

Analytical Methods

Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this *Accepted Manuscript* with the edited and formatted *Advance Article* as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10 **Voltammetric determination of ciprofloxacin in urine samples and its interaction with**
11 **dsDNA on a cathodically pretreated boron-doped diamond electrode**
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23

24 Gustavo Stoppa Garbellini*, Romeu C. Rocha-Filho*, Orlando Fatibello-Filho
25
26
27
28
29

30 Departamento de Química, Universidade Federal de São Carlos, C. P. 676, 13560-970 São
31 Carlos - SP, Brazil
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53

54 * Corresponding Author

55 Tel: +55 16 3351-8070 / 8078; Fax: +55 16 3351-8035

56 E-mail address: gustgarb@yahoo.com.br (G.S. Garbellini), romeu@ufscar.br (R.C. Rocha-
57 Filho)
58
59
60

Abstract

Voltammetric methods for the determination of the fluoroquinolone ciprofloxacin (CIP) were developed using a cathodically pretreated boron-doped diamond (BDD) electrode coupled with square-wave voltammetry (SWV) and differential pulse voltammetry (DPV). In cyclic voltammetric measurements, the CIP electrooxidation was an irreversible process controlled by diffusion of the analyte to the electrode surface. Analytical curves were obtained for CIP concentrations from 2.50 to 50.0 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, for SWV, and from 0.500 to 60.0 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, for DPV, with detection limits of 2.46 and 0.440 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, respectively. On the other hand, adequate recovery values were obtained for the determination of CIP in synthetic urine samples by DPV. On the other hand, SWV was employed to evaluate the interaction between CIP and double-stranded dsDNA (calf thymus in aqueous solution). From the obtained results, we inferred that CIP binds to dsDNA by intercalation, with a binding constant calculated as $5.91 \times 10^5 \text{ L mol}^{-1}$. Thus, the cathodically pre-treated BDD electrode was successfully used for the determination of CIP in biological samples and for studies on the interaction of that fluoroquinolone with dsDNA.

Keywords: Ciprofloxacin electroanalytical determination, BDD electrode, Cathodic pretreatment, Square-wave voltammetry, Differential pulse voltammetry, DNA.

1. Introduction

Fluoroquinolones (FQs), third-generation quinolones characterized by fluorination at the C6 position, became very widely used because of their activity against both gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria in urinary tract infections, osteomyelitis, community-acquired pneumonia, and gastroenteritis.¹ It has also been found that FQs present activity against *M. tuberculosis*.² Concerning the mechanism of action, FQs interact with enzyme-bound DNA complexes and thus produce conformational changes that lead to inhibition of normal enzyme activity.³ Consequently, the resulting drug-enzyme-DNA complex blocks progression of replication and hinders normal bacterial DNA synthesis, which leads to the rapid death of bacterial cells.³ Among FQs, ciprofloxacin (CIP – see Fig. 1) is extensively used and has an oral bioavailability of 70%, with a mean elimination half-life of 4 h in healthy humans.⁴ The main excretion pathway of CIP is urinary with usual concentrations in the range of 100–200 mg L⁻¹. Adverse effects on the gastrointestinal tract and the central nervous system may be observed during therapy with this drug.⁵

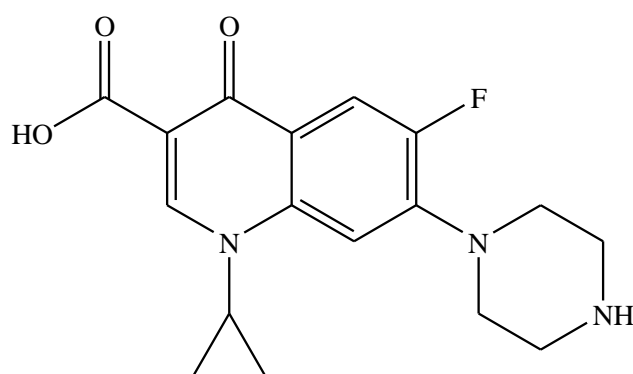


Fig. 1 Chemical structure of ciprofloxacin.

The electrochemical behavior and the quantification of CIP have been previously investigated using different electrode materials. Ni et al.⁶ determined CIP using linear sweep stripping voltammetry (LSSV) and a mercury electrode. The obtained analytical curve was linear for the concentration range of about 97 to 870 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, with a limit of detection (LOD) value of 33 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. The authors also proposed the simultaneous determination of CIP, ofloxacin, and norfloxacin by LSSV and a chemometric analysis. Fotouhi et al.⁷ determined CIP by amperometry coupled with a multi-wall carbon nanotubes film-modified GC (MWCNT/GC) electrode; the obtained analytical curve presented a linear concentration

1
2
3 range of 40 to 1000 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, with a LOD value of 6 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. Ensafi et al.⁸ developed a
4 method for the determination of CIP also at a MWCNT/GC electrode, but using linear sweep
5 voltammetry; the obtained analytical curve presented a linear concentration range of 3.0 to
6 1200 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, with a LOD value of 0.9 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. In another paper of the same research
7 group,⁹ a sensor containing MgFe_2O_4 nanoparticles and multi-walled carbon nanotubes
8 (MgFe_2O_4 -MWCNTs) was prepared and used for the determination of CIP by cyclic
9 voltammetry (CV); the obtained oxidation peak current was dependent on the analyte
10 concentration, with a linear response for the concentration range of 0.10 to 1000 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ and
11 a LOD value of 0.01 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. Nejem et al.¹⁰ developed a sensor based on polyvinyl chloride,
12 where the electroactive compound was the complex between CIP and tetraphenylborate. A
13 wider linear concentration range (19.7 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ to 20.0 mmol L^{-1}) was obtained when
14 dibutylphthalate or bis(2-ethylhexyl)sebacate was used as plasticizer, with LOD values of
15 3.70 or 7.36 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, respectively. Zhang et al.¹¹ constructed a sensor for the determination
16 of FQs based on the polymerization of β -cyclodextrin and L-arginine on a carbon paste
17 electrode. Using differential pulse voltammetry (DPV), for CIP they obtained a linear
18 concentration range of 0.05 to 100 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, with a LOD value of 0.01 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. Recently,
19 Diab et al.¹² investigated the voltammetric behavior and the determination of CIP using CV
20 and differential pulse anodic stripping voltammetry (DPASV) coupled with a bare or DNA-
21 modified GC electrode. For DPASV and the modified GC electrode, a linear response was
22 obtained for the concentration range of 1.0 to 10.0 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, with a LOD value of 0.12 μmol
23 L^{-1} . On the other hand, Kawde et al.¹³ compared the CIP analytical signals obtained using
24 square-wave adsorptive stripping voltammetry coupled with a GC, GC paste (GCP) or carbon
25 paste electrode. With the GCP electrode, a linear response was obtained for the concentration
26 range of 0.27 to 2.00 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, with a LOD value of 0.033 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. Additionally, Al-
27 Ghamdiz et al.,¹⁴ using square-wave voltammetry (SWV) and a hanging mercury drop
28 electrode, obtained a linear analytical curve for the CIP concentration range of 0.30 to 2.00
29 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, with a LOD value of 0.007 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. Finally, Montes et al.¹⁵ reported on the
30 development of two analytical methods for the determination of CIP using a boron-doped
31 diamond (BDD) electrode: batch-injection analysis with amperometric detection (BIA-AMP)
32 and capillary electrophoresis with capacitively coupled contactless conductivity detection
33 (CE-C⁴D). For these methods, the obtained linear ranges were of 1 to 1000 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ and 50 to
34 250 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, with LOD values of 0.3 and 5.0 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, respectively.

