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**Carbon-based nanodots as effective electrochemical sensing tools  
towards the simultaneous detection of bioactive compounds in complex  
matrices**

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- 1 **Abbreviations**
- 2 CNDs: Carbon nanodots
- 3 CQDs: Carbon quantum dots
- 4 GQDs: Graphene quantum dots
- 5 TEM: Transmission electron microscopy
- 6 FTIR: Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy
- 7 Vit: Vitamin
- 8 SPCEs: Screen printed carbon electrodes
- 9 DPV: Differential pulse voltammetry
- 10 Nf: Nafion
- 11  $k^0$ : Electron transfer rate constant
- 12 A: electroactive area
- 13 Cdl: double-layer capacitance
- 14 GO: Graphene oxide
- 15 BPPGE: Basal-plane pyrolytic graphite electrode
- 16 GCE: Glassy carbon electrode
- 17 AA: Ascorbic acid
- 18 UA: Uric acid
- 19 DA: Dopamine
- 20 L-tyr: L-tyrosine

## 1 **Abstract**

2 A comparative study about the electroanalytical performance of three types of carbon-  
3 based nanodots has been accomplished. They exhibit similar functionalities (oxygenated  
4 groups) but diverse size and core structure (morphology, crystallinity and quantum  
5 confinement): carbon nanodots (CNDs), carbon quantum dots (CQDs) and graphene  
6 quantum dots (GQDs), herein employed as potential sensing modifiers on screen printed  
7 electrode surface. All of them were top-down synthesized, as well as characterized by  
8 TEM, FTIR, Raman and fluorescence techniques. Their electrochemical properties were  
9 assessed by cyclic voltammetry using specific redox probes (outer and inner sphere  
10 systems), such as potassium hexacyanoferrate(III), hexaammine-ruthenium(III) chloride  
11 and dopamine, which display different electron transfer rate as a function of their  
12 electronic core structure and specific active sites. The electroanalytical capabilities of  
13 these carbogenic nanodots as suitable sensing tools towards the simultaneous detection  
14 of several bioactives like vitamins (ascorbic acid or Vit C, pyridoxine or Vit B2,  
15 riboflavin or Vit B6) and amino acids (cysteine and tyrosine), were also evaluated and  
16 discussed attending to the main interactions responsible for improvement in peak currents  
17 and potentials. Finally, GQD-based electrodes, selected as the best choice, were  
18 submitted to an exhaustive electroanalytical performance characteristics evaluation. The  
19 success of this simple drop-casting procedure was also proved by affording the  
20 simultaneous detection of three diverse bioanalytes in complex commercial matrices and  
21 with lower detection limits in comparison to other reported proposals from similar nature.

22 **Keywords:** carbon nanodots; carbon quantum dots; graphene quantum dots;  
23 electrochemical sensing; bioactive analytes.

## 1 **1. Introduction**

2 Screen-printed electrodes are still unceasingly garnering considerable attention as a  
3 transducer for electroanalysis in comparison to conventional electrode materials, as far as  
4 being low-cost, disposable, portable, reproducible and reliable sensors [1] as well as  
5 enabling analysis of very small sample volume as miniaturized devices. Their potential  
6 in (bio)analytical applications to selectively preconcentrate target analytes on electrode  
7 surface and to improve sensitivity is maximized upon their versatility to be modified by  
8 a variety of nanomaterials [2, 3]. It is noteworthy that surface modification with  
9 carbonaceous inks painted onto the conductive tracks has gained much attention. In fact,  
10 recent works focused on the fabrication and functionalization of carbon conductive inks  
11 from chemically inert carbon materials (high mechanical resistance, electrical and  
12 thermal conductivity) with binding components and/or additives for a further use as  
13 screen-printed electrodes' modifiers to detect a variety of target (bio)analytes [4 - 6],  
14 although the inclusion of them usually slows down the electron rate. Graphene and carbon  
15 nanotubes had been also incorporated directly into the manufacturing inks [7, 8],  
16 however, they suffered from heterogeneity and low reproducibility due to aggregation  
17 and stacking effects.

18 Amongst carbon allotropes, carbon-based nanodots are considered as a green alternative  
19 by virtue of their non-toxicity, biocompatibility, high water solubility and their ability to  
20 exchange electrons [9]. Our aim lies to understand the electrochemical activity of these  
21 carbon-based nanodots, which remains controversial, since until now most studies have  
22 been mainly focused on their optical properties [10, 11]. The present research is  
23 specifically focused on SPCEs (screen printed carbon electrodes) modification with  
24 different types of carbon-based nanodots [12 - 16] displaying tunable properties with

1 regard electron transfer, quantum confinement, electrical conductivity, and surface area  
2 for improving the transduction of electrochemical signals of (bio)sensing devices.  
3 Although the combination of carbon-based nanodots and SPCEs have been previously  
4 reported, limitations in terms of sensitivity and reproducibility were found [15, 17].

5 Carbon-based nanodots are a new family of spherical dots (size below 30 nm) [9] which  
6 are overall categorized into graphene quantum dots (GQDs), carbon quantum dots  
7 (CQDs) and carbon nanodots (CNDs). On one side, they possess unique physicochemical  
8 properties such as stable fluorescence, large specific surface area and surface grafting,  
9 but on the other hand, they can differ by their crystallinity, graphitized-core degree  
10 ( $sp^2/sp^3$  hybridization), morphology and quantum confinement. Thus, these differences  
11 in their cores entail diverse electrochemical activities and photoluminescence behaviors.  
12 Crystalline laminar GQDs display quantum confinement effects and a crystalline  
13 structure unlike spherical CNDs. Spherical CQDs exhibit some structural heterogeneity  
14 ( $sp^2$  and  $sp^3$  hybridization) and, consequently, an intermediate degree of crystallinity [9].  
15 Such nanodots have been revealed as powerful tools in the fabrication of sensors, energy  
16 generation and storage devices [18, 19].

17 Because of their certain similarity degree about some features (e.g. diameter range,  
18 solubility, oxygen containing groups, photoluminescence properties), the mechanisms  
19 involving both their photoluminescence and electrochemical activity are still in debate.  
20 Whereas many efforts were focused over their photoluminescence mechanisms enabling  
21 us to distinguish amongst the nanodot types and surface passivation [10, 11, 20], there is  
22 a lack of comparative electrochemical studies which makes difficult to understand the  
23 corresponding involved electrochemical mechanisms [21, 22]. From the above, there is a  
24 need about these systematic and comparative works addressing the electrochemical

1 properties exhibited by these different carbon-based nanodots obtained by a variety of  
2 synthetic routes, with diverse core, etc. and the subsequent role they play in electron  
3 transfer kinetics too [23]. So far, just few specific reviews devoted to electrochemical  
4 applications of carbon nanostructures have been found in literature [24 - 27].

5 This work pretends to give readers a deep comparative insight about the electrochemical  
6 behavior of GQDs, CQDs and CNDs containing similar functionalized surface  
7 (oxygenated groups), but different crystallinity, core hybridization, morphology, and  
8 quantum confinement. With this aim the three families were firstly synthesized following  
9 the top-down methodology and later thoroughly characterized both structural and  
10 electrochemically by means of well-known redox probes, surface sensitive in different  
11 degree to its chemistry and microstructure [28]. Thus, this study has been directed toward  
12 the understanding of those factors controlling carbon dots electrochemistry overall and  
13 their heterogeneous transfer rate specifically, in an attempt to gain perspective for a  
14 rational design of different carbon-based electrodes with implemented analytical  
15 performance as a function of specific analytes.

16 The electroanalytical capabilities of these carbon nanodots-electrodes as sensing  
17 electrochemical modifiers are also evaluated versus a set of significant bioactive target  
18 analytes, namely vitamins (Vit B2, Vit B6 and Vit C) and amino acids (*L*-tyrosine).  
19 Primary interactions responsible for their shifts in peak potentials and their increase in  
20 peak currents were also elucidated. Finally, attending to its valuable electrochemical  
21 features, modified GQD-SPCEs were selected to carry out the simultaneous detection of  
22 these bioactives in commercial nutritional supplements by differential pulse voltammetry  
23 (DPV). The present research tries to open new possibilities for the design and tailoring of  
24 sensing systems attending the specific chemistry of the sought analyte.

