

Starch-based electrochemical sensors and biosensors: A review

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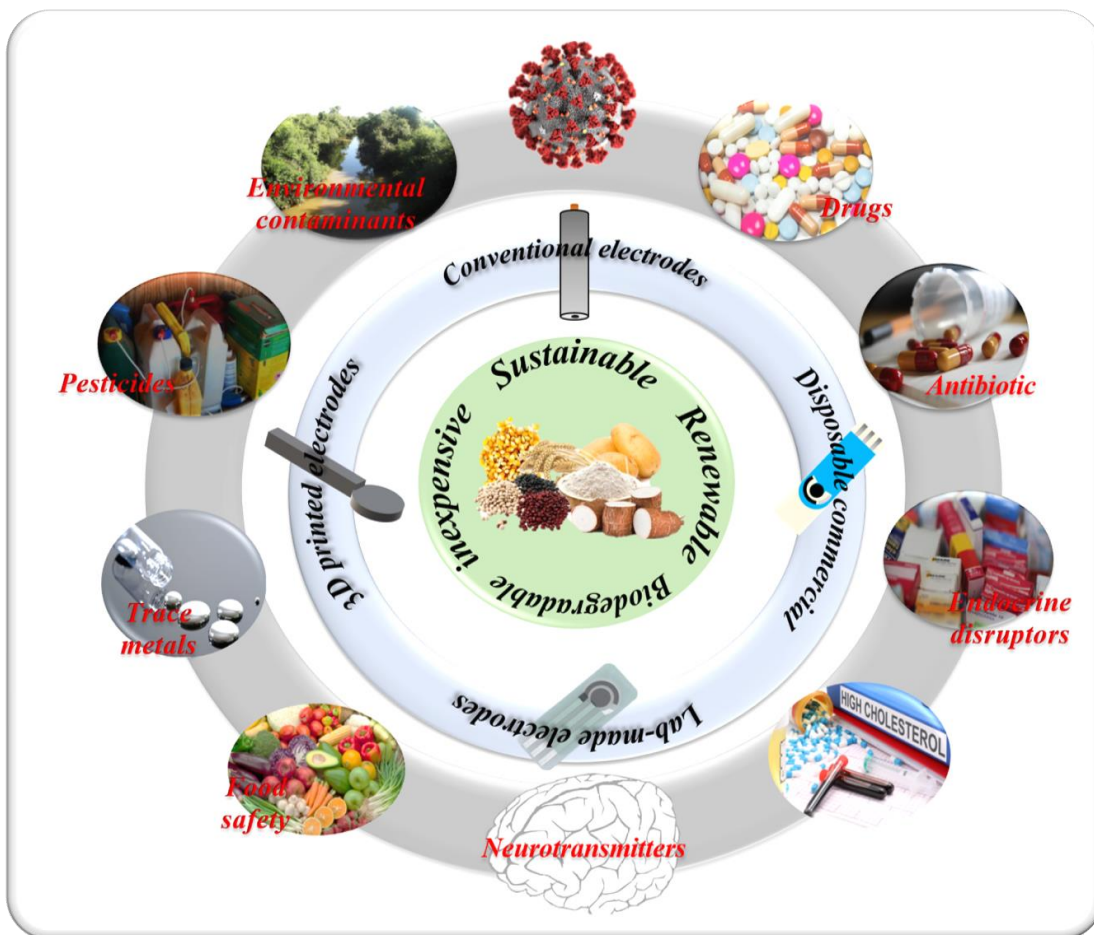
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28 **Graphical abstract**

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32 **Abstract:**

33 Natural green compounds for sensor modification (binders) are challenging in
34 electrochemistry. Starch is a carbohydrate biopolymer that has been used extensively in
35 the development of biomaterials for the food industry due to its ability to impart textural
36 characteristics and provide gelling or film formation. In particular, the excellent film-
37 forming characteristics have been used for the development of new surface modifying
38 architectures for electrodes. Here, we highlight a very comprehensive overview of the
39 properties of interest of various types of starch in conjunction with (bio)materials in the
40 chemical modification of sensors and biosensors. Throughout the review, we first give
41 an introduction to the extraction, applications, and properties of starches followed by an
42 overview of the prospects and their possible applications in electrochemical sensors and
43 biosensors. In this context, we discuss some important characteristics of starches and
44 different strategies of their film formation with an emphasis on their role in the
45 development of electrochemical sensors and biosensors highlighting their main
46 contributions to enhancing the performance of these devices and their applications in
47 environmental and clinical samples.

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51 **Keywords:** Starch, modified electrodes, sensors, biosensors, natural polymer.

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65 **1. Introduction**

66 The core of the world's sustainable development unquestionably includes the
67 intelligent use and reuse of everything we have at our disposal mainly through physical
68 and/or chemical modifications of the properties of these materials. Furthermore, it is
69 necessary to optimize all the processes in a scalable production chain continuously
70 seeking materials that present multifunctionality in the sector, low complexity and
71 operational cost, and that are preferably environmentally friendly [1].

72 Conventional analytical instruments such as mass spectrometry (MS),
73 chromatography, Atomic Absorption Spectroscopy, Ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy,
74 and Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR), among others, are the main means of analysis
75 and diagnostics, used for example to monitoring in different fields such as the food
76 industry, medicine, and clinical biology due to their reliability and great performance.
77 These analytical instruments have a series of qualities, such as excellent sensitivity,
78 high selectivity, and robustness. However, they are generally very expensive, complex,
79 require highly qualified operators and sophisticated laboratory structures [2]. The
80 current Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) tests applied for the detection of SARS-CoV-
81 2 (COVID-19) are a good example of how conventional procedures work, almost
82 always marked by the need for several steps, equipment, and expensive reagents that
83 culminate in time-consuming and equally costly analyses [3, 4]. In this context, the
84 search for new instruments and means of analysis that can circumvent these problems
85 has intensified in recent decades. The search and development of new analytical devices
86 have shown excellent results and high potential products, such as optical, fluorescent,
87 colorimetric, and electrochemical devices [3-7]. In this aspect, the use of
88 electrochemical techniques can be highlighted, being an alternative to conventional
89 analytical methods, since they have several advantages which are currently required,
90 mainly concerning cost, simplicity, miniaturization/portability capacity, and the
91 possibility of on-site application [8-11]. A clear example of the effectiveness of the
92 application of electrochemical devices is glucose sensors, which are well-established
93 and highly employed as point-of-care devices [12, 13].

94 Devices based on electrochemical sensors and biosensors are an excellent
95 alternative to this demand. The electrochemical techniques combine outstanding
96 properties such as high sensitivity, fast response time, reduced cost, instrument
97 simplicity, the possibility of miniaturization, and integration into portable devices [14].
98 Furthermore, electrochemical devices have great mechanical and chemical robustness

99 that can be easily enhanced by modifications to the electrode surface, for example [15-
100 19].

101 Traditional electrodes, in some situations, do not present selectivity, accuracy,
102 and reproducibility to be used directly in electrochemical sensing. In this context, an
103 alternative is the introduction of electroactive layers that must anchor over an electrode
104 surface. As a consequence, is produced a chemically modified electrode. The concept of
105 chemically modified electrodes (CMEs) was first introduced by Royce Murray in the
106 1970s, who at the time used amine groups were used to modify a SnO₂ electrode [20].
107 The anchoring of the modifying molecules on the surface of the substrate material with
108 the aid of a binder gives the CMEs and can be carried out by covalent or non-covalent
109 bonding. In addition, the anchoring of specific functional groups provides a pathway for
110 the interaction with the target analyte and is directly correlated with the nature of the
111 ongoing analytical study [21].

112 The choice of the anchor/binding molecule is a very important step in the study
113 and application of modified electrodes (MEs) since all electrochemical reactions occur
114 at the electrode/solution interface. Therefore, the surface structure of the electrode at the
115 interface has a distinct role in the reaction of the electrode and facilitates the pathway
116 for the transfer of electrons at the interface which, in addition, provides the best
117 electrode kinetics [22].

118 Starch is a natural food carbohydrate, very abundant, easy and cheap to extract,
119 non-toxic, biodegradable and it is the most abundant biopolymer in the world after
120 cellulose [23]. Two types of polysaccharides with only two types of linkages in the
121 chain constitute almost 100% of the total content of most starches, namely amylose a
122 linear polymer formed by glucose residues (between 15 and 25%), and amylopectin the
123 major glucan (75-85%) highly branched and of high molecular weight. As a result of
124 their almost total structure consisting of homopolymers of units α -D-glucopyranosil, the
125 starches present a single reactive functional group, which is not a hindrance for them to
126 undergo numerous chemical and physical modifications [24]. The small quantities of
127 non-carbohydrate in the structure of starches, particularly lipids, proteins, and
128 phosphorus also play an important role in their physical-chemical and functional
129 properties [25]. This structure thus allows numerous chemical and physical
130 modifications and can support a succession of chemical reactions and physical
131 treatments such as oxidation [26], fermentation [27], grafting [28], crosslinking [29],
132 pre-gelatinization processes [30], hydrothermal processes [31], multiple deep freezing

133 and thawing [32], mechanical activation-with stirring ball mill [33], etc. The functional
134 properties of starch films can be enhanced when combined with these modifications.

