Reduced graphene oxide supported raspberry-like SrWO₄ for sensitive detection of catechol in green tea and drinking water samples


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The raspberry-like strontium tungstate microspheres supported on reduced graphene oxide nanosheets (rGOSs@SrWO₄) were prepared by a hydrothermal method and it was applied to the electrocatalytic sensing of catechol. The as-prepared rGOSs@SrWO₄ composite was characterized by XRD, Raman, FESEM, EDX, EIS, and voltammetric techniques. Morphology studies reveal the uniform wrapping of raspberry-like SrWO₄ microstructure by thin sheets of rGOSs and the composite possesses large surface area and abundant catalytic active sites. The rGOSs@SrWO₄ composite modified screen-printed multi-conventional electrode (SPME) was fabricated which was found to exhibit extraordinary electrocatalytic activity and excellent selectivity towards the detection of catechol. The rGOSs@SrWO₄/SPME displayed a linear range of 0.034–672.64 μM and detection limit of 7.34 nM using differential pulse voltammetry as signal read-out. Furthermore, the electrode was durable, reproducible and repeatable. The practical utility of the method was demonstrated in green tea and drinking water samples.

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1. Introduction

Catechol (1, 2-hydroxybenzene) is a basic isomer of benzenediol, which is naturally distributed ubiquitously in plants. It has primary role in biological and industrial production activities, such as for dyes, lubricating oils, photographic films and pharmaceuticals [1,2]. However, catechol is less degradable and toxic to the water and environmental resources [3]. As the human population increases, the need for the production of more industrial products, such as pesticides, cosmetics, medicines, tanning removers, flavoring agents, photography chemicals is increases. As a result, industrial sewages are constantly released that contaminates water resources such as, rivers, ponds, lakes, and oceans [4]. Because catechol is more attractive to the researchers to detect catechol even in low concentration and at the same time catechol to be detected in a reliable, simple and rapid manner [5,6]. Various methods are already in practice, such as capillary zone electrophoresis [7], synchronous fluorescence [8], chemiluminescence [9], high-performance liquid chromatography [10], and electrochemical methods [6,11]. Compared with traditional analytical methods, electrochemical technique is cheap, robust, rapid, high sensitive, and selective [12–14].

Recently, increasing interest has been focused on the development of catechol sensors based on metal oxide electrode modifiers [15–17]. In recent years, metal tungstate (MWO₄, M: Ca²⁺, Sr²⁺, Ba²⁺, Pb²⁺ etc.) have attracted much attention due to their interesting structural and chemical properties. They have promising applications in optics and photocatalysis. On the other hand, carbonaceous materials have high conductivity, unique mechanical, excellent flexibility, good corrosion resistance and high surface area and hence they are good support materials for metal tungstates [18–20]. Yet, mostly applied materials in electrochemical applications are graphite, porous carbon, n-doped graphene, and activated carbon [21–23]. In recent years, many of transition metal oxides/hydroxides/sulfides supported on carbonaceous materials were developed for electrochemical sensing applications [24–28]. Specially, graphene supported SrWO₄ attracted considerable attention in many fields because SrWO₄ materials are low-cost, highly stable, and holding excellent electrocatalytic property for several important reactions [29].

Here, we have synthesized strontium tungstate (SrWO₄) microspheres enveloped reduced graphene oxide nanosheets (rGOSs) via...
hydrothermally. The resulting composite holds excellent conductivity and very good intrinsic electrocatalytic properties. Besides, an electrochemical response for catechol at rGOs@SrWO₄ shows reliable sensitivity and selectivity. The practical feasibility of the method was acquired in green tea and drinking water samples using rGOs@SrWO₄ composite modified screen-printed multi-conventional electrode (SPME).

2. Experimental section

2.1. Reagents, materials and instruments

Graphite (powder, < 20μm), Na₂WO₄.2H₂O, Sr(NO₃)₂, catechol, folic acid and all other reagents including solvents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used as received. Sodium dihydrogen phosphate and disodium hydrogen phosphate were used to prepare pH. Electrochemical studies were performed in a SPME three-electrode system, which contains printed carbon as a working electrode (area 0.071 cm²), silver as a reference electrode and printed carbon as a counter electrode. The SPME were purchased from Zensor R&D Co., Ltd., Taipei, Taiwan.

