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## Single Particle Impact Electrochemistry: Analyses of Nanoparticles and Biomolecules

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**Abstract:** Single particle impact electrochemistry (SPIEC) has grown rapidly in recent years and shown great promise in the analysis of nanoparticle properties as well as the detection of biomolecules including DNA, RNA, protein, enzyme, bacteria, virus, vesicles and others. This minireview summarizes recent advances in electroanalytical applications of SPIEC according to different analytical methods, i.e., direct electrolysis of nanoparticles or labeled nanoparticles, direct electrolysis of soft particles encapsulated redox molecule, indirect electrochemistry of particles, area and diffusion blocking, and changes in current magnitude and collision frequency.

**Key words:** single particles; impact; electrochemistry; analysis; biomolecules

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Nanoparticles (NPs) have generated considerable interest in electrocatalysis and electroanalysis as a result of their unique physical and chemical properties, which significantly differ from their bulk counterparts. Traditional way of examining nanoparticle electrochemistry is based on averaging the electrochemical response which occurs over large ensembles of NPs. However, the unavoidable variations in nanoparticle size<sup>[1]</sup>, shape<sup>[2]</sup>, exposed crystal facets<sup>[3]</sup>, aggregation status<sup>[4]</sup> and even the nanoparticle spacing<sup>[5]</sup> all impose negative impacts to the reliability of the electrochemical information obtained from the ensemble measurements. To address this challenge, Heyrovsky<sup>[6]</sup>, Bard<sup>[7]</sup> and Compton<sup>[8]</sup> carried out single nanoparticle impact electrochemistry (SPIEC) on an ultramicroelectrode (UME) involving Faradaic charge transfer processes in 2006, 2007 and 2011, respectively, following the sporadically reported studies mainly on non-Faradaic charge transfer of single particles<sup>[9-10]</sup>. SPIEC has now become a booming area in both fundamental electrochemical studies and real-world applications, with more than 100 papers emerg-

ing so far.

SPIEC allows *in situ* electrochemical detection of solution-phase particles, which started from the studies in single metal NPs, such as PtNPs<sup>[11]</sup>, AgNPs<sup>[8]</sup>, and AuNPs<sup>[12]</sup>. The experimental principle is straightforward, where single-particle collision is by virtue of Brownian motion of individual NPs that randomly collide with an electrode held at a suitable potential. Under such potential, direct oxidation of the NPs themselves<sup>[8, 12-18]</sup> or mediated reaction via electron transfer facilitated by the NPs<sup>[7,19]</sup> takes place, enabling the characterization, detection and evaluation of individual NPs, such as size distribution<sup>[8,12-13,19-21]</sup>, concentration<sup>[18]</sup>, aggregation/agglomeration state<sup>[14,22]</sup>, and catalytic reactivity<sup>[7,23-26]</sup>.

The study of single metal NPs has rapidly been extended to a broad range of other types of particles and species in the recent five to six years, including but not limited to metal oxide NPs<sup>[27-28]</sup>, tagged NPs<sup>[29-30]</sup>, organic NPs<sup>[31]</sup>, emulsion droplets<sup>[32-34]</sup>, vesicles<sup>[35-37]</sup>, liposomes<sup>[38-39]</sup>, DNA<sup>[40-41]</sup>, RNA<sup>[42]</sup>, protein<sup>[43-44]</sup>, enzyme<sup>[45-48]</sup>, virus<sup>[49-51]</sup>, and even cells<sup>[52-54]</sup>. Accordingly,

a number of other detections or analytical methods concerning single particle impacts are developed, especially after the most recent reviews of this field published in 2017<sup>[55-56]</sup>. To fill this gap, we will review in this paper the electroanalytic applications of SPIEC based on different analytical methods. Such perspective is not seen elsewhere.

