Sensitive Molybdenum Disulfide Based Field Effect Transistor Sensor for Real-time Monitoring of Hydrogen Peroxide

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A reliable and highly sensitive hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) field effect transistor (FET) sensor is reported, which was constructed by using molybdenum disulfide (MoS₂)/reduced graphene oxide (RGO). In this work, we prepared MoS₂ nanosheets by a simple liquid ultrasonication exfoliation method. After the RGO-based FET device was fabricated, MoS₂ was assembled onto the RGO surface for constructing MoS₂/RGO FET sensor. The as-prepared FET sensor showed an ultrahigh sensitivity and fast response toward H₂O₂ in a real-time monitoring manner with a limit of detection down to 1 pM. In addition, the constructed sensor also exhibited a high specificity toward H₂O₂ in complex biological matrix. More importantly, this novel biosensor was capable of monitoring of H₂O₂ released from HeLa cells in real-time. So far, this is the first report of MoS₂/RGO based FET sensor for electrical detection of signal molecules directly from cancer cells. Hence it is promising as a new platform for the clinical diagnosis of H₂O₂-related diseases.

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) play crucial roles in regulating DNA damage, signal transduction, cell proliferation and apoptosis, etc.1–4. Hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), as a most common representative of ROS, is not only involved in several bodily disorders such as atherosclerosis, cancer, and Alzheimer’s disease, but also acts as an essential component in the physiological signaling pathways of healthy organisms, which is essential for cell growth, differentiation, migration, and immune system function5–7. Therefore, fast and accurate detection of H₂O₂ released from living cells is important for biological and clinical diagnostics application.

For detecting H₂O₂, there are many analytical methods, such as fluorometry8, spectrophotometry9, colorimetry10, electrochemical methods11,12, etc. Among these, the electrochemical methods for sensing H₂O₂ have been widely used due to their high sensitivity, fast response, and easy miniaturization. Most of electrochemical sensors involve functionalization of enzymes or proteins on the sensing interface13–15. Enzyme-based methods have been widely studied due to their remarkable sensitivity and specificity. However, the immobilization procedure of preparing the enzyme electrode has great influence on the biocatalytic activities of enzymes, leading to a limited stability and complicated immobilization procedure. Compared with enzymatic methods, the sensors based on nanomaterials (such as metal nanoparticles, carbon nanomaterials and metallic oxide nanostructures,) with high sensitivity and good stability brings H₂O₂ sensing to non-enzymatic era. Nanomaterials’ intrinsic catalytic characteristics (extremely small size and a large surface area per unit of volume) and their ability in scavenging reactive oxygen species in general can be used to mimic the catalytic activity of natural enzymes16,17. For example, graphene with large specific surface area, excellent electronic conductivity, and good chemical stability has been
frequently reported to construct \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) sensing devices\(^{18}\). However, there are flaws in some ways including sensitivity, selectivity, and so on.

Recently, 2D sheet-like structure of transition metal dichalcogenides (TMDCs) has attained significant amount of interest due to their potential applications in nanoelectronics, sensing, and energy harvesting. Among these 2D TMDCs nanosheets, molybdenum disulfide (MoS\(_2\)) is a naturally lamellar material with three atom layers (S-Mo-S) stacked together to form a sandwich structure. The unique feature renders thin MoS\(_2\) nanosheets considerable interest and application in catalysis, transistors, lithium ion batteries, and sensors, etc.\(^{19-21}\). Recently, MoS\(_2\) has been reported to directly detecting \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) without using enzyme and has shown intrinsic peroxidase-like activity. Lei \textit{et al.}\(^{22}\) utilized excellent peroxidase-like activity of few layer MoS\(_2\) for the colorimetric detection of \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) with high sensitivity. Wang \textit{et al.}\(^{23}\) fabricated a sensor for electrochemical detection of \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) released from cells based on MoS\(_2\) nanoparticles, and discovered the electrocatalytical activity of MoS\(_2\) nanoparticles toward the reduction of \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \). Owing to the high sensitivity, rapid measurement, label-free detection, and compatibility with large-scale integrated circuit, field effect transistors (FETs) biosensors have attracted considerable interests\(^{24-28}\). Similarly, MoS\(_2\) based FET biosensor have also been applied for detecting biological molecules. Sarkar \textit{et al.}\(^{29}\) has shown impressive sensitivity of the MoS\(_2\) based biosensor for detecting pH and proteins. Lee \textit{et al.}\(^{30}\) and Jiang \textit{et al.}\(^{31}\) utilized MoS\(_2\) as the sensing material for highly sensitive detection of DNA and mercury ion, respectively. Compared with zero band gap graphene, the advantage of MoS\(_2\) FET sensor is ascribed to the suitable band gap and high on/off ratio of MoS\(_2\). Although MoS\(_2\) can be used as the prospective candidate for the sensing channel material of FET and catalyst for the hydrogen evolution reaction (HER)\(^{32}\), so far little research is focused on utilization of MoS\(_2\) in the FET biosensor as a perfect catalyst toward \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \).

