Click-Coupling to Electrostatically Grafted Polymers Greatly Improves the Stability of a Continuous Monitoring Sensor with Single-Molecule Resolution

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ABSTRACT: Sensing technologies for the real-time monitoring of biomolecules will allow studies of dynamic changes in biological systems and the development of control strategies based on measured responses. Here, we describe a molecular architecture and coupling process that allow continuous measurements of low-concentration biomolecules over long durations in a sensing technology with single-molecule resolution. The sensor is based on measuring temporal changes of the motion of particles upon binding and unbinding of analyte molecules. The biofunctionalization involves covalent coupling by click chemistry to PLL-g-PEG bottlebrush polymers. The polymer is grafted to a surface by multivalent electrostatic interactions, while the poly(ethylene glycol) suppresses nonspecific binding of biomolecules. With this biofunctionalization strategy, we demonstrate the continuous monitoring of single-stranded DNA and a medically relevant small-molecule analyte (creatinine), in sandwich and competitive assays, in buffer and in filtered blood plasma, with picomolar, nanomolar, and micromolar analyte concentrations, and with continuous sensor operation over 10 h.

KEYWORDS: continuous monitoring biosensors, biofunctionalization, low-fouling, polyelectrolyte, click chemistry

Biological systems exhibit dynamics that are at the most basic level driven by time-dependent changes of molecules such as metabolites, hormones, proteins, and nucleic acids. For healthcare and engineering purposes, it would be highly valuable to be able to continuously monitor specific molecules that critically reflect the biological dynamics so that timely actions can be taken and changes can be managed. A good example is sensors for continuous glucose monitoring, which are used for patient self-monitoring as well as for controlling industrial fermentations and bioreactors.

Glucose is a metabolite that is present at millimolar concentrations. Biomarkers at lower concentrations can be measured with well-established detection techniques such as surface plasmon resonance (SPR), quartz crystal microbalance (QCM), and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA). However, these methods involve fluid handling steps (e.g., washing steps), which complicate the design of a monitoring system. A sensing principle that does not require wash steps is electrochemical aptamer-based sensing, based on analyte-induced conformational changes of surface-coupled aptamers. Research groups have demonstrated the monitoring of micromolar and nanomolar analyte concentrations. However, the continuous monitoring of biomarkers in the picomolar concentration range has not come within reach.

We have recently demonstrated a sensing technology for continuous biomarker monitoring at micromolar, nanomolar, and picomolar concentrations, called biosensing by particle mobility (BPM). The BPM sensing method has single-molecule resolution and gives digital signals, which enables measurements at low concentrations. BPM is based on particles tethered to a substrate, where the particles and the substrate are functionalized with specific binder molecules. Temporal changes are detected in the mobility of the particles caused by the reversible binding and unbinding of analyte molecules, generating digital on-off switching related to single-molecule events. The BPM sensing principle has been demonstrated with oligonucleotides and proteins as binder molecules, for sensing DNA, protein, as well as small-molecule biomarkers. However, the reported data show a decay of sensor signals, limiting the duration of the experiments as well as the duration of sensor operation in prospective applications.

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Potential causes of the signal decay are imperfect blocking strategies and a loss of binder molecules over time due to noncovalent coupling methods.

In this paper, we describe a molecular architecture with low-fouling bottlebrush polymers (PLL-g-PEG) and covalent click-coupling for achieving real-time continuous monitoring of analytes at low concentrations with stable response over long durations. The bottlebrush polymer serves four purposes: (i) it is strongly attached to the substrate by multivalent electrostatic interactions for high sensor stability, (ii) polyethylene glycol groups give low-fouling properties in order to reduce nonspecific binding of biomolecules, (iii) the polymer serves as a spacer between binder molecules and the solid substrate for minimizing loss of biomolecular activity over time, and (iv) integrated click-functional groups allow facile covalent coupling of binder molecules.

We show that the molecular architecture with click-coupling to low-fouling polymers greatly improves the stability of the BPM continuous monitoring sensor with single-molecule resolution. We describe the molecular architecture, compare it to previous coupling methods, and demonstrate the continuous monitoring of single-stranded DNA (ssDNA) and a small-molecule analyte (creatinine), in sandwich and competitive assay formats, in buffer and in filtered blood plasma. Picomolar, nanomolar, and micromolar analyte concentrations are measured with continuous sensor operation over long durations.