## 1 SPIEC in the Analyses of Nanoparticles and Biomolecules

### 1.1 Direct Electrolysis of Nanoparticles or Labeled Nanoparticles

The direct electrolysis of nanoparticle was pioneered by Compton et al. in 2011 as a direct but destructive way to quantitatively measure the size of AgNPs (Figure 1)<sup>[8]</sup>, which is named as anodic particle coulometry (APC). In this method, metal NPs are completely oxidized as they impact with an ultramicroelectrode held at a suitable potential, and therefore, produce oxidative charge which can be converted to the size of single NPs. APC method was subsequently applied for sizing of Au<sup>[12,57]</sup>, Ni<sup>[18]</sup> and Cu NPs<sup>[15]</sup>, sizing AgNPs in environmental media such as sea water<sup>[58-59]</sup> and tap water<sup>[60]</sup>, determining unknown concentration of NPs<sup>[18]</sup>, monitoring aggregation/agglomeration behaviors of NPs in solution<sup>[22,61]</sup> under the effects of capping agents<sup>[62]</sup>, ionic strength<sup>[63]</sup> and pH<sup>[64]</sup>. The same principle also allows the sizing of metal oxide particles<sup>[27-28]</sup>, characterization of core-

shell Au-Ag NPs<sup>[65]</sup>, determination of the aspect ratio of Au nanorod<sup>[66]</sup> and analysis of the composition of bimetallic Ag-Au NPs<sup>[67]</sup>. Furthermore, sizing of layer transition metal dichalcogenides (TMD) NPs (in a general form of  $\text{MX}_2$ ) was also realized by direct oxidation of the NPs (from  $\text{M}^{4+}$  to  $\text{M}^{6+}$ )<sup>[68]</sup>.

Apart from obtaining information on NPs themselves, APC of labeled metal NPs provides a sensitive tool for biomolecule detections such as DNA<sup>[69]</sup>, viruses<sup>[49]</sup> and bacterial<sup>[70-71]</sup>. Crooks et al. reported the individual collisions between a conjugate consisting of AgNPs linked to conductive magnetic microbeads via DNA hybridization and a magnetized ultramicroelectrode<sup>[69]</sup>. By electrochemically oxidizing the labeled AgNPs, DNA can be detected with a limit of detection (LOD) as low as  $20 \text{ amol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ . Such low LOD is achieved due to multiple AgNPs presented on each microbead and the increased rate of mass transport of the microbeads to the UME surface. In the meantime, Compton et al. demonstrated a proof-of-concept for the electrochemical detection of single *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) bacteria decorated with Ag NPs, which are directly oxidized during the collisions of single bacteria to an electrode<sup>[70]</sup>. Later on, they extended this working principle to the detection of single influenza viruses H1N1 by the oxidation of the adsorbed AgNPs on virus surface and achieved a sub  $\text{pmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$  level of detection<sup>[49]</sup>. The signal arising from individual species manifested the fact that viruses in general are at least

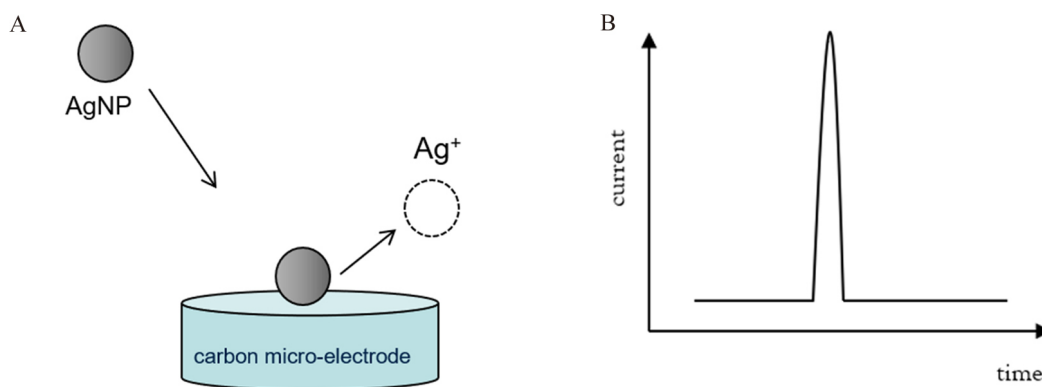


Fig. 1 Schematic illustration of direct oxidation of individual AgNPs. (A) Individual AgNP in electrolyte randomly collides with the surface of a carbon microelectrode from Brownian motion. If the microelectrode is held with a suitable potential, the AgNP can be oxidized into silver ions during the collision. (B) A typical “spike” like response recorded on the current-time profile corresponding to the direct oxidation of a single AgNP.

