

Dendrimer—Gold Nanocomposite-Based Electrochemical Aptasensor for the Detection of Dopamine

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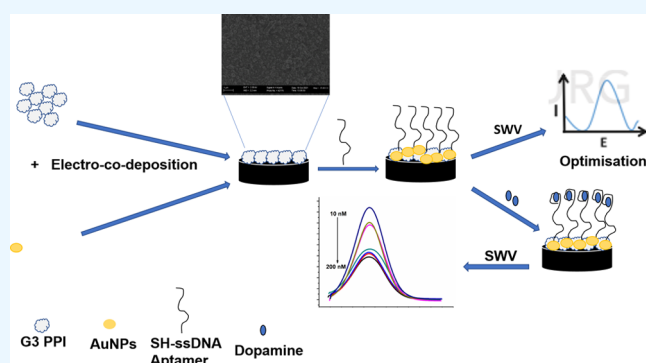
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ABSTRACT: Dopamine is an important neurotransmitter and biomarker that plays a vital role in our neurological system and body. Thus, it is important to monitor the concentration levels of dopamine in our bodies. We report an aptamer-based sensor fabricated through an electro-co-deposition of a generation 3 poly(propylene imine) (PPI) dendrimer and gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) on a glassy carbon (GC) electrode by cyclic voltammetry. Through self-assembly, a single-stranded thiolated dopamine aptamer was immobilized on the GC/PPI/AuNPs electrode to prepare an aptasensor. Voltammetry and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) were used to characterize the modified electrodes. The readout for the biorecognition event between the aptamer and various dopamine concentrations was attained from square wave voltammetry and EIS. The aptasensor detected dopamine from the range of 10–200 nM, with a limit of detection of 0.26 and 0.011 nM from SWV and EIS, respectively. The aptasensor was selective toward dopamine when different amounts of epinephrine and ascorbic acid were present. The aptasensor was applicable in a more complex matrix of human serum.



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1. INTRODUCTION

Neurotransmitters are key messengers in the neurological system that serve a variety of functions. Dopamine is the most studied neurotransmitter. This is because of the critical role it plays in the human brain and neurological system.¹ Adrenal glands and several parts of the brain release dopamine. This neurotransmitter is essential for neuron development, attention, learning, and controlling stress reactions. The central nervous system, kidneys, hormones, motivational activities, and cardiovascular system are among its primary functions.² The functioning of the brain, feelings, and behavior of humans and animals is dependent on the concentration of dopamine. Parkinson's disease, schizophrenia, attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, and other diseases are said to be caused by abnormal amounts of dopamine concentrations.^{2–4} These disorders are a result of damage to the involved neurons during the production of dopamine.

Various quantitative approaches, including electrophoresis, high liquid chromatography, and spectrophotometry, have been used to detect dopamine thus far. These methods can be expensive, and they necessitate time-consuming experiments.^{5–7} Thus, researchers have been working on finding better methods of detecting dopamine sensitively and affordably in biological fluids. Electrochemical methods so far are preferred methods because of their ability to provide

inexpensive, simple, and portable ways of detecting dopamine, as well as the fact that dopamine is a redox-active species allowing for the use of electrochemical methods.^{8–13} The encountered challenge in using electrochemical methods for detecting dopamine is that the concentration of dopamine in physiological conditions is lower than that of the other electrochemically active species, such as ascorbic acid and uric acid.^{14–16} Furthermore, these species, which also include epinephrine, norepinephrine, and catechol, are known as interfering species when it comes to detecting dopamine in biological samples since they have comparable oxidation potentials and competitive sensitivities. For example, ascorbic acid is commonly found to be a hundred to a thousand times greater than dopamine.^{17–19} Thus, it is important to address the issue of selectivity in the development of sensors for dopamine.

Biosensor development is a viable strategy for the selective detection of dopamine. Biosensors are noted for their great

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selectivity and low detection limit. Thus, biosensors may mitigate the challenge of interferences from the biochemicals listed in the previous paragraph.^{20–22} A biosensor usually needs a bioreceptor that undergoes a biorecognition process with the desired analyte. These bioreceptors can be enzymes, antibodies, DNA, RNA, and a whole cell. Certain DNA/RNA selected to bind to specific targets just as antibodies in immunosensors are called aptamers.²³ Aptamers are short single-stranded artificial ligands with strong affinity and specificity for their target molecule. These characteristics define the wide usage of aptamers in designing aptamer-based biosensors (also called aptasensors).^{21,24} Aptamers possess key features, such as low cost, small size, simple synthesis, excellent recognition, and binding affinity with their target.^{25,26} These features are an improvement over the traditional antibodies and can thus be exploited to improve the performance and selectivity of electrochemical biosensors.

