



Supporting Information

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Accelerated electron transfer in nanostructured electrodes
improves the sensitivity of electrochemical biosensors

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Supplementary Information

Accelerated electron transfer in nanostructured electrodes improves the sensitivity of electrochemical biosensors

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Supplementary **Table S3** | Comparison of existing doxorubicin biosensors for various detection methods.

	Average pore size [nm]	Signal gain at 100 μ M DOX [%]
Planar electrode	Non-porous	32.3 \pm 14.5
No post-treatment	9.3 \pm 3.6	193.8 \pm 5.1
Thermal annealing only	24.1 \pm 10.1	159.7 \pm 16.1
Electrochemical coarsening only	33.7 \pm 11.6	155.0 \pm 21.3
Thermal annealing with electrochemical coarsening	63.1 \pm 34.1	145.0 \pm 22.2

Table S1: Summary of properties for planar and nanoporous gold electrodes produced under different conditions.

Target concentration [μM]	Nanoporous CV[%]	Planar CV[%]
0.1	3.85	19.59
0.3	3.87	19.56
1.0	3.47	19.72
3.0	3.37	19.82
10.0	2.47	19.53
30.0	3.84	18.84
100.0	5.21	18.30

Table S2: Coefficients of variation (CV) of signal level for planar and nanoporous gold electrodes obtained from different target concentrations. Data are averaged from six replicates ($n = 6$).

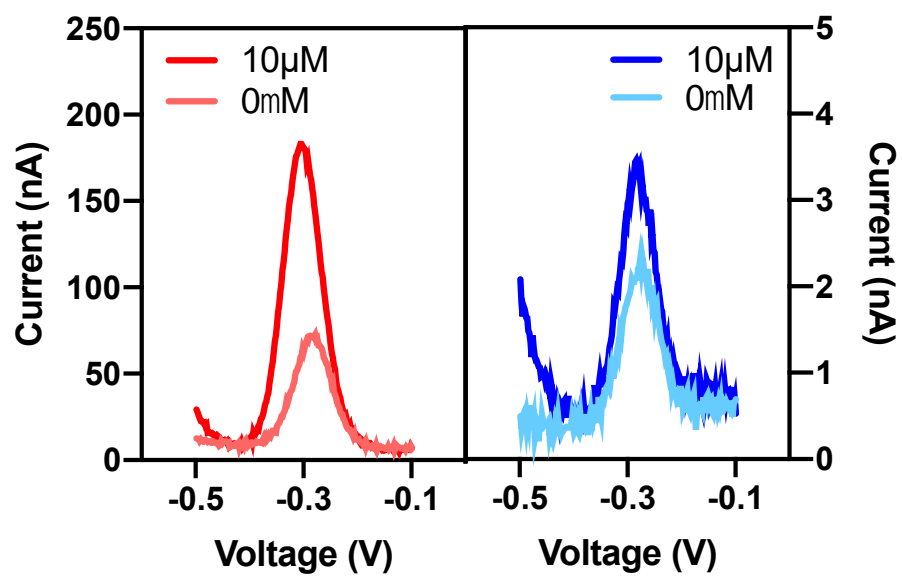


Figure S1. Representative SWV plots from nanoporous (left) and planar electrodes (right) comparing buffer-only signal with signal from 10 μM DOX.