In this work, we have prepared a high performance FET sensor with the introduction of MoS\(_2\) and reduced graphene oxide (RGO) for highly sensitive and specific detection of \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) from cancer cell, in which the MoS\(_2\) nanosheets is employed as the catalytic layer and RGO is used as the conductive layer. As illustrated in Fig. 1, a RGO sheet is drop-casted on the FET sensor surface between source and drain channel as a highly conductive bridge to facilitate rapid transport of electrons. Then the well-exfoliated MoS\(_2\) nanosheets are assembled on the surface of RGO. The MoS\(_2\) nanosheets act as an excellent catalyst and show highly catalytic activity toward \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \). The as-prepared FET sensor responds fast and is extremely sensitive to \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) with the detection limit down to 1 pM. Furthermore, the MoS\(_2\)/RGO FET biosensor is applied to monitor trace amount of \( \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) released from cancer cells.

**Results and Discussion**

**Characterization of MoS\(_2\) nanosheets and MoS\(_2\)/RGO FET device.** Ultrasoundication has been proved to be a simple but an effective way to exfoliate graphite, bulk MoS\(_2\), and some other layered materials, because ultrasonic waves generate cavitational bubbles capable of breaking up the MoS\(_2\) crystalline and producing MoS\(_2\) nanosheets\(^{33}\). As known, N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) is an excellent solvent for exfoliating 2D layered
So we explored NMP as the solvent to prepare MoS$_2$ nanosheets by utilization of ultrasonication in the experiment. The structure and morphology of the as-exfoliated MoS$_2$ nanosheets were characterized by TEM. The TEM images in Fig. 2a clearly show that the well-exfoliated nanosheets were very thin, and a histogram of measured nanosheet size in Fig. 2b indicates that the average lateral sizes of MoS$_2$ were 200–250 nm.

Then, XRD was employed to characterize the MoS$_2$ nanosheets. As shown in Fig. S1, the XRD spectra of bulk MoS$_2$ crystals matched with the previously reported literature. The typical diffraction peaks centered at 14.3° is attributed to the (002), which belongs to the bulk MoS$_2$. After exfoliated, the characteristic peak disappeared, indicating the existence of lamellar form in the exfoliated MoS$_2$. The results demonstrate the successful fabrication of MoS$_2$ nanosheets.

As known, the MoS$_2$ nanosheets contain stable hexagonal semiconducting phase (2H phase) and metastable metallic phase (1T). XPS was employed (Fig. 2c,d) to survey the spectrum of Mo and S and the surface chemical properties of the as-prepared MoS$_2$ nanosheets. The peaks at 232.6, 229.4 and 226.5 eV corresponded to Mo$^{4+}$ 3d$_{3/2}$, Mo$^{4+}$ 3d$_{5/2}$ and S 2s, respectively. In the S2p spectrum, S 2p$_{1/2}$ and S 2p$_{3/2}$ peaks also appeared at 163.5 eV and 162.3 eV, which is consistent with previously published papers. These results show that the dominant 2H phase in the MoS$_2$ nanosheets have been obtained from sonication-assisted exfoliation of MoS$_2$ powder.
Moreover, the optical properties of MoS₂ dispersion were investigated by UV-visible spectra. Fig. S2a shows the UV-visible spectrum of the diluted MoS₂ dispersion in ethanol. As seen, the characteristic absorption bands appeared at approximately 400, 450, 610 and 670 nm. The two absorption peaks at about 610 and 670 nm were caused by A1 and B1 direct excitonic transition at the K point with energy separation. The peaks at 400 and 450 nm could be ascribed to the direct transition of M point from the deep valence band to the conduction band.