135 The properties of the starch gel are directly correlated with the solubility of its
136 constituent homopolymers. High levels of soluble amylose and strong association in the
137 network result in increased starch elasticity, while high levels of soluble amylopectin
138 are detrimental to starch gel formation and elasticity [34]. These unique properties make
139 starch suitable for a wide range of applications in food, pharmaceutical, cosmetic,
140 adhesive, plastic, agrochemical, medical [35], and most recently in the field of sensors
141 and biosensors [36-50]. In addition, the biodegradability of starches and its obtention
142 from natural sources makes the use of this material an excellent alternative to minimize
143 environmental impacts by contributing to the reduction of waste [51, 52]. The hydroxyl
144 groups present in the polysaccharide chains of amylose and amylopectin confer
145 flexibility, the excellent capacity for film formation, good adhesion, biocompatibility,
146 high mechanical resistance, and the possibility of suffering structural modifications [53,
147 54], which make it the appropriate starch to modify and build electrochemical sensors.
148 Pre-gelatinization processes and acetylation reactions improve the functional properties
149 of starch such as solubility and stability in a wide range of temperature and pH changes
150 [55, 56]. Simple methods like wet chemical synthesis and drop-casting have been used
151 to successfully produce modified starch-based electrodes.

152 This review describes how electrochemical sensors can be obtained from a
153 simple modification on their surface with starch associated with other modifiers. First of
154 all, the extraction processes, applications, and properties of starches are introduced.
155 Then we move to focus on the applications and discussion of modified electrodes with
156 starches for analysis of various target analytes between 2017 and 2021.

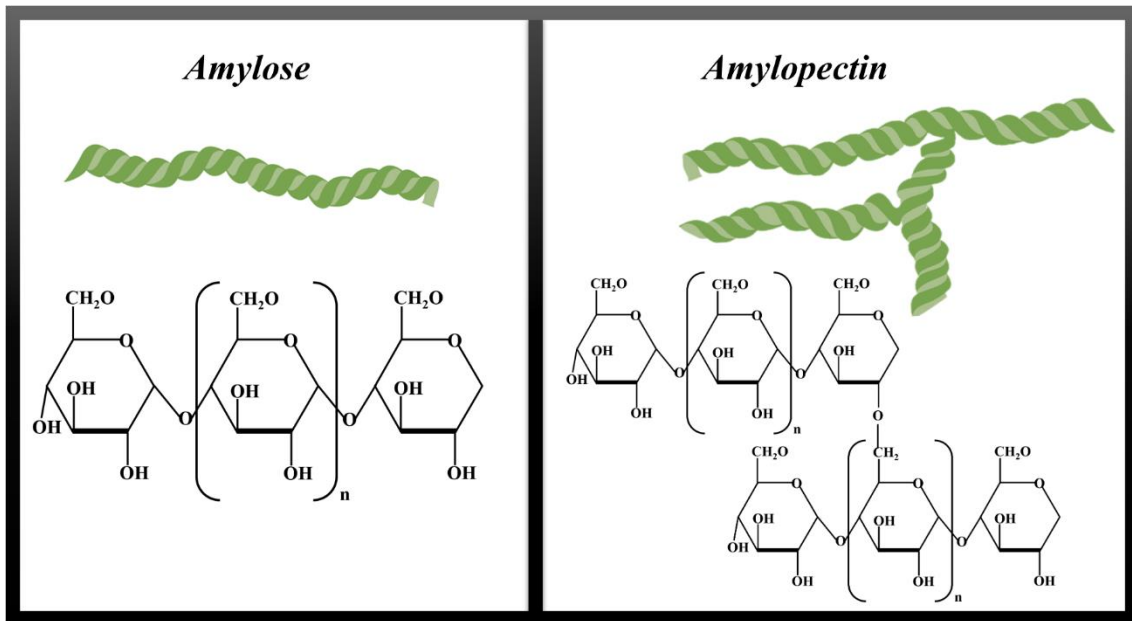
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158 **2. Starch: natural origin, extraction, and general application**

159 *2.1 Structure and sources of starch*

160 Starch is the main source of carbohydrates for humans [57] and has been part of
161 our diet and life since prehistoric times [58]. Egyptians and Romans already used this
162 substance for different purposes [59]. The major constituents of starch are two different
163 carbohydrates polymer: amylose and amylopectin. Amylose is a linear polysaccharide
164 with α -(1-4)-linked D-glucose units. However, depending on the molecular weight,
165 amylose molecules may contain ten or more branches. In contrast, amylopectin

166 molecules are highly branched., with α -(1–4)-linked D-glucose backbones and exhibits
167 about 5% of α -(1–6)-linked branches, which have a prominent effect on some starch
168 properties (Fig. 1).



169
170 **Fig. 1.** Basic structural motifs of amylose and amylopectin, along with the labeling of
171 the atoms and torsion angles. Extension of the basic motifs to macromolecular
172 structures [60].

173

174 Starch granules can be found in different parts of the plant, such as seeds,
175 flowers, stems roots, tubers, etc., and constitute an important energy reserve for them
176 [61]. One of the most important properties of starch is the relative amount of its two
177 main polysaccharides: amylose and amylopectin. [62]. In this way, determining the
178 amylose/amylopectin proportion is of fundamental importance for understanding the
179 expected starches' properties [63, 64].

180

181 2.2 Starch extraction sources

182 Usually, the starch extraction method is linked to its source. In this review, we
183 will focus on the extraction of starch in potatoes and cassava, which are the types of
184 starches most used in the production of electrochemical sensors and biosensors.

185

186

187 *2.2.1 Potato starch*

188 Potato is one of the cheapest, most abundant, and ubiquitous food crops used
189 across the globe and the fourth most produced behind rice, wheat, and corn [65]. In
190 terms of production, half of the world's production is consumed fresh, and the rest is
191 used in the food industry for various purposes such as flour, snacks, flakes, and starch
192 [66].

223 The extraction of potato starch (PS) occurs directly through the tissue structure
224 due to the low content of proteins and lipids (values below 4%). For the extraction of
225 PS, the steps involved are milling, decantation, centrifugation, successive washes of the
226 starch with distilled water, and drying. During the milling step, sodium metabisulfite is
227 added to repress the oxidation of tyrosine (Tyr), dihydroxyphenylalanine, and/or
228 chlorogenic acid as catalyzed by polyphenol oxidase and prevents the formation of
229 melanin, which has a red-brown color.

230 The amount of PS extracted is also influenced by the speed of rotation and time
231 of extraction. In an experiment carried out by Altemimi and colleagues [67] the spin
232 speed (ranging from 1000 to 3000 rpm) and time of extraction (ranging from 5 to 15
233 min) were used to evaluate the starch extraction yield in potatoes. The results showed
234 that the samples processing at 3000 rpm and 15 min resulted in the highest yield of
235 extracted starch when compared to 1000 rpm of rotation speed.

236

237 *2.2.2 Cassava starch*

238 Cassava also known as tapioca, manioc, or yucca is a tropical and sub-tropical
239 crop with high tolerance to drought, harsh climatic conditions, and high productivity in
240 poor soils [68]. With a starch-rich tuberous root, cassava provides a good source of
241 carbohydrates. Furthermore, cassava is the second most important botanical source of
242 industrial starch, behind corn [69].

243 When compared to other sources of starch, cassava starch (CS) is one of the
244 easiest to extract, mainly because its tubers contain a very low quantity of proteins and
245 fats, and lower amylose content than other amylose-containing starches, and high
246 molecular weights of amylose and amylopectin [70].

247 For CS, extraction of fresh roots is used, at first, they are washed, then chopped
248 and grated in sulfur-containing water to separate the starch from the pulp in the
249 extractor. After this, the starch fraction is separated from the pulp and de-watered before

250 drying. Before drying the starch, it can be stored in a $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_5$ solution to inhibit
251 microbial growth [71]. Likewise, for PS, there are several extraction methods for CS,
252 from the most rudimentary such as those developed by indigenous peoples to the most
253 sophisticated ones developed in research laboratories.

254

255 **3. Properties of Starch**

256 *3.1 Analytical and structural aspects*

257 The two major polymers in starches, amylose, and amylopectin have different
258 properties. While amylose results in robust films and hard gels due to its high memory
259 leak, amylopectin in aqueous media produces films and gels with opposite
260 characteristics due to their greater stability. Another important element is the
261 intertwining between the amylose and amylopectin molecules. It has been found that
262 when this entanglement is done in the presence of lipids and phospholipids properties
263 such as pasting temperature, viscosity, and retrogradation rate of pastes, for example,
264 are considerably affected. In addition, other components of starch that are found in
265 small amounts in granules, such as phosphate ester groups and free fatty acids, also
266 significantly affect the properties of starch pastes and gels [72, 73].

