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Direct Immobilization of Biomolecules Through Magnetic Forces on Ni Electrodes via Ni Nanoparticles: Applications in Electrochemical Biosensors.

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KEYWORDS: magnetic force, nanoparticles, nickel, immobilization, biosensor.

ABSTRACT: The present work describes a new simple procedure for the direct immobilization of biomolecules on Ni electrodes using magnetic Ni nanoparticles (NiNP) as biomolecule carriers. Ni electrodes were fabricated by electroplating and NiNP were chemically synthesized. The chemical composition, crystallinity and granular size of Ni electrodes, NiNP and NiNP modified Ni electrodes (NiNP/Ni) were determined by X-ray diffraction (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The electrochemical characterization of Ni electrodes by cyclic voltammetry (CV) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) confirmed the existence of nickel oxides, hydroxides and oxohydroxide films at the surface of Ni. Magnetic characterization and micromagnetic simulations were performed in order to prove that

the magnetic force is responsible for the immobilization process. Further, Ni electrodes were employed as amperometric sensors for the detection of hydrogen peroxide, since it is an important performance indicator for a material to be applied in biosensing. The working principle for magnetic immobilization of the enzyme-functionalized NiNP, without the use of external magnetic sources, was demonstrated for glucose oxidase (GOx) as a model enzyme. XPS results enabled to identify the presence of GOx attached to the NiNP (GOx-NiNP) on Ni electrodes. Finally, glucose detection and quantification was evaluated with the newly developed GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensor by amperometry at different potentials, and control experiments at different electrode materials in the presence and absence of NiNP, demonstrated their importance in the biosensor architecture.

1. INTRODUCTION

Nanostructured materials have been extensively used in bioanalytical devices due to their ability to enhance the overall performance of the resulting (bio)sensor¹. Among these, metal nanoparticles (MeNP) have dual function, acting as carrier or immobilization support for the bioreceptors and as signal transducer, where due to their high surface-to-volume ratios are able to amplify the resulting signals to be monitored². Electrochemical devices based on MeNP make use of their increased electroactive surface, electron conductivity and catalytic properties, to tailor new biosensor architecture with superior sensitivity and selectivity, the amperometric-based biosensors being more suitable for mass production³.

Both MeNP size and composition directly influence their physicochemical properties, e.g. quantum confinement in semiconductor nanocrystals, surface plasmon resonance in some MeNP and superparamagnetism in magnetic materials³. As a result, fluorescent quantum dots (QD) and plasmonic gold nanoparticles (AuNP) were broadly used in biosensor development, covering applications from diagnosis and therapy to cancer detection and treatment²⁻⁴.

MeNP with magnetic properties were explored in different biosensor architectures in various fields, i.e. genosensor, (bio)sensors for protein detection and enzyme biosensors, conferring efficient pre-concentration and binding of the biorecognition elements at the electrode surface, providing at the same time an easy separation methodology⁵⁻⁹. By applying an external magnetic field beneath the sensing surface, the biomolecule-functionalized magnetic MeNP are attracted at the electrode interface^{5,6}, enabling in this way the construction of biodevices with higher thermal stability besides increased selectivity and specificity when compared to the solely immobilized native enzymes⁷. Also, new enzymatic devices incorporate a magnet in the body of the working electrode, to ensure a good attraction/immobilization of the magnetic MeNP at the electrode interface^{5,8,9}.

Magnetic MeNP used in biosensing include ferric and ferrous oxides^{7,10} or nickel NP^{11,12} modified/functionalized with glutaraldehyde, polymers, agarose, chitosan or metal oxides⁷ in order to provide a biocompatible environment for the biomolecule immobilization. It is important to state that Ni and Ni oxide based materials were recently used for the non-enzymatic detection of glucose¹³⁻¹⁷. However, the principle of functioning which is based on the oxidation of glucose by the NiOOH species in NaOH solutions¹³, does not allow a selective detection and requires the use of alkaline media.

In the present work, a new approach to simplify electrode architecture for magnetic immobilization of biomolecules is proposed. The procedure involves the preparation and characterization of metallic electrodes with magnetic properties, at which magnetic MeNP are directly attracted by magnetic forces. Magnetic electrodes can play a dual role: as immobilization support for biological molecules and as transducers of the biological reactions. Additionally, magnetic MeNP can act as carriers for the biomolecules toward the immobilization support. In our case, both magnetic electrodes and MeNP were obtained by simple and cost-effective preparation

methods, Ni electrodes by electroplating and NiNP by the chemical reduction of a Ni salt. The performance of these electrodes as transducers of biological events was investigated for detection of hydrogen peroxide. We report for the first time, to our knowledge, the direct immobilization without the use of an external magnetic source of an enzyme through NiNP at Ni electrodes. The working principle was demonstrated for glucose oxidase as a model enzyme.

2. EXPERIMENTAL

2.1. Reagents and solutions

All reagents purchased from Sigma Aldrich were of analytical grade, and used without further purification. Reagents were: glucose, fructose, galactose, xylose, mannose, ascorbic acid, dopamine, uric acid, glucose oxidase (GOx) from *Aspergillus niger* Type X-S (117200 units/g), CH₃COOH, H₃BO₃, H₂O₂, NaCl, Na₂HPO₄, NaH₂PO₄, NaOH, N₂H₄, NiCl₂, NiSO₄ and polyvinylpyrrolidone. Millipore Milli-Q nanopure water (resistivity $\geq 18 \text{ M}\Omega \text{ cm}$) was used for the preparation of all solutions.

Britton Robinson buffer was prepared using a mixture of 0.04 M H₃BO₃, 0.04 M H₃PO₄ and 0.04 M CH₃COOH and adjusted with 0.2 M NaOH (all from Sigma Aldrich) to obtain buffer solutions with pH ranging from 2 to 13. Phosphate buffer saline solution (PBS) at pH 7.0 containing 0.1 M Na₂HPO₄ and NaH₂PO₄, and 0.05 M NaCl were used for the electrochemical evaluation of Ni electrodes, for H₂O₂ amperometric detection and for the amperometric detection of glucose at the GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensor. All experiments were carried out at room temperature (25 $\pm$ 1°C).

2.2. Instrumentation

Electrochemical experiments, cyclic voltammetry (CV) and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS), were performed in a conventional electrochemical cell with Ni/Au/Ti/SiO₂/Si

as working electrode (Ni, geometric area $\sim 0.1 \text{ cm}^2$), a Pt wire as counter electrode and a Ag/AgCl (3 M KCl) as reference, with an Ivium potentiostat/galvanostat. The EIS measurements were done at a 10 mV perturbation, in the frequency range from 100 kHz to 0.1 Hz, 5 steps/decade, at different polarization potentials. The impedance spectra were analyzed by fitting using ZView software (Scribner Associates, USA).

X-ray diffraction (XRD) measurements were performed using a Bruker AXS D8 Advance diffractometer, in parallel beam setting, equipped with Cu target X-ray tube. The scattered intensity was scanned in the 2θ range of $20\text{--}60^\circ$ with a step size of 0.04° , and a dwell time of 20 s.

X-Ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS) was performed in an AXIS Ultra DLD (Kratos Surface Analysis) setup equipped with an 180° hemispherical analyzer, using Al $K_{\alpha 1}$ (1486.74 eV) radiation produced by a monochromatized X-Ray source at operating power of 300 W ($15\text{ kV} \times 20\text{ mA}$). The base pressure in the analysis chamber was at least 1.0×10^{-8} mbar. Partial charge compensation was reached by using a flood gun operating at 1.52 A filament current, 2.73 V charge balance, 2.02 V filament bias. The survey spectra were recorded using Hybrid lens mode, 160 eV pass energy, slot aperture, and high resolution core level spectra using the small spot lens mode, 20 eV pass energy 110 μm aperture. The core level spectra have been deconvoluted using Voigt profiles, based on previously described method¹⁸.

