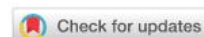




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Electrodeposition of nickel nanoflowers on screen-printed electrodes and their application to non-enzymatic determination of sugars



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**Electrodeposition of nickel nanoflowers on screen-printed
electrodes and its application to non-enzymatic determination of
sugars**

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27 **ABSTRACT**

28 In this work, the electrodeposition of nickel on screen-printed carbon electrodes was carried
29 out. As the main novelty, a galvanostatic electrodeposition methodology (application of a
30 constant current for a specific time) was chosen to perform the electrodeposition from a Ni(II)
31 solution. Interestingly, these conditions were able to generate nickel nanoflowers of 160 nm all
32 over the surface. The nickel nanoflowers showed a great electrocatalytic effect towards the
33 oxidation of reducing sugars. After the characterization of the electrode surface and the
34 optimization of the experimental conditions, the non-enzymatic electrochemical device was
35 employed for the determination of reducing sugars. A linear range of 25-1000 μM was obtained,
36 showing good performance for the determination of sugars at low concentrations. The
37 reproducibility was 5.5% (intraelectrode) and 6.9% (interelectrode), indicating a high precision
38 using the same or different devices. After the fabrication, the electrode is stable at least for 35
39 days, even using the same device to carry out measurements on different days. Real food
40 samples such as honey and orange juice were also evaluated with the nickel nanoflowers
41 electrochemical device.

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50 **KEYWORDS:** Nickel nanoflowers, Sugars, Electrodeposition, Non-enzymatic detection,

51 Screen-printed electrodes

52

53 **1. INTRODUCTION**

54 Glucose determination is a constant concern for the scientific community due to that the
55 diagnostic of diabetes mellitus disease has increased in the last years, and over 552 million
56 patients are estimated to have this disease in 2030¹. Furthermore, the determination of sugars
57 in food, most importantly, glucose and fructose, has a great interest for the food industry in
58 order to evaluate the nutritional information or to control the quality of the production. The
59 most employed techniques for sugar determination are refractometry, densitometry, titration
60 and for speciation analysis, high performance liquid chromatography². These techniques have
61 some disadvantages compared to electrochemical detection such as the bulky and more
62 expensive instrumentation, large sample consumption and, generally, trained personnel is
63 necessary to carry out the analyses. Electrochemical sensors have been widely employed for
64 glucose determination, specially using enzyme-modified electrodes^{3,4}. This kind of sensors
65 have some drawbacks such as the need to control exhaustively the experimental conditions such
66 as pH or temperature. Changes in these conditions may cause a change in the stability of the
67 enzyme and, therefore, in the performance of the sensor. For these reasons, the development of
68 non-enzymatic devices for glucose determination is a relentless subject of study^{5,6}. Many
69 nanomaterials have shown a strong catalytic effect towards sugars oxidation such as Pt, Cu or
70 Au⁶. Currently, these non-enzymatic nanostructured electrodes are widely used in the food
71 industry, particularly in the area of food safety, traceability and quality control, as they provide
72 low detection limits and high stability⁷. Nanostructured electrodes have several advantages such
73 as providing a more active surface, enhancing the electron transfer and may show catalytic
74 properties towards different electrochemical reactions. For instance, different nickel
75 nanomaterials have shown a catalytic effect towards the oxidation of reducing sugars. Nickel
76 nanoparticles seems to be the most employed for the non-enzymatic determination of sugars
77 using different strategies such as the addition to a carbon paste electrode⁸, embedded in a
78 chitosan membrane⁹ or electrodeposited on boron-doped diamond electrodes¹⁰. Nickel

79 nanowires have also shown a strong catalytic effect and have been employed for sugar
80 determination coupled to a glassy carbon electrode¹¹, to disposable electrodes¹² or in a nanowire
81 array strategy¹³. However, nickel nanoflowers (NiNFs) have not been used as broadly for
82 electroanalytical applications, and instead, they have shown interesting features for batteries¹⁴
83 or supercapacitors¹⁵. However, the high surface area of these flower-like nanoparticles could
84 lead to promising analytical applications. Non-enzymatic glucose electrochemical devices
85 based on nickel oxide or hydroxide nanoflowers have been previously published^{16,17}, but the
86 complex synthesis of the nanoflowers by a hydrothermal method and also the complex
87 modification of the electrode surface, does not allow the fast generation of simple, small and
88 low-cost electrochemical devices. For instance, Ibupoto et al.¹⁶ synthesized NiO nanoflowers
89 after growing Ni(OH)₂ on a gold substrate in alkaline media for 4-6 hours at 98 °C and annealing
90 for 2-3 hours at 450 °C. Yang et al.¹⁷ synthesized Ni(OH)₂ nanoflowers by heating at 45 °C for
91 2 hours an ammoniacal solution of nickel hexaammine. The product was washed and dried for
92 one day. Electrode modification was carried out by drop-casting using a dispersion obtained
93 after mixing the nickel-based product with carbon nanotubes in a solution of Nafion in ethanol
94 by ultrasonication. Therefore, the development of an easier synthesis and modification of nickel
95 nanoflowers on electrodes would be a very interesting methodology to study the performance
96 of this nickel nanomaterial for electroanalytical applications.

97
98 Screen-printed electrodes are devices comprising a 3-electrode electrochemical cell on a small
99 card, which can be mass produced reducing the fabrication cost and generating a reproducible
100 disposable surface. The low-cost, small size and the integrated electrochemical cell are ideal
101 characteristics of these electrodes, which result in a very convenient platform for sensing
102 devices. Nickel-based screen-printed electrodes (SPEs) have also been employed for sugars
103 determination. For instance, García et al.¹² employed SPEs modified by drop-casting with
104 nickel nanowires and the fabricated devices were used for the determination of total

105 carbohydrates in several food samples. The good stability of the modification allowed them to
106 use the devices in a flow-injection analysis system for semi-automatic detection. In a similar
107 work, the same authors evaluated the possibility to use nickel-copper nanowires, but they found
108 that the nickel nanowires were most suitable as the fabrication was simpler¹⁸. Several nickel-
109 carbon composites have been reported as useful materials for the modification of the SPE
110 surface in order to determine glucose in different samples. A Ni/nanoporous carbon composite¹⁹
111 has been employed for the modification of the working screen-printed electrode. The
112 nanoporous carbon material has a high surface area, which increases significantly the available
113 electrode area. In other work, a composite formed by graphene oxide, chitosan and Ni(II) was
114 simultaneously electrodeposited by multiple cathodic cyclic voltammetry on the SPE surface
115 generating an interesting structure composed by reduced graphene oxide, chitosan and nickel
116 nanoparticles²⁰. Nickel paste have also been mixed with carbon ink in order to obtain a material
117 appropriate for screen-printing the working electrode on a ITO substrate²¹. This way, nickel-
118 based devices are fabricated directly and the modification of the electrode surface is not
119 necessary, although the electrochemical activation of the working electrode is still required. A
120 hybrid Ni-Co hydroxide material was simultaneously deposited on the surface of SPEs as
121 reported in Lien et al. work²². The addition of Co seems to decrease the potential needed for
122 the detection of glucose, although severe interferences by other species is found. An interesting
123 device is reported by Niu et al.²³. Electrodeposition of nickel is performed in severe conditions
124 (0.2 M Ni(II), 1 M H₂SO₄) applying a high current to the electrode (0.1 A for 30 s). In these
125 conditions, nickel is electrodeposited on the electrode surface while a great amount of hydrogen
126 bubbles is generated and a three-dimensional porous nickel structure is created on the electrode
127 surface. Although, promising analytical characteristics are found, only the working electrode is
128 a small, portable screen-printed electrode, and the system uses a conventional electrochemical
129 cell with conventional auxiliary and reference electrodes, decreasing its usefulness for in situ
130 analysis. As SPEs typically have a solid quasireference electrode, in certain experimental

131 conditions, applying a constant potential or a potential sweep (potentiostatic/potentiodynamic
132 methods) may not be the best choice for the electrodeposition of nanomaterials.
133 Electrochemical reactions occurring in the electrode-solution interface are processes strongly
134 affected by the electrode surface, and a small change of the electrode surface may cause a big
135 change in the electrochemical reactivity. A good alternative is the electrodeposition by a
136 galvanostatic method (application of a constant current), since, in this case, the
137 electrodeposition is controlled by the current flowing between the working and counter
138 electrodes. This methodology has already been successfully applied for gold nanoparticles
139 electrodeposition with a high control of size and density or for the reduction of graphene oxides
140 on SPEs^{24,25}. As far as we know, studies about the electrodeposition of nickel nanoflowers on
141 screen-printed electrodes using a galvanostatic method have not been reported.

