

A Review of Gold and Silver Nanoparticle-Based Colorimetric Sensing Assays

Myalowenkosi Sabela, Sébastien Balme, Mikhael Bechelany, Jean-Marc Janot,

Krishna Bisetty

► To cite this version:

Myalowenkosi Sabela, Sébastien Balme, Mikhael Bechelany, Jean-Marc Janot, Krishna Bisetty. A Review of Gold and Silver Nanoparticle-Based Colorimetric Sensing Assays. Advanced Engineering Materials, Wiley-VCH Verlag, 2017, 19 (12), pp.1700270. 10.1002/adem.201700270. hal-01674759

HAL Id: hal-01674759 https://hal.umontpellier.fr/hal-01674759

Submitted on 9 Jun2021

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1		A Rev	iew of Gold and Silver Nanoparticle-Based Colorimetric Sensing Assays	;
2				
3	Му	alowe	nkosi Sabela ^a , Sebastien Balme ^{b*} , Mikhael Bechelany ^{b*} , Jean-Marc Janot ^b , and Krish	ına
4	Bis	setty ^a		
5				
6	^a De	epartme	ent of Chemistry, Durban University of Technology, P.O Box 1334, Durban 4000, South Afri	ica
7	^b In	stitut E	uropéen des Membranes, UMR 5635, Université de Montpellier CNRS, ENSCM, Place Eugè	ène
8	Ba	ataillon,	F-34095 Montpellier cedex 5, France	
9	*Co	orrespor	nding Author s: <u>sebastien.balme@ umontpellier.fr</u> and <u>mikhael.bechelany@umontpellier.fr</u>	
10				
11	Co	ntents		
12	AB	STRA	CT	1
13	1.	Intro	duction	2
14	2.	Gold	and Silver NP synthesis, morphology and properties	4
15	3.	Deteo	ction of metals ions (aggregation induced by interparticle cross-linking)	6
16	4.	Deteo	ction of small molecules: cysteine, dopamine	10
17		4.1.	Recognition of chiral molecules	21
18		4.2.	Detection of macromolecules	21
19	5.	DNA	-functionalized nanoparticles (aptasensors)	26
20		5.1.	TYPE I: Aptamers adsorbed on nanoparticles	30
21		5.2.	TYPE II: Aptamer-target adsorbed on nanoparticles	34
22		5.3.	TYPE III: Competition in "One-pot detection systems"	38
23		5.4.	TYPE IV: Multiplex Aptasensors	39
24		5.5.	Nanoparticle-based enzyme assays	41
25	6.	Core	-Shell Nanoparticles and Ratios	48
26	7.	SUM	MARY AND OUTLOOK	49
27				

28 ABSTRACT

The nanoparticle colorimetric-based methods have been extensively used for rapid detection, however there are few limitations which can be kept under control or avoided by understanding the crucial parameters involved in these reactions. This review addresses the main parameters that influence colorimetric-based methods and provides a rational classification of the current approaches, by focusing particularly on gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) and silver nanoparticles (AgNPs). The AgNP and AuNP-based colorimetric assays can be very efficient and sensitive especially for biomolecule identification and for metal ion detection in environmental screening. Specifically, this review highlights the detection of metal ions through their coordination with nanoparticle stabilizing ligands. The review also addresses various approaches based on labelfree aptasensors to better understand their role as smart colorimetric sensing devices.