267

268 *3.1.1 Molar mass (MM), granules features, and crystallinity of starch*

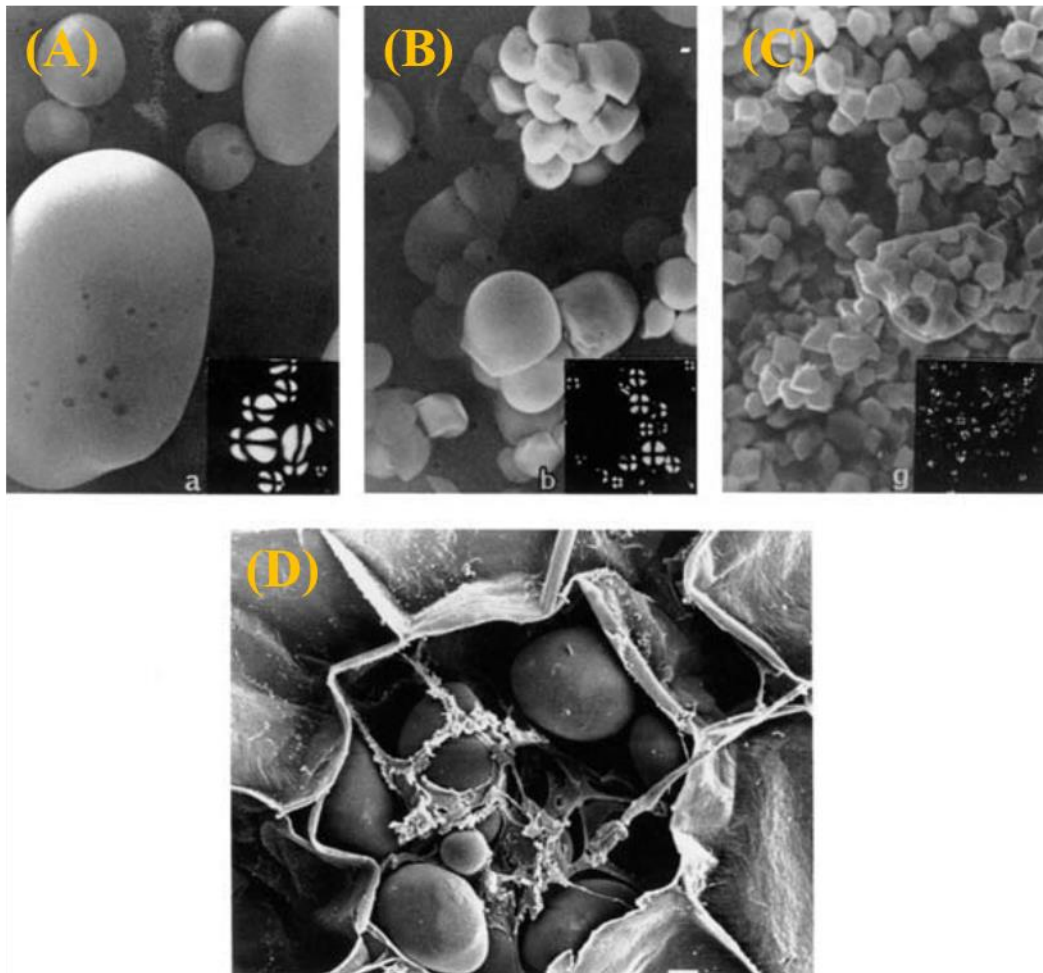
269 Molar mass (MM) is one of the most fundamental parameters in the
270 characterization of a polymer. For starches that are known to be formed mainly by two
271 types of polymers, it can be said that the average molar mass and molar mass
272 distribution are important properties. The molecular mass of starch is an important
273 characteristic influencing the retrogradation properties [74] and their conditions of
274 implementation. The determination of MM can be done by size-exclusion
275 chromatography (SEC) [75] or by field-flow fractionation (FFF) [76].

276 The stability and physical properties of starch materials are largely dependent on
277 the nature of the amorphous and crystalline domains present in native granules or
278 processed starch materials. The outer surface of granules from most of the existing
279 starches is the main barrier to processes that directly affect their properties, such as
280 enzyme attacks and chemical reactions with modifying agents. Fig. 2 shows some
281 typical surface morphology of the starches samples as revealed using scanning electron
282 microscopy (SEM). [77] described this morphology as a *hairy billiard ball*.

283 Understanding the surface chemistry of starch granules is an important step toward
284 improvements in electrochemical applications such as sensors and biosensors. The
285 crystallinity is also important because it allows the control of a certain number of
286 properties such as gelatinization, water content, stability of polymorphs, and even how
287 amylose and amylopectin are distributed in the starch granules. X-ray diffraction is the
288 main technique used to determine the crystallinity of the granules. The experiments
289 carried out so far show that four different X-ray diffraction patterns were obtained for
290 the most diverse types of starches. These patterns are designated by A, B, C, and V-
291 pattern and can be assigned as follows: [78].

- 292 • A-pattern: cereal starches (except high-amylose varieties);
- 293 • B-pattern: root, tubular starches (and for high-amylose varieties) and retrograded
294 starch;
- 295 • C-pattern: beans and peas;
- 296 • V-pattern: gelatinized lipid-containing starches;

297 In general, the degree of crystallinity is associated with the presence of water in
298 the granule and the presence of a greater amount of crystalline domains can be observed
299 for granules with an intermediate amount of water. These crystalline domains are
300 mainly made up of amylopectin molecules, with the double helices arranged in the A, B,
301 or C-pattern.[79, 80].



302

303 **Fig. 2.** Raw starch granules observed by scanning electron microscopy: (A) potato; (B)
 304 cassava; and (C) rice starches. The corresponding granules under polarized light are
 305 shown in insets. (D) shows SEM of in situ granules in potato parenchyma cell
 306 [81].

307

308 *3.3 Starch modification*

309 Several properties of starch including texture, retrogradation, film formation,
 310 and adhesion can be improved by its modification. The starch molecule can be modified
 311 physically and chemically, depending on the purpose or applicability for which it is
 312 intended [82]. Physical modifications are generally easier, safer, and cheaper since they
 313 do not use chemical or biological inputs [83]. In addition, most native starches have
 314 great instability when exposed to different temperatures, shear, and pH conditions. In
 315 this way, it is necessary to modify their structure to increase their range of applications
 316 [84].

317

318

319 *3.3.1 Physical modification of starches*

320 Different particle sizes and stability in water are the main changes brought by
321 the physical modification of starch. These modifications directly impact properties such
322 as retrogradation, shear, solubility, and gelatinization and generally employ a variety of
323 techniques such as hydrothermal processes [85], mechanical activation with stirring ball
324 mill [86], superheated starch [87], pulsed electric fields (PEF) treatment [88] and so on.

325 The hydrothermal treatment causes changes in the properties of starch, allowing
326 interactions between starch chains and contributing to improving crystalline perfection.
327 Other physical treatments, such as repeated freezing and thawing of starch paste make
328 the starch resistant to digestibility and can be used as an alternative source of nutrients
329 for diabetic patients as well as in the making of polymeric rate control films in
330 controlled drug delivery systems [89].

331

332 *3.3.1 Chemical modification of starches*

333 Chemical modifications in the molecular structure of starches are usually linked
334 to hydroxyl groupings derived mainly from amylose and amylopectin carbohydrates and
335 involve the insertion of functional groupings into these molecules which ultimately
336 result in significant changes in the physical-chemical properties of starches [82].

337 The chemical reactivity of starches is strongly linked with the hydroxyl groups
338 in the carbons in free positions (C-2, C-3, and C-6) from the glycosidic bond linkages
339 and pyranose ring formation. In this way, the starches can for example have their chains
340 separated by hydrolytic cleavage at the glycosidic bonds; C-C bond creating carbonyl
341 groups, or oxidative reaction with the -OH. Other varied reactions with functional and
342 multifunctional reagents also can produce a large class of modified starches, which are
343 called “*starch derivatives*” [90].

344 Various techniques for the chemical modification of starches are shown in Table
345 1. Although most of the chemical modifications are intended to make the starch more
346 available for applications in the food industry, starches have found application in the
347 most varied industrial segments of the non-food sector such as drugs [91], paper [92],
348 building [93], biodegradable materials [94] and adhesive gums [95] industries.

349

350 **Table 1.** Summary of main starch chemical modifications.

Chemical process	Definition	Function	References
Hydrolysis	The reaction in which a water molecule is added across a bond results in the cleavage of that bond and the formation of cleavage products.	Increased viscosity, solubility, and gel stability.	[96, 97]
Oxidation	Oxidation of starch in the presence of strong oxidizing agents, which mimic the reaction of primary alcohols and diols.	Low-temperature stability increased adhesion.	[98, 99]
Esterification	The condensation of an alcohol and a carboxylic acid, usually under acidic conditions, produces an ester and water.	Increased viscosity and stability against high temperature, low pH and shear, reduced retrogradation,	[92, 93, 100, 101]
Etherification	Dehydration of an alcohol to form ethers, which commonly occurs with aliphatic and aromatic alcohols (phenols).	Improved viscosity and stability, cold-water solubility, increasing solubility	[102, 103]
Crosslinking	Cross-linking the starch polymer chains with reagents that can form bonds with more than one hydroxyl group on the molecule results in cross-linked starch.	Delays retrogradation, higher stability to granules swelling, high shear, high temperature, and low pH.	[104, 105]

351

352

3.4 Starch solubility

353 The solubility of starches is influenced by several factors, such as the ratio
354 between their main constituents, namely amylose and amylopectin, phospholipids and
355 phosphate groups, etc. [78]. The solubility of amylose is variable in the water while the
356 amylopectin is soluble as a function of the highly branched structure [106]. Amylose
357 and amylopectin can interact with phospholipids present in starch and form complexes
358 that decrease the solubility of starch granules [54]. On the other hand, the presence of
359 phosphate groups in some types of starch such as PS increases the swelling capacity of
360 starch granules and consequently its solubility [107].

