1	Proof of Concept of the Electrochemical Sensing of 3-iodothyronamine
2	(T_1AM) and Thyronamine (T_0AM)
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- 25 Abstract (925/1000 characters)
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It is shown in recent studies that besides the well-recognized T_3 and T_4 there are other relevant 28 thyroid hormones circulating in the human body. In particular this is the case for 3-29 iodothyronamine (T₁AM) and thyronamine (T₀AM). One of the reasons for the lack of studies 30 showing its precise importance is the absence of analytical methodologies available. Herein, for 31 the first time, T_1AM and T_0AM are electrochemically characterized. T_0AM was sensed by means 32 of a glassy carbon electrode; interestingly T_1AM was sensed both with a graphitic surface 33 (oxidatively) as well as with mercury (reductively). With both compounds it was possible to, 34 subsequently to oxidation, to observe the reversible redox reaction concerning the couple 35 benzoquinone/hydroquinone, thus increasing the specificity of the electroanalysis. Ergo, this 36 work provides the basis for an 'at-point-of-use' electrochemical strips test for T₁AM and T₀AM. 37 38 39

40 Keywords (max. 5)

- 41 Clinical analysis
- 42 Cyclic voltammetry
- 43 Electrochemistry
- 44 Hormones
- 45 Thyroid
- 46

The biological relevance of a hormone stems from its definition: it is a chemical messenger that transports a signal from one cell to another. The thyroid, anatomically situated in the neck produces several hormones, particularly 3',5',3,5-L-tetraiodothyronine (T₄) and 3',5',3-L-triiodothyronine (T₃) (Figure 1). Given their importance in several physiological functions, these thyroid hormones are routinely quantified to help diagnose and assess several pathologies.^[1]

Thyroid hormones have crucial effects on metabolism and thermogenesis, on processes involving muscular contraction, growth, reproduction, immune and antiviral defense as well as defense against free radicals.^[1] These functions are not specific to the human species, since exactly the same molecules produce similar effects in most vertebrates.^[1] In human plasma, unbound T₄ and T₃ are in the picomolar range, while T₄ and T₃ bound to thyroid-binding-proteins (mainly thyroxine-binding globulin, transthyretin and albumin) is regulated in the nanomolar range.^[1]

Less than ten years ago a previously unsuspected thyroid hormone, T_1AM (3iodothyronamine), was unveiled as a new biologically active thyroid hormone derivative (Figure 1).^[2] Later, experiments in small mammals showed that systemic T_1AM and T_0AM (thyronamine) produced hypothermia, a cardiac reversible dose-dependent negative inotropic effect^[3] and a rapid increase in blood glucose.^[4] These data support the notion that these two hormones, like T_3 and T_4 , play a role in the regulation of metabolism.

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Figure 1 – Molecular structures of T_4 , T_3 , T_1AM and T_0AM .

This leads to compelling, as yet unanswered, questions such as: how much T₁AM and T₀AM circulate in the human body?; how are they distributed?; which metabolic programs are influenced by them?; in which concentrations are they physiological or pathological?; can they be used to treat any pathological process?; can they help in difficult endocrinological differential diagnosis? Answering these questions requires a simple and reliable way to quantify T_1AM and T_0AM .^[5] So far, their detection and quantification has been based on liquid chromatography with tandem mass spectrometry detection (LC-MS/MS)^[6] and immunoassay methodologies^[7], which are laborious and costly. This manuscript advocates the case that electroanalysis may be a viable and low-cost alternative.

Although T_4 and T_3 have been electroanalyzed,^[8] to the best of our knowledge, neither T₁AM nor T₀AM were ever electrochemically studied before this work. Herein, T₁AM and T₀AM are successfully analyzed with a glassy carbon electrode (GCE) (Figure 2), in an oxidative electrode reaction, and also T₁AM with hanging mercury drop electrode (HMDE) (Figure 3), in a reductive electrode reaction.





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89 Figure 2 – I – Cyclic voltammograms of aqueous phosphate buffer solution (pH 7) containing 0.174 mM

of T_1AM on a GCE, cyclic voltammetry was run between 0.0 and +1.0 V vs. Ag/AgCl at different scan

91 rates. Inlay A: logarithm of scan rate vs. logarithm of peak current. Inlay B: Sequential cyclic

voltammograms at 1000 mV/s showing the appearance of a reductive and an oxidative peak around 0.0
and +0.2 V vs. Ag/AgCl, respectively. II – Cyclic voltammograms of aqueous phosphate buffer solution

(pH 7) containing 0.153 mM of T₀AM on a GCE, cyclic voltammetry was run between -0.2 and +1.2 V vs.
Ag|AgCl at different scan rates. Inlay A: logarithm of scan rate vs. logarithm of peak current. Inlay B:
Sequential cyclic voltammograms at 1000 mV/s showing the appearance of a reductive and an oxidative
peak around +0.0 and +0.2 V vs. Ag|AgCl, respectively.

The oxidative processes in a GCE electrode, at pH 7, gives origin to voltammetric signals with peak potential of ca. +0.5 V vs Ag|AgCl.