142
143 In this work, we carried out the electrodeposition of nickel on the surface of screen-printed
144 carbon electrodes. As a novelty, a galvanostatic electrodeposition method was employed, which
145 allows a fast and simple generation of nickel nanoflowers on screen-printed electrodes. The
146 screen-printed electrodes modified with nickel nanoflowers (NiNFSPEs) were employed for
147 the non-enzymatic determination of reducing sugars.

148

149 **2. METHODS AND MATERIALS**

150 **2.1. Apparatus and electrodes**

151 Electrochemical measurements were performed with an Autolab PGSTAT10
152 potentiostat/galvanostat controlled by GPES 4.9 software. All measurements were carried out
153 at room temperature. Screen-printed carbon cards (Ref. DRP-110) were purchased from
154 DropSens (Spain). Each card is formed by a 3-electrode electrochemical cell with carbon-based
155 working and counter electrodes, whereas quasireference electrode and electric contacts are
156 fabricated in silver. The diameter of the working electrode was 4 mm. Screen-printed electrodes

157 were connected to the potentiostat through a specific connector, DRP-DSC. A JEOL 6610LV
158 scanning electron microscope was used to characterize the electrodes modified with the nickel
159 nanoflowers. X-ray photoelectron measurements were performed on a SPCEs Phoibos
160 150/MCD-5 spectrometer, using monochromatic Al K α excitation source with an energy of
161 1486.74 eV. The survey and high-resolution spectra were collected with 90 eV and 30 eV of pass energy
162 and 1 eV and 0.1 eV of step energy, respectively.

163

164 **2.2. Reagents and solutions**

165 Glucose, absolute ethanol, sodium hydroxide and sodium chloride were purchased from Merck.
166 Fructose, xylose, arabinose, mannose, galactose, glycerol, ascorbic acid, lactic acid, citric acid
167 and nickel(II) sulfate hexahydrate were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Ultrapure water
168 obtained with a Millipore Direct Q5 purification system from Millipore Ibérica was used
169 throughout this work. All other reagents were of analytical grade. Working solutions of Ni(II)
170 were prepared in 0.1 M NaCl. Working solutions of sugars and interfering species were
171 prepared in 0.1 M NaOH.

172

173 **2.3. Electrode modification with nickel nanoflowers**

174 Nickel nanoflowers were electrodeposited on screen-printed carbon electrodes by a
175 galvanostatic method. 40 μ L of a 10 mM Ni(II) solution was dropped in the electrochemical
176 cell and a constant current of -25 μ A was applied for 60 s. Ni(II) is reduced to Ni(0), which is
177 deposited on the carbon surface. In contact with air, the surface of the deposited Ni(0) is
178 spontaneously oxidized (passivated) to Ni(II) oxides and hydroxides. In order to stabilize the
179 nickel-modified surface, a pretreatment applying 50 cycles of cyclic voltammetry from +0.2 V
180 to +0.7 V in a 0.1 M NaOH solution was performed (100 mV/s).

181

182 **2.4. Chronoamperometric measurements**

183 Chronoamperometric measurements for the determination of sugars were carried out by
184 applying a constant potential of +0.6 V for 100 s. The current measured at 100 s was chosen as
185 the analytical signal.

186

187 **2.5. Sample preparation**

188 For the orange juice samples, 1 μL of sample was diluted in 1 mL of 0.1 M NaOH solution.
189 Several samples with different added amounts of glucose were prepared in order to carry out
190 the determination by the standard additions method.

191

192 For the honey samples, 1.0020 ± 0.0001 g of honey is diluted in 50 mL of H_2O . Then, 100 μL
193 of this solution is diluted 1:400 in 0.1 M NaOH. Several samples with different added amounts
194 of glucose were prepared in order to carry out the determination by the standard additions
195 method.

196

197 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

198 **3.1. Characterization of nickel nanoflowers-modified screen-printed electrodes**

199 The electrodeposition of nickel on screen-printed carbon electrodes was studied using cyclic
200 voltammetry. Figure 1 shows the voltammograms for different concentration of Ni(II) (0, 10
201 and 20 mM) in a 0.1 M NaCl solution. For all cases, two cathodic processes are observed, a
202 process with a peak potential at about -1.0 V, which it is attributed to the oxygen reduction (also
203 observed in the blank solution), and a process with a peak potential at -1.25 V, attributed to the
204 Ni(II) to Ni(0) reduction. The backward curve crossed the forward curve as it is typically found
205 for an electrodeposition process. Therefore, the nickel electrodeposition can be carried out
206 under these experimental conditions using screen-printed electrodes. However, as mentioned
207 in the introduction, the screen-printed cards have a silver quasireference electrode, and the
208 applied potential could be slightly different for different electrodes (or it could shift in the same

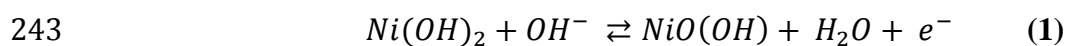
209 measurement). Surface processes such as electrodeposition can be very sensitive to these
210 potential changes, and therefore, different amounts/density of metal may be electrodeposited
211 using a potentiostatic/potentiodynamic method. In order to minimize these issues, a
212 galvanostatic method was chosen for the electrodeposition of nickel on the screen-printed
213 electrode surface. A comparison between the galvanostatic and the potentiostatic methods is
214 presented in the Supporting Information, under similar electrodeposition conditions. Although
215 a comparable electrocatalytic effect observed, a slightly better reproducibility is found for blank
216 solution using the galvanostatic method, even carrying out the electrodeposition in mild
217 conditions for the silver quasireference electrode (0.1 M NaCl aqueous solution).