## RESULTS

**Sensing Approach.** Biosensing by particle mobility (BPM) is based on particles that are tethered to a substrate via double-stranded DNA (dsDNA), with the particles and the substrate coated with binder molecules such as oligonucleotides or antibodies. The particles show Brownian motion and explore a region related to the length of the dsDNA tether. In a sandwich assay format (see Figure 1), target molecules can simultaneously bind to a binder molecule on the particle (particle-side binder, also referred to as “particle binder”) and a binder molecule on the substrate (substrate-side binder, also referred to as “substrate binder”). The formation of a target-induced sandwich bond between the particle and the substrate causes the particle motion to become more restricted (bound state), which can optically be detected. Upon dissociation of the target molecule, the larger motion amplitude of the particle is restored (unbound state). The increase and decrease in particle motion, as a result of binding and unbinding of target molecules, are detected over time. The output of the BPM biosensor is the particle switching activity, defined as the average frequency of binding and unbinding events per particle, which can be quantitatively related to the target concentration. The sensing principle is reversible and does not consume or produce any reagents, making it highly suited for continuous monitoring over long durations. However, operation over long durations requires a high stability of the biofunctionalizations in the system, which is the topic of this study.

**Results and Discussion.** The design of the molecular architecture and the particle-based biosensor are shown in Figure 1. A mixture of cationic PLL-g-PEG and PLL-g-PEG-N\textsubscript{3} polymers is adsorbed onto the negatively charged glass substrate. The polyethylene glycol (PEG) groups are strongly hydrophilic and provide biofouling-resistant properties, used here to reduce nonspecific interactions between particles, the substrate, and matrix components. The dsDNA tether and the substrate-side binder molecules are coupled to the PLL-g-PEG layer via the integrated azide groups, using second-generation click chemistry that is copper-free, catalyst-free, specific, and biocompatible. The surface density of clickable azide groups was controlled by mixing PLL-g-PEG and PLL-g-PEG-N\textsubscript{3} polymers at a 10:1 ratio. This provides a sufficient number of azide groups on the surface while still enabling a low degree of nonspecific binding. The single tethering of particles was created by coupling DBCO-dsDNA-biotin tethers to the azide groups and thereafter exposing the surface to particles functionalized with streptavidin moieties.

The stability of the tethered particles was characterized by measuring the number of tethered particles over time. Figure 2 shows the percentage of particles that remain tethered to the surface over a 24 h monitoring period. In the reference experiment, the dsDNA tethers were provided with digoxigenin tags and coupled to the substrate using antidigoxigenin antibodies (see our earlier work). The observed time profiles of the two coupling methods are fitted with single-exponential decay curves. The curves show that the click-based coupling is much more stable than the antibody–antigen-based coupling: the rate of particle loss is about 50 times slower for the click-based coupling.

For the click-based coupling, the loss of particles over a period of 24 h is about 20%. Possible origins of the observed loss are the detachment of the PLL-g-PEG layer from the glass substrate, the breaking of the DBCO–azide bond, or the dissociation of the biotin–streptavidin bond on the particle. The dissociation rate of biotin–streptavidin is about (5.5 ± 2.2) × 10\textsuperscript{-9} s\textsuperscript{-1}, which is very close to the rate observed in Figure 2. The DBCO–azide conjugate, formed through click chemistry, has been proven to be stable under a pulling force of

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*Figure 1. Schematic overview of biosensing by particle mobility (BPM) using click-coupling to a low-fouling bottlebrush polymer, exemplified by a sandwich assay for detecting ssDNA target molecules (not to scale). The substrate is coated with PLL-g-PEG-N\textsubscript{3} molecules, for anti fouling properties and for click-coupling of DBCO-tagged double-stranded DNA tether molecules (red-blue). The particles and the substrate are provided with binders that have a specific affinity to the target molecule. Target molecules (blue) hybridize with the complementary particle and substrate binders, forming a sandwich arrangement (right). The formed sandwich bond leads to a restriction of the motion of the particle. Due to the reversible affinity interactions, the particle switches between the unbound state (left) and the bound state (right). The switching frequency depends on the target concentration: the frequency is low for low target concentration, and the frequency is high for high target concentration.*
TAA, with double-tethered or nonspecifically bound experiments was around 500. Negative control experiments are indicated at the curves. The initial number of particles in the PLL-streptavidin bonds between the biotinylated dsDNA surface charge density of the substrate; studies have shown that Adsorption. Figure 3c,d shows the response of the BPM sensor in filtered undiluted blood plasma. The data in plasma and in buffer show good correspondence, both in time—response and in dose—response curves, proving that the ssDNA target in the picomolar concentration range can be dynamically monitored in very different solutions over long durations. The low-fouling properties of the PLL-g-PEG polymer are also apparent in other parameters: (i) the percentage of nonspecifically bound particles is less than 10% (see Supporting Information Section 2), (ii) the room-temperature shelf-life of the PLL-g-PEG surface functionalized with oligonucleotides and dsDNA tethers is at least three months (see Supporting Information Section 3), and (iii) analyte measurements in 10% unfiltered blood plasma can be done over a period of 9 h (see Supporting Information Section 4).