Aptamers are usually immobilized on an electrode surface with the aid of a material or composite material that acts as a platform or immobilization layer. These immobilization layers, which can be in the nanodimension, assist in the performance of the biosensor. Nanomaterials on electrode surfaces or in electrochemical processes can increase electrocatalytic activities, increase electroactive surface area, and facilitate electron transfer.^{27–30} Nanomaterials also provide a platform for the desired chemistry of immobilization, such as thiol linkage,³¹ supramolecular interaction,³² etc. Gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) have drawn a lot of interest from researchers due to their distinctive properties, including high biocompatibility, strong conductivity, and enhanced surface area.³³ AuNPs have been employed in detecting organic and inorganic pollutants, in biomedical applications, and as a nanoplatform for the construction of cancer biomarker immunosensors.^{34,35} Another material of interest in biosensor development is poly(propylene imine) dendrimer and dendrimers in general. Poly(propylene imine) (PPI) dendrimers are globular-shaped, highly branching, three-dimensional polymers. These dendrimers possess numerous characteristics, which include biocompatibility, low cytotoxicity, solubility, self-assembly, and large surface area. Dendrimer's analytical properties enable them to be utilized in biological and materials science applications.^{36,37}

Arotiba et al. have shown how dendrimer–gold nanocomposite may be used as a platform for DNA biosensor modification.³⁸ The use of this nanocomposite results in high conductivity and improved sensitivity of the sensor. Idris et al. used poly(propylene imine) dendrimer and gold nanoparticles when they developed an electrochemical immunosensor for cancer biomarkers.³⁹ While various electrochemical biosensors for detecting dopamine have been reported,^{40–44} the use of dendrimers or dendrimer nanocomposites has not been reported. Owing to the host–guest potential of dendrimer and the immobilization chemistry such as thiol linkage that AuNPs can offer, an aptasensor for the detection of dopamine using PPI/AuNP nanocomposites is reported.

2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

2.1. Materials and Apparatus. A single-stranded DNA thiolated aptamer probe as reported in the literature with a sequence 5'-SH(CH₂)₆GTCTCTGTGTGCGCCAGAGACACTGGGGCAGATATGGGCCAGCACAGAATGAGGCC-3' [42] was purchased from Inqaba Biotechnical Industries (Pty) Ltd. (Pretoria, South Africa). Dopamine

hydrochloride, epinephrine hydrochloride, potassium chloride, gold(III) chloride solution, G3 poly(propylene dendrimer) (G3 PPI), tris-(2-carboxyethyl) phosphine hydrochloride, ethylene diamine tetra-acetic acid (EDTA), tris-(hydroxymethyl) aminomethane, di-potassium hydrogen orthophosphate, potassium dihydrogen orthophosphate, and human serum (from human male AB plasma, USA origin, sterile-filtered) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (South Africa). To prepare 100 μ M of aptamer, the purchased stock of the aptamer was dissolved using the Tris-EDTA buffer solution. The aptamer stock was stored at -20 °C. A 0.1 M phosphate buffer saline was prepared from dipotassium hydrogen orthophosphate and potassium dihydrogen orthophosphate. Ultrapure Millipore water was used for the preparation solutions (18.2 M Ω ·cm at 25 °C, Millipore-MilliQ, South Africa).

2.2. Instrumentation. Electrochemical experiments and characterization were performed using an Ivium pocketstat2 potentiostat (Netherlands) connected to a three-electrode system. The three electrodes were the working electrode (glassy carbon), the reference electrode (Ag/AgCl in 3 M KCl), and the counter electrode (platinum wire). Field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) analyses were conducted using an FESEM Zeiss crossbeam 540 and a Joel-TEM 2100F, respectively. UV–vis (Agilent Technologies Cary 60 UV–vis) was used for validation of the results from the sensor.

2.3. Preparation and Characterization of the Modified Electrode. PPI and gold nanoparticles were electro-co-deposited onto a glassy carbon (GC) electrode in a similar way to that reported by Arotiba et al.³⁸ Briefly, the GC electrode was cleaned with alumina slurry with different sizes (1.0, 0.3, and 0.05 μ m), followed by sonication in deionized water and ethanol. The cleaned GC electrode was then modified using a solution of 5 mM G3 PPI and 5 mM gold(III) chloride in equal volumes. Using cycling voltammetry (CV), electro-co-deposition of PPI and AuNPs was carried out at a potential of -400 to 1000 mV for 10 cycles at a 50 mV/s scan rate. The obtained sensor was labeled GC/PPI/AuNPs.

The morphology of the AuNPs and generation 3 poly(propylene imine) (G3 PPI) dendrimer was investigated using field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM). This analysis was carried out on a screen-printed carbon electrode. The nanomaterials were electrodeposited onto the carbon screen-printed electrode connected to a DropSens μ Stat 400 (Spain) using cyclic voltammetry. For this analysis, the working electrode was trimmed from the rest of the electrodes into a size of ≈ 1 cm². The stubs were then mounted on a FESEM stub holder, and an FESEM sputter was used to coat it with carbon. After coating, the stub holder was then placed on a stage of field-emission SEM, where the samples were analyzed by varying acceleration voltages.

Characterization of the electrodes was also carried out electrochemically using CV and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). The conditions used at a potential window of -200 to 700 mV, 50 mV/s scan rate, and 10 mV E-step for CV. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was conducted with a potential of 0.205 V, a frequency ranging from 100 kHz to 100 mHz, and an amplitude of 10 mV. The data were fitted using Randles's equivalent circuit. Electro-deposition of G3 PPI and AuNPs on the GC electrode was also carried out, and these electrodes were denoted as GC/PPI and GC/AuNPs.