## 1 **2. Experimental**

### 2 *2.1. Reagents and solutions*

3 All aqueous solutions were prepared with analytical grade reagents and deionized water  
4 purified with a Milli-Q system (Millipore, Bedford, MA, USA) that reaches a resistivity  
5 of 18.2 M $\Omega$ ·cm at 25°C. Pyridoxine ( $\geq 98\%$ ), riboflavin ( $\geq 98\%$ ), *L*-tyrosine ( $\geq 98\%$ ), *L*-  
6 cysteine ( $\geq 97\%$ ), potassium ferricyanide ( $\geq 99\%$ ), potassium chloride ( $\geq 99\%$ ),  
7 hexaammineruthenium(II) chloride ( $\geq 99\%$ ), dopamine hydrochloride ( $\geq 98\%$ ), sodium  
8 hydroxide ( $\geq 98\%$ ), methanol ( $\geq 99\%$ ), sodium phosphate dibasic ( $\geq 99\%$ ), sodium  
9 phosphate monobasic ( $\geq 99\%$ ), sodium carbonate ( $\geq 99.5\%$ ), potassium chloride ( $\geq 99\%$ ),  
10 sulfuric acid (95 - 97%) and cellulose microcrystalline (50- $\mu$ m particles) and dialysis  
11 tubing-bags (3500 kDa cut off) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. were acquired from  
12 Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Acetone (0.01% water content), ascorbic acid ( $\geq$   
13 99%) and fuming hydrochloric acid (37%) were purchased from Panreac (Badalona,  
14 Spain). Nitric acid ( $\geq 69\%$ ) was supplied by Labkem (Mataró, Barcelona, Spain). Nafion  
15 117 (Nf, 5% mixture of aliphatic alcohols and water) was supplied by Fluka (Steinheim,  
16 Germany). Multiwalled carbon nanotubes and graphene were purchased from Bayer and  
17 Nanomaterials Avanzare Innovation technology S.L., respectively.

18 Stock standard solutions of potassium ferricyanide, dopamine hydrochloride and  
19 hexaammineruthenium(II) chloride (0.005 M) were prepared in KCl (0.1 M). Pyridoxine,  
20 ascorbic acid, and *L*-cysteine were prepared in deionized water, *L*-tyrosine in HCl (1M)  
21 and riboflavin in a mixture of water/methanol (20%). All solutions were stored in  
22 darkness at low temperature until use.

1 Different electrolyte solutions were prepared by dissolving/diluting appropriate amounts  
2 of reagents and adjusting to suitable pH values with HCl (0.1M) and NaOH (0.1M).  
3 Working solutions were daily prepared by diluting stock solutions in the corresponding  
4 electrolyte buffer solutions.

5 Commercial samples of Mincartil, Vitax and *L*-Tyrosine BioTech were acquired in local  
6 supermarkets from well-known brands. Recommended daily amounts of each nutritional  
7 supplement: Mincartil (3 capsules, 3.0367 g) and Vitax (1 capsule, 1.5 g) were crushed  
8 and dissolved in deionised water (50 mL for Mincartil and 10 mL for Vitax). Daily  
9 amounts of *L*-Tyrosine BioTech (2 capsules, 1.154 g) were dissolved in 25 mL of 1M  
10 HCl. Next, the samples were shaken by vortex, sonicated for one hour and filtered.  
11 Finally, solutions were prepared as follows using the corresponding electrolyte until 2  
12 mL of final volume: 40% KCl (0.1 M) for Mincartil sample, 40% HNO<sub>3</sub> (0.05 M) for  
13 Vitax and 80% KCl (0.1 M) *L*-Tyrosine BioTech, all of them v/v and 50 µL of each one  
14 were submitted to the voltammetric procedure.

## 15 2.2. Instrumentation

16 Electrochemical experiments were performed with a CHI842D electrochemical analyzer  
17 controlled by Chi842d software from CH Instruments (Austin, Texas USA).  
18 Measurements were carried out with a three-electrode cell configuration, using screen  
19 printed (modified) carbon electrodes (SPCEs, DRP-110) from Dropsens (Oviedo, Spain)  
20 consisting of a carbon counter electrode, a silver pseudo reference electrode and a carbon  
21 working electrode (4 mm diameter). A DRP-BICAC70311 connector was used as  
22 interface between the potentiostat unit and the screen-printed electrode.



1 The morphology of the carbonaceous nanodots were examined by transmission electron  
2 microscopes (TEM) using a JEOL JEM 1400 and JEOL 2100 (high resolution) models.  
3 For sample preparation, aliquots of the diluted sample were placed in a TEM grid and air  
4 dried before the analysis.

5 Raman scattering behaviours of samples were evaluated with an InVia Renishaw  
6 microspectrometer selecting a laser of 532 nm. Data was collected in triplicate and treated  
7 with origin software. The Raman samples were prepared from stable dispersions of the  
8 nanodots. Diluted solutions of them were deposited dropwise over a silica oxide plate and  
9 air dried at 40°C before the analysis.

10 Photoluminescence of CNDs, CQDs, GQDs solutions were characterized measuring the  
11 emission at the maximum excitation wavelengths for each carbon-based nanodots in  
12 aqueous media. A PTI QuantaMaster™ spectrofluorometer was used with a 2 nm-set up  
13 of excitation and emission slit widths and 10 mm quartz cuvettes. All measurements were  
14 performed in triplicate.

15 Infrared spectra of the solid samples were conducted in a crystal Attenuated Total  
16 Reflectance (ATR) for Shimadzu Infrared (IR) instrument (ATR crystal puck was of  
17 ZnSe, IR-Affinity-1S model and DTGS Standard detector).

18 An ultrasound bath (Selecta, Barcelona, Spain) and a Basic 20 pH-meter with a combined  
19 glass electrode (Crison Instruments S.A., Barcelona, Spain) were also used.

### 20 *2.3. Synthesis of CNDs, CQDs and GQDs*

21 CNDs, CQDs and GQDs were synthesized according to previously reported methods [29,  
22 30]. Briefly, CNDs were prepared from cellulose microcrystalline (1 g) in an acidic

1 solution ( $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ , 12.2 N) under reflux conditions for 7 h. CQDs and GQDs were  
2 synthesized from multiwalled carbon nanotubes (0.2 g) and graphene (20 mg) as carbon  
3 precursors at 140 °C in presence of an acidic mixture ( $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4/\text{HNO}_3$ , 3:1 ratio) for 7.5 and  
4 5 h, respectively. Passivation of their surfaces was carried out with acetone (5 mL)  
5 overnight. All the residues were treated with sodium carbonate and the resulted  
6 suspensions were subjected to centrifugation (13000 r.p.m.) to isolate the respective  
7 nanodots from the supernatant. Once all bigger particles and aggregates were removed,  
8 the carbon-based nanodots were subsequently purified with ethanol at low temperatures  
9 to remove excess of salts by crystallization. Finally, these latest ethanolic solutions  
10 containing the respective nanomaterials were dried, reconstituted in deionized water and  
11 subjected to dialysis for 4 h.

#### 12 *2.4. Carbon-based nanodots surface modification procedure on carbon SPCEs*

13 Solutions containing  $2 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$  of each carbon-based nanodots in 5% v/v Nafion (CND/Nf,  
14 CQD/Nf and GQD/Nf) were prepared by sonication (15 min). Then, three aliquots (5  $\mu\text{L}$   
15 each one) of the previous solutions were subsequently drop-casted onto the working  
16 electrode letting to dry between depositions under IR lamp. After that, the modified  
17 electrode surface was rinsed with deionized water before use. From now on, these  
18 electrodes modified with CND/Nf, CQD/Nf, and GQD/Nf solutions will be referred to as  
19 CND-SPCEs, CQD-SPCEs and GQD-SPCEs, respectively.

#### 20 *2.5. Electrochemical procedure*

21 Electrochemical characterization of the bare and modified SPCEs as sensing devices was  
22 performed through cyclic voltammetry (CV) at different scan rates using three redox  
23 probes, namely  $[\text{Ru}(\text{NH}_3)_6]\text{Cl}_3$ ,  $\text{K}_3\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6$  and dopamine (5 mM in 0.1 M KCl).

1 Electroanalytical studies of vitamins and amino acids were carried out by DPV using the  
2 modified SPCEs by dilution of appropriate amounts of analyte stock solutions in different  
3 electrolytes; 0.1 M KCl for dopamine, ascorbic acid, cysteine and tyrosine and 0.05 M  
4 HNO<sub>3</sub> for riboflavin and pyridoxine. To check target compounds, 50 μL of the sample  
5 were deposited onto the electrode surface; then CV and DPV voltammograms were  
6 recorded under potential ranges from -0.7 to 0.9 V and from -1.0 to 1.4 V, respectively.  
7 DPV instrumental conditions were as follows: increment potential 4 mV, amplitude 250  
8 mV, pulse width 0.05 s, sampling width 0.02 s, pulse period 0.6 s and quiet time 2 s. All  
9 electrochemical experiments were performed at room temperature.

