



# An electrochemical sensing platform based on ladder-shaped DNA structure and label-free aptamer for ultrasensitive detection of ampicillin

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## ABSTRACT

Herein, an electrochemical aptasensor is described for detection of ampicillin (Ampi). The sensing strategy is based on the application of a ladder-shaped DNA structure as a multi-layer physical block on the surface of gold electrode. Attributing to the electrostatic repulsion and physical prevention of the ladder-shaped DNA structure, ultrasensitive detection of Ampi was achieved with a detection limit as low as 1 pM. In the presence of Ampi, the ladder-shaped DNA structure is disassembled and detached from the electrode surface. This leads to the high access of  $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{3-/4-}$  as a redox indicator to the electrode surface and a strong redox peak. The aptasensor response for Ampi detection was in the linear range from 7 pM to 100 nM with the detection limit of 1 pM. The presented analytical strategy showed its application in detecting Ampi in the spiked milk samples with satisfactory performance. This work can be easily expanded for different targets by alternating the corresponding aptamers.

## 1. Introduction

Ampicillin (Ampi) is a  $\beta$ -lactam antibiotic which is broadly applied in human and veterinary medicine for treatment and prevention of infectious diseases (Lian et al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2018). Its excessive use can lead to the presence of Ampi in various substances, such as water and milk samples (Yu et al., 2018). So, determination of Ampi residues in food products is essential to protect human health because Ampi can result in adverse effects, including allergic reactions and seizures (Ge et al., 2019).

Common quantitative approaches for Ampi and other antibiotics detection are: high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) (Tang et al., 2016), liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) (Kipper et al., 2017), microbial screening (Chakraborty et al., 2018), Raman spectroscopy (Clarke et al., 2005) and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA) (Ramatla et al., 2017). HPLC and LC-MS suffer from disadvantages like long sample analysis, sophisticated equipment and skilled personnel (Kaur et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2018b). Microbiological approach is time-consuming and lacks selectivity and

high sensitivity (Zhou et al., 2018a). Also, Raman spectroscopy has disadvantages like low sensitivity, slow imaging by point scanning and needs sophisticated data analysis (Eberhardt et al., 2015). Moreover, ELISA has drawbacks such as high possibility of false positive/negative, instability of antibody and high cost (Sakamoto et al., 2018). Consequently, sensing platforms are needed which can provide rapid, simple and sensitive recognition of Ampi residue in foodstuffs.

Recently, aptamers as potent substitutes to antibiotics have been increasingly applied in establishing different sensors. Aptamers are synthetic short single-stranded DNA (ssDNA) or RNA sequences with unique three-dimensional (3D) structures which allow these oligonucleotides to interact with a broad range of targets (Khoshbin et al., 2018; Taghdisi et al., 2018). These recognition probes are isolated by a combinatorial chemistry technique called SELEX (Systematic Evolution of Ligand by EXponential enrichment) (Liu et al., 2019). Relative to antibiotics, aptamers hold distinct benefits, including flexible labeling and regeneration, in vitro synthesis, high stability and low cost (Abnous et al., 2018; Nie et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018b).

Among different aptamer-based sensors, electrochemical

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aptasensors have become widespread for biosensing by virtue of their rapid response, inexpensive instruments, easy miniaturization and high detection sensitivity (Nie et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2019).

Herein, a novel and ultrasensitive ladder-shaped electrochemical aptasensor was introduced for detection of Amp. So far, different electrochemical aptasensors have been developed by our group which were based on different shapes, like arch-shape (Danesh et al., 2016), H-shape (Abnous et al., 2016),  $\pi$ -shape (Abnous et al., 2017) and M-shape (Taghdisi et al., 2016). Compared to these approaches, in the absence of target (Ampi), there are multiple layers of ssDNAs on the gold electrode surface of the presented aptasensor which efficiently prohibit the access of the redox couple,  $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{3-/4-}$ , to the surface of electrode via electrostatic repulsion and physical prevention. While in the presence of Amp, these DNA multiple layers leave the surface of electrode in a relatively short time (60 min) owing to high affinity of aptamer towards its target, leading to high access of redox agent to the electrode surface. Therefore, there is a very big difference between the access of  $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{3-/4-}$  to the electrode surface in the presence and absence of target, resulting in the ultrasensitive detection of Amp. Also, Amp aptamer sequence (Luo et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2016) did not have any modification which could improve its affinity towards Amp.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Materials

