



## A RNA Aptamer-Based Electrochemical Biosensor for Sensitive Detection of Malachite Green

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1       **A RNA Aptamer-Based Electrochemical Biosensor**  
2       **for Sensitive Detection of Malachite Green**

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30 **Abstract**

31 A RNA aptamer-based electrochemical biosensing strategy has been developed  
32 for sensitive and selective detection of malachite green (MG). This biosensor is  
33 fabricated by the self-assembly of thiolated MG aptamer (MGA) on  
34 AuNPs/graphene-chitosan nanocomposites modified glass carbon electrode. In  
35 addition, a short alkanethiol is further assembled on AuNPs surface to generate  
36 uniform packing and reduce nonspecific adsorption. When the modified electrode is  
37 incubated in the presence of MG, MGA combines specifically with MG, which causes  
38 the horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-labelled MG antibody close to the electrode  
39 surfaces. As a result, MG detection is realized by outputting a redox current from  
40 electro-reduction of hydrogen peroxide reaction catalyzed by HRP. Differential pulse  
41 voltammetry (DPV) is performed to record the signal responses. The results reveal the  
42 biosensor displays very low detection limit as low as  $16.3 \text{ pg mL}^{-1}$  and a wide linear  
43 range from  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  to  $10 \text{ } \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  of MG. Hence, this proposed RNA aptamer-based  
44 electrochemical strategy may offer a simple, rapid, cost-effective, highly selective and  
45 sensitive method for the quantification of MG.

46

47 **Keywords:** malachite green; RNA aptamer; electrochemical; Au nanoparticles;  
48 rGO-CS nanocomposites

49

## 50 1. Introduction

51 Malachite green (MG), a cationic triphenylmethane dye, has been widely used in  
52 commercial aquaculture [1]. MG is especially active against the *Saprolegnia* fungus,  
53 which infects fish and fish eggs [2]. It is also used to resist parasitic and bacterial  
54 infections, especially in the treatment of farmed freshwater fish [3]. However, MG is  
55 reported to be toxic to humans and animals even at trace concentration because of its  
56 adverse effects on the immune and reproductive systems, infertility and respiratory  
57 ailments [4, 5]. For this reason, the European Union has set a minimum required  
58 performance limit for MG at a level of  $2 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$  [6]. Therefore, screening and  
59 confirmatory methods must have the ability of detecting MG at concentrations at or  
60 below  $2 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$ .

61 Current available methods for MG assay mainly include high-performance liquid  
62 chromatography assay [7], spectrophotometric assay [8] and enzyme-linked  
63 immunosorbent assay [9]. Although these approaches are quite sensitive and accurate,  
64 they may suffer from some shortcomings such as complicated operation, expensive  
65 instrumentations and expert technical skill. Therefore, the development of simple,  
66 rapid and cost-effective methods for the sensitive and specific detection of MG still  
67 remains a grand challenge.

68 Generally, electrochemical detection can be readily miniaturized and automated  
69 with low cost, high detection speed, and minimal sample consumption. Moreover, this  
70 platform does not demand high-voltage power supplies, light sources or other  
71 sophisticated equipment. In view of these advantages, electrochemically based  
72 bio-sensing strategies seem to be suitable for practical applications. As expected, the  
73 activity of the immobilized bio-molecules is a key factor for developing biosensors  
74 with excellent performance, which demands highly dense immobilization of  
75 bio-molecules, proper bio-molecule orientation to permit specific interactions, and  
76 long-term stability of attached bio-molecules. Aptamer, a short, synthetic and  
77 single-stranded RNA or DNA molecule can be generally prepared using an *in vitro*  
78 method known as systematic evolution of ligands by exponential enrichment (SELEX)  
79 [10]. Aptamers have been recognized as an excellent choice for immobilized

80 bio-molecules. They can bind specially to target molecules with high affinity, which  
81 range from small molecules to macro-molecules, for example, organic dyes [11],  
82 metal ions [12], proteins [13] and even whole cells [14]. Up to now, aptamers have  
83 been used as a versatile and useful molecule recognition tool due to their easy  
84 synthesis, facile modification and high chemical stability [15].

85 To achieve highly dense immobilization of bio-molecules and improve the  
86 charge-transport property of electrode, a wide variety of nanomaterials have been  
87 used as ideal components in constructing electrochemically based biosensors, such as  
88 metal nanoparticles [16], graphene [17], carbon nanotubes [18], conducting polymer  
89 [19], chitosan (CS) [20] and so on. Among various metal nanoparticles, Au  
90 nanoparticles (AuNPs) have attracted much attention because of their rapid and easy  
91 synthesis, narrow size distribution, and efficient surface modification by thiols or  
92 other bioligands [21]. Reduced graphene oxide (rGO), a new class of two-dimensional  
93 sheet of carbon nanostructure with large specific surface area, relatively high  
94 electrical conductivity and excellent bio-compatibility, has been widely applied to  
95 electrode surface modification [22]. CS, which has desirable film-forming ability, has  
96 been used as an immobilization matrix to increase the solubility and dispersion of  
97 chemicals and nanomaterials [23].

98 Herein, a RNA aptamer-based electrochemical biosensing strategy has been  
99 reported for sensitive and selective detection of MG. By modification of RNA aptamer  
100 with a terminal thiolated RNA aptamer can be readily immobilized on AuNPs surfaces  
101 and form a self-assembled monolayer, which leads to orientational and highly dense  
102 immobilization of aptamer. Additionally, a short alkanethiol [24] is introduced for the  
103 surface modification of AuNPs to generate uniform packing and reduce nonspecific  
104 adsorption. This biosensor has the advantages of high sensitivity, specificity, wide  
105 linear range, rapid, convenient, and low cost detection with simple operation. Thus,  
106 the proposed RNA aptamer-based electrochemical biosensor may contribute a new  
107 platform for the quantification of MG.