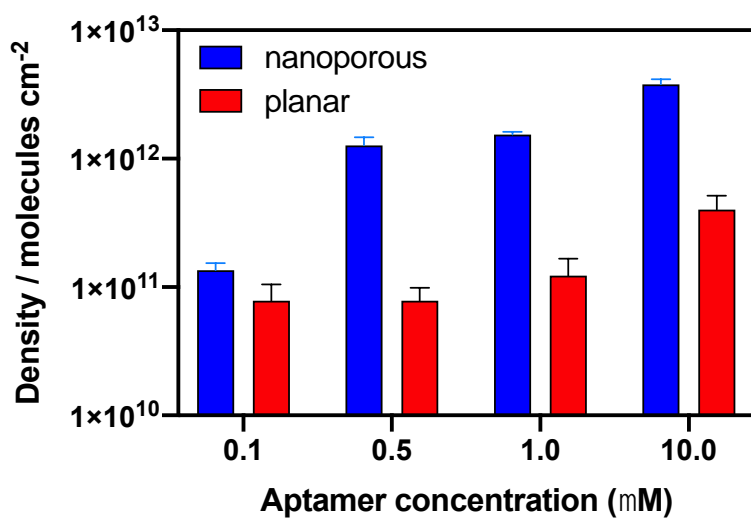


Figure S2. Aptamer probe density on nanoporous and planar electrodes after varying the incubated aptamer concentration from 100 nM to 10 μM . Datapoints are averages from seven replicates ($n = 7$).

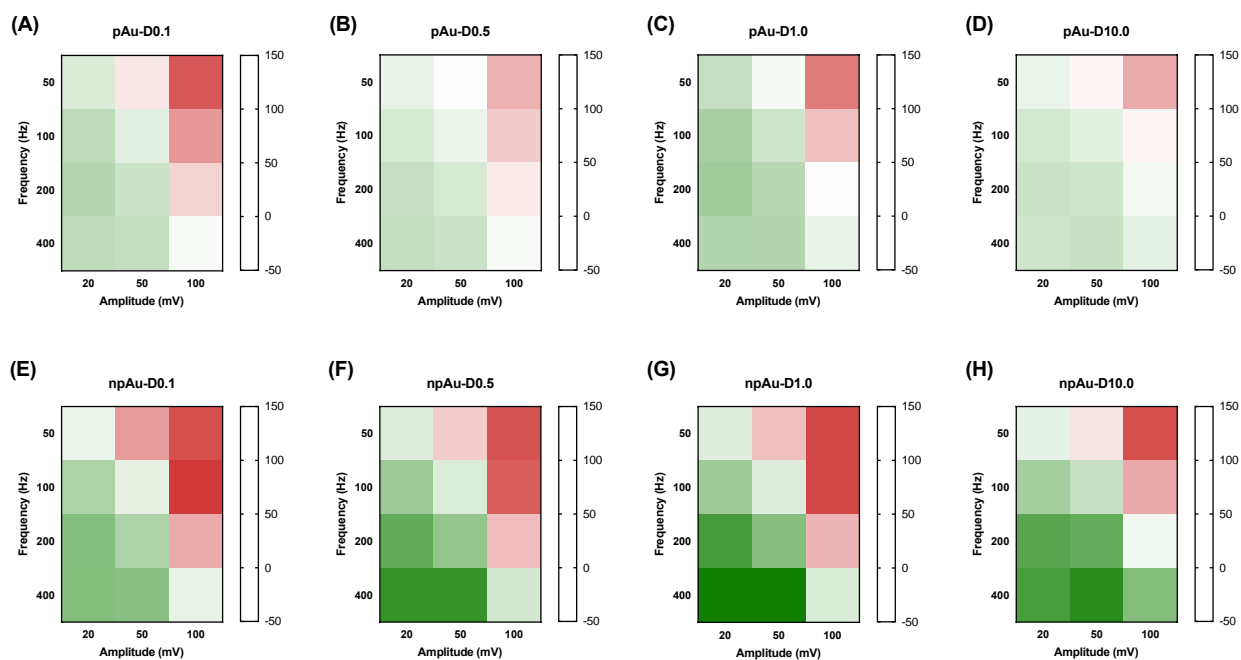


Figure S3. Optimization of SWV parameters. Heat-map of signal gain of electrochemical sensors with nanoporous (A to D) or planar electrodes (E to H) at different frequencies (50–400 Hz) and amplitudes (20–100 mV). Panels from left to right represent a shift from low to high aptamer density. All data are averaged over six replicates ($n = 6$).