All DNA sequences were synthesized by Microsynth (Switzerland) (Table S1). Amoxicillin (Ampi), potassium hexacyanoferrate(III) ( $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}$

$(\text{CN})_6]$ ), amoxicillin (Amox), levofloxacin (Levo), Tris(2-carboxyethyl) phosphine hydrochloride (TCEP), chloramphenicol (Chl), 6-mercaptohexanol (MCH), kanamycin (Kana), Potassium hexacyanoferrate(II) trihydrate ( $\text{K}_4[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6] \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) and tetracycline (Tet) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (USA).

### 2.2. Instrumentation and electrochemical evaluation

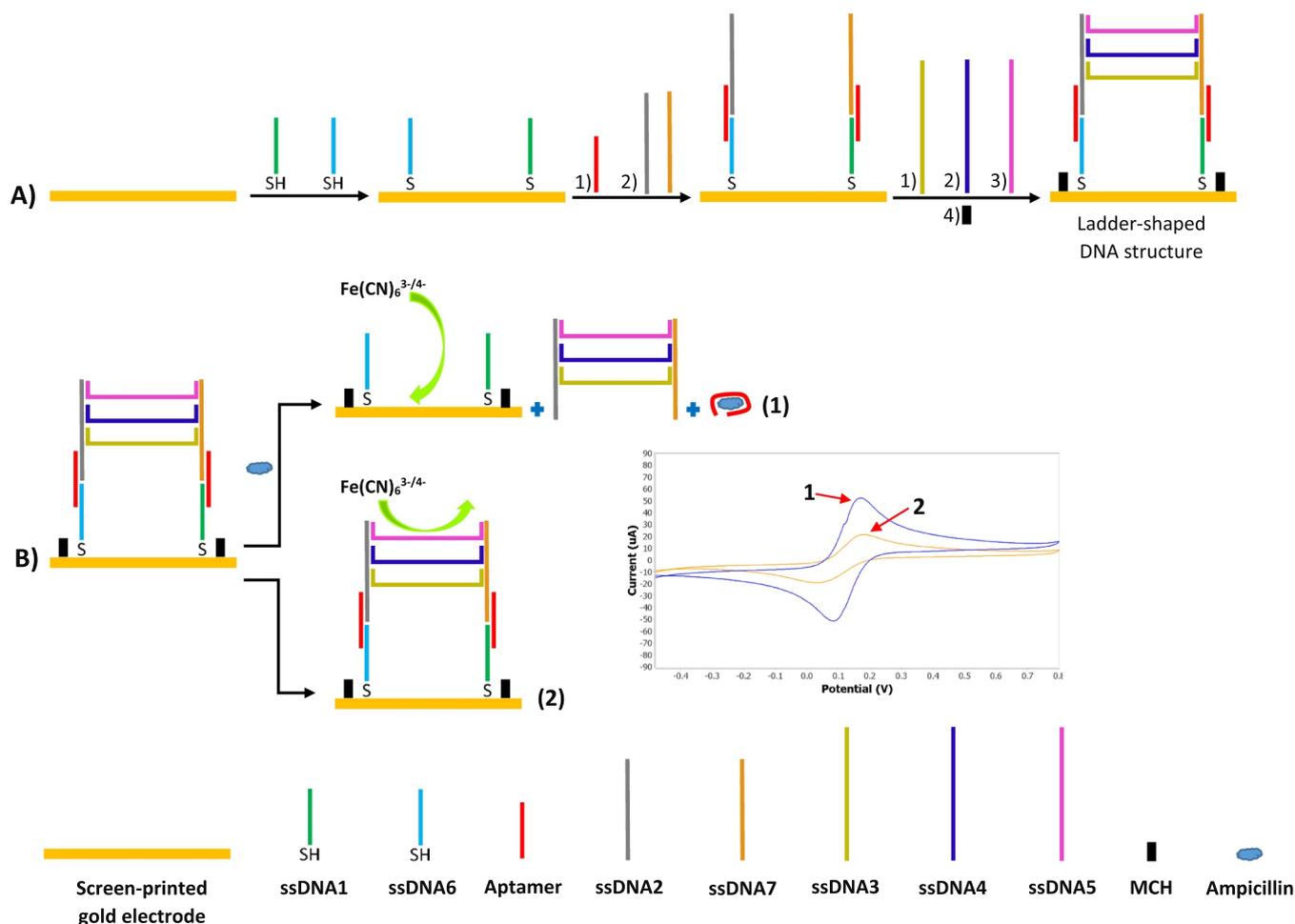
$\mu$ STAT 400 portable BiPotentiostat/Galvanostat (DropSens, Spain) was utilized for electrochemical experiments using screen-printed gold electrodes, DRP-C220BT, DropSens, Spain) and DropView8400 software.

