

*Article*



# **Label-Free Electrochemical Sensing Using Glassy Carbon Electrodes Modified with Multiwalled-Carbon Nanotubes Non-Covalently Functionalized with Human Immunoglobulin G**

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**Abstract:** This work reports new analytical applications of glassy carbon electrodes (GCE) modified with a nanohybrid obtained by non-covalent functionalization of multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) with human immunoglobulin G (IgG) (GCE/MWCNT-IgG). We report the label-free and non-amplified breast cancer 1 gen (BRCA1) biosensing based on the facilitated adsorption of the DNA probe at the nanohybrid modified GCE and the impedimetric detection of the hybridization event in the presence of the redox marker benzoquinone/hydroquinone. The resulting genosensor made the fast, highly selective, and sensitive quantification of BRCA1 gene possible, with a linear range between 1.0 fM and 10.0 nM, a sensitivity of (3.0  $\pm$  0.1)  $\times$  10<sup>2</sup>  $\Omega$  M<sup>−1</sup> (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.9990), a detection limit of 0.3 fM, and excellent discrimination of fully non-complementary and mismatch DNA sequences. The detection of BRCA1 in enriched samples of diluted human blood serum showed a recovery percentage of 94.6%. Another interesting analytical application of MWCNT-IgG-modified GCE based on the catalytic activity of the exfoliated MWCNTs is also reported for the simultaneous quantification of dopamine and uric acid in the presence of ascorbic acid, with detection limits at submicromolar levels for both compounds.

**Keywords:** BRCA1 gene; impedimetric biosensor; biomarker; carbon nanotubes; human immunoglobulin G; breast cancer; dopamine; uric acid; ascorbic acid

### **1. Introduction**

The advent of nanomaterials has been revolutionary for the field of electrochemical biosensors due to their unique optical, electrical and magnetic properties [\[1\]](#page-10-0). In this regard, carbon nanostructures such as graphene, graphene oxide, carbon nanoparticles, carbon nanodots, carbon nanofibers, and carbon nanotubes (CNTs) have attracted considerable attention in the last years [\[2](#page-10-1)[,3\]](#page-10-2). Multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) present a unique porous structure, large surface area, important chemical stability, high mechanical strength, strong corrosion resistance, and facilitated electron transfer [\[4\]](#page-10-3). Since the first report about the use of CNTs for the preparation of electrochemical sensors, there has been an exponential increment in the number of publications focused on CNTs-based electrochemical sensors due to their highly improved analytical performance. In fact, the role of CNTs was crucial for the development of novel architectures able to support the biorecognition elements and new schemes for the transduction of the bioaffinity event [\[5](#page-10-4)[,6\]](#page-10-5), demonstrating that the combination of the known advantages of electrochemical sensors [\[7,](#page-10-6)[8\]](#page-10-7) with the unique properties of CNTs allowed the successful quantification of different biomarkers of clinical relevance [\[9–](#page-10-8)[11\]](#page-10-9).



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Due to the strong van der Waals interaction, the CNTs are aggregated, forming bundles in water that limit further sensing applications. Therefore, a functionalization step is mandatory to exfoliate them [\[12](#page-10-10)[,13\]](#page-10-11). In particular, the non-covalent functionalization with biomolecules is demonstrated to be a very powerful strategy, not only to exfoliate the nanostructures but also to provide them with different biorecognition properties depending on the biomolecule (enzymes, nucleic acids, and glycobiomolecules) [\[6](#page-10-5)[,14–](#page-11-0)[20\]](#page-11-1). Recently, we have reported the advantages of the non-covalent functionalization of MWCNTs with human immunoglobulin G (IgG), a biomolecule that not only exfoliates the nanostructures but also maintains the immunorecognition properties, even after the drastic treatment used to prepare the nanohybrid [\[21\]](#page-11-2). The partial denaturation of IgG facilitates the noncovalently functionalization of MWCNTs due to the stronger interaction of phenylalanine and tyrosine residues with MWCNTs via  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking and van der Waals forces [\[22\]](#page-11-3). López Mujica et al. [\[21\]](#page-11-2) proposed two interesting analytical applications of GCE/MWCNT-IgG, one original immunosensor strategy for the development of immunosensors based on the use of the immunoglobulin that supports the MWCNTs as biorecognition layer, without needing of an extra step for the covalent attachment of the antibody, and one an electrochemical sensor for the quantification of uric acid taking advantage of the catalytic activity of the exfoliated nanostructures.