35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
Several articles have reported that CIP interacts with the DNA molecule and that this
interaction could be related with genotoxic activity.^{5,16,17} DNA plays a key role in cell

1
2
3 proliferation, synthesis of proteins, and transcription of genetic information in living cells.¹⁸
4
5 Damage in the DNA cells and/or in the double helix structure of biomolecule following
6
7 interaction with toxic compounds may cause mutations that can result in the development of
8
9 cancers.¹⁹ As recalled by Arshad et al.,²⁰ the binding of drugs to DNA occurs covalently and
10
11 non-covalently. In the latter case, it may involve binding *via* the minor groove of DNA (the
12
13 negatively charged phosphates outside the DNA double helix) or intercalation between the
14
15 unwound DNA base pair.

16
17 Electrochemical methods are excellent tools to evaluate the interactions of compounds
18
19 with the DNA molecule using DNA-modified electrodes or assessing DNA in the solution
20
21 phase.²¹⁻²⁶ In a modified electrode, changes in terms of current intensity and/or peak potential
22
23 in the electrochemical response of DNA nitrogenous bases residues can reflect alterations in
24
25 the double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) structure. In the solution phase, the interaction of
26
27 compounds with dsDNA can be monitored by alterations in the electrochemical response of
28
29 the target compound. dsDNA presents limited accessibility to the nitrogenous base residues
30
31 contained in nucleotides within the rigid structure of the DNA double helix and,
32
33 consequently, no oxidation peaks are detected.²⁷ This kind of evaluation considering the target
34
35 compound has been performed for calcein,²⁸ gallic acid,²⁹ nicotine,³⁰ and magnolol.³¹
36
37 Particularly, the interaction of CIP with DNA has been evaluated using mercury,³² GC,^{12,33}
38
39 and MWCNT/GC electrodes.³⁴ To the best of our knowledge, the use of a BDD electrode to
40
41 monitor the interaction between CIP and dsDNA has never been reported.

42
43 BDD is a type of sp^3 carbon material that presents very low and stable background
44
45 current, a wide working potential window, mechanical robustness, compatibility with
46
47 biological materials, and high data reproducibility.³⁵ Thus, an excellent performance of BDD
48
49 electrodes has been observed in the determination or study of the redox behavior of many
50
51 organic compounds.³⁶⁻⁴⁰ An interesting aspect of BDD electrodes is that, for some analytes,
52
53 the electrochemical response depends on the surface termination (hydrogen or oxygen), which
54
55 can be tuned by cathodic or anodic electrochemical pretreatments, respectively.⁴¹⁻⁴⁵

56
57 In this study, we report on the use of a cathodically pretreated BDD electrode to
58
59 investigate the electrochemical behavior of CIP, using CV, to develop new analytical methods
60
for the determination of this analyte in urine samples, using DPV and SWV, and to evaluate
the interaction of this drug with dsDNA in aqueous solutions, using SWV.

2. Experimental

2.1. Reagents and solutions

All reagents, including CIP (Sigma-Aldrich, $\geq 98\%$), H_2SO_4 (Sigma-Aldrich, 95–98%), calf thymus dsDNA (Sigma-Aldrich), boric acid (Acros Organic, 99.5%), phosphoric acid (QHemis, 85% m/v), acetic acid (QHemis, 99.7% v/v), and sodium hydroxide (Synth), were used as received. A 10 mmol L^{-1} CIP stock solution was prepared in aqueous 0.5 mol L^{-1} H_2SO_4 ; the total dissolution of the compound was attained through vigorous shaking, followed by ultrasonication for 10 min. Before use, the aqueous 2.5 mg mL^{-1} stock solution of DNA was stored at 4 °C for 24 h to ensure complete dissolution of the nucleic acid. The nucleotide (monomer units) concentration was calculated based on the molar absorption coefficient at 260 nm ($\epsilon_{260} = 6600 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$). The ratio of the DNA absorbance intensities at 260 and 280 nm was 1.88, indicating that the DNA was free from proteins.⁴⁶

In most electrochemical measurements, a pH 7.0 (0.1 mol L^{-1}) Britton-Robinson (BR) buffer solution (0.04 mol L^{-1} in acetic, phosphoric, and boric acids) was used as supporting electrolyte; its pH was adjusted to 7.0 with a 1.0 mol L^{-1} NaOH solution. Synthetic urine was also used, of which a sample (250 mL) was prepared by dissolving in water 0.73 g of NaCl (Acros Organic, 99.5%), 0.40 g of KCl (Acros Organic, 99%), 0.28 g of $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (Nuclear, 99–107%), 0.56 g of Na_2SO_4 (Merck, 99%), 0.35 g of KH_2PO_4 (Acros Organic, 99%), 0.25 g of NH_4Cl (Mallinckrodt Baker 99.5%), and 6.25 g of urea (Reagen).⁴⁷

2.2. Apparatus

All electrochemical measurements were performed using an Autolab PGSTAT-30 (Eco Chemie) potentiostat/galvanostat controlled with the GPES 4.9 software. The voltammetric studies were carried out using a three-electrode single-compartment Pyrex[®] glass cell (20 mL), with a BDD electrode (0.36 cm^2 exposed area) as the working electrode, a 1 cm^2 Pt foil as the counter electrode, and an Ag/AgCl (3.0 mol L^{-1} KCl) as the reference electrode, to which all electrode potentials hereinafter are referred to. The BDD electrode, which consisted of a BDD film (boron content of 8000 ppm) deposited by CVD on a p-silicon substrate, was acquired from Adamant Technologies, La Chaux-de-Fonds, Switzerland.

All the voltammograms obtained by DPV and SWV were baseline-corrected by application of the moving average method (included in the GPES 4.9 software), with a step

1
2
3 window of 5 mV. The BDD electrode surface was electrochemically activated by two
4 procedures: (i) anodic pretreatment (APT): polarization at 0.5 A cm^{-2} for 10 s in a 0.5 mol L^{-1}
5 H_2SO_4 solution, and (ii) anodic pretreatment followed by a cathodic pretreatment (CPT):
6 polarization at 0.5 and -0.5 A cm^{-2} for 5 and 180 s, respectively, also in a $0.5 \text{ mol L}^{-1} \text{ H}_2\text{SO}_4$
7 solution (the cathodic pretreatment was always preceded by a short anodic one to assure that
8 the electrode surface was effectively clean). The voltammetric responses of CIP on the BDD
9 electrode activated by these two different pretreatments were compared. The pH of the BR
10 buffer solution was measured with an Orion pH meter (Expandable Ion Analyzer EA 940),
11 which was recalibrated daily using commercial buffer solutions of pH 4.0, 7.0, and 10.0.
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22