Cyclic voltammetry (CV) and differential pulse voltammetry (DPV) experiments were performed using CHI 1205A and CHI 900 electrochemical workstations (CH Instruments, Inc., U.S.A), respectively. All the electrochemical experiments are conducted at ambient conditions. Surface morphological studies were carried out using field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM) (H-7600, Hitachi-Japan). X-ray diffraction (XRD) studies were performed in a XPERT-PRO (PANalytical B.V., The Netherlands) diffractometer using Cu Kα radiation (k = 1.54 Å). Raman spectra have been acquired by Micro-Raman spectrometer (RENISHAW in via system, U.K) by a 514.4 nm He/Ne laser. Energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectra was recorded using Horiba Emx x-act (sensor + 24 V = 16 W, resolution at 5.9 keV = 129 eV) and ElMExx Zahner (Kronach, Germany) was used for electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) studies.

2.2. Preparation of GOs and synthesis of rGOs@SrWO₄ composite

1g of graphite oxide was synthesized by modified Hummer’s method [30]. It was exfoliated in water through ultrasonication for 2 h to get graphene oxide nanosheets (GOs). Then, the GOs solution was subjected to centrifugation for 30 min at 4000 rpm to remove any unexfoliated graphite oxide. Thereafter, 5 mM of Sr(NO₃)₂ and 5 mM of Na₂WO₄ were added to a 25 mL of as-prepared GOs solution and stirred for 5 min. Further, 1 mM folic acid was added, and the pH of the whole mixture was adjusted to pH 7.0 by slowly adding 0.1 M NaOH. The whole mixture was transferred into a 50 mL Teflon-lined autoclave and hydrothermally treated at 180 °C for 24 h. A white precipitate was obtained which was separated, washed (water and ethanol) and freeze-dried to yield powder of rGOs@SrWO₄ composite.

2.3. Fabrication of rGOs@SrWO₄ composite modified electrode

The rGOs@SrWO₄ composite (1 mg mL⁻¹) was redispersed in water/ethanol (1:2; v/v) mixture through ultrasonication for 10 min. 8 μL dispersion of rGOs@SrWO₄ was drop-casted at the working electrode surface of SPME using micropipette, and dried at ambient conditions. The amount of rGOs@SrWO₄ covered on the work electrode surface was 8 μg and the covering area was 0.071 cm². Moreover, GOs modified SPME was also prepared under same conditions for control experiments (Fig. 1).

3. Results and discussions

3.1. Physicochemical properties of rGOs@SrWO₄

The XRD patterns of GOs and rGOs@SrWO₄ composite are shown in Fig. 2A. The XRD curve of GOs displays a characteristic sharp peak at 2θ of 11.5° that can be correlated to the (001) planes of GOs [31]. Interestingly, the XRD pattern of rGOs@SrWO₄ displays several additional diffraction peaks at 16.11°, 26.92°, 30.01°, 32.10°, 37.42°, 43.90°, 45.96°, 48.12°, 52.28°, 55.98°, 57.33°, 59.92°, 62.54°, 67.46°, 69.92°, 72.14°, 75.08°, 77.81°, and 79.50° which are indexed to (101), (112), (004), (200), (211), (213), (204), (220), (116), (312), (224), (215), (008), (323), (400), (208, 316), (332), (404), and (420) planes. These planes are matched with the crystal facets of SrWO₄ having tetragonal phase crystalline (Dh₂) structure (JCPDS no.08–0490) [32]. Besides, the peak at 11.5° observed for GOs was shifted to the expected 2θ angle of 24.85° (002), which is due to the reduction of GO to rGOs [33].