218
219 [FIGURE 1]
220

221 Therefore, the nickel electrodeposition was performed by applying a constant current of $-25 \mu\text{A}$
222 for 60 s on a 10 mM Ni(II) solution in 0.1 M NaCl, and the modified electrode was
223 characterized. The chronopotentiogram obtained for the galvanostatic electrodeposition is
224 shown in the Figure S1. The potential taken by the electrode at the beginning is about -0.75 V .
225 This potential is not kept constant and varies quickly until a value of -0.94 V at 10 s. As
226 described previously, the first process occurring could be due to the oxygen reduction.
227 However, the nickel reduction could also be produced at these potentials. When the oxygen
228 concentration decreases, the potential reaches -0.94 V , which is likely due only to the reduction
229 of Ni(II) to Ni(0). From 10 s to the end of the current application, the potential remains
230 practically constant (varying only from -0.94 to -0.91 V), suggesting that not all the Ni(II) in
231 solution is electrodeposited under these conditions. If this were the case, a new decrement in
232 the potential should happen. As the Figure 2 shows, the cyclic voltammetry of the modified
233 electrode in 0.1 M NaOH showed an anodic process at $+0.60 \text{ V}$ and a cathodic process at $+0.34$
234 V (Figure 2A). NaOH is an electrolytic medium widely employed for the non-enzymatic

235 electrochemical detection of sugars because it has been demonstrated that OH⁻ ions in the
236 solution play a crucial role in the reaction²⁶. The observed processes are assigned to the
237 oxidation of Ni(II) to Ni(III) and its correspondent reduction (equation 1). The generation of
238 Ni(II) on the electrode surface from the electrodeposited Ni(0) could happen by two ways: on
239 the one hand, the application of positive potentials (by the cyclic voltammetry) in a NaOH
240 medium could easily oxidize Ni(0) to oxygenated Ni(II), and on the other hand, the spontaneous
241 oxidation of Ni(0) to Ni(II) by atmospheric oxygen has been proposed previously^{27,28}.

242



244

245 [FIGURE 2]

246

247 The Ni(II)/Ni(III) redox process in 0.1 M NaOH was studied at different scan rates. Figure 2B
248 shows the electrochemical response with increasing scan rates (10, 25, 50, 75, 100, 250, 500
249 mV/s). An increment in the peak potential difference is observed with increasing scan rates as
250 expected for a quasireversible electrochemical process. Furthermore, a linear relationship
251 between the peak currents and the scan rate up to 50 mV/s is found (Figure S2), indicating a
252 surface-confined process for the reaction of adsorbed Ni(OH)₂/NiO(OH). However, a linear
253 relationship between the peak currents and the square root of the scan rate is found at higher
254 scan rates (Figure S3). This fact could indicate that the reaction at these scan rates is controlled
255 by the diffusion of OH⁻ (involved in the reaction as indicated in equation 1) to/from the
256 electrode surface, as has been previously found by other authors⁸. At lower scan rates, the flow
257 of OH⁻ to the surface is high enough to observe the characteristics of the adsorbed nickel film.
258 Therefore, with the data obtained at low scan rates, the adsorbed concentration of nickel was
259 estimated using the following equation 2:

260
$$i_p = \frac{n^2 F^2 A \Gamma^*}{4RT} \quad (2)$$

261

262 where i_p is the peak current, n is the number of electrons exchanged in the electrochemical
263 reaction, A is the electrode area, Γ^* is the surface concentration, R is the gas constant, T is the
264 absolute temperature and v is the scan rate of the cyclic voltammetry. The adsorbed amount of
265 nickel on the screen-printed surface was 7.9×10^{-9} moles and considering the geometric area of
266 the electrode the surface concentration was 6.6×10^{-7} mol/cm². The expected nickel amount
267 deposited in the electrodeposition step can be estimated considering the transferred charge (Q
268 = $i t$), which in these conditions ($-25 \mu\text{A}$ for 60 s) was 1.5 mC. Then, the amount of nickel can
269 be calculated by the Faraday laws using equation 3, where m is the amount of nickel (g), M is
270 the molar mass (g/mol), Q is the charge transferred (C), n is the number of electrons exchanged
271 and F is the Faraday constant (96480 C/mol). The estimated amount of nickel electrodeposited
272 was of 7.8×10^{-9} moles. This value is very close to the estimated with the voltammetric peak,
273 suggesting that all the applied current is employed for the electrodeposition of nickel on the
274 electrode surface and, besides, the electrodeposited nickel is stable and stick to the electrode
275 surface. The surface concentration found in our device for the optimal conditions (660
276 nmol/cm²) seems a higher value than other published works where this concentration was
277 estimated. For instance, Hutton et al.¹⁰ reported a boron-doped diamond electrode modified
278 with 20 nmol/cm² of Ni(OH)₂ nanoparticles as the optimal surface concentration or Sharifi et
279 al.²⁹ reported a glassy carbon electrode modified with about 40 nmol/cm² of NiO nanoparticles.
280 In our case, a higher amount of nickel is necessary to obtain the best electrocatalytic effect than
281 for these different electrodes.

282

283
$$\frac{m}{M} = \frac{Q}{nF} \quad (3)$$

284

285 Scanning electron microscopy micrographs were obtained in order to study the morphological
286 and structural aspects of the electrodeposited nickel. Figure 3A shows different micrographs
287 for the nickel-modified screen-printed electrode. Ni was electrodeposited applying a constant
288 current of $-25 \mu\text{A}$ for 60 s on a solution of 10 mM of Ni(II) in 0.1 M NaCl. In these conditions,
289 as can be seen in the micrographs, the electrode surface is completely coated with flower-
290 shaped nickel nanoparticles. The approximate size of the nanoparticles was 160 ± 24 nm and an
291 uniform distribution is observed across the electrode surface. Furthermore, some porous
292 structure is observed between the nanoflowers, which could lead to larger surface area for the
293 electrochemical reactions. Figure 3B shows a SEM image of the NiNFSPes after performing
294 the electrochemical activation (explained in the following sections). It seems that the size and
295 morphology of the nanoflowers did not change after the electrochemical activation, and
296 therefore, the improvement observed in the measurements is probably due to some surface
297 process, as could be the generation of $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ from NiO. In a previous unpublished study, we
298 performed the electrodeposition of Ni(II) under the same conditions but using a 0.1 M
299 $\text{H}_3\text{BO}_3/\text{NaCl}$ solution (see Supporting Information). In that case, non-flower shaped spherical
300 nickel nanoparticles can be found with a size of around 130 nm (Figure 3C). Therefore, the
301 solution in which the electrodeposition is carried out is crucial to determine the shape of the
302 generated nanoparticles.

303 [FIGURE 3]

304 The oxidation state of the electrodeposited nickel was studied by XPS. Figure 4 shows the Ni
305 2p and O 1s regions of the spectrum. The peaks with binding energies of 873.2 eV and 855.8
306 eV can be tentatively assigned to Ni 2p_{1/2} and Ni 2p_{3/2} of Ni(II), respectively, and characteristic
307 of $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ ³⁰. The peak with binding energy of 861.6 eV could be assigned to a multielectron
308 excitation of Ni^{2+} , but difficult to be assigned to NiO or $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$ ³¹. The spectrum for O 1s
309 shows peaks with binding energies of 528.3 and 530.2 eV, which can be tentatively assigned to
310 O^{2-} (NiO) and OH^- ($\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$), respectively^{30,32}. These results confirm the presence of NiO and

311 Ni(OH)₂ species on the electrode surface. Comparing the O1s spectra against the obtained
312 previously for the bare electrode³³, significant differences can be observed. Two XPS peaks
313 appear for the O1s spectra for the bare electrode at around 534.2 eV (smaller intensity) and
314 531.8 eV (higher intensity), assigned to different C-O bonds. For the nickel-modified
315 electrodes, no peaks appeared at these binding energies, suggesting that the response is
316 completely due to the different Ni-O bonds.