an order of magnitude smaller than bacteria. A recent study by Compton et al.<sup>[71]</sup> reported a label-free detection of *E. coli* bacteria in solution and a concentration dependence of bacteria impacts was found. In their strategy, N,N,N',N'-tetramethyl-para-phenylene-diamine was employed as a redox mediator, which interacts with bacterial cytochrome c oxidases, resulting in electrochemical current “on”-signals in the presence of *E. coli*. This strategy can minimize false positive signals from non-electroactive impurities.

After APC method which is capable of quantitatively sizing metal and metal oxide NPs by direct oxidation, cathodic particle coulometry (CPC) was immediately established to size impacting organic<sup>[31]</sup>, metal oxide<sup>[27-28]</sup> and C<sub>60</sub><sup>[72]</sup> NPs by observing their reduction current upon contact with an electrode. Combining APC and CPC, particle coulometry has become a powerful technique to detect individual NPs that is not limited by nanoparticle types and electrode materials, which can achieve a large detection range of 5 nm<sup>[13]</sup> to 150 nm<sup>[14]</sup> in diameter. The currently widespread microscopic or spectroscopic technologies for nanoparticle detection, such as transmission electron microscopy (TEM), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and dynamic light scattering (DLS) all have disadvantages, e.g., expensive to acquire, extensive sample preparation, long processing time, limited detection range, difficult in real-time detection, prone to compromise samples when imaging is conducted. Particle coulometry, as an alternative, can provide a cost effective, efficient, and *in situ* characterization and detection of NP.

## 1.2 Direct Electrolysis of Soft Particles Encapsulated Redox Molecule

The direct electrolysis approach has recently been applied to soft particles such as liposomes<sup>[38-39]</sup>, vesicles<sup>[37]</sup>, micelles<sup>[73]</sup>, emulsion<sup>[33-34,74]</sup>, and even cells<sup>[37]</sup>. During the collision processes, the redox molecules inside those soft particles may be released to the electrode surface and get detected. Compton et al.<sup>[38-39]</sup> first reported the electrochemistry of ascorbate/glutathione-loaded liposomes as they impact an elec-

trode, which can be used for sizing liposomes and the quantifying attomolar-scale drug content at the single liposome level (Figure 2)<sup>[38-39]</sup>. They proposed in their work a “full collapse fusion” process and a near-100% impacting liposomes undergoing reaction, however, the data shown in the work was not able to sufficiently support this. Ewing et al. later investigated the electrochemical response of single adrenal chromaffin vesicles filled with catecholamine hormones as they are adsorbed and rupture on a microelectrode<sup>[36]</sup>. In contrast to what was reported by Compton et al.<sup>[38]</sup>, they found that only 86% of the single vesicles were observed to produce current transients under the given experimental conditions, allowing the quantification of the vesicular catecholamine content. In their parallel work, they employed a nanotip conical carbon-fiber microelectrode to achieve electrochemical quantification of the total content of electroactive neurotransmitters in individual vesicles in single PC12 cells<sup>[37]</sup>. They also emphasized that only part of the neurotransmitter is released during exocytosis, which supports the hypothesis that vesicles do not open all channels during the normal exocytosis, leading to incomplete release of vesicular contents. This work is also an example of expanding single particle impact electrochemistry to the realm of single cell detection.