Zeiss Evo 50 XVP and Tescan Lyra 3XMU Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) were used for the morphological characterization of Ni, NiNP and NiNP/Ni. The SEM images were acquired at different magnifications.

The specific magnetization of NiNPs was measured at different temperatures in fields of up to 20 kOe in a SQUID (superconducting quantum interference device) magnetometer working under the most sensitive option (RSO).

Incubation, temperature and agitation control were carried out with an Eppendorf ThermoMixer® C and the pH-measurements with a Hanna HI 9124N portable waterproof pH-meter.

2.3. Ni electrodes preparation

For the preparation of Ni electrodes, substrates of Au/Ti/SiO₂/Si were used, in which the film thicknesses were of 50 nm SiO₂, 10 nm Ti (deposited by RF sputtering) and 100 nm Au (deposited by vacuum evaporation). Ni films were obtained by electroplating on these substrates in a 3 electrode configuration cell (working electrode Au/Ti/SiO₂/Si substrate, counter electrode a Ni plate and a commercial saturated calomel electrode –SCE, as reference), using a Watts bath, at a potential of -1.0 V vs SCE at 60 °C for 1 min, resulting in a thickness of about 300 nm. The Watts bath contained 225 g L⁻¹ NiSO₄, 30 g L⁻¹ NiCl₂ and 30 g L⁻¹ H₃BO₃.

2.4. NiNP chemical synthesis

NiNP were prepared by the chemical reduction of nickel chloride with hydrazine hydrate in the presence of polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP). Thus, 0.1 g NiCl₂, 0.5 ml N₂H₄ and 0.4 ml 1.0 M NaOH were added in a glass beaker containing 0.01 % PVP in ethylene glycol. The reaction was carried out at 60 °C under vigorous stirring. After 1 h, the black powder product was collected through centrifugation, washed several times with ethanol and finally dried at room temperature. Finally, a suspension of 1 mg of NiNP powder were dispersed in 1 ml of ultrapure water (Milli-Q Reference system by Millipore, resistivity of 18,2 MΩ·cm) and sonicated in an ultrasonic bath for 1 h.

2.5. Biosensor preparation

NiNP/Ni were obtained by dropping an aliquot of 1mg/ml NiNP suspension on the magnetized Ni, followed by washing with distilled water and drying.

For the preparation of biosensors, first, a 5% w/v stock GOx solution was prepared in 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0 and stored in the freezer at -20 °C. In order to attach the enzyme to the NiNP, to get GOx-NiNP, equal volumes of enzyme solution and 1 mg mL⁻¹ NiNP suspensions were mixed and incubated either at 4 °C during 24 h or at 20 °C for different time intervals (24, 48, 72 and to 96 h) at 1500 rpm. Ni electrodes were immersed in the GOx-NiNP suspension for 3 min at 300 rpm, obtaining the GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensors. Other two electrode configurations were investigated for comparison purpose, GOx/Ni (without the use of NiNP) and GOx-NiNP/Au (without the use of Ni).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

3.1. Characterization of Ni, NiNP and NiNP/Ni

Ni, NiNP and NiNP/Ni were first investigated using structural, magnetic and electrochemical methods. The structural methods aim to determine NiNP particle size and distribution, to prove their adherence on Ni, allowing as well the determination of both Ni and NiNP/Ni chemical composition. The magnetic behavior of the system formed by the Ni electrodes and NiNPs was estimated since it represents the driving-force of the immobilization procedure. Also, a thorough characterization of the electrodes in basic, neutral and acidic media is needed, especially in neutral media were they mean to be applied in the final configuration of GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensors. This will allow to choose the working potential range and to elucidate the chemical composition of Ni involved in the redox reactions.

3.1.1. Structural characterization

The crystalline status of Ni, NiNP and NiNP/Ni has been assessed by X-ray diffraction and results are displayed in **Fig. 1A**. For Ni and NiNP/Ni, the Ni film was deposited on Au/Ti/glass

substrate, NiNP being dispersed in water. NiNP were also deposited on a SiO₂/Si, **Fig.1A-inset**, in this case NiNP being dispersed in ethanol. The Ni electrode pattern assessed by grazing incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD) is dominated by maxima of Au 111, superimposed Au 200 with Ni 111, and Ni 200 and no remarkable changes can be discerned between the patterns of Ni and NiNP/Ni. The structure of the NiNP was investigated separately by performing the XRD analysis on a sample consisting of NiNP placed on SiO₂/Si wafer, in order to exclude the prominent influence of Ni electrode substrate, **Fig. 1A-inset**. In this case, the patterns are featured by broader Ni maxima, characteristic for a nanocrystalline material. The main diffraction maxima are Ni 111 and Ni 200 as previously described, followed by additional peaks corresponding to 220, 311 and 222. The Scherrer equation¹⁹ was employed to estimate the Ni crystalline coherence length (“crystallite size”) from the full-width at half maximum (FWHM) of the 111 and/or 200 diffraction lines. The lines width was corrected for instrumental broadening using a corundum standard reference (NIST SRM 1976). The average crystallite size estimated for the Ni and NiNP modified Ni electrodes was of ~66 nm, whilst for the NiNP was of ~10 nm.

SEM images of NiNP and NiNP/Ni are shown in **Fig 1B**. The prepared NiNP dispersed in ethanol deposited on SiO₂/Si, **Fig.1B1**, are quasi-monodispersed in size (30-50 nm). The magnetic interactions between them have as a result the formation of “bead strings” superstructures. SEM images recorded at NiNP/Ni, **Fig. 1B2, B3**, revealed two types of conformations: i) globular structures with sizes varying between 50 and 200 nm, attributed to the NiNP, which due to their magnetic properties showed the tendency to aggregate and form large NiNP islands and ii) a thin, planar morphology with short chains of about 500 nm long, covering almost the entire electrode surface, which is linked to the polymeric matrix involved in the NiNP synthesis. The Ni electrode showed a granular structure with granule size of 20-50 nm uniformly distributed over the electrode surface, **Fig. 1B3**.

The surfaces of Ni and NiNP/Ni were characterized by XPS. The XPS spectra recorded on energy ranges corresponding to Ni 2p are represented in **Fig. 1C1, C1'** and the binding energy (BE) values determined for nickel species are presented in **Table 1**.