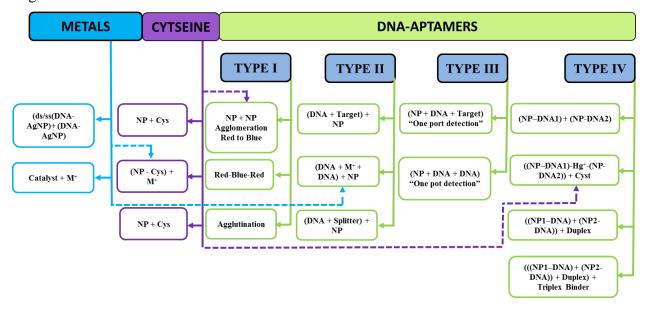
39

40 **1. Introduction**

The term *nanoparticle* (NP) defines any small object (from 1 to 100 nm) that behaves as a 41 42 unit concerning its transport and properties. Indeed, as their properties change in function of their size, particles can be classified based on their diameter. Thus, ultrafine particles (or NPs) are 43 44 particles with a diameter between 1 and 100 nm, whereas fine particles have a diameter between 100 and 2,500 nm. For tailored applications, NPs can be capped with a variety of different 45 anionic and cationic ligands, from displaceable small molecules to polymer coatings. The choice 46 of capping ligand depends on the NPs used that can range from conductive inks to biomedical 47 tools. 48

Among the known nanoparticles, gold and silver NPs (AuNPs and AgNPs) have been 49 widely studied because of their unique optical, electrical and photothermal properties. AuNPs 50 and AgNPs show unique optical features in well-dispersed solutions, depending on their level of 51 aggregation which is mostly determined by their specific surface plasmon resonance (SPR) 52 53 profiles ^[1], Metal-noble NPs are small enough to confine their electrons and produce quantum effects. This is a key parameter for naked-eye colorimetric sensing applications, because 54 modifications of their surface charge are transformed into a visible color change. Furthermore, 55 NPs also have a very high extinction coefficient that depends mainly on their size, shape and 56 inter-particle distance. Such properties enable them to compete with analytical techniques, like 57 absorbance or fluorescence spectroscopy. Colorimetric-based assays have been developed by 58 exploiting the color changes associated with the aggregation of metal-noble NPs^[2]. Due to their 59 adaptability, high sensitivity, low cost and versatility (Figure 1), AgNP- and AuNP-based assays 60 have been used for the detection of metal ions ^[3], small molecules ^[3b, 3f, 4], proteins ^[3f, 4z, 5], 61 deoxyribonucleic acidDNA ^[3f, 5i, 6] and enzymes ^[5a, 6g, 7]. AuNPs are often used as sensing 62

elements to develop sensitive, selective, simple and label-free colorimetric assays ^[7h, 8].
Consequently, NP used as detection agents could be considered as a sort of "litmus test" for
target molecules ^[5i, 9].





68

Figure 1: Possible colorimetric detection approaches for metals, ligands and macromolecules.

Although analytical methods, such as high-performance liquid chromatography, 69 electrophoresis, voltammetry and fluorescence spectroscopy, are the preferred approaches for the 70 detection of various macromolecules, sensitive, fast and high-throughput screening methods are 71 72 still required ^[4x]. NP-based colorimetric methods are quick and user-friendly detection approaches that take advantage of various chemical mechanisms. For instance, such methods can 73 be used for the rapid detection of influenza viruses through the binding between the influenza 74 virus envelope protein hemagglutinin and sialic acid-stabilized AuNPs ^[10], or for high-75 throughput screening of endonuclease inhibitors ^[7e]. 76

77 In this review, the colorimetric approaches that allows for the naked-eye detection of color 78 changes through ultraviolet-visible (UV-Vis) absorption spectroscopy without fluorescence detection methods are addressed. Specifically, aptamer-based applications for the detection of 79 metal ions, small ligands and biological macromolecules will be described. Accordingly, the 80 methods have been subdivided on the analytes and the NP's surface modifications and not on the 81 basis of the used NPs, as the colorimetric performances of AgNPs or AuNPs are very similar. 82 The applications involving aqueous/water-soluble stabilized NPs with no solid surface arrays, 83 such as glass will be highlighted. To ensure that all key possibilities are fully explored, the 84

different sections herein have been divided as follows: detection of metals, small molecule
(cysteine, dopamine) and oligonucleotides (cross-linking).