The present work reports two new analytical applications of the MWCNT-IgG nanohybrid: (i) the label-free and non-amplified impedimetric quantification of the BRCA1 gene without the requirement of an oriented immobilization of the DNA probe, and (ii) the simultaneous quantification of dopamine (Do) and uric acid (UA) in the presence of ascorbic acid (AA), taking advantage of both, the catalytic activity of the exfoliated MWCNTs and the charge of the protein that supports the CNTs.

The human BRCA1 (BReast CAncer 1) gen is located on the long (q) arm of chromosome 17 at position 21 (17q21), and is related to a protein that acts as a tumor suppressor and repairs damaged DNA [\[23](#page-11-4)[,24\]](#page-11-5). The mutations of this gene have been associated with the risk of developing breast and ovarian cancer [\[25\]](#page-11-6). Due to its role in genetic predisposition to cancer, the BRCA1 gen has become a significant biomarker for the early detection and prognosis of cancer [\[26,](#page-11-7)[27\]](#page-11-8). Currently, there are robust techniques such as sequence analysis and multiplex ligation-dependent probe amplification (MLPA), that are used for mutation detection. However, these techniques are expensive and require well-trained personnel [\[28\]](#page-11-9). In this sense, the electrochemical biosensors represent an interesting analytical tool for competitive BRCA1 quantification. Several biosensors based on the use of polymers, modified carbon nanomaterials and/or antimonene, with or without amplification schemes, have been reported in the last years [\[29–](#page-11-10)[40\]](#page-12-0).

Do and UA are important biomarkers that coexist in biological fluids. Do is a catecholaminergic neurotransmitter that plays a central role in the transmission of information in the central nervous system, accompanied by the release of hormones during physiological processes [\[41](#page-12-1)[,42\]](#page-12-2). The abnormal Do level can be associated with schizophrenia, Parkinson's disease, and Alzheimer's disease, among others [\[43,](#page-12-3)[44\]](#page-12-4). UA is the primary end product of purine metabolism and is present mainly in urine and blood. Abnormal UA concentrations can be related to different pathologies like cardiovascular diseases, hypertension, and gout [\[45](#page-12-5)[–47\]](#page-12-6). In addition, UA is an important natural antioxidant that demonstrates a relevant neuroprotective role in diseases related to oxidative stress. In fact, a low serum UA concentration has been associated with an increased risk of developing neurodegenerative diseases [\[48\]](#page-12-7). Thus, the efficient quantification of Do and UA is of great importance for human and animal health monitoring [\[49](#page-12-8)[,50\]](#page-12-9). Electrochemical sensors have been widely used for the quantification of both analytes due to their widely known advantages [\[51](#page-12-10)[–55\]](#page-12-11). However, since Do and UA are oxidized at similar potentials [\[56\]](#page-12-12), their simultaneous quantification at common electrodes is not possible, and new strategies are highly required to discriminate both oxidation processes.

In the following sections, we discuss the adsorption and electrooxidation of BRCA1- DNA probe at glassy carbon electrodes (GCEs) modified with multi-walled carbon nanotubes non-covalently functionalized with IgG (GCE/MWCNT-IgG), the optimization of the hybridization conditions for BRCA1 impedimetric biosensing, and the simultaneous and selective voltammetric determination of Do and UA in the presence of AA.

### **2. Materials and Methods**

*2.1. Reagents*

MWCNTs (outer diameter: 6–13 nm, length: 2.5–20 µm, purity > 98%), human serum immunoglobulin G (IgG) (catalog number I4506), bovine serum albumin (BSA), hydroquinone (HQ), benzoquinone (BQ), dopamine (Do), and uric acid (UA) were provided by Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Ascorbic acid (AA) was obtained from Anedra (Troncos del Talar, Buenos Aires, Argentina). All reagents used were analytical grade. DNA sequences, purchased from Invitrogen (Waltham, MA, USA), are the following:

Target (BRCA1): 5′ -GAA CAA AAG GAA GAA AAT C-3′

DNA probe (DNAp): 5'-GAT TTT CTT CCT TTT GTT C-3'

Non-complementary sequence (NC): 5'-CTA ACC CCA CCG ACC TCG G-3'

Mismatch (Mi): 5'-GAA GAA GAA GAA GAA GAA C-3'

The enriched samples of human blood serum samples were obtained by adding the BRCA1 gene to reconstituted samples of serum (Wiener lab., Rosario, Santa Fe, Argentina) diluted 1/100 with 0.050 M phosphate buffer pH 7.40 + 0.500 M NaCl.