108

## 109 **2. Experimental Section**

### 110 *2.1 Reagents and materials*

111 The horseradish peroxidase-labelled MG antibody (HRP-labelled MG Ab) was  
112 purchased from Beijing Kwinbon Biotechnology Co. Ltd (Beijing, China). MG, gold  
113 (III) chloride trihydrate ( $\text{HAuCl}_4 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), chloramphenicol, and bovine serum albumin  
114 (BSA) were obtained from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). MG ELISA kit was  
115 purchased from Longrun Biological Technology Co. Ltd (Beijing, China).  
116 Leucomalachite green (LMG), hydroquinone (HQ), diethyl pyrocarbonate (DEPC) and  
117  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  were obtained from Aladdin Chemistry Co., Ltd. (China). CS was purchased  
118 from Sangon Biotech Co., Ltd. (Shanghai, China). All other chemicals were of  
119 analytical grade and obtained from Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Co. Ltd (Beijing,  
120 China). All solutions were prepared using ultrapure water with an electric  
121 resistance  $>18.25 \text{ M}\Omega$ , which was obtained through a Millipore Milli-Q water  
122 purification system (Billerica, MA, USA). Oligonucleotides used in this work were  
123 synthesized by Shanghai Sangon Biotechnology Co. Ltd. (Shanghai, China). The  
124 sequence of the thiolated MG aptamer (thiolated MGA) is  
125 5'-SH-GGAUCCCGACUGGCGAGAGCCAGGUAACGAAUGGAUCC-3'.

### 126 *2.2 Apparatus*

127 Scanning electron micrographs (SEMs) were obtained using a field emission  
128 emission scanning electron microscope (ZEISS, Germany). Fourier transform infrared  
129 (FT-IR) spectra and un-visible spectra were recorded using a Spectrum One FT-IR  
130 Apparatus (Perkin Elmer, USA) and a Lambda 35 Spectrometer (PerkinElmer, USA)  
131 in the wavelength range from 200 to 800 nm, respectively.

132 Cyclic voltammetry (CV) measurements, electrochemical impedance  
133 spectroscopy (EIS) and differential pulse voltammetry (DPV) measurements were  
134 carried out using a CHI 660D electrochemical workstation (Shanghai CH Instruments,  
135 China). All experiments were performed using a conventional three-electrode system  
136 consisting of a Ag/AgCl reference electrode, a platinum wire auxiliary electrode and a  
137 modified glassy carbon working electrode.

### 138 *2.3 Synthesis of rGO-CS nanocomposites*

139 Graphite oxide (GO) was prepared by a modified Hummers method [25]. In our

140 work, 1 g graphite powder was added to 0.5 g NaNO<sub>3</sub> and 23 mL H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> (98%), and  
141 the mixture was stirred for 30 min in an ice-salt bath at 0 °C. Then, 3 g KMnO<sub>4</sub> was  
142 slowly added into the solution at 20 °C. After being stirred for 1 h, the solution  
143 temperature was raised gradually to 35 °C in a water bath and remained for more  
144 than 30 min. Then 100 mL deionized water was added into the solution and kept  
145 stirring for another 20 min. After sufficiently stirring the mixture, 50 mL H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (30 %)  
146 was added into the mixture until the color of the suspension changed from brown to  
147 brilliant yellow. The solution was filtered and washed three times with deionized  
148 water. Then the obtained products were dried at 60 °C for 24 h. Next, the prepared  
149 GO (20 mg) was dispersed into 20 mL of deionized water and sonicated for 8 h. Then  
150 0.5 mL of poly (4-styrenesulfonic acid) and hydrazine were added into the resulting  
151 dispersion, which was continuously stirred at 90 °C for 24 h. After cooling to room  
152 temperature (RT), the mixture was washed for three times using deionized water and  
153 then dried at 60 °C. Thirdly, 50 mg CS was dissolved into 10 mL of 1.0 % (v/v) acetic  
154 acid solution and then the mixture was stirred for 2 h at RT until it was completely  
155 dispersed. The rGO-CS composites were synthesized according to a previously  
156 reported protocol [26]. Briefly, 1 mg rGO was added to 1 mL of CS, and the mixture  
157 was sufficiently stirred to achieve a homogeneous solution.

#### 158 *2.4 Preparation of Au nanoparticles*

159 The AuNPs were prepared using a trisodium citrate reduction method according  
160 to a previous reported method with slight modifications as follows [27]. Briefly, 2 mL  
161 of 1 % trisodium citrate solution was added rapidly under vigorous stirring in 100 mL  
162 of 0.01 % boiling HAuCl<sub>4</sub> solution. Within several minutes, the solution color  
163 changed from yellowish to wine red. The solution was heated under reflux for another  
164 20 min to ensure complete reduction, and it was then slowly cooled to RT and stored  
165 at 4 °C before use.