The electrolyses of single emulsion<sup>[33-34, 74]</sup> and micelle<sup>[73]</sup> droplets collisions are also reported. Bard et al. demonstrated the reduction of nitrobenzene (NB) emulsion droplets and the selective reduction of 7,7,8,8-tetracyanoquinodimethane (TCNQ) in NB droplets, respectively, and discussed collision frequency, size distribution, current transient decay of the individual emulsion droplets<sup>[33]</sup>. Besides, they showed that the detections of nano- and micro-sized single attoliter emulsion droplet collisions can be achieved by not only electrochemistry, but also electrochemiluminescence (ECL) when the components within the droplet are an ECL luminophore<sup>[74]</sup>. Later on, Compton et al.<sup>[34]</sup> took toluene droplets as a model for artificial oxygen carriers to detect oxygen reduction within individual toluene droplets and achieved the quantifi-

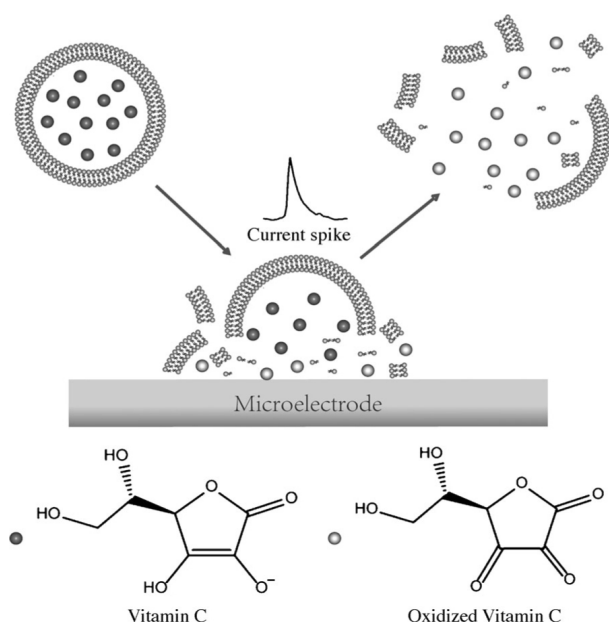


Fig. 2 Schematic illustration of a “nano-impact” experiment of single ascorbate-loaded liposome. The ascorbate-loaded liposomes fully collapse as they hit a microelectrode and subsequently release ascorbate that can be oxidized at the electrode to produce a current spike. Reprinted with permission from ref. 38. Copyright 2014 Wiley-VCH KGaA, Weinheim.

cation of attomole oxygen contents<sup>[34]</sup>. This strategy will have applications in the quantification of oxygen or oxygen related species in cells, vesicles, or artificial oxygen carriers at single carrier level. They further established the first example in the detection of single CTAB (cetyltrimethylammonium bromide) micelles by the oxidation of the bromide content, indicating that significant numbers of spikes are observed only when CTAB concentration is above the critical micelle concentration (CMC)<sup>[73]</sup>.

Single cell analysis is a rapidly evolving field with applications such as cancer diagnostics and therapy, immune response, and others. Electrochemical devices feature in fast response, rapid diagnostics, and cost-effective materials, which show great potential in point-of-care detection. Dick et al.<sup>[53]</sup> for the first time applied single particle impact electrochemistry to the examination of single cancer cells and healthy cells by monitoring the redox-active molecules releasing from cells membrane in the pres-

ence of TX-100 during the collisions of cells to the electrode. Cancer cells and healthy cells can then be discriminated based on the fact that the electrochemically active metabolites, such as ROS and enzyme co-factors, are presented in different levels in cancerous versus healthy cells. Compton et al.<sup>[52]</sup> examined the concentration of red blood cells by studying the reduction currents of oxygen which relies on the catalytic activity of red blood cells from surface-induced haemolysis. They showed that the enhanced signal can be used to detect red blood cells at a single entity level, which is suitable for a point-of-care test device.

### 1.3 Indirect Electrochemistry of Particles: Electrocatalytic Amplification

Unlike direct electrochemistry of single NPs, in the model of indirect electrochemistry, NPs themselves are not electrolyzed, e.g., directly oxidized, but the electroactive species in solution react on the surfaces of single NPs during the collisions to an inert electrode, producing electrocatalytic current amplification. Indirect nanoparticle electrochemistry was first implemented by Bard et al.<sup>[7]</sup>, where they observed transient currents of hydrogen evolution reaction<sup>[7]</sup> and hydrazine oxidation reaction<sup>[23]</sup> occurring on the surfaces of single PtNPs. They also attributed the staircase current response to nanoparticle sticking to the electrode upon collision, while the spike response to the transient stay of nanoparticle or poisoning of the nanoparticle surface during collision<sup>[7,23,75]</sup>. This method was immediately followed by research groups such as Compton<sup>[17,76-77]</sup>, Crooks<sup>[78]</sup> and Koper<sup>[79]</sup>, and widely utilized in studying size distributions<sup>[20,79]</sup>, electron transfer kinetics<sup>[17]</sup>, electroactive molecule tagged NPs<sup>[29-30]</sup>, and various bioanalyses<sup>[40-41,80]</sup>. In the following text we will focus on reviewing the development of bioanalysis enabled by electrocatalytic amplification approach.