23 2.3. Electrochemical behavior and determination of CIP

24
25 CV was used to investigate the electrooxidation of CIP on the BDD electrode. DPV
26 and SWV were used to develop the electroanalytical method to determine CIP, which was
27 then applied to doped synthetic urine samples. After the optimization of the experimental
28 parameters for these techniques, the respective analytical curves (triplicate for both SWV and
29 DPV) were obtained by spiking the electrolyte with known quantities of the CIP stock
30 solution. The limit of detection (*LOD*) for both techniques was calculated as equal to three
31 times the standard deviation for the blank solution ($n = 6$) divided by the slope (average of
32 three slopes) of the respective analytical curve.^{38,43} The obtained *LOD* values were compared
33 to choose the best performing voltammetric method. For both techniques, the repeatability of
34 the CIP responses in the same solution and in different solutions was checked with intra-day
35 ($n = 10$) and inter-day ($n = 10$) determinations for $50 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ CIP, when relative standard
36 deviations (*RSD*) were calculated.
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45

46 The best performing voltammetric method was used to determine CIP in urine, which
47 was used immediately after its preparation. For that, CIP at two different concentrations (6.0
48 and $40.0 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) was added to urine samples and these were directly analyzed in triplicate.
49
50
51
52
53

54 2.4. Interaction of CIP with dsDNA in solution

55
56
57 Square-wave voltammograms were obtained using the CPT BDD electrode for
58 solutions containing 50.0 mg L^{-1} ($124 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) dsDNA and different concentrations of CIP
59 (from 5.0 to $100 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) in the 0.1 mol L^{-1} BR buffer solution (pH 7.0), after interaction
60

1
2
3 times of 10 s and 3 h. Analytical curves ($n = 3$) for CIP in the absence and presence of
4 dsDNA were compared.
5
6
7
8
9

10 **3. Results and Discussion**

11
12
13 First, the voltammetric behavior of CIP was investigated in a 0.1 mol L⁻¹ BR buffer
14 solution (pH 7.0, a value in the physiological range⁴⁸) using CV, SWV, and DPV. Then SWV
15 was used to investigate the interaction of CIP with dsDNA, since this can provide valuable
16 information on the genotoxicity of the drug.
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24

25 **3.1. Electrochemical pretreatment of the BDD electrode**

26
27 To determine whether the predominant type of surface termination on the BDD
28 electrode had any effect on its electrochemical activity towards CIP, square-wave
29 voltammograms for 50 μmol L⁻¹ CIP were obtained on an APT or CPT BDD electrode. As
30 can be seen in Fig. 2, the electrooxidation of CIP is irreversible, but for both pretreatments of
31 the BDD electrode, well-defined voltammetric shapes and intense responses for CIP were
32 obtained: on the CPT BDD electrode, the oxidation peak current (I_p) and peak potential (E_p)
33 for the drug were 37.0 μA and 1.04 V, respectively, whereas on the APT BDD electrode they
34 were 22.8 μA and 1.01 V. Thus, a ~62 % more-intense I_p value was obtained using a CPT BDD
35 electrode (with a 30 mV more positive E_p value). Hence, the cathodic pretreatment of the
36 BDD electrode was chosen for all additional measurements. The anodic peaks in the
37 voltammogram shown in Fig. 2 are due to the two-electron oxidation of the CIP amine group
38 to hydroxylamine (piperazine moiety).^{12,34}
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

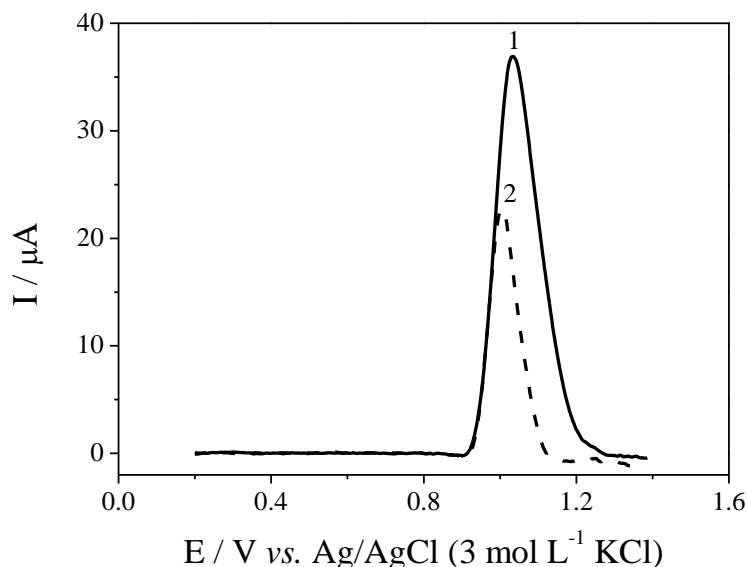


Fig. 2 Square-wave voltammograms obtained for 50 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ CIP in a 0.1 mol L^{-1} BR buffer solution (pH 7.0) at a cathodically (1) or anodically (2) pretreated BDD electrode. SWV conditions: $f = 100$ Hz, $a = 50$ mV, and $\Delta E_s = 2$ mV.

3.2. CIP voltammetric behavior

The electrochemical behavior of CIP was investigated by CV for 50 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ CIP in a 0.1 mol L^{-1} BR buffer solution (pH 7.0). First, successive cyclic voltammograms at a scan rate (ν) of 200 mV s^{-1} were obtained without any intermediate cleaning of the electrode surface; as can be seen in Fig. 3A, continuously diminishing values of the CIP current peak (voltammograms 1–5, peak I) were obtained due to the adsorption of the drug and/or its oxidation products on the electrode surface. Peak II, which is seen only in the first scan, might be attributed to sp^2 -carbon impurities on the BDD surface.⁴⁹ After cleaning of the BDD surface with just squirts of deionized water, a response similar to that of the first voltammogram was obtained; thus, this simple cleaning procedure is sufficient to reactivate the BDD electrode surface. Since no cathodic peaks were observed during the reverse CV scan (see Fig. 3A), we conclude that the CIP electrooxidation process is irreversible, as previously observed by SWV (Fig. 2).