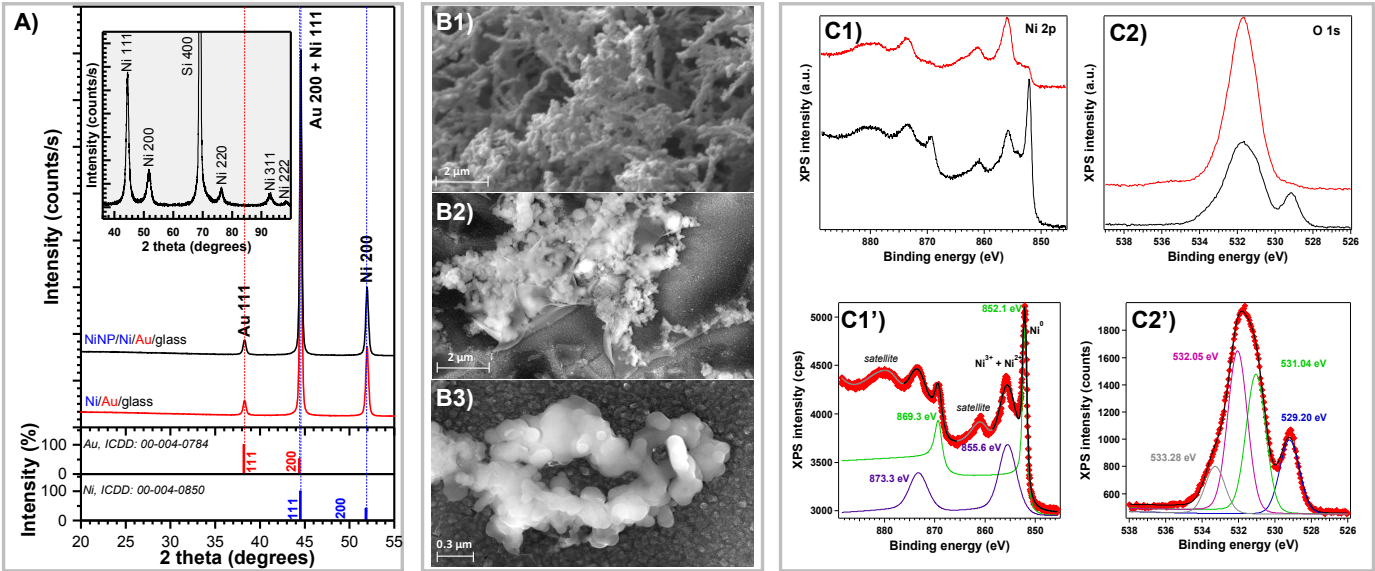


Figure 1. A) Comparative XRD patterns of Ni (—) and NiNP/Ni (—) on glass substrate; in inset is NiNP on SiO₂/Si; B) SEM images of B1-NiNP on SiO₂/Si and B2, B3-NiNP/Ni electrodes at different magnifications; C) XPS electron distribution curves (EDC) for C1) Ni 2p and C2) O 1s at Ni (—) and NiNP/Ni (—); C1') and C2') are deconvolutions of Ni 2p and O 1s for NiNP/Ni (data are analyzed with Voigt profiles and associated inelastic backgrounds).

Table 1. Binding energy (BE) values determined by XPS of nickel species found at the electrode surface.

Compound	BE Ni 2p _{3/2} , 2p _{1/2} / eV	BE O 1s / eV
Ni	852.1, 869.3	
NiO		529.2
Ni(OH) ₂	855.6, 873.3	531.0
Ni ₂ O ₃		532.1
H ₂ O _{ads}		533.3

Metallic Ni is responsible for the peaks obtained at 852.1 (2p_{3/2}) and 869.3 eV (2p_{1/2}), **Fig. 1C1'**. The peaks at 855.6 (2p_{3/2}) and 873.3 eV (2p_{1/2}) are due to Ni²⁺ and Ni³⁺ species²⁰ indicating the

presence of NiO/Ni(OH)₂ and Ni₂O₃/NiOOH layer on the electrode surface. The other peaks at 861.0 (2p_{3/2}) and 878.7 eV (2p_{1/2}), adjacent to the main peaks, are attributed to shake up satellite²¹.

XPS spectra of Ni showed that metallic Ni is more abundant than Ni²⁺ and Ni³⁺ species, the peaks for metallic Ni at 852.1 and 869.3 eV having an intensity about twice that of the peaks observed at 855.6 (2p_{3/2}) and 873.3 eV (2p_{1/2}) for Ni²⁺ and Ni³⁺, **Fig. 1C1**. After the deposition of NiNP on Ni electrode, the peaks for metallic Ni decrease significantly, and in this case the peaks of Ni²⁺ and Ni³⁺ overpass the peaks of metallic Ni, indicating that NiNP are rich in Ni²⁺ and Ni³⁺ species, **Fig. 1C1'**. The presence of Ni oxides on Ni and NiNP/Ni is also demonstrated by the XPS in **Fig 1C2**. The O 1s peaks were located at BE values specific to NiO, Ni(OH)₂ and Ni₂O₃^{22,23}, and their intensity increased substantially after the modification of Ni with NiNP, **Fig. 1C2'**.

3.1.2 Magnetic characterization and micromagnetic simulations

In order to use the nickel electrodes as support for the magnetic immobilization of biomolecules through NiNPs, the magnetic behavior of the system was investigated by estimating: *i*) the distribution of the magnetic field at the electrode surface, and *ii*) its effect on the NiNPs.

Before proceeding to these estimations, it is important to note that the magnetic force acting on each nanoparticle can be calculated via the gradient of the magnetic energy, $U = -\vec{m} \cdot \vec{B}$, according to the equation $\vec{F} = -\text{grad}U$, where $\vec{m}$ is the magnetic moment of the NiNP and $\vec{B}$ is the magnetic field created by the Ni film at the NiNP position. NiNP will be directed toward the electrode surface only if the component of the field gradient along the *z* direction is higher than that of the magnetic field along the *x* or *y* directions. In these conditions, the *z* component of the force which acts on each nanoparticle can be simplified to $F_z = m_z \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial z}$.

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3 *i) Distribution of the magnetic field at Ni electrodes*
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5 The distribution of the magnetic field was calculated via the OOMMF (Object Oriented
6 Micromagnetic Framework) public domain software, developed by the Applied and Computational
7 Mathematics Division of NIST [Donahue M J and Porter D G 1999 *OOMMF User's Guide*,
8 *Version 1.0, Interagency Report NISTIR 6376* National Institute of Standards and Technology,
9 Gaithersburg, MD]. Details on these calculations are supplied in *Supporting Information*.
10 According to these data, the highest values of the gradient corresponds to the component along the
11 *z* axis, **Fig. S1**. The field gradient component along the *Oz* axis ($\frac{\partial B_z}{\partial z}$), was estimated from the values
12 of the field components of the Ni film electrode at two neighboring discretization lattice points
13 from the electrode surface, which were -118.86 kA m⁻¹ at *z* = 615 nm and -84.15 kA m⁻¹ at *z* = 645
14 nm resulting in a $\frac{\partial B_z}{\partial z} = 1.13 \times 10^9$ A m⁻².
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31 *ii) Magnetic moment of nickel nanoparticles*
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34 The values of the magnetic moment of the NiNP along the *z* axis were obtained by collecting
35 experimentally the magnetization of the nanoparticles vs. the applied magnetic fields. The magnetic
36 hysteresis loops collected at different temperatures are presented in **Fig. 2**.
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41 The results showed that the loops remained open also at the highest measuring temperature, with
42 the coercive fields decreasing from 300 Oe at 10 K to 110 Oe at 300 K. This is a direct proof that
43 the nanoparticles remains magnetic also at 300 K, as expected for NiNP with an average size of
44 about 40 nm.
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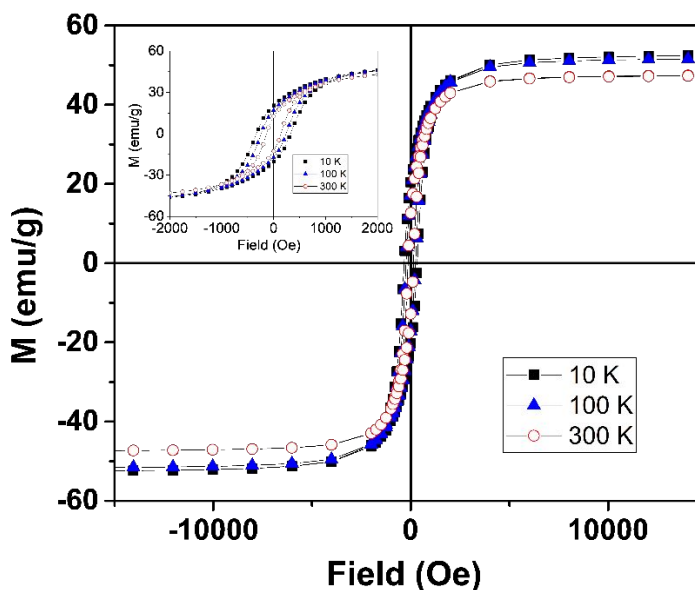


Figure 2. Magnetic hysteresis loops of NiNPs collected at 10 K, 100 K and 300 K.