Ultrapure water (resistivity =  $18.2$  M $\Omega$ ·cm) from a Millipore-MilliQ system (Molsheim, France) was used for preparing all aqueous solutions.

#### *2.2. Apparatus*

The electrochemical measurements were performed with a GCE modified with the MWCNT-IgG nanohybrid, using a platinum wire as an auxiliary electrode, and a Ag/AgCl (3.0 M NaCl) (BASi, West Lafayette, IN, USA) as the reference electrode. All potentials are referred to this electrode. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) experiments were carried out with a PGSTAT30 potentiostat (Methrom, Herisau, Switzerland) using  $1.0 \times 10^{-3}$  M HQ/BQ (prepared in 0.050 M phosphate buffer pH 7.40) as a redox marker, with the following experimental conditions: amplitude: 0.010 V, range of frequencies:  $1.0 \times 10^{-2}$  to  $1.0 \times 10^{6}$  Hz, and working potential: 0.050 V. In the Nyquist plots, the symbols correspond to the experimental points while the solid lines represent the fitting with the model obtained with the Zview program. Voltammetric experiments were performed with a TEQ\_04 potentiostat (nanoTeq, Buenos Aires, Argentina).

A TB04TA ultrasonic cleaner (Testlab, Bernal, Argentina) was used for sonication at 40 kHz frequency and 160 W ultrasonic power.

### *2.3. Preparation of MWCNT-IgG Hybrid and GCE/MWCNT-IgG Platform*

The preparation of MWCNT-IgG was performed according to Mujica et al. [\[21\]](#page-11-2). Briefly, 2.5 mg of MWCNTs were mixed with 1.0 mL of 2.0 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> IgG aqueous solution, and the resulting mixture was sonicated in an ultrasonic bath for 15 min.

GCEs were polished with alumina slurries of 1.0, 0.3, and 0.05 µm for 2.0 min each, rinsed with deionized water and dried with a nitrogen stream. The modification of the polished GCEs with the nanohybrid was carried out by deposition of 10 µL MWCNT-IgG and further solvent evaporation at room temperature (GCE/MWCNT-IgG).

#### *2.4. Construction of the Genosensor (GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp)*

First, 10 µL of 150 ppm DNAp were dropped on top of GCE/MWCNT-IgG to obtain the BRCA1 genosensing platform. After drying, the surface was washed with 0.050 M phosphate buffer pH 7.40 and blocked with 2.0% *w*/*v* BSA for 20 min to avoid non-specific adsorptions (GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp/BSA). Once rinsed with the phosphate buffer, the genosensor was ready to use. The hybridization was performed by dropping 20  $\mu$ L of the target solution on the top of the nanohybrid-modified GCE for 60 min at room temperature.

<span id="page-3-0"></span>

Before EIS measuring, the electrode containing the double helix was washed with 0.050 M phosensors **2024**, 12, 4<br>Before EIS measuring, the electrode containing the double helix was washed with 0.05<br>phosphate buffer pH 7.40 + 0.500 M NaCl (Figure [1\)](#page-3-0).  $0.001$  Elo measuring, the electrone comaning the abuse.

Figure 1. Schematic representation of the construction of the impedimetric genosensor for the tification of BRCA1 based on the MWCNT-IgG nanohybrid. quantification of BRCA1 based on the MWCNT-IgG nanohybrid.

### *2.5. Voltammetric Detection of Do and UA 2.5. Voltammetric Detection of Do and UA*

Linear sweep voltammetry (LSV) was used to quantify Do and UA in the presence of  $1.0 \times 10^{-3}$  M AA. The potential was scanned between  $-0.300$  and  $0.500$  V at  $0.050$  V s<sup>-1</sup>.