Shen et al.48,49 noted that MoS₂ could effectively quench the fluorescence of FAM-DNA. The result further indicates that the obtained MoS₂ nanosheet is layered nanomaterial of high quality. Figure S3a represents typical Raman spectra of RGO, in which the D band at 1350 cm⁻¹ and the G band at 1600 cm⁻¹ were displayed, respectively. The Raman spectra results of MoS₂ nanosheets show two characteristic peaks at 383 and 407 cm⁻¹, respectively. The strong Raman peaks of the MoS₂ nanosheets suggest that the exfoliated MoS₂ nanosheets are of high quality.

A fluorescence experiment was also conducted to verify that the prepared MoS₂ was a structure of nanosheet. As is well known, the oligonucleotides of DNA can adsorb on the surface of the layered 2D TMDCs including MoS₂, WS₂ etc, via van der Waals interactions, and subsequently the layered 2D TMDCs could quench the fluorescence of single-stranded DNA due to fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET). However, pristine TMDCs powder can’t quench the fluorescence of single-stranded DNA. As seen, the characteristic absorption bands at 400, 450 nm could be ascribed to the direct transition of M point from the deep valence band to the conduction band. All these results are in good agreement with the reported literatures.38,39

The sensitivity of the MoS₂/RGO FET sensor was investigated by applying the freshly prepared H₂O₂ solutions of increasing concentrations ranging from 1 pM to 100 nM to the sensor, and the real time measurements were recorded. The changes of ISD were used to monitor the responses of the MoS₂/RGO FET sensor upon addition of H₂O₂ at various concentrations in real time. The sensor response to H₂O₂ was quantified using the normalized current changes (ΔI/I₀ = (ISD−I₀)/I₀), where I₀ is the initial current and ISD is the stabilized current after changing the concentration of H₂O₂. As shown in Fig. 4a, the ISD of FET sensor showed a gradual decrease as the concentration of H₂O₂ increased. The sensing mechanism may be attributed to generation of the positive charges upon addition of H₂O₂, leading to a conductance decrease of the MoS₂/RGO FET sensor. As reported, MoS₂ can play as peroxidase mimics22,45 for decomposing H₂O₂. For horseradish peroxidase (HRP), the reaction mechanism with H₂O₂ is to form the reactive enzyme intermediate compound and produce hydroxyl radicals and H₂O. So the possible mechanism of MoS₂ catalyzing H₂O₂ is similar to that of HRP. In such a case, a positive charge (H⁺) is generated when H₂O₂ is applied to the MoS₂/RGO sensor. This is in good agreement with the literature, in which H₂O can react with polypyrrole (PPy) to generate a positive charge on RGO/PPy nanotube FET-type sensor.46 Furthermore, the applied gate bias of Vg = 0.1 V was less than 0.3 V to avoid the device breakdown.
the oxidation potential of H$_2$O$_2$ (>0.3 V), indicating that electrochemical oxidation of H$_2$O$_2$ did not take place on the sensor device, and the $I_{SD}$ did not come from the oxidation of H$_2$O$_2$. This means that the reaction of catalytic decomposition of H$_2$O$_2$ occurred on the surface of MoS$_2$/RGO. As discussed above, since MoS$_2$ is a sandwich structure composed of two sulfur atoms and one molybdenum atom, protons can be penetrated to the middle layer, and the improvement in catalytic performance is probably due to the activity enhancement of the active sites in MoS$_2$ by the intercalated protons$^{48}$. Because of its intrinsic structural characteristics, MoS$_2$ can act as peroxidase mimics for decomposing H$_2$O$_2$, wherein it produces positive charges in the process of catalysis. The positive charges were then bound to the surface of RGO, thereby attracting their counterions in graphene and inducing n-type doping. As the concentration of H$_2$O$_2$ rose, more positive charges were generated and bound to the surface of the graphene, and the carrier concentration decreased correspondingly, leading to the decreased current. The mechanistic scheme is displayed as Fig. S4. Figure 4b shows the current change ratio ($\Delta I/I_0$) versus different concentrations of H$_2$O$_2$. The H$_2$O$_2$ concentration showed a linear response to the drain current change ratio. The linear relationship was described as $|\Delta I|/I_0 = 0.46\log_{10}C_{H_2O_2} + 5.66$ (the logarithmic value of H$_2$O$_2$ concentration defined as $\log_{10}$). The as-prepared MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor was extremely sensitive to H$_2$O$_2$, and the limit of detection could be achieved down to 1 pM with the signal-to-noise ratio $>$3 (the noise level of the FET sensors was estimated by using PBS as baseline). The MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor shows the highest sensitivity compared with other H$_2$O$_2$ sensors, as shown in Table S1. The amazing sensitivity can be ascribed to both high conductivity of the RGO-based FET biosensor and high catalytic capability caused by MoS$_2$ nanosheets. The positive charges generated in catalytic reaction could be sensitively detected by the MoS$_2$/RGO FET, resulting in the conductance decrease of the FET sensor. Moreover, it was observed that the typical response time of this FET sensor to H$_2$O$_2$ was estimated to be less than 1 s, exhibiting that the FET sensor had a fast response. For comparison, the response of the RGO FET sensor (without MoS$_2$) toward various concentrations of H$_2$O$_2$ (from 1 pM to 100 nM) was also investigated. The current change was negligible when different concentrations of H$_2$O$_2$ were added. An evident $I_{SD}$ decrease was seen till the concentration of H$_2$O$_2$ reached 100 nM (blue line, Fig. 4a). This further implies that MoS$_2$ is able to decompose H$_2$O$_2$ effectively, thereby producing a positive charge. Furthermore, more charge carrier density is formed on the MoS$_2$/RGO FET device than the RGO FET device, making the larger readable signal in current change at low H$_2$O$_2$ concentration range.

