fig. 5A, as the AChE amount increased, the peak current increased gradually. The biggest response current was obtained at 0.2 U. A small quantity of AChE possibly caused insufficiency of

enzyme catalysis reaction while excess enzyme might lead to the decrease of the sensitivity of biosensor. Hence, 0.2 U was chosen as the optimal amount of AChE.

Apart from the amount of AChE, the concentration of MXene/Au NPs and $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ exerts a powerful influence over the sensing performance. The MXene/Au NPs and $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composite act as transducers for facilitating electron transfer, which could further improve the sensitivity of biosensor and amplify response signal. Hence, it is necessary to ensure optimal loading of the composites onto the electrode surface. Five different concentrations of MXene/Au NPs (0.1,

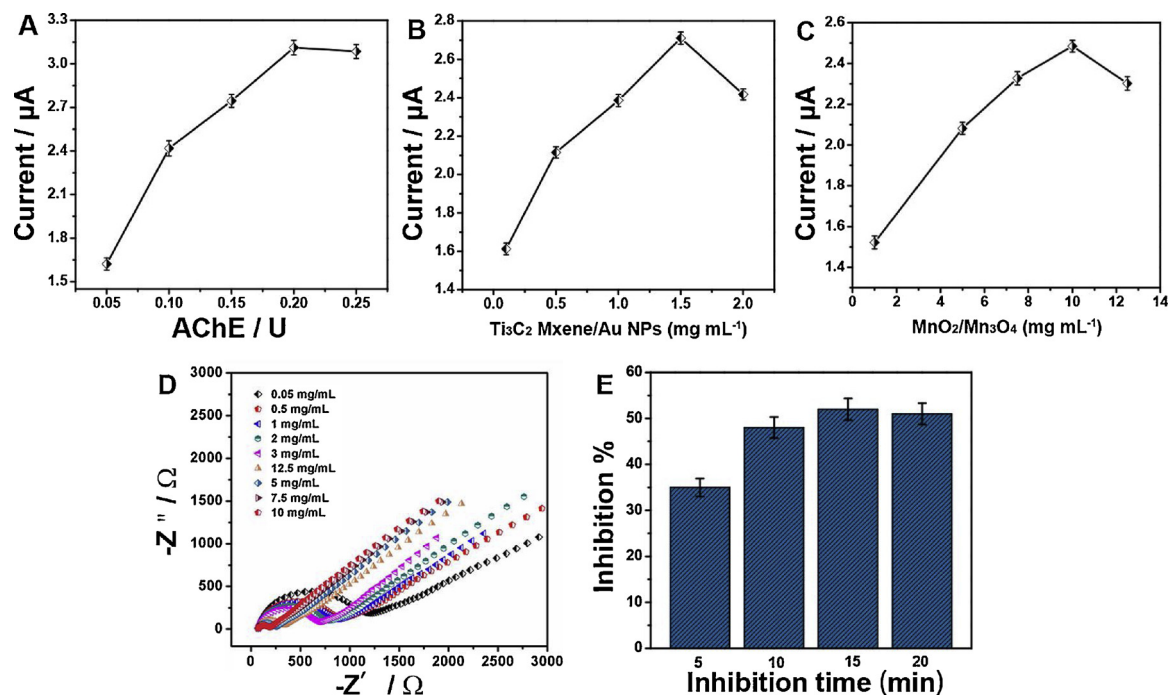


Fig. 5. Effect of (A) AChE amounts, (B) the concentration of Ti_3C_2 MXene/Au NPs, (C) the concentration of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$, (D) Nyquist plots of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4/\text{GCE}$ with different concentrations of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composite, (E) inhibition time. Error bars are coefficient of variation across three repetitive experiments ($n = 3$).