2. Gold and Silver NP synthesis, morphology and properties

The most commonly used methods for the synthesis of AgNPs and AuNPs involve reducing 88 AgCl or AgNO₃ and HAuCl₄ with sodium citrate and sodium borohydride. The AuNP mixture is 89 boiled with vigorous stirring in a round bottom flask fitted with a reflux condenser for 90 91 approximately 10 min. Color change from yellow to wine red is observed within a few seconds ^[4s, 4z, 11]. The AuNP solution concentration can be calculated following Beer's law, using the 92 extinction coefficient of 2.7×10^8 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹ at λ =520 nm ^[12]. For AgNPs, 1% tri-sodium citrate is 93 added to 0.3 mM silver nitrate solution, and the mixture stirred for 5 min. After a drop-by-drop 94 95 addition of 1 mM sodium borohydride solution in the dark, the resulting mixture is stirred at room temperature for 2 h. The bright yellow AgNPs are then filtered through a Millipore syringe 96 (0.45 nm) to remove the precipitate ^[4t]. NPs are then characterized by diffusion light scattering 97 (DLS) to calculate their hydrodynamic radius in solution, or by transmission electron microscopy 98 (TEM) to describe their morphology (Fig. 2). 99

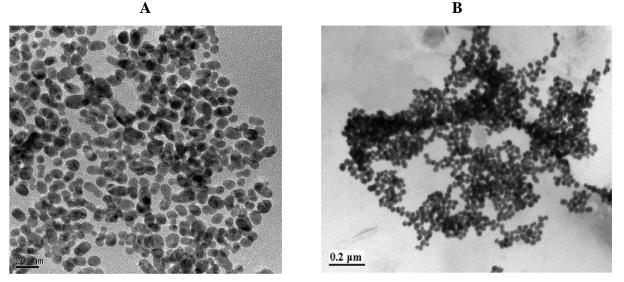


Fig. 2. TEM images of (A) 13 nm citrate-capped AuNPs from wine-red solution ^[4s] and of (B)
 guanine-induced AgNP aggregates ^[13].

102

For colorimetric assays, AgNPs have some advantages compared with AuNPs. 103 Specifically, AgNP extinction coefficients are higher than those of AuNPs of the same average 104 105 size ^[7h], but with AuNPs being more popular. This could be explained by the fact that AgNPs functionalization usually leads to their chemical degradation and thereafter the AgNP surface 106 107 can be easily oxidized, thus reducing their stability ^[4f, 7h, 14]. Indeed, Manuco *et al.* reported that AuNPs are stable for more than 1 month at room temperature, whereas AgNPs only for about 108 109 two weeks. This difference could be linked to the different reaction constants of thiolated gold and silver ^[15]. The high extinction coefficients and distance-dependent optical properties of 110 111 AuNPs accounts for the high sensitivity of AuNP-based colorimetric assays. Moreover, color changes can be easily observed by the naked eye, thus making them attractive for DNA-related 112 colorimetric assays ^[4c, 4k, 6b, 7h, 8]. The DNA adsorption kinetics by AgNPs are slower than those 113 by AuNPs and they cannot be accelerated by adding salt at neutral pH. This unique property of 114 the specific molecular recognition of DNA-related colorimetric assays accounts for the difficulty 115 of attaching DNA to AgNPs at neutral pH^[16]. 116

Similarly, AgNPs are good candidates as optical sensors because they display distancedependent optical properties ^[4f, 17]. Their stability can be improved by producing Ag/Au coreshell NPs that retains the Ag core optical properties. However, oligonucleotide-modified Ag/Au alloy particles are not as stable as oligonucleotide-modified core-shell particles and irreversibly aggregate in comparable conditions ^[17b]. Furthermore, nanoparticles, such as nanorods, prisms,
bipyramid of materials, have different SPR wavelengths ^[15]. For this reason, sensing platforms
based on AuNPs optical properties in combination with the molecular recognition of ligands,
such as alkyl thiols, antibodies, nucleic acids, and proteins, are active areas of research ^[3d].
Mirkin's group developed aptamer-based colorimetric assays for macromolecules using the more
stable AuNPs, despite AgNPs having a greater extinction coefficient ^[6c, 18].