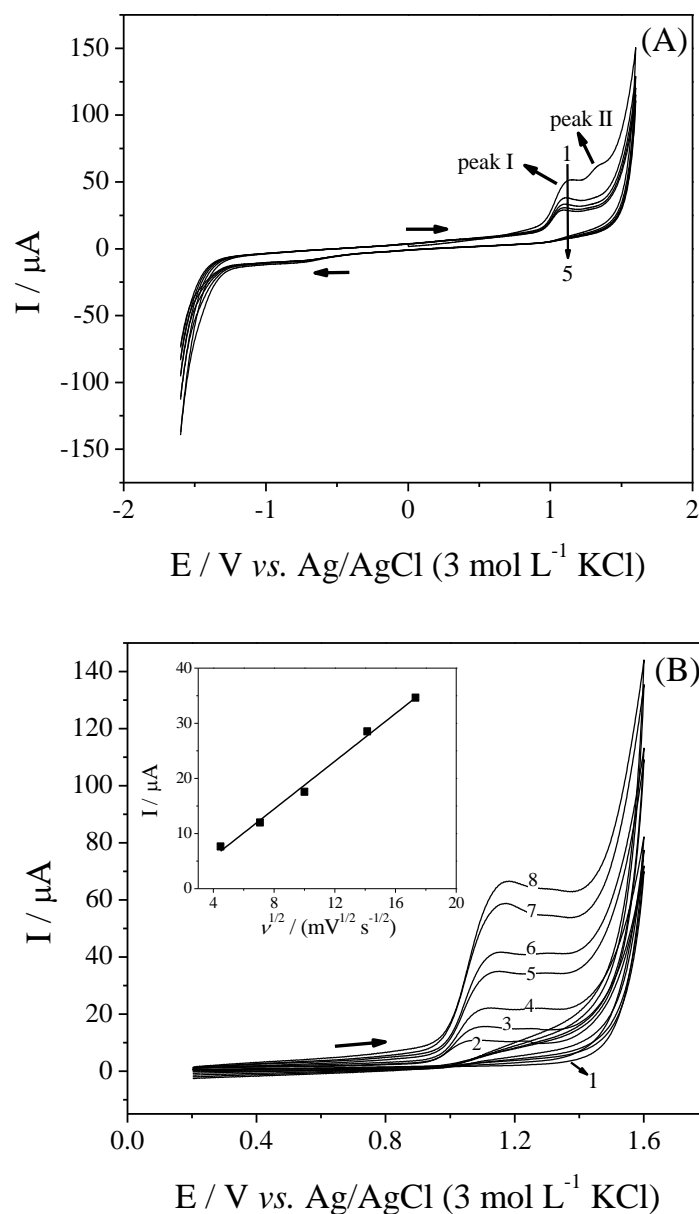


Fig. 3 (A) Successive cyclic voltammograms (1-5) obtained with a cathodically pretreated BDD electrode at a scan rate of 200 mV s⁻¹ for 50 μmol L⁻¹ CIP in a 0.1 mol L⁻¹ BR buffer solution (pH 7.0). (B) Cyclic voltammograms for the blank solution (0.1 mol L⁻¹ BR buffer solution (pH 7.0), 1) and for 50 μmol L⁻¹ CIP in a 0.1 mol L⁻¹ BR buffer solution (pH 7.0) using scan rates of 20 (1, 2), 50 (3), 100 (4), 200 (5), 300 (6), 400 (7), and 500 mV s⁻¹ (8). Inset: respective oxidation peak currents vs. square root of the scan rate (linear from 20 to 300 mV s⁻¹, with $r = 0.9923$).

Next, cyclic voltammograms were recorded for a 50 μmol L⁻¹ CIP solution at different scan rates in the range of 20 to 500 mV s⁻¹ (Fig. 3B); a clean CPT BDD electrode surface was used to record each voltammogram. Again, no cathodic peaks were observed, which confirms the irreversibility of the CIP electrooxidation process. From the slope of the obtained linear

plot of I_p vs. ν ($r = 0.9875$), the surface concentration (Γ) of the electroactive species was estimated as 77 pmol cm^{-2} , according to the following equation:³⁴

$$I = \frac{n^2 F^2 \nu A \Gamma}{4RT} \quad (1)$$

where n is the number of electrons involved in reaction (assuming that $n = 2$), F the Faraday constant (96485 C mol^{-1}), A the electrode surface area (0.36 cm^2), R the universal gas constant ($8.314 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$), and T the thermodynamic temperature (298 K).

As can be seen in the inset of Fig. 3B, the peak current for peak I (after baseline correction) increased proportionally to the square root of the scan rate (linearly from 20 to 300 mV s^{-1} , with $r = 0.9923$); this behavior confirms the irreversibility of the electrooxidation process.^{50,51} On the other hand, the good linearity of the I_p vs. ν and I_p vs. $\nu^{1/2}$ plots is an indication that the reaction is proceeding via diffusion of the analyte to the BDD surface and involves adsorption/desorption of reactants and products, as previously observed for estrone.⁵² Additionally, the linear relationship between $\log I_p$ and $\log \nu$ for the CIP oxidation peak could be described by the following equation: $\log I_p = 0.0242 + 0.630 \log \nu$, with $r = 0.9836$ (linear for the ν range of 20 to 500 mV s^{-1}). In this case, a slope equal to 0.5 is related to a process that is controlled by semi-infinite linear diffusion, while a slope equal to 1 is related to adsorption control;^{52,53} thus, from the slope value of 0.630, we infer that adsorption is not strong for the CIP oxidation on the BDD electrode and that the reaction is limited by diffusion of the analyte to the electrode surface.

As can be perceived from Fig. 3B, the value of E_p for CIP electrooxidation shifted to more positive values as the scan rate increased, which is another indication that the oxidation reaction is associated to an irreversible electron-transfer kinetics.⁵⁰ For a totally irreversible reaction, the transfer coefficient (α) and the standard heterogeneous rate constant (k_s) can be calculated using the following equation:^{50,54,55}

$$I_p = 0.227nFAC_0^*k_s \exp\left[\left(\alpha n_a F/RT\right)\left(E_p - E^0\right)\right] \quad (2)$$

where C_0^* is the CIP concentration and E^0 the formal redox potential. Indeed, a plot of $\ln I_p$ vs. $(E_p - E^0)$ for the different scan rates yielded a straight line, whose slope and intercept are proportional to $\alpha n_a F/RT$ and k_s , respectively: $\ln I_p = -11.4 + 21.8 (E_p - E^0)$, with $r = 0.9963$. Considering that a value of $E^0 = 1.10 \text{ V}$ was obtained from the intercept of a plot of E_p vs. ν ,

1
2
3 values of 0.56 and $1.35 \times 10^{-2} \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ were calculated for αn_{α} and k_s . Thus, assuming $n = 2$, α
4 can be estimated as equal to 0.28, a reasonable value since the transfer coefficient can range
5 from zero to one.⁵⁰ From the obtained k_s value, we can conclude that the electron-transfer
6 kinetics is quite fast, despite being an irreversible process.
7
8
9

10 11 12 13 14 **3.3. CIP determination**

15
16 The determination of CIP using SWV or DPV was comparatively investigated to
17 obtain the best electroanalytical method for subsequent studies. For both cases, the effect of
18 the respective experimental parameters on E_p and I_p for $50 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ CIP in a 0.1 mol L^{-1} BR
19 buffer solution (pH 7.0) was investigated. For SWV, the investigated parameter values were:
20 10–200 Hz, for the square-wave frequency (f); only 50 mV, for the pulse amplitude (a); 2–10
21 mV, for the scan increment (ΔE_s). The obtained optimized values were $f = 100 \text{ Hz}$ and $\Delta E_s =$
22 2 mV. For DPV, the investigated parameter values were: 10–200 mV, for the pulse amplitude
23 (a); 2.0–20 mV s^{-1} , for the scan rate (ν); 2.5–15 ms, for the modulation time (t). The selected
24 optimized values were $a = 80 \text{ mV}$, $\nu = 10 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$, and $t = 7.5 \text{ ms}$. Then, using the optimized
25 parameter values of each technique, the respective analytical curves were obtained (in
26 triplicate) for different concentrations ranges: from 2.50 to $50.0 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, for SWV, and from
27 0.500 to $60.0 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, for DPV (see Fig. 4). The obtained LOD values using SWV and DPV
28 were 2.46 and $0.440 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, respectively. All the analytical parameters associated to these
29 curves are listed in Table 1.
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