#### 166 *2.5 The fabrication process of the biosensor*

167 The glass carbon electrode (GCE) was polished sequentially with 0.3 and 0.05  
168 μm alumina powder, followed by ultrasonic cleaning in ethanol and doubly distilled  
169 water. The cleaned GCE displayed a mirror like surface. Then, the electrodes were

170 washed with deionized water and dried for further use. Typically, 10  $\mu\text{L}$  of rGO-CS  
171 nanocomposite solution was applied to the GCE. After incubating at RT for 4 h, 10  $\mu\text{L}$   
172 of AuNP solution was placed on the modified electrode before the electrode was dried  
173 at RT. The modified electrode was washed three times using 10 mM phosphate  
174 buffered saline (PBS) and then air dried.

175 Next, 10  $\mu\text{L}$  of a thiolated MGA (50  $\mu\text{M}$ ) was added on an AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE  
176 before the electrode was incubated for 16 h at 4  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . After that, the electrode was  
177 rinsed in DEPC-treated water for 10 min to remove the nonspecific adsorption. Then,  
178 10  $\mu\text{L}$  of 6-mercapto-1-hexanol (100  $\mu\text{M}$ ) was added on the modified electrode and  
179 incubated for 2 h at RT. After that, the modified electrode was thoroughly rinsed with  
180 10 mM PBS to remove the non-specific binding and stored for further use at 4  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

### 181 *2.6 Electrochemical measurements*

182 Electrochemical measurements were carried out to characterize the modified  
183 electrode. CV measurements were performed over a potential range from -0.2 V to  
184 +0.6 V at a scan rate of 50  $\text{mV s}^{-1}$  in 5 mM  $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$  containing 0.2 M KCl, while  
185 DPV was carried out in PBS (pH 7.4) containing 1 mM HQ and 10 mM  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ . EIS  
186 measurements were performed from 0.1 to  $10^5$  Hz in PBS (pH 7.4) containing 0.2 M  
187 KCl and 5.0 mM  $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$ .

## 188 **3. Results and Discussion**

### 189 *3.1 Scheme of the electrochemical biosensor*

190 (Scheme 1)

191 Scheme 1 shows the structure for the proposed electrochemical biosensor based  
192 on RNA aptamer. This biosensor was fabricated by the self-assembly of thiolated  
193 MGA on the AuNPs/rGO-CS nanocomposites modified GCE, which as electrode  
194 materials could significantly improve charge-transport property and loading capacity  
195 of the biomolecules. To reduce non-specific adsorption, the short alkanethiol,  
196 6-mercapto-1-hexanol, was self-assembled on the AuNPs by exploiting the Au-S  
197 covalent interaction. By incubating in MG, MGA on the electrode surface would  
198 specifically interact with MG, leaving a different epitope on MG to interact with  
199 HRP-labelled MG Ab. In this way, HRP would catalyze the reaction between  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$



200 and HQ to yield BQ, which was easily restored back to HQ. The reduction of BQ was  
201 then used to quantitatively related to MG.

### 202 3.2 Electrochemical behaviors

203 Fig. 1 depicts typical DPV responses of the biosensor in the assay of MG. In the  
204 absence of target MG, a relatively weak DPV peak current was obtained, implying  
205 almost no HRP-labelled MG Ab was fixed on the surfaces of modified electrode  
206 (curve a). In contrast, it was observed that a significantly increased peak current  
207 appeared after the modified electrode incubated with  $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  MG, which was  
208 attributed that HRP-labelled antibody combined specifically with MG and catalyzed  
209 the oxidation of HQ (curve b). These data indicated that the enhanced DPV signal was  
210 induced by specific immunological recognition events rather than non-specific  
211 interactions. To highlight the electronic conductivity of AuNPs/rGO-CS  
212 nanocomposites, other two types of biosensors, MGA/rGO-CS/GCE and  
213 MGA/AuNPs/GCE were fabricated, respectively. It was found that the biosensor  
214 using AuNPs/rGO-CS nanocomposites as electrode materials exhibited remarkably  
215 improved excellent electron transfer efficiency than that using either AuNPs (curve c)  
216 or rGO-CS (curve d). These findings gave clear evidence that AuNPs/rGO-CS  
217 composites significantly facilitated the electron transfer rate between the modified  
218 electrode and the working solution and improved the performance in electrochemical  
219 signal transduction.

220 (Fig. 1)

221 To promote charge-transport efficiency and improve biosensor performance,  
222 AuNPs/rGO-CS nanocomposites were immobilized on the GCE surface, which as  
223 electrodes materials could remarkably enhance electron transfer rate between the  
224 electrodes and the electrolyte solution. CV measurements were performed to probe  
225 the electron transfer efficiency of the modified electrodes. The results were shown in  
226 Fig. 2. With the bare GCE, a pair of well-defined redox peaks appeared at 0.17 mV  
227 and 0.26 mV, a typical redox peak range of  $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$  (curve a). With the electrode  
228 modified with rGO, a corresponding peak current was observed, which was ~100%  
229 stronger than that of curve a (curve b). The reason might be that rGO often suffered