127 NP colloidal stability can be adjusted by modifying the surface charges that affects electrostatic stabilization, and NP aggregation can be induced through loss (or screening) of surface charges. 128 Basically, when AgNPs and AuNPs are exposed to light, they oscillate the electromagnetic field 129 of light. This induces a collective coherent oscillation of conduction band electrons, giving rise 130 to SPR. The SPR band intensity and wavelength depend on the factors that affect the electron 131 charge density on the particle surface. According to Mie's theory, these factors include the metal 132 type, particle size, shape, structure, composition and dielectric constant of the surrounding 133 medium ^[19]. Thus, unmodified AuNPs are red while AgNPs are blue or maroon due to their 134 specific and size-dependent SPR absorption. Addition of salt triggers electrostatic repulsion 135 136 between negatively-charged NPs and antiparticle changes, resulting in NPs aggregation and, consequently, specific color and wavelength changes ^[3e, 4t, 6a, 13]. Hence, by monitoring the 137 138 changes in absorbance, it is possible to understand the characteristics of the enhanced scattering effect in aggregated NPs compared with non-aggregated NPs^[10]. Consequently, the band gap 139 energies can also be used to improve the knowledge on NPs sensing and catalytic properties ^[20]. 140 The SPR profile is characteristic of the NP surface modification by small molecules, metal ions 141 and bio-macromolecules^[21]. 142

143 **3.** Detection of metals ions (aggregation induced by interparticle cross-

144 **linking**)

AgNPs and AuNPs colorimetric changes are due to the particle surface modification and aggregation. This can be achieved by NPs aggregation induced by interparticle bond formation (cross-linking aggregation) or by modifying colloidal stabilization (non-crosslinking aggregation) ^[7a, 22]. In the non-crosslinking system, aggregation is driven by the London/van der Waals attractive forces between NPs ^[7a]. Therefore, the presence of specific functional groups, such as hydroxyl (–OH), carboxyl (–COOH) and amine (–NH₂), on the NPs surface plays a critical role in aggregation. By modulating the strength of the NPs intermolecular ion and surface chemistry, this method can be improved ^[23]. For example, highly charged nucleotides or uncharged nucleosides can bind to citrate-capped AuNPs with the displacement of weakly bound citrate ions through metal–ligand interactions. This can increase AuNPs stabilization or trigger their aggregation, respectively, through gain or loss of surface charges ^[7a].

Nanoparticle	Analyte	Sample/intereferent	Functionalization	Analytical	Ref
				performance	
AuNPs	Mercury	River water	Citrate-AuNPs + 2, 2'-	LOD: 38 nM	[24]
	Hg^{2+}	and tap water	bipyridyl (Bipy)	LDR: 0.2 to 2.0 µM	
AuNPs	Mercury	Target-doped blood	AuNPs and conjugated	LOD: 50 µM	[3f]
(20 nm)	Hg^{2+}	serum	polyelectrolyte		
AuNPs	H ₂ O ₂	Interferent solutions at	Citrate-AuNPs	LOD: 1.3 µM	[4a]
(12 nm)		different concentration		LDR: 1.3 to 41 µM	
AuNPs	Cr ³⁺	Tap water and	Mercaptosuccinic acid-	LOD: 0.6 µM	[11a]
(17±2 nm)		underground water	AuNPs	LDR: 0.6 to 1.4 µM	
AuNPs	Ag ⁺	Bimetallic conjugate	Au–PolyT and Ag–PolyA	LODs: 86.8 nM	[14]
(13 nm)		mixtures			
AuNPs	Pb ²⁺	Divalent metal ions	DNAzyme–AuNPs	LOD: 0.1 to 4 µM	[3a]
(13 nm)					
AuNPs	Pb ²⁺	RNA-cleaving DNA	Aptamer-AuNPs	LDR: 0.020 to 200	[7i]
(13 nm)		enzyme		μΜ	
				LODs: 10 µM	
AuNPs	Pb ²⁺ ,	Standard solutions	Peptide-AuNPs	LODs: nM/ppb range	[3d]
(10 nm)	Pd ²⁺ ,				
	Hg ²⁺ ,				
	Pt^{2+}				
AuNPs	K ⁺	Monovalent cations (Li ⁺ ,	Aptamer-AuNPs	LOD: 1.0 mM	[3e]
(3.5 nm)		Na^+ , Rb^+ , $NH^{4+)}$ and			
		bivalent (Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+})			
AuNPs	SCN ⁻ :	Tap water and	Citrate-AuNPs	LOD: 140 nM	[4s]
(13 nm)	thiocyan	common ions			
	ate				
AgNPs	Ca ²⁺	Serum and artificial	AgNPs and cysteine	LOD: 0.1 mM	[4t]
(9.5±2.0 nm)		cerebrospinal fluid			

