Contents lists available at SciVerse ScienceDirect

Biosensors and Bioelectronics

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/bios

Short communication

Electrochemical detection of β -amyloid peptides on electrode covered with N-terminus-specific antibody based on electrocatalytic O₂ reduction by A β (1–16)-heme-modified gold nanoparticles



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ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 2 April 2013 Received in revised form 17 May 2013 Accepted 20 May 2013 Available online 27 May 2013

Keywords: Alzheimer's disease β-Amyloid Heme Gold nanoparticles Electrocatalysis O₂ reduction

ABSTRACT

 β -Amyloid (A β) peptides are believed to be important for the diagnosis and prognosis of Alzheimer's disease (AD) serving as reliable molecular biomarkers. In this work, we reported a simple and sensitive electrochemical strategy for the detection of total A β peptides using gold nanoparticles modified with A β (1–16)-heme (denoted as A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs). Monoclonal antibody (mAb) specific to the common N-terminus of A β was immobilized onto gold electrode for the capture of A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs. The anchored A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs showed strong electrocatalytic O₂ reduction. Pre-incubation of the mAb-covered electrode with native A β decreased the amount of A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs immobilized onto the electrode, resulting in the decrease of the reduction current of O₂ to H₂O₂. The competitive assay is sensitive and selective to A β peptides. The voltammetric responses were found to be proportional to the concentrations of A β ranging from 0.02 to 1.50 nM, and a detection limit of 10 pM was achieved. To demonstrate the viability of the method for the analysis of A β in real sample, artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF) containing A β (1–40), A β (1–42) and A β (1–16) was tested. We believe that the method would offer a useful means for quantifying A β in a biological matrix, and be valuable in the design of new types of electrochemical biosensors for the detection of peptides and proteins.

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1. Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common chronic and progressive form of neurodegenerative disease, which is predicted to affect 1 in 85 people globally by 2050 (Brookmeyer et al., 2007). One of the pathological hallmarks of AD is the deposition of β -amyloid (A β) peptides including 39–42 amino acid residues in the brain (Rauk, 2009; Rolinski et al., 2010). In its native form, Aβ is unfolded but aggregates into a β -sheet structure of ordered fibrils under various conditions. Among kinds of the A_β species (e.g., A_β (1-28), Αβ(1-33), Αβ(1-34), Αβ(1-37), Αβ(1-38), Αβ(1-39), Αβ(1-40) and $A\beta(1-42)$) in human cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), $A\beta(1-40)$ (60-70%) and A β (1–42) (5–15%) are the two predominant proteolytic cleavage products from amyloid precursor protein (APP) by β- and γ -secretase (Golde et al., 2000). The principal species deposited within the parenchyma of the AD brain is $A\beta(1-42)$, which exhibits greater tendency to form amyloid fibrils than $A\beta(1-40)$ (Beeg et al., 2011; Ogi et al., 2013). Ap monomer and its aggregates are

** Corresponding author at: College of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering, Anyang Normal University, Anyang, Henan 455000, People's Republic of China. therefore considered as promising biomarkers for AD in spite of their controversial role in AD pathogenesis (Ammar et al., 2013; Choi et al., 2011; Doong et al., 2010; Golde et al., 2000; Haes et al., 2005). To date, a few attempts including mass spectrometry (Wang et al., 1996), enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) (Gravina et al., 1995), capillary electrophoresis (Picou et al., 2010) and surface plasmon resonance (SPR) (Ryu et al., 2008; Xia et al., 2010) have been made to detect A β species. However, most of these methods are expensive, time-consuming, labor intensive and/or less sensitive (Kang et al., 2009; Mustafa et al., 2010; Stravalaci et al., 2011). Thus, simple, cost-effective and sensitive method for A β detection has important clinical implication.