Next, the composite was further examined by Raman spectroscopy as shown in (Fig. 2B). Both GOs and rGOs@SrWO₄ exhibit the characteristic D (related to defects in graphitic lattice) and G bands (originates from the stretching of in-plane sp² atoms) at 1328 and 1609 cm⁻¹, respectively [34]. The D to G band intensity ratio (I_d/I_g) was 0.933. In addition, D and G bands, the Raman spectrum of rGOs@SrWO₄ displays additional peaks, which are explained as follows. The bands at 50–150 cm⁻¹ are assigned to SrO polyhedra structure. The first Raman active mode B₂g at 78 cm⁻¹ correspond to the symmetric bending vibration of O-Sr-O, then the second active mode E_g at 99 cm⁻¹ is linked to free motion of SrO₆ polyhedra structure, and the third active band E_g at 136 cm⁻¹ is ascribed to symmetric stretching of O-Sr-O bond. The bands located above 150 cm⁻¹ are characteristic of the WO₄ tetrahedron structure, those at 195 cm⁻¹ are free rotation A_g mode. The bands A_g/B_g located at 300–400 cm⁻¹ are respectively, asymmetric and symmetric bending of the E_g/B_g bands at 790–850 cm⁻¹ are
W-O asymmetric stretching of WO$_4$ tetrahedral structure. Finally, a symmetric stretching of Ag mode (–O←W→O) can be located at 934 cm$^{-1}$. All the characteristics Raman bands of SrWO$_4$ are consistent with previous reports [35]. In addition, the value of $I_D/I_G$ was increased to 1.14, suggesting the increased defect density in the composit.

The FESEM image of rGOSs@SrWO$_4$ composite, (A, B), GOSs (C), and SrWO$_4$ (D) are depicted in Fig. 3. The SEM image of GO shows typical wrinkled sheet-like morphology. Microsphere-like porous morphology was observed for the SrWO$_4$. The rGOSs@SrWO$_4$ displays raspberry-like SrWO$_4$ microsphere wrapped and covered by layered GOSs (Fig. 3A, B). Thus, the hydrothermal-assisted self-assembly of SrWO$_4$ on GOSs substrate leads to the formation of GOSs supported SrWO$_4$ nanocomposite. The average particle size of SrWO$_4$ microsphere was 8 to 10 μm. The EDX spectra (Fig. 3E) of rGOSs@SrWO$_4$ shows the expected elements C, O, Sr and W. The quantitative elemental analysis provides weight percentages of 35.15%, 18.45%, 25.14%, and 21.23% for C, O, Sr and W respectively.

3.2. Electrochemical behavior of rGOSs@SrWO$_4$

EIS analysis was performed to understand the electrode-electrolyte interfacial properties. The impedance spectra were represented as Nyquist plots. The semicircle part at higher frequencies
is related to electron transfer limited process and the linear part at lower frequency region is related to diffusion-limited process. 

Fig. 4A shows the EIS curves obtained at GOSs (a) and rGOSs@SrWO₄ (b) modified electrodes in 0.1 M KCl containing 5 mM Fe(CN)₆³⁻/⁴⁻. The frequency range was 0.1 Hz–1 MHz and the amplitude was 5 mV. Randles equivalent circuit model was used to fit the experimental data (inset to Fig. 4A). The parameters are electrolyte resistance \( R_e \), charge transfer resistance \( R_{ct} \), double layer capacitance \( C_{dl} \) and Warburg impedance \( Z_w \), respectively. The \( R_{ct} \) values obtained at GO (curve a) and rGOSs@SrWO₄ (curve b) film modified electrodes are 105 Ω and 16 Ω. The EIS result indicates resistance at rGOSs@SrWO₄ has been considerably reduced, which is ascribed to the excellent electronic conductivity property of rGOSs@SrWO₄ composite.

The electrochemical behavior of GOSs/SPME and rGOSs@SrWO₄/SPME was probed by cyclic voltammetry. 0.1 M KCl was used as supporting electrolyte and 5 mM Fe(CN)₆³⁻/⁴⁻ was used as redox probe. The CV curves of GOSs/SPME and rGOSs@SrWO₄/SPME shows a pair of well-defined redox peaks related to the redox reaction of [Fe(CN)₆]³⁻/⁴⁻ (Fig. 4B). The peak-to-peak potential separation \( (\Delta E_p) \) values are 248 and 134 mV at GOSs/SPME and rGOSs@SrWO₄/SPME respectively. Compared to GOSs/SPME, the rGOSs@SrWO₄/SPME shows higher redox peak currents and smaller peak-to-peak potential separation. The insulating nature of GOSs blocks the diffusion of [Fe(CN)₆]³⁻/⁴⁻ and increased the internal resistance at the electrode interface (curve a). On the other hand, the higher electronic conductivity property of rGOSs@SrWO₄/SPME facilitates highly enhanced redox peak currents and the observed low \( \Delta E_p \) indicates the composite considerably promotes the electron transfer reactions.