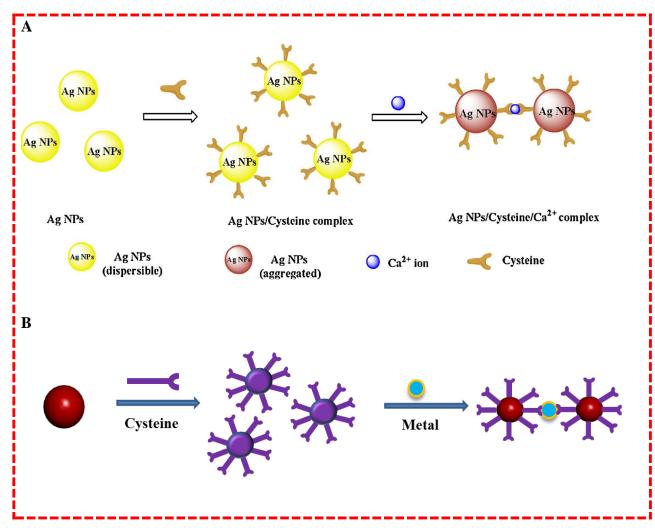
Table 1: Detection of metal ions

157 LDR, linear dynamic range; LOD, limit of detection.

158 Recently, colorimetric measurements based on metal-induced aggregation of small 159 molecules (for instance, cysteine, dopamine), peptides and DNA-functionalized NPs have

received considerable attention ^[3b, 3c, 4i, 11c]. Indeed, aggregation results in changes in the inter-160 particle distances, leading to a shift of the SPR absorption band of AgNPs to a longer wavelength 161 ^[4t]. These cross-linking aggregation-based approaches have been used for the detection of metal 162 ions (Table 1). Farhadi et al. described the development of a sensitive and selective colorimetric 163 164 assay based on the interaction between cysteine, sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)-capped AgNPs and calcium ions. In the presence of calcium ions and NaCl, AgNPs aggregation was induced, 165 166 leading to a yellow-to-red color change ^[3c] (Fig. 3). Mukherjee and co-workers used a similar approach for cysteine detection with AgNPs in the presence of Cr^{3+ [3b]}. As in the case for 167 colorimetric assays in which a ligand is used for complexation, these approaches ultimately are 168 effective for detection of both ligands and metal ions. For instance, in the presence of Cu^{2+} , 169 170 ascorbic acid rapidly induces AuNPs aggregation as a result of the Cu⁺-catalyzed 1,3-dipolar cyclo-addition of azides and alkynes (click reaction). Thus, the AuNPs solution color changed 171 and this was observed by naked eye for LOD of 3 nM^[4i]. 172



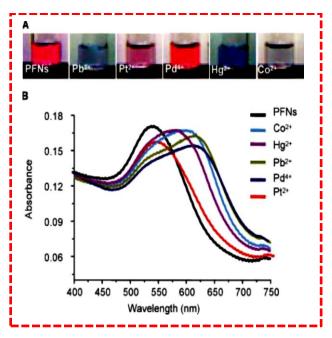


175

Fig. 3. Schematic illustration of the strategy for cysteine detection using (A) AgNPs and (B) AuNPs.
 The simultaneous presence of cysteine molecules and Ca²⁺ ions that act as a "glue" to link two neighboring NP-cysteine complexes results in NP cross-linking. Reproduced with permission from ^[3c].