101 Considering that a fully irreversible diffusion-only system follows the Randles–Ševčík 102 equation:^[9]

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 $i_p = 0.496\sqrt{\alpha + n'}FnAC^*\sqrt{\frac{FD\nu}{RT}}$ (1)

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where i_p is peak current, v is the scan rate, n' is the number of electrons transferred before the rate determining step, n is the total number of electrons transferred, A is the area of the electrode surface, α is the Tafel coefficient (or transfer coefficient), D is the diffusion coefficient of the species, C^* is the bulk concentration of the species, F is the Faraday constant, R is the ideal gas constant, T is the temperature.^[10] Note that equation utilizes the *multi-electron* form of the Randles–Ševčík equation^[11] and is consistent with recent IUPAC recommendations on the definition of the transfer coefficient.^[10]

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Figure 3 – Cyclic voltammograms of aqueous phosphate buffer solution (pH 7) containing 0.174 mM of T1AM on a HMDE, cyclic voltammetry was run between -0.3 and -1.5 V vs. Ag|AgCl at different scan rates. Inlay: logarithm of scan rate vs. logarithm of peak current.

For an irreversible surface bound species, i_{p} vs. v is given by the following equation:^[11]

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$$i_p = \frac{(\alpha + n')nF^2}{2.718RT} \nu A \Gamma$$
 (2)

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where Γ is the surface coverage. Surface and diffusional controlled voltammetric 124 processes can be distinguished on their scan rate dependence. A direct dependence on the 125 voltage scan rate, v, corresponds to the former, whereas a square root dependence signals the 126 latter.^[12] This means that a logarithm of peak current $(\ln |i_p|)$ vs. logarithm of scan rate $(\ln |v|)$ 127 will give rise to a slope close to 0.5 in case of a fully diffusional process and a slope close to 1.0 128 for a fully adsorptive process, both apply to either a spherical or a plane macro-electrode. As 129 can be seen in the inlay A of Figure 2 - I, a slope ca. 0.9 ± 0.1 suggests an adsorptive process, 130 which could be expected considering T_1AM molecular structure, a π - π overlapping could occur 131 between T_1AM and the graphitic surface. However, considering that for T_0AM (inlay A of Figure 132 2 - II) a slope closer to 0.5 leads the authors to speculate it is the highly polarizable iodine atoms 133 that indeed promote adsorption. Plots showing the dependence of the peak current on scan 134 rate and the square root of scan rate are shown in the Supporting Information. 135

For the oxidative reaction (i.e. using the GCE) considering a peak potential vs. pH slope 136 of 62 mV (Figure 4), i.e. ca. 59 mV,^[11] the electrochemical reaction up to the rate determining 137 step should have involved an equal number of protons and electrons. It is herein suggested that, 138 first there is the electrochemically reversible withdraw of 1 electron 1 proton, then, second a 139 chemically irreversible step where another electron and another proton are removed along with 140 addition of a water molecule. This cleavages the ether linkage forming *p*-benzoquinone and an 141 hydroxyl group is introduced in an ortho position to the iodine atom (reaction A of Figure 5). By 142 means of using a fast scan rate, immediately after the oxidative electrochemical reaction one 143 can observe the benzoquinone/hydroquinone reversible redox reaction at potential around 0.1 144 V vs. Ag|AgCl (inlay B of Figure 2). A cyclic voltammogram of benzoquinone in the media using 145 the same voltammetric conditions gave origin to a similar peak with similar peak potential thus 146 confirming such assumption (data shown in the Supporting Information). 147

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Figure 4 – pH studies, performed on universal buffer solution of a Britton-Robinson type, containing 0.12
mM of T₁AM, with a GCE (the section above) and a HMDE (the section below). Similar results were
obtained for T₀AM, 0.10 mM, for the case of the GCE (data not shown).

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The reductive process, for T_1AM , in a HMDE electrode, at pH 7, gives rise to a voltammetric signal with peak potential of ca. -1.2 V vs Ag|AgCl (Figure 3). A similar behavior to that obtained with the GCE was also noticed with the HMDE electrode (inlay of Figure 3), a slope of almost 1 in the logarithm plot of peak potential vs. scan rate ascribes to an adsorptive behavior.

Concerning the reductive reaction, the rate determining step should be a first electron 160 transfer – an α value of 0.41 ± 0.05, i.e. ca. 0.5, in the Tafel analysis agrees with such assumption 161 - followed by the cleavage of the carbon-iodine bond releasing an iodide anion, and subsequent 162 protonation of the carbon to which the iodine was bond (reaction B of Figure 5). Although in 163 overall this would be a 2 electron 1 proton uptake, the first steps (the first electron transfer plus 164 carbon-iodine cleavage) is rate determining which leads to the observed negligible pH 165 dependence (Figure 4). However, when plotting peak potential vs. pH, there is a considerable 166 slope above pH 8.2 (Figure 4), which might be explained as an extra removal of a proton from 167 the reaction molecule. Considering this reductive mechanism for T_1AM where iodine plays part, 168 one was not expecting to obtain a similar voltammetric signal for T₀AM. Such was the case, no 169 signal was obtained in an effort to electrochemically reduce T₀AM in the HMDE. 170



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Figure 5 – Reaction mechanisms. Reaction A – oxidative reaction on a GCE, Reaction B – reductive reaction on a HMDE.