Fig. 4C shows the CVs of rGOSs@SrWO₄/SPME towards [Fe(CN)₆]³⁻/⁴⁻ at varied scan rates from 0.03–0.3 V s⁻¹ and corresponding plot between peak current and square root of scan rate is given in Fig. 4D. The electrochemical active surface area of the modified SPME was assessed by substituting slope value of different scan rate plot in Randles–Sevcik Eq. (1) [36].

\[
i_p = 2.72 \times 10^5 n^{3/2} A D^{1/2} C^{1/2} \sqrt{v}
\]  

(1)

Here, \( i_p \) is peak current, \( n \) is number of electrons involved in the redox reaction, \( v \) is scan rate (Vs⁻¹), \( A \) is electrochemical active area (cm²), \( D \) is the diffusion coefficient (cm² s⁻¹), \( C \) is the concentration of [Fe(CN)₆]³⁻/⁴⁻ (mol cm⁻³). The electrochemically active surface areas were calculated to be 0.021 and 0.086 cm² for GOSs/SPME and rGOSs@SrWO₄/SPME respectively. Thus, the active area of rGOSs@SrWO₄/SPME is 4.1 fold higher than the area of GOSs/SPME, indicating that the rGOSs@SrWO₄/SPME is suitable for electrocatalytic sensing applications.

3.3. Electrocatalysis of catechol at rGOSs@SrWO₄

Next, the electrocatalytic performance of rGOSs@SrWO₄ towards catechol was studied by CV. Fig. 5A displays the CVs of unmodified, SrWO₄, GOSs, and rGOSs@SrWO₄ modified SPMEs in phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) and scan rate of 0.05 V s⁻¹ was applied. As shown in figure, the rGOSs@SrWO₄/SPME exhibited a well-defined redox peaks ascribed to the redox reaction of catechol.
catechol. In this reaction 1,2-dihydroxybenzene (catechol) is converted to benzoquinone. GOSs/SPME displays feeble redox peaks, while unmodified SPME does not show any obvious redox peaks. For instance, rGOSs@SrWO$_4$ displays 2.69, 2.92 and 6.76 fold larger redox peak currents than GOSs/SPME, SrWO$_4$/SPME and unmodified SPME, respectively (Fig. 5B). Clearly, rGOSs@SrWO$_4$ nanocomposite modification on SPME surface enables amplified current signal as well as accelerated electron transfer. The synergistic effect between rGOSs and SrWO$_4$ could have significant contribution to the observed improved electrocatalysis; this effect is well established for graphene-based nanocomposites.

Fig. 5C presented the CVs obtained at rGOSs@SrWO$_4$/SPME in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) containing varied concentrations of catechol. As shown in figure, the oxidation ($I_{pa}$) and reduction peak currents ($I_{pc}$) were increased linearly, as the concentration of catechol increases. The plot between peak currents and concentration of catechol exhibits good linearity (Fig. 5D). The corresponding regression equations are, Fig. 5D, $I_{pa}$ (μA) = 0.1615 (μM) + 0.166 ($R^2 = 0.996$) and $I_{pc}$ (μA) = 0.1509 (μM) − 0.166 ($R^2 = 0.993$).

3.4. Kinetic studies

Fig. 6A shows the CVs of rGOSs@SrWO$_4$/SPME towards 5 μM catechol at different scan rates. Both faradaic and non-faradaic currents are increased as the scan rate increases from 0.02 to 0.22 V s$^{-1}$. The oxidation peak shifted towards positive potential, while the reduction peak shifted towards negative potential. Besides, the redox peak current and square root of the scan rate exhibited good linearity, a characteristic behavior of a diffusion controlled electrocatalytic process (Fig. 6B). The linear regression equations for the corresponding scan rate plot are $I_{pa}$ (μA) = 3.356ν$^{1/2}$ (Vs$^{-1/2}$) + 130.06; $R^2 = 0.993$ and $I_{pc}$ (μA) = −9.330ν$^{1/2}$ (Vs$^{-1/2}$) + 129.45; $R^2 = 0.995$. Also, the oxidation peak potential ($E_p$) shifts to higher positive potentials with the increase in scan rate (Fig. 6C). A plot of $E_p$ vs square root of the scan rate displays a linear relationship which implies that catechol electrocatalytic oxidation process is chemically reversible (Fig. 6C).