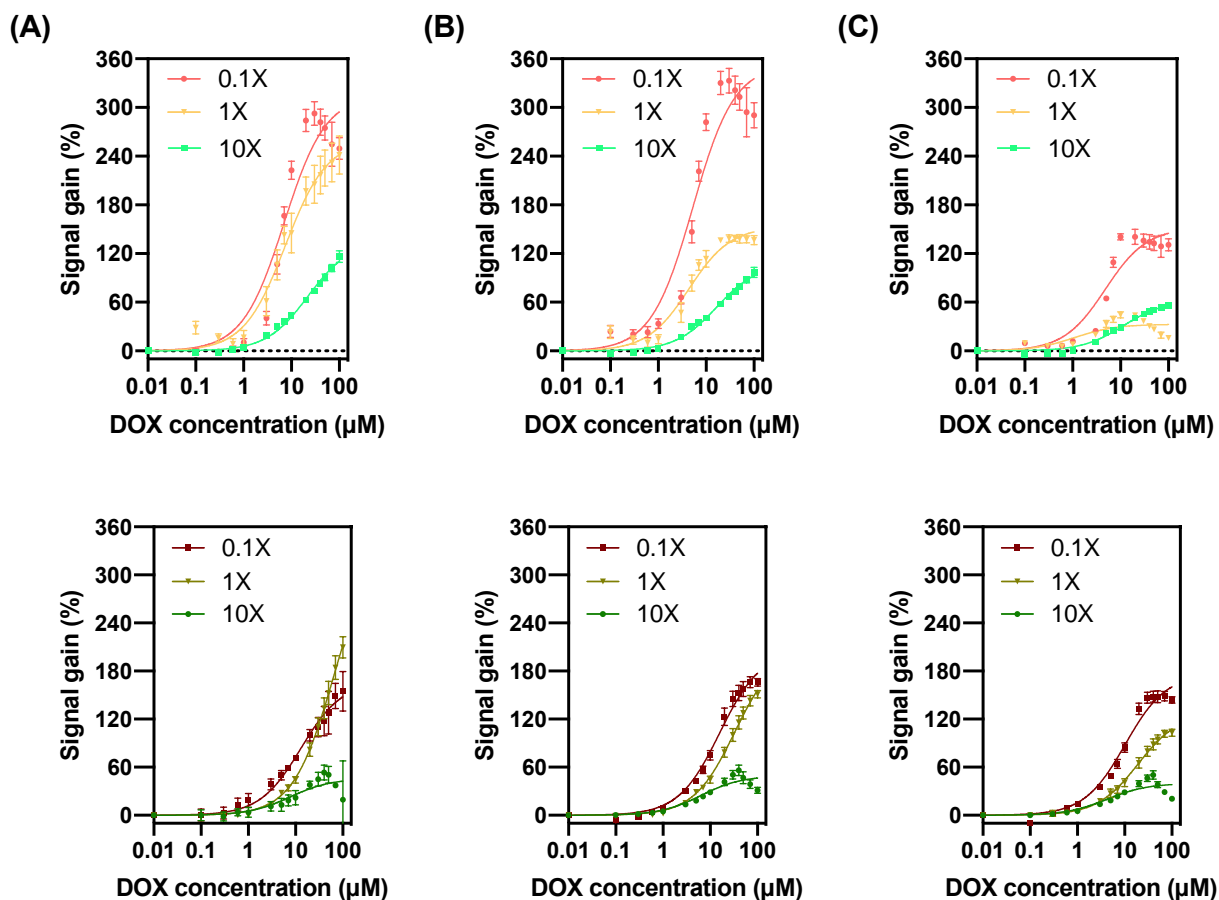


Figure S4. Signal gain at different ionic strengths. Signal gain is shown from nanoporous (top) and planar (bottom) electrodes in 0.1X, 1X and 10X SSC buffer at three SWV frequencies: **(A)** 400 Hz, **(B)** 200 Hz, and **(C)** 100 Hz. Datapoints are averaged over three replicates ($n = 3$). Notably, the effects of changing ionic strength on SWV were visible at lower frequencies on planar electrodes than on nanoporous electrodes; at higher frequencies, the signal gain curves of both types of electrodes converged towards their maximum values regardless of ionic strength. We speculate that these differences are caused by the difference in morphology between the flat planar and curved nanoporous interfaces.