The electrochemical experiments were measured in the mixture of 0.1 M KCl and 3 mM  $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{3-/4-}$  as a redox agent. The electrochemical responses were assessed with cyclic voltammetry (CV) in the potential range from  $-0.48$  to  $0.8$  V at a scan rate of  $50$  mV/s and differential pulse voltammetry (DPV) in the potential range from  $0.05$  to  $0.24$  V, pulse potential of  $10$  mV and pulse time of  $25$  ms.

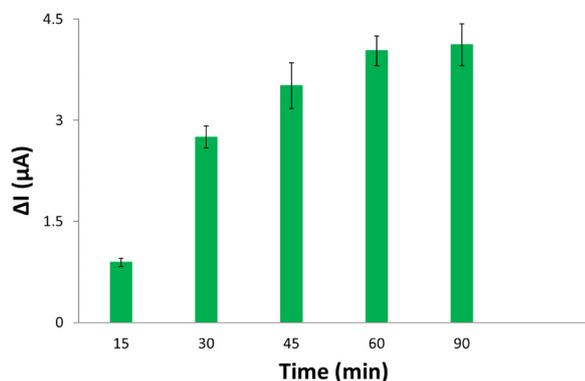
A JPK NanoWizard II microscope (Germany) and a TESCAN MIRA3 microscope (Czech Republic) were used for atomic force microscopy (AFM) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM), respectively.

### 2.3. Modification of electrode with aptamer and ssDNAs (ladder-shaped DNA structure) and Ampi analysis

ssDNAs 1 and 6 were firstly dissolved in 10 mM Tris-HCl buffer (containing 5 mM TCEP, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, pH 7.4) to the final concentration of 250 nM for each strand and incubated at room



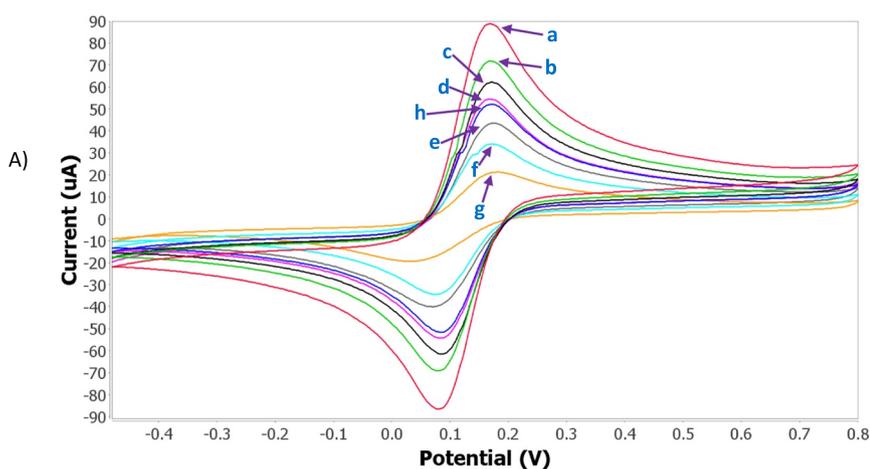
**Scheme 1.** Schematic diagram of the fabrication procedure of the ladder-shaped DNA structure on the surface of electrode (A) and the function of the electrochemical aptasensor (B).