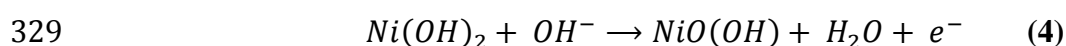
317

318 [FIGURE 4]

319

320 **3.2. Electrocatalytic effect of nickel nanoflowers towards sugars oxidation**

321 The electrocatalytic effect of nickel nanoflowers towards the oxidation of reducing sugars was
322 studied by cyclic voltammetry. Figure 5A shows the electrochemical response of NiNFSPes in
323 presence of 5 mM glucose, 5 mM fructose and a 0.1 M NaOH solution (blank). Cyclic
324 voltammetries for other reducing sugars such as arabinose, galactose, mannose and xylose are
325 shown in the Figure S4. It is easily detected as the Ni(II) to Ni(III) oxidation process is enhanced
326 in presence of the reducing sugar in the solution. However, for the Ni(III) to Ni(II) reduction
327 process a significant decrease in the peak current is observed. The catalytic oxidation of sugars
328 is attributed to the following reactions³⁴ (specified for the glucose case):



331 This mechanism is consistent with the observed electrochemical response. The NiO(OH)
332 species reacts chemically with the sugar, and, therefore, the electrochemical oxidation of
333 Ni(OH)₂ to NiO(OH) will increase to regenerate the NiO(OH) consumed by the coupled
334 chemical reaction. For this reason, an increased current flow is expected to carry out the
335 oxidation of Ni(II) to Ni(III). For the reduction process (Ni(III) to Ni(II)) and due to that the
336 sugar oxidation regenerates the Ni(II) chemically, the intensity of the electrochemical process

337 decreases as less Ni(III) will be available. Although in some works where nickel-modified
338 electrodes are used, the catalytic effect is only observed for glucose^{35,23}, in our case, the
339 electrodeposited nickel nanoflowers catalyze the oxidation of several reducing sugars. This is
340 also observed in other nickel-based electrodes previously described in the literature^{36,12,22}.
341 Studies are scarce explaining why certain nickel-based electrode materials show a catalytic
342 effect only for glucose and in other cases, it occurs for several reducing sugars. Oxidation of
343 sugars is produced as a dehydrogenation reaction, although in all reducing sugars the group
344 involved in the reaction is a hemiacetal group. Compton et al.³⁷ suggested that the
345 electrocatalysis process is generally observed to occur via the adsorption of the analyte to the
346 electrode surface, probably involving d-electrons and empty d-orbitals of the metallic substrate
347 (in this case, the Ni(III) species). It is, therefore, probable that the adsorption of the sugars on
348 the catalyst is crucial in order to achieve the oxidation reaction. Although they have similar
349 structures, there are some differences in the reducing sugars such as the number of carbons in
350 pentoses and hexoses, or especially, the configurational differences in hydroxide groups.
351 Therefore, it is likely that these small differences in the structure play a significant role in the
352 adsorption of the sugars over the electrode materials, process which appears to be highly
353 important for the catalysis. For this reason, it seems that in some materials only glucose
354 adsorption would occur, being selective to this sugar instead of other also oxidizable sugars.
355 This is a possible explanation for the different selectivity of the various materials described in
356 the literature, however, it seems clear that more studies are needed to clarify these processes
357 and the influence of the nickel structures, although this is not within the scope of this article.

358

359

360

[FIGURE 5]

361

362 The catalytic process of the glucose oxidation (500 μ M) was studied at different scan rates (10-

363 500 mV/s). Figure 5B shows the electrochemical response with increasing scan rates. The
364 anodic peak current obtained is linearly proportional to the root of the scan rate (Figure S5),
365 indicating that the limiting step of the electrochemical reaction is the diffusion of the glucose
366 to the electrode surface.

367

368 **3.3. Analytical performance of NiNFSPEs for sugar determination**

369 The optimization of the different parameters affecting the analytical signal was carried out.
370 Firstly, the optimization of the experimental conditions for the nickel electrodeposition such as
371 the electrodeposition current and time or the nickel concentration was performed. Several
372 conditions were used for the Ni(II) concentration (0.1, 0.5, 1, 5, 10 and 15 mM), for the
373 electrodeposition current (-5, -25, -75, -100 μ A) and for the electrodeposition time (30, 60, 90
374 and 120 s). The highest signal/background ratio was obtained by applying -25 μ A for 60 s to a
375 Ni(II) solution of 10 mM.

376

377 Secondly, it was necessary to perform an activation to the nickel electrodeposited surface in
378 order to improve the stability of the formed film, as shown in the Figure 6A. In this figure, the
379 electrochemical response of several cycles of cyclic voltammetry using a non-activated
380 electrode is shown. In Figure 6B, a higher stability on the response is observed after performing
381 an electrochemical activation to the electrode surface. This fact could be due to that different
382 Ni(II) species are presented in the surface, which shows a different electrochemical behavior.
383 After the activation in a NaOH solution, it is probably that the most stable Ni(OH)₂ species are
384 generated all over the surface, preventing Ni(II) mixed processes and improving the stability
385 ³⁸. It is possible to apply a wide number of activation methods in order to improve the surface
386 stability. In our case, we chose to carry out several cycles of cyclic voltammetry from +0.2 to
387 +0.7 V (100 mV/s). The number of cycles was optimized with the aim to improve the stability
388 of the surface and enhance the signal/background ratio. It was achieved after the application of

389 50 cycles.

390

391 [FIGURE 6]

392

393 As chronoamperometry was used to carry out the determination of sugars, the effect of the
394 applied potential was also evaluated. In order to perform a measurement, 40 μL of the glucose
395 solution in 0.1 M NaOH was added to the device and a potential able to oxidize the Ni(II) film
396 is applied for a certain time. The chronoamperometric current obtained at 100 s was considered
397 as the analytical signal. Therefore, several potentials were tested in order to improve the
398 signal/noise ratio using a 250 μM glucose solution. 0.6 V was chosen as the most appropriate
399 potential to carry out the detection of sugars.

400

401 The electrochemical response for different concentrations of glucose, fructose and a 1:1 mixture
402 in 0.1 M NaOH was evaluated. Figure 7 shows the chronoamperograms for different
403 concentrations of glucose (Figure 7A) and the calibration plots obtained with a linear range
404 from 25 to 1000 μM for all cases (Figure 7B). Similar results were found for other reducing
405 sugars such as arabinose, galactose, mannose and xylose (see Figure S6). The slope of the
406 calibration plots was similar for all the reducing sugars evaluated. The reproducibility obtained
407 for the slopes of the calibration plots was in all cases under 8% (RSD, $n=3$). The sensitivity
408 obtained was between 0.21-0.23 $\mu\text{A } \mu\text{M}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-2}$ and a detection limit between 8-20 μM was
409 estimated. The limit of detection was calculated as the concentration corresponding to three
410 times the standard deviation of the estimate, as proposed by Miller³⁹. A quantitative comparison
411 of several devices for non-enzymatic detection of sugar using nickel-modified screen-printed
412 electrodes is shown in Table 1. The device fabricated with 3D nickel nanoporous structures
413 stand out over the other devices in terms of linear range and limit of detection. This fact is due
414 to that the screen-printed electrode is used in a stirred high-volume conventional cell, with a Pt

415 wire and Ag/AgCl conventional electrodes. A higher volume of the sample and the improved
416 mass transfer due to the stirring of the solution allows to achieve a lower limit of detection. It
417 could be interesting to evaluate this electrode in a quiescent solution, as generally employed for
418 screen-printed electrodes. Comparing the other nickel-based screen-printed electrodes, our
419 device is highly competitive in terms of the linear range and limit of detection. Furthermore,
420 the high stability shown by the nickel nanoflowers and the simplicity for the fabrication of the
421 nanostructured surface are really interesting characteristics in order to apply this device in a
422 real world application, such as the determination of sugars in food.

423

424 [FIGURE 7]

425 [TABLE 1]

426

427 **3.4. Stability and precision studies**

428 Besides the estimation of the precision of the non-enzymatic electrode by evaluating the
429 residual standard deviation of the calibration slopes as described in the previous paragraph, a
430 study of intra- and interelectrode precision was performed. In order to do so, a solution of 500
431 μM of glucose was measured using the optimized experimental conditions. The RSD obtained
432 for intraelectrode precision was 5.5 % (n=10), showing that the device is very precise even
433 reusing the same electrode, which can be extremely useful to save costs in an industrial
434 environment. The RSD obtained for the interelectrode precision study was 6.9 % (n=3),
435 showing a high precision using different devices.