0.5, 1, 1.5, 2 mg mL^{-1}) were examined. Fig. 5B shows that the response current increased monotonically as the concentration increased from 0.1 to 1.5 mg mL^{-1} and then declined over 1.5 mg mL^{-1} . Thus, 1.5 mg mL^{-1} was selected as the optimal concentration of MXene/Au NPs. Likewise, five different concentrations of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composite (1, 5, 7.5, 10, 12.5 mg mL^{-1}) were explored. As shown in Fig. 5C, the

optimum concentration of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composite to be deposited is 10 mg mL^{-1} . High concentration may generate excess materials deposited, as a result of creating a barrier and blocking electron transfer.

In addition, EIS measurements were further utilized to verify the interfacial electrochemical properties of different concentrations of $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4$ composite modified electrodes. Nine different

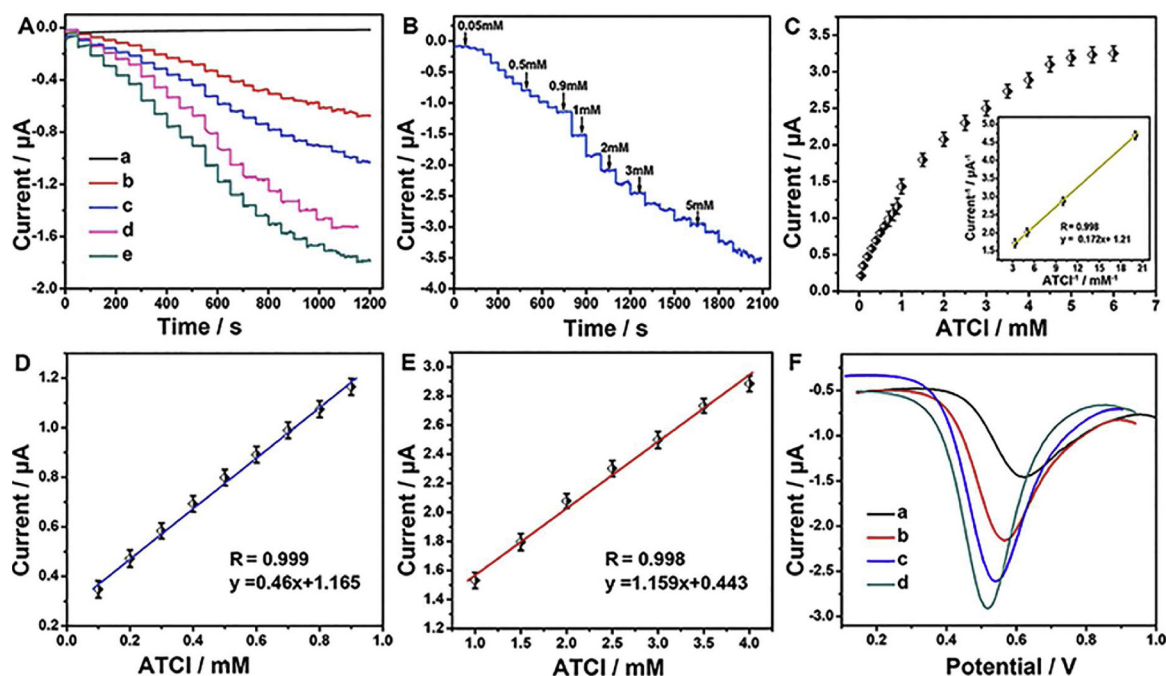


Fig. 6. (A) Amperometric responses of AChE-Chit/GCE (b), AChE-Chit/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4/\text{GCE}$ (c), AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/GCE (d), AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4/\text{GCE}$ (e) by successive addition of ATCl in 0.1 M pH 7.4 PBS with a mild stirring; applied potential: 0.55 V vs Ag/AgCl, (a) without adding ATCl. (B) Amperometric responses of AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4/\text{GCE}$ by successive addition of ATCl with varying concentrations. (C) Relationship between the obtained reduction peak current and ATCl concentration. Inset C shows the Lineweaver-Burk plot of $1/I_{ss}$ vs. $1/C$. (D) and (E) show the calibration curves for ATCl determination. (F) DPV responses of AChE-Chit/GCE (a), AChE-Chit/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4/\text{GCE}$ (b), AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/GCE (c), AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/ $\text{MnO}_2/\text{Mn}_3\text{O}_4/\text{GCE}$ (d) in 0.1 M pH 7.4 PBS solution containing 2.5 mM ATCl. Error bars are coefficient of variation across three repetitive experiments ($n = 3$).