361 Although most starch molecules have no charge (except for starches that contain
362 phosphate groups), the pH has some influence on the solubility of starch granules.
363 Starch granules exposed to solutions with low pH suffer hydrolysis, already at high pH
364 a gelatinization may occur [108]. Amylose is solubilized in NaOH solution at room
365 temperature as a consequence of starch granules swell [109].

366 Since starches are poorly soluble in water and the most common organic
367 solvents, strategies for modifying starches in an aqueous solution have been developed.

368 Among these modifications, we can highlight acetylation. Acetylated starch is
369 commonly obtained by esterification of native starch with replacement of hydroxyl
370 groups by acetyl groups in starch molecules leading to a structural reorganization owing
371 to steric hindrance; as a result, the repulsion between starch molecules, thus facilitating
372 an increase in water percolation within the amorphous regions of the granules and a
373 consequent increase in solubility [107, 110].

374

375 3.5 *Starch stability*

376 Stability is one of the functional properties of starch that also depends on the
377 molecular structure of its components, especially amylose and amylopectin. The native
378 starch usually needs to go through some kind of modifications, be it physical or
379 chemical, to become stable for the various applications that the starch finds in the food
380 and non-food industries.

381

382 3.5.1 *Pre-gelatinized starch*

383 It is well-known that in aqueous solution native starches present retrogradation,
384 low solubility, and are unstable [54]. Modifications in starch like those introduced by
385 physical methods such as drum dryer, extrusion, and spray-dryer tend to promote a
386 rapid gelatinization of starch and produce pre-gelatinized starches [110, 111].

387 Pre-gelatinized starches exhibit excellent cold water solubility, long-term
388 stability, and low retrogradation, and when compared to untreated starch they are easily
389 dispersed in the water-forming gel at room temperature and are less subject to
390 precipitate formation [112].

391

392 3.5.2 *Temperature and pH*

393 Chemical modifications such as etherification, acetylation, oxidation, and
394 crosslinking are the main routes used to obtain stable starches at temperature and pH
395 variations [113-116]. In all cases, the starch stability is achieved from structural
396 modifications with the addition of specific functional groups and/or breakdown and
397 creation of new bonds that lead to changes in starch polarity and interruption of the
398 linearity of amylose and the ramified portion of amylopectin [117].

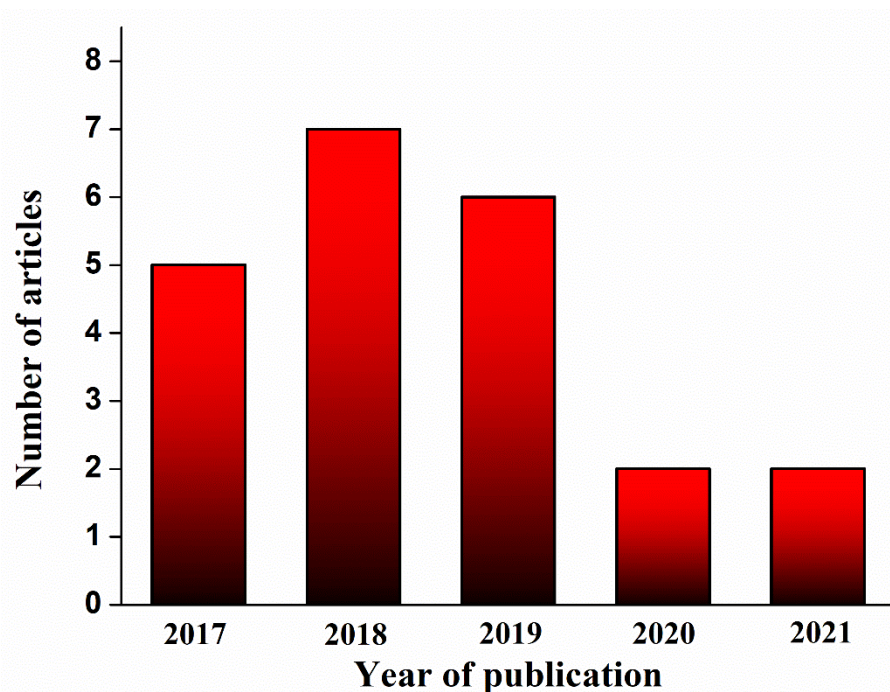
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402 4. Starch in electrochemical sensors and biosensors

403 The optimization of electrochemical devices looks for materials that besides
404 offering an increase in sensitivity and stability can also be eco-friendly and cheap to
405 extract or synthesize. In this scenario, starches have gained space in the development of
406 electrochemical sensing platforms, as we will see in this section. From 2017 to 2021, 22
407 articles have been reported in the literature on the use of starch in the modification of
408 electrochemical sensors, the distribution of these articles over the years can be seen in
409 Fig. 3.



410 **Fig. 3.** Relation of the number of articles using starch in electrochemical sensors vs.
411 year of publication. The research was done on the Web of Science and keywords:
412 Electrochemical sensor and starch.
413

414
415 As can be seen in Fig. 3, the largest number of published articles are
416 concentrated in the years 2017 to 2019. In addition, in the following years, the number
417 of works involving starches as a modifier for electrochemical sensors decreased. This
418 decrease can be attributed to the beginning of the SARS-CoV-2 pandemics, which
419 consequently led to periods of lockdown around the world, affecting the functioning of
420 research laboratories. Nevertheless, the use of starch still has an enormous potential for
421 application as a modifier compound to be explored, since the development of new
422 electrochemical sensors has expanded a lot in recent years, mainly with the
423 development of new platforms, whether they are 3D printed or low-cost devices. Thus,

424 the use of starch as a tool for modifying electrochemical sensors still has much to be
425 researched and used, since its characteristics, such as being easy to obtain, low cost,
426 renewable and eco-friendly, bring enormous advantages. The use of green materials in
427 the development of sensors is a great alternative for reducing the use of toxic and
428 hazardous reagents and minimizing environmental impacts [118]. In this regard, starch
429 can be highlighted as a biodegradable, non-toxic, and sustainable material, which can
430 contribute to the reduction of toxic waste, and has been (poorly) explored in the
431 construction of sensing platforms. A list of works related to starch-based sensors and
432 biosensors is shown in Table 2, highlighting the main characteristics of the methods
433 developed and the analytes of interest. The main starches reported in the use of sensor
434 modifiers are potato and cassava. Different strategies have been used in the
435 incorporation of starch into other electroactive materials such as by producing/mixing
436 with nanoparticles, carbon black, graphene, nanodiamonds, enzymes, etc, for the
437 proposition of sensors and biosensors.
438

439 Table 2 - Modified electrochemical sensors and biosensors with different types of
 440 starches

Starch	Sensor/biosensor	Analyte/probe	Technique	Linear range ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	LOD ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	Ref
Potato	CM-CGE	Hg(II)	SWASV	0 to 0.25	-	[45]
Potato	RGO-GNPs- PS/GCE	Estriol	LSV	1.5 to 22	0.48	[41]
Potato	CB-PS/GCE	Tetracycline	DPV	5.0 – 120	1.15	[40]
Potato	PANI/MWCNTs/Sta rch	Cholesterol	CV	32 – 5000	10	[119]
Potato	Tyr-ND-PS/GCE	Catechol	DPV	5.0 – 740	0.39	[42]
Potato	EP-imprinted MIP- sensor	Epinephrine	DPV	1 – 10	0.22	[120]
Potato	CPE/S// NanoCo	Paracetamol	DPV	0.02 – 150	0.0009	[46]
Potato	PANI-ES-SAuNPs	Hydrogen peroxide	CV	100 – 5000	32	[48]
Potato	CuS-NPs/MCPE	Caffeine	DPV	2 – 120	0.018	[49]
Potato	ZnO-NPs/MGCE	Caffeine	DPV	2 – 100	0.038	[121]
Potato	Starch NP-RGO EQCM	Transferrin	DPV	1 – 10	20 ppb	[122]
Potato	SS-CS/GCE	L-Tyrosine D-Tyrosine	SWV	10 – 1000 10 – 1000	0.35 0.32	[123]
Potato	γ -Fe ₂ O ₃ -GCE	Folic acid	DPV	0.05 – 1.0 1.0 – 80.0	0.0028 0.0480	[124]
Potato	CL starch-CPE	-	-	-	-	[125]
Cassava	RGO-MS/GCE	Dopamine Catechol	DPV	0.5 – 200 0.5 – 74	0.07 0.04	[47]
Cassava	GCE-M221-Fe ₃ O ₄	Paracetamol Caffeine	DPV	50 – 2000 50 – 900	16 23	[44]
Cassava	ND-MS/GCE	Diquat	SWV	0.5 – 46	0.11	[39]
Cassava	N-TiO ₂ -TP/GCE	17- β estradiol	LSV	0.99 – 12	0.17	[126]
Cassava	ND-MS/GCE	Tetracycline	DPV	5 – 180	2.0	[127]
Sago	CNPs-SPCE	Japanese encephalitis Virus	EIS	10 – 5 00 ng mL ⁻¹	<10 ng mL ⁻¹	[128]
Jackfruit seeds	AHS starch	Dopamine	DPV	30 – 90	0.00274	[129]

441

442

443 4.1 Starch (bio)sensors based on potato

444 Starch from potatoes has a high percentage of phosphate groups in its structure
445 when compared to other starches, which is favorable for chemical modifications that
446 produce derivatives with high solubility [130]. In addition, the presence of high
447 molecular weight amylose and properties such as low gelatinization temperature and a
448 high paste consistency leads to the formation of good films, with moderate mechanical
449 resistance, chemical stability, and excellent biocompatibility [131, 132].