3.5. Determination of catechol by DPV

Fig. 7A presents the DPV curves obtained at rGOSs@SrWO$_4$/SPME towards varied concentrations of catechol in phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) as supporting electrolyte. The optimized parameters used to record DPV are, pulse amplitude = 0.05 V, pulse width = 0.05 s, pulse period = 0.2 s, sampling width = 0.0167 s and quite time = 4 s. Sharp electrocatalytic response was observed for each concentrations of catechol. The $I_{pa}$ increases linearly as the
concentrations of catechol increases. A linear calibration between plot between concentration of catechol and corresponding peak current displays good linearity (Fig. 7B). The regression equation was obtained as, $[I] = 0.5089 [\text{catechol}] + 1.78; R^2 = 0.997$. The linear range was 0.034–672.64 μM. The sensitivity was 7.167 μA μM$^{-1}$ cm$^{-2}$. The detection limit was calculated to be 7.34 nM. The limit of detection (LOD) was calculated using the formula, LOD = $3s_b/S$ (where, $s_b$ = standard deviation of blank signal and $S$ = sensitivity). The limit of quantification (LOQ) of the method was 24.5 nM. The linear range, detection limit and sensitivity of the electrodes were compared with previous reports (Table 1). From the table, we infer that rGOSs@SrWO$_4$/SPME film modified electrode delivered either comparable or better analytical performance over existing modified electrodes. Remarkably, the
The selectivity of the catechol sensor is more important especially in the presence of high concentration of hydroquinone (HQ), since it could easily interfere with the oxidation signal of catechol due to the similar structural features (isomer) and chemical activity. The selectivity of rGOSS@SrWO$_4$-modified electrode towards varied concentrations of catechol in presence of fixed concentration of HQ (0.2 mM) had been analyzed and the results are presented in Fig. S1A. It can be seen that the oxidation peaks of HQ and catechol are displayed at two different potentials with wide potential gap. Evidently, the voltammetric response of HQ was not interfered the response of catechol. A linear dependence of the observed oxidation peak current ($I_{pa}$) with varied concentration of catechol (5–35 μM) was observed even in presence of high concentrations of HQ.

In addition, biological molecules, and metal ions based interfering compounds are tested for their possible interferences with our catechol sensing system. The electrocatalytic response of modified electrode towards 25 μM of catechol and each 0.2 mM of quercetin (QT), dopamine (DA), ascorbic acid (AA), uric acid (UA), acetaminophen (AAP), glucose (Glu), epinephrine (EP), norepinephrine (NEP), Cu$^{2+}$, Na$^+$, I$^-$, Ni$^{2+}$, Zn$^{2+}$, Cl$^-$, Cd$^{2+}$, Hg$^{2+}$, and Cr$^{2+}$ were also examined (Fig. S2A). As shown in figure, none of these compounds showed detectable signals. Possibly, the π stacking interaction between rGOSS and phenyl moiety of catechol provides selectivity. This π interaction avoids interference from compounds, which are do not having phenyl moieties. Besides, the presence of edge-functionalized rGOSS makes the electrode attractive for para and ortho directed pieces in benzodiol isomeric mixtures (catechol and hydroquinone). Nevertheless, our results indicated the voltammetric signal of hydroquinone is different from the signal of catechol, thus allowing us to discriminate their signals. Thus, the selectivity study indicates rGOSS@SrWO$_4$/SPME holds excellent selectivity in presence of possible biological compounds as well as metal ions.

