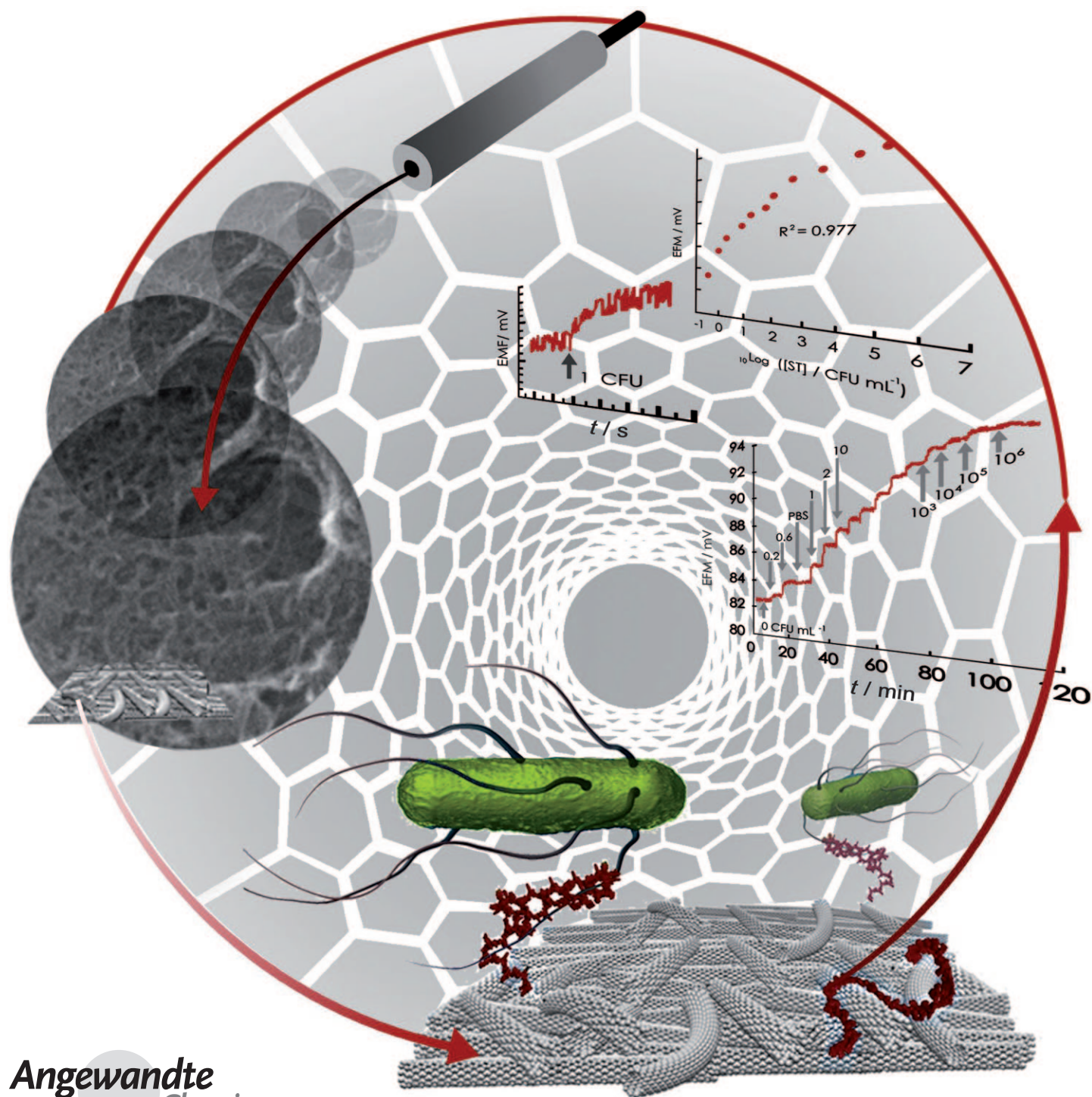


# Immediate Detection of Living Bacteria at Ultralow Concentrations Using a Carbon Nanotube Based Potentiometric Aptasensor\*\*