The inset presents the same loops over a narrower range of fields, in order to better evidence the coercive fields at all the considered temperatures.

On the other hand, the remnant magnetization is almost half from the magnetization at saturation, giving evidence that most of the nanoparticles are magnetic monodomain. The saturation field is less than 1000 Oe (0.1 T), so, in such fields all the magnetic moments of the nanoparticles are oriented along the field. The saturation magnetization is of 53 emu/g ($\text{A cm}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$), 10% lower than the theoretical value for Ni fcc, showing either the presence of an oxide layer and/or a disordered spin structure at the particle surface. However, with a magnetic monodomain structure and with the dominant components of the magnetic field in Oz direction, the dominant component of the magnetic moment along the same direction, m_z may be considered as approaching the value obtained by multiplying the specific magnetization at saturation to the mass of the nanoparticle (about 2×10^{-19} kg for a NiNP with a radius of 20 nm).

Therefore, the magnetic force $F_z = m_z \frac{\partial B_z}{\partial z}$ acting on a NiNP at 30 nm from the film surface is in the range of 10^{-11} N, almost 7 order of magnitude higher than the gravitational component, which

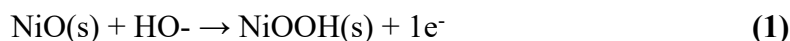
presents values in the range of 10^{-18} N. According to the magnetic data (presented above and in Supporting information), the magnetic force is dominant over the gravitational one up to a distance of more than a few microns from the electrode surface.

3.1.3 Electrochemical characterization

i) Cyclic voltammetry

Ni electrodes were initially tested in 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0 by CV at different scan rates, **Fig. 3A**. The potential window covered the interval between -0.50 to +1.00 V vs. Ag/AgCl. In the cathodic range, the H_2 evolution occurs for overpotentials below -0.60 V vs. Ag/AgCl as expected for metallic electrodes and the overlap in the forward and reversed scan observed for $\nu > 200$ mV s⁻¹ is correlated to hydrogen atoms adsorption at the Ni surface, with the subsequent reduction and desorption of the formed H_2 molecule^{24,25}. In the anodic range, the oxidation of water is influenced by the scan rate, the current density increases while the overpotential of O_2 evolution decreases during consecutive scans. In between the limits of H_2 and O_2 evolution, no faradaic currents were observed at Ni electrode in neutral media.

A detailed cyclic voltammetry study was performed in 0.1 M NaOH, as shown in **Fig. 3B**. In basic media, the reversible pair of redox peaks, corresponds to the oxidation of either one of the Ni^{2+} forms, NiO or $Ni(OH)_2$, to a Ni^{3+} species such as NiOOH, as presented in the **Eq. (1)** and **(2)**:



The effect of the scan rate on Ni species redox reactions showed that the electrochemical process is driven by the diffusion of HO^- ions, as demonstrated by the linearity of current density function of square root of scan rate, **Fig 3C**.

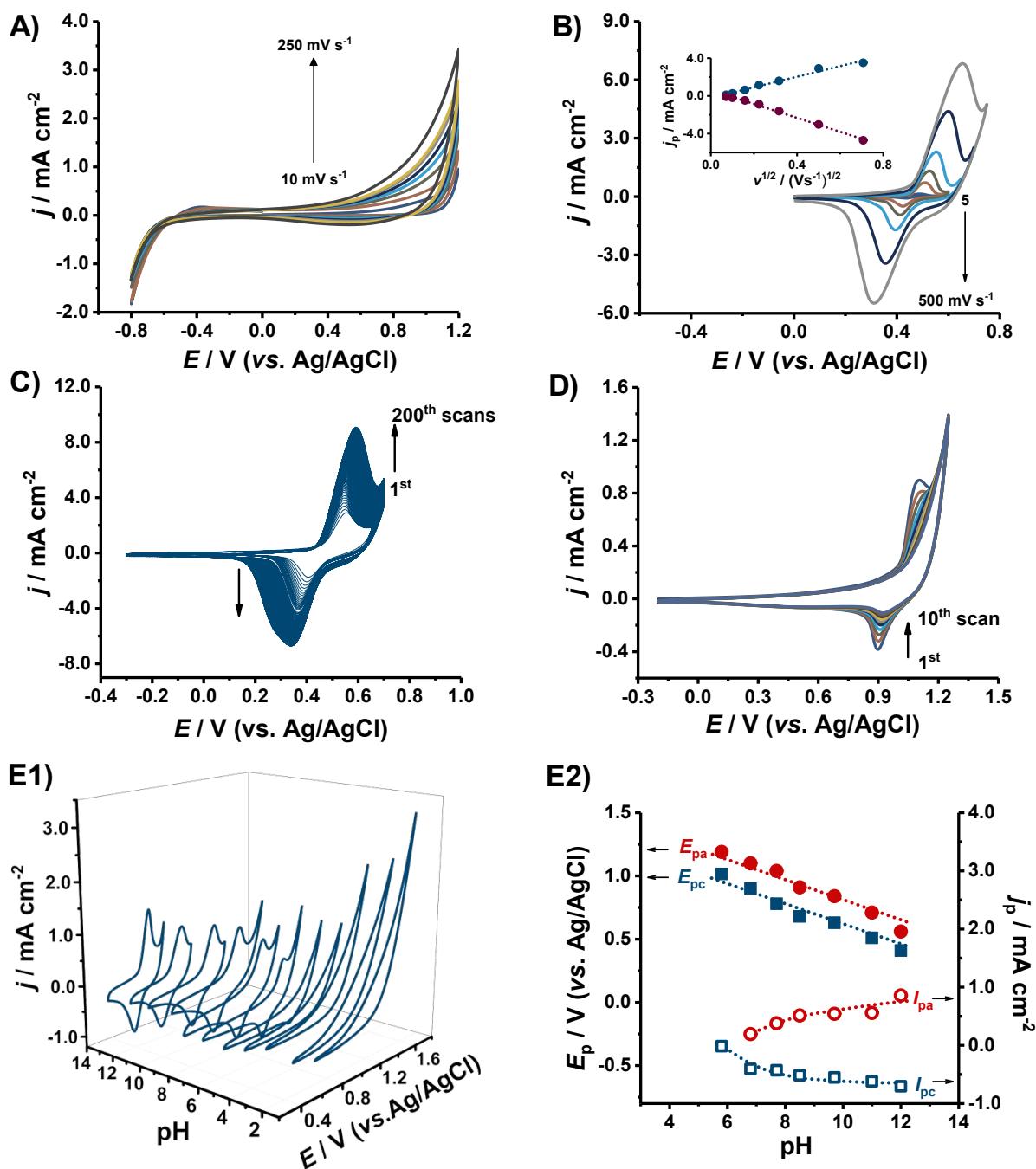


Figure 3. CV at Ni electrodes in: **A)** 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0 at different scan rates, **B)** 0.1 M NaOH at different scan rates (inset j_p vs. $v^{1/2}$), **C)** 0.1 M NaOH at 500 mV s⁻¹, **D)** 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0 at 100 mV s⁻¹ after C), and **E1)** Britton-Robinson buffer with pH values from 13 to 3 at 100 mV s⁻¹, **E2)** Corresponding peak potentials and current variation with pH.

It is known that in aqueous media, NiO undergoes hydrolysis, the products $\text{Ni}_m(\text{OH})_{2m-n}$ depending on the solution pH²⁶. In agreement, the redox processes corresponding to the $\text{Ni}^{2+/3+}$ couple, clearly seen for $\text{pH} > 8.0$, cannot be observed for $3.0 < \text{pH} < 7.0$, **Fig. 3D, E1, E2**. This behavior can be explained considering that the solid NiOOH film formed at the electrode surface in basic media is consumed and it cannot be formed in neutral and acidic media²⁷.