In recent years, electrochemical biosensors have found wide applications in clinical diagnosis, biomedical research, food quality control and environmental monitoring in view of its high sensitivity, simplicity, rapid response, and compatibility with miniaturization. There have also been some attempts for probing of A β aggregation and its interaction with biomolecules, drugs and metal by electrochemical techniques (Chikae et al., 2008; Grabowska et al., 2010; Islam et al., 2011; Jiang et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2011; Partovi-Nia et al., 2012; Pramanik et al., 2012; Szymánska et al., 2007; Vestergaard et al., 2005). For example, Vestergaard et al. (2005) presented the kinetic study of A β



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^{0956-5663/\$ -} see front matter @ 2013 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bios.2013.05.028

aggregation by the electrochemical oxidation of tyrosine (Tyr) residue in A_β. Szymánska et al. (2007) studied the interaction of drugs with $A\beta$ immobilized onto Au-colloid modified electrode with cyclic voltammetry and electrochemical impedance spectroscopy. Islam et al. (2011) developed a microfludic biosensor for A^β (1-42) detection using cyclic voltammetry. In this work, A β (1-42) induced the current change of colloidal gold nanoparticles (AuNPs)-covered electrode in $[Fe(CN)_6]^{3-}$ by the direct absorption of $A\beta(1-42)$ onto the AuNPs surface. However, the selectivity inherent in the method was not examined since proteins can also absorb onto colloidal Au. Metal ions (e.g., Cu, Fe and Zn) found in Aß plagues of the diseased brain can bind to Aß and be linked to aggregation and neurotoxicity (Duce and Bush, 2010). Zhou's group investigated the interaction of $A\beta$ and electrochemically active metal ions with cyclic voltammetry in solution (Jiang et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2011). Very recently, Pramanik et al. (2012) constructed an artificial platform for screening potential drugs that affect $A\beta$ aggregation and toxic partially reduced oxygen species generation by the $A\beta$ -Cu²⁺ and $A\beta$ -heme complexes on the Aβ-modified electrode. However, to the best of our knowledge, there is no report on the sensitive and selective detection of $A\beta$ peptides with electrochemical technique.

Because of the unique combination of chemical and physical properties, gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) coated with biological recognition elements have been widely used for the molecular recognition and signal amplification in diagnostics and detection (Omidfar et al., 2013). The rational design of the surface chemistry of AuNPs promotes specific interactions between receptors and analytes, rendering the measurements highly selective and sensitive. In the present work, we developed a simple, regenerable and sensitive voltammetric method for the detection of total AB peptides using AuNPs modified with $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme complex (denoted as AB(1–16)-heme-AuNPs) on monoclonal antibody (mAb)-covered electrode. The method is based on the facts that: (1) the mAb is selective to the common N-terminus of all the $A\beta$ species (Xia et al., 2010), (2) $A\beta(1-16)$ is capable of binding to heme to form the $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme complex (Atamna and Boyle, 2006; Atamna and Frey II, 2004; Azimi and Rauk, 2012; Pramanik et al., 2011; Pramanik et al., 2012; Yuan and Gao, 2013), and (3) heme complexes (e.g. $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme, G-quadruplex-hemin) can catalyze the reduction of O₂ on electrode (Pramanik et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2012). As a result, $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs captured by the mAb-covered electrode catalyzed the reduction of O_2 to H_2O_2 . Pre-incubation of the electrode with A β peptides decreased the amount of $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs immobilized onto the electrode, resulting in the decrease of the reduction current of O_2 to H_2O_2 .

2. Experimental

2.1. Chemicals and reagents

1-Ethyl-3-[3-dimethylaminopropyl]carbodiimide hydrochloride (EDC), N-hydroxysulfosuccinimide (NHSS), ethanolamine (EA), 3-mercaptopropionic acid (MPA) and bovine serum albumin (BSA) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich. Hemin was purchased from Aladdin reagent database Int. (Shanghai, China). Monoclonal antibody (clone 6E10) specific to the common N-terminus of A β peptide was obtained from Covance Inc. Peptides A β (1–16), A β (1–16)Cys (sequence: Asp-Ala-Glu-Phe-Arg-His-Asp-Ser-Gly-Tyr-Glu-Val-His-His-Gln-Lys-Cys), A β (1–40) and A β (1–42) were synthesized and purified by ChinaPeptides Co., Ltd (Shanghai, China). The supporting electrolyte was 10 mM phosphate-buffered saline solution (PBS buffer, pH 7.0) containing 50 mM Na₂SO₄. Other chemicals were analytical-grade reagents and were used without further

purification. All aqueous solutions were prepared daily with deionzied water treated with a Millipore system (Simplicity Plus, Millipore Corp.).