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The control of diseases has been one of the most important public health concerns of our society for decades. Typical standard methods that are used to assess the presence of microbiological threats consist of specific enrichment media to separate, identify, and count bacterial cells. This process takes at least two days after the test sample has been obtained. In recent years, several research groups have tried to attain zero-tolerance detection systems within much shorter overall response times.<sup>[1]</sup> Currently available ultrafast polymerase chain reaction (PCR) detection methods are able to sense 5 CFU (colony-forming units) in an assay time of 20 minutes,<sup>[2]</sup> which is a major achievement, as is the detection of biowarfare pathogen genes with a DNA-based nanobarcode using a one-minute test.<sup>[3]</sup> However, these methods require pretreatment steps to condition the test samples and to perform cell lysis to extract the suitable target DNA, a process that significantly complicates these assays. To overcome these drawbacks, there has been a continuing search for methods that allow the direct detection of whole microorganisms. The detection of one cell perched on the tip of a micromechanical oscillator<sup>[4]</sup> was an important approach for detecting single cells, although the assay was performed at high concentrations of heat-killed bacteria ( $10^5$  CFU mL<sup>-1</sup>) and without a sample matrix. Moreover, the instrumental complexity of this method is high enough to prevent its widespread use. Further progress was made when scanning electron and fluorescence microscopy techniques were used to detect biofunctional magnetic nanoparticles during the extraction and counting of 4 to 10 CFU.<sup>[5]</sup> Nevertheless, special care is needed when examining the samples by microscopy, and the time invested in each observation barely permits a reasonable sample throughput. A fast and versatile method was reported by Rider et al. in 2003 when they detected 500 CFU g<sup>-1</sup> in only five minutes using a B-cell-based sensor modified to act as a photoemitter.<sup>[6]</sup> However, the main shortcomings in this case are the expensive and time-consuming processes involved in fabricating the device. Therefore, there is still a demand for a fast, sensitive, selective, inexpensive, and easy-to-use method for detecting and quantifying pathogenic bacterial cells.

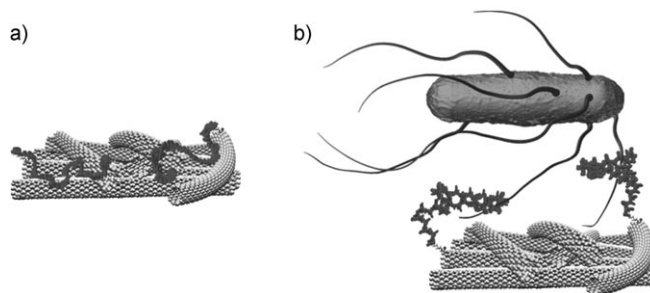
Electrochemical detection techniques have a series of advantages, such as rapid response, ease of use, and low-cost small-sized commercial detectors. Among the electrochemical techniques, the simplest, most widespread, and most field-portable methodologies are based on potentiometry. The new

wave of potentiometric solid-state electrodes represents an attractive tool for real-time bioanalysis in liquid samples.<sup>[7]</sup> However, to date it has been difficult to carry out specific and direct electrochemical detection at ultralow levels of whole living bacterial cells without chemical labeling, because the receptor–bacteria interaction does not provide a measurable electrochemical signal.

Recently, Crespo et al.<sup>[8]</sup> showed that single-walled carbon nanotubes (SWCNTs) can act as efficient ion-to-electron transducers in potentiometric analysis. The notable charge-transfer capability between heterogeneous phases of SWCNTs<sup>[9]</sup> together with their remarkable double-layer capacitance<sup>[10]</sup> explain their transducing behavior. Moreover, they are easily deposited on many surfaces, making them ideal for solid contact electrode design.<sup>[11]</sup> However, to selectively detect a particular target, SWCNTs must be coupled to a suitable receptor. Aptamers are highly suitable receptors for the selective and high-proficiency detection of a wide range of molecular targets, including bacteria.<sup>[12–14]</sup> Moreover, aptamers can self-assemble on carbon nanotubes by  $\pi$ – $\pi$  stacking interactions between the nucleic acid bases and the carbon nanotubes' walls,<sup>[15]</sup> thus constituting a hybrid material that has been applied to nanobiosensors.<sup>[16,17]</sup> Also, Pan et al. recently obtained a high-affinity RNA aptamer that specifically binds to type IVB pili of *Salmonella Typhi* (ST).<sup>[18]</sup>

With these developments in mind, we report a potentiometric biosensor for selectively detecting one single CFU of ST in close to real time. This aptamer was modified with a five-carbon spacer and an amine group ( $-(\text{CH}_2)_5\text{NH}_2$ ) at the 3' end and was covalently immobilized into a layer of previously carboxylated SWCNTs.<sup>[19]</sup> This step used a well-known carbodiimide-mediated wet-chemistry approach to form amide bonds between the amine spacer and the carboxylic moieties on the sidewalls of the nanotubes.<sup>[20,21]</sup> Before linking the aptamers to the carboxylated SWCNTs, a 30  $\mu\text{m}$  thick layer of nanotubes was sprayed onto the polished surface of a glassy carbon (GC) rod that was electrically contacted to a potentiometer.<sup>[10]</sup> We used an Ag/AgCl double junction electrode as reference for electromotive force (EMF) measurements. Further information about materials and methods is available in the Supporting Information.