Enzymes, such as deoxyribozymes (DNAzymes) with high specificity for metal ions and can form blue aggregates with AuNPs, have also been used for the detection of metal ions. Specifically, Pb²⁺ induces NPs aggregation, thus maintaining the color of the original solution [3a].

Peptide-based AuNPs also have been used as colorimetric sensors for metal ions. For example, in the Flg-A3 fusion peptide, the N-terminal Flg (-Asp-Tyr-Lys-Asp-Asp-Asp-Asplys-) includes charged and aromatic residues involved in metal ion complexation, whereas the A3 peptide (-Ala-Tyr-Ser-Gly-Pro-Ala-Pro-Pro-Met-Pro-Pro-Phe-) binds to gold surfaces. This led to an overall negative charge (pI=3.9) that prevents NPs aggregation by repulsive forces [^{3d]}. Interestingly, after addition into the solution of peptide-AuNPs, the colorimetric response of each metal ion (Co²⁺, Hg²⁺, Pb²⁺, Pd⁴⁺ and Pt²⁺) was different and reproducible and occurs within 1 min [^{3d]} (Fig. 4).



193

194

Fig. 4. Colorimetric response of peptide-AuNPs to metal ions. A) Optical microscopy images of
peptide-AuNP solutions (10 mM in Au atoms) after exposure to 10mM of different metal salts. B)
Corresponding UV/Vis spectra of peptide-AuNPs in the presence of the different metal ions ^[3d].
PFNs, peptide-AuNPs without metal ions.

199

200 This indicates that peptides are versatile ligands and their complexation with metal ions is driven

through interaction of the peptide backbone with their amino acid side chains. Modifications in

the peptide sequences could affect the metal speciation and coordination geometry ^[3a, 3d]. The

203 limitation of the peptide-NP colorimetric sensor is that DNAzyme activity in the presence of NPs

solution should be minimal.

4. Detection of small molecules: cysteine, dopamine

This section focuses on small molecules such as analytes and colorimetric substrates (Table 2), particularly cysteine and dopamine, because they have been extensively studied.

209	Table 2: Biomolecule-sensing based on AuNPs or AgNPs aggregation.
-----	---

Nanoparticle	Analyte/s	Sample/s	Functionalization	Analytical	Ref
(size)				performance	
AuNPs	Bisphenol-A	Urine and water	Aptamer-AuNPs	LOD: 0.01 pg mL ⁻¹	[4ab]
Monodisperse		samples		LDR: 10 000 to 0.1 pg	
				mL ⁻¹	
AuNPs	Concanavalin A	Lectin	Thioglucose-AuNPs	LOD: 9 nM	[25]
(40–50 nm)		(jack beans)		LDR: 10-100 nM (R ² =	
Monodisperse				0.983)	
AuNPs	Maltose, mannose,	Carbohydrate-AuNPs	Carbohydrate-protein	NR	[26]
(12.33 nm)	glucose, lactose		interactions		
Monodisperse	and				
	D-mannopentaose				
AuNPs	Cysteine,	Blood/serum	Citrate-AuNPs: 15 nm	LDR: cysteine, NR	[11b]
(15, 20, and	glutathione and		CTAB-AuNPs: 20 nm	LDR: glutathione: 10-	
2.5 nm)	glutathione		NaBH ₄ -coated AuNPs: 2.5	100 and 200–800 µM	
Monodisperse	disulfide		nm	LDR: glutathione	
				disulfide 10-300 and	
				400–800 µM	
				LOD: cysteine <0.5	
				LOD: glutathione 10 µM	
				LOD: glutathione	
				disulfide 10 µM	
AuNPs	Dopamine	Interferent: ascorbic	AuNPs induced by copper	LOD: 30 nM	[4i]
(~13 nm)		acid	ions	LDR 1: 33 nM to 100	
Monodisperse				nM	
				LDR 2: 0.1 µM to 4.5	
				μΜ	
AuNPs	Dopamine (DA)	Spiked serum	DA inhibits melamine-	LOD: 33 nM	[12]
(15 nm)			induced AuNP aggregation	LDR: 33 nM to 3.33 mM	
Monodisperse					
AuNPs	Dopamine	Common interferents,	The aptamer conformational	LOD: 360 nM	[27]
(13 nm)		such as 3,4-	change could facilitate salt-	LDR: 0.54 -5.4 µM	
Monodisperse		dihydroxyphenylalani	induced AuNP aggregation		
		ne (DOPA),			
		catechol, 3,4-	58-mer dopamine-binding		
		dihydroxyphenylaceti	aptamer (DBA)		
		c acid (DOPAC),			
		homovanillic			
		acid (HVA),			
		epinephrine (EP) and			
		ascorbic acid (AA).			