**Fig. 1.** Effect of the incubation time of the Ampri on the relative electrochemical response ( $I-I_0$ ) of the aptasensor.  $I_0$  and  $I$  are the currents before and after addition of Ampri, respectively.

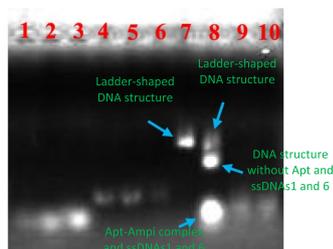
temperature for 1 h to reduce disulfide bonds. The gold electrode was immersed in 10  $\mu$ L of the above mixture for 10 h at room temperature in a moisture-saturated environment for immobilization of ssDNAs1 and 6 on the gold electrode surface. After that, the electrode surface was rinsed with Tris-HCl (pH 7.4) and 10  $\mu$ L Ampri aptamer (500 nM) was placed on the surface of electrode for 1.5 h at room temperature, followed by rinsing the surface of electrode. Then, 10  $\mu$ L solution containing ssDNAs 2 (250 nM) and 7 (250 nM) was dropped onto the electrode surface for 1.5 h at room temperature. Next, 10  $\mu$ L ssDNAs 3, 4 and 5 (the concentration of each strand was 250 nM) were separately added to the electrode surface and each strand was incubated for 1.5 h. Afterwards, the electrodes were washed with Tris-HCl (pH 7.4) and treated with 10  $\mu$ L MCH (0.5 mM) for blocking reaction.

The fabricated electrodes were immersed in phosphate buffer saline solution (10 mM PBS) containing various amounts of Ampri (0–200 nM) for 60 min at room temperature. Then, the electrodes were rinsed and DPV analysis was performed.



A)

B)



## 2.4. Selectivity evaluation of the aptasensor

The specificity of the sensing method was assessed by challenging it with several antibiotics, including Amox, Levo, Chl, Kana and Tet as mentioned above. The concentration of each antibiotic was 100 nM.

## 2.5. Detection of Ampri in milk samples

Different Ampri concentrations (0–200 nM) were spiked into 10-fold diluted milk samples and the presence of Ampri was determined and analyzed using the ladder-shaped electrochemical aptasensor through DPV.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Analytical principle

The principle of the presented analytical method was based on a ladder-shaped structure on the surface of electrode, composed of several ssDNAs which could act as a multi-layer physical block for the access of redox couple to the gold electrode surface (Scheme 1). In this sensing platform, the Ampri aptamer is essential for the formation and immobilization of the ladder-shaped DNA structure on the surface of gold electrode.

In the absence of Ampri, the ladder-shaped structure stands unbroken on the surface of electrode and prevents the entry of  $[Fe(CN)_6]^{3-/4-}$  to the electrode surface through physical blockage and electrostatic repulsive force between the negatively charged phosphate groups of the immobilized ssDNAs and aptamer and the negatively charged redox probe (Chen et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2015). So, a weak peak current is observed. Upon adding Ampri, preferential binding of aptamer towards its target leads to release of some parts of the ladder-shaped DNA structure from the electrode surface. Consequently, the redox agent can freely reach the electrode surface. Therefore, the current response is significantly improved.

**Fig. 2.** (A) CV of the electrode fabrication process and aptasensor function. Bare electrode (red curve, a curve), ssDNAs1 and 6 (green curve, b curve), ssDNAs1 and 6 + Aptamer (black curve, c curve), ssDNAs1 and 6 + Aptamer + ssDNAs2 and 7 (pink curve, d curve), ssDNAs1 and 6 + Aptamer + ssDNAs2 and 7 + ssDNA3 (gray curve, e curve), ssDNAs1 and 6 + Aptamer + ssDNAs2 and 7 + ssDNA3 + ssDNA4 (pale blue curve, f curve), ssDNAs1 and 6 + Aptamer + ssDNAs2 and 7 + ssDNA3 + ssDNA4 + ssDNA5 (ladder-shaped structure) (orange curve, g curve), ladder-shaped structure + Ampri (deep blue curve, h curve). (B) Analysis of the formation of the ladder-shaped DNA structure and performance of the aptasensor using agarose gel electrophoresis (2.5%, stained with GelRed). Lane 1: ssDNA1, lane 2: ssDNA6, lane 3: aptamer, lane 4: ssDNA3, lane 5: ssDNA4, lane 6: ssDNA5, lane 7: ladder-shaped DNA structure (ssDNAs1-7 + aptamer), lane 8: ladder-shaped DNA structure + Ampri, lane 9: ssDNA2 and lane 10: ssDNA7.