Electrocatalytic amplification method has been applied to the detection of biomolecules since 2012. Bard et al.<sup>[40]</sup> first reported the detection of DNA by recording the electrocatalytic signal in the presence of a target DNA that is hybridized with both a capture



probe DNA and a detection DNA modified to a single PtNP which catalyzes the oxidation of hydrazine in solution when it is made in contact with an Au UME after hybridization (Figure 3)<sup>[40]</sup>. The resulting LOD is  $10 \text{ pmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ , which is not impressive due to the high background current level at a certain concentration of target DNA, making it difficult to distinguish the signal from the background level. In the following year Crooks et al. reported a real time electrocatalytic amplification detection of single DNA hybridization events at microfluidic microband electrode surface<sup>[80]</sup>. The current signal arises from the electrocatalytic oxidation of  $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4$  at single PtNPs, which represents the hybridization of a single DNA target at electrode surface modified with ssDNA probe. Again, this work only presents a LOD of  $25 \text{ pmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$  target DNA due to the local dehybridization of dsDNA in hydrazine. In 2017, the same research group reported on the study of microRNA detection<sup>[42]</sup>. In their strategy, the modification of single-strand DNA (ssDNA) on PtNP surface forms PtNP@ssDNA, which passivates the activity of PtNP. When miRNA, which is complementary to the ssDNA, is presented in solution, the hybridization takes place and forms PtNP@ssDNA:miRNA conjugate. After introducing duplex specific nuclease (DSN) to such conjugate, a fraction of the surface-bound DNA can be removed thereby exposing some of the PtNPs surface, and thus, the electrocatalytic properties of the PtNPs are reactivated. The corresponding LOD of such strategy is  $100 \text{ pmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$  for both miRNA-21 and miRNA-203.

Recently, current amplification through electron transfer or mediated electron transfer by single electroactive bio-species opens up a new route for the detection of biomolecules such as protein<sup>[43-44]</sup> and enzyme<sup>[45-48,81]</sup> with higher sensitivity. Detection of single or few freely diffusing biomolecules by electrochemical techniques is very challenging because a redox-active molecule contributes only one electron or a few electrons to the measured current with each encounter at the electrode. To address this challenge, Yang et al. reported on the detection of protein molecules (MP-11) via electrocatalytic current ampli-

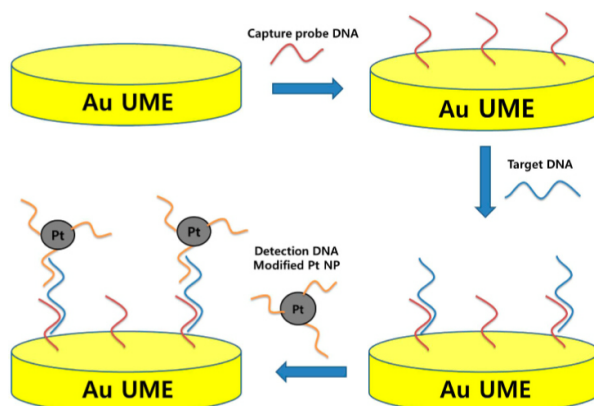


Fig. 3 Schematic illustration of a sandwich-type DNA sensor on an Au UME (radius  $5 \mu\text{m}$ ). The Au UME is modified with a capture probe DNA, and the PtNP is modified with a detection probe DNA. With the presence of a target oligonucleotide that hybridizes with both capture and detection probes, the PtNP is brought on the electrode surface and catalyzes an electrochemical reaction to produce a current response. Reprinted with permission from ref. 40. Copyright 2012 American Chemical Society.