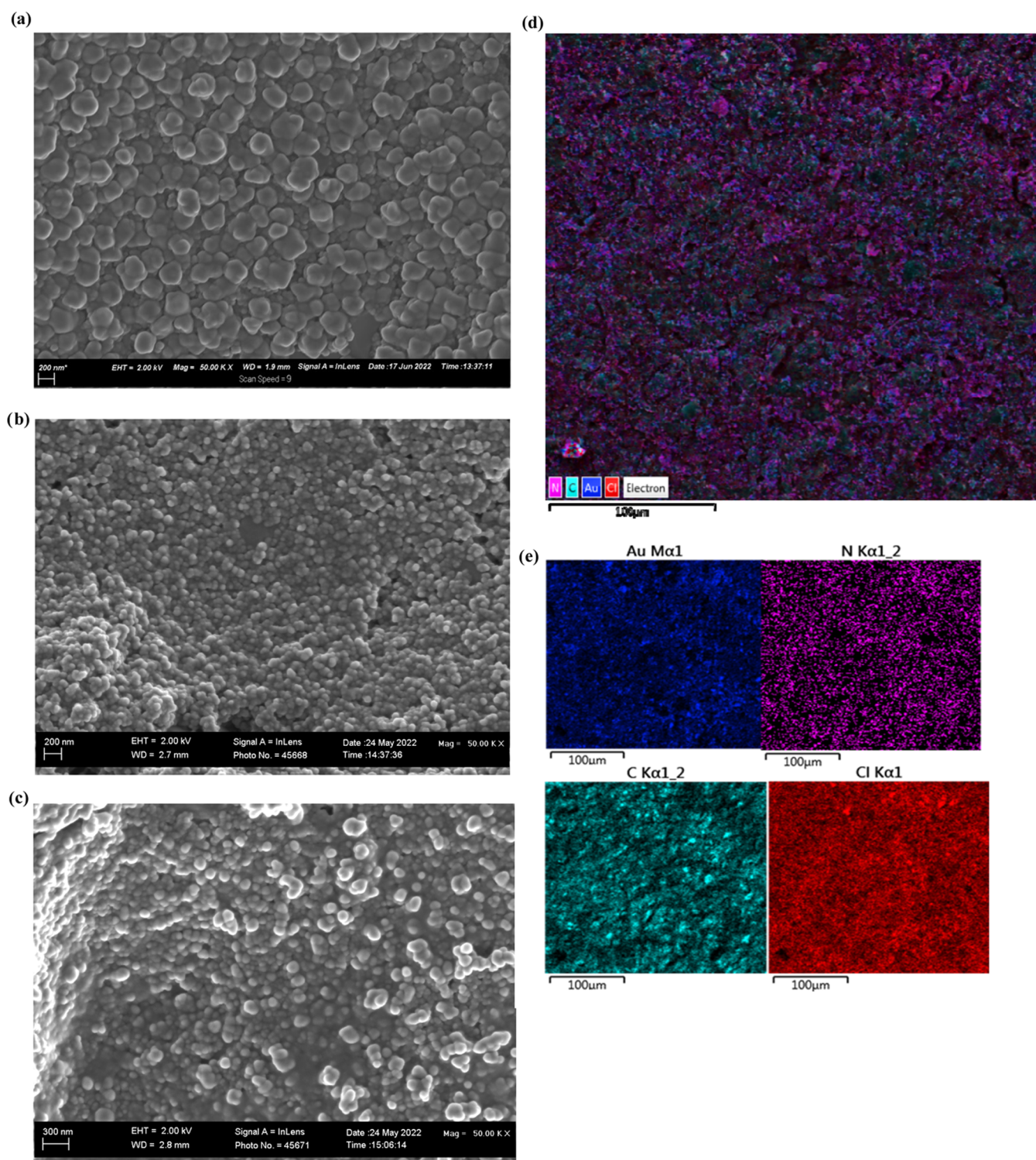


Figure 1. FESEM images on SPCE (a) AuNPs, (b) PPI, and (c) PPI/AuNPs. Elemental mapping: (d) all elements in the nanocomposite and (e) individual elements of the nanocomposite.

2.4. Preparation of the Dopamine Aptasensor. A 57 mer thiolated oligonucleotide (aptamer) for dopamine was immobilized on the GC/PPI/AuNPs. First, the aptamer solution was prepared by adding 1 mM tris(2-carboxyethyl) phosphine hydrochloride solution (TCEP) and was kept an hour in the dark for the reduction of disulfide bonds. After that, 10 μ M of the aptamer probe was drop cast onto the GC/PPI/AuNPs and kept in a fridge at 4 $^{\circ}$ C overnight. The

electrode was then rinsed using PBS to remove the unbound aptamers. The resultant electrode was GC/PPI/AuNPs-Apt.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Physicochemical Characterization. The field-emission SEM images obtained for morphology studies are presented in Figure 1a–c. The gold nanoparticles (Figure 1a) appear as globular clusters, while G3 PPI appears as irregular

clusters or clumps of spheres and sheets on the electrode surface (Figure 1b). Figure 1c demonstrates a mixture of the dendrimer's larger cluster and the gold nanoparticle's globular clusters. Figure 1d,e presents the elemental mapping of PPI/AuNPs. The results show that PPI and AuNPs were uniformly distributed (Figure 1d) on the electrode based on the color code of the individual element (Figure 1e). The presence of chlorine might have emanated from the gold as our gold source was the gold(III) chloride solution.