## **3. Results and Discussion 3. Results and Discussion**

# *3.1. Electrooxidation of the DNA Probe at GCE/MWCNT-IgG 3.1. Electrooxidation of the DNA Probe at GCE/MWCNT-IgG*

Figure [2](#page-4-0) shows linear scan voltammograms obtained in 0.050 M phosphate buffer<br>Linear pH  $G(T, 0, 1, 1)$ pH 7.40 at bare GCE (black line) and GCE/MWCNT-IgG (red line) modified by deposition of 150 ppm DNAp until dryness. At bare GCE, the guanine oxidation occurs at 1.024 V, while the adenine oxidation takes place at 1.238 V [\[57\]](#page-12-13). On the contrary, at  $\mathrm{GCE}/\mathrm{MWCNT\text{-}lgG}$ , there is a considerable decrease in the overvoltages for guanine  $(160 \text{ mV})$  and adenine  $(116 \text{ mV})$  electro-oxidation and a large increase in the associated currents (~2.8 times for both G and A). This important decrease in the overvoltages is attributed to the catalytic activity of the exfoliated MWCNTs and the favorable electrostatic interaction between the negatively charged sugar-phosphate backbone of the DNAp and the positively charged amino acid residues (lysine, arginine, and histidine) of the IgG (isoelectric point: 7.60–9.34), that facilitates the adsorption and further electrooxidation of the nucleic acid. We also evaluated the electrooxidation of other nucleic acids at the MWCNT-IgG nanohybrid modified GCE like salmon sperm double-stranded DNA, polyguanine, and polyadenine, and in all cases, there was an important decrease in the overvoltages for the oxidation of the electroactive bases. These results demonstrate the advantages of the biofunctionalization of MWCNTs with human IgG for the electrooxidation of nucleic acids, making possible their sensitive detection at the electrode surface at considerably lower potentials. It is important to mention that the platform used for the immobilization of the DNAp was stable since electrodes stored at  $4 \textdegree$ C for 3, 7, and 10 days showed responses that correspond to 95, 91, and 86% of the original one, respectively.

<span id="page-4-0"></span>

and 86% of the original one, respectively. The original one, respectively.

**Figure 2.** Linear scan voltammograms obtained for immobilization of 150 ppm DNAp on GCE (—) **Figure 2.** Linear scan voltammograms obtained for immobilization of 150 ppm DNAp on GCE (—) and GCE/MWCNT-IgG (—). G: guanine; A: adenine. Scan rate: 0.050 V s<sup>-1</sup>. Supporting electrolyte: 0.050 M phosphate buffer pH 7.40. 0.050 M phosphate buffer pH 7.40.

### *3.2. Construction of BRCA1 Gene Biosensor and Analytical Applications 3.2. Construction of BRCA1 Gene Biosensor and Analytical Applications*

Electrochemical Impedance Spectroscopy is a powerful tool for the detection of bioaffinity events at the surface of modified electrodes. In fact, when a biomolecule of high molecular weight binds to an electrode surface by bioaffinity recognition, disturbs charge transfer kinetics of a redox probe. Figure 3 displays Nyquist plots obtained at the charge transfer kinetics of a redox probe. Figure [3](#page-5-0) displays Nyquist plots obtained at GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp blocked with BSA before (red color) and after (blue color) the GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp blocked with BSA before (red color) and after (blue color) the interaction with  $1.0 \times 10^{-12}$  M BRCA1. The inset displays the Randles circuit, which was used to fit the experimental results. In this circuit,  $R_s$  is the resistance of the solution,  $R_{CT}$ is the charge transfer resistance of the redox marker,  $C_{d1}$  is the double-layer capacitance is the charge transfer resistance of the redox marker,  $C_{d1}$  is the double-layer capacitance and W is the impedance of Warburg. The bars plot for the  $R_{CT}$  of the HQ/BQ redox marker and W is the impedance of Warburg. The bars plot for the  $R_{CT}$  of the HQ/BQ redox marker  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha$  is also mapped at the different surfaces is also shown in the inset. An increase in  $R_{CT}$  is obtained obtained  $\sim$  target in the BRCA1 target interacts with GCE/MWCNT-IgC/DNA<sub>p/BSA</sub> (796  $\sim$  796  $\sim$  796 once the BRCA1 target interacts with GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp/BSA (796  $\Omega$  versus<br>2006 Q 1296 Ω, respectively), which is due to the duplex formation resulting in a blockage of The effect of the hybridization time at  $\frac{1}{2}$  at  $\frac{1}{2}$  was evaluated to  $\frac{1}{2}$  was evaluated to  $\frac{1}{2}$ the surface.

The effect of the hybridization time at GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp/BSA was evaluated from the changes in  $R_{CT}$  of the redox marker in the presence of 1.0 × 10<sup>−12</sup> M BRCA1. As the hybridization time increases, the  $R_{CT}$  also increases up to 60 min due to the formation of higher amounts of double helix DNA with the consequent blockage of the surface and lower charge transfer rate. Longer times do not result in an additional increment in  $\rm R_{CT}$  due to the saturation of the DNAp available for hybridization. Therefore, 60 min was selected as the optimum.