fication of single entity<sup>[43]</sup>. They employed small graphene nanosheet to act as a vehicle to assemble a group of MP-11 molecules and then amplify the reduction current of MP-11 when graphene nanosheets collide with the electrode, showing that the number of the MP-11 molecules on a single graphene nanosheet is in the range of  $105 \pm 18$ . Later, Eriksson et al. reported for the first time the detection of single redox enzyme molecules (laccase) during their collisions to an UME by studying the electrocatalytic current produced from the reduction of oxygen by the active center of the enzyme molecule<sup>[45]</sup>. This new methodology monitors turnover number of the catalytic reaction at a single enzyme molecule level. Bard et al. soon detected GOx enzyme using impact electrochemistry by functionalizing thousands of enzymes to the surface of single murine cytomegalovirus, which bring enzymes to the vicinity of the electrode surface to realize the detection<sup>[50]</sup>. Similar to Yang's strategy, this work allows the preconcentration of enzyme molecules and hence greatly amplifies the signal of just one GOx enzyme, which exhibits a lowest concentration of virus particle from urine to be 30

$\text{fmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ . Similar researches into single enzyme molecule via current amplification method were also presented by Foord et al.<sup>[47]</sup> and Zhan et al.<sup>[48]</sup>. It is worth mentioning that Compton et al. combined theoretical study with experimental study of single catalase impact to achieve deep understanding in dynamic fluctuations of the catalytic ability of single catalase enzyme toward hydrogen peroxide decomposition<sup>[46]</sup>.

#### 1.4 Area and Diffusion Blocking

Area and blocking approach to detect insulating particles upon their collisions to an electrode surface was first implemented by Lemay et al. using a time-resolved electrochemical method<sup>[82]</sup>. The principle of this method can be put as follows<sup>[82-83]</sup>. The molecules in the solution where the insulated beads are presented are electrochemically active and will undergo diffusion-limited oxidation or reduction reactions on the surface of an electrode. When the beads impact on the electrode surface, they will hinder the diffusion of the redox molecules to the electrode and therefore lead to a decrease in the diffusional flow. Similar to the aforementioned Faradaic charge transfer in nanoimpact electrochemistry, when a bead hits and adsorbs on the electrode surface, a steady-state stepped current response will occur, enabling the detection and characterization of the insulated single particles.

Bard et al. in 2014 extended such area and diffusion blocking based impact electrochemistry to the detections of emulsion drops and biomolecules.

Based on this method, they established a so-called emulsion droplet blocking (EDB) technique and obtained size distribution of toluene-in-water emulsion droplets from single emulsion droplet collisions by virtue of the drops blocking the electrochemical oxidation of  $\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6^{4-}$  at the electrode surface<sup>[32]</sup>. They also examined the size distribution of single unilamellar vesicles by using similar principle<sup>[33]</sup>. Later on, the same group reported on the detection of single biomacromolecules by blocking a solution redox reaction when the molecules adsorb on the UME surface and block the active sites (Figure 4)<sup>[44]</sup>. The biomolecules cover a wide range of species such as plasmid DNA, catalase, horseradish peroxidase (HRP), glucose oxidase and mouse monoclonal antibody. This method demonstrated the feasibility of detecting single biomacromolecules, however, the difficulty in distinguishing electrochemical signal from the noise level fails to provide a low limit of detection.

Departing Bard's work, the area and diffusion blocking strategy was then applied to the detections of bacteria<sup>[84-85]</sup> and viruses<sup>[50]</sup>. Park et al. observed that when an *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) collides with and then attaches to the UME surface, the level of the steady-state current from the oxidation of  $\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6^{4-}$  in solution decreases because the flux of  $\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6^{4-}$  is blocked by the *E. coli*. Such label-free approach enables single *E. coli* detection with a  $\text{fmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$  level sensitivity<sup>[84]</sup>. Using similar method, Bard et al. examined single murine cytomegaloviruses (MCMVs) im-