### 3.7. Stability, repeatability and reproducibility

In order to determine storage stability of rGOSS@SrWO$_4$ composite modified SPME, its electrocatalytic response towards 5 μM catechol was monitored every day. The modified SPME was kept stored in phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) at 4 °C when not in use. During 10 days storage period, the modified electrode presented well-defined catalytic response. About 96.87% of the initial response current was retained over 10 days of its continuous use revealing good storage stability (Fig. S2B). Next, repeatability and reproducibility of the modified electrode have been tested towards 5 μM catechol in phosphate buffer (pH 7.0). The modified SPME exhibited appreciable repeatability with relative standard deviation of 3.24% for 5 repetitive measurements carried out using single SPME. In addition, it exhibits promising reproducibility of 3.74% for the five independent measurements carried out in five different composite modified SPMEs.

### 3.8. Real sample analysis

The practical utility of rGOSS@SrWO$_4$ composite modified electrode was demonstrated in drinking water and green tea samples (Figs. 8 and 9). The drinking water and green tea samples are found to be catechol free through DPV analysis. Then, a known amount of catechol was spiked prior to analysis. The spiked catechol concentrations were added different additions. Next, the amount of catechol spiked in the samples (drinking water + catechol and green tea + catechol) was tested using the rGOSS@SrWO$_4$ composite modified electrode. The sensor was delivered sharp peaks as lab sample (Figs. 8A and 9A). The linear ranges (drinking water + catechol = 0.035–270 μM and green...
Fig. 9. (A) DPVs of rGOSs@SrWO$_4$ composite modified SPME containing various concentrations of catechol containing green tea samples in phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) at a scan rate of 0.05 V s$^{-1}$. (B) Corresponding calibration plot for peak currents vs. concentrations of catechol (25 –150 μM). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Table 2
Determination of catechol (CT) in drinking water and green tea samples using rGOSs@SrWO$_4$ composite modified electrode by DPV and HPLC method.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Spiked (μM)</th>
<th>Found$^a$ (μM)</th>
<th>Accuracy (%)</th>
<th>Found$^a$ (μM)</th>
<th>Accuracy (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CT</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT + drinking</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>9.94</td>
<td>99.4</td>
<td>9.43</td>
<td>94.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>water</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>19.84</td>
<td>99.2</td>
<td>19.34</td>
<td>96.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT + green</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>9.94</td>
<td>99.4</td>
<td>9.27</td>
<td>92.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tea</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>19.83</td>
<td>99.15</td>
<td>19.11</td>
<td>95.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$ Detected by Waters Alliance, model 2695 HPLC (Empower, version 3). $^b$ Detected by rGOSs@SrWO$_4$ composite modified electrode by DPV ($n = 3$).

tea + catechol = 25–150 μM), and limit of detection values are presented in Table S1. Hence, the rGOSs@SrWO$_4$ composite modified electrode has good practical feasibility. We established a sensitive electrochemical detection method for the quantification of catechol in water and green tea samples.

The practical ability of the sensor was compared to traditional HPLC method and DPV. The catechol sensor was evaluated in catechol spiked drinking water and green tea samples from the laboratory using DPV method. The recovery values were calculated using the standard addition method. In addition, the catechol was also detected by traditional HPLC analysis. The detected values of catechol by HPLC and electrochemical methods were tabulated in Table 2. It can be seen that the results are showed good accuracy to the results obtained by HPLC method for detection of catechol (Table 2). The result clearly validates that the proposed rGOSs@SrWO$_4$ composite modified electrode can be used for real-time sensing of catechol.

4. Conclusions

In this work, a novel and eco-friendly electrocatalyst of reduced graphene oxide covered strontium tungstate composite was synthesized. The composite was characterized by FESEM, EDX, XRD, Raman, and EIS. The composite was provided a large electroactive surface area and high electrocatalytic activity. The rGOSs@SrWO$_4$ composite modified electrode shown excellent electrochemical detection performance of catechol. DPV sensing platform was demonstrated which showed wide linear range (0.034–672.64 μM) and nanomolar detection limit (7.34 nM). The method was successful in the determination of catechol spiked in drinking water and green tea samples, thus as great potential in food safety and water analysis. In future rGOSs@SrWO$_4$ composite will be studied on photodegradation and photo-water splitting applications.

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Supplementary materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.jtice.2018.05.001.

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