3.2. Electrochemical Characterization of the Modified Glassy Carbon Electrode and the Aptasensor. The aptasensor (i.e., GC/PPI/AuNPs-Apt) was developed by the immobilization of the aptamer onto the GC/PPI/AuNPs electrode. Each component of the nanocomposite was used in the immobilization chemistry: the dendrimer provided a supramolecular anchor for the aptamer via host-guest chemistry and electrostatic attraction.^{32,38,45} At pH of 7, the aptamer is anionic and the dendrimer is cationic, thus providing the electrostatic attraction.⁴⁶ The AuNPs, on the other hand, were used to anchor the thiolated aptamer through a gold-thiol linkage.^{47–50} Cyclic voltammetry (CV) was performed to assess each phase of the modification using a redox probe (5 mM ferri/ferrocyanide—[Fe(CN)₆]^{3-/4-}). The responses of current for the bare glassy carbon (GC) electrode and those of the modified were observed. The aptasensor (i.e., GC/PPI/AuNPs-Apt) was prepared by the immobilization of the aptamer onto the GC/PPI/AuNPs electrode. The chemistry of immobilization is accomplished by a gold-thiol bond between the gold on the electrode's surface and the aptamer's thiol-modified end. Figure 2a represents the cyclic voltammograms. The G3 poly(propylene imine) dendrimer and gold nanoparticles (PPI/AuNPs)-modified electrode showed a much larger peak current response than the unmodified electrode (Figure 2a). The separation peak potential of the bare electrode is 0.17 V and that of the modified GC/PPI/AuNPs electrode is 0.09 V with an enhanced peak current. The increase of the peak current resulted from the co-electrodeposition of the nanomaterials as they possess excellent characteristics, such as biocompatibility, facile electron transfer, and improved electroactive surface area.⁵¹ Nevertheless, following the aptamer's immobilization on the GC/PPI/AuNPs electrode, a reduction in peak current was observed. This decrease is brought about by the repulsion of charge between the aptamer (due to its negatively charged sugar-phosphate backbone) and the anionic ferri/ferrocyanide that blocks electron flow to the electrode's surface. This reduced current confirmed the immobilization of the aptamer.³¹

From Figure 2a, the peak current was maximum at the GC/PPI/AuNPs surface. The synergic effect is due to the increased electrooxidation current as the result of the enormous surface area and conductivity of the AuNPs. PPI is cationic and thus presents the possibility of adding electrostatic attraction to the mechanism through which the ferri/ferrocyanide (FC) diffuses to the electrode surface. Thus, more FC are attracted or present at the interface per unit time leading to a higher current.

Furthermore, the scan rate study (Figure 2b) reveals a linear relationship between the anodic peak current and the square root of the scan rate (Figure 2b inset) with a correlation coefficient of $R^2 = 0.9968$ for the GC/PPI/AuNPs. These findings suggest that diffusion controls the electrochemical response. The surface area of GC/PPI/AuNPs was modified,