230 from irreversible cohesion and formed agglomerates, which could hinder electrolyte  
231 penetration into layers and adversely affected the electron transfer efficiency [28]. In  
232 contrast, an obviously increased CV signal (~270% stronger than that of curve a) was  
233 obtained after immobilizing rGO-CS nanocomposites on the electrode surface (curve  
234 c). This was ascribed to the excellent film-forming ability of chitosan, which could  
235 increase the dispersibility of rGO and improve electron transfer efficiency. With the  
236 electrode decorated with AuNPs/rGO-CS nanocomposites, there was a very strong  
237 peak current in the CV curves (~460% stronger than that of curve a), indicating the  
238 excellent electrical conductivity of the rGO-CS nanocomposite (curve d). After MGA  
239 and alkanethiol assembling on the surfaces of modified electrode, it was observed that  
240 a dramatically weaker current signal appeared, which suggested MGA-alkanethiol  
241 mixed monolayers formed on the electrode could block the electron transfer between  
242 the electrode and the electrolyte solution (curve e). When the modified electrode  
243 incubated with  $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  MG solution, a mildly increased peak current was  
244 achieved (~30 % stronger than that of curve e), which was attributed that MG was a  
245 redox polymer and its redox reaction possibly resulted from its quinoid structure [29]  
246 (curve f). After incubating with HRP-labelled MG Ab solution, we observed a  
247 significantly decreased peak current signal appeared in the CV curves (50% weaker  
248 than that of curve f), implying the electron transport was hindered due to the isolated  
249 biomolecules (curve g). These observations confirmed that the AuNPs/rGO-CS  
250 nanocomposites played a crucial role in the electrochemical transduction and the  
251 sensing interface for MG was successfully constructed.

252 (Fig. 2)

253 Impedance spectroscopy is an effective method for studying the features of  
254 surface-modified electrodes. EIS measurements were performed to investigate the  
255 electrode modified by different procedures. Fig. 3 depicted Nyquist plots obtained in  
256 the fabrication process of the modified electrodes. It was found that the impedance  
257 plot for rGO-CS/GCE (curve a) or AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE (curve b) displayed an  
258 almost straight line. This revealed that the electron transfer was very easy due to the  
259 excellent charge-transport efficiency of electrodes materials. After immobilizing

260 MGA on the surfaces of AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE, a significantly increased faraday  
261 impedance was observed, implying successful assembly of MGA on the electrode  
262 surface (curve c). After incubation the modified electrode with  $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  MG  
263 solution, there was a little decrease of the semicircle diameter (curve d). The reason  
264 for this phenomenon might be attributed that MG is a redox polymer and its redox  
265 reaction possibly results from its quinoid structure. After incubating with  
266 HRP-labelled MG Ab solution, the modified electrode gave a very large impedance,  
267 indicating the isolating behavior of biomacromolecules (curve e). On the basis of  
268 these results, it was reasonably concluded that the fabrication of the sensing interface  
269 for MG was successfully achieved.

270 (Fig. 3)

### 271 *3.3 Characterization of rGO-CS nanocomposites and Au nanoparticles*

272 Scanning electron microscopy was employed to investigate the morphology and  
273 micro-structure of the as-prepared nanocomposites, as shown in Fig. 4A. With the  
274 electrode modified by rGO-CS nanocomposites, it was observed that the  
275 nanocomposites displayed the typically flake-like with slightly crumpled and  
276 wrinkled edge (Fig. 4A (a) ) [30]. With the electrode modified by AuNPs/rGO-CS  
277 nanocomposites, we observed from the micro-graph that AuNPs were uniformly  
278 deposited on the rGO-CS flakes. This illustrated AuNPs was immobilized on the  
279 electrode surface through electrostatic interaction between AuNPs and rGO.

280 FT-IR characterization was performed to inspect the as-prepared pure GO and  
281 rGO. Fig. 4B showed the FTIR spectra of pure GO and rGO, respectively. From the  
282 spectrum of GO (curve a), the main absorption band at  $3400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  is assigned to the  
283 O-H group stretching vibrations. The absorption peaks at  $1730 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1625 \text{ cm}^{-1}$   
284 were assigned to C=O stretching of carboxyl and/or carbonyl moiety functional  
285 groups. The spectra also show other absorption peaks at  $1228 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $1044 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  
286 which correspond to the C-O stretching vibrations. Compared to the above bands of  
287 GO, there were no obvious absorption peak for pure rGO except  $1630 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $3440$   
288  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which might be attributed to some C=O residues at the edges of the rGO (curve  
289 b). This suggested the hydroxy, carboxyl and epoxy groups of GO were successfully

290 reduced. Additionally, uv-vis spectral analysis was performed to verify the formation  
291 of AuNPs. As shown in Fig. 4C, no absorption peak was obtained in the presence of  
292 H<sub>2</sub>AuCl<sub>4</sub> solution (curve a). In contrast, an obvious absorption peak appeared at 520  
293 nm, typical for individual AuNPs of ~13 nm [31].

294 (Fig. 4)

### 295 *3.4 Optimization of experimental conditions*

296 The immobilization of the MGA was a crucial step in the fabrication of biosensor.  
297 Hence, the effect of the incubation time of MGA on electrode was investigated. A  
298 series of AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE were incubated with 10 μM MGA solution for 2, 4, 8,  
299 16, and 24 h at 4°C, respectively. As shown in Fig. 5A, with the increase of incubation  
300 time from 2 h to 16 h, the biosensors showed an increasing DPV response until the  
301 incubation time of 16 h when the signal nearly reached equilibrium. Therefore, the  
302 incubation time of 16 h was chosen as the optimal incubation time.

303 The concentration of the HRP-labelled MG Ab on the modified electrodes is an  
304 important factor that affected the DPV signal of the biosensor. A series of  
305 MG/MGA/AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE were incubated with different concentrations of  
306 HRP-labelled MG Ab solution (0.1, 1, 10, 100 and 1000 μM) for 60 min at RT. As  
307 shown in Fig. 5B, the DPV signals increased with the increase of HRP-labelled MG  
308 Ab concentration and reached equilibrium when the concentration was 100 μM. Thus,  
309 the concentration of 100 μM was chosen as the optimal concentration.