The heme stock solution (1 mM) was prepared with 5 N NaOH. Samples of A β (1–40), A β (1–42) and antibody were diluted with 10 mM PBS buffer (pH 7.0). The A β stock solutions (0.1 mM) were prepared freshly as in our previous study (Jiang et al., 2010; Xia et al., 2010). Artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF) comprising 150 mM NaCl, 3.0 mM KCl, 1.4 mM CaCl₂, 0.8 mM MgCl₂, 1.0 mM sodium phosphate and 3 μ M BSA was prepared in-house.

2.2. Preparation and characterization of $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs

The AuNPs of 13 nm were prepared using a trisodium citrate reduction method. The surface adsorption of Cys-containing peptides on AuNPs via Au-S bonds has been well documented in the literature (Araya et al., 2008; Kogan et al., 2006; Majzik et al., 2010; Xia et al., 2012). The $A\beta(1-16)$ -AuNPs were prepared by ligandexchange reaction between peptide $A\beta(1-16)$ Cys and citratestabilized AuNPs. Briefly, the AuNPs was diluted with 1 mM PBS (pH 7.0) and mixed with $A\beta(1-16)$ Cys at room temperature for 4 h. The immobilization ability of AuNPs for $A\beta(1-16)$ Cys was studied by measuring the free A β (1–16)Cys in solution with mass spectroscopy, and the average number of $A\beta(1-16)$ Cys molecules per gold nanoparticle was determined to be 315 ± 40 . For the synthesis of A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs, heme at the same concentration with A β (1-16)Cys was added to the A β (1-16)-AuNPs suspension. The synthesized $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs were characterized by Cary 50 UV/vis spectrometry and FEI Tecnai G2 T20 transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Fig. S1 in Supplementary material). We also found that the $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs remain stable at pH 7.0 at least for one month. The $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs were thoroughly rinsed with deionzied water to remove less amount of free $A\beta(1-16)$ and heme, and diluted with 1 mM PBS solution prior to use.

2.3. Detection of $A\beta$

The MPA self-assembled monolayers (SAMs) were formed by immersing the cleaned gold electrode in an ethanol solution of 10 mM MPA in the darkness for 12 h. This step was followed by washing the electrode thoroughly with ethanol and water. The mAb-covered electrode was performed by cross-linking mAb molecules onto the SAM via the EDC/NHSS-mediated amine coupling reaction (Haes et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2013). Briefly, the MPA-covered electrode was soaked in a solution comprising of 0.2 M EDC and 0.1 M NHSS for 15 min, washed with water and soaked in a 1 µM mAb solution for 12 h. This was followed by casting 0.2 mM ethanolamine onto the electrode to block the unreacted sites for 5 min. The capture of A β or A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs was performed at room temperature by casting a given concentration of A β solution or A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs suspension onto the mAb-covered electrode for 10 min. After the electrode had been rinsed with water to remove the excess physiadsorbed A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs, voltammetric determination in the airsaturated supporting electrolyte was performed on a DY2013 electrochemical work station (Digi-Ivy, Inc., Austin, TX) using a home-made plastic electrochemical cell. A platinum wire and a Ag/ AgCl electrode were used as the auxiliary and the reference electrodes, respectively. After each assay, the electrode surface was regenerated with 10 mM NaOH for 5 min (desorbing the target A β and A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Principle of the electrochemical assay for $A\beta$

Recent studies show that heme can bind to A^B peptide to form the A_β-heme complex behaving as a peroxidase enzyme (Atamna and Boyle, 2006; Pramanik et al., 2011; Pramanik et al., 2012). The major binding site is believed to be one of the three His residues in the N-terminus, especially at the position His¹³ (Pramanik et al., 2012: Yuan and Gao, 2013). Pramanik et al. (2012) suggested that the $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme complexes immobilized onto gold electrode showed strong electrocatalytic reduction of O_2 to H_2O_2 . The schematic representation of our voltammetric assay for the detection of A β with A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs is illustrated in Fig. 1. The mAb specific to the amino acids 3–8 of Aβ was immobilized onto the MPA SAMs through the standard amine coupling reaction. The strong and specific antibody–Aβ interaction (Ramakrishnan et al., 2009; Xia et al., 2010) allows $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs to be anchored onto the electrode surface (cf. the top of Fig. 1). The electrochemical signals from the reduction of O₂ to H₂O₂ catalyzed by A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs would be observed. Since A β (1–16)functionalized AuNPs may absorb other components in the real sample analysis, the competitive assay for $A\beta$ detection was performed by incubating the electrode successively with $A\beta$ solution and $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs. If the A β -binding site in the mAb was occupied by the native A β , A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs would be incapable of anchoring onto the electrode (cf. the bottom of