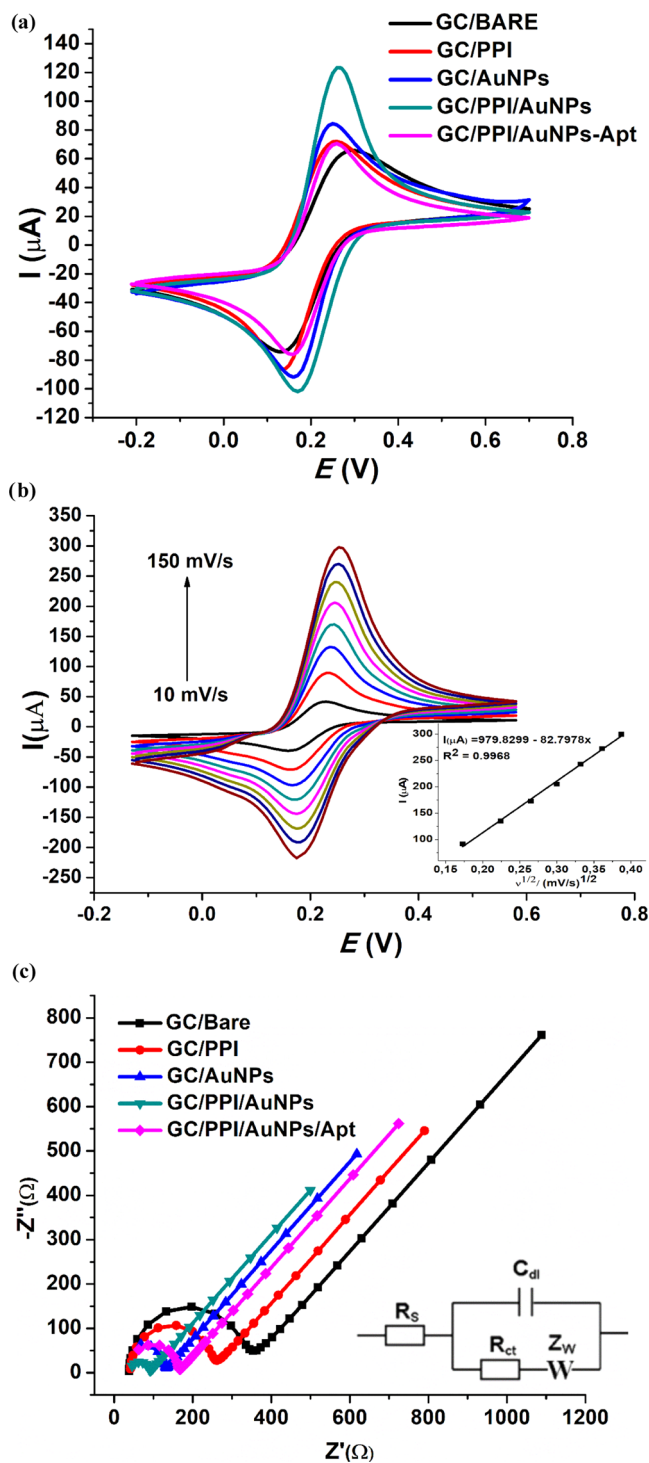
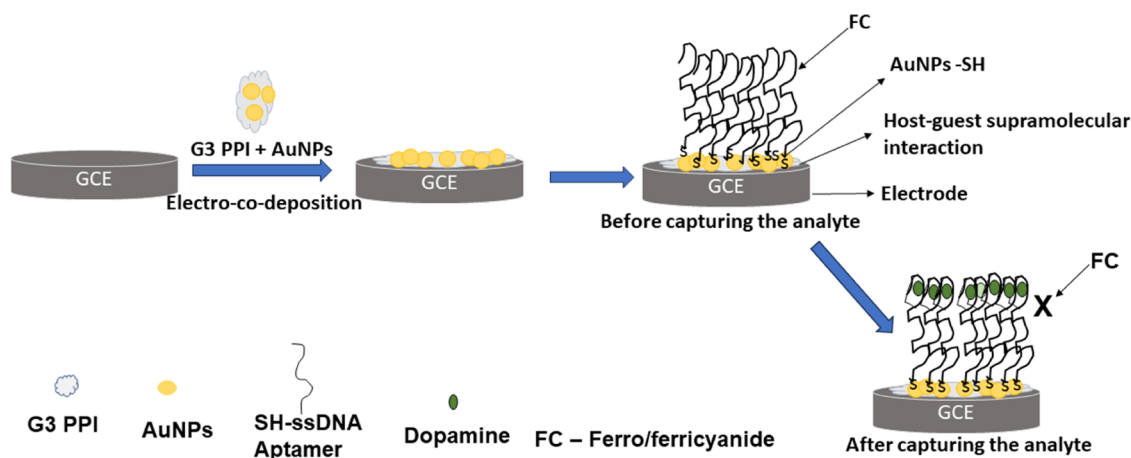


Figure 2. (a) CV: bare and modified GC electrodes at 50 mV/s scan rate and (b) scan rate study of the GC/PPI/AuNPs electrode, (c) The EIS responses—Nyquist plot (bare and modified), Inset: Randles equivalent circuit. The experiments were carried out using 5 mM ferri/ferrocyanide in 0.1 M PBS, pH 7.4.

and the bare was determined using the Randles-Sevcik equation. The bare electrode's surface area was determined to be 0.059 cm², whereas the GC/PPI/AuNPs was 0.265 cm². From these results, it can be observed that the properties of the dendrimer-gold nanocomposite functioned in synergy in improving the electrode's electroactive surface area. Furthermore, the scan rate study shows the stability of the

Scheme 1. Schematic Representation of the Aptasensor Development



electrodeposited PPI/AuNPs because the anodic and cathodic potential did not vary as the scan rate changed.³⁹ This stability is because of the electrodeposition method used for PPI and AuNPs. For PPI, the electrodeposition involves a stable C–N linkage on the electrode surface. This CN linkage further traps the AuNP within the dendrimer network.³⁸ Gold nanoparticles also have excellent stability due to their chemical and physical properties.⁵²

The electrodes were also characterized by electrochemical impedance spectroscopy. Data from the Nyquist plot was fitted using the Randles equivalent circuit (Figure 2c, inset), which consists of solution resistance (R_s), charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}), Warburg impedance (Z_w), and double-layer capacitance (C) (Figure 2c). The values of the charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}) for the electrodes are 289, 205, 117, and 35 Ω for the bare GC, GC/PPI, GC/AuNPs, and GC/PPI/AuNPs, respectively. The decrease in R_{ct} values as the electrode was modified with PPI and AuNPs indicated that these nanomaterials can facilitate electron transfer. The GC/PPI/AuNPs electrode has the lowest R_{ct} value of 35 Ω . This indicates that the electro-co-deposited nanocomposite of PPI and AuNPs has a combined effect that outweighs each individual in contributing to the improvement of the electron transfer of the redox probe at the electrode interface. Upon immobilization of the dopamine aptamer, an R_{ct} value of 127 Ω was obtained, showing that the introduction of the aptamer hindered electron flow. The results obtained from impedance spectroscopy for the electrodes agree with that obtained from CV (Figure 2a). Scheme 1 summarizes the aptasensor design and its detection mechanism.