## 10 2.6. Theoretical calculations for electrochemical parameters

11 The potential difference ( $\Delta E_p$ ) for each electrode surface is obtained from the following  
12 equation:

$$13 \quad \Delta E_p = E_{p,a} - E_{p,c} \quad (1)$$

14 where  $E_{p,a}$  and  $E_{p,c}$  are the anodic and cathodic peak potentials, respectively. This  
15 parameter provides information about the electrochemical reversibility of a redox couple.

16 The electron transfer rate constant ( $k^0$ ) lets to know the rate at which redox exchange  
17 occurs. The electron transfer rate constant of each electrode is achieved following the  
18 Nicholson method [31]:

$$19 \quad \Psi = k^0 \cdot (D_O/D_R)^{\alpha/2} \cdot (RT)^{1/2} \cdot (\pi n F D v)^{-1/2} \quad (2)$$

20 where  $D_O$  and  $D_R$  are diffusion coefficients for oxidized and reduced species (cm<sup>2</sup>·s<sup>-1</sup>),  
21 respectively,  $\alpha$  is the transfer coefficient,  $R$  and  $F$  are the universal constant of gasses  
22 (J·mol<sup>-1</sup>·K<sup>-1</sup>) and Faraday constant (C·mol<sup>-1</sup>), respectively,  $T$  is absolute temperature (K),

1  $n$  is number of exchanged electrons, and  $\nu$  is the scan rate ( $\text{V}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ ). Upon the approximation  
2  $D_{\text{O}}/D_{\text{R}} = 1$ , the equation (2) resulted to be as follows:

3 
$$\Psi = k^{0'} \cdot (RT)^{1/2} \cdot (\pi n F D \nu)^{-1/2} \quad (3)$$

4 The dimensionless function ( $\Psi$ ) was calculated for each scan rate according equation (4)  
5 previously described by Swaddle [32], using as  $\Delta E_p$  its respective value for a specific scan  
6 rate:

7 
$$\text{Ln } \Psi = 3,69 - 1,16 \cdot \text{Ln}(\Delta E_p - 59) \quad (4)$$

8 Afterwards,  $k^{0'}$  is calculated from the slope of expression (3) by plotting the previous  
9 obtained  $\Psi$  values versus the square root of  $\nu$ .

10 The electroactive area ( $A$ ) of each electrode is estimated from Randles-Sevcik equation  
11 [33]:

12 
$$i_p = 2,69 \cdot 10^5 \cdot n^{3/2} \cdot A \cdot C \cdot D^{1/2} \cdot \nu^{1/2} \quad (5)$$

13 where  $i_p$  is the peak current,  $n$  is the number of exchanged electrons,  $A$  the electroactive  
14 area of electrode ( $\text{cm}^2$ ),  $C$  is analyte concentration ( $\text{mol}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$ ),  $D$  are the diffusion  
15 coefficients of ruthenium, ferricyanide and dopamine:  $9.1\cdot 10^{-6}$ ,  $7.6\cdot 10^{-6}$  and  $1.4\cdot 10^{-5}$   
16  $\text{cm}^2\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ , respectively, and  $\nu$  is the scan rate ( $\text{V}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ ). All  $A$  values, depicted in **Table 1**, are  
17 calculated from the slope resulted by plotting cathodic peak current versus square root of  
18  $\nu$ .

19 The double capacitance layer ( $Cdl$ ) is calculated using the following equation:

20 
$$i_c = A \cdot Cdl \cdot \nu \quad (6)$$

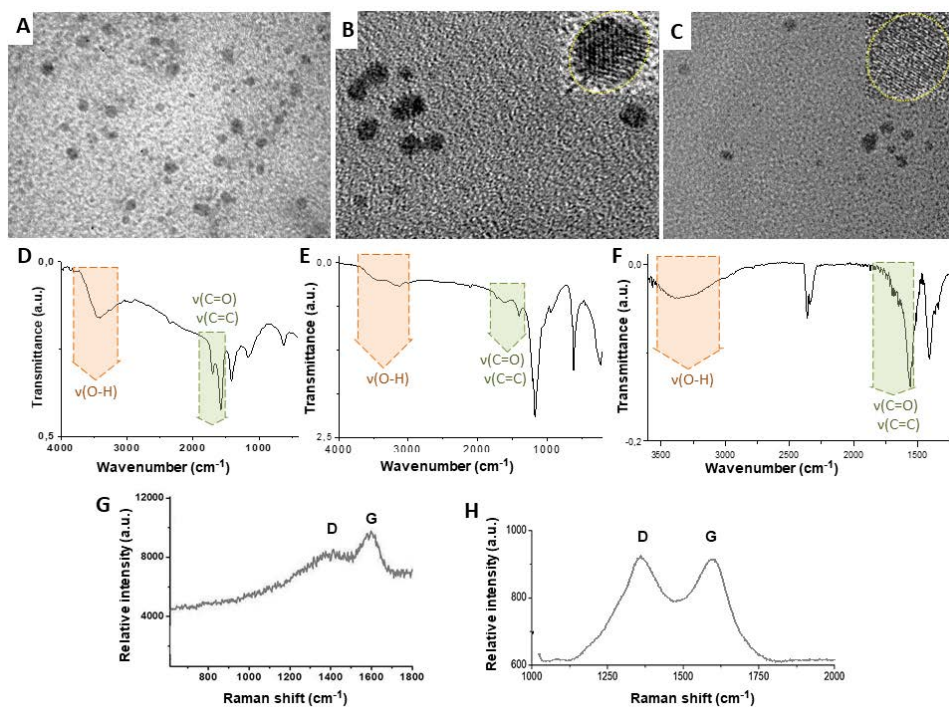
1 where  $i_c$  is the capacitive current ( $\mu\text{A}$ ),  $A$  is area of electrode,  $\nu$  is the scan rate ( $\text{V}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ )  
2 being  $Cdl$  units of  $\mu\text{F}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ . Once known the calculated electrode area, the capacitance  
3 value for each electrode is obtained from the slope by plotting  $i_c$  versus  $\nu$ .

4

### 5 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 6 *3.1. Nanostructural characterization of CNDs, CQDs and GQDs*

7 Obtained sizes by TEM were quite similar for the three nanostructures, with the smallest  
8 diameter for CQDs ( $3\text{ nm} \pm 0.32$ ), followed by CNDs ( $7\text{ nm} \pm 0.18$ ) and the largest one  
9 for GQD ( $9\text{ nm} \pm 0.27$ ) (**Fig. 1.A, 1.B and 1.C**). By FTIR, the three carbon-based nanodots  
10 display similar functional groups on the surface (oxygenated groups). In particular, bands  
11 found at ca.  $3500$  and  $1700\text{ cm}^{-1}$  are typically ascribed to the stretching vibrational modes  
12 of the hydroxyl (O-H) and carbonyl (C=O) bonds, which likely involve the presence of  
13 carboxyl groups. These oxygenated groups are responsible of their high solubility in  
14 water (**Fig. 1.D, 1.E and 1.F**). Anyway, from the intensity associated to these bands it  
15 can be supposed a more successful passivation for CNDs and GQDs than for CQDs. On  
16 the other hand **Fig. 1.G and 1.H** showed the Raman profiles of the graphitic/graphenic  
17 nanodots (CQDs and GQDs), which are alike in appearance and characteristic of  
18 graphenic structures with their typical features including both G ( $\approx 1585\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , crystalline)  
19 and D ( $\approx 1380\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , disorder) modes, which confirmed the  $\text{sp}^2$  hybrids carbons at basal  
20 planes and the symmetry breaking at edges and defects with existence of  $\text{sp}^3$  carbons. No  
21 clear bands at the 2D region ( $\approx 2800\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) were detected, as occurred for this type of  
22 nanodots since their defective nature provokes deactivation of the 2D effect with the  
23 thickness variation [34]. Regarding the CNDs, lack of any representative Raman profile  
24 was obtained as result of their amorphous structure.