The stability of the click-based BPM sensor is improved relative to that of the antibody-anchoring BPM sensor (Supporting Information Section 5). Under similar conditions, the click-based sensor responds quantitatively to the target in filtered undiluted blood plasma with a signal decay rate of $(8.3 \pm 1.1) \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (on average, less than 10% signal loss was observed over 5 h), while the antibody-anchored sensor exhibits a higher loss of signal (approximately 50% signal loss was observed over 5 h) with a decay rate of $(4.5 \pm 0.3) \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

SANDWICH ASSAYS: ANTI-DIG COUPLING (GREEN) AND CLICK CHEMISTRY (BLUE)

The switching activity signal in Figure 3a dynamically responds to both increasing and decreasing target concentrations. The activity increases for increasing target concentration, as is expected for a sandwich assay. When the target concentration is decreased to zero in a single step, the activity drops with a finite response time. The three measured step responses are fitted with exponential decay curves, see the gray lines, showing that the dynamic response can be described with a single time constant $\tau_{\text{off}}$ of $26.5 \pm 2.0 \text{ min}$. The fitted $\tau_{\text{off}}$ values of the three subsequent step responses are equal within their uncertainty intervals, demonstrating that the time constant is independent of analyte concentration. This implies that the binding between the particles and the substrate is monovalent and that the relaxation time reflects the single-molecule dissociation constant of the weakest link, i.e., the binding between the target molecule and the substrate binder. Furthermore, the data prove that the sensor system is reversible and stable over a time period of several hours.

Figure 2. Number of tethered particles measured over time, for two methods of coupling the dsDNA tether to the substrate: DIG-AntiDIG coupling (green) and click chemistry (blue). The fluid cell was turned over so that dissociated particles sediment and move away from the glass substrate. The curves were normalized at $t = 0$ and have been fitted with an exponential decay function: $f(t) = (1 - a) + a \times \exp(-t/k_{\text{off}})$, with $f(t)$ the fraction of particles bound to the substrate as a function of time, $k_{\text{off}}$ the dissociation rate constant of single-tethered particles, $a$ the initial fraction of single-tethered particles, and $(1 - a)$ the initial fraction of particles that are strongly bound, i.e., double-tethered or nonspecifically bound. The fitted $k_{\text{off}}$ values are indicated at the curves. The initial number of particles in the experiments was around 500. Negative control experiments are discussed in Supporting Information Section 2.

150 pN for more than 24 h.\(^{17,21}\) The strength of the PLL-g-PEG coupling to the glass substrate is dependent on the surface charge density of the substrate; studies have shown that PLL-g-PEG-modified surfaces stay passivated over days.\(^{22–23}\) Therefore, the loss rate of particles in the PLL-g-PEG experiment in Figure 2 is most likely caused by the dissociation of biotin–streptavidin bonds between the biotinylated dsDNA tether and the streptavidin-functionalized particle.

The reversibility of the BPM sensor with click-based coupling is studied in Figure 3, for a DNA sandwich assay as sketched in Figure 1. The particles and the substrate are provided with ssDNA molecules having 10-bp and 9-bp complementarity to the ssDNA target, respectively, resulting in a bound state lifetime in the order of seconds. Figure 3a shows the applied concentration profile (top panel) and the measured switching activity (bottom panel). The switching activity is the frequency of binding and unbinding events observed per particle, averaged over the number of tethered particles in the microscopic field of view and over a measurement duration of 5 min. Typically, a few hundred particles are simultaneously imaged and tracked. The averaging makes the switching activity a normalized parameter that is independent of the number of observed particles. The total number of particles is important for achieving good event statistics and small error bars in the measured switching activity parameter. Measurements with less particles give lower numbers of switching events and therefore larger measurement uncertainties due to lower event statistics. We typically have 500 to 1000 particles in one field of view. To achieve a CV of 5%, at least 400 events need to be collected per measurement point.\(^{9}\)
substrate binder. For monitoring small molecules with only one binding site, it is necessary to employ a competition assay. Figure 4 shows the sensor design and the sensor response for two competition assays, namely, for monitoring ssDNA and creatinine.9 Creatinine is a byproduct of muscle metabolism and an important biomarker for monitoring the kidney function.27 In the competition assays, either the particles or the substrate is provided with molecular binders that compete with the analyte for transient binding of the particles. The signal response after application of zero concentration was fitted with a single-exponential decay function (indicated as light gray lines), revealing a time constant of $\tau = 26.5 \pm 2.0$ min. (b) Data of panel (a) plotted in a dose–response graph, i.e., the measured signal as a function of target concentration. The colors of the data points refer to the consecutive concentration–time profiles in panel (a). The inset shows the data with a logarithmic concentration scale. The data points collapse onto a single curve, demonstrating the consistent response and reversibility of the sensor. The data were fitted with the Hill equation $A([T]) = A_\text{bg} + A_s \times \frac{[T]}{[T] + EC_{50}}$ (black line), revealing $EC_{50} = 680 \pm 268$ pM. The measurement errors are the standard errors given by the standard deviation of switching activity divided by the square root of the number of particles.26 The standard errors show the accuracy of the mean and are strongly dependent on sample size. The gray shade indicates the 95% confidence range of the fit. (c) Switching activity measured for the ssDNA target in 50 kDa spin-filtered bovine blood plasma. The single-exponential decay fits (light gray lines) reveal a time constant of $\tau = 27.0 \pm 2.0$ min. The protein composition of filtered blood plasma was determined with SDS-PAGE, see Supporting Information Section 6. (d) Data of panel (c) plotted in a dose–response graph. The data points collapse onto a single curve with $EC_{50} = 524 \pm 257$ pM.
The data in Figure 4 show reversible sensor responses over long durations for the two very different molecular systems, namely, the competitive oligonucleotide assay (panels (a)−(c)) and the competitive small-molecule immunoassay (panels (d)−(f)).