Figure 4. (a) Real-time detection of H$_2$O$_2$ with increasing concentrations in PBS buffer with the MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor (red line) and the RGO FET sensor (blue line). (b) The calibration curve of MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor to a series of H$_2$O$_2$ concentrations. Error bars represent standard deviations of measurements (n = 3). (c) Selectivity measurement with the addition of a series of interferents (PBS, 1 mM AA, 1 mM UA, 1 mM Glu, 1 mM GLY, 1 mM NE, 1 mM L-GA,) followed by 1 μM H$_2$O$_2$ solutions. (d) Histogram of the current change of the MoS$_2$/RGO sensor to PBS, AA, UA, Glu, GLY, NE, L-GA and H$_2$O$_2$, respectively.

The specificity of the MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor towards H$_2$O$_2$ was further investigated by real-time recording $I_{SD}$ upon addition of a series of interfering species in 1 × PBS solution, including ascorbic acid (AA), uric acid (UA), glutamate (Glu), glycine (GLY), Noradrenaline hydrochloride (NE), L-glutamine (L-GA). As show in Fig. 4c,
when $1 \times$ PBS, $1$ mM AA, $1$ mM UA, $1$ mM Glu, $1$ mM GLY, $1$ mM NE, $1$ mM L-GA, respectively, were successively introduced to the MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor, negligible current change was observed. However, when $100$ nM H$_2$O$_2$ was injected, a remarkable current response was observed, even in the case that interfering species of high concentration coexisted in the analyte. To directly demonstrate the response difference, current changes of the various substances were summarized (Fig. 4d). These results firmly exhibit high specificity of the MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor toward H$_2$O$_2$. Then, the repeatability and stability tests were also conducted to illustrate the excellent property of the MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensors by using more than 3 sensors, respectively. Firstly, for stability test, the as-prepared MoS$_2$/RGO FET device was stored in a vacuum oven for 3, 7, 10 and 14 days, respectively, then used for the detection of $100$ nM H$_2$O$_2$. As described in the Fig. S5a, the shift of the dirac voltage was only changed $12.5\%$ compared with its original value over 2 weeks. This signal decrease may be caused by the nonspecific surface adsorptions. Secondly, the repeatability of the MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensors was also evaluated. One MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor was chosen to repeatedly detect $100$ nM H$_2$O$_2$ concentration for 7 times, as shown in the Figure S5b. The dirac voltage change of the sensor remained nearly the same after 7 measurements and a relative standard deviation (RSD) was $2.1\%$. The results demonstrate high repeatability of the sensor.