436

437 Several devices were fabricated and activated (50 voltammetric cycles) on the same day and
438 were stored at room temperature until the day of use. The results show that the NiNFSPE device
439 is stable at least up to 35 days (Figure 8), considering the signals obtained for different
440 electrodes (interelectrode stability) as for signals obtained using the same electrode

441 (intraelectrode stability). In all cases, the electrode surface was rinsed with ultrapure water
442 before the measurements. No re-activation of the electrode surface was necessary in order to
443 obtain a reproducible response. The fact that the same device can be used in different days and
444 keep its electrochemical response is a great advantage compared to other previously published
445 devices.

446

447 [FIGURE 8]

448

449 **3.5. Selectivity study**

450 The effect of different species that could interfere with the determination of sugars due to the
451 proximity of its oxidation processes was evaluated. The interfering species studied were
452 ascorbic acid, citric acid, lactic acid, ethanol and glycerol, as they are species that could be
453 found in food samples, typically at lower concentrations than sugars. Solutions of these species
454 were prepared at different increasing concentrations (from 0.1 mM to 10 mM) and a constant
455 glucose concentration of 1 mM was used. These solutions were measured by
456 chronoamperometry with the optimized experimental conditions. Table 2 shows the lower
457 concentration of the interfering species that influenced the analytical signal and the variation in
458 this signal. No significant interference effect was found for citric and lactic acids up to 10 mM,
459 showing that the device does not respond to these species even at high concentrations. A
460 concentration of 1 mM of ascorbic acid increased the analytical signal by 23% (in order to know
461 the influence of ascorbic acid, it is worth to mention that typical concentrations of
462 sugars/ascorbic acid in orange juice could be at least in a 100:1 ratio). An ethanol concentration
463 of 5 mM increased the analytical signal by 13%, suggesting that the device could have issues
464 to determine the sugar content in high-concentration alcoholic beverages. The higher interfering
465 effect was found for glycerol as a concentration of 0.25 mM was enough to increase the
466 analytical signal by 31%. However, when it is added to sugar-containing food, the glycerol

467 concentration is typically lower than sugar concentration.

468

469 [TABLE 2]

470

471 **3.6. Determination of sugars in real samples**

472 The performance of the non-enzymatic electrode for the determination of reducing sugars in
473 food samples such as orange juice and honey was evaluated. Standard additions method was
474 employed in order to minimize the matrix effects and a known amount of glucose (50, 100 and
475 200 μM) was added to the different samples diluted in 0.1 M NaOH. For the orange juice
476 samples, a concentration of 0.49 ± 0.04 g/L of sugar was estimated (value statistically similar to
477 the 0.49 g/L specified in the nutritional information). For the honey sample, a concentration of
478 6.8 ± 0.9 g/kg of sugar was found (compared to the 7.8 g/kg specified in the nutritional
479 information and 6.3 ± 0.1 g/kg obtained with glucose and fructose sensors previously published
480 by our group^{41,42}). These results show that the NiNFSPE electrochemical device is able to
481 determine with good accuracy the concentration of reducing sugars in complex food samples.

482

483 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

484 In this work, we were able to generate in situ nickel nanoflowers on screen-printed carbon
485 electrodes by a galvanostatic electrodeposition methodology. Nickel nanoflowers have a quasi-
486 spherical geometry but with different edges that increase its surface area compared to typical
487 nanoparticles. Nickel nanoflowers electrodeposited on screen-printed electrodes showed a great
488 electrocatalytic effect towards the oxidation of reducing sugars. The non-enzymatic device is
489 very promising for the determination of reducing sugars in food samples, even at low μM
490 concentrations, in a short analysis time and with low sample consumption. The excellent
491 stability presented by this nanostructured device, even being able to reuse the same device on
492 different days without loss of the electrochemical response, could mean notable cost savings if

493 the device were to be implanted in the food industry.

494

495

496 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

497 This work has been supported by the FC-15-GRUPIN-021 project from the Asturias Regional
498 Government and the CTQ2014-58826-R project from the Spanish Ministry of Economy and
499 Competitiveness (MEC). Daniel Martín-Yerga thanks the MEC for the award of a FPI grant
500 (BES-2012-054408). Authors thank the Spectroscopy Unit of the Scientific and Technical
501 Services of the University of Oviedo for the help with the XPS measurements.

502

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- 570
- 571

572 **TABLES AND FIGURES**

573

Electrode material	Linear Range (μM)	Detection Limit (μM)	Reference
Ni nanoflowers	25-1000	8	This work
NiCu nanowires	50-1000	40	18
Ni nanowires	50-1000	-	12
NiCo	25-3700	-	22
Ni-doped nanoporous carbon	20-240	10	19
3D-porous Ni nanostructures	0.5-4000	0.07	23
NiNP-chitosan-rGO	200-9000	4.1	20
Ni/C composite	1000-10000	400	21

574

575 **Table 1.** Analytical characteristics of different nickel-modified screen-printed electrodes for
576 the determination of sugars.

577

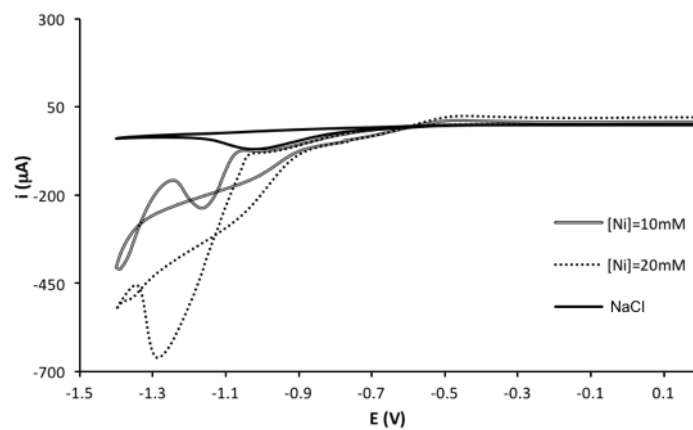
Interfering species	Concentration (%variation)
Citric acid	-
Lactic acid	-
Ascorbic acid	1 mM (+22%)
Ethanol	5 mM (+13%)
Glycerol	0.25 mM (+31%)

578

579 **Table 2.** Lower concentration of interfering species that influences the analytical signal for 1
580 mM of glucose and the variation of the analytical signal produced.

581

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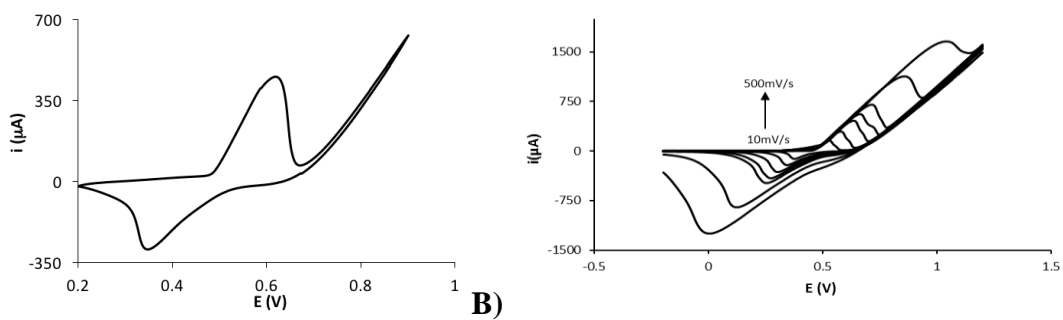


583

584 **Figure 1.** Cyclic voltammograms of several concentrations of Ni(II) and blank in a 0.1 M NaCl

585 solution.