concentrations (0.05, 0.5, 1, 2, 3, 5, 7.5, 10, 12.5 mg mL⁻¹) were examined. From Fig. 5D, with the increase of MnO₂/Mn₃O₄ from 0.05 to 10 mg mL⁻¹, the semicircle diameter decrease continuously, indicating the improved electrical conductivity and faster electron transfer. Nevertheless, the semicircle diameter increases over 10 mg mL⁻¹, which might imply saturation of the electrode surface. The results further demonstrate that excess loading amount of MnO₂/Mn₃O₄ composite exerts a barrier and hinders electron transfer.

Furthermore, the responses of the proposed biosensor was investigated with respect to the inhibition time. Organophosphate pesticides could irreversibly inhibit AChE by binding with the active site of the AChE. Hence, sufficient time for pesticides to inhibit the activity of AChE is very essential. Four different inhibition times (5, 10, 15, 20 min) were selected. As shown in Fig. 5E, I% at inhibition times of 5 and 10 min exhibited smaller values than 15 min, while 15 and 20 min have an similar I% results, with small error bar. In consideration of efficiency, 15 min was chosen as the optimum inhibition time.

3.5. Amperometric detection of ATCl

To evaluate the electrochemical responses of the AChE-based biosensors towards ATCl, different materials including MXene/Au NPs and MnO₂/Mn₃O₄ were applied for the construction of biosensor. Fig. 6A shows the amperometric responses of different biosensors with successive addition of ATCl. Both the MXene/Au NPs and MnO₂/Mn₃O₄ composites enhanced the electrochemical responses of the enzymatic biosensors as compared to the AChE-Chit/GCE biosensor without materials. More intriguingly, higher response currents were observed on the MXene/Au NPs/MnO₂/Mn₃O₄-based biosensor than the biosensors based on only one material, which could be account for synergistic signal amplification effect between different components. The amperometric responses of AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/MnO₂/Mn₃O₄/GCE by successive addition of ATCl with varying concentrations were shown in Fig. 6B and the relationship between oxidation current and ATCl concentration was shown in Fig. 6C. It can be observed that with the increasing ATCl concentration, the oxidation current gradually increases.

As what can be seen in Fig. 6D,E a good liner relationship was obtained between the oxidation current (I) and ATCl concentration (C), in wide ranges of 0.05 ~ 1 mM and 1 ~ 4 mM. The calibration equations are $I (\mu A) = 0.46C (mM) + 1.165$ ($R = 0.999$, $n = 3$) and $I (\mu A) = 1.159C (mM) + 0.443$ ($R = 0.998$, $n = 3$), respectively. The Michaelis – Menten constant (K_m) was used to describe the enzyme – substrate kinetics and calculated by the Lineweaver–Burk equation [50]. K_m and affinity are inversely related, that is, a smaller K_m implies the immobilized enzyme with a higher affinity towards ATCl. The K_m value for AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/MnO₂/Mn₃O₄/GCE biosensor was obtained as 142 μ M, which is obviously smaller than 257.67 μ M [51], 0.27 mM [50], 1.39 mM [52], 3.1 mM [21] reported previously, and it demonstrated a higher affinity towards ATCl. Electrochemical performance of different materials modified biosensor toward ATCl was further

examined by DPV. Fig. 6F shows the DPV results agree with the amperometric responses towards ATCl. Apparently, the MXene/Au NPs/MnO₂/Mn₃O₄-modified electrode shows the lowest working potential as well as the biggest current. The excellent performance likely results from the synergistic effects between the two components.