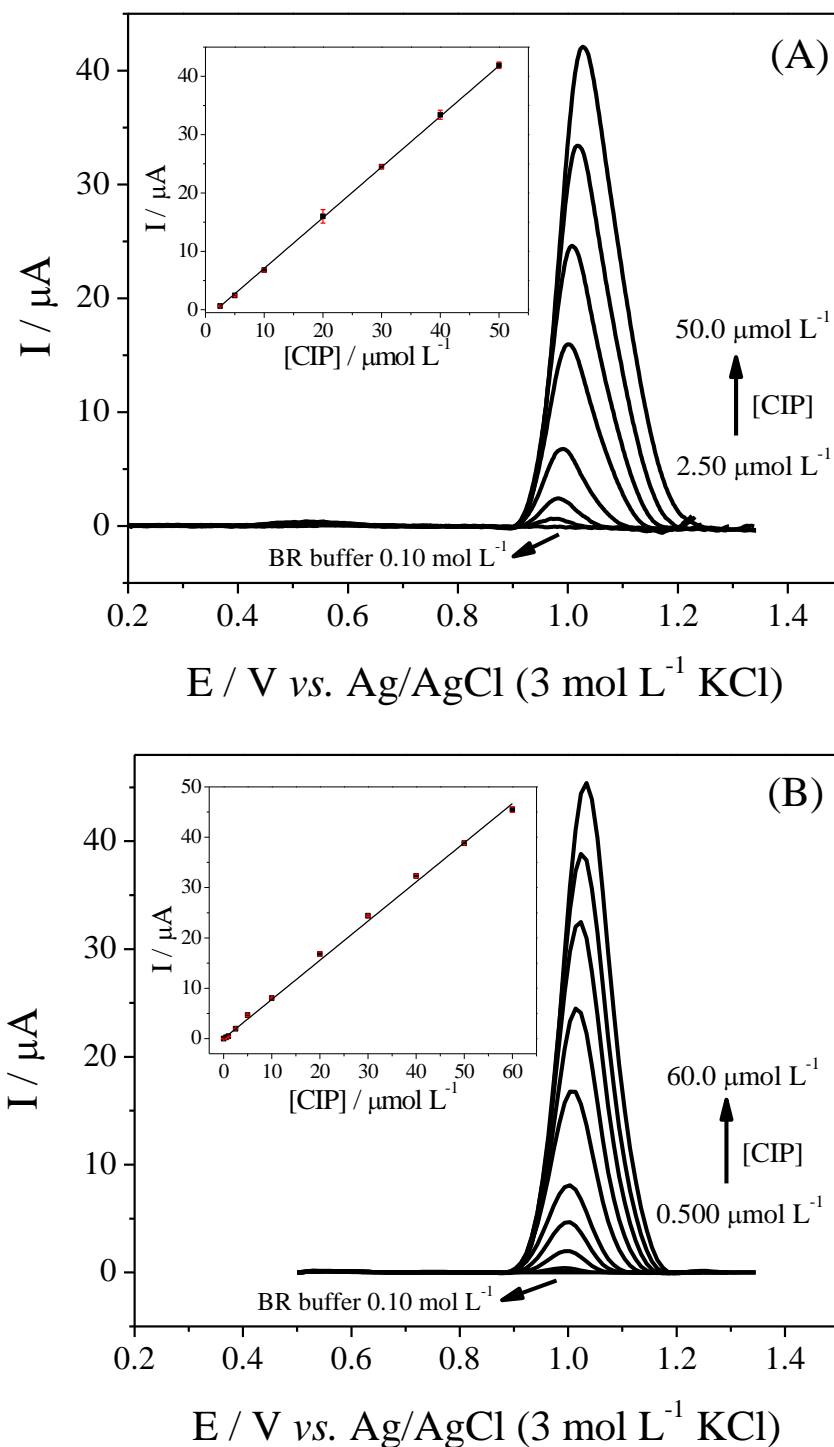


Fig. 4 (A) Square-wave ($f = 100 \text{ Hz}$, $a = 50 \text{ mV}$, and $\Delta E_s = 2 \text{ mV}$) and (B) differential pulse ($a = 80 \text{ mV}$, $v = 10 \text{ mV s}^{-1}$, and $t = 7.5 \text{ ms}$) voltammetric curves obtained for the oxidation of CIP at different concentrations in a 0.1 mol L^{-1} BR buffer solution (pH 7.0) using a cathodically pretreated BDD electrode. CIP concentrations: (A) 2.50, 5.00, 10.0, 20.0, 30.0, 40.0, and $50.0 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$; (B) 0.500, 1.00, 2.50, 5.00, 10.0, 20.0, 30.0, 40.0, 50.0, and $60.0 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$. Insets: respective analytical curves.

Table 1 Analytical results obtained with the SWV and DPV techniques in the determination of CIP in a 0.1 mol L⁻¹ BR buffer solution (pH 7) using a cathodically pretreated BDD electrode.

Parameters	SWV	DPV
Intercept (y_B) / μA	-2.0 ± 0.3	0.5 ± 0.1
Slope / ($\mu\text{A L } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$)	0.89 ± 0.01	0.767 ± 0.006
Limit of detection ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	2.46	0.440
Linearity range ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	2.50 – 50.0	0.500 – 60.0
Correlation coefficient (r)	0.998	0.997

Parameters values used in each technique: SWV $-f = 100$ Hz, $a = 50$ mV, and $\Delta E_s = 2$ mV; DPV $-a = 80$ mV, $v = 10$ mV s⁻¹, and $t = 7.5$ ms.

For SWV, the repeatability of the CIP responses for intra-day ($n = 10$) and inter-day ($n = 10$) determinations of a $50 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ CIP solution resulted in *RSD* values of 3.32% and 6.86%, respectively. For DPV, these values were 1.35% and 5.30%, respectively. Hence, from these obtained values we conclude that the proposed voltammetric methods are adequately precise. However, according to the results obtained for the determination of CIP using both voltammetric techniques (Table 1), a lower *LOD* value was attained when DPV was used. Thus, this technique was chosen for subsequent investigation on the determination of CIP in urine samples.

The *LOD* value obtained by DPV ($0.440 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) is lower than the values previously reported by Fotouhi et al.⁷ ($6 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) using MWCNT/GCE and amperometry, Ensafi et al.⁸ ($0.9 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) also using MWCNT/GCE with linear sweep voltammetry, and by Nawaz et al.³³ ($9.0 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) using DPV with a DNA-modified GC electrode. Furthermore, the here-obtained *LOD* value is close to or lower than those obtained by Montes et al.¹⁵ using a BDD electrode with BIA-AMP ($0.3 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) or with CE-C⁴D ($5.0 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$), respectively. This analytical aspect attests the good performance of the BDD electrode attained after a simple and rapid electrochemical pretreatment in comparison to that attained with a modified GC electrode.