Figure [4a](#page-5-1) depicts the Nyquist diagrams obtained for GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp/BSA in the presence of different concentrations of BRCA1 from  $1.0 \times 10^{-15}$  M to  $1.0 \times 10^{-10}$  M (1 fM–100 pM). Figure [4b](#page-5-1) displays the corresponding calibration plot, obtained from the Nyquist plots shown in Figure [4a](#page-5-1). There is a linear dependence between  $R_{CT}$  and the logarithm of target concentration in the whole range of concentrations evaluated with a sensitivity of  $(3.0 \pm 0.1) \times 10^2 \Omega M^{-1}$  (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.9990) and a detection limit of 0.3 fM (calculated as  $3 \times$  standard deviation of the blank signal/sensitivity). The reproducibility was 4.0% for  $1.0 \times 10^{-12}$  M BRCA1 using five genosensors prepared with the same MWCNT-IgG nanohybrid.

<span id="page-5-0"></span>

Figure 3. Nyquist plots obtained for GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp/BSA (.) and GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp/BSA/BRCA1 (.). Inset: Bar plots corresponding to the RCT obtained from Nyquist plots. Hybridization time: 60 min. Redox probe:  $1.0 \times 10^{-3}$  M HQ/BQ. Frequency range:  $1.0 \times 10^{-2}$ –1.0 × 10<sup>6</sup> Hz; amplitude: 0.010 V; working potential: 0.050 V. Supporting electrolyte:  $1.5 \times 10^{-112}$ , different 0.050 M phosphate buffer pH 7.40.

<span id="page-5-1"></span>

**Figure 4.** (**a**) Nyquist plots obtained at GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp/BSA for different concentrations **Figure 4.** (**a**) Nyquist plots obtained at GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp/BSA for different concentrations of BRCA1. (**b**) Calibration plot obtained from Nyquist plots shown in (**a**). Other conditions as in of BRCA1. (**b**) Calibration plot obtained from Nyquist plots shown in (**a**). Other conditions as in Figure 3. Figure [3.](#page-5-0)

biosensing event. Almost no matrix effect was observed for reconstituted human blood serum diluted with 0.050 M phosphate buffer solution + 0.500 M NaCl, while the response for the same serum sample enriched with  $1.0 \times 10^{-12}$  M BRCA1 was 93.8% of the one  $\tilde{\text{F}}$  are not the reduced the reduced matrice  $\tilde{\text{F}}$  of the reduced at  $\tilde{\text{F}}$  and  $\tilde{\text{F}}$ biosensing platform is highly promising for further practical applications. Table [1](#page-6-0) shows the  $R_{CT}$  of the redox marker obtained at GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp/ BSA before and after the interaction with 1.0  $\times$  10<sup>-12</sup> M BRCA1, 1.0  $\times$  10<sup>-12</sup> M NC,  $1.0 \times 10^{-12}$  M Mi, and 1/100 diluted human blood serum without and with  $1.0 \times 10^{-12}$  M BRCA1. In the presence of NC and Mi, there is almost no change in  $R_{CT}$  compared to the one obtained at GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp/BSA, evidencing the good selectivity of the obtained in the presence of pure target solution. These results indicate that the proposed



<span id="page-6-0"></span>**Table 1.** Selectivity study and proof-of-concept for the analytical application of the GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp genosensor.