3.6. Determination of methamidophos

DPV responses of the AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/MnO₂/Mn₃O₄/GCE biosensor before (a) and after inhibition (b–g) with different concentrations of methamidophos are shown in Fig. 7A. With increasing exposure to methamidophos, the peak current generated from electrochemical oxidation of thiocholine decreased, for the reason that methamidophos could irreversibly inhibit the activity of AChE. Methamidophos could covalently bond with the hydroxyl of the serine in the active site, and then AChE gets phosphorylated, leading to a decrease of AChE activity. Fig. 7B presents the corresponding calibration curve, demonstrating that the inhibition rate (I) is linearly relied on the logarithm of the methamidophos concentration (log C) ranging from 10⁻¹² M to 10⁻⁶ M. The linear regression equation is $y = -5.89x + 85.82$, with a correlation coefficient $R = 0.995$. The limit of detection (LOD) of the proposed biosensor for methamidophos determination was 1.34×10^{-13} M. Moreover, this value is much lower than the maximum residue limits (MRLs) permitted by European Union (0.01 mg/kg). Relevant biosensors constructed for detecting methamidophos with respect to the limit of detection, linear range, detection method and immobilization method of AChE were summarized in Table 1. Obviously, the proposed biosensor exhibited remarkable sensing performance in comparison with previous literature.

To investigate that the proposed MXene/Au NPs/MnO₂/Mn₃O₄-based sensing system can be employed not only for monitoring methamidophos but also for other OPs, three other common pesticide (malathion, parathion-methyl and chlorpyrifos) were also tested. As shown in Fig. S8, the inhibition percent of different pesticide with the same concentration of 10⁻⁶ M were recorded as 52.4%, 41.1%, 43.7% and 47.4% for methamidophos, malathion, parathion-methyl and chlorpyrifos, demonstrating that the proposed biosensor generally applies to OPs.

In chemical analysis, matrix usually refers to some components in a sample, other than the target analyte. The matrix could have a considerable effect on the results of the detection of analytes, that is, qualitative and quantitative errors generated from these components [56–59]. Therefore, matrix effect should be considered. The matrix effect of methamidophos in the orange matrix was calculated as 15% and it showed a weak matrix enhancement effect (in Supplementary material).

To further verify the practical applicability of the as-prepared biosensor, it was employed for methamidophos detection in real samples. The fresh fruit was purchased from a local supermarket and treated by a Chinese Official Standard Method (in Supplementary material). Recovery results were listed in Table S1. Recovery percentages were

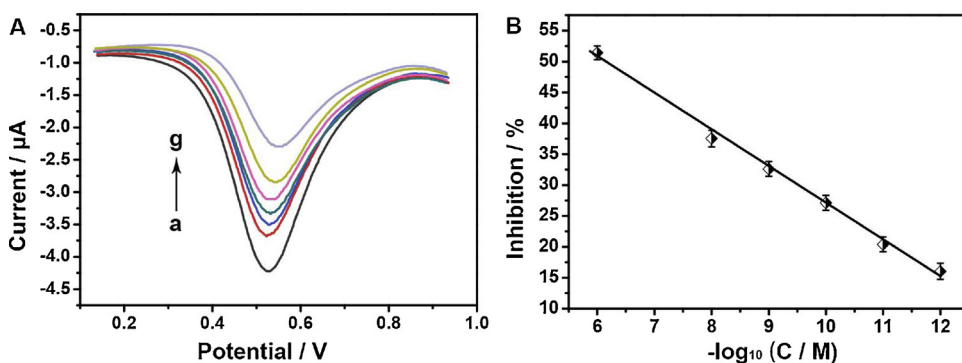


Fig. 7. (A) DPV currents of the AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/MnO₂/Mn₃O₄/GCE after inhibition with different concentrations of methamidophos (a – g): 0, 10⁻⁶, 10⁻⁸, 10⁻⁹, 10⁻¹⁰, 10⁻¹¹, and 10⁻¹² M. (B) Calibration curves for methamidophos determination. Error bars are coefficient of variation across three repetitive experiments ($n = 3$).