**Real-time monitoring of H$_2$O$_2$ released from HeLa cells.** H$_2$O$_2$ plays a significant role in many cell functions and can be used as potential marker for tumor cells. Consequently, it is very meaningful to sensitively detect H$_2$O$_2$ from living cell because of its diverse biological functions. For this experiment, we first investigated the influence of weak acid environment on sensor’s performance from pH 6.4 to 7.4 (These different pH values were made by adding HCl or NaOH to PBS solutions, which were finally adjusted by a commercial pH meter). The results show that the weak acid environment did not have significant influence on the change of Dirac point after different pH values were applied (Figure S6). Then, real-time detection of extracellular H$_2$O$_2$ released from HeLa cells was performed by the MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor. As known, the HeLa cells can generate H$_2$O$_2$ when stimulated by phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA, PMA is a potent activator of protein kinase C (PKC), which can activate PKC to produce H$_2$O$_2$). On the contrary, H$_2$O$_2$ can be decomposed by catalase. Before cell level measurement, HeLa cells were cultured for 24 h on the MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor surface by using a self-made plastic culture chamber. After cell culture, the cells were found to be in good condition, as seen in Fig. 5, Inset. Afterwards, the culture medium was replaced with the same amount of PBS solution. As shown in Fig. 5, when PMA (with the final concentration of $1$ μg/mL) was added into the cell chamber, the current declined immediately and then slowly stabilized in a short time (red line). Based on the current change generated in Fig. 5, we could semi-quantify the released H$_2$O$_2$ from cells by the working curve in Fig. 3b. The H$_2$O$_2$ concentration was then calculated to be about $100$ pM. On the contrary, when the catalase (300 U/mL, H$_2$O$_2$ scavenger) was mixed with the test solution, hardly any current change was obtained upon addition of PMA to HeLa cells (purple line). The catalase can metabolize H$_2$O$_2$ to water and oxygen, so hardly H$_2$O$_2$ could be monitored by the MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor. For control experiments, PMA was added to the MoS$_2$/RGO surface without culturing the HeLa cells. On this occasion, barely any current change was obtained (blue line). The above-mentioned experiment results prove that the observed current response indeed came from H$_2$O$_2$ released from the HeLa cells. These
results firmly demonstrate that the constructed MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor was capable of real-time monitoring H$_2$O$_2$ released from living cells.

Conclusions
In conclusion, we have constructed the MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor capable of monitoring H$_2$O$_2$ release from cancer cells in a highly sensitive manner. The MoS$_2$ nanosheets were prepared by a simple liquid ultrasonication exfoliation method and the MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensors were fabricated by drop-casting the MoS$_2$ nanosheets to the RGO FET device. Compared to the previously published works regarding various sensors for H$_2$O$_2$ detection, our FET-type sensor showed a rapid response to the changes of H$_2$O$_2$ concentration and an ultrahigh sensitivity to 1 pM. In addition, the FET sensor also demonstrated high specificity toward H$_2$O$_2$ in the presence of AA, UA, Glu, GLY, NE, L-GA. Moreover, the device provided an enzyme-free detection platform for the real-time detection of H$_2$O$_2$ released from HeLa cells. This work opens a new way for constructing nonenzymatic FET sensors for detecting ROS released from cells, and helps understand the mechanism of H$_2$O$_2$ sensing by MoS$_2$. From the perspective of sensor performance, the MoS$_2$/RGO FET can be used as alternative methods for the detection of H$_2$O$_2$ in many fields, and may play a significant role in the clinical detection of H$_2$O$_2$-related diseases.

Methods
Materials. N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP), uric acid (UA), phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA), glycine (GLY), ascorbic acid (AA), glutamate (Glu), Noradrenaline hydrochloride (NE), L-glutamine (L-GA) and catalase were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). The pristine MoS$_2$ powder and graphite flake powder used in the experiments were purchased from Nanjing XFNANO Materials Tech. Co. Ltd. (Nanjing, China). Ultrapure water was generated from Millipore water purification system (18.2 MΩ.cm resistivity, Milli-Q Direct 8). Hydrogen peroxide (H$_2$O$_2$, 30%), and other chemical reagents were purchased from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd. (Beijing, China). PBS buffer solution used in this work was pH = 7.4.

Preparation of MoS$_2$ nanosheets. The MoS$_2$ nanosheets were prepared using a simple liquid ultrasonication method.$^{49–52}$ Briefly, 1 g of pristine MoS$_2$ powder was added to 100 mL flask, after which 50 mL NMP was added to the flask as dispersion solvent. The mixture was sonicated (Power: 200 W, Frequency: 20 KHZ) until to obtain a black homogeneous suspension at room temperature (usually needs 10 h). After that, the resultant dispersions were centrifuged for 30 min at 2000 rpm and then the top 2/3th part of the supernatant were decanted. To remove NMP and determine the concentration of the MoS$_2$ nanosheets in the dispersion solvent, the dispersion was vacuum filtered through a nylon membrane with a pore size of 0.22 μm, followed by washing the membrane with large amount of distilled water and ethanol. The resultant film was dried for 24 h at 60 °C in vacuum oven. The MoS$_2$ nanosheets powder was then peeled from the resultant film.