310 The effect of the incubation time of the HRP-labelled MG Ab on the modified  
311 electrodes was also investigated. A series of MG/MGA/AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE were  
312 incubated with 100 μM HRP-labelled MG Ab solution for 20, 40, 60, 90, and 120 min  
313 at RT, respectively. As shown in Fig. 5C, with the increase of incubation time from 20  
314 min to 60 min, the biosensors showed an increasing DPV response until the  
315 incubation time of 60 min when the signal nearly reached equilibrium. Therefore, the  
316 incubation time of 60 min was chosen as the optimal incubation time.

317 The pH of working solution also had a very important influence on the  
318 performance of the biosensor. A series of HRP-labelled MG Ab  
319 /MG/MGA/AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE were immersed to working solution with different

320 pH. As shown in Fig. 5D, the current responses significantly increased with pH from  
321 6 to 7, but decreased above 7. Hence, we chose 7 as the optimal pH of working  
322 solution.

(Fig. 5)

### 324 3.7 Calibration curve of biosensor

325 Fig. 6A depicts typical DPV responses of the biosensor to MG of varying  
326 concentrations. We observed dynamically increased DPV peaks in response to MG of  
327 increasing concentrations within the range from  $1 \times 10^{-4} \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  to  $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ . By  
328 fitting the data in the concentration range below  $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  to a linear model  $I =$   
329  $26.527 + 1.412 \times \log C$  ( $I$  ( $10^{-6}$  A) is the peak current intensity and  $C$  ( $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ) is the  
330 concentration of MG), the LOD of the proposed method was calculated to be  $16.3 \text{ pg}$   
331  $\text{mL}^{-1}$  in terms of the rule of 3 times standard deviation over the blank response. The  
332 LOD was lower than that of previous research [32]. These results demonstrated that  
333 the biosensing strategy could be used for quantitative analysis of MG targets.

(Fig. 6)

### 335 3.8 The selectivity, reproducibility, and stability of the biosensor

336 To confirm the reliability of the fabricated biosensor, the binding specificity of  
337 the biosensor for  $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  MG and other structural analogs ( $100 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ), such as  
338 chloramphenicol and LMG, was also evaluated. As shown in Fig. 7, the current  
339 variation in the presence of the interfering substances was all less than 4%. These  
340 results indicated that the proposed biosensor exhibited selectivity towards MG.

(Fig. 7)

342 To investigate the reproducibility of the biosensor, five electrodes with the same  
343 assembly step were utilized to detect  $0.1 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  MG, respectively. The current  
344 responses showed a relative standard deviation (RSD) of 3.5% for five independent  
345 measurements. This suggested that the preparation of the biosensor presented very  
346 good reproducibility.

347 Besides, we also investigated the stability of the biosensor. Five electrodes were  
348 fabricated independently under the same conditions and stored at  $4 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for 2 weeks.  
349 Then these electrodes were used to detect  $0.1 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  MG. The results showed that

350 about 92 % of its initial response of the biosensor for MG remained, which indicated  
351 this biosensor had very desirable stability.

### 352 *3.9 Real samples analysis*

353 The feasibility of the proposed biosensor for quantitative assay of MG in fishery  
354 water was also investigated. Different concentrations of MG in fishery water by  
355 standard addition methods were used to inspect the recovery. Tab. 1 depicted the  
356 results in the assays for the synthetic samples by using our method and the  
357 enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) method. It was observed that the  
358 results obtained via our method were consisted with those of ELISA method, and the  
359 discrepancies between two methods were all smaller than 10.0%. Besides, the  
360 recovery of the proposed method was in the range of 94.6%-105.7%. These data  
361 clearly demonstrated the potential of our method for applications in complicated  
362 samples.

363 (Tab. 1.)

## 364 **4. Conclusion**

365 In this paper, we developed a RNA aptamer-based electrochemical biosensing  
366 strategy for sensitive and selective detection of MG. This biosensor was fabricated by  
367 the self-assembly of thiolated MGA on an AuNPs/rGO-CS nanocomposite modified  
368 GCE. Moreover, a short alkanethiol was used for surface modification of electrode to  
369 promote uniform packing and reduce nonspecific adsorption. The results showed the  
370 biosensor displayed a widened linear range from  $1 \times 10^{-4}$  to  $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  and an  
371 improved detection limit down to  $16.3 \text{ pg mL}^{-1}$  for detecting MG. Additionally, our  
372 method offers simplified operations and shortened analysis time with no need of  
373 multiple washing steps and large amount of reagent consuming. Thus, the proposed  
374 biosensor has the advantages in its simplicity, rapidness, and low cost detection  
375 compared to traditional methods, such as high-performance liquid chromatography  
376 assay [7], spectrophotometric assay [8] and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay [9].  
377 Thus, the proposed RNA aptamer-based electrochemical biosensor may contribute a  
378 new platform to the quantification of MG.