3.3. Optimization of Experimental Parameters. When developing the biosensor, square wave voltammetry (SWV) was utilized to optimize the experimental parameters, including the aptamer concentration and the incubation duration. The aptamer concentration was varied from 1 to 15 μM and was drop cast onto the modified GC/PPI/AuNPs electrode. The current increase was noted to increase with the increase in aptamer concentration until the concentration reached 10 μM and then it decreased, as seen in Figure 3a. Thus, the optimum concentration was 10 μM for the experiments. The impact of incubation time on the sensitivity of the aptasensor was also studied from 5 to 240 min. As depicted in Figure 3b, the current was the highest during the first 30 min of incubation, then the current decreased at about 60 min and slightly

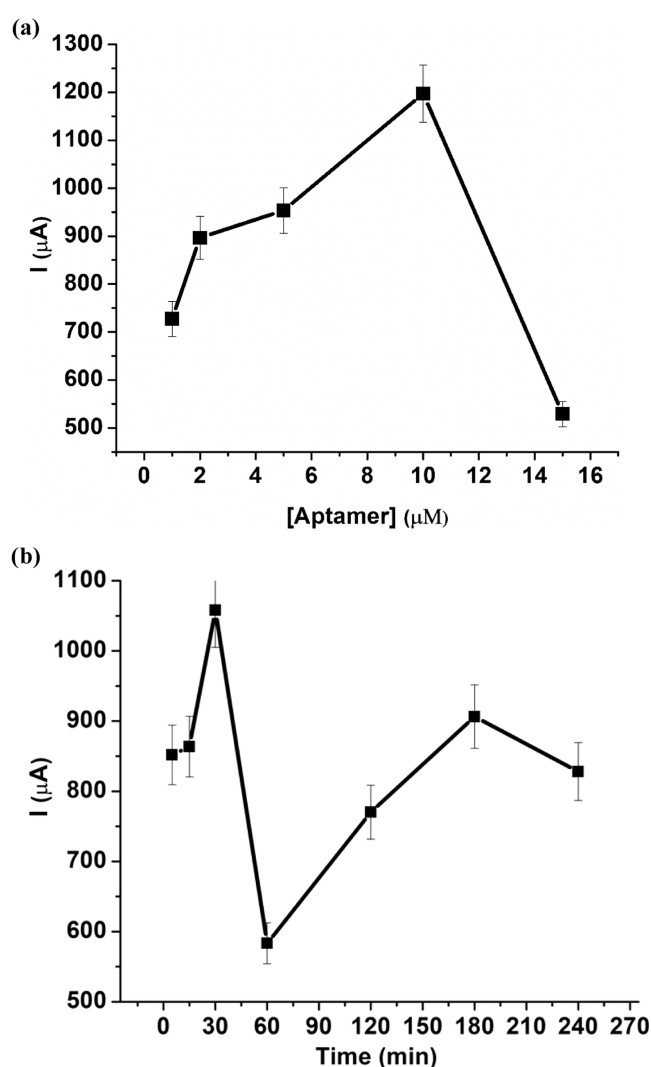


Figure 3. SWV responses: (a) different aptamer concentrations and (b) aptamer incubation time. The experiments were carried out using 5 mM ferri/ferrocyanide in 0.1 M PBS, pH 7.4.

increased after that but still less than the 30 min. Thus, the optimal incubation time for the aptamer was 30 min.