Fig. 1. Schematic representation of A β detection. More A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs are attached onto the mAb-covered electrode without the A β capture step (top). A smaller number of A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs are attached after incubation of the electrode with A β species (bottom).

Fig. 1). Consequently, poor electrochemical signal from the reduction of O₂ was observed. We anticipate that total A β species could be detected with this method since the mAb is capable of binding to the N-terminus of all the A β species. Note that one mAb molecule can bind one A β molecule or one A β (1–16)-hememodified gold nanoparticle, and each gold nanoparticle can absorb large numbers of A β (1–16)-heme; thus, the electrochemical signals will be greatly amplified.

3.2. Feasibility for $A\beta$ detection

Fig. 2A shows the voltammetric response acquired at the mAbcovered electrodes after attachment of different concentrations of AB(1–16)-heme-AuNPs. The electrochemical response reveals a reduction peak at around -455 mV, which is attributed to A β (1– 16)-heme-promoted O₂ reduction (Pramanik et al., 2012). The currents increase with the increase of the number of captured $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs. The dependence of the reduction current on the $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs concentration is presented in the Supplementary material (Fig. S2). Beyond 1.20 nM, the currents at -455 mV begin to level off. Interestingly, we found that the current-concentration relationship can be fitted with the Langmuir isotherm. The binding affinity (K_A) between mAb and A β (1– 16)-heme-AuNPs from the fits was deduced to be 3.38 nM^{-1} . The nanomolar level K_A value suggests that the binding of the mAb to $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs is rather high. This value is in agreement with the reported nanomolar level K_D value between mAb and A β , indicating that the attachment of $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs on the mAb-covered electrode results from the specific antibody-A_β interaction.

Current clinical practice of AD diagnostics is based on the detection of $A\beta(1-42)$ or total $A\beta$ species (Golde et al., 2000). To demonstrate the amenability of our method to the analysis of total A β , we tested A β (1–40) and A β (1–42). Black curve in Fig. 2B is a representative cyclic voltammogram (CV) collected at the mAbcovered electrode after the capture of $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs. Incubation of the electrode with the $A\beta(1-40)$ or $A\beta(1-42)$ solution before the capture of $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs resulted in a much attenuated peak current (cf. the red and blue curves), indicating that the A_β-binding site in mAb was occupied by $A_{\beta}(1-40)$ or $A\beta(1-42)$. Moreover, these results also demonstrate that incubation of the electrode with $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs suspension did not lead to the loss of captured AB. This is understandable since the bulk mass of $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs is probably unfavorable for the exchange between $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs and anchored Aβ. In addition, a real CSF sample contains approximately 150-400 mg/L plasma proteins (Liu et al., 2012). The control experiment (green curve) was conducted with serum albumin instead of $A\beta$.



Fig. 2. (A) Cyclic voltammograms (CVs) acquired at mAb-covered electrodes after the attachment of different concentrations of A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs. (B) CVs showing the competitive assay for A β species. In panel B, the concentrations of A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs, A β (1–40), A β (1–42) and BSA were 1.80, 2.00, 2.00 nM and 3.00 μ M, respectively. The scan rate was 50 mV/s, and the arrow indicates the scan direction. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)



Fig. 3. (A) Representative CVs collected at mAb-covered electrode with exposing to different concentrations of $A\beta$ solutions before the attachment of $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs. (B) Plots of the reduction current at -455 mV against the $A\beta$ concentrations (0.02–5.00 nM). The inset in panel B shows the linear plots at concentrations of 0.02, 0.10, 0.20, 0.50, 0.80, 1.20 and 1.50 nM. Each point was averaged from at least three replicates, and RSDs are shown as the error bars. The other experimental conditions are the same as those in Fig. 2.