These results not only show that is it possible to electroanalyze T_1AM and T_0AM but, furthermore, the analyses of T_1AM can be done with several different surfaces, since it can be performed either in a reductive or in an oxidative way. These results are proof-of-concept that may ultimately pave the way to the creation of low-cost reliable analytical methodologies for the quantitative analysis of T_1AM and/or T_0AM from biological and clinical samples, and therefore provide the scientific and clinical community with better tools to understand the fullscope of their importance in human physiology.

184 185 **Experimental section** 186 187 188 All reagents used were of analytical grade and were used without further purification. pH studies were performed with a universal buffer solution (of a Britton-Robinson type) composed of 0.1 mol L^{-1} 189 sodium phosphate, 0.1 mol L $^{-1}$ sodium acetate and 0.1 mol L $^{-1}$ sodium borate. The pH was adjusted to the 190 intended value with 6 mol L⁻¹ hydrochloric acid or 4 mol L⁻¹ sodium hydroxide. All aqueous solutions were 191 prepared using ultrapure water with resistivity not less than 18.2 M Ω cm at 298 K. 192 All voltammetric measurements were performed using a Metrohm 663 VA voltammetric stand 193 using a Ag AgCl (KCl, 3 mol L^{-1}) reference electrode and platinum as the counter-electrode. Two working 194 electrodes were used: a HMDE (drop size ca. 0.52 mm²) and a GCE (area ca. 3.14 mm²). 195 The system was connected to a µAutolab II voltammetric system operated by the software GPES 196 v 9.4. All measurements were performed at room temperature. Solutions were deoxygenated with water-197 saturated nitrogen for 10 min. 198 199 T₁AM and T₀AM were synthesized according to a previously published method.^[13] 200 201 202 References 203 [1] A. J. Hulbert, *Biological Reviews* 2000, 75, 519-631. 204 [2] T. S. Scanlan, K. L. Suchland, M. E. Hart, G. Chiellini, Y. Huang, P. J. Kruzich, S. Frascarelli, D. A. 205 Crossley, J. R. Bunzow, S. Ronca-Testoni, E. T. Lin, D. Hatton, R. Zucchi, D. K. Grandy, Nature 206 Medicine 2004, 10, 638-642. 207 [3] G. Chiellini, S. Frascarelli, S. Ghelardoni, V. Carnicelli, S. C. Tobias, A. DeBarber, S. Brogioni, S. Ronca-208 Testoni, E. Cerbai, D. K. Grandy, T. S. Scanlan, R. Zucchi, The FASEB Journal 2007, 21, 1597-1608. 209 210 [4] T. S. Scanlan, *Endocrinology* **2009**, *150*, 1108-1111. [5] T. S. Scanlan, Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism 2011, 96, 1674-1676. 211 [6] A. Saba, G. Chiellini, S. Frascarelli, M. Marchini, S. Ghelardoni, A. Raffaelli, M. Tonacchera, P. Vitti, T. 212 213 S. Scanlan, R. Zucchi, Endocrinology 2010, 151, 5063-5073. [7] C. S. Hoefig, J. Köhrle, G. Brabant, K. Dixit, B. Yap, C. J. Strasburger, Z. Wu, Journal of Clinical 214 Endocrinology & Metabolism **2011**, 96, 1864-1872. 215 [8] a) E. Jacobsen, W. Fonahn, Analytica Chimica Acta 1980, 119, 33-38; b) M. Iwamoto, A. Webber, R. A. 216 Osteryoung, Analytical Chemistry 1984, 56, 1202-1206; c) L. Hernandez, P. Hernandez, O. Nieto, 217 Analyst 1994, 119, 1579-1583; d) M. Khafaji, S. Shahrokhian , M. Ghalkhani, Electroanalysis 218 2011, 23, 1875-1880; e) W. Kangbing, J. Xiaobo, F. Junjie, H. Shengshui, Nanotechnology 2004, 219 15, 287. 220 221 [9] a) J. E. B. Randles, Transactions of the Faraday Society **1948**, 44, 327-338; b) A. Ševčík, Collection of Czechoslovak Chemical Communications 1948, 13, 349-377. 222 [10] R. Guidelli, R. G. Compton, J. M. Feliu, E. Gileadi, J. Lipkowski, W. Schmickler, S. Trasatti, Pure and 223 224 Applied Chemistry **2014**, 86, 259-262. [11] R. G. Compton, C. E. Banks, Understanding Voltammetry World Scientific Publishing, Singapore, 225 2007. 226 [12] L. M. Gonçalves, C. Batchelor-Mcauley, A. A. Barros, R. G. Compton, Journal of Physical Chemistry C 227 2010, 114, 14213-14219. 228 [13] M. E. Hart, K. L. Suchland, M. Miyakawa, J. R. Bunzow, D. K. Grandy, T. S. Scanlan, Journal of 229 Medicinal Chemistry 2006, 49, 1101-1112. 230 231