### 3.2. Optimization of the incubation time of AmpI

To maximize the electrochemical performance of the aptasensor for AmpI determination, the incubation time of target was examined (Fig. 1). With the increase of incubation time of AmpI, the relative electrochemical signal enhanced. The maximum relative signal was achieved within 60 min and this time was selected for other experiments.

### 3.3. Verification of the electrode modification and feasibility of the sensing strategy

CV was evaluated under various fabrication procedures to prove that the electrochemical sensing method was fabricated successfully and functioned well. (Fig. 2A). The bare gold electrode presented the maximum redox current (red curve, a curve), indicating free electron transfer of the  $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{3-/4-}$  at the bare gold electrode. The peak current decreased gradually when ssDNAs 1 and 6 (green curve, b curve), aptamer (black curve, c curve) and ssDNAs 2 and 7 (pink curve, d curve) were successfully immobilized on the electrode surface, respectively. These decreases were caused by the steric hindrance and electrostatic repulsion effects of the negatively charged ssDNAs. The current signal was further reduced following the additions of ssDNAs 3 (gray curve, e curve), 4 (pale blue curve, f curve) and 5 (orange curve, g curve), principally arisen from the formation of the ladder-shaped DNA structure as a multi-layer physical barrier on the surface of electrode and so, poor access of the redox probe to the electrode surface. The CV curve exhibited a strong enhancement when AmpI existed in the sample (deep blue curve, h curve). This was ascribed to the formation of Aptamer-AmpI complex and the release of multiple-layer barrier from the electrode surface due to the stronger binding force between the aptamer and its target (Xi et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Zhong et al., 2018). Therefore, the transduction of the electron enhanced.

Also the immobilizations of the ssDNAs1 and 6, which is the first step for the formation of the ladder-shaped structure, were investigated using AFM and SEM studies. AFM images revealed that the electrode roughness enhanced from 314.5 nm to 435.7 nm following immobilizations of ssDNAs 1 and 6 (Fig. S1). Also, SEM images showed a change in the morphology of electrode following the additions of ssDNAs1 and 6 (Fig. S2). These results substantiated successfully immobilizations of ssDNAs1 and 6 on the surface of electrode.

The formation and efficiency of the designed aptasensor were also validated by agarose gel electrophoresis analysis (Fig. 2B). Only one major band was detected for ladder-shaped DNA structure (lane 7) and this band displayed lower mobility shift compared to other ssDNAs, suggesting the successful self-assembly of the DNA structure. Upon addition of AmpI, the ladder-shaped DNA structure was disassembled (lane 8), verifying the successful function of the aptasensor in the presence of target.

### 3.4. Quantitative analysis of AmpI

To evaluate the linear range of the sensing platform and its detection sensitivity towards AmpI, the concentration titration measurements were conducted through DPV. Upon addition of various amounts of AmpI into the detection system, the redox current enhanced with increasing the AmpI concentration (Fig. 3A) which was originated from more disassembly of the ladder-shaped DNA structure with increasing of the AmpI amount. The relative electrochemical response was linear with the logarithm of the concentration of AmpI from 7 pM to 100 nM (Fig. 3B). The detection limit (LOD) was measured to be 1 pM ( $S/N = 3$ ).

As displayed in Table 1, the analytical performance of the presented aptasensor is superior or comparable with the previous analytical approaches for detection of AmpI. Also, its target detection time is acceptable.

### 3.5. Selectivity of the aptasensor

The specificity of the aptasensor was analyzed by comparing the current changes induced by AmpI and different antibiotics, including Amox, Levo, Chl, Kana and Tet under the same experimental conditions. Fig. 3C indicates that the remarkable relative electrochemical signal change could only be observed by AmpI. These results obviously showed that the developed aptasensor provided high selectivity for AmpI determination.