The hybrid material aptamer–SWCNT acts as both the sensing and the transducing layer of the biosensor. In the absence of the target analyte (Figure 1a), the aptamers are



**Figure 1.** a) Possible conformations of the aptamers that are self-assembled on carbon nanotubes. b) Schematic representation of the interaction between the target bacteria and the hybrid aptamer–SWCNT system.

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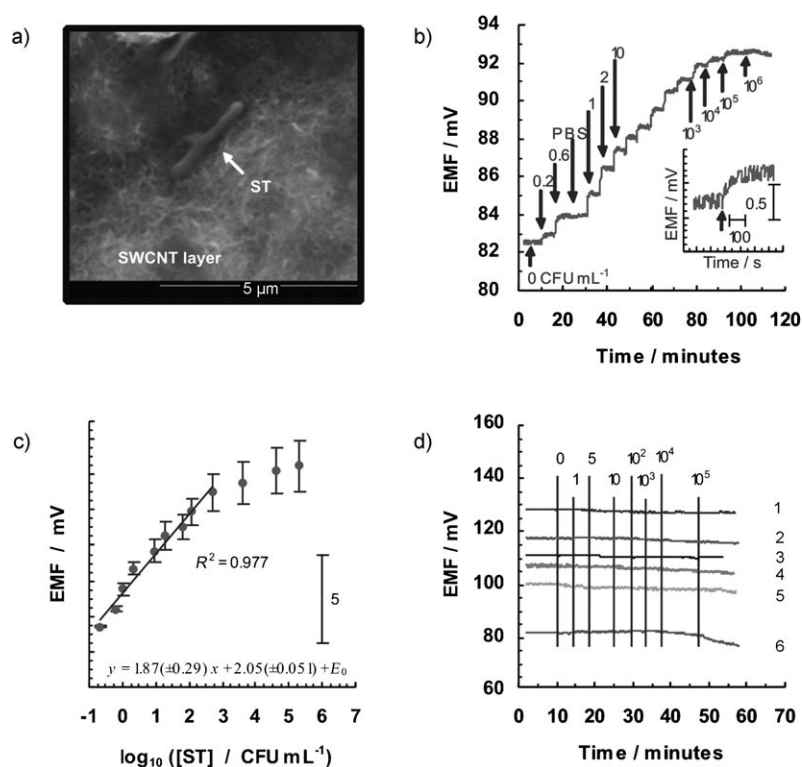
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self-assembled on carbon nanotubes through  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking interactions between the puric and pyrimidic bases and the carbon nanotubes' walls.<sup>[22]</sup> The presence of the target bacteria promotes a conformational change in the aptamer that separates the phosphate groups, largely ionized at pH 7.4, from the SWCNT sidewalls, inducing a charge change to the SWCNT and the subsequent change of the recorded potential (Figure 1b). The bacteria linked to the aptamer could also lean towards the carbon nanotubes, thus establishing charge transfer between the highly concentrated  $H^+$  ions that surround the cell wall<sup>[23]</sup> and the carbon nanotubes. However, both mechanisms could occur simultaneously and are currently being investigated.

To explore the response of the biosensor to stepwise additions of living ST in phosphate buffer solution (PBS, 1.7 mM, pH 7.4), we performed consecutive inoculations. All the electromotive force measurements were performed at low ionic strength (1.7 mM PBS) and at neutral pH values with a Keithley high-input impedance voltmeter M6514 (London, U.K.) in an isothermal vessel at  $(22 \pm 0.5)^\circ\text{C}$  using 5 mL of sterile and pure PBS before any inoculation of bacteria. The amount of bacteria that was contained in each aliquot was simultaneously standardized in quintuplicate using the agar plate count technique. Stock solutions of bacteria consisted of consecutive 1:10 dilutions in sterile PBS (the same matrix that is used for EMF measurements) of a suspension of bacteria cultured for 12–24 h that had been previously washed, precipitated, and reconstituted in PBS. The initial EMF values ( $E_0$ ) for each of the biosensors were in the range of 80–130 mV; however, this value does not exert any influence on the final response for either ST or any other type of bacteria. Figure 2a shows an environmental scanning electron microscopy (ESEM) image of a single ST cell placed on the SWCNT–aptamer layer. The potentiometric response of our biosensor was found to be immediate after each inoculation, ranging from  $0.2\text{ CFU mL}^{-1}$  (1 CFU in 5 mL PBS) to  $10^6\text{ CFU mL}^{-1}$ . Figure 2b shows that the response time is shorter than 60 s, indicating a fast affinity equilibrium between the aptamers and ST. The recorded potential does not decrease after the solution is diluted, indicating that the equilibrium is not easily reversed. In all the tested sets of inoculations for all five tested sensors, a linear relationship existed between the EMF response and the logarithm of the bacteria concentration up to  $10^3\text{ CFU mL}^{-1}$  (Figure 2c). A sensitivity of 1.87 mV per order of magnitude (standard deviation  $SD = 0.29\text{ mV}$ ,  $N = 5$ ) has been obtained for this concentration range. However, the slope decreases considerably at higher levels, reaching a