3.4. Analytical Performance of the Aptamer-based Sensor. SWV and EIS were used for the detection of

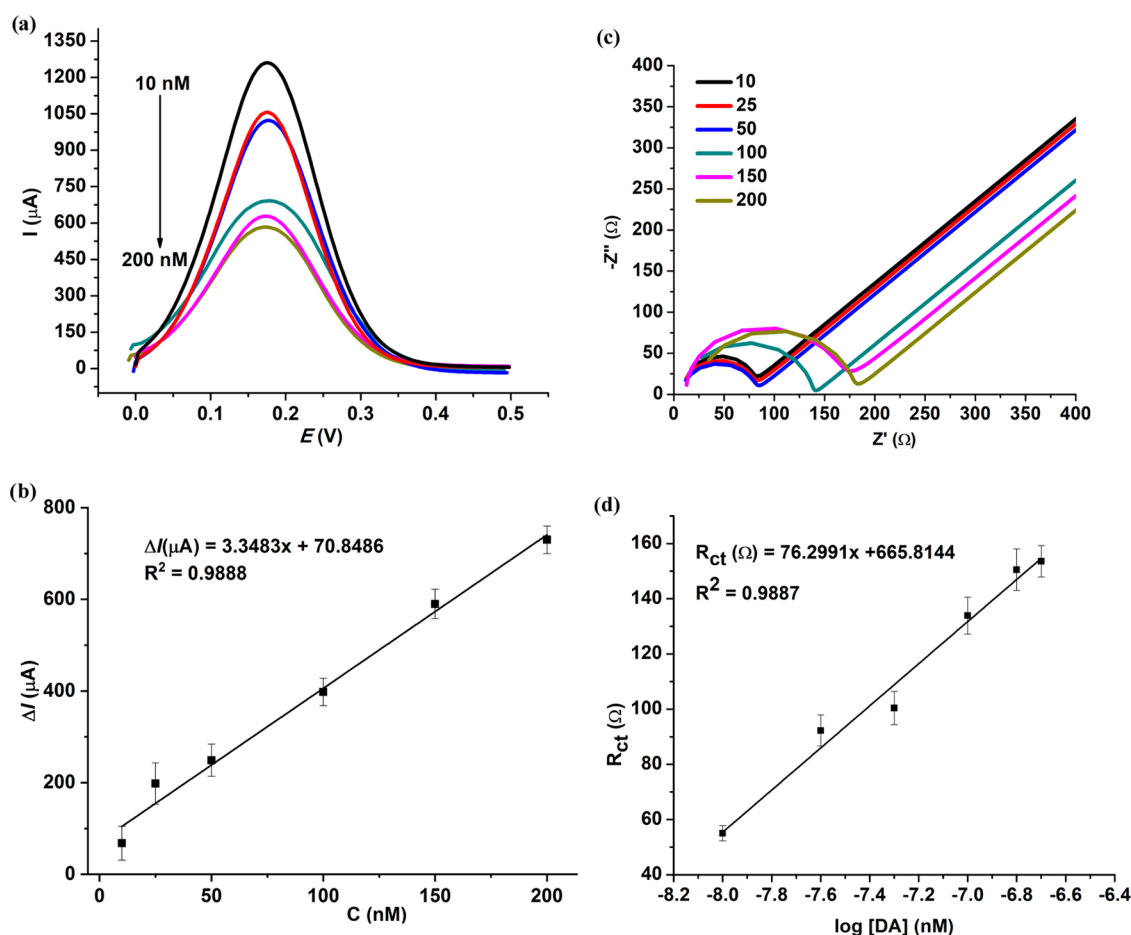


Figure 4. (a) SWV responses of aptasensor to dopamine concentrations, (b) calibration plot of SWV responses, (c) Nyquist plots of the biosensor from different concentrations of dopamine, and (d) calibration plot of the EIS responses. The experiments were carried out using 5 mM ferri/ferrocyanide in 0.1 M PBS, pH 7.4.

Table 1. Comparison of Biosensors for the Detection of Dopamine^a

electrode material	method	detection limit	linear range	refs
AuE-DNA DA aptamer	SWV	0.001 μM	0.005–0.15 μM	53
Au-SPE DA aptamer	CV and EIS	60 and 90 pM	10–0.1 nM	54
AuE-gold nanostructure	DPV	0.01 nM	0.163–20 nM	10
Cr-JFC/DAC ₂	DPV	10.6 nM	0.05–4 μM	55
GCE-rGRO-AuNPs	DPV	0.13 μM	0.5–20 μM	11
Tyr@PANI/CNTs/CNC	CV	1.57 nM	7–1000 mM	56
PANi/CQDs	CV	0.1013 μM	10–90 μM	44
GCE/PPI/AuNPs	SWV	0.26 nM	10–200 nM	this work
GCE/PPI/AuNPs	EIS	0.011 nM	10–200 nM	this work

^aGCE, glassy carbon electrode; PANi/CQDS, polyaniline/carbon quantum dots; AuE, gold electrode; Au-SPE, Gold screen-printed electrode, rGRO-AuNPs, reduced graphene oxide-gold nanoparticle; Tyr@PANI/CNTs/CNC, Tyr immobilized polyaniline/carbon nanotubes/cellulose nanocrystals.

dopamine by the aptasensor at optimized conditions. The current responses (from SWV) decreased as dopamine concentrations increased from 10 to 200 nM (Figure 4a). Change in peak current was determined using $\Delta I_p = I_0 - I$, where I is the anodic peak current after dopamine incubation and I_0 is the anodic peak current before dopamine incubation. The calibration curve has a linear regression equation of $\Delta I(\mu\text{A}) = 3.3483x + 70.8486$ with a correlation coefficient of $R^2 = 0.9888$ for SWV (Figure 4b). EIS was also used to interrogate the biosensing of dopamine (Figure 4c). In this case, the charge transfer resistance (R_{ct}) increased with

increasing concentration of dopamine. The binding of dopamine by the aptamer results in the folding of the aptamer around the target. The folding at the aptasensor surface (as more dopamine is bound) repels the interfacial electron transfer of the ferri/ferrocyanide redox probe, leading to an increase in R_{ct} (Scheme 1). The calibration plot (Figure 4d) has a linear regression equation of $R_{ct}(\Omega) = 76.2991x + 665.8144$ for EIS with $R^2 = 0.9887$. The detection limits from SWV and EIS were determined with the use of this equation $\frac{3 \times \text{SD}}{\text{slope}}$, SD is the standard deviation of the blank solution in

three replicates and the slope is that of the calibration curve. The calculated detection limits were 0.26 and 0.011 nM for SWV and EIS, respectively. The obtained detection limits and linear range obtained in this work are comparable (in some cases better) with other reported biosensors for the detection of dopamine as shown in Table 1.