450 An interesting method of producing carbon microspheres (CM) from PS
451 proposed by Lin 2017 [45] was used to produce modified glassy carbon electrodes
452 (GCE) and applied for the detection of Hg(II) in river water specimens. The mild
453 hydrothermal method was employed to fabricate the CM with high dispersion through
454 carbonization under high temperature with N₂. For this, PS was solubilized and stirred
455 for 5 hours. Subsequently autoclaved at 180 °C for 16h and finally cooled to room
456 temperature. The products were filtered and purified with ethanol and water, then dried
457 under a vacuum. Finally, the sample was placed in the oven at a heating rate of 4 °C/min
458 and treated under N₂. According to the authors, the sensor produced showed excellent
459 reproducibility, low interference from other metal ions, and a stable use time of one
460 week with efficiency.

461 The determination of estriol hormone in environmental and biological samples
462 using a modified carbon electrode with PS, reduced graphene oxide (RGO), and gold
463 nanoparticles were investigated recently by Jodar et al., 2018 [41]. In this study, PS was
464 described for the first time as a modifying agent and also as an anchor of an
465 electrochemical sensor. The soluble PS was prepared and mixed with RGO and GNPs
466 dispersion and added by drop cast on the surface of the GCE. The solvent was
467 evaporated for 20 min at room temperature. Thus, thin and stable films were obtained
468 on the surface of the working electrode, which showed an excellent electrochemical
469 response for the detection of estriol.

470 Delgado and colleagues [40] developed a modified ultralow-cost electrochemical
471 sensor (<US\$ 0.005 per unit of sensing layer) based on a homogeneous thin film of PS
472 and carbon black (CB) deposited on GCE for detection of tetracycline in water and
473 milk. Their investigations showed that the addition of CB leads to an increase in film
474 porosity, indicating an increase in conductivity for CB-PS films. More expressively, it
475 was shown that CB-PS films even when submitted to more than twenty consecutive
476 measurements showed no change in their performance. Furthermore, the authors report

477 that the CB-PS/GCE electrodes are reproducible and stable and can serve as a new
478 generic platform for detecting other antibiotics and hormones whose redox potentials
479 are similar to those of tetracycline.

480 In 2018, Gautam and co-workers [119] built a new modified carbon paste
481 electrode (CPE) with conductive polymer-based composite, MWCNTs, and PS for non-
482 enzymatic cholesterol determination in a real cow's milk sample. The composite
483 material was prepared by chemical polymerization in situ of aniline in PS suspension
484 and MWCNTs using 0.1 M HCl and ammonium peroxydisulfate. The high sensitivity
485 and lower redox potential for electrocatalytic oxidation of cholesterol were assigned to
486 the interaction with the material with emphasis on the interactions between the sugar
487 chains of starch and the cholesterol molecules. The developed sensor had a high
488 sensitivity ($800 \mu\text{AmM}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$), an extremely low analysis time (4 to 6 seconds), and a
489 high selectivity compared to other tested analytes according to the authors. The same
490 group has used the same electrode modifier material as the basis for the development of
491 biosensors for peroxide and glucose detection [48]. In this work, the determination of
492 hydrogen peroxide by using the CPE modified with polyaniline/multiwall carbon
493 nanotubes/starch and hemoglobin. The developed ternary composite system has
494 multiple interactions and enhanced synergistic properties-high surface area, good
495 electroactivity, conductivity, stable dispersion, and biocompatible. Also, the authors
496 claim that this developed material could be used as a platform to develop some other
497 sensors using other redox enzymes, such as the detection of glucose described in the
498 work as a specimen. Thus, the favorable properties indicate that the proposed material
499 system is suitable for the manufacture of low-cost sensors.

500 Phenolic compounds are probably one of the most studied classes of natural
501 compounds [133]. To counterbalance those that present benefits to human health, many
502 other phenolic compounds such as catechol even when present in micromolar
503 concentrations, are toxic to the human body. An electrochemical biosensor based on
504 carbon nanodiamonds (NDs) and PS for the determination of catechol was proposed by
505 Camargo et al., 2018 [42]. As a proof of concept, the ND/PS film served as a matrix to
506 immobilize Tyrosinase, in which the proposed biosensor was suitable for detecting
507 catechol in river and tap water samples. The method of preparation of the dispersion of
508 PS application was the same indicated in the work described previously [41]. The NDs
509 were added in the proportion 1:1 (w/v) of the PS dispersion and 5 mL of the resulting
510 solution were added to the surface of the GCE and left to dry at room temperature for

511 12h. Furthermore, the authors reported that the ND-PS matrix might have its use
512 extended to immobilize other enzymes and biomolecules, thus representing a potential
513 biocompatible platform for ubiquitous biosensing.

514 Modified CPE with copper sulfide nanoparticles (CuS NPs) was prepared by the
515 simple method of co-precipitation in an aqueous medium using starch as a biopolymer
516 (CuS NPs/MCPE). These interesting NPs CuS were developed for caffeine
517 determination by differential pulse voltammetric (DPV) [49]. CuS NPs were prepared in
518 the solution phase by the co-precipitation method. Subsequently, the starch was
519 solubilized in water heated to 75°C and according to the authors, when it is heated, the
520 semicrystalline structure of the starch is lost. Thus, after adding the Cu(II) solution,
521 copper cations are attracted to the O-H groups of the starch to form Cu(OH)₂. Then,
522 sodium sulfide is added to form a black CuS precipitate. The global chemical equation
523 of the production method can be observed below:

524

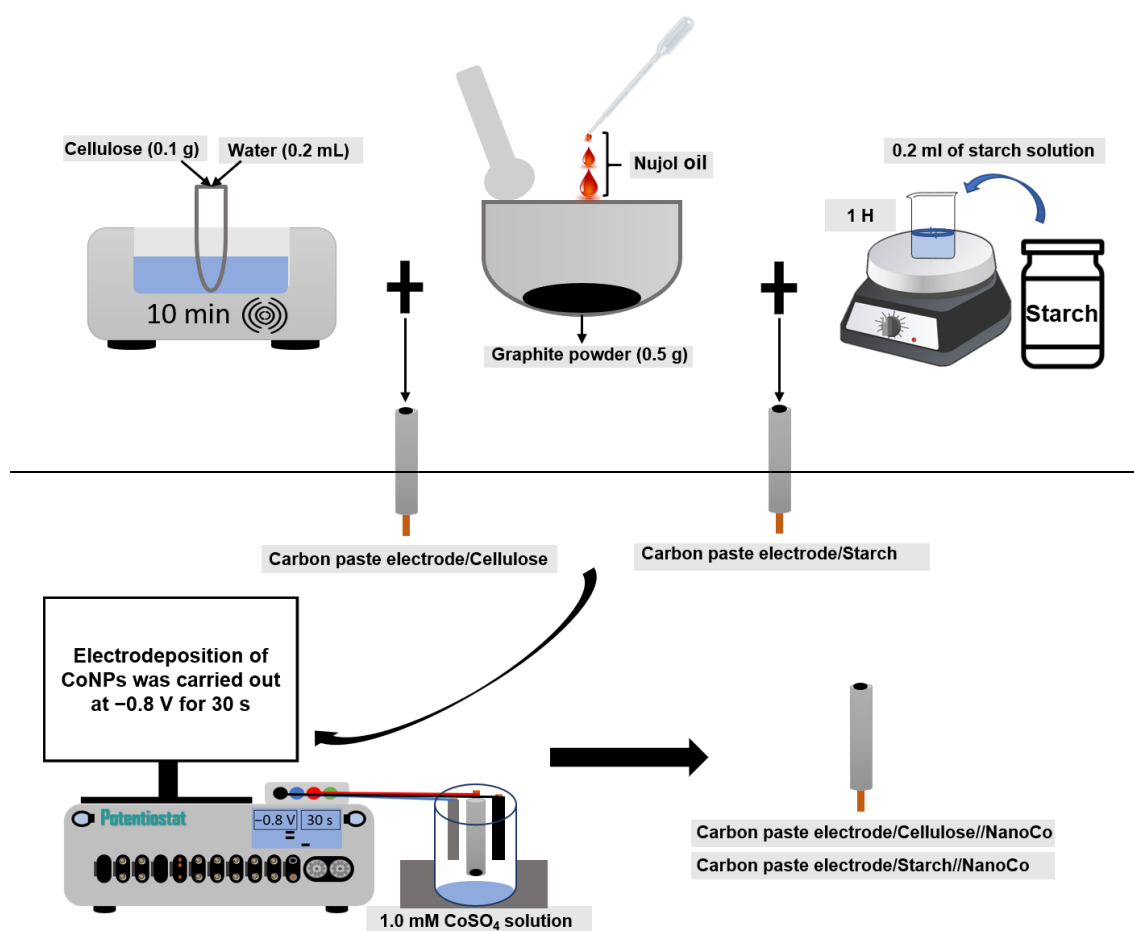


526

527 After the development of the modified electrode, the authors used DPV for the
528 determination of caffeine in real samples. The modified electrode proved to be able to
529 be used as a good sensor for several electroactive species in the field of electroanalysis.
530 Another interesting work was presented by the same research group following the same
531 modification method using PS. Thereat, a new electrochemical sensor based on zinc
532 oxide nanoparticles (ZnO-NPs/MGCE) electrode was developed to determine caffeine
533 again [121]. The electrochemical sensor was modified with ZnO-NPs following the
534 same general equation (1). The method of determination used was DPV and
535 successfully managed to determine caffeine in samples of commercial beverages with
536 recovery values of 102 to 106%.