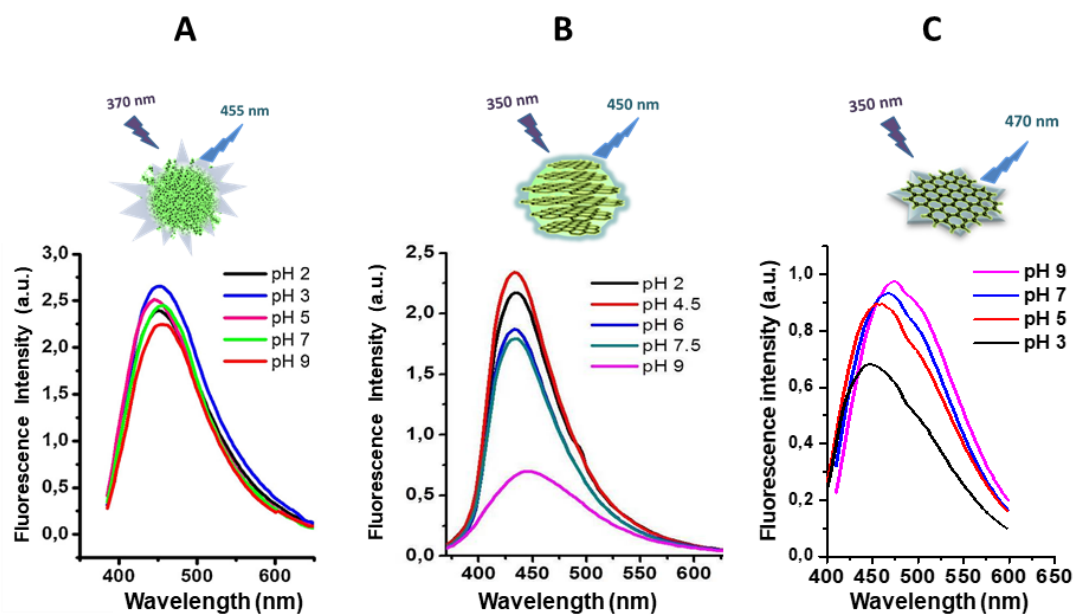


1

2 **Fig. 1.** Micrograph images of CNDs (A), CQDs (B) and GQDs (C) with the inter lattice spacing of 0.269  
 3 nm (illustrative insets); IR spectra of CNDs (D), CQDs (E) and GQDs (F); Raman shifts of CQDs (G) and  
 4 GQDs (H).

5

6 All three nanodots showed excellent fluorescence properties with excitation (370 nm,  
 7 350 nm and 350 nm) and emission (450 nm, 455 nm and 470 nm) for CQDs, CNDs and  
 8 GQDs respectively (**Fig. 2**), wavelengths suggesting the lowest quantum confinement  
 9 effects for GQDs which involved better electronic conductivity properties, in  
 10 disagreement with consulted literature [23], but in accordance with the  $sp^2$ -carbon  
 11 hybridization assigned to graphenic layers. In addition, the emission wavelength resulted  
 12 to be pH dependent for CQDs and GQDs aqueous solutions (more pronounced for the  
 13 former ones) (**Fig. 2.A, 2.B and 2.C**), likely due to the band gap structure of their  
 14 aromatic domains, responsible of the quantum confinement.



1  
2 **Fig. 2.** Illustration of the emission and excitation features of CNDs (A), CQDs (B) and GQDs (C) and their  
3 emission behaviour versus the pH of the medium.

4  
5 *3.2. Selection of conditions for electrode surface modification*

6 To select the best conditions for carbon-based nanodots modification on electrode  
7 surface, different experiments were carried out addressing the concentration of the  
8 modifiers (carbon-based nanodot), the Nafion percentage as well as the number and  
9 volume of depositions. All these experiments were performed by CV (scan rate: 100  
10  $\text{mV}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ ) for a 5 mM dopamine in 0.1 M KCl solution. Firstly, the influence of CNDs,  
11 CQDs and GQDs concentration (2, 10 and 20  $\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ ) to modify the electrode was  
12 evaluated. As shown in **Fig. 3A**, the concentration range studied did not produce any  
13 significant change in the observed current for any of carbon nanodots; therefore, 2  $\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$   
14 was chosen as a suitable concentration for the electrode modification.

15 Secondly, different methodologies were tried to select the suitable volume and number of  
16 depositions for electrode modification: in one of them, a single aliquot was drop-casted

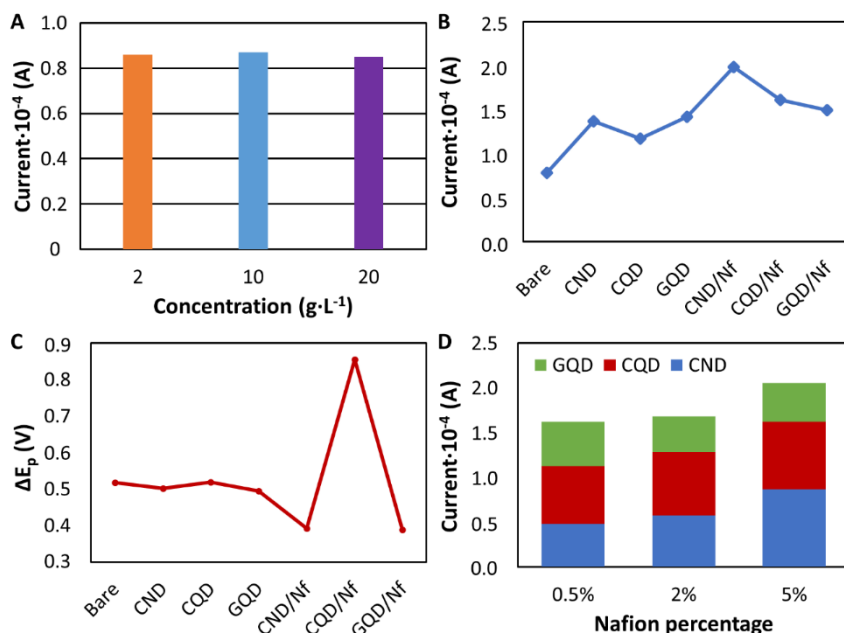
1 but testing two different volumes (30 and 15  $\mu\text{L}$ ) and allowing to dry this surface under  
2 an IR lamp. It was observed that the increase of drop volume did not provide any gain in  
3 terms of current results. Attending to the obtained current and handling aspects, 15  $\mu\text{L}$   
4 were selected as suitable volume. In a second methodology, the selected volume (15  $\mu\text{L}$ )  
5 was added by three depositions (5  $\mu\text{L}$  each one) with the same drying process. The latter  
6 deposition method provided the best results for the carbon modifiers handling, being  
7 selected for the electrode modification. This was due to the high water-solubility of  
8 nanodots, which promoted a very rapid expansion of each released drop along and beyond  
9 the working electrode surface, covering even the two remaining electrodes and hindering  
10 their use so.

11 To avoid this drawback, the polymeric membrane Nafion was used as a binder between  
12 these carbon-based nanodots and the working electrode. **Fig. 3B** displays the obtained  
13 current values for the bare electrode and for the modified ones in the absence and presence  
14 of Nafion (5% v/v). It was found that modified electrodes without Nafion already had  
15 greater sensitivity than the bare one. Interestingly, when adding Nafion these  
16 electrochemical responses significantly improved for the 3 modified surfaces being the  
17 CND/Nf electrode that displayed the best results. In short, Nafion led to better current  
18 results and solved the drop expansion problem already mentioned.

19 Then, the Nafion influence on electron transfer kinetic and reversibility behavior was also  
20 evaluated by means of  $\Delta E_p$  (**Fig. 3C**). This study showed that CND/Nf and GQD/Nf  
21 surfaces provided very remarkable smaller values than the other modified ones and then,  
22 exhibited greater reversibility. Lastly, the Nafion percentage in modifiers mixtures was  
23 checked (0.5%, 2.0% and 5.0% v/v). From these experiments, 5% was selected as the  
24 ideal percentage for the three nanodot species attending to the obtained current as well as



1 the greater drop density thus facilitating any supposed electrode manufacturing process  
 2 (Fig. 3D). All cyclic voltamograms obtained during the optimization process are shown in  
 3 Fig. S1.



4  
 5 **Fig. 3.** Selection of conditions for modifying electrode surface (5 mM dopamine in 0.1 M KCl): Oxidation  
 6 peak current versus different CNDs nanodot concentrations (A); Oxidation peak current (B) and ΔE<sub>p</sub> (C)  
 7 for the bare SPCEs and for the modified ones with and without Nafion; Nafion percentage study for the  
 8 modified carbonaceous nanodot SPCEs (D).

9  
 10 It is noteworthy by means of the performed experiments to optimize surface modification  
 11 process and unlike other previously reported works [8], it was checked the absence of  
 12 stacking or agglomeration effects for any nanodot dispersions into the electrode surface  
 13 thanks to their high water solubility from the layer edges (passivation), even for CQD and  
 14 GQDs and despite their sp<sup>2</sup>-framework.