Table [2](#page-7-0) summarizes the analytical performance of the most relevant BRCA1 electrochemical biosensors reported in the last years. As can be seen, GCE/MWCNT-IgG/DNAp presents a very competitive analytical performance, with a lower detection limit [\[29](#page-11-10)[–35\]](#page-11-11) or comparable [\[36,](#page-11-12)[37\]](#page-11-13) than those shown in the table. Wang et al. [\[29\]](#page-11-10) proposed a differential pulse voltammetric (DPV) biosensor based on a nanocomposite of the conductive polymer poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene) (PEDOT) and a novel antifouling polypeptide (PEP) electrodeposited on the surface of a GCE. PEP acted both as an inhibitor of non-specific protein adsorption and as a binder of the DNAp. Methylene blue (MB) was used as a redox indicator and the concentration of BRCA1 was obtained from the changes in its DPV currents produced as a consequence of the DNAp-BRCA1 hybridization, allowing a detection limit of 3.4 fM. Senel et al. [\[30\]](#page-11-14) presented another DPV biosensor for the BRCA1 detection using Au electrodes modified with ferrocene (Fc)-cored poly(amidoamine) dendrimers (PAMAM) as support for DNAp, where Fc is a redox marker, and glutaraldehyde works as a linker between PAMAM and DNAp. After a hybridization time of 60 min with the BRCA1 target, Au/Fc-PAMAM/DNAp showed a wide linear range (1.3–20 nM) but a high detection limit (0.38 nM). A graphene oxide (GO) and ionic liquid (IL) composite-modified pencil graphite electrode (PGE) was developed by Işın et al. [\[31\]](#page-11-15) as an electrochemical platform for BRCA1 quantification. After solution-phase hybridization, the DNAp-BRCA1 hybrids were immobilized on the PGE-GO-IL surface and monitored through the direct measurement of the guanine oxidation signal by DPV, obtaining a detection limit value of 1.48 µg mL<sup>-1</sup> (~6.7 nM). Another strategy for BRCA1 quantification was proposed by using a carbon paste electrode (CPE) modified with electrospinning ribbon conductive nanofibers of poly(ethersulfone) and MWCNTs as a platform for the immobilization of the DNAp and EIS to transduce the hybridization event. Ehzari et al. [\[32\]](#page-11-16) reported that the EIS signals were proportional to the BRCA1 concentration up to 14 nM with a detection limit of 2.4 pM. An improved detection limit (0.57 fM) was reported by Ehzari et al. [\[33\]](#page-11-17) using an electrochemical biosensor with a sandwich-type hybridization scheme based on (i) MWCNTs and a core-shell structured magnetic imine-containing metal-organic framework (MOF) (MWCNT/Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@MOF), and (ii) two distinct DNAs, DNAp and ferrocenefunctionalized reporter DNA (Fc-DNAr), capable of simultaneously binding to BRCA1.  $MWCNT/Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>@MOF$  allowed the improvement in the electron transfer between the electroactive species and the electrode and the consequent enhancement of the DPV output signal by redox recycling of the  $(Fe(CN)_6^{4-\frac{3}{-}})$  species. García-Mendiola et al. [\[34\]](#page-11-18) developed a sensor based on the deposition of a few layers of antimonene on Au screenprinted electrodes and further non-covalent functionalization of antimonene with DNAp to develop a specific BRCA1 sensor. The analytical signal was obtained from the DPV signal of thionine (as a redox indicator) accumulated at the immobilized DNAp before and after hybridization with BRCA1. The detection limit of this genosensor was found to be 28.3 pg  $\mu$ L $^{-1}$  (~128 pM). Li et al. [\[35\]](#page-11-11) reported a "signal on-off-off" amplification strategy for the electrochemical detection of the BRCA1 gene. For this, a stem-loop DNAp modified at 5 ′ -end with a thiol group and at 3′ -end with MB, was self-assembled on an electrodeposited nanoAu surface, which strengthened the MB electrochemical signal and indicated "signal

on". Then, the BRCA1-DNAp hybridization made MB away from the nanoAu surface and reduced its signal, indicating "signal off". Finally, a further decrease of MB signal was recorded using a duplex-specific nuclease to cleave the DNAp-BRCA1 hybrid, which also indicated the "signal off". Despite the amplification strategy, this genosensor shows a much higher detection limit (52 pM) than our sensor (0.3 fM). Xia et al. [\[36\]](#page-11-12) obtained a similar detection limit (0.301 fM) to ours with a label-free biosensor based on three-dimensional reduced graphene oxide (3D-rGO) and polyaniline (PANI) nanofibers assembled on the GCE surface. The DNAp for BRCA1 was immobilized to GCE/3D-rGO-PANI via the formation of phosphoramidate bonds between its phosphate group at 5′ -end and the amino group of PANI. After hybridization, the analytical signal was obtained from the DPV response of MB embedded into the duplex DNA. A linear range between 1.0 fM and 10.0 pM and a detection limit of 0.3 fM for BRCA1 was reported by Cui et al. [\[37\]](#page-11-13). They developed an impedimetric genosensor by applying a self-assembled monolayer of zwitterionic peptides to covalently bind DNAp and prevent non-specific adsorption on the sensing surface (antifouling ability).

<span id="page-7-0"></span>**Table 2.** Comparison of the analytical characteristics of electrochemical biosensors for BRCA1.



Abbreviations: DPV: differential pulse voltammetry; GCE: glassy carbon electrode; PEP: antifouling polypeptide; PEDOT: poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene); Au: gold electrode; Fc: ferrocene; PAMAM: poly(amidoamine) dendrimers; DNAp: deoxyribonucleic acid probe; PGE: pencil graphite electrode; GO: graphene oxide; IL: ionic liquid; AuSPE: gold screen-printed electrode; MB: methylene blue; rGO: reduced graphene oxide; PANI: poly(aniline); EIS: electrochemical impedance spectroscopy; CPE: carbon paste electrode; PES: poly(ethersulfone); MWCNTs: multi-walled carbon nanotubes; MOF: metal-organic framework; SAM: self-assembled monolayer; AuNP: gold nanoparticles; BLM: biomimetic bilayer lipid membrane; SH-DNAp: thiolated deoxyribonucleic acid probe; PANHS: 1-pyrenebutyric acid-N-hydroxysuccinimide; ePDA: electropolymerized poly(dopamine); TA: tannic acid; tetraPEG: four-armed poly(ethylene glycol); eAuNP: electrodeposited gold nanoparticles.