537 An electrochemical sensor for epinephrine in blood plasma was developed by
538 anchoring a molecularly imprinted polymer (molecularly imprinted polymers (MIP))
539 matrix on the surface of a gold-coated quartz crystal electrode of electrochemical quartz
540 crystal microbalance (EQCM) using PS nanoparticles (Starch NP) and RGO
541 nanocomposite [120]. The MIP sensor was designed by electroplating the NP-RGO
542 starch composite on the EQCM electrode in the presence of the EP model. The authors
543 emphasize that the developed sensor is environmentally friendly with high sensitivity
544 and good selectivity, which can be applied in “real” matrices easily and practically.

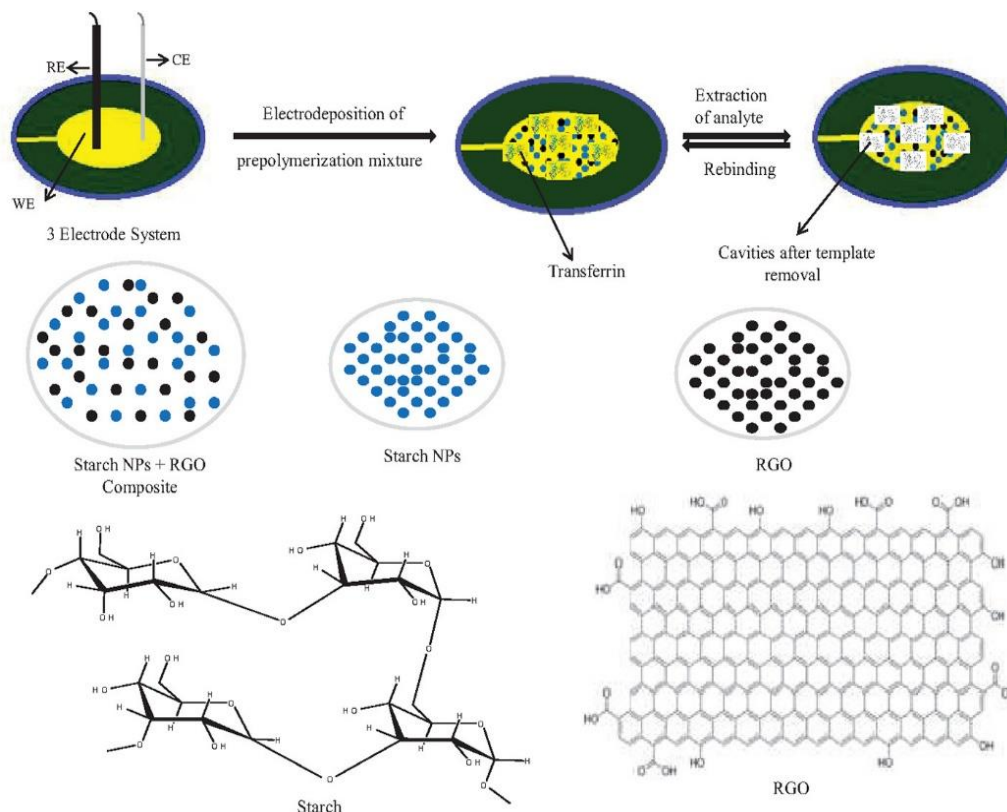
545 A comparison between sensors modified with cobalt nanoparticles in the
 546 presence of cellulose and PS for the determination of paracetamol in a pharmaceutical
 547 formulation in the presence of warfarin and caffeine was proposed by Azab et al., 2019
 548 [46]. The difference between the behavior of the two polymers (cellulose and starch)
 549 was investigated electrochemically through voltammetric and spectroscopic impedance
 550 measurements. The procedure used was based on the mixture of nujol oil and soluble
 551 starch/cellulose to modify the CGE. The experimental procedure for producing the
 552 CPE/C, CPE/S, CPE/C//NanoCo, and CPE/S//NanoCo performed is shown in Fig. 4.



553
 554 **Fig. 4.** Schematic model of the methodology for producing the modified carbon paste
 555 electrodes. (Adapted by Azab 2019).

556
 557 In another work, Srivastava et al., 2019 [122], presented an electrochemical
 558 sensor based on gold-coated quartz crystal microbalance (EQCM) with a surface
 559 modified with MIP using starch nanoparticles and graphite oxide nanocomposite
 560 reduced. As a proof of concept, the electrochemical sensor was tested for transferrin
 561 detection in real human blood plasma samples. The preparation of starch nanoparticles
 562 was performed using the ionotropic gelation method. For this, initially, a solution of

563 0.1% starch (w/v) in water, was kept under heating and constant stirring for 5 hours. For
 564 fabrication of the final electrode, the starch-graphene nanocomposite with an analyte
 565 molecule (transferrin) was electrodeposited on the surface of the gold-coated EQCM
 566 electrode via cyclic voltammetry (CV). The fabrication scheme of the compounds
 567 described above is shown in Figure 5. Finally, the authors applied the sensor to
 568 determine transferrin in blood plasma which provided satisfactory responses that
 569 demonstrate the effectiveness and feasibility of the developed sensor.



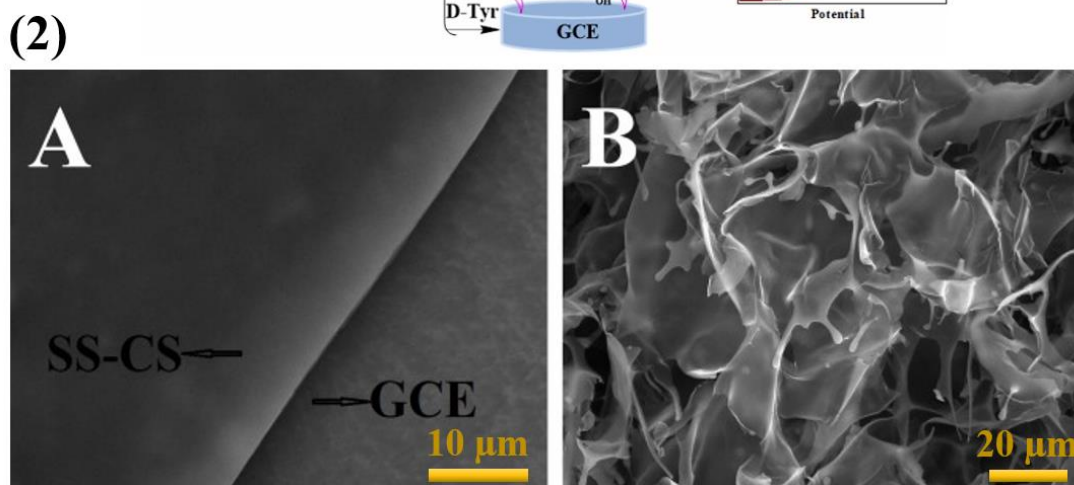
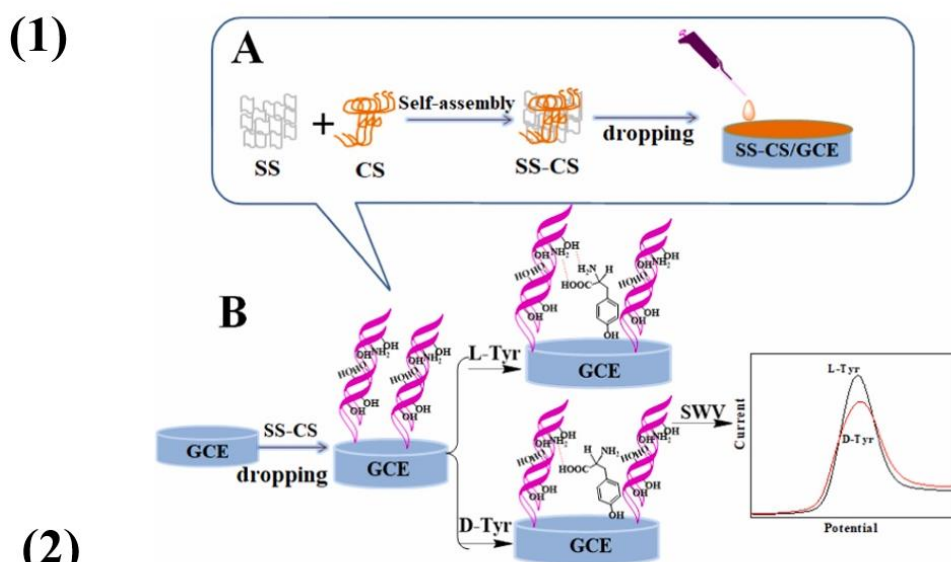
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572 Fig. 5. Schematic representation for fabrication of starch nanoparticle - RGO composite
 573 molecularly imprinted polymer. (Reprinted from Srivastava et al., 2019 with permission
 574 of Elsevier).