### 15 3.3. Electrochemical characterization of CNDs, CQDs and GQDs

16 With the aim to perform the electrochemical characterization of the three nanodots, three  
 17 representatives redox probes, well known as outer and inner sphere in different degree  
 18 [28], namely hexaammineruthenium(III) chloride, ferricyanide and dopamine, were

1 checked in an attempt to get insights about both their electrochemistry and nanostructure.  
2 As relevant parameters of this electrochemical study at electrode surface their  
3 reversibility, heterogeneous kinetic rate constant, electroactive area ( $A$ ) and capacitance  
4 were evaluated at scan rates from 10 to 500  $\text{mV}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$  by CV with the bare and modified  
5 CND/Nf, CQD/Nf and GQD/Nf electrodes.

6 Before starting this elucidating study, the working potential windows for these modified  
7 electrodes were checked by performing background “blank” CV scans. **Fig. S2** displays  
8 the resultant profile for a KCl 0.1 M solution (pH 7) in the three electrodes, exhibiting  
9 comparable featureless voltammograms in a wide range, from  $-0.6$  to  $1.0$  V, that means  
10 their electrochemical suitability as sensing modifiers and especially for anodic processes.

11 Since hexammineruthenium(III) chloride complex is well-documented as an outer-  
12 sphere redox probe sensitive to electron state density [28] but not to surface chemistry of  
13 the electrode surface, it was used to evaluate the relationship between edges and basal  
14 planes for spherical random carbon core (CND), stacked graphitic sheets forming a sphere  
15 (CQD) and individual single sheet (GQD) electrode. According to diverse authors [8, 28],  
16 the  $A$  and electron transfer rates for Ru complex do not change from the surface chemistry  
17 but upon the electrode’s electronic structure (Fermi levels and density of states), here  
18 mainly depending of ratio edge plane sites and defects. The analysis of voltammetric  
19 profiles assessed upon this redox probe was mainly based on the heterogeneous electron  
20 transfer rate constant ( $k^0$ ) and electroactive area ( $A$ ) values, since the results in terms of  
21 potential difference ( $\Delta E_p$ ) have not provided relevant information; in fact similar values  
22 were achieved, namely 179, 173 y 172 mV for CND/Nf, CQD/Nf and GQD/Nf electrodes  
23 respectively. In terms of rate-limiting step (diffusion and/or adsorption), both processes  
24 were evaluated by representing the peak currents against the scan rate and the square root

1 of scan rate. Results suggested that the kinetic of the electrochemical process at the  
2 CND/Nf, CQD/Nf and GQD/Nf electrodes are mainly controlled by the diffusion of  
3 electroactive species through the electrode surface owing to a linearly peak current  
4 dependency with the square root of scan rate. Considering  $k^0$ , calculated by Nicholson  
5 method [31], CND/Nf electrode displays the better rate-limiting step with a value  
6  $7.5 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ cm} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  followed by the GQD/Nf electrode with  $5.3 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ cm} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ . Since these  
7 voltammetric responses correlates with the proportion of edge and basal planes, it can be  
8 deduced that content of edges plane and defects plane is higher for the CND/Nf electrode  
9 whilst CQD/Nf and GQD/Nf electrodes have higher contents of basal plane which is  
10 consistent with their graphitized nanosheet-containing cores. Regarding the electroactive  
11 area ( $A$ ), calculated with such near-ideal outer-sphere probe by the Randles-Sevcik  
12 equation [33], the CND/Nf modified electrode gave the best results too, followed by the  
13 GQD/Nf one (**Table 1**).

14 Persisting in the characterization of these three electrodes, an inner-sphere redox probe,  
15 ferricyanide complex, surface-sensitive but no oxygenated groups-sensitive, was used to  
16 evaluate the effect from the different surface morphologies (spherical, stacked sheets and  
17 isolated sheets) since this probe requires a steric interaction with the adsorbed nanodots  
18 layers for electron transfer [28]. As the previous redox probe, ferricyanide also exhibits a  
19 reversible behavior and the electronic transfer control takes place by diffusion, therefore,  
20 this is the limiting step. CND/Nf electrode is the one that shows a smaller potential  
21 difference (69 mV) and a higher kinetic constant ( $4.18 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ cm} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ ), meaning that kinetic  
22 transfer is more favored for the amorphous core nanostructure with spherical shape,  
23 (referred as to CNDs) than for the other two  $sp^2$ -composed crystalline frameworks. These  
24 results suggest a higher content/accessibility of defectives sites in the CND surface (i.e.

1 carbonyl groups) [28, 35], thus evidencing the improved electrocatalytic activity for a  
2 non-graphitic electrode morphology in nature.

3 Finally, it was used a second inner-sphere probe, dopamine, both surface and oxygen  
4 sensitive, whose electrochemical response can reveal the variety of attached functional  
5 groups to the nanodot surfaces owing to a set of non-covalent interactions: the  
6 electrostatic interaction of the positively-charged amine of the redox probe toward the  
7 negatively-charged carboxyl groups of the nanodots reinforced by hydrogen bonding and  
8 the  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interactions towards graphitic/graphenic nanodots. Taking into account that, upon  
9 the previous FTIR characterization of three nanodot types similar surface moieties  
10 (namely, carboxyl and hydroxyl groups) are attached to diverse carbon cores (amorphous  
11 and  $sp^2$  carbon frameworks or sheet), the achieved electrochemical results are in  
12 agreement with this since the peak potentials obtained for the three surfaces are very  
13 similar; in short, this peak potential appears at 0.65 V for both GQD/Nf and CQD/Nf  
14 electrodes whilst it moves slightly forward (ca. 20 mV) for CND/Nf electrode. About the  
15 kinetic constant, both CND and CQD possess a similar transfer rate ( $5.3 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ cm} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$  and  
16  $5.6 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ cm} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ , respectively), while a slightly higher value ( $6.9 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ cm} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ ) was observed  
17 for GQDs. It is noteworthy to highlight that, in terms of rate electron transfer constant  
18 and  $A$ , the three carbonaceous structures exhibited better results compared to the bare  
19 electrode, noting that the GQD/Nf electrode displayed the best electrocatalytic effect  
20 toward dopamine attending to the  $k^0$  and  $\Delta E_p$  values. This is possibly due to  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking  
21 interactions which are mainly responsible of this behavior, besides the high content of  
22 oxygen superficial groups enhancing electrostatic interactions with it (nanostructural  
23 characterization section).

1 All commented electrochemical parameters for the three modified electrodes and the bare  
2 one with the three redox probes are summarized in **Table 1**.

3 CVs related to the evaluation of  $k^{0'}$  and A for the three tested redox probes are given as  
4 **Figs. S3, S4 and S5** for  $[\text{Ru}(\text{NH}_3)_6]\text{Cl}_3$ ,  $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$  and dopamine, respectively. Each  
5 figure also contains the corresponding graphical fits used for calculating  $k^{0'}$  ( $\Psi$  versus  $v^{-}$   
6  $^{1/2}$ ) and A ( $\text{I}_{\text{pc}}$  versus  $v^{1/2}$ ) from their slopes for each one of the carbonaceous nanodot  
7 electrode.

8 Besides, the corresponding CVs and graphical fits relative to Cdl calculations for the  
9 tested redox probes on each carbonaceous modified electrode are included by means of  
10 **Fig. S6**.

11 **Table 1.** Electrochemical characterization related to the three carbon-based nanodots.

Probe	Electrode	$k^{0'}$ ( $\text{cm}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ )	A ( $\text{cm}^2$ )	Cdl ( $\mu\text{F}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ )
$[\text{Ru}(\text{NH}_3)_6]^{3+}$	<b>Bare</b>	$1.68\cdot 10^{-3}$	0.110	53
	<b>CNDs/Nf</b>	$7.48\cdot 10^{-4}$	0.171	688
	<b>CQDs/Nf</b>	$3.29\cdot 10^{-4}$	0.067	6517
	<b>GQDs/ Nf</b>	$5.33\cdot 10^{-4}$	0.089	2291
$[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{3-}$	<b>Bare</b>	$1.11\cdot 10^{-3}$	0.135	49
	<b>CNDs/ Nf</b>	$4.18\cdot 10^{-3}$	0.021	5000
	<b>CQDs/ Nf</b>	$3.74\cdot 10^{-3}$	0.013	33846
	<b>GQDs/ Nf</b>	$3.80\cdot 10^{-3}$	0.021	10000
Dopamine	<b>Bare</b>	$1.60\cdot 10^{-4}$	0.010	47230
	<b>CNDs/ Nf</b>	$5.27\cdot 10^{-4}$	0.030	1743
	<b>CQDs/ Nf</b>	$5.63\cdot 10^{-4}$	0.025	6452
	<b>GQDs/ Nf</b>	$6.85\cdot 10^{-4}$	0.019	9231

$k^{0'}$  (electron transfer rate constant); A (electroactive area); Cdl (double-layer capacitance).