586



587 **A)**

588 **Figure 2. A)** Cyclic voltammogram of the nickel-modified electrode in 0.1 M NaOH. **B)** Cyclic

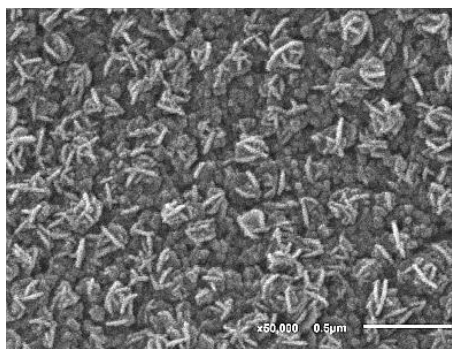
589 voltammograms of the nickel-modified electrode in 0.1 M NaOH at several scan rates (10, 25,

590 50, 75, 100, 250, 500 mV/s).

591

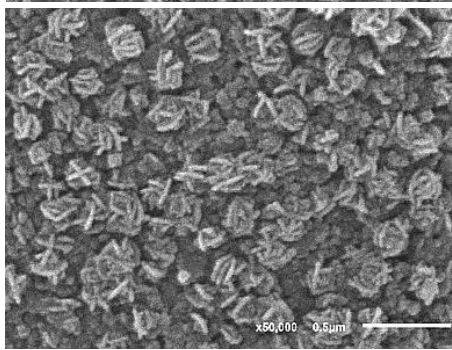
592

A)



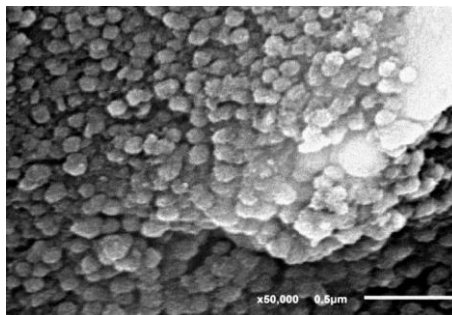
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B)



594

C)



595

Figure 3. A) SEM micrograph of the nickel-modified electrode. B) SEM micrograph of the nickel-modified electrode after the activation with 50 CV cycles. C) SEM micrograph of the nickel-modified electrode using a $\text{H}_3\text{BO}_3/\text{NaCl}$ solution.

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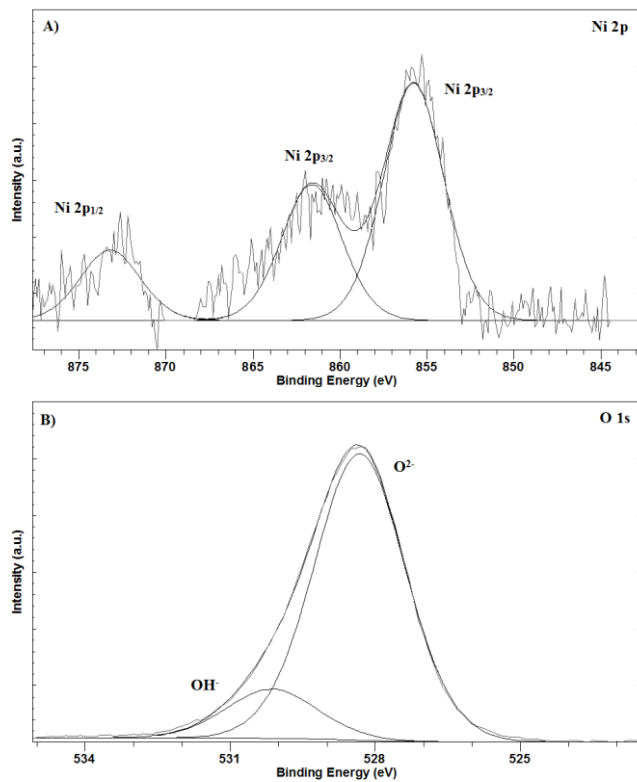
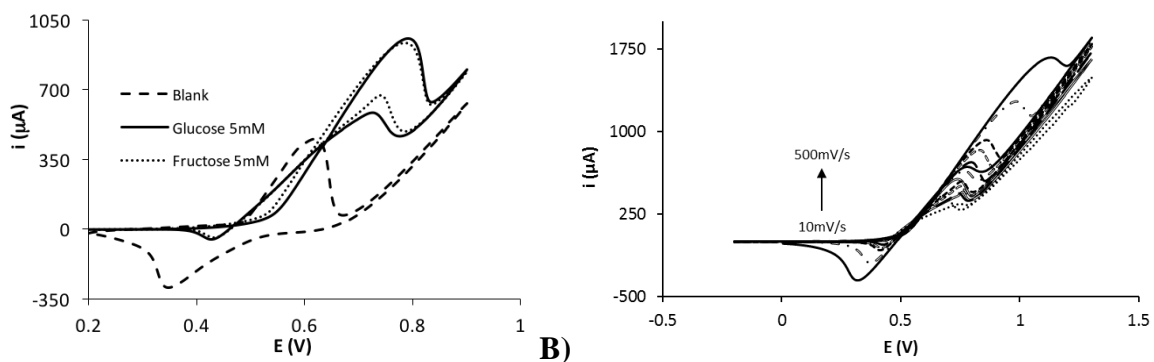


Figure 4. XPS spectrum of the NiNFSPE electrode: **A)** Ni 2p region and **B)** O 1s region.



604 **A)**

605 **Figure 5.** **A)** Cyclic voltammograms of the NINFSPE device in presence of 5 mM of glucose

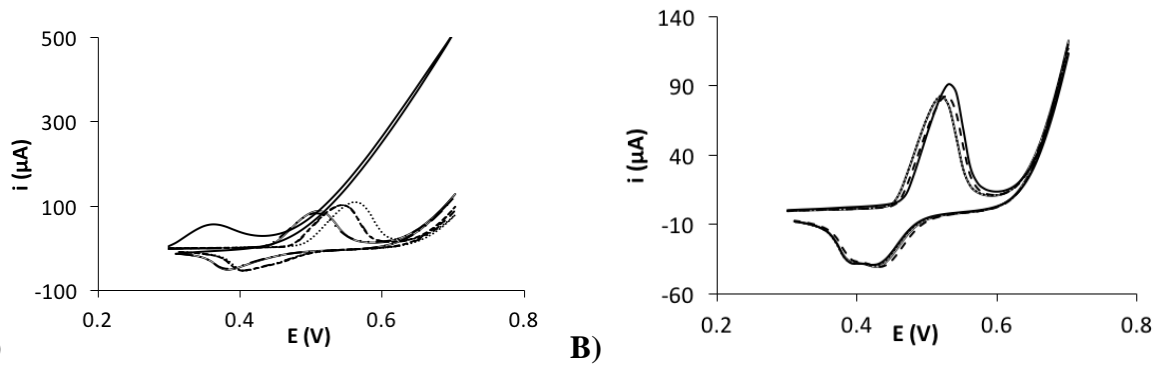
606 (solid line), 5 mM of fructose (dotted line) and blank (dashed line). **B)** Cyclic voltammograms

607 of the NiNFSPE device in presence of 5 mM of glucose at several scan rates (10, 25, 50, 75,