3.5. Selectivity, Reproducibility, and Stability of the Biosensor. The selectivity of the aptasensor was probed with interfering species, such as epinephrine and ascorbic acid. The findings indicate that the sensor could detect dopamine (50 nM) in the presence of epinephrine and ascorbic acid even though their concentrations at 100 and 200 nM were greater than that of dopamine (Figure 5a). The results suggest that the aptasensor is selective when the interfering molecules are present.

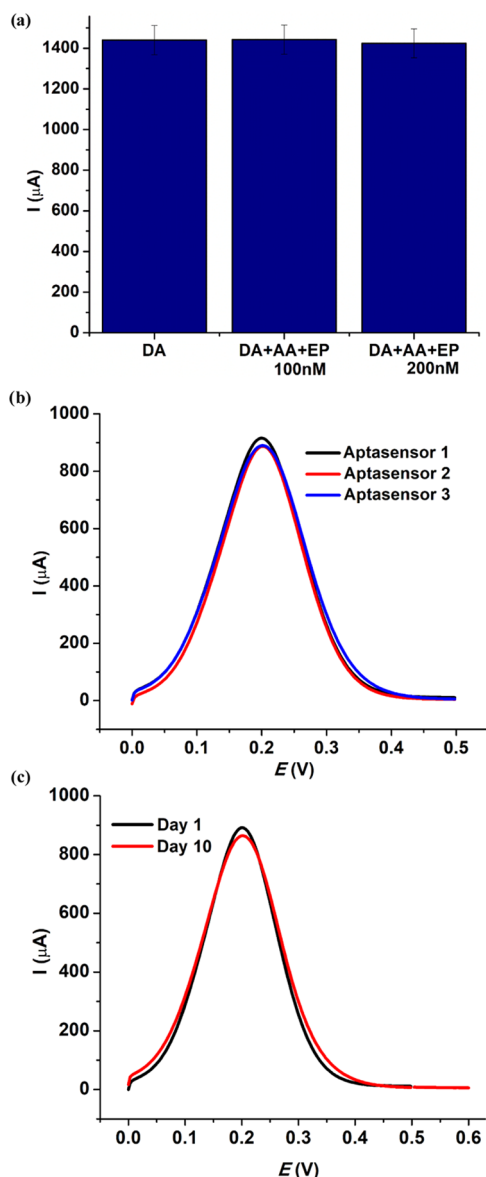


Figure 5. (a) Selectivity of the aptasensor to 50 nM dopamine, 50 nM DA, and 100 nM epinephrine and ascorbic acid, 50 nM DA and 200 nM epinephrine and ascorbic acid. (b) Reproducibility investigation of the aptasensor. (c) Stability study of the aptasensor to 10 nM dopamine.

To study the reproducibility of the biosensor, three biosensors of different electrodes in 10 nM dopamine were used. The % relative standard deviation (% RSD) for three measures of dopamine using the same biosensor was calculated to be 1.3%. The % RSD with three different aptasensors was 2.21% (Figure 5b). The results demonstrated good reproducibility of the biosensor. To study the stability of the as-prepared biosensor, it was then prepared using the same way and was used to detect the same concentration of dopamine after which it was stored at 4 °C in a refrigerator for 10 days (Figure 5c).

3.6. Application of the Biosensor in Real Sample Analysis. The practical applicability of the biosensor was carried out by detecting dopamine in the human serum sample. The samples were diluted with the PBS solution, and then, various concentrations of dopamine were added (10 and 20 nM). The results were validated using UV–vis, and the recoveries were 103.5 and 121% (Table 2). These results show that the developed biosensor can detect dopamine.

Table 2. Analysis of Dopamine in Human Serum

sample	spike (nM)	found (nM)	found UV–vis (nM)	recovery %
human serum	0	101.0	108.2	
	10	113.1	119.2	121
	20	121.7	127.1	103.5

4. CONCLUSIONS

A dendrimer–gold nanocomposite-based aptasensor for dopamine was developed. While the aptamer was linked to the electrode surface by the Au–SH linkage, the immobilization was further improved by the supramolecular interaction of the PPI dendrimer owing to its host–guest capability. This nanocomposite platform can thus be extended to the immobilization of other bioreceptors. Furthermore, the preparation of this aptasensor is a simple, easily controlled electro-co-deposition step. The deposition approach is better than multiple steps of electrode preparation and drop coating usually reported for sensor preparation. The synergic effect of the nanomaterials used enhanced the sensitivity of the aptasensor toward the detection of dopamine. The aptasensor showed stability, reproducibility, and selectivity in detecting DA in the presence of epinephrine and ascorbic acid as interfering molecules. Both SWV and EIS can be used to read out the biorecognition of the aptamer with the dopamine molecules. The limits of detection of 0.26 and 0.011 nM dopamine were calculated for SWV and EIS, respectively. These limits of detection fall below many reports in the literature. An aspect to improve, however, is to apply the sensor measurement in phosphate buffer rather than in the ferrocyanide redox probe. The use of phosphate buffer will make the measurement more direct (signal on). The aptasensor detected dopamine in human serum samples, denoting its potential for practical application.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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