3.4. Application of the DPV method to urine samples

Since the main excretion pathway of CIP is urinary, the proposed DPV method was applied to determine two different concentrations of CIP (6.0 and 40.0 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) in urine samples, when excellent recoveries were obtained (see Table 2). Hence, we conclude that the DPV method can be used for the determination of CIP in urine samples, since there is no considerable interference from the urine matrix.

Table 2 Results for the recovery of CIP from urine samples using the DPV method with a cathodically pretreated BDD electrode ($n = 3$).

Sample	CIP / ($\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)		Average recovery (%)
	Added	Found	
A	6.00	6.06 ± 0.09	101
B	40.0	39.8 ± 0.9	99.5

3.5. Interaction of CIP with DNA

Calf thymus DNA, consisting of 41.9 mol % of guanine-cytosine and 58.1 mol % of adenine-thymine, is a natural DNA that is widely used in studies on the binding of drugs or pollutants that affect the structure and function of DNA. Recently, Garbellini et al.⁵⁶ evaluated the interaction of some organophosphorus pesticides (chlorpyrifos, metamidophos, and monocrotophos) with calf thymus dsDNA using a BDD electrode, using different DNA-pesticide interaction times and pesticide concentrations.

In the present work, SW voltammograms were obtained for 50.0 mg L^{-1} (124 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) dsDNA and different concentrations of CIP (from 5.0 to 100 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) in the 0.1 mol L^{-1} BR buffer solution (pH 7.0), after interaction times of 10 s and 3 h, using the CPT BDD electrode (see Fig. 5).

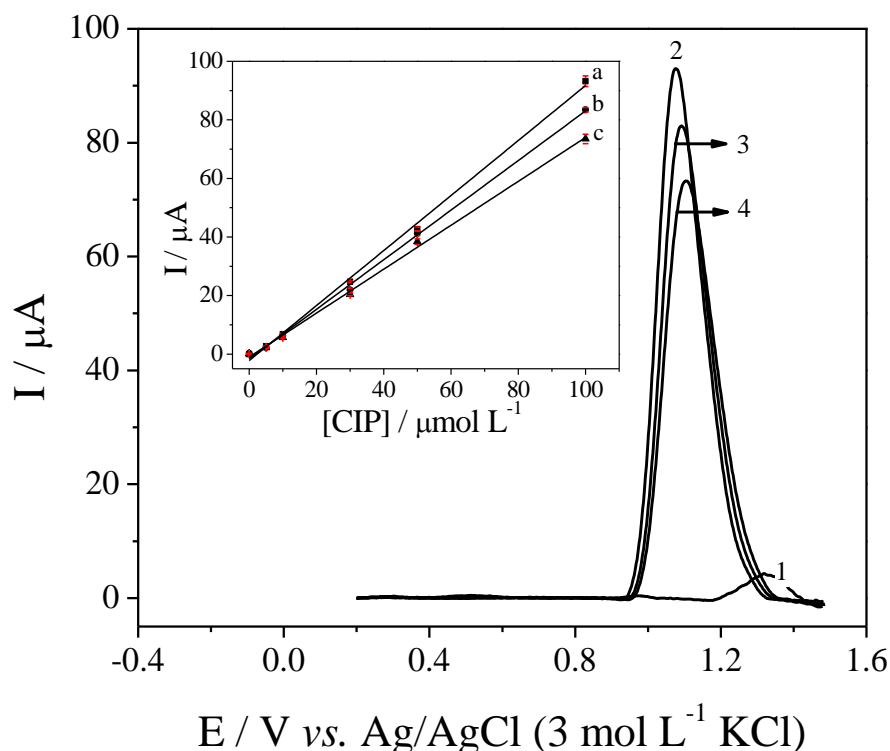


Fig. 5 Square-wave voltammetric curves obtained using a cathodically pretreated BDD electrode and a 0.1 mol L⁻¹ BR buffer solution (pH 7.0) containing: 124 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ dsDNA (1); 100 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ CIP (2); 124 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ dsDNA + 100 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ CIP with interaction time of 10 s (3) or 3 h (4). Inset: Analytical curves ($n = 3$) for individual CIP (a) and for CIP in the presence of 124 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ dsDNA with interaction time of 10 s (b) or 3 h (c).

The interaction between the two species was monitored through alterations in the CIP voltammetric signal. Throughout this study the ionic strength was kept at 0.0758 mol L⁻¹, as reported by Mongay and Cerda⁵⁷ for the Britton-Robinson buffer at pH 7.0. Thus, in the presence of dsDNA, a decrease in the CIP oxidation I_p and a positive shift in the CIP peak potential E_p were observed (see Fig. 5), which are indications of the occurrence of CIP interaction with dsDNA. The decrease of the I_p value of 11% or 21% for CIP in the presence of dsDNA for interaction times of 10 s or 3 h, respectively, when compared to the CIP peak in the absence of the nucleic acid, can be attributed to a decrease of the free drug concentration due to the formation of a slow-diffusion CIP-DNA complex. With the addition of dsDNA, the E_p value is positively shifted, from 1.076 V (without dsDNA) to 1.097 V (interaction time of 10 s) or 1.108 V (interaction time of 3 h); from this, we infer that the CIP interaction with DNA possibly occurs by intercalation, as previously reported by Fotouhi et al.,³⁴ who used CV and UV-Vis spectroscopy, and Radi et al.,⁵⁸ who used DPV to analyze the interaction of

some FQs with DNA in solution. Radi et al.⁵⁸ also suggest that the piperazine moiety of FQs plays an important role in binding to dsDNA.

Analytical curves ($n = 3$) for CIP (from 5.0 to 100 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) in the absence and presence of 124 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ dsDNA were compared, as presented in the inset of Fig. 5 (the *RSD* values for all the concentration levels in curves a, b, and c were lower than 7.0%, 7.6%, and 4.6%, respectively). Clearly, the slopes obtained for the CIP curves in the presence of dsDNA (0.848 $\mu\text{A L } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$, for interaction time of 10 s, and 0.750 $\mu\text{A L } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$, for that of 3 h) were lower than the value obtained for the CIP curve in the absence of the biomolecule (0.939 $\mu\text{A L } \mu\text{mol}^{-1}$). Moreover, the CIP – dsDNA interaction is time dependent, since it was clearly more significant after 3 h of interaction.

It is assumed that CIP binds to dsDNA to form a type of cooperative complex. To determine the binding ratio (m) and the binding constant (K_b) for this complex, the following equation can be used:^{30,59,60}

$$\log [\Delta I / (\Delta I_{\max} - \Delta I)] = \log K_b + m \log [\text{CIP}] \quad (3)$$

where ΔI is the difference of oxidation peak current for CIP in the absence and presence of dsDNA after 3 h of interaction; the maximum value of ΔI is designated as ΔI_{\max} . As expected, CIP and dsDNA form a single complex; thus, the plot $\log [\Delta I / (\Delta I_{\max} - \Delta I)]$ vs. $\log [\text{CIP}]$ is a straight line ($r = 0.9997$). From the slope and intercept of this straight line, the experimental values of m and K_b could be obtained as 1.39 and $5.91 \times 10^5 \text{ L mol}^{-1}$, respectively. Hence, considering the obtained value of m , we propose that a stable 1:1 complex (dsDNA:CIP) is formed. On the other hand, we conclude that the CIP – dsDNA interactions occur via intercalation, since the obtained value of K_b is in the range of 10^5 to $10^{11} \text{ L mol}^{-1}$.²³ Furthermore, it should be noted that the obtained value of K_b is almost identical to that reported by Dogan-Topal et al.²⁶ ($6.03 \times 10^5 \text{ L mol}^{-1}$) for the DNA cooperative complex with the anticancer drug lapatinib, which also intercalates into the nucleic acid.