In order to prove this effect, another experiment was performed where the potential was cycled between -0.30 to $+0.70$ V vs Ag/AgCl at 500 mV s^{-1} for 200 scans in 0.1 M NaOH at $\text{pH } 13.0$ to obtain a thick NiOOH film, as observed by the increase in the peak current intensities upon cycling, **Fig. 3C**. This peak current growth also indicates that the metallic Ni film is being consumed to generate more Ni oxide species. After the formation of NiOOH in basic media by potential cycling, the electrode was then transferred to $\text{pH } 7.0$ and the potential was cycled for 10 times, **Fig. 3D**. In this case, since a thicker NiOOH was formed at the surface of Ni electrode, the peaks corresponding to the $\text{Ni}^{2+/3+}$ redox process are still visible during the first scans, fading afterwards due to NiOOH consumption.

The dependence of peak current and peak potential versus solution pH was also investigated in Britton-Robinson buffer with pH values from 13.0 to 3.0 , with a uniform step of 1.0 , **Fig. 3E1, E2**. The CVs were recorded going from pH values of 13.0 down to 3.0 , allowing the formation of NiOOH in basic media, which explains the fact that the CVs recorded at $\text{pH } 7.0$ and 6.0 still present low faradaic currents. For pH values below 6.0 , the NiOOH film is completely consumed, as explained above, and no faradaic currents recorded. Therefore, the peak current increases with pH, the largest value being recorded at $\text{pH } 13.0$ while for $\text{pH} < 6.0$ the peak current is undetectable.

The reproducibility of the electrodes was evaluated by comparing the capacitive and faradaic currents, as well as the potential window, for 5 different electrodes, and the calculated RSD values were of 4.2 , 4.8 and 5.1% , respectively.

ii) *Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy.*

EIS was used to investigate the physical and interfacial properties of the Ni electrodes at pH 7.0. Spectra were recorded at -0.4, 0.0 and +0.40 V vs. Ag/AgCl and are shown as complex plane plots in **Fig. 4A**. Taking into consideration that Ni electrodes are spontaneously covered by a NiO film which hydrolyses to $\text{Ni}_m(\text{OH})_{2m-n}$ as described in the CV study, the spectra were fitted using an electrical equivalent circuit, which consisted in R_Ω in series with two R_C combinations and a Warburg impedance Z_w , **Fig. 4B**. A similar circuit was used to simulate the spectra of Ni electrodes in alkaline media²⁸.

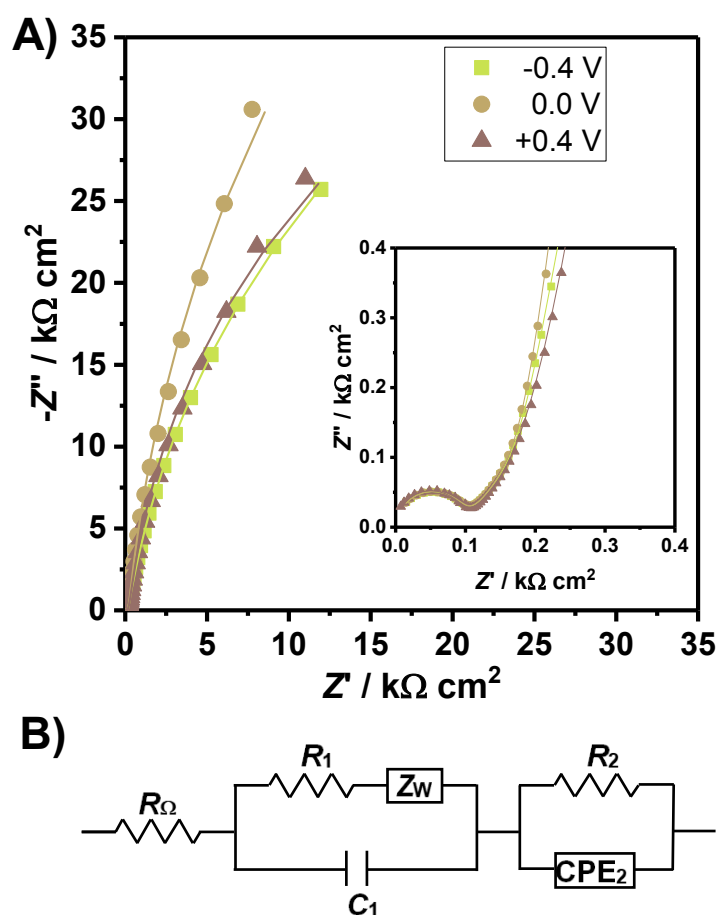


Figure 4. A) Nyquist plots recorded at Ni electrodes in 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0 in the frequency range 0.1 Hz-100 kHz at -0.40, 0.00 and +0.40 V; B) equivalent circuit used to fit the spectra.

R_{Ω} represents the ohmic drop and resistance caused by the electrical contacts and wires. The first RC combination is correlated to the Ni/Ni(OH)₂ interface where R_1 is attributed to the charge transfer processes between Ni and Ni(OH)₂ while C_1 is a pure capacitance characteristic to metal/metal oxide interface. The second RC combination corresponds to the Ni(OH)₂/electrolyte interface. In this case R_2 is correlated with the charge transfer process inside the Ni(OH)₂ film and at the Ni(OH)₂/electrolyte interface. CPE_2 is a constant phase element, defined in²⁹, corresponding to the pseudo-capacitance of the Ni(OH)₂ film in contact with solution. At medium frequencies the spectra show a Warburg impedance Z_w , defined as previously described²⁹, which can be associated to a finite diffusional processes inside the Ni(OH)₂ film, depending especially on the film porosity. The results obtained after fitting the experimental data are shown in **Table 2**. The value of R_{Ω} did not varied with the applied potential.

Table 2. Values of equivalent circuit elements obtained by fitting the spectra in Fig 3A.

$E /$ V	$R_1 /$ $\Omega \text{ cm}^2$	$C_1 /$ nF cm^{-2}	$Z_w /$ $\Omega \text{ s}^{0.5} \text{ cm}^2$	$\tau /$ ms	α_{ω}	$R_2 /$ $\text{k}\Omega \text{ cm}^2$	$CPE_2 /$ $\mu\text{F cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{\alpha-1}$	α_2
-0.40	8.4	247.8	23.5	8.2	0.41	5.4	276.7	0.93
0.00	8.4	243.3	25.8	9.5	0.41	11.3	197.8	0.98
+0.40	6.8	113.3	37.0	113	0.30	8.3	270.0	0.95

R_1 and C_1 have similar values for the applied potentials -0.40 and 0.00 V vs. Ag/AgCl, reflecting the fact that the interface Ni/Ni(OH)₂ is not affected by these two applied potentials. At +0.40 V, a small amount of Ni²⁺ is oxidized to Ni³⁺, or an intermediate valence number, which increase slightly the current flow at this interface and subsequently decreases the R_1 and C_1 . Z_w and the diffusional time constant increase with the applied potential, since the thickness of the Ni(OH)₂ also increased.

The R_2 associated with metal hydroxide/electrolyte interface increases, having the lowest value at -0.40 V vs. Ag/AgCl, due to dissolved oxygen reduction at this potential. At -0.40 and +0.40 V the charge separation CPE_2 at the metal hydroxide/electrolyte interface is higher than at 0.00 due to polarization phenomena.

3.2. Applications

The purpose of this study is to obtain and use magnetic electrodes with a dual role: as support for the immobilization of biomolecules via the magnetic nanoparticles and at the same time, as transducers of biochemical reactions. In this context, the performance of nickel electrodes for detection of hydrogen peroxide was investigated and the working principle for magnetic immobilization without the use of external magnetic sources was demonstrated using Ni, NiNP and glucose oxidase as a model enzyme.