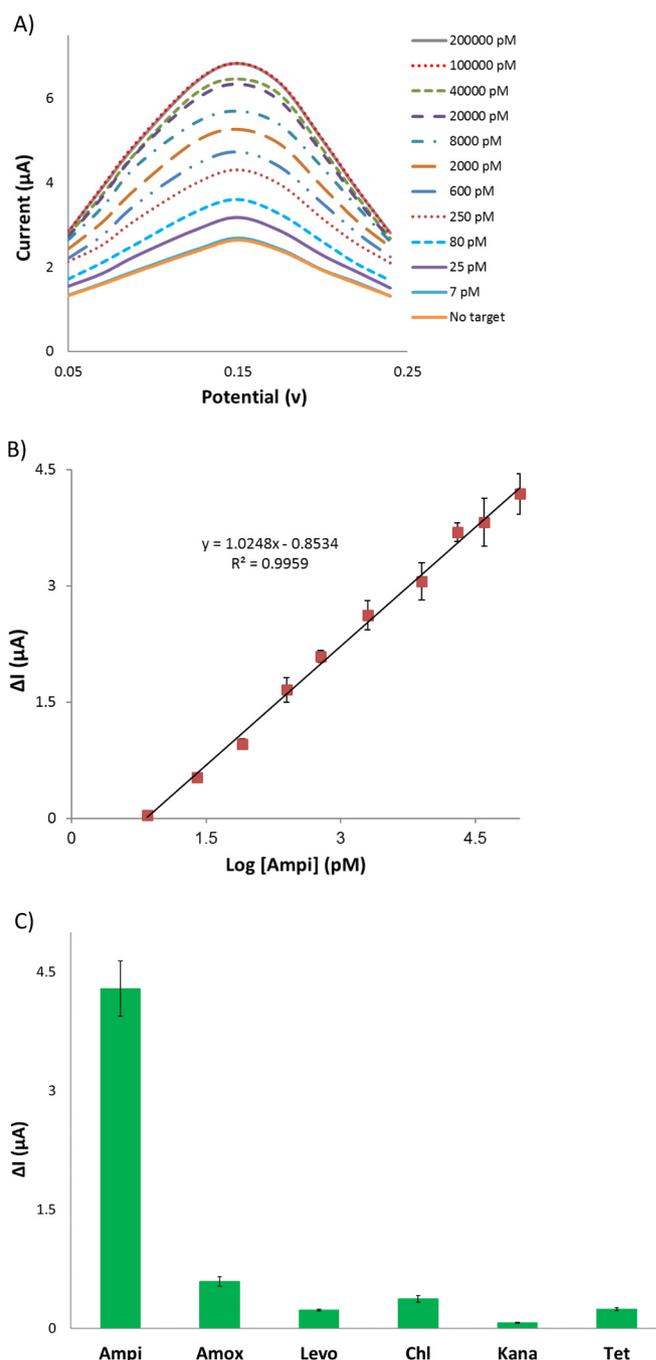


Fig. 3. (A) DPV response of the sensing method after adding different concentrations of AmpI (0–200 nM). (B) Calibration curve of the relative electrochemical response ( $I-I_0$ ) to AmpI.  $I_0$  and  $I$  are the currents before and after addition of AmpI, respectively. (C) Relative electrochemical signals of the aptasensor after addition of AmpI, Amox, Levo, Chl, Kana and Tet.  $I_0$  and  $I$  are the currents before and after addition of each antibiotic.