Table 1

Comparisons of the as-prepared biosensors with other biosensors for the determination of methamidophos.

Biosensors	Linear range	Detection limit	Detection method	Immobilization method of AChE	References
AChE/TCNQ/SPE	3.54 nM–0.7 μ M	7.08×10^{-9} M	Amperometric	Entrapment	[53]
AChE/Au NPs/Chi/GCE	28×10^{-3} – 170×10^{-3} μ M	7×10^{-9} M	CV	Covalent	[54]
AChE/Pt-CAs/BDD	10^{-11} – 10^{-6} M	3.1×10^{-13} M	DPV	Electrostatic interaction	[55]
AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/MnO ₂ /Mn ₃ O ₄ /GCE	10^{-12} – 10^{-6} M	1.34×10^{-13} M	DPV	Covalent	This work

obtained as 95.2%–101.3%, and relative standard deviations (RSDs) were all below 5%, which manifest that the fabricated biosensor is feasible and responsive for monitoring methamidophos in real samples.

3.7. Repeatability, reproducibility, stability and selectivity

The operational repeatability of this biosensor was tested by using the DPV technique of a prepared AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/MnO₂/Mn₃O₄/GCE in pH 7.4 PBS containing 1.0 mM ATCl. RSD of the proposed biosensor was 4.2% for five successive measurements. Similarly, five parallel-prepared MXene/Au NPs/MnO₂/Mn₃O₄-modified electrodes were applied for DPV measurements under the same conditions, with a RSD of 3.6%. The results reveal that this biosensor shows acceptable repeatability and reproducibility. The AChE-based electrode was stored in a refrigerator (4 °C). Amperometric responses of the fabricated biosensor retained approximately 90.4% of its origin value after two weeks of storage, and amperometric responses of AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/MnO₂/Mn₃O₄/GCE in 0.1 M PBS containing 1.0 mM ATCl has been recorded for 20,000 s (Fig. S9). However, amperometric responses of the fabricated biosensor retained 80.7% of its origin value after three weeks of storage. Hence, the test lifetime of the proposed biosensor was evaluated as about two weeks. The results indicate that the biosensor possess a favorable environmental and chemical stability for the further practical application. Experiments were performed to evaluate selectivity of the biosensor by directly injecting some common biological species and electrolytes in the electrochemical cell and recording the amperometric responses to ATCl. As shown in Fig. S10, glucose, citric acid, NO₃[−], SO₄^{2−}, PO₄^{3−}, Cu²⁺, Fe³⁺, Zn²⁺, Pb²⁺ were served as control samples. In the presence of these interferents with high concentration, no significant interference was observed in the detection.

4. Conclusion

In summary, a novel, reliable and sensitive biosensor was successfully developed for the electrochemical detection of OPs based on the MnO₂/Mn₃O₄ and MXene/Au NPs composites, via enzymatic inhibition pathway. In particular, the MnO₂/Mn₃O₄ hierarchical microcuboids consist of vertically aligned, highly ordered nanosheets, have been first synthesized via calcination of Mn-MOF as a precursor. Under optimal conditions, AChE-Chit/MXene/Au NPs/MnO₂/Mn₃O₄/GCE showed outstanding performance for methamidophos detection, a wide linear range from 10^{-12} M to 10^{-6} M with a low detection limit of 1.34×10^{-13} M, which is ascribed to the synergistic effect of MnO₂/Mn₃O₄ and MXene/Au NPs composites, exceptionally large specific surface area for electrochemical reaction, excellent biocompatibility in favour of retaining the AChE activity, and extraordinary conductivity which is of benefit to facilitating the electron transfer as well as improving the sensitivity of response. Besides that, good recovery percentages (95.2%–101.3%) were obtained in real sample analysis. This sensitive sensing platform shows great potentials for the on-site analysis of pesticides exposure or detecting other environmentally pollutants.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2019.03.083>.

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