GOx is an enzyme that catalysis the conversion of glucose to glucono-lactone and hydrogen peroxide in the presence of oxygen. The detection of H_2O_2 is an important performance indicator of a material to be applied in biosensing. Being the main by-product of many classical biochemical reactions catalyzed by oxidase-enzymes, the H_2O_2 detection is the basis of many biosensors functioning/monitoring.

3.2.1. Electrochemical detection of H_2O_2 at Ni electrodes

The electrochemical monitoring of H_2O_2 was performed by cyclic voltammetry, **Fig. S2**, and by fixed potential amperometry, **Fig. 5**, in 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0. Since fixed potential amperometry allowed a more sensitive response with lower detection limits, this technique was further used for sensor development.

The response to the analyte was tested over the potential range -0.50 V and +0.50 V, in order to choose the best sensing conditions, as shown in **Fig. 5A1 and B1**.

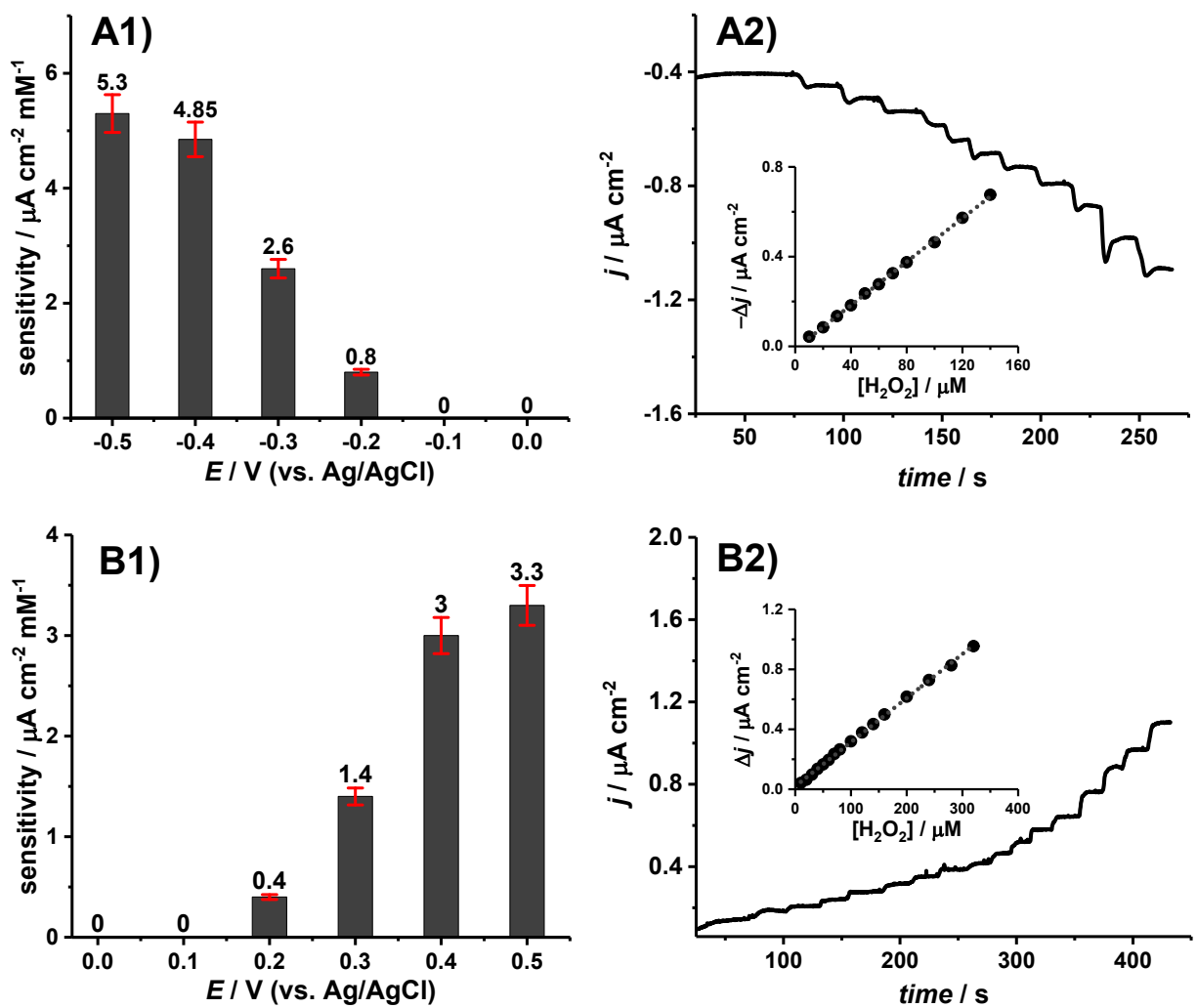


Figure 5. Potential study in 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0 at Ni electrodes - sensitivities profiles vs. applied potential in chronametric measurements for **A1)** negative and **B1)** positive potentials. Fixed potential chronoamperometric responses recorded at Ni electrodes upon injection of H_2O_2 at **A2)** -0.4 and **B2)** +0.4 V vs. Ag/AgCl; in insets are the corresponding calibration plots.

In the negative potential region, the cathodic change in current upon H_2O_2 injections revealed its reduction at the electrode surface, while the oxidation of H_2O_2 could be monitored at positive potentials. Highest sensitivities were observed at -0.5 and +0.5 V, but since at -0.4 and +0.4 V the

response is unneglectable smaller, and in order to reduce the applied overpotential in real sample applications, these values were chosen for further analysis.

Typical chronamperometric responses at -0.40 V and +0.40 V vs. Ag/AgCl and their corresponding calibration plots are presented in **Fig. 5A2 and B2**. The sensitivities at -0.40 and +0.40 V of Ni electrodes were 4.85 ± 0.30 and $2.94 \pm 0.18 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2} \text{mM}^{-1}$ with limits of detection, calculated on the basis of the 3 times the standard deviation of sensitivity, of 3.2 and 9.3 μM , respectively.

Table 3. Comparison of the performance of some Ni-based H_2O_2 (bio)sensors reported in literature after 2010.

Sensor architecture	$E_{\text{app}} / \text{V}$	Sensitivity / $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2} \text{mM}^{-1}$	LoD / μM	pH	Ref.
NiO nanofibers/GCE	+0.60	0.04	0.33	7.4	30
AP-Ni-MOF/CPE	-0.25	n.a.	0.90	7.0	31
NiO/ITO	-0.46	41.35	5.2	9.0	32
HRP/nano-NiO/MWCNTs/PANI/GC*	-0.20	132.0	0.43	6.0	33
Cat/NiO/GCE*	-0.30	506.0	0.60	7.0	34
Mb/NiO@MWNT/GCE	-0.35	n.a.	0.39	7.0	35
Ni/Au	-0.40	4.85	3.2	7.0	this work

* enzymatic.

abbreviations: AP-adipic acid; MOF-metal organic framework; HRP-horseradish peroxidase; PANI-polyaniline; Cat-catalase; Mb-mioglobin.

The sensitivity and detection limit of the Ni electrode for H_2O_2 detection was compared with those obtained at other similar sensors, essentially constructed on nanostructured on Ni/NiO materials, **Table 3**. It can be observed that with two exceptions^{33,34} which involve enzyme-based electrodes, higher sensitivity is reported for NiO/ITO³², which operates at a more negative potential than the Ni/Au electrode presented in this work.

3.2.2. Electrochemical detection of glucose at GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensors

The biosensor construction involved two steps. In the first step, magnetic NiNP were functionalized with glucose oxidase (GOx) to get GOx-NiNP, as described in Section 2.5, and in the second step, GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensors were obtained by immersing the Ni electrodes during 3 min in a GOx-NiNP suspension for the direct immobilization of the enzyme through magnetic forces.