1 To elucidate which electrochemical mechanisms are undertaken for each of the three  
2 redox probes used in these nanodot-modified SPCEs, the following observations can be  
3 considered:

4 According to the influence from: *i*) the nanodot surface (several oxygenated functional  
5 groups), in which the ferricyanide probe displays for CNDs a higher electron transfer rate  
6 in comparison to those graphitized nanodots likely due to the high accessibility of  
7 defective sites (superficial oxygenated moieties) on its spherical surface, thus also  
8 enhancing electrostatic interactions with dopamine (high *A*); *ii*) the nanodot core  
9 (different nanostructures and carbon hybridization degrees), where both *A* and electron  
10 transfer rate were higher for the amorphous CNDs when the outer-sphere redox probe  
11 ruthenium complex was checked, suggesting so a higher density of electronic states, here  
12 related with ratio edge plane sites and defects (possibly from carbonyl bonds) at this  
13 electrode surface; *iii*) specific interactions with dopamine, where GQD/Nf electrode  
14 displays the higher electron transfer rate as a result of the electrostatic interactions  
15 between the carboxyl nanosheets and the cationic dopamine reinforced by  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interactions  
16 which contributed more extensively than the other non-covalent forces previously  
17 mentioned.

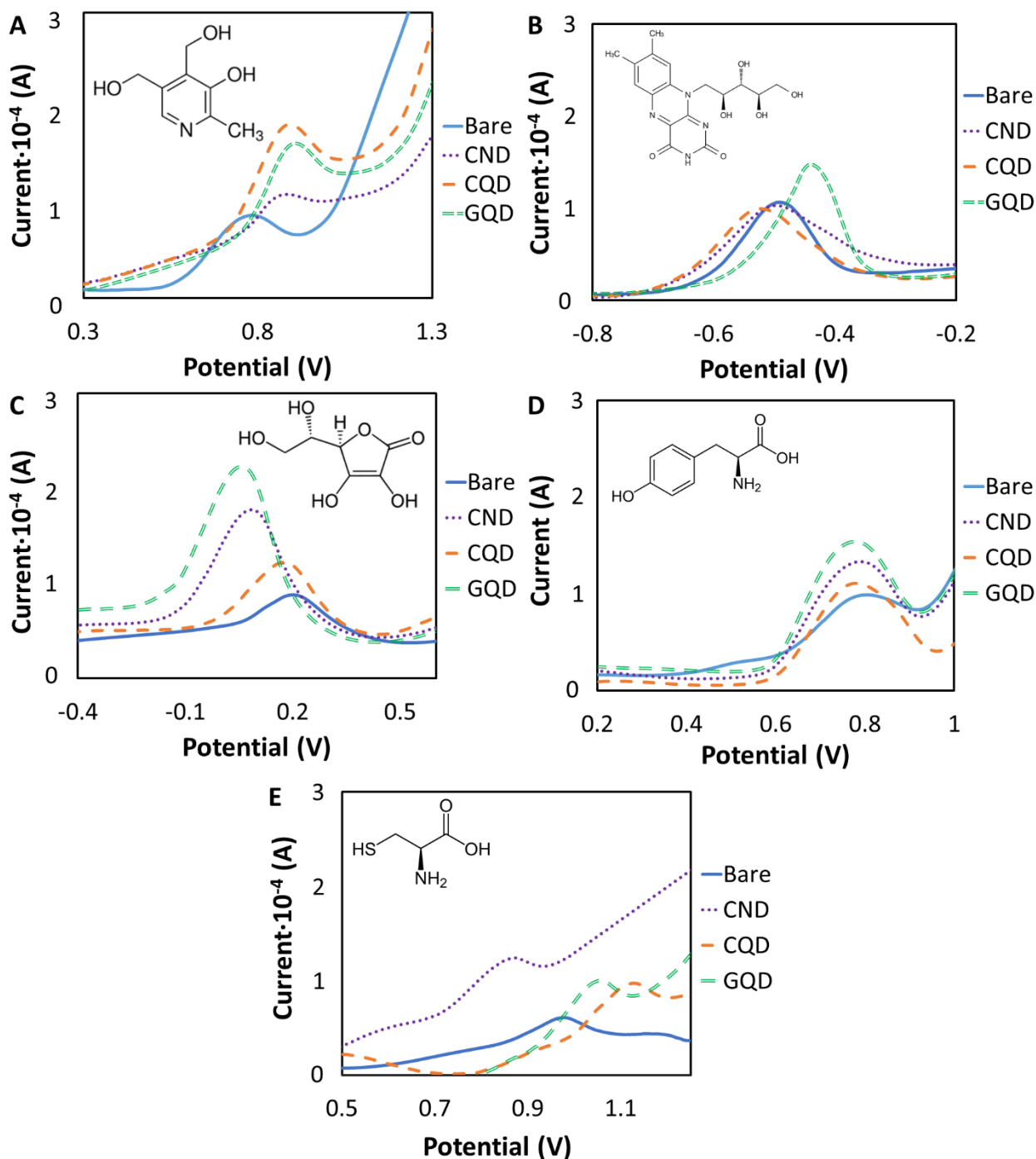
18 As concluding remarks of these experience, the modification of SPCE with such  
19 nanodots clearly introduces carbon-oxygen functionalities, which has been proved by  
20 better electrochemical dopamine responses, besides an increase of reactive edge plane  
21 sites and defects, with a great influence on electron transfer kinetic and *A*, especially for  
22 CND/Nf and GQD/Nf (attending to electrostatic and  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interactions).

23 *3.4. Electrochemical study of relevant biological molecules on CND-SPCEs, CQD-*  
24 *SPCEs and GQD-SPCEs*

1 DPV was the chosen technique to investigate the electrochemical response of such  
2 nanodots as sensing modifiers versus relevant biological molecules like vitamins  
3 (namely, ascorbic acid, riboflavin and pyridoxine) and amino acids (e.g. tyrosine and  
4 cysteine) usually very common in a wide variety of nutritional commercial supplements.

5 The sensing of these essential dietary components is of great importance to define and  
6 check the limits of dosages for consumer safety in nutritional supplements, since over  
7 their legal limits these components may provoke potential negative side effects. Thus  
8 quick, economic, and sensitive methods for vitamins and amino acids detection are  
9 required to assure product quality with an efficient legal and regulatory compliance.  
10 Currently, liquid chromatography is the most extended technique for simultaneous  
11 determination of vitamins in a variety of matrices. Herein, we open a cheap and accurate  
12 possibility for their simultaneous determination in dietary supplements after the valuable  
13 electrochemical characterization and application of the three studied carbon-nanodots.

14 DPV profiles of target compounds are depicted in **Fig. 4** using KCl (0.1 M) as electrolyte  
15 for ascorbic acid, tyrosine, and cysteine, and HNO<sub>3</sub> (0.05 M) for riboflavin and  
16 pyridoxine.



1

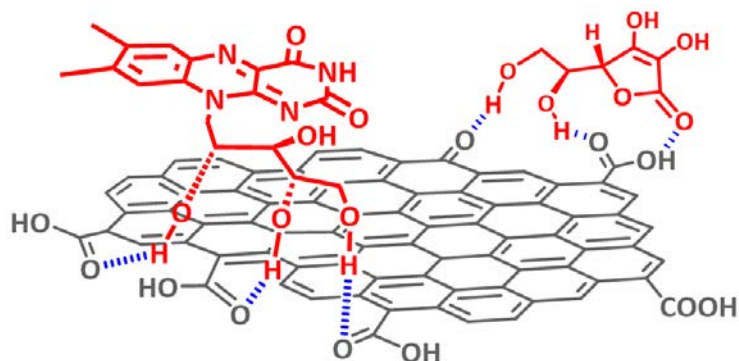
2 **Fig. 4.** DPV profiles of CND/Nf, CQD/Nf and GQD/Nf electrodes for 1 mM pyridoxine (A), 0.3 mM  
 3 riboflavin (B), 5 mM ascorbic acid (C), 1 mM tyrosine (D) and 5 mM cysteine (E). Electrolyte for A and  
 4 B was 0.05 M HNO<sub>3</sub> and 0.1 M KCl for C, D and E.