Fabrication of the MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor. The RGO-based FET device was produced by the previously reported method.$^{25–28}$ Firstly, 10 mg of GO was added to 10 mL of 98% hydrazine followed by sonication for 45 min to produce a black suspension of hydrazinium graphene, and the suspension was placed for 1 week to obtain the thorough reduction of GO. The resulting RGO suspensions could be stable for months with little aggregation. To construct the RGO layer on the pre-fabricated FET chip, diluted RGO suspension (0.15 mg/ml) was drop-casted onto the channel and thermally annealed at 80 °C for 2 h in order to enhance the contact between the RGO and the electrodes. In order to prepare the MoS$_2$/RGO FET sensor, the MoS$_2$ nanosheets powder was dispersed into ethanol to form MoS$_2$ nanosheets dispersion with the concentration of 1 mg/mL. Then MoS$_2$ dispersion was drop-casted on the surface of RGO. The whole device was thermally annealed at 80 °C for 0.5 h in vacuum oven for enhancing the contact among the MoS$_2$, RGO and electrodes.

Electrical detection of H$_2$O$_2$ in PBS solution. Electrical detection of H$_2$O$_2$ was monitored in a liquid gate environment in real time under a constant bias voltage of 10 mV and liquid gate of 0.1 V. As described in our previously published papers$^{25–28}$, a silver wire was used as the liquid gate in this work. When the measurement was performed, the silver wire was immersed in buffer solution. The different concentrations of H$_2$O$_2$ were determined by diluting H$_2$O$_2$ (30%) using 1 × PBS buffer solution. H$_2$O$_2$ was manually added to the detection chamber with a gradually increasing concentration ranging from 1 pM to 100 nM for the sensitivity experiment. The specificity experiment was conducted using the same method for discriminating different interferents.

Cell Culture. HeLa cells were purchased from cell bank of Xiangya Medical College (Changsha, China). They were routinely cultured in Dulbecco’s Modified Eagle Medium cell culture medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) in a culture flask and supplemented with 1% penicillin at 37 °C, 5% CO$_2$. HeLa cells were digested by trypsin from culture flask after growing to 90% confluence.

Electrical detection of H$_2$O$_2$ released from HeLa cells. For real-time detection of H$_2$O$_2$, a self-made liquid reservoir was mounted on the sensing channel (Fig. S7). After that, the total device was sterilized for 30 min via ultraviolet in a biosafety cabinet. Then the sensor was used for cell culture experiments. HeLa cells were seeded on the MoS$_2$/RGO sensors confined in a self-made liquid reservoir at a density of ~1 × 10^4 cell/cm$^2$. After 10 h of incubation, cells were used for stimulation and detection. Upon detection, the culture medium was then changed by the 1 × PBS. After reaching a steady-state baseline, PMA (1 μg/mL) as the H$_2$O$_2$ stimulant was introduced into the self-made liquid reservoir and H$_2$O$_2$ released from HeLa cells was detected by the real-time working mode present in the form of changes in current. Then catalase (300 U/mL) was injected into the liquid reservoir for the purpose of degrading H$_2$O$_2$, as the control experiment. The electrical measurement condition was the same as above described.
Instrumentation. The morphology of the as-prepared MoS$_2$ was characterized by TEM (JEOL JEM-2100, Japan) operated at 200 kV. The MoS$_2$ dispersion was further diluted with ethanol and dropped on a carbon-coated film copper grid for subsequent TEM observation. The X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was conducted using an ESCALAB 250 Xi XPS system (Thermo Fisher Scientific, American). UV-visible spectra were measured by UV-2550 (Shimadzu Co. Ltd., Japan). Raman spectra were taken by using Invia Renishaw spectrometer (RM 1000, England) equipped with 514.5 nm laser line. X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis was conducted on PANalytical X’Pert Pro diffractometer (PANalytical, Holland). The fluorescence spectra were obtained by a Hitachi F-4600 spectrophotometer (Hitachi Co. Ltd., Japan). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images were obtained on a field-emission scanning electron microscope (Zeiss, Germany). All electrical measurements were recorded with a Keithley 4200 semiconductor characterization system and a shield probe station (Everbeing BD-6, Taiwan).

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Author Contributions
C.Z., Y.L. and G.J.Z. designed and conducted the study, Y.L. and G.J.Z. supervised the project, M.X. and Z.Z. participated in the experiments of preparation of the FET chips. C.Z., X.J., J.M. and Y.S. participated in the experiments of preparation of the MoS₂, cell culture and real-time detection. C.Z., Y.L., H.Z. and G.J.Z. wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

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