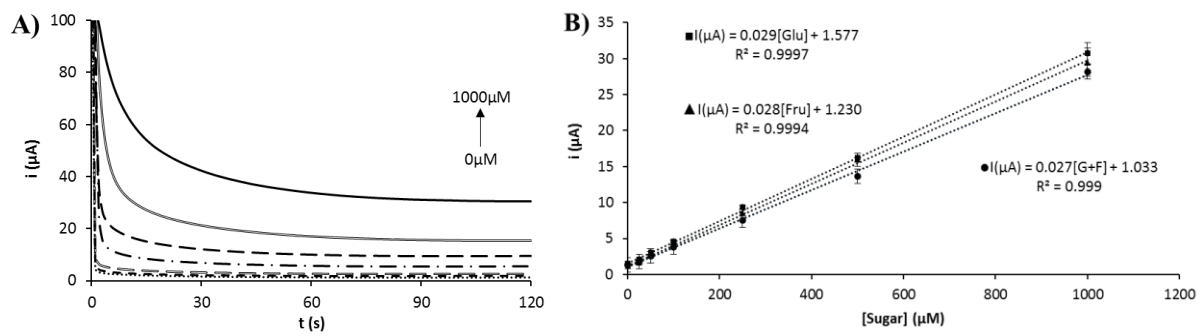
608 100, 250 and 500 mV/s).

609

610



611 **A)**
 612
 613
 614 **Figure 6. A)** Consecutive cyclic voltammograms of the NiNFSPE in 0.1 M NaOH without
 615 activation. **B)** Consecutive cyclic voltammograms of the NiNFSPE in 0.1 M NaOH after the
 616 activation.
 617

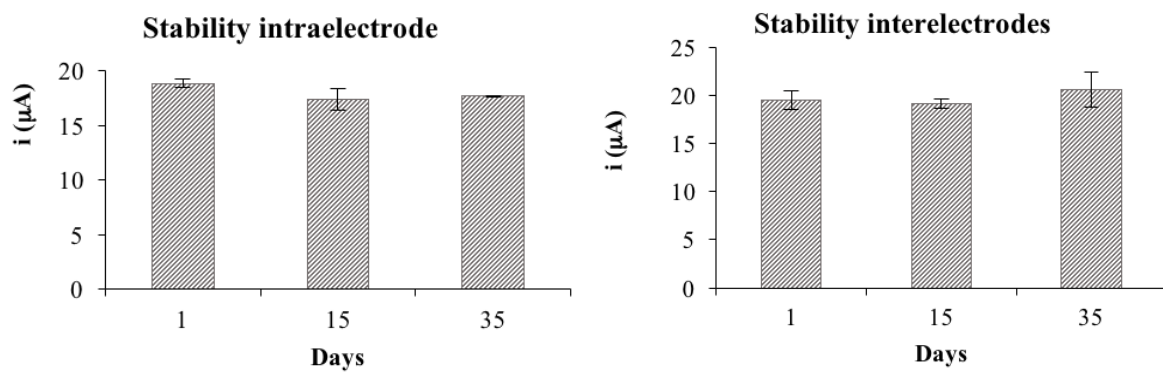


618

619 **Figure 7. A)** Chronoamperometric response for increasing concentrations of glucose. **B)**

620 Calibration plots for glucose, fructose and a 1:1 mixture of glucose and fructose.

621



622

623 **Figure 8.** A) Electrochemical response of the NiNFSPE device using the same device in
624 different days (intraelectrode). B) Electrochemical response of the NiNFSPE device using
625 different devices in different days (interelectrode).

626

Supporting information

Electrodeposition of nickel nanoflowers on screen-printed electrodes and its application to non-enzymatic determination of sugars

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S1. Comparison between the galvanostatic and potentiostatic methods

In order to compare the response of the devices after the electrodeposition of nickel by the galvanostatic and potentiostatic methods under similar conditions, the latter was taken as reference. The chronopotentiogram obtained (**Figure S1**) shows that the potential taken for the working electrode while the application of $-25 \mu\text{A}$ for 60 s in a solution of 10 mM Ni(II) (0.1 M NaCl) is kept during the most time between -0.94 and -0.91 V. Therefore, in order to perform the electrodeposition in similar conditions, -0.92 V was applied for 60 s (potentiostatic method). Although the chronopotentiometric curve is not fully constant and has nonlinear variation, these conditions could be appropriate to obtain a similar electrodeposition. Several electrodes were prepared using both method and the electrode activation was performed by 50 voltammetric cycles as described in the main manuscript. The devices were used to measure a blank solution (0.1 M NaOH) and a 1 mM glucose solution (in 0.1 M NaOH) under optimized conditions ($+0.6\text{V}$ for 100 s). **Table S1** shows the current obtained and the reproducibility in terms of the relative standard deviation (RSD). The electrocatalytic effect is similar in both cases, however the response for the blank solution is slightly more reproducible for the galvanostatic method. In this case, it seems that the potential of the quasireference electrode remains constant (and reproducible) under these conditions (0.1 M NaCl) as the differences found are small. However, it is likely that in severe conditions such as in strong acidic media, the galvanostatic method probably offers better results in terms of reproducibility than the potentiostatic one, since the silver material of the quasireference electrode could suffer some superficial changes, being difficult to maintain a constant applied potential.

Table S1. Chronoamperometric response and RSD for a blank and 1 mM glucose solution using electrodes modified by the potentiostatic and galvanostatic electrodeposition methods.

	Blank response (μA)	RSD	1 mM glucose response (μA)	RSD
Potentiostatic	2.2 ± 0.2	10.5%	26.5 ± 0.4	1.3%
Galvanostatic	2.1 ± 0.1	7.1%	26.2 ± 0.7	2.6%

S2. Experimental details for the electrodeposition of spherical nickel nanoparticles

As described in the main manuscript, under certain conditions, nickel nanoparticles with spherical geometry were obtained (Figure 3). The electrodeposition to generate this kind of nanoparticles was carried out using a solution of 10 mM of Ni(II) (from NiSO₄) in 0.1 M H₃BO₃/NaCl and applying -25 μ A for 60 s. As shown in Figure 3, the presence of H₃BO₃ allows the generation of nickel nanoparticles with a different geometric shape (spherical) than for the electrodeposition in the absence of H₃BO₃ (nanoflowers shape). However, in these conditions the reproducibility was worse, and therefore, the electrode modified with nickel nanoflowers was employed.

S3. Other supporting figures

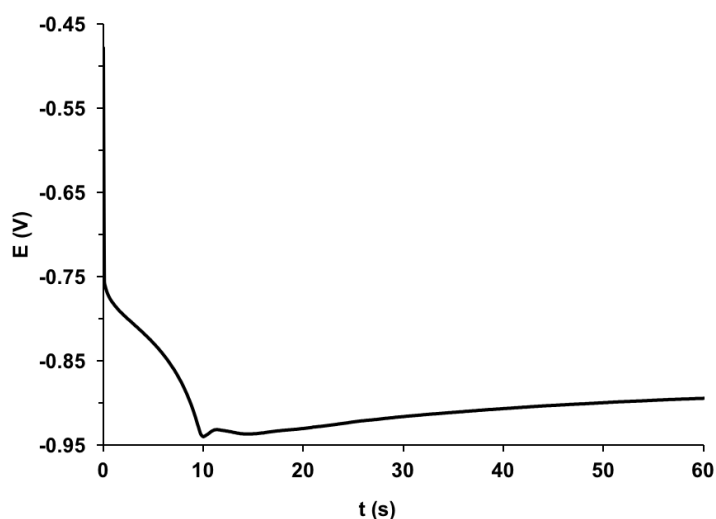


Figura S1. Chronopotentiogram obtained for the electrodeposition of nickel (10 mM in 0.1 M NaCl) on screen-printed electrodes applying -25 μ A for 60 s.