In the first step, the direct conjugation of the enzyme does not require pre-functionalization of the NP, nor the use of a linker, and occurs either via thiol chemistry when cysteine residues from the protein interact with the metal, or via histidine residues, which were found to directly bound to ions of several MeNP⁴⁰ with a high specificity to Ni²⁺ ions. Taking into consideration the XPS results, **Fig. 1C1'** in Section 3.1.1, that proved the predomination of Ni²⁺ species on NiNP surface, the second mechanism appears to be more plausible.

Table 4. Analytical parameters obtained at GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensors fabricated from GOx-NiNP suspensions incubated at different temperatures and periods of time.

incubation temperature/°C	incubation time/h	intercept/ μA cm ⁻²	sensitivity/ μA cm ⁻² mM ⁻¹	RSD/ %	LD/ mM	RSD/ %
4	24	0.01±0.003	0.19±0.01	5.3	0.32±0.02	6.3
	24	0.04±0.005	1.71±0.12	7.0	0.45±0.04	8.8
20	48	0.06±0.008	3.10±0.19	6.1	0.43±0.03	7.0
	72	-0.14±0.02	6.92±0.39	5.6	0.42±0.03	7.1
	96	-0.17±0.02	7.05±0.38	5.4	0.40±0.03	7.5

With the aim of improving GOx attachment to NiNP and therefore the biosensor performance, the influence of temperature and incubation time on the direct conjugation of the enzyme with NiNP was also investigated, **Table 4**. As observed, both increase of time and temperature of incubation lead to biosensors with higher sensitivities, due to more GOx being attached on the

NiNP and therefore at Ni. Since the differences in sensitivities for 72 and 96 h of incubation at 20°C were insignificant, the incubation for 7 h was chosen for the biosensor fabrication. The RSD values ($n = 3$) demonstrate the reproducibility of the biosensors obtained by employing the procedure here developed.

The presence of the enzyme at the GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensor surface was investigated and proved by XPS. The spectra in the absence and presence of GOx were recorded on energy ranges corresponding to C 1s and N 1s, **Fig. 6**. The BE values of C and N at GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensors are presented in **Table 5**.

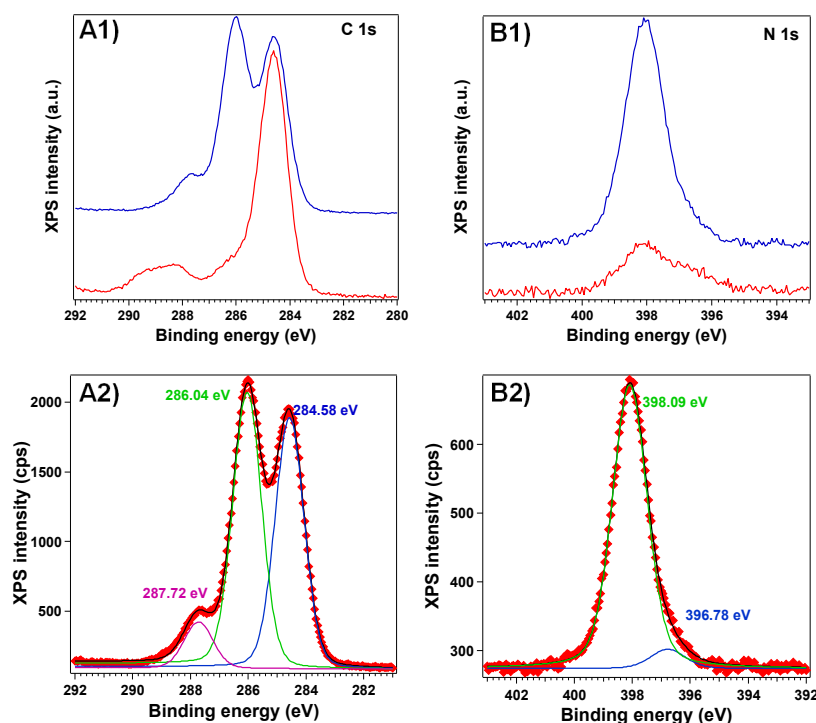


Figure 6. XPS electron distribution curves (EDCs) for **A1)** C 1s and **B1)** N 1s at NiNP/Ni (—) and GOx-NiNP/Ni (—) in the presence of GOx; **A2)** and **B2)** deconvolutions of C 1s and N 1s for GOx-NiNP/Ni (data are analyzed with Voigt profiles and associated inelastic backgrounds).

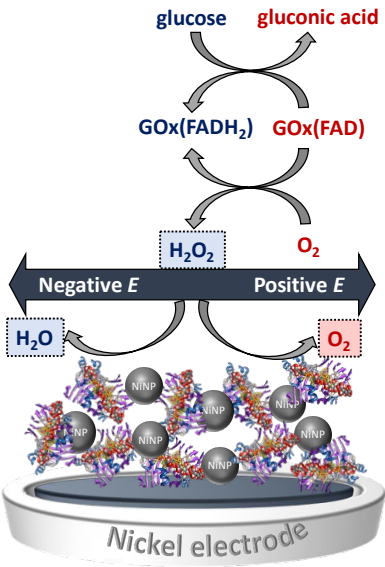
In the C 1s spectra it can be clearly seen that in the presence of the enzyme, the component peak at 286.1 eV corresponding to C-N bonds²⁰, predominant in the polypeptide structure, increases significantly and the peak attributed to amide groups in the polypeptide chain occurred at 287.7

eV²⁰. Also, in the N 1s spectra there is a consistent increase of the band at 398.1 eV in agreement with a higher content of N atoms at the electrode surface after enzyme immobilization²⁰.

Table 5. Binding energy (BE) values determined by XPS for C and N at GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensor surface.

Compound	BE C 1s / eV	BE N 1s / eV
C-C	284.6	
C-O-C, C-OH, C-N	286.04	
C=O	287.72	
metal nitrides		396.78
pyridinic N		398.09

The response of GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensor was evaluated over the potential range between -0.50 and +0.50 V, **Fig. 7A**. It is important to mention that the amperometric response upon glucose injection was a cathodic change in current at negative potential values (as exemplified in **Fig 7B, C**) and an anodic signal in the positive range. Both results sustain the fact that the working principle of the biosensor is based on the detection of the H₂O₂ produced during the enzymatic reaction, as shown in **Scheme 1**.



Scheme 1. Proposed enzymatic mechanism for GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensor.