5 As it can be seen, all CQD/Nf, CND/Nf and GQD/Nf electrodes showed higher oxidation  
 6 peak currents than the bare electrode for all molecules; of special interest is the detection  
 7 of riboflavin, in which a markedly high peak current was found for GQD/Nf in



1 comparison to CQD/Nf and CND/Nf electrodes which displayed oxidation peak currents  
2 similar to the bare one. These results agree with the higher conductivity of the single  
3 graphenic layer in GQD owing to the  $sp^2$ -carbon hybridization. It should be highlighted  
4 that GQD/Nf electrode is the one presenting a better electrochemical behavior in terms of  
5 better sensitivity and/or shifting potentials of the target analytes for their detection,  
6 especially for riboflavin and ascorbic acid. In relation to vitamin C detection, two  
7 important aspects came out: *i*) it was possible to increase the sensitivity, and *ii*) the  
8 oxidation of the analyte moved to a lower potential value. Overall, the relevant degree of  
9 oxidation of the modified surface is a key factor for promoting the hydrogen bonding with  
10 the target analytes. In addition, the  $sp^2$  framework seems to play an important role for  
11 enhancing the  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interactions with the aromatic rings of such organic molecules resulting  
12 in higher intensity signals. Interestingly, vitamins B2 and B6 containing electron-  
13 deficient heterocycles interacted strongly to those electrode surfaces based on graphitized  
14 nanodots (e.g. pyridoxine peak is more intense for CQD and GQDs whilst riboflavin peak  
15 is more intense for GQDs). Regarding ascorbate, the voltammetric response was strongly  
16 dependent on the electrode modification, finding that the anodic peak potential appeared  
17 at higher intensity for GQD as well as exceptionally shifted its potential to forward values  
18 (very close 0 V). Attending to checked literature [36], it is due to the charge transfer from  
19 the 2-furanone derivative to the graphenic nanolayers which acted as a better electron  
20 acceptor. In the detection of cysteine, the peak intensity was still low although it was  
21 improved compared to the bare one; besides, it is better defined and forwarded in the  
22 CNDs electrode. Overall, these results indicate the importance of hydrogens bonding  
23 (caused by surfaced oxygenated functionalities) and the  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interactions (from graphenic  
24 nanosheets) as main contributions to enhance the detection of various targeted molecules.

1 This behavior is shown in **Fig. 5** that illustrates the interactions of GQD on the electrode  
2 surface and riboflavin and ascorbic acid as representative analytes.



3

4 **Fig. 5.** Schematic illustration of the possible interactions between riboflavin and ascorbic acid  
5 (red) and GQDs electrode surface (grey). Hydrogen bonds and  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interactions are depicted in  
6 blue and green, respectively.

7

### 8 *3.5. Electroanalytical performance characteristics*

9 Concerning some of these relevant biological analytes, figures of merits were evaluated  
10 to check the electroanalytical capabilities of these carbon nanodots-electrodes as sensing  
11 electrochemical modifiers by their application in real samples.

12 Firstly, precision of the three modified electrodes was evaluated by means of repeatability  
13 and reproducibility studies of both current and potential peak values for the  
14 electrochemical sensing of riboflavin and tyrosine as target analytes. The obtained results  
15 are displayed in **Table 2**.

16 **Table 2.** Repeatability and reproducibility results for the electrochemical sensing of  
17 riboflavin and tyrosine.

Repeatability		n	GQD	CQD	CND
<b>Riboflavin</b>	Current	9	2.8	3.2	3.4
	Potential	9	1.3	1.1	1.4
<b>Tyrosine</b>	Current	9	8.8	7.0	9.1
	Potential	9	0.4	0.8	0.7
Reproducibility		n	GQD	CQD	CND
<b>Riboflavin</b>	Current	4	0.9	3.1	1.4
	Potential	4	0.7	1.9	1.9
<b>Tyrosine</b>	Current	4	3.3	4.6	6.5
	Potential	4	1.0	0.8	1.2

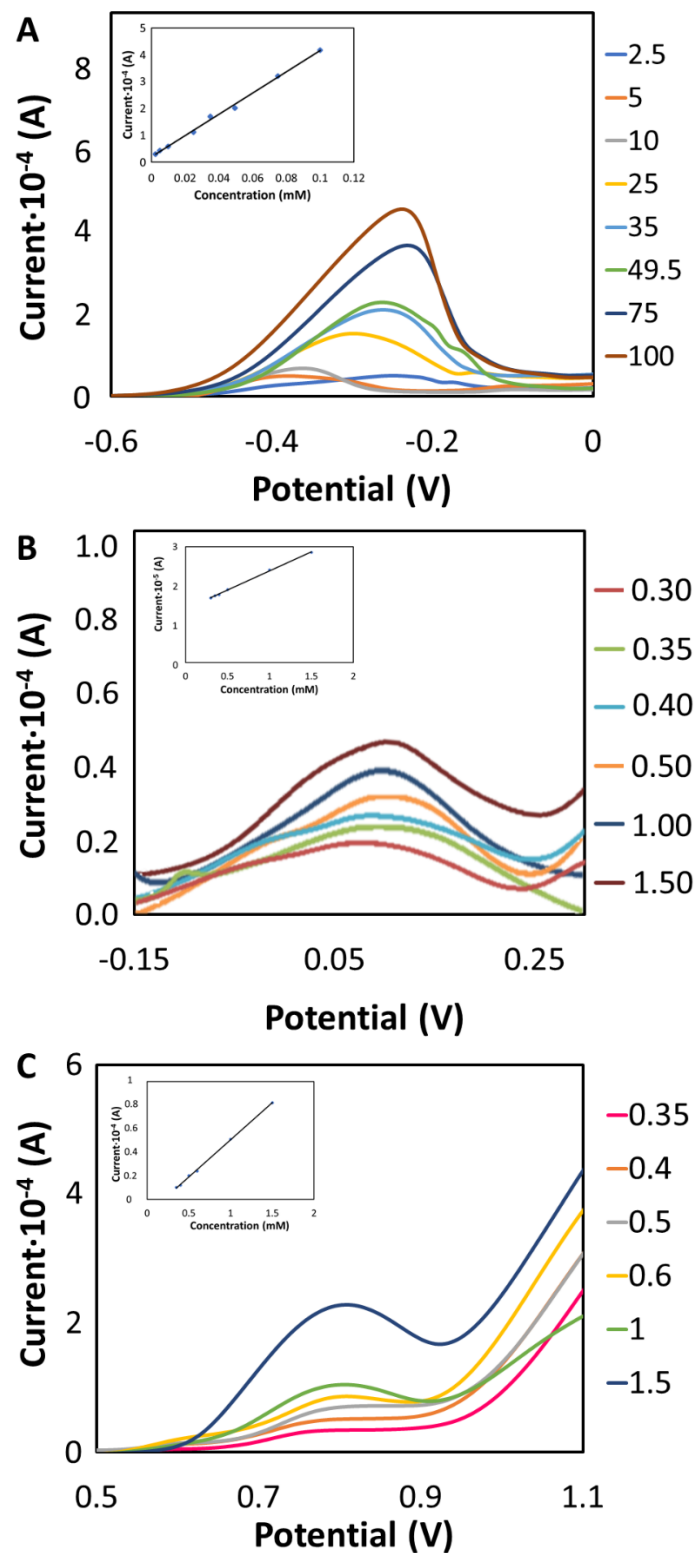
1 Concerning repeatability (same electrode, n=9), the relative standard deviation (RSD)  
2 values about potential peak for riboflavin were excellent, between 1.1 and 1.4%, while  
3 for tyrosine were in the range of 0.4 - 0.8%, which was especially meaningful with the  
4 perspective of simultaneous targets sensing. Reproducibility studies (four electrodes,  
5 n=4) provided RSD values in the ranges of 0.7% - 1.9% and 0.8% - 1.2% for riboflavin  
6 and tyrosine, respectively. These results evidenced the good precision of the electrodes  
7 considering a potential manufacturing process (batch-to-batch evaluation).

8 The linear behavior was checked for the electrochemical sensing of riboflavin, ascorbic  
9 acid, and tyrosine in KCl 0.1 M using the GQD/Nf screen printed electrode (**Fig. 6**),  
10 achieving the following linear fits:

11 **Riboflavin**  $I_p = [1.94 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 4.47 \cdot 10^{-6}] + [3.96 \cdot 10^{-3} \pm 8.93 \cdot 10^{-5}] \cdot C(\text{mM}) \quad r^2 = 0.997$

12 **Ascorbic acid**  $I_p = [1.39 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 1.78 \cdot 10^{-7}] + [9.90 \cdot 10^{-6} \pm 2.31 \cdot 10^{-7}] \cdot C(\text{mM}) \quad r^2 = 0.997$

13 **Tyrosine**  $I_p = [-1.23 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 8.44 \cdot 10^{-7}] + [6.30 \cdot 10^{-5} \pm 1.04 \cdot 10^{-6}] \cdot C(\text{mM}) \quad r^2 = 0.999$



1

2 **Fig. 6.** DPV responses and calibration plots (insets) of riboflavin (A), ascorbic acid (B) and tyrosine (C).