379

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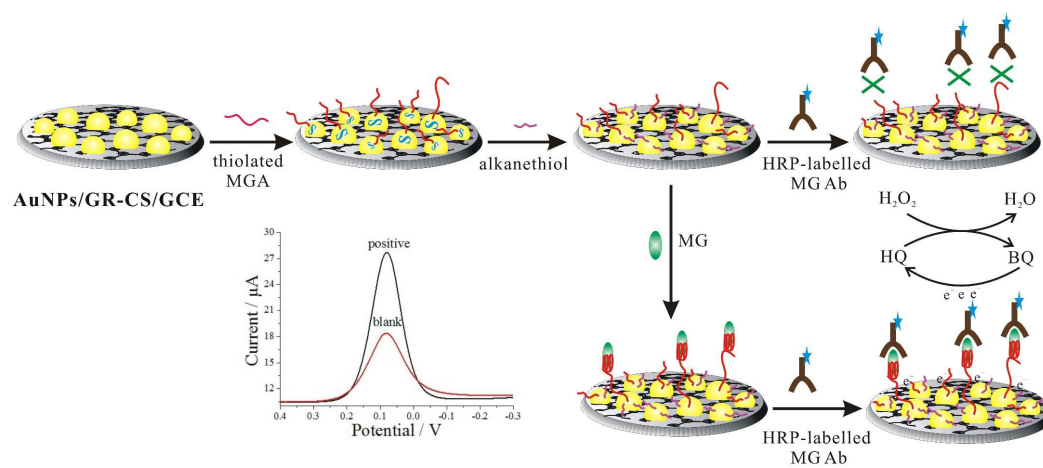
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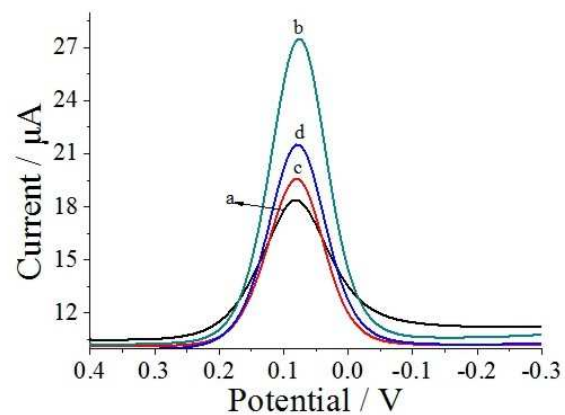




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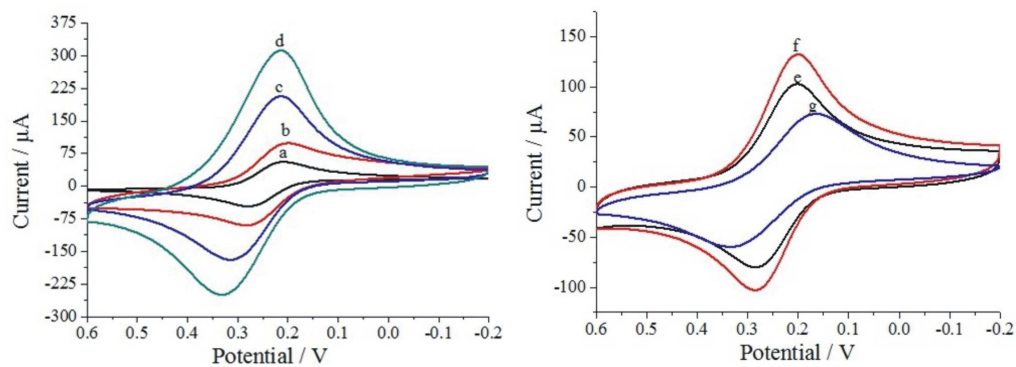
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Scheme 1. Schematic illustration of the RNA aptamer-based electrochemical biosensor.



434

435 Fig. 1. (a) Typical DPVs of the immunosensors using AuNPs/rGO-CS nanocomposites as  
436 electrode materials incubated in the absence of MG. (b-d) Typical DPVs of the immunosensors  
437 using AuNPs/rGO-CS nanocomposites (b), AuNPs (c) and rGO-CS nanocomposites (d) as  
438 electrode materials incubated in the presence of  $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$  MG. DPV measurements were  
439 performed in 0.01 M PBS (pH 7.4) containing 0.2 M KCl, 1 mM HQ, and 10 mM  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ .



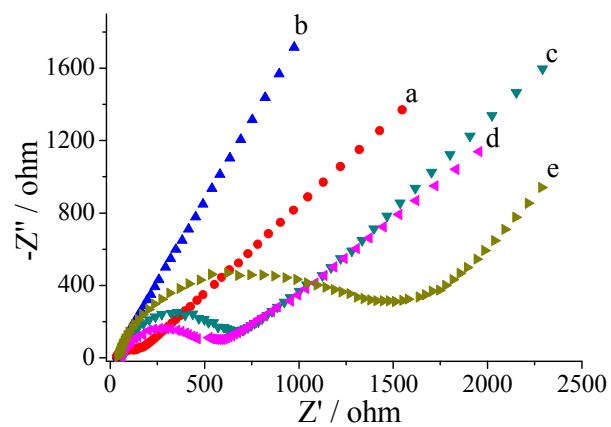
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441 Fig. 2. CVs obtained for the bare GCE (a), rGO/GCE (b), rGO-CS/GCE (c), AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE

442 (d), CVs obtained for the bare MGA/AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE (e), MG/MGA/AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE

443 (f), MG Ab/MG/MGA/AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE (g). Measurements were performed in PBS

444 containing 0.2 M KCl and 5.0 mM  $K_3[Fe(CN)_6]$ .