575

576 Zou et al., 2019 [123] developed a GCE electrochemical sensor based on two
 577 polysaccharides, soluble starch (SS) and chitosan (CS) for the detection of Tyr
 578 enantiomers. For the preparation of the working electrode, the SS was dispersed in
 579 water and heated at 130°C for 30 min. For a better design, an illustrative scheme of the
 580 experimental procedure and the images obtained by electronic scanning microscopy of
 581 the sensor modified with SS and CS can be seen in Figure 6. According to the authors,
 582 the SS-CS composite itself has a porous lattice structure. In this way, the composite

583 present on the surface of the CGE could also be used as an attractive chiral model for
 584 the recognition of Tyr enantiomers due to the chiral characteristics of the two
 585 polysaccharides. The sensor was tested on a series of interfering compounds to
 586 demonstrate selectivity, and the compounds did not exhibit any significant
 587 interferences. Finally, Tyr was determined in a racemic solution, demonstrating a good
 588 efficiency of the starch-modified electrochemical sensor.



589
 590 Figure 6. (1) The schematic diagram of the experimental procedure: (1A) The preparation of SS-CS/GCE;
 591 (1B) The proposed mechanism for the chiral electrochemical recognition of Tyr enantiomers on SS-
 592 CS/GCE. (2) Characterization, (2A) FE-SEM image of SS-CS/GCE shows a uniform surface due to the
 593 dispersion of the composite on the surface of the GCE forming a very smooth planar film; (B) FE-SEM
 594 image of SS-CS composite, which has a porous network structure (Reprinted from Zou et al., 2019 with
 595 permission of Elsevier).

596

597 Ramu et al., 2019 [124], presented a work demonstrating the use of starch in a
 598 different way, which aims to obtain nanoparticles of γ -Fe₂O₃ (maghemite) with starch
 599 aid to modify a CGE. The electrochemical sensor was used in the determination of folic

600 acid in pharmaceutical samples. For the production of nanoparticles, initially, a 2:1
601 molar ratio solution of ferric chloride hexahydrate and ferrous sulfate heptahydrate
602 solutions were prepared, then the starch solution was added under constant stirring at a
603 temperature of 60 °C until obtaining a brownish-black precipitate. The precipitate was
604 removed, washed several times, and dried, then pulverized and calcined to obtain the
605 desired nanoparticles. The nanoparticles were dispersed in distilled water and ultra-
606 sonicated to obtain a homogeneous suspension. Finally, for the modification of the
607 CGE, the suspension was deposited on the electrode surface and dried at room
608 temperature. The determination in a pharmaceutical sample was performed through the
609 recovery test, obtaining values between 96 and 101%, demonstrating that there was no
610 significant matrix presence. Thus, the authors emphasize that the sensor demonstrates
611 great potential, mainly because it uses a simple and ecologically correct modification.

612 Sayka et al., 2019 [125], described the synthesis of an unusually modified starch
613 (CL starch), employing succinic anhydride, and evaluated if the proposed starch
614 influenced the electrochemical response of carbon paste electrodes. The mixture was
615 homogenized, and the carbon paste formed (CPE/CL) was packed into the cavity of a
616 Teflon tube provided with a copper electrical contact. More promising electrochemical
617 features were obtained using CL starch than bare CPE or CPE containing unmodified
618 starch, attributed to the lower hydrophilic character presented by CPE/CL, resulting in a
619 lower background current. This shows that even the modification of PS is capable of
620 providing good electrochemical sensors.

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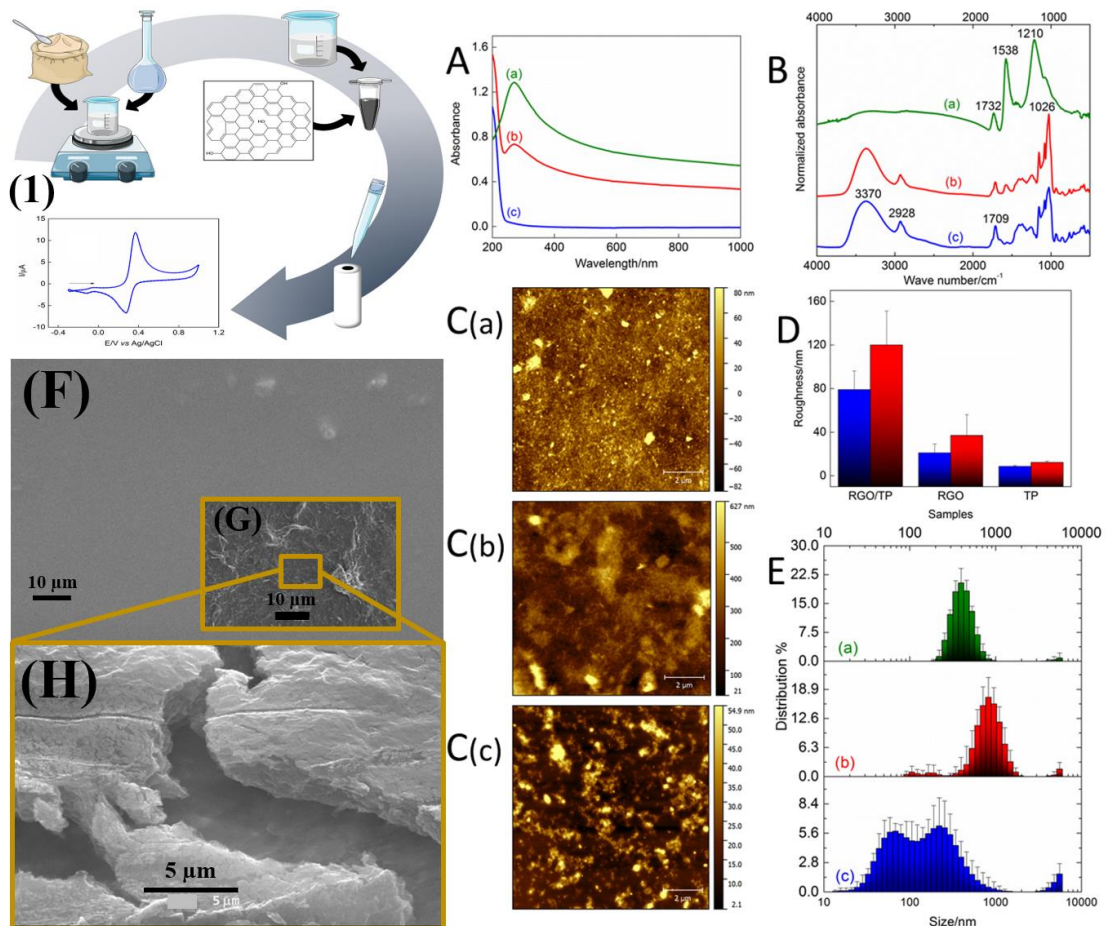
622 *4.2 Starch (bio)sensors based on casava*

623 The use of starch as a modifier and anchor of electrochemical sensors is an area
624 of research still poorly explored, but it has recently gained attention mainly due to its
625 low cost and abundance, and as highlighted before, for its ability to form stable and
626 biocompatible films [132]. The CS, also known as manioc and tapioca, has also proven
627 to be an excellent source of starch for electrochemical applications as will be detailed in
628 the following works.

629 In 2017, Oliveira et al. [126] presented a new sensor architecture based on thin
630 tapioca (TP) biofilm decorated with nitrogen-doped titanium dioxide nanoparticles in
631 GCE for the detection of 17- β estradiol in tap water and samples of synthetic urine. The
632 method used to produce starch dispersion is the same as used by Jodar et al., 2018 [41].
633 The formation of the TP film was revealed to be homogenous and when incorporated

634 with N-TiO₂, the presence of granules was observed throughout the film suggesting a
 635 good interaction between the starch and the nanoparticles. Therefore, the authors
 636 demonstrate that the electrochemical sensor produced has good repeatability and
 637 reproducibility with standard deviations of 5.3 and 5.1%, respectively.

638 Janegitz's group designed a sensing platform based on a new composite from a
 639 thin film of CS and RGO which allowed sensitive and selective determination of
 640 dopamine and catechol in different samples [47]. Using this setup and by DPV, they
 641 could detect dopamine and catechol with LOD of the 0.07 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ and 0.04 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$,
 642 respectively. The low LOD values and the excellent electrochemical behavior of the
 643 material, demonstrate the great potential of MS to be used in the proposed application,
 644 as a biopolymer film of easy manufacture and great stability. In addition, the work
 645 presents a series of interesting characterizations, including scanning electron and atomic
 646 force microscopy, ultraviolet-visible, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopies, and
 647 dynamic light scattering (DLS). The sensor production preparation scheme, as well as
 648 the characterizations performed, can be seen in Figure 7.