3

4 Detection limits (LOD) for riboflavin, ascorbic acid and tyrosine were found to be of 0.83

5  $\mu\text{M}$ , 0.1 mM and 0.12 mM respectively, whereas their corresponding quantification limits

1 (LOQ) were 2.50  $\mu\text{M}$ , 0.30 mM and 0.35 mM, respectively. Initially, these parameters  
2 were calculated according to IUPAC criterion, being LOD the blank signal plus three  
3 times its standard deviation and LOQ the blank signal plus ten times its standard  
4 deviation. Then, both limits were adjusted experimentally getting lower LOD and LOQ  
5 values. Reached LOD values were significantly lower than other previously reported  
6 using similar carbon nano-based sensing materials (**Table 3**).

7

1 **Table 3.** Comparative evaluation of the proposed method amongst other carbon-based electrochemical sensing approaches.

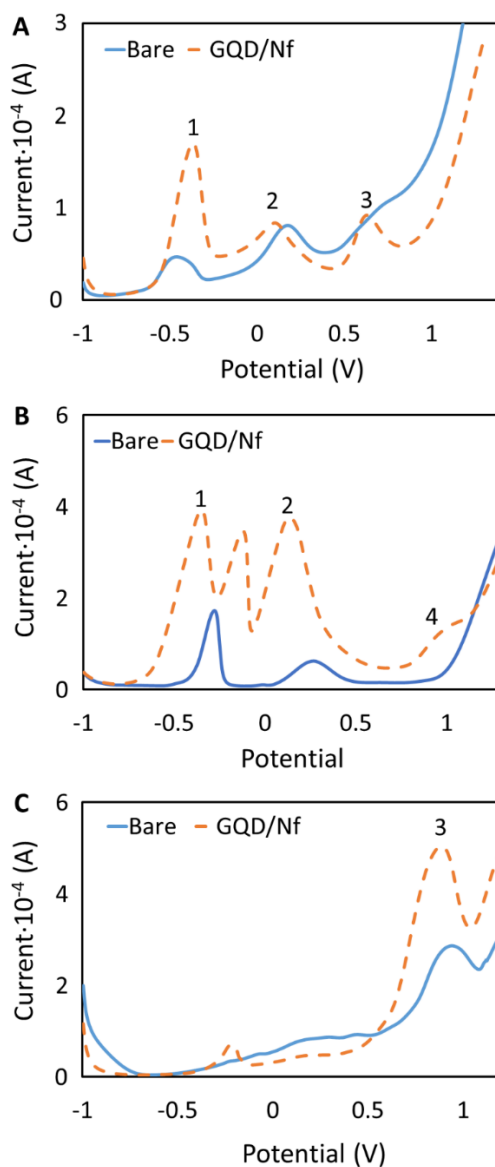
Type of electrode	Electrode modification	Analytes	Electroanalytical performance	Simultaneous detection	LOD (mM)	Samples	Ref.
SPCE	-Graphene	Ascorbic acid (AA) Uric acid (UA) Dopamine (DA)	LOD Linearity	No	0.35 (AA) No reported	No	[8]
BPPGE <sup>a</sup>	-CQDs -GQDs	Ascorbic acid (AA) Uric acid (UA)	Qualitative	No	No reported No reported	No	[23]
GCE <sup>b</sup>	-Graphene oxide (GO) nanoribbons -Reduced GO nanoribbons	Ascorbic acid (AA) Uric acid (UA) Dopamine (DA)	Qualitative Precision	Yes	0.50 (AA) 0.05 (UA) 0.05 (DA)	Yes	[34]
		<i>L</i> -tyrosine (L-tyr) Uric acid (UA)			1.0 (UA) 1.0 (L-Tyr)		
SPCE	-GQDs	Riboflavine (Rib)	Linearity Lower LOD, LOQ Precision	Yes	8.3·10 <sup>-4</sup> (Rib) 0.10 (AA) 0.12 (L-Tyr)	Yes	This work
	-CQDs -CNDs	Ascorbic acid (AA) <i>L</i> -tyrosine (L-Tyr) Pyridoxine		No			

<sup>a</sup> BPPGE: Basal-plane pyrolytic graphite electrode; <sup>b</sup> GCE: Glassy carbon electrode

1 *3.6 Application to commercial nutritional supplements*

2 Attending to the electrocatalytic behavior displayed by the three modified nanodots  
3 electrodes, the GQD/Nf one was selected to attain the simultaneous detection of three  
4 vitamins (C, B2 and B6) in the commercial nutritional supplement Vitax, of two vitamins  
5 (C, B2) and tyrosine in the supplement Mincartil and of tyrosine in the commercial sports  
6 supplement L-Tyrosine BioTech. In all cases, the working samples were prepared upon  
7 advices of their recommended daily amounts (section “Reagents and solutions”).

8 The DPV profiles of Mincartil, Vitax and L-Tyrosine BioTech samples are depicted in  
9 **Fig. 7**, finding RSD values (n=5) for riboflavin (Mincartil) of 4.2 (I<sub>p</sub>) and 3.1% (E<sub>p</sub>), for  
10 ascorbic acid (Vitax) of 1.6 (I<sub>p</sub>) and 1.1% (E<sub>p</sub>), and for tyrosine (L-Tyrosine Biotech) of  
11 4.6 (I<sub>p</sub>) and 0.7 % (E<sub>p</sub>), respectively.



1

2 **Fig. 7.** Voltammograms for Mincartil in 0.1 M KCl (A), Vitax in 0.05 M HNO<sub>3</sub> (B) and L-tyrosine BioTech  
 3 (C) in 0.1 M KCl using the GQD/Nf electrodes. Peaks marked as 1, 2, 3 and 4 refer to the analytical signal  
 4 of riboflavin, ascorbic acid, tyrosine, and pyridoxine, respectively.

5 Many of these molecules are usually oxidized at very close potentials; then,  
 6 discrimination between these species in a mixture can be extremely difficult. Herein, this  
 7 point has been successfully afforded since riboflavin, ascorbic acid and tyrosine peaks  
 8 were especially well-resolved by this simple approach.

9 Thus, GQDs have proved to be an excellent modifier of SPCEs for the simultaneous  
 10 electrochemical sensing of complex mixtures of target analytes from diverse nature in



1 commercial nutritional supplements. Thus, from the comparative evaluation displayed in  
2 **Fig. 5** for Mincartil and /or Vitax, it is observed that an increase in sensitivity and  
3 forwarded peaks are always achieved with the GQD electrode enabling even the  
4 electrochemical sensing of tyrosine and pyridoxine, very disabled in the bare one.

5 Furthermore, **Table 3** shows a comparison of the proposed GQDs sensing approach with  
6 other already existing carbon nano-based electrochemical ones, in which its advantages  
7 are evidenced in terms of simultaneous detection for diverse bioanalytes and lower LOD,  
8 among others.

#### 9 **4. Conclusions**

10 This work has revealed the usefulness of modifying SPCE with the emerged carbon-based  
11 nanodots as potential analytical tools. Results showed diverse electrocatalytic activity for  
12 electrodes containing GQDs, CQDs or CNDs with same oxygenated superficial groups  
13 based on their ratio reactive edge-plane sites and defects in their respective cores.  
14 Differences were also found regarding the chemico-physical interactions responsible of  
15 the electrochemical sensing toward a variety of amino acids and vitamins as target  
16 molecules.

17 Remarkably, GQD-SPCE displayed an impressive electroanalytical performance  
18 attending to hydrogen bonding (oxidation degree) and  $\pi$ - $\pi$  interactions, which was  
19 satisfactory applied for the simultaneous determination of several bioactives (vitamins  
20 B2, B6 and C and tyrosine) in nutritional supplements, discrimination that is usually  
21 difficult for their closer oxidation potentials. This point would enable even their  
22 simultaneous quantification, giving so an additional value to the proposal. Moreover,

1 LOD values obtained were significantly lower than other previously reported using  
2 similar carbon-based nanosensors.

3 This work offers then a rational survey about the electrocatalytic activity of diverse  
4 carbon-based nanodots from different nature affording advantages in the electrode  
5 preparation (by simple drop-casting modification of the SPCEs) with a good batch-to-  
6 batch reproducibility, which are of great consideration for their further potential  
7 manufacturing. With that research, we try to search new possibilities for the design of  
8 electrochemical sensors based on functionalized GQDs depending on the specific  
9 chemistry of various target analytes to find also an effective resolution of the mixtures in  
10 complex samples with an improved sensitivity.

## 11 **Acknowledgements**

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17

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