**Figure 2.** a) Environmental scanning microscope image obtained from an aptamer-functionalized SWCNT electrode after exposure to ST. b) Aptamer-functionalized SWCNT electrode exposed to stepwise increases of ST concentration and the corresponding potentiometric response; arrows represent the inoculations with ST, and values are the final concentration of bacteria. Inset shows the detail of the inoculation step at  $0.2\text{ CFU mL}^{-1}$  to show the fast response (time is in seconds). The signal provided by the first aliquot containing one bacterium ( $0.2\text{ CFU mL}^{-1}$ ) is high enough to be resolved from the instrumental limit of detection,<sup>[24]</sup> delimited by  $3 \times SD_{\text{noise}}$  (standard deviation of noise =  $\pm 0.08\text{ mV}$ ). c) EMF response versus log of concentration of ST. At higher amounts of bacteria, each EMF increase was less prominent, thus demonstrating progressive saturation of the available binding sites. The solid line is the linear regression fit, and the equation below was obtained for the corresponding range ( $E_0$  is the sensor potential before any inoculation, and it is specific to each sensor). Error bars are SDs of the response obtained at a given concentration for five different sensors. Error values in parenthesis are SDs for the different regression equations obtained for five different sensors. d) Controls and selectivity assays. EMF response versus time for different concentrations of bacteria. Solid vertical lines represent inoculation with increasing amounts of bacteria (in  $\text{CFU mL}^{-1}$ ). From top to bottom: 1) carbon nanotube sensor without aptamer but functionalized with  $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_4\text{NH}_2$  using the same procedure for amide bonding, exposed to ST; 2) and 3) SWCNT–aptamer biosensors exposed to *E. coli* and *L. casei*, respectively; 4) glassy carbon electrode functionalized with  $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_4\text{NH}_2$ , exposed to ST; 5) carboxylated SWCNT sensor without any functionalization, exposed to ST; 6) glassy carbon electrode after functionalization with the aptamer and exposed to ST.

plateau at concentrations above  $10^6\text{ CFU mL}^{-1}$ . This behavior can be explained by the progressive saturation of the available binding sites (Figure 2b,c). After each set of inoculations, the sensors were easily regenerated by dissociating the aptamers from the bacteria in 2 M NaCl for 30 min and then reconstituted by conditioning in PBS, thus leaving the biosensor ready to take new measurements. Even though the saturation level of the electrodes decreased after ten regeneration cycles, all the electrodes were able to detect the minimum bacteria concentration for at least three months.

Our biosensor also shows a high degree of selectivity. No response was shown for parallel experiments using either *Escherichia coli* as a Gram-negative food-borne agent or *Lactobacillus casei* as a nontoxic Gram-positive microorganism. Moreover, control experiments confirmed that the responses are caused exclusively by the binding event between ST and the aptamer and the subsequent transduction of the SWCNT layer. Several modified solid-contact sensors were tested to rule out the possibility that the electric potential originated from unspecific adsorption. We tested carbon nanotube based electrodes functionalized with the 1-pentylamine molecule ( $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_4\text{NH}_2$ ) that represents the five-carbon spacer between the carbon nanotube and the aptamer as well as carbon nanotube based electrodes without any other chemical modification. We also examined the potentiometric response using only the original glassy carbon support as the sensor, which had been either functionalized with aptamer or modified with 1-pentylamine. There was no potentiometric response under any of these conditions, showing that the EMF change is only generated when aptamers attached to SWCNTs interact with ST (Figure 2d).

Herein, we demonstrate that easy-to-build aptamer-based SWCNT potentiometric sensors are highly selective and can be successfully used to detect living microorganisms in an assay in close to real time, thus making the detection of pathogens as easy as measuring the pH value. As demonstrated herein, a highly accurate linear response can be obtained with good reproducibility and without any kind of pretreatment, starting at ultralow concentrations of bacteria and a dynamic range of four logarithmic units ( $0.2\text{--}10^3\text{ CFU mL}^{-1}$ ), and progressing in just a few seconds to concentrations far below those reported previously. Higher concentrations of bacteria can also be detected, but in a semiquantitative way. However, the most important strength of this biosensor is that simple positive/negative tests can be carried out in real zero-tolerance conditions and without cross reaction with other types of bacteria. The ease with which measurements are taken in potentiometric analysis opens the door to greater simplicity in microbiological analysis.

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