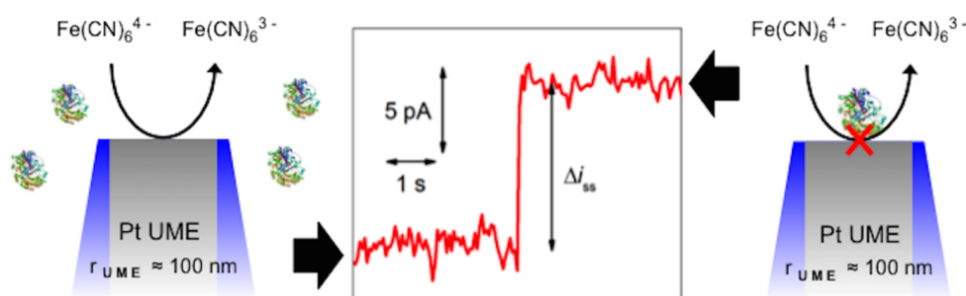


Fig. 4 Schematic illustration of the area and diffusion blocking experiment. An insulating molecule, such as protein, glucose oxidase, antibody or DNA, adsorbs on the surface of a Pt UME and blocks the diffusion of ferrocyanide to the electrode, leading to a staircase-shaped decrease in steady-state current with a magnitude of  $\Delta i_{ss}$ . The chronoamperometric curve represents the current decrease when a 150 nm radius Pt UME is partially blocked by a single glucose oxidase (GOx) molecule. Reprinted with permission from ref. 44. Copyright 2015 American Chemical Society.

pacting at a UME<sup>[50]</sup>. From the height of the decreased current step and the collision frequency, the concentration and size of MCMVs can be obtained.

### 1.5 Changes in Current Magnitude and Collision Frequency

When a molecule, especially a not very electrochemically active molecule, binds to a catalytic particle that collides to an electrode, the electrocatalytic current magnitude as well as the collision frequency will be changed. Looking at such differences provides a new route for the analysis of biomolecules. Andreescu et al. quantitatively measured ochratoxin A (OTA) using nanoimpact electrochemistry by looking at the collision frequency change before and after the binding of OTA to ssDNA-functionalized AgNPs<sup>[86]</sup>. The difference in collision frequency arises from the surface coverage of the NP by the ssDNA aptamers and subsequent conformational changes of the aptamer probe which affect the electron transfer between the NP and the electrode surface. This method achieved a limit of detection of  $0.05 \text{ nmol} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ . Bard et al. utilized the same principle to the detection of single viruses by studying the differences in current

step size and step frequency when the viruses are modified with specific antibody (Figure 5)<sup>[51]</sup>. The attachment of antibody to the viruses causes decreased collision frequency and larger current step size, due to rare collisions of larger aggregates.

## 2 Conclusions and Perspectives

Significant advances have occurred in the field of single particle impact electrochemistry (SPIEC) since the last review published 2 years ago<sup>[55]</sup>, especially the development of new detection methods which feature the unique advantages of SPIEC technique for the analysis of various biomolecules. In this minireview, we have summarized recent developments in electroanalysis, especially electrochemical bioanalysis, categorized by different detection strategies. SPIEC in general is a powerful analytical tool that allows fast, convenient and more accurate detection at a single entity level to avoid ensemble averaging. Moreover, the electrocatalytic amplification strategy of SPIEC is promising to achieve more sensitive detection of biomolecules. We believe that SPIEC will drastically promote the development of analytical chemistry. However, there is still room to develop