**Table 1**  
Comparison of the presented aptasensor with other reported Ampicillin sensing methods.

Method	LOD	Linear range	Analysis time of Ampicillin	Reference
A reagentless and reusable electrochemical aptamer-based sensor	1 $\mu$ M	5–5000 $\mu$ M	10 min	(Yu and Lai, 2018)
A fluorescent aptasensor using magnetic bead composites coated with gold nanoparticles and a nicking enzyme	0.07 $\mu$ g/L	0.1–100 $\mu$ g/L	180 min	(Luo et al., 2017)
A homogeneous electrochemical aptasensor based on dual recycling amplification strategy	4 pM	20 pM – 40 nM	90 min	(Wang et al., 2016)
Label-free detection of ampicillin using silver nanoparticles as a colorimetric sensing probe	10 $\mu$ g/L	25–1200 $\mu$ g/L	5 min	(Shrivastava et al., 2017)
An Aptamer based voltammetric determination using a single-stranded DNA binding protein and DNA functionalized gold nanoparticles	0.38 pM	1 pM – 5 nM	300 min	(Wang et al., 2018a)
Molecularly imprinted electrochemical sensor based on a gold nanoparticle and multiwalled carbon nanotube-coated Pt electrode	1 nM	10 nM–5 $\mu$ M	5 min	(Wei et al., 2014)
A detection system using programmable hairpin probes based on a simple double-T type microchip electrophoresis platform and isothermal polymerase-catalyzed target recycling	50 pM	50 pM – 10 nM	62 min	(Zhou et al., 2018b)
Silver Nanoparticles Inkjet-printed Flexible Biosensor	10 mg/L	Not reported	6 min	(Rosati et al., 2019)
Our electrochemical aptasensor	1 pM (0.371 ng/L)	7 pM – 100 nM	60 min	

**Table 2**  
Recovery of Ampicillin from milk samples (n = 4). Data are mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD).

Milk samples	Added Ampicillin (nM)	Found (nM)	Recovery (%)	RSD (%; n = 4)
1	0.4	0.37	92.5	5.6
2	0.5	0.47	94	2.5
3	0.9	0.95	105.5	3.8
4	10	10.6	106	3
5	30	29.46	98.2	4.6
6	50	52	104	7.4

### 3.6. Analysis of milk samples

To assess the applicability of the sensing method in practical analysis, the aptasensor was applied to analyze milk samples containing different concentrations of Ampicillin. The calibration plot indicated a good relationship in the dynamic range of 100 pM–70 nM for Ampicillin (Fig. S3). The LOD was determined to be 10 pM (3.713 ng/L), which is much lower than the maximum permitted Ampicillin content in milk set by European Union (4  $\mu$ g/kg) (Kaiser et al., 2018; Rosati et al., 2019) and US Food and Drug Administration (FDA, 28.6 nM) (Yu et al., 2018).

Also, to study the accuracy and reproducibility of the aptasensor, the recovery assay was conducted for milk samples spiked with Ampicillin using the modified gold electrodes which have been prepared in different days. As seen in Table 2, the recoveries of Ampicillin were between 92.5% and 106% with relative standard deviations (RSDs) less than 7.5%. These results confirmed that the proposed approach was capable of detecting Ampicillin in real samples with high precision and accuracy.

## 4. Conclusion

In summary, a novel electrochemical aptasensor was reported for detection of Ampicillin based on a ladder-shaped DNA structure. The presented sensing strategy not only possessed high specificity towards its target, but also achieved highly sensitive quantitative determination of Ampicillin with detection limit of 1 pM, which could be ascribed to the presence of a physical barrier containing multiple ssDNAs layers on the surface of electrode in the absence of Ampicillin. Furthermore, the analytical approach was further utilized to detect Ampicillin in milk samples and the aptasensor showed the recovery rate from 92.5% to 106%, confirming its potential application for Ampicillin determination in complicated biological samples. However, the preparation of the ladder-shaped DNA structure on the surface of electrode needs multiple steps, increasing the preparation time of the aptasensor. Considering the above

characteristics, the developed sensing method can be extended to different targets for which suitable aptamers are available.

### CRediT authorship contribution statement

**Seyed Mohammad Taghdisi:** Formal analysis, Data curation.  
**Khalil Abnous:** Project administration, Funding acquisition.

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### Conflict of interest

There is no conflict of interest about this article.

### Declaration of interests

None.

### Authors' contributions

All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

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Disclosure: *His role was in the performance and writing of the manuscript, formal analysis and data curation. He has no conflict of interest about this article.*

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## Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at doi:10.1016/j.bios.2019.03.044.

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