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3 Unlike the Ni electrodes in H₂O₂ sensing, that exhibited comparable analytical parameters at both
4 negative and positive potentials, the GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensors had shown better performance at
5 negative potentials. This can be explained by the fact that the enzymatic reaction is favored at
6 negative potentials. This can be explained by the fact that the enzymatic reaction is favored at
7 negative potentials, since the formal potential of the enzymatic cofactor FAD/FADH₂ is situated at
8 ~-0.45 V. A typical amperometric response recorded at GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensor at -0.40 V vs.
9 Ag/AgCl in 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0 is displayed in **Fig. 7B, C**. Under optimum conditions, the biosensor
10 had a sensitivity of $6.92 \pm 0.39 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2} \text{ mM}^{-1}$ and a detection limit of 0.42 mM.
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19 Following the tendency observed for the Ni electrodes in H₂O₂ sensing, a similar profile of GOx-
20 NiNP/Ni biosensor sensitivity dependence upon the applied potential was observed, with lower
21 responses in the positive potential region, **Figs. 5A1, B1 and Fig. 7A**. Thus, in the negative region
22 at -0.40 V vs Ag/AgCl, the sensitivity of the biosensor was about $7.0 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2} \text{ mM}^{-1}$, with a
23 detection limit of 0.40 mM and an apparent Michalis-Menten constant, K_M^{app} of ~6 mM. However,
24 in the positive region at +0.40 V the sensitivity was $3.0 \mu\text{A cm}^{-2} \text{ mM}^{-1}$ and the detection limit
25 increased substantially by a factor of 5, the Michalis-Menten constant being smaller of ~3 mM. At
26 -0.40 V vs Ag/AgCl, the relative standard deviation (RSD) obtained for three different biosensors
27 was less than 7%, indicating the reproducibility of the biosensor construction, and an RSD lower
28 than 5% calculated for three different measurements at the same biosensor revealed the
29 repeatability of the analytical method based on the GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensors.
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45 The storage stability of the GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensor was tested after storing it in air at 4 °C, and
46 the maintained sensitivity was of 82% of the initial value after 2 weeks. The operational stability
47 was also tested by recording 5 points calibration plots every day during one week, the sensitivity
48 of the biosensor having 72% of the initial value.
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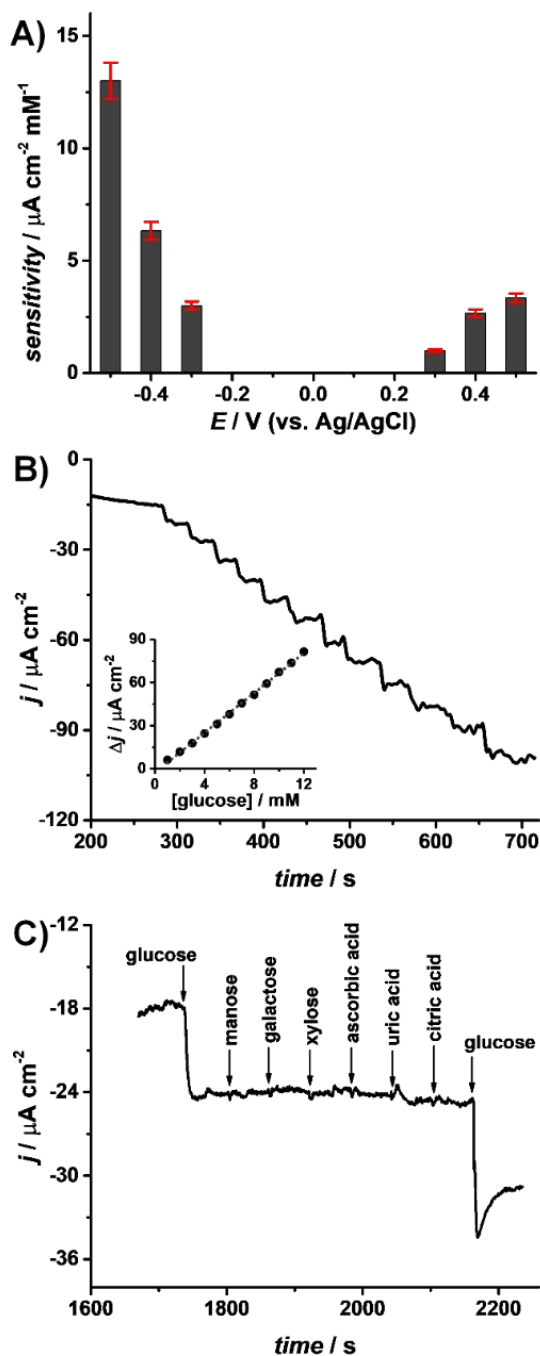


Figure 7. A) Potential study in 0.1 M PBS pH 7.0 at GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensors - sensitivities profiles vs. applied potential in chronoamperometric measurements.

B) Fixed potential chronoamperometric responses recorded at -0.40V with GOx-NiNP/Ni (GOx incubation with NiNP for 72 h at 20°C); the inset represents the corresponding calibration plots.

C) Interference study by chronoamperometry at -0.40 V with GOx-NiNP/Ni with the injection of 1 mM glucose before and after the injection of 2 mM mannose, galactose, xylose, ascorbic, uric and citric acid.

A study of possible interfering compounds, mannose, galactose, xylose, ascorbic acid, uric acid and citric acid on the biosensor response was also performed. First 1.0 mM glucose was added followed by the injection of interfering compounds, at a concentration ratio 2:1 of interfering compound: glucose, with the final injection of the same 1.0 mM concentration of glucose at the end of the experiment. The results revealed the lack of biosensor response to these possible interfering compounds at -0.40 V vs Ag/AgCl. Moreover, the biosensor response to glucose in the presence of all the interfering compounds in solution was maintained. The experiment was repeated three times with negligible interference.

For comparison, two other configurations were tested, obtained by immersing the Ni electrodes during 3 min in a solution of GOx, without the use of NiNP to get GOx/Ni biosensors, and by immersing a Au electrode during 3 min in a solution of GOx-NiNP to get GOx-NiNP/Au. Both biosensors were tested in chronoamperometric mode at different potential values and no amperometric response was recorded upon injections of glucose, indicating that the enzyme was not immobilized in the absence of NiNP or Ni. Thus, both Ni and NiNP are important for the preparation of enzyme biosensors based purely on the magnetic immobilisation of the enzyme.

Table 6. Comparison of the performance of some glucose (bio)sensors reported in literature after 2010.

Sensor architecture	E_{app} / V	Sensitivity / $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2} \text{ mM}^{-1}$	LoD / μM	pH	Ref.
NiO/ITO*	+0.50	506.5	4.6	13.0	32
GOx/NiO/TiO ₂ -Gr/GCE	-0.30	4.13	1.2		36
GOx/NiHCF/CNTs	0.00	75.16	1.0	7.0	37
GOx/Ni(OH) ₂ /CGNC/Au	+0.40	16.84	2.4	13.0	38
Ni(OH) ₂ @PEDOT-rGO/GCE*	+0.55	346.00	0.60	13.0	39
GOx-NiNP/Ni/Au	-0.40 V	6.92	7.3	7.0	this work

*non-enzymatic

Abbreviations: Gr-graphene; NiHCF-nickel hexacyanoferrate; CGNC-chitosan gold nanocomposite; PEDOT-poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene); rGO-reduced graphene.

The sensitivity and detection limit of GOx/NiNP/Ni biosensor for H₂O₂ detection was compared with those obtained at other similar (bio)sensors, essentially constructed on nanostructured on Ni/NiO materials, **Table 6**. It can be observed that with two exceptions^{32,39} which involve non-enzymatic sensors, higher sensitivity is reported for GOx/NiHCF/CNTs³⁷, which involves the use of toxic hexacyanoferrates.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Magnetic Ni electrodes and NiNP were obtained by simple and cost-effective preparation methods. XRD analysis revealed a crystallite size of ≈ 66 nm, while SEM images of NiNP/Ni showed the existence of globular structures of 50-200 nm, with aggregation occurring due to their supramagnetic properties. XPS results indicated that metallic Ni prevailed in the Ni electrodes, while NiNP were rich in Ni^{2+/3+} ions. Magnetic characterization and micromagnetic simulations were performed proving that the magnetic force is almost 7 order of magnitude higher than the gravitational component thus being the drive-force of the immobilization process.

Ni electrodes were successfully used as amperometric sensors for H₂O₂ detection over a wide potential range, with a maximum sensitivity of 4.9 $\mu\text{A cm}^{-2} \text{mM}^{-1}$ at -0.4 V vs Ag/AgCl. GOx functionalized NiNP were attached to Ni electrodes only by magnetic forces leading to GOx-NiNP/Ni biosensors which operated amperometrically at both positive and negative potentials, the enzyme mechanism being based on the electrochemical detection of H₂O₂ produced in the enzymatic reaction. The absence of an amperometric signal upon substrate injection in biosensors with no NiNP or Ni electrodes, confirm the importance of both components in the biosensor architecture and prove that the immobilization of GOx through NiNP on Ni electrodes is based purely on magnetic forces.

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