As a result, there is no apparent difference in the reduction wave (*cf.* black and green curves), indicating that the sensor is selective to $A\beta$ species. The good selectivity is attributed to the strong antibody–antigen interaction between mAb and $A\beta$.

Previously, Xia et al. suggested that A β bound to antibody can be desorbed by NaOH solution. We also found that the electrode can be conveniently regenerated by immersing the electrode in 10 mM NaOH solution and then rinsing the surface with water (i.e., desorbing A β peptides and A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs bound to the mAb). No apparent change in the reduction current was observed after eight regeneration/assay cycles. Thus, multiple samples can be determined using one electrode, dramatically increasing the sample throughput and reducing the analysis time and cost. In addition, we found that the relative standard deviations (RSDs) are all below 18% at three different electrodes in parallel.

3.3. Sensitivity and artificial samples detection

With the regeneration of the method established, we further evaluated other analytical merits (e.g. reproducibility, sensitivity and dynamic range). The A β samples were prepared by mixing A β (1-40) and A β (1-42) in the A β $(1-40)/A\beta$ (1-42) ratio of 6:1, which is close to the real ratio in human CSF (Xia et al., 2010). As shown in Fig. 3A, the reduction currents decrease with the increase of $A\beta$ concentrations. The dependence of the reduction currents on the concentrations of total A_β is presented in Fig. 3B. The aforementioned regeneration of the electrode surface contributes to acceptable reproducibility of the method, as the RSDs, shown as the error bars in Fig. 3B, are all less than 11%. The inset in Fig. 3B is the linear portion of the calibration curve between 0.02 and 1.50 nM, which is expressed as current (μA)=4.37-2.09 C_{A β} (nM) (R^2 = 0.988). The detection limit (3 s) of the method was estimated to be 10 pM (n=11). This value is comparable to that obtained by SPR with the signal amplification of streptavidin-antibody conjugate (Xia et al., 2010), and is at least four orders lower than that achievable by capillary electrophoresis (Picou et al., 2010). The high sensitivity is attributed to the signal amplification of AuNPs and the enzyme-like catalytic activity of $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme to O_2 reduction. In human CSF, the basal level of $A\beta$ is at nanomolar scale (Southwick et al., 1996). Thus, the strategy developed in this study is promising to detect $A\beta$ in body fluids.

To demonstrate the viability of the method for the analysis of total A β species in real sample, we carried out the measurement of amounts of A β in aCSF (*cf.* Fig. S3 in Supplementary material). No A β was found in aCSF; thus, 0.30 nM of A β (1–40) and 0.30 nM of A β (1–42) were added into the aCSF and then analyzed. The reduction current at –455 mV was determined to be 3.24 μ A and the content

of A β was deduced to be 0.54 nM by the calibration curve. To ascertain the exactitude of the method for the assay of total A β , we further tested the sample spiked with 0.20 nM of A β (1–16) and the concentration was determined to be 0.77 nM, which is close to the known content of 0.80 nM. These results confirmed that the present method could offer a useful means for quantifying A β in a biological matrix.

4. Conclusion

We, for the first time, reported an electrochemical strategy for the sensitive detection of total A β using A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs. $A\beta(1-16)$ -heme-AuNPs captured by the mAb-covered electrode facilitated the reduction of O2. Pre-incubation of the electrode with native A β prevented A β (1–16)-heme-AuNPs from binding to the immobilized mAb on electrode. By the competitive assay, low level of A_β can be readily detected with excellent regeneration and reproducibility. The detection limit was estimated to be 10 pM, which is comparable to that obtained by SPR with the signal amplification of streptavidin-antibody conjugate and is at least four orders lower than that achievable by capillary electrophoresis. In addition, the method remains much faster and simpler than the existing methods without the requirement of expensive and complicated instruments. We believe that our work would be valuable in the design of new types of electrochemical biosensors for the detection of peptides and proteins.

Acknowledgments

Partial support of this work by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (21205003), the China Scholarship Council (2009637056) and the Science & Technology Foundation of Henan Province (122102310517) is gratefully acknowledged.

Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bios.2013.05.028.

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