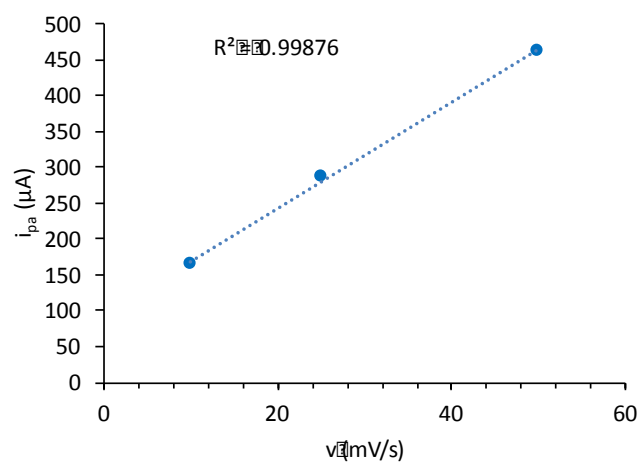


Figure S2. Relationship between the anodic peak current and the the scan rate (10, 25, 50 mV/s) for a NiNFSPE in 0.1 M NaOH.

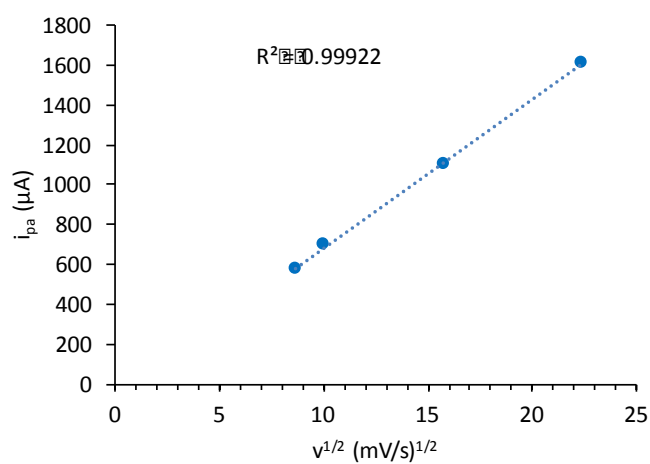


Figure S3. Relationship between the anodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate (75, 100, 250, 500 mV/s) for a NiNFSPE in 0.1 M NaOH.

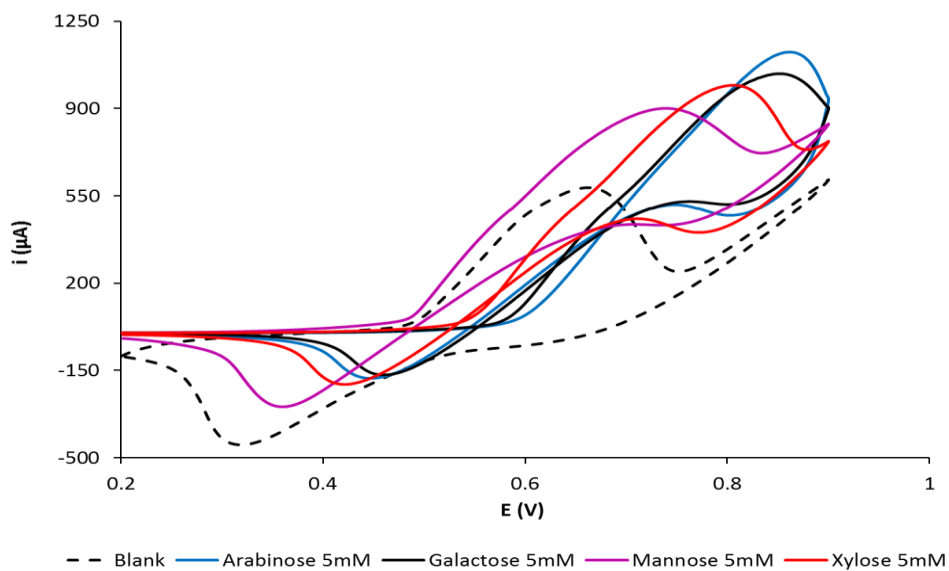


Figure S4. Cyclic voltammetry of 5 mM sugars (arabinose, galactose, mannose, xylose) and 0.1 M NaOH obtained at nickel nanoflowers-modified screen-printed electrodes.

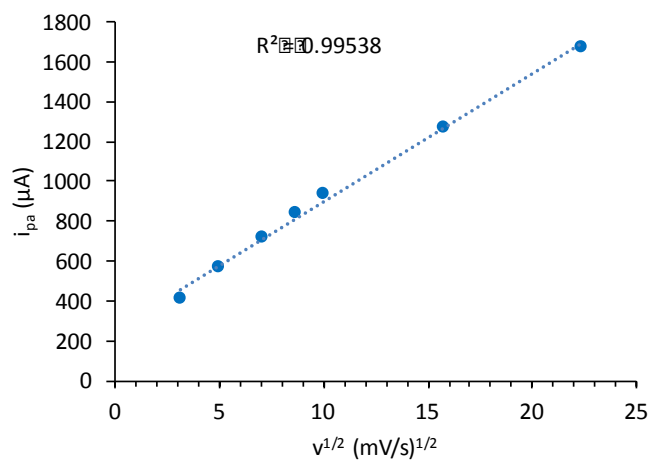


Figure S5. Relationship between the anodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate for a NiNFSPE in presence of 5 mM of glucose.

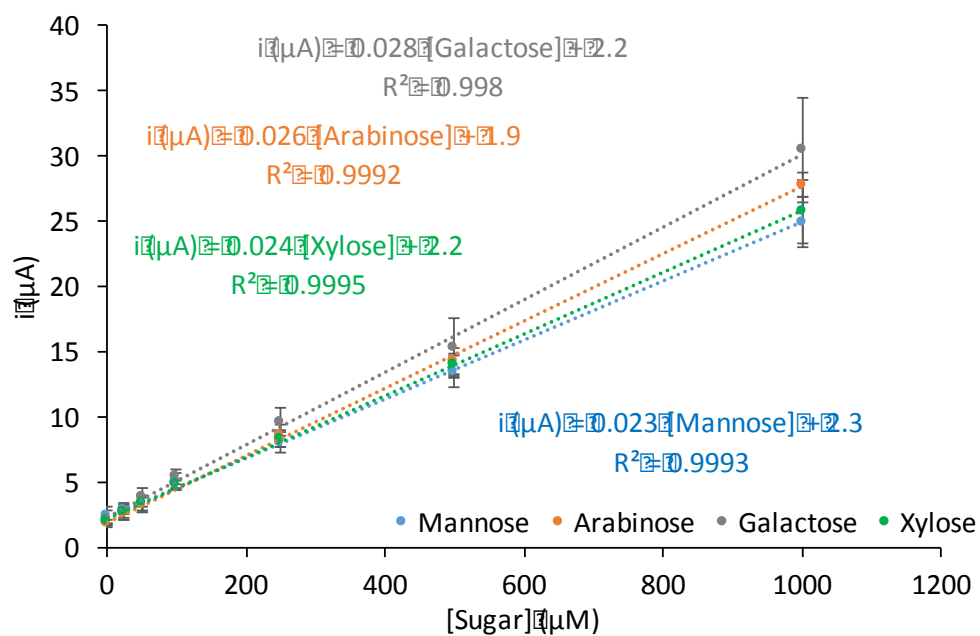


Figure S6. Calibration plots for arabinose, galactose, mannose and xylose.