First, the competition assays give a sensor with inverted response: an increase in analyte concentration causes a decrease in switching activity because the analyte molecules compete with the analogues. Second, the responses in the competition assays are much faster than the responses in the sandwich assays. The faster response is caused by the law of mass action, as the analyte concentrations are much higher in the competition assays compared to the sandwich assays. Third, the competition assays are prepared with a reduced density of binders on the particle side or on the substrate side. A low density is essential in order to achieve reversible monovalent bonds and avoid irreversible multivalent bonds between the particles and the substrate. The density of binders is approximately three orders of magnitude lower in the competition assays compared to the sandwich assay. The open squares in Figure 4b show the raw data of the DNA competition assay. The observed signal decrease follows a straight line with a loss rate of $6 \times 10^{-6}$ s$^{-1}$ (see Supporting Information Section 7).

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application of a mathematical correction method. The solid data points in Figure 4b represent the measured signal after correction for the loss (see Supporting Information Section 7). The resulting dose–response curves are shown in Figure 4c. In the creatinine assay, a signal loss rate of $2 \times 10^{-5}$ s$^{-1}$ is observed (see Supporting Information Section 8). Since proteins are generally less stable than oligonucleotides, the higher loss rate is potentially caused by a gradual loss of activity of the antibodies. Again, the observed rate of signal loss allows the application of a mathematical correction. The solid data points in Figure 4e represent the measured signal after correction for the loss (see Supporting Information Section 8).

Conversely, the original signal can be recovered by supplementing fresh analogues into the flow cell (see experimental results in Supporting Information Section 8). In summary, Figure 4 shows consistent time-dependent responses and dose–response curves, for two very different competition assays (ssDNA oligonucleotide assay and small-molecule immunoassay), over a wide concentration range (nM to mM), over monitoring periods of many hours.

## CONCLUSIONS

We have described a biofunctionalization strategy based on click-coupling to a low-fouling polymer for improving the control and durability of real-time continuous biosensing with single-molecule resolution. The bottlebrush polymer (PLL-g-PEG) is strongly attached to the substrate by multivalent electrostatic interactions and serves as a spacer between immobilized molecules and the solid substrate. Reversible and consistent responses were observed over long durations in different molecular systems, namely, a sandwich oligonucleotide assay, a competitive oligonucleotide assay, and a competitive small-molecule immunoassay, showing the general applicability of the approach. Picomolar, nanomolar, and micromolar analyte concentrations were measured with continuous sensor operation over many hours. The presented molecular architecture is suited for a variety of substrates and for further industrialization. We found that the shelf-life of the modified surface in a wet state is several months (Supporting Information Section 3). We expect that the sensor with this novel biofunctionalization strategy will enable real-time monitoring for a wide range of applications that can benefit from series of biochemical data and dynamic process control, including biological research as well as medical, pharmaceutical, and industrial applications.

## ASSOCIATED CONTENT

- **Supporting Information**

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acssensors.1c00564.

Materials and methods, negative control experiments for the click-based coupling approach, shelf-life of the biofunctionalized surface, DNA competition assay in 10% blood plasma over long durations, signal decay rate of the click-based and antibody anchoring-based BPM sensor, SDS-PAGE characterization of filtered blood plasma and diluted blood plasma, and correction of signal decay for ssDNA competition assay and creatinine competition assay (PDF)

## REFERENCES