The use of MXene modified with a AuNPs decorated-biomimetic bilayer lipid membrane (AuNP@BLM) [\[38\]](#page-12-14), rGO or MWCNTs modified with 1-pyrenebutyric acid-Nhydroxysuccinimide (PANHS) [\[39\]](#page-12-15), and a hydrophilic material based on electropolymerized poly(dopamine), tannic acid (TA), and four-armed poly(ethylene glycol) (ePDA/TA/tetraPEG) with electrodeposited AuNPs [\[40\]](#page-12-0), presented better detection limits than our biosensor. Divya et al. [\[38\]](#page-12-14) reported the construction of a label-free electrochemical genosensor based on the synergistic combination of AuNP@BLM with 2D MXene nanosheets and the use of SH-DNAp that allowed an expanded linear range from 10  $zM$  to 1  $\mu$ M with a de-tection limit as low as 1 zM. Benvidi et al. [\[39\]](#page-12-15) proposed the impedimetric detection of BRCA1 via GCEs modified with rGO and MWCNTs, using PANHS as a suitable base to graft DNAp on the electrode surface and Tween to remove its non-specific adsorption. EIS responses for different concentrations of BRCA1 at GCE/rGO/PANHS/DNAp or GCE/MWCNT/PANHS/DNAp showed a wide linear range that made possible its detection at levels from 0.35 to 3.1 aM, respectively. In addition, Chen et al. [\[40\]](#page-12-0) fabricated an electrochemical biosensor for BRCA1 quantification by modifying the GCE surface with ePDA/TA/tetraPEG using the layer-by-layer technique. After electrodeposition of AuNPs and immobilization of SH-DNAp on GCE/ePDA/TA/tetraPEG/AuNP, the hybridization experiments were performed by immersing the resulting sensor into different target concentrations (0.1 fM–10 pM), allowing BRCA1 to be detected by EIS with a detection limit of 0.05 fM. This comparison allows us to conclude that our biosensor is competitive since, even when the biosensors reported in [\[37](#page-11-13)[–39\]](#page-12-15) present better detection limits, they involve more than one nanomaterial associated with lipid membranes, linkers, or polymers, at variance with our BRCA1 genosensor which only contains MWCNTs and IgG.

### *3.3. Simultaneous Detection of Do and UA in the Presence of AA*

The voltammetric response of a mixture of  $1.0 \times 10^{-3}$  M AA,  $1.0 \times 10^{-3}$  M Do, and  $1.0 \times 10^{-3}$  M UA obtained at bare GCE is displayed in the inset of Figure [5.](#page-8-0) Under these conditions, it is not possible to distinguish the three processes due to the proximity of the oxidation peak potentials. At variance with this behavior (Figure [5\)](#page-8-0), due to the catalytic activity of the efficiently exfoliated MWCNTs, three very well-defined oxidation current peaks are observed in the linear scan voltammogram obtained at GCE modified with MWCNT-IgG for a mixture containing  $5.0 \times 10^{-4}$  M of Do, UA and AA at −0.013 V, 0.147 V, and 0.272 V, for AA, Do and UA, respectively.

<span id="page-8-0"></span>

**Figure 5.** (**a**) Linear scan voltammogram for 5.0 × 10<sup>−</sup>4 M Do and 5.0 × 10−4 M UA in presence of 5.0 × **Figure 5.** (**a**) Linear scan voltammogram for 5.0 × 10−<sup>4</sup> M Do and 5.0 × 10−<sup>4</sup> M UA in presence of 10<sup>−</sup>4 M AA at GCE/MWCNT-IgG. Inset: Linear scan voltammogram for a mixture of 1.0 × 10−3 M AA, 5.0 × 10−<sup>4</sup> M AA at GCE/MWCNT-IgG. Inset: Linear scan voltammogram for a mixture of  $1.0 \times 10^{-3}$  M AA,  $1.0 \times 10^{-3}$  M Do, and  $1.0 \times 10^{-3}$  M UA at bare GCE. (**b**) Calibration plot for Do obtained from LSV recordings. (c) Calibration plot for UA obtained from LSV recordings. 2. Other conditions as in Figure [2.](#page-4-0)