649
 650 Fig. 7. (1) Schematic illustration of Preparation of RGO-MS/GCE. (A) UV-Vis absorbance spectra of (a)
 651 RGO, (b) RGO-MS and (c) MS. (B) FT-IR spectra of (a) RGO, (b) RGO-MS and (c) MS. (C) AFM

652 images, with the morphologic variation of (a) RGO, (b) RGO-MS and (c) MS. (D) Roughness bar graph,
653 with calculated R_a (blue) and R_q (red) results. (E) Size distribution of (a) RGO, (b) RGO-MS, and (c)
654 MS, determined by DLS. (F) SEM images of MS, the biopolymer film presented a homogeneous,
655 uniform, and smooth surface. (G) RGO-MS, with the addition of RGO, the surface is no longer smooth,
656 showing rough characteristics. (H) Present the lateral section of RGO-MS SEM images (Reprinted from
657 Orzari et al., 2018 with permission of Elsevier).

658

659 A MIP sensor modified with CS - Fe_3O_4 was designed by Mulyasuryani et al,
660 2019 [44] for simultaneous voltammetric detection of acetaminophen and caffeine.
661 Starch dispersion was prepared and added CS to boiling water, then a few drops of 0.1
662 M NaOH solution were added to the pH value of 10. Following, 22 mL STPP was
663 added along with 11 mL acetaminophen and 11 mL caffeine. MIP membranes with the
664 best sensitivity were produced in a 2:2:1 mixing ratio. The performance of the sensor
665 was also affected by the pH of the solution and the type of buffer solution used. In
666 addition, the authors claim that CS/STPP: acetaminophen/caffeine in the MIP
667 membrane mixture positively influences the sensitivity of the developed sensor.

668 Sensors for the detection of herbicides are a well-researched topic in the
669 literature. Zambianco et al. [39] explored the manioc starch (MS) and nanodiamonds
670 nanoparticles for fabricating a new architecture of an electrochemical sensor for diquat
671 (DQ) determination in environmental samples, a non-selective contact herbicide. The
672 procedure for modifying and producing the dispersion of MS is the same as that of
673 Jodar et al, 2018. According to the authors, the sensor developed showed an excellent
674 response to diquat for determining it in rivers and samples of drinking water showing its
675 efficiency as an environmental sensor. Furthermore, their investigations have shown
676 that manioc starch film plays a key role in anchoring nanodiamonds to the surface of
677 GCE.

678 In this regard, a thin biofilm composed of nanodiamonds and manioc starch has
679 been proposed by Fernandes-Junior et al., 2021 [127]. The authors modified a GCE
680 with the biofilm for the detection of the antibiotic tetracycline. The manioc starch
681 dispersion was prepared, mixed with the nanodiamonds, and cast on a GCE surface.
682 After 2 hours, the solvent evaporated, and the biofilm was formed. The experimental
683 procedure showing the complete steps involved can be seen in Figure 7. The obtained
684 thin film presented high homogeneity and stability, showing that the use of manioc
685 starch is an interesting strategy.

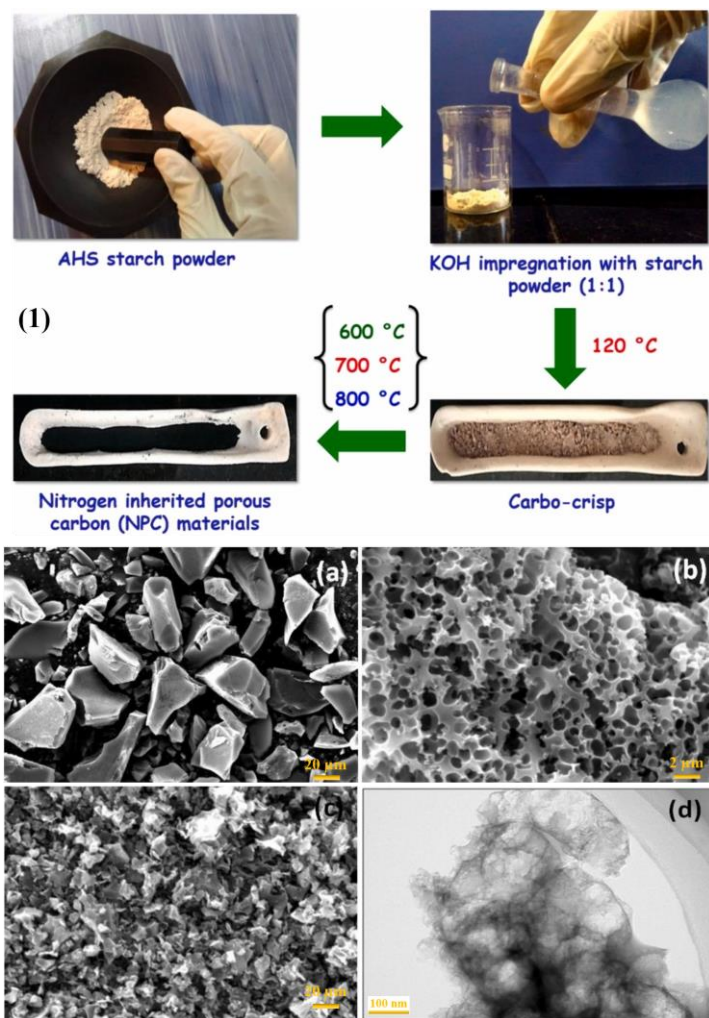
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687 *4.3 Starch (bio)sensors based on other plant material*

688 Chin et al. [128], described a disposable electrochemical immunosensor with an
689 application for the detection of the Japanese encephalitis virus (JEV). The developed
690 method was based on the use of a screen-printed electrode (SPCE) modified with
691 carbon nanoparticles that were prepared from sago starch nanoparticles and deposited
692 on the SPCE working electrode whose surface was functionalized with 3-aminopropyl
693 triethoxysilane. Then, the antibody of JEV was immobilized on the surfaces of the
694 CNPs. The method of synthesizing CNPs were synthesized from preformed SS
695 nanoparticles, where starch nanoparticles were prepared by adding dropwise, a starch
696 solution to excess ethanol. SS nanoparticles formed were subsequently converted to
697 carbon nanoparticles by dehydration with concentrated H₂SO₄. The authors observed an
698 increase in electron transfer kinetics and the current intensity of the modified SPCE by
699 63% compared to an unmodified SPCE. This immunosensor strip was successfully
700 applied to the detection of JEV in human serum samples. Furthermore, it represents a
701 cost-effective alternative to conventional diagnostic tests for JEV according to the
702 authors.

703 An elegant use for starch has been proposed by Kasturi et al., 2018 [129]. In
704 their work, the starch obtained from jackfruit seeds was a precursor for preparing a
705 nitrogen-inherited porous carbon material. For this, jackfruit seed starch powder was
706 dried and stirred with 0.5 g of KOH overnight to obtain an activated carbon precursor,
707 which was crushed and carbonized at different temperatures for 1 h under a constant
708 flow of nitrogen. Figure 8 presents a schematic representation of the processes involved
709 and the field emission scanning electron microscopy (FE-SEM) images. The carbon
710 samples obtained were washed with double-distilled water, ethanol, and HCl. After
711 drying, the solid was ground to a fine powder and sealed in an airtight container. The
712 prepared NPC material was employed for the modification of a GCE, which was then
713 applied towards the detection of dopamine with high selectivity and sensitivity. The
714 inherited nitrogen atoms provided wettability for the adsorption of the molecule of
715 dopamine, thus, an increase in the current and a very low onset potential were observed
716 in the determination of dopamine.

717



718

719 Figure 8. (1) Representative scheme of the preparation of activated carbon from AHS starch powder.

720 FE-SEM images of (a) NPC-1, the structure with no porosity represents the inability of KOH to penetrate

721 the surface of the carbon matrix (b) NPC-2, which presents interconnected cylindrical pores due to

722 penetration of KOH in the material network. (c) NPC-3, the presence of a higher number of aggregate

723 structures without any porous morphology was observed due to the high carbonization temperature. and

724 (d) the TEM image of NPC-2. ((Reprinted from Kasturi et al., 2021 with permission of Elsevier).

725

726

727 **5. Conclusions and Perspectives**

728 Natural polymers are very good alternatives that have been applied in several
729 fields. Their relevant properties make them very attractive for replacing synthetic
730 materials in various applications. Starch has been considered an interesting biopolymer
731 in the development of sensors and biosensors because of its excellent properties.

732 Starch has been successfully used in electrode modification for the development
733 of electrochemical sensors and biosensors. The physicochemical characteristics of
734 starch have been exploited to produce membranes and thin films with a great
735 electrochemical response. A wide variety of nanomaterials have been anchored to
736 electrode surfaces using starch as a mediator and simple techniques such as drop-
737 casting.

738 Thus, the properties of starches allow the introduction of chemical modifications
739 which can collectively lead to major performance improvements. The chemically
740 modified electrodes by starch are very recent and several mechanisms of interaction
741 with materials used as modifiers still need to be elucidated to obtain more sensitive and
742 reproducible sensors and biosensors.

743 In the future, three-dimensional structures and multi-imprinting of several
744 templates could be performed by using starch, which can open the door to a fascinating
745 range of fundamental applications. In this regard, the use of 3D printing technology can
746 play an important role, enabling, besides the formation of surface films on 3D printed
747 electrodes, the mixture of starches in the structure of thermoplastic filaments for fused
748 deposition modeling printing as an example, attributing characteristics such as
749 flexibility and elasticity to the developed sensors.

750

751

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