One additional point that should be discussed in Fig. 5 is voltammogram 1, which was obtained for a solution containing 50 mg L^{-1} dsDNA and presents a small current peak at 1.32 V. Nevertheless, this current peak cannot be associated to any DNA oxidation process, being most probably due to the oxidation of sp^2 carbon impurities⁴⁹ on the BDD electrode surface. Besides that, as noted above, dsDNA presents limited accessibility to the nitrogenous base residues contained in nucleotides and, consequently, no oxidation peaks are commonly detected.²⁷ Oliveira and Oliveira-Brett⁶¹ detected oxidation peaks for 200 mg L^{-1} dsDNA in

aqueous solution using a BDD electrode after it was submitted to drastic cathodic (-3.0 V, for 30 min) and anodic (3.0 V, for 30 min) pretreatments in a 0.1 mol L⁻¹ acetate buffer solution (pH 4.5). In the present work, the dsDNA oxidation peaks were not detected possibly due to the different solution conditions and less drastic pretreatment of the BDD surface.

Finally, it should be recalled that the occurrence of oxidative lesions in dsDNA caused by active compounds commonly leads to the breaking of hydrogen bonds and the opening of the double helix, causing the bases to come into contact with the electrode surface.⁶² Consequently, the electrochemical detection of this oxidative damage could be accomplished by monitoring the oxidation of the bases.⁶² However, no voltammetric peaks were detected in our studies of the CIP-dsDNA interaction associated to oxidative damage, double helix opening or dsDNA unwinding. Thus we conclude that CPI did not cause oxidative lesions in dsDNA even after an interaction time of 3 h.

4. Conclusions

The electroanalytical performance of the BDD electrode for the detection of CIP was improved by a cathodic pretreatment. Then, the obtained results demonstrate the viability of using DPV and a cathodically pretreated BDD electrode for the determination of CIP in urine samples. The novel voltammetric procedure here reported yielded a lower *LOD* value (0.44 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) than those reported by Montes et al.¹⁵ (5.0 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$, using a BDD electrode and CE-C⁴D), Fotouhi et al.⁷ (6 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$), Ensafi et al.⁸ (0.9 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$), and Nawaz et al.³³ (9.0 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) using modified GC electrodes. Moreover, excellent results were obtained using the DPV method in the analysis of CIP at two concentrations (6.0 and 40.0 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) in urine samples.

The results obtained on the interaction between CIP and dsDNA in aqueous solution by SWV with a cathodically pretreated BDD electrode allow us to suggest that the CIP interaction with dsDNA is by intercalation, as previously reported by Fotouhi et al.³⁴ and Radi et al.⁵⁸ The intercalation of compounds into DNA as an initial step leading to the formation of covalent adducts is an especially undesirable feature, since they can lead to mutations and carcinogenesis.²³ Additionally, this interaction is time-dependent, as clearly indicated by the fact that the slope of the CIP analytical curve diminishes for the longer interaction time.

Clearly, the coupling of a cathodically pretreated BDD electrode with voltammetric techniques is an adequate way to attain the determination of CIP in biological samples or to evaluate the interaction of this drug with dsDNA.

Acknowledgements

Grants and scholarships from the Brazilian funding agency CNPq (National Council of Scientific and Technological Development) are gratefully acknowledged, especially those associated to processes no. 487270/2012-6 and 150166/2013-3.

References

- 1 C. Walsh, *Antibiotics: Actions, Origins, Resistance*, ASM Press, Washington, 2003.
- 2 M. Asif, A. A. Siddiqui and A. Husain, *Med. Chem. Res.*, 2013, **22**, 1029–1042.
- 3 J. M. Blondeau, *Survey Ophthalmol.*, 2004, **49**, S73–S78.
- 4 P. R. Ravi, R. Vats and U. R. Kora, *J. Pharm. Pharmacol.*, 2013, **65**, 337–344.
- 5 A. Gurbay, B. Gonthier, N. Signorini-Allibe, L. Barret, A. Favier and F. Hincal, *Neurotoxicology*, 2006, **27**, 6–10.
- 6 Y. Ni, Y. Wang and S. Kokot, *Talanta*, 2006, **69**, 216–225.
- 7 L. Fotouhi and M. Alahyari, *Colloids Surf., B*, 2010, **81**, 110–114.
- 8 A. A. Ensafi, M. Taei, T. Khayamian and F. Hasanpour, *Anal. Sci.*, 2010, **26**, 803–808.
- 9 A. A. Ensafi, A. R. Allafchian and R. Mohammadzadeh, *Anal. Sci.*, 2012, **28**, 705–710.
- 10 R. M. Nejem, M. M. Issa, R. Stefan-van Staden and H. Baroud, *Curr. Pharm. Anal.*, 2012, **8**, 334–338.
- 11 F. Zhang, S. Gua, Y. Dinga, Z. Zhang and L. Li, *Anal. Chim. Acta*, 2013, **770**, 53–61.
- 12 N. Diab, I. Abu-Shqair, R. Salim and M. Al-Subu, *Int. J. Electrochem. Sci.*, 2014, **9**, 1771–1783.
- 13 A. Kawde, M. A. Aziz, N. Odewunmi, N. Hassan and A. AlSharaa, *Arab. J. Sci Eng.*, 2014, **39**, 131–138.
- 14 A. F. Al-Ghamdiz, A. D. Bani-Yaseen, *Russ. J. Electrochem.*, 2014, **50**, 355–362.
- 15 R. H. O. Montes, M. C. Marra, M. M. Rodrigues, E. M. Richter and R. A. A. Munoz, *Electroanalysis*, 2014, **26**, 432–438.