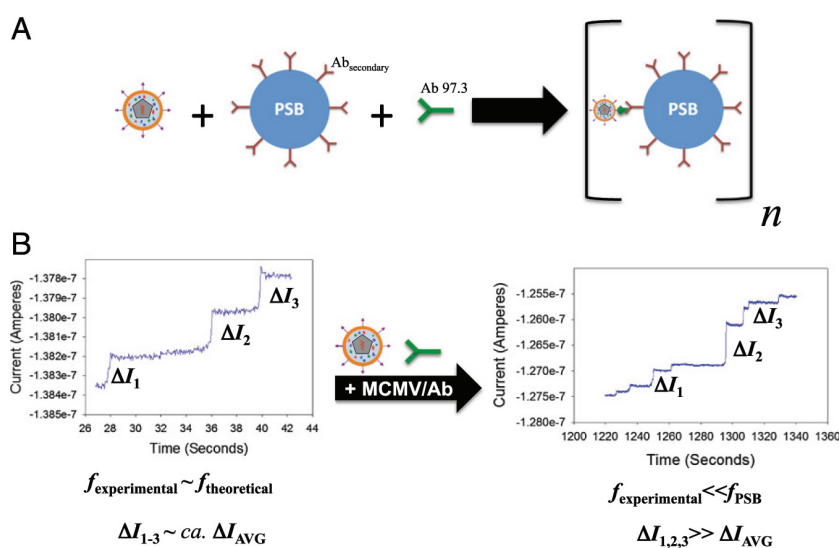


Fig. 5 Schematic illustration of the detection of single viruses from the response differences. (A) The polystyrene beads (PSBs) are functionalized with a secondary antibody (maroon Ys) that will specifically bind to the primary antibody (green Y). (B) Electrochemical responses with and without virus. Without the presence of virus, collisions of PSBs are observable with a characteristic current step height and frequency. Upon the addition of virus, aggregation of the PSBs will occur, resulting in decreased collision frequencies and larger current steps. Reprinted with permission from ref. 51. Copyright 2015 National Academy of Sciences.

SPIEC into a more mature stage.

1) Sensitivity of this technique is still not high enough. The high background current resulting from particle sticking and the electroactive non-target species may make the signal of single nanoparticles difficult to stand out. Therefore, electrode modification method and the selection of more specific electrode materials may be required.

2) Real applications of SPIEC should be further explored. In the first few years after the establishment of SPIEC, the main capability of this technique was to obtain a distribution of specific properties rather than averaged information from previous ensemble measurements. Although in recent years researchers already presented great progress in biodetection enabled by SPIEC, the limit of detection is still not qualified for clinically relevant detection. To find a particle tag with higher current amplification may be a potential solution to this challenge.

3) SPIEC of multiple particles might be worth looking into. Current studies still focus on the detection of one kind of molecules that are tagged to one type of particles. Simultaneous multi-target detection with multiple particles should be highly demanded in clinically related utilizations.

4) The significantly reduced reaction time of SPIEC can be made use of. Some features of SPIEC already manifested advantages in bioanalysis, such as to bring a redox molecules-containing bioentity to the electrode surface to avoid the diffusional loss of the redox molecules in solution. However, there is no study ever that utilizes the intrinsic feature of the significantly reduced reaction time scale during each transient collision of particles to an electrode, which may avoid the fatigue problem of catalytic particles fixed on an electrode under long-term electrochemical stress. Such feature may inspire a change in the working mode of reactions that are less efficient under continuous long-term operations.

5) Other analytical techniques should be combined with SPIEC to resolve more information. The lack of structural information is still an issue for SPIEC. If coupled with other techniques such as

TEM, SPIEC is promising in providing a great deal of spatial and temporal information on single particles. Moreover, the plasmonic property of nanoparticles is now receiving tremendous attention. To combine SPIEC with such techniques as electrochemiluminescence, chemiluminescence, and surface plasmon resonance (SPR) will allow better understanding of plasmonic nanoparticles and meanwhile benefit their utilization in photoelectrochemical applications at a single entity level.

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# 单颗粒电化学：纳米颗粒及生物分子的分析检测

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**摘要:**单颗粒碰撞电化学近年来已得到迅速发展并在纳米颗粒的性质分析及包括 DNA、RNA、蛋白质、酶、细菌、病毒、囊泡类物质等生物体的检测上展示出广阔的前景. 在这篇综述中,作者总结了近年来单颗粒碰撞电化学在电化学分析中的进展,按分析检测的策略不同分为以下几个部分阐述:纳米粒子或标记纳米粒子的直接电解;包含氧化还原活性分子的软颗粒的直接电解;颗粒的间接电化学行为;区域扩散阻塞效应;电流强度及碰撞频率的改变.

**关键词:**单颗粒;碰撞;电化学;分析;生物分子