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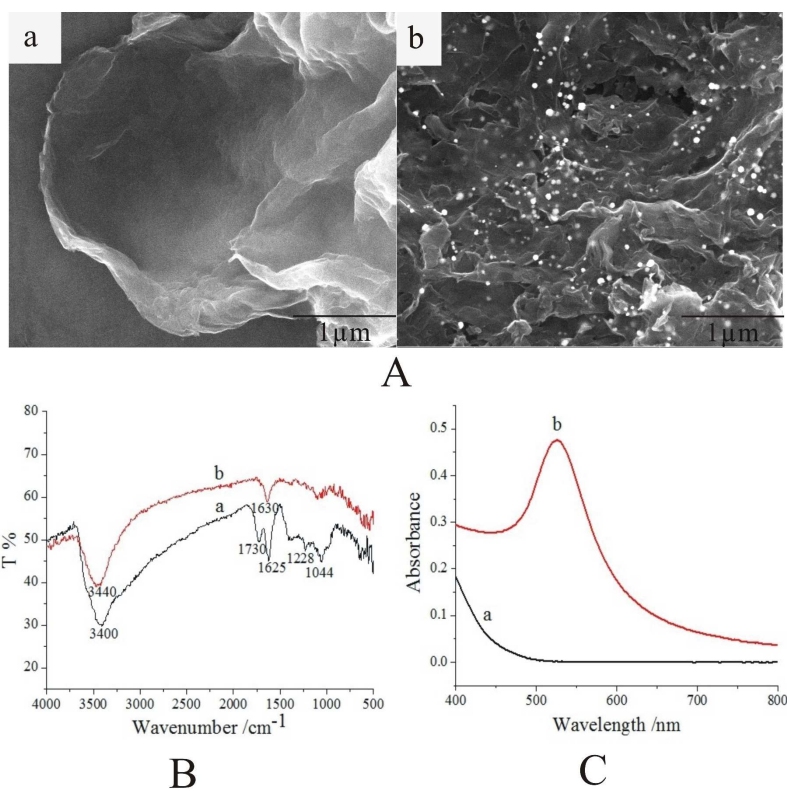
446 Fig. 3. EIS obtained for rGO-CS/GCE (a), AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE (b), MGA/AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE

447 (c), MG/MGA/AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE (d), MG Ab/MG/MGA/AuNPs/rGO-CS/GCE (e).

448 Measurements were performed from 0.1 to  $10^5$  Hz in PBS containing 0.2 M KCl and 5.0 mM

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 $\text{K}_3[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]$ .

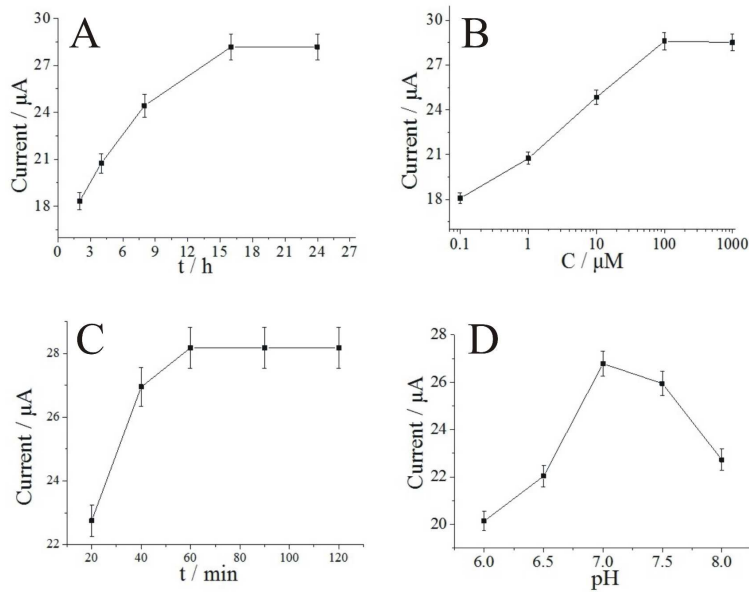


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451 Fig. 4. (A) SEM images of rGO-CS nanocomposites (a) and AuNPs/rGO-CS nanocomposites (b)

452 deposited on GCE. (B) FT-IR spectrum obtained for pure GO (a) and rGO (b). (C) UV-vis

453 absorption spectra obtained for 3 μM HAuCl<sub>4</sub> solution (a) and 1.8 nM AuNPs solution (b).



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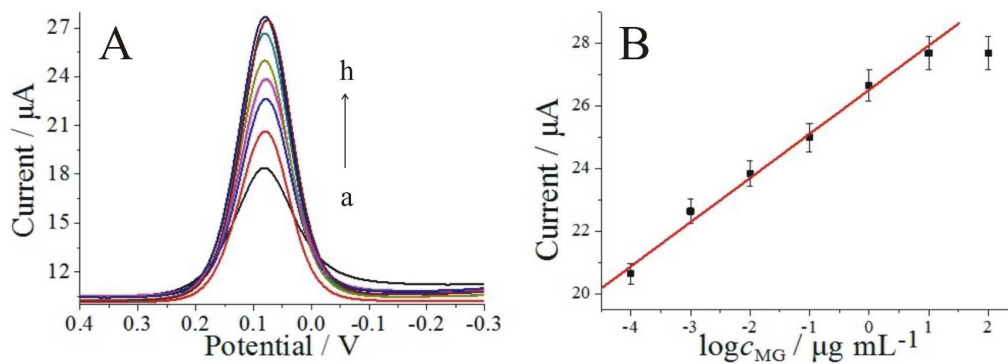
455 Fig. 5. (A) Effect of the incubation time of the MGA on the DPV peak current of biosensor. (B)

456 Effect of the concentration of HRP-labelled MG Ab on the DPV peak current of biosensor. (C)

457 Effect of the incubation time of HRP-labelled MG Ab on the DPV peak current of biosensor. The

458 concentration of MG is  $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ . (D) Effect of pH of the working buffer solution on the DPV

459 peak current of biosensor.