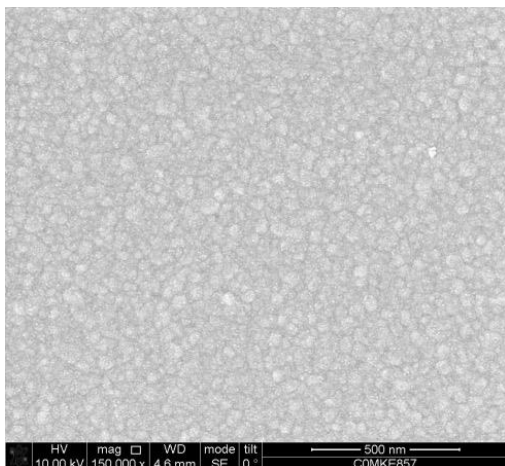
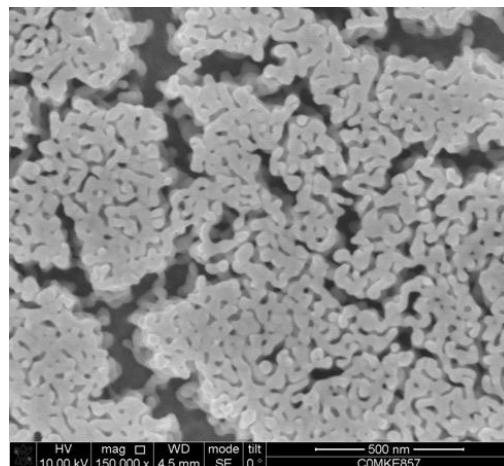
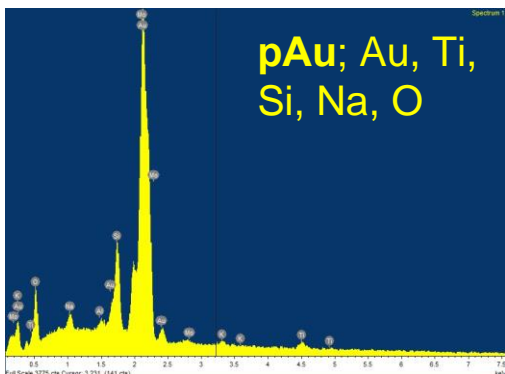
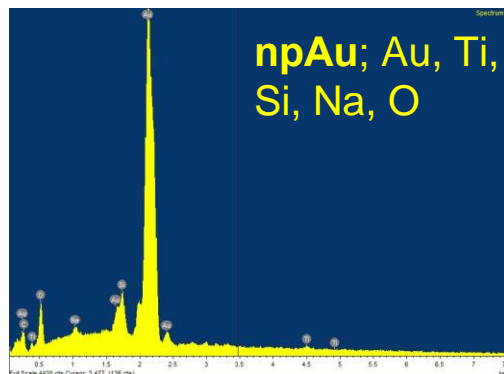
(A)**(B)****(C)****(D)**

Figure S5. Representative **(A, B)** scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images and **(C, D)** energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) analysis of planar (left) and nanoporous (right) electrodes. EDS analysis confirmed that the nanoporous electrode is made of gold and free of silver residue after the wet etching process. Si, Na, O traces are the from the substrate glass supporting the electrode, and Ti is the adhesion layer between the substrate glass and gold electrode; these elemental signals are roughly equivalent for both electrodes.