Based on the different electrochemical behavior of AA, Do, and UA at the surface of GCE/MWCNT-IgG, this sensor allowed us the simultaneous quantification of Do and UA in the presence of AA. As can be seen in Figure  $5b$ , there was a linear relationship between  $1.0 \times 10^{-6}$  M and  $5.0 \times 10^{-4}$  M and detection limits of 0.3 µM for both analytes, with sensitivities of (3.8  $\pm$  0.2)  $\times$   $10^4$   $\mu$ A M<sup>−1</sup> (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.985) and (1.44  $\pm$  0.05)  $\times$   $10^5$   $\mu$ A M<sup>−1</sup>  $(R^2 = 0.990)$  for Do and UA, respectively. Therefore, the successful exfoliation of MWCNTs with IgG allows the development of a very active electrochemical platform that makes possible the resolution of complex mixtures like Do, UA, and AA.

Table [3](#page-9-0) compares the analytical characteristics of our sensor with those electrochemical sensors based on CNTs for the simultaneous quantification of Do and UA published since 2021 [\[58–](#page-12-16)[67\]](#page-13-0). Among them, Liao et al. [\[60\]](#page-12-17) reported detection limits for Do and UA comparable and higher to our sensor, respectively; Rattanaumpa et al. [\[63\]](#page-13-1) presented detection limits higher and comparable than our sensor for Do and UA, respectively, while Li et al. [\[66\]](#page-13-2) reported comparable detection limits to our sensor for both compounds. The rest of the sensors included in the table [\[58](#page-12-16)[,59,](#page-12-18)[61,](#page-12-19)[62,](#page-13-3)[64](#page-13-4)[,65](#page-13-5)[,67\]](#page-13-0), allowed the detection of lower levels of Do and UA than the sensor proposed here. However, it is important to remark that in all these cases, at variance with our sensing platform, these sensors involve not only CNTs, but also metal [\[58\]](#page-12-16) and covalent [\[62,](#page-13-3)[64,](#page-13-4)[67\]](#page-13-0) organic frameworks; a graphenaceous material [\[62\]](#page-13-3), polymers like poly(melamine) [\[59\]](#page-12-18), cyclodextrin, and polyoxometalate [\[62\]](#page-13-3), making the preparation of the sensor more complex and time-consuming. Therefore, our sensor, which only involves MWCNTs dispersed in IgG, represents a very competitive alternative for the simultaneous quantification of Do and UA in a simple, fast, and label-free way, without any amplification scheme.

<span id="page-9-0"></span>**Table 3.** Comparison of detection limits and linear ranges for Do and UA obtained with GCE/MWCNT-IgG and different CNT-modified GCE.



Abbreviations: DPV: differential pulse voltammetry; GCE: glassy carbon electrode; PEP: antifouling polypeptide; PEDOT: poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene); Au: gold electrode; Fc: ferrocene; PAMAM: poly(amidoamine) dendrimers; DNAp: deoxyribonucleic acid probe; PGE: pencil graphite electrode; GO: graphene oxide; IL: ionic liquid; AuSPE: gold screen-printed electrode; MB: methylene blue; rGO: reduced graphene oxide; PANI: poly(aniline); CPE: carbon paste electrode; PES: poly(ethersulfone); MWCNTs: multi-walled carbon nanotubes; MOF: metal-organic framework; SAM: self-assembled monolayer; AuNP: gold nanoparticles; BLM: biomimetic bilayer lipid membrane; SH-DNAp: thiolated deoxyribonucleic acid probe; PANHS: 1-pyrenebutyric acid-N-hydroxysuccinimide; ePDA: electropolymerized poly(dopamine); TA: tannic acid; tetraPEG: four-armed poly(ethylene glycol); eAuNP: electrodeposited gold nanoparticles; LSV: linear sweep voltammetry.

### **4. Conclusions**

The results presented here demonstrate the advantages of using GCEs with MWCNTs non-covalently biofunctionalized with IgG for the development of two electrochemical sensors. One of them is for the highly sensitive and selective impedimetric quantification of BRCA1 due to the facilitated adsorption of the DNAp at the resulting GCE/MWCNTs-IgG, demonstrating that the interaction of DNAp with MWCNT-IgG does not affect in a significant way the recognition properties of the DNAp. The other one was focused on the voltammetric quantification of Do and UA in the presence of AA, due to the electrocatalytic activity of the exfoliated MWCNTs.

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