- 1
2
3
4
5 16 H. Li, X. Bu, J. Lu, C. Xu, X. Wang and X. Yang, *Spectrochim. Acta, Part A*, 2013, **107**,
6 227–234.
7
8
9 17 M. Garcia-Käufer, T. Haddad, M. Bergheim, R. Gminski, P. Gupta, N. Mathur, K.
10 Kümmerer and V. Mersch-Sundermann, *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.*, 2012, **19**, 1719–1727.
11
12 18 A. L. Lehninger, D. L. Nelson and M. M. Cox, *Principles of Biochemistry*, Worth
13 Publishers, New York, 1993.
14
15 19 S. P. Jackson and J. Bartek, *Nature*, 2009, **461**, 1071–1078.
16
17 20 N. Arshad, U. Yunus, S. Razzque, M. Khan, S. Saleem, B. Mirza and N. Rashid, *Eur. J.*
18 *Med. Chem.*, 2012, **47**, 452–461.
19
20 21 I. C. Lopes, S. C. B. Oliveira and A. M. Oliveira-Brett, *Anal. Bioanal. Chem.*, 2013, **405**,
21 3783–3790.
22
23 22 A. A. Ensafi, E. Heydari-Bafrooei and B. Rezaei, *Biosens. Bioelectron.*, 2013, **41**, 627–
24 633.
25
26 23 C.V. Uliana, G. S. Garbellini and H. Yamanaka, *Sens. Actuators B*, 2013, **178**, 627–635.
27
28 24 A. Radi, A. Eissa and H. M. Nassef, *J. Electroanal. Chem.*, 2014, **717–718**, 24–28.
29
30 25 V. Vyskocil, J. Labuda and J. Barek, *Anal. Bioanal. Chem.*, 2010, **397**, 233–241.
31
32 26 B. Dogan-Topal, B. Bozal-Palabiyik, S. A. Ozkan and B. Uslu, *Sens. Actuators B*, 2014,
33 **194**, 185–194.
34
35 27 S. Long, Y. Tian, Z. Cao, J. He and D. Luo, *Sens. Actuators B*, 2012, **166**, 223–230.
36
37 28 X. Zhang, M. Li, Y. Cui, J. Zhao, Z. Cui, Q. Li and K. Qu, *Electroanalysis*, 2012, **24**,
38 1878–1886.
39
40 29 Z. Yang, D. Zhang, H. Long and Y. Liu, *J. Electroanal. Chem.*, 2008, **624**, 91–96.
41
42 30 L. Wang, H. Xiong, X. Zhang and S. Wang, *Electrochem. Commun.*, 2009, **11**, 2129–2132.
43
44 31 C. Zhou, Y. Dong, Z. Li, X. Xu and Z. Liu, *J. Electroanal. Chem.*, 2010, **642**, 115–119.
45
46 32 N. Zhang, X. Zhang and Y. Zhao, *Talanta*, 2004, **62**, 1041–1045.
47
48 33 H. Nawaz, S. Rauf, K. Akhtar and A. M. Khalid, *Anal. Biochem.*, 2006, **354**, 28–34.
49
50 34 L. Fotouhi, Z. Atoofi and M. M. Heravi, *Talanta*, 2013, **103**, 194–200.
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60

- 1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
-
- 35 *Synthetic Diamond Films: Preparation, Electrochemistry, Characterization and Applications*, eds. E. Brillas and C. A. Martínez-Huitle, Wiley, New York, 2011.
- 36 J. Sochr, L. Švorc, M. Rievaj and D. Bustin, *Diamond Relat. Mater.*, 2014, **43**, 5–11.
- 37 A. S. Lourenço, F. A. C. Sanches, R. R. Magalhães, D. J. E. Costa, W. F. Ribeiro, K. M. Bichinho, G. R. Salazar-Banda and M. C. U. Araújo, *Talanta*, 2014, **119**, 509–516.
- 38 P. B. Deroco, F. C. Vicentini, G. G. Oliveira, R. C. Rocha-Filho and O. Fatibello-Filho, *J. Electroanal. Chem.*, 2014, **719**, 19–23.
- 39 C.V. Uliana, G. S. Garbellini and H. Yamanaka, *J. Appl. Electrochem.*, 2012, **42**, 297–304.
- 40 L. Švorc, K. Cinková, J. Sochr, M. Vojs, P. Michniak and M. Marton, *J. Electroanal. Chem.*, 2014, **728**, 86–93.
- 41 H. B. Suffredini, V. A. Pedrosa, L. Codognoto, S. A. S. Machado, R. C. Rocha-Filho and L. A. Avaca, *Electrochim. Acta*, 2004, **49**, 4021–4026.
- 42 R. F. Brocenschi, R. C. Rocha-Filho, S. R. Biaggio and N. Bocchi, *Electroanalysis*, 2014, **26**, 1588–1597.
- 43 B. C. Lourenção, M. Baccarin, R. A. Medeiros, R. C. Rocha-Filho and O. Fatibello-Filho, *J. Electroanal. Chem.*, 2013, **707**, 15–19.
- 44 G. S. Garbellini, C.V. Uliana and H. Yamanaka, *J. Braz. Chem. Soc.*, 2011, **22**, 1241–1245.
- 45 A. F. Azevedo, N. A. Braga, F. A. Souza, J. T. Matsushima, M. R. Baldan and N. G. Ferreira, *Diamond Relat. Mater.*, 2010, **19**, 462–465.
- 46 C. V. Uliana, G. S. Garbellini and H. Yamanaka, *J. Braz. Chem. Soc.*, 2012, **23**, 1469–1475.
- 47 T. A. Silva, H. Zanin, F. C. Vicentini, E. J. Corat and O. Fatibello-Filho, *Analyst*, 2014, **139**, 2832–2841.
- 48 R. Sprokholt, A. H. J. Mass, M. J. Rebelo and A. K. Covington, *Anal. Chim. Acta*, 1982, **139**, 53–59.
- 49 J. A. Bennett, J. A. Wang, Y. Show and G. M. Swain, *J. Electrochem. Soc.*, 2004, **151**, E306–E313.

-
- 1
2
3
4
5 50 A. J. Bard and L. R. Faulkner, *Electrochemical Methods: Fundamentals and Applications*,
6 John Wiley & Sons, Hoboken, 2001.
7
8
9 51 C. M. A. Brett, A. M. O. Brett, *Electroanalysis*, Oxford University Press, New York, 1998.
10
11 52 R. F. Brocenschi, R. C. Rocha-Filho, L. Li and G. M. Swain, *J. Electroanal. Chem.*, 2014,
12 **712**, 207–214.
13
14
15 53 D. K. Gosser Jr., *Cyclic Voltammetry: Simulation and Analysis of Reaction Mechanisms*,
16 VCH Publishers Inc, New York, 1993.
17
18
19 54 R. S. Nicholson, I. Shain, *Anal. Chem.*, 1964, **36**, 706–723.
20
21 55 S. Ferro, *J. Appl. Electrochem.*, 2005, **35**, 279–283.
22
23
24 56 G. S. Garbellini, C. V. Uliana and H. Yamanaka, *J. Braz. Chem. Soc.*, 2013, **24**, 1942–
25 1949.
26
27
28 57 C. Mongay, V. Cerda, *Annali di Chim.*, 1974, **64**, 409–412.
29
30
31 58 A. Radi, T. Wahdan, Z. Anwar, H. Mostafa. *Electroanalysis*, 2010, **22**, 2665–2671.
32
33 59 S. S. Kalanur, U. Katrahalli, J. Seetharamappa, *J. Electroanal. Chem.*, 2009, **636**, 93–100.
34
35 60 M. Catalán, A. Álvarez-Lueje and S. Bollo, *Bioelectrochemistry*, 2010, **79**, 162–167.
36
37 61 S. C. B. Oliveira and A. M. Oliveira-Brett, *J. Electroanal. Chem.*, 2010, **648**, 60–66.
38
39 62 M. Fojta, *Persp. Bioanal.*, 2005, **1**, 385–431.
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60