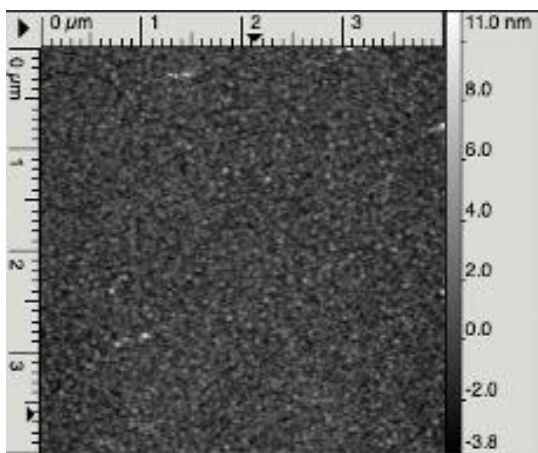
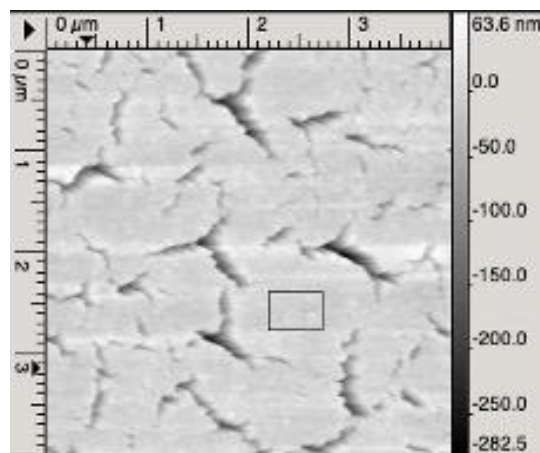
(A)**(B)**

Figure S6. Representative AFM images from (A) planar and (B) nanoporous electrodes. AFM topography measurements were taken in AC (tapping) mode. Root mean square surface roughness (R_q) was considerably higher for the nanoporous electrodes ($R_q = 29.23$ nm) than the planar electrodes ($R_q = 1.12$ nm), even when we analyzed a region of the nanoporous surface away from the larger porous features (black rectangle; $R_q = 7.22$ nm).

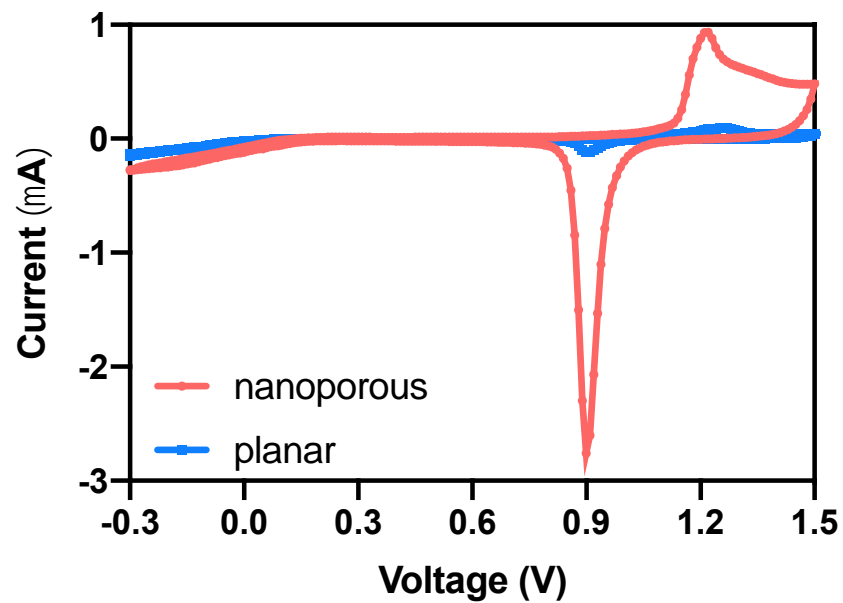


Figure S7. Representative cyclic voltammograms from nanoporous (red) and planar electrodes (blue), where the reduction peaks indicate the gold electrode surface area.

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