460

461 Fig. 6. (A) Typical DPV responses of the biosensor to different concentrations of MG (from curve  
462 a to h:  $0$ ,  $1 \times 10^{-4}$ ,  $1 \times 10^{-3}$ ,  $1 \times 10^{-2}$ ,  $1 \times 10^{-1}$ ,  $1$ ,  $10$ ,  $100 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ). (B) The calibration curve of current  
463 response versus the logarithm of MG with various concentrations.

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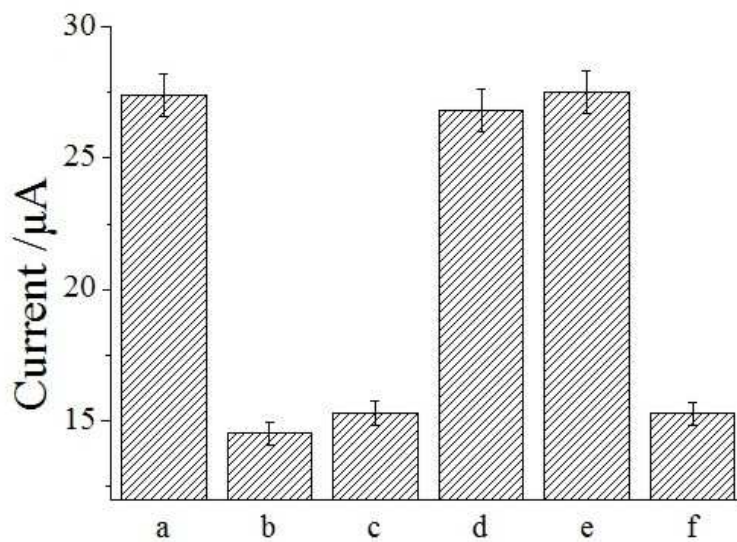
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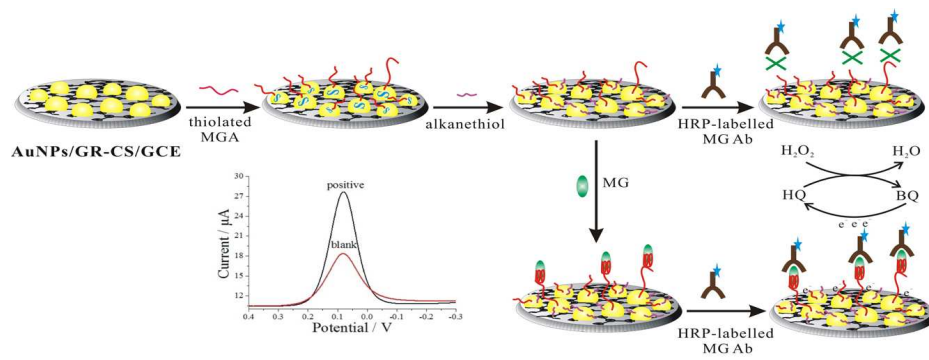
476 Fig. 7. DPV current responses of the biosensor to MG ( $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ) (a), chloramphenicol ( $100 \mu\text{g}$   
477  $\text{mL}^{-1}$ ) (b), LMG ( $100 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ) (c), MG ( $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ) and chloramphenicol ( $100 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ) (d), MG  
478 ( $10 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ) and LMG ( $100 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ) (e), chloramphenicol ( $100 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ ) and LMG ( $100 \mu\text{g}$   
479  $\text{mL}^{-1}$ ) (f). Error bars are standard deviations across three repetitive experiments.



480 Tab. 1. MG analysis in synthetic samples.

MG in fishery water ( $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ )	Our method ( $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ )	Recovery (%)	ELISA method ( $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ )
$1.000 \times 10^{-3}$	$(0.946 \pm 0.047) \times 10^{-3}$	94.6	$1.035 \times 10^{-3}$
$1.000 \times 10^{-2}$	$(1.057 \pm 0.053) \times 10^{-2}$	105.7	$0.961 \times 10^{-2}$
$1.000 \times 10^{-1}$	$(1.034 \pm 0.052) \times 10^{-1}$	103.4	$1.029 \times 10^{-1}$
1.000	$0.983 \pm 0.049$	98.3	1.037

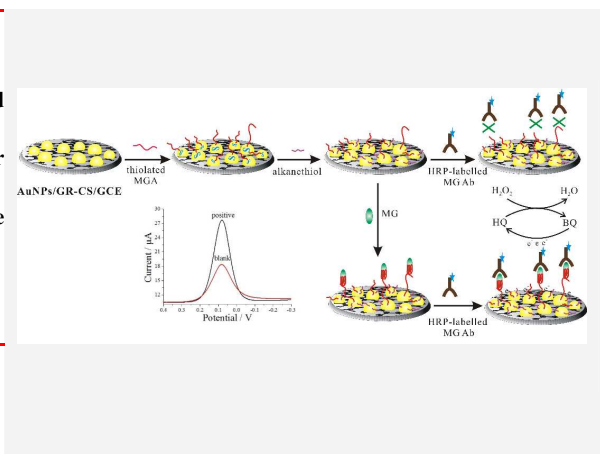
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**Title Text**

**A RNA Aptamer-Based  
Electrochemical Biosensor for  
Sensitive Detection of Malachite  
Green**

*Hongzhi Wang, Yu Wang, Su  
Liu, Jinghua Yu, Wei Xu, Yuna  
Guo, Jiadong Huang\**



A RNA aptamer-based electrochemical biosensing strategy has been developed for sensitive and selective detection of malachite green.