AuNPs	Dopamine (DA)	Human urine,	DA-induced aggregation of	LOD: 70 nM	[28]
$\pm 15 \text{ nm}$	Dopumine (D11)	human serum	4-amino-3-hydrazino-5-	LDR: 0.2–1.1 µM	
Multi-		numan serum	mercapto-1,2,4-triazol	EDR: 0.2 1.1 µW	
dispersed			(AHMT) –AuNPs through		
uispeiseu			hydrogen-bonding		
			interactions		
4 110					[29]
AuNPs	Dopamine (DA)	Human serum	DA colorimetric sensing	LOD: 200 nM	[27]
			based on AuNP aggregation	LDR: 0.5–10 µM	
Monodisperse			induced by copper ions		
AgNPs	Coralyne	Selectivity test	Homoadenine-AgNPs,	LOD: 0.25 coralyne	[4f]
(NR)		against intercalating	label-free colorimetric	molecules/adenine base	
Monodisperse		ligands, ethidium	detection of small molecules		
		bromide (EB) and	using DNA oligonucleotides		
		daunomycin (DM)	and AgNPs		
AgNPs	4-nitroaniline (4-	self-assembled	4-NA reduction to para-	<u> </u>	[20]
(5–15 nm)	NA)	AgNPs on DNA	phenylenediamine		
Multi-disperse					
T. T. T.					
AgNPs	Adenine, guanine,	NR	Strength of interactions	NR	[13]
$(12 \pm 2 \text{ nm})$	cytosine, thymine		between the fundamental		
Multi-disperse			chemical components of		
width disperse			DNA and AgNP surfaces		
AuNPs	Ampicillin	ssDNA aptamer-	Colorimetric assay of	LOD: 5 ng mL ⁻¹	[41]
(13 nm)	7 implemin	AuNPs	ampicillin using specific	LOD. 5 IIg IIL	
Multi-disperse		Autors	aptamers		
Wulti-disperse			aptamers		
AuNPs	Oxytetracycline	Tetracyclines (TCs)	Ultrasensitive colorimetric	LOD: 0.1 nM	[4v]
		as counter targets	detection of oxytetracycline		
			using shortened aptamer		
AuNPs	Oxytetracycline	Aptamer-AuNPs	Aptamer-specific	LOD: 25 nM	[4g]
(13 nm)			colorimetric assay	LDR: 25 nM to 1 µM	
AuNPs	Bisphenol a	Water samples	AuNP aggregation by	LOD: 0.1 ngmL ⁻¹	[4q]
(18 nm)	_ isplicitor u		competitive binding of		
(18 mm) Monodisperse			bisphenol A and aptamer		
-					
AuNPs	Ochratoxin A	Standards	Aggregation occurs as	LDR: 20 to 625 nM	[4k]
(13 nm)			random coil structures to	LOD: 20 nM	
Multi-disperse			compact rigid antiparallel		
			G-quadruplexes		
AuNPs	Cysteine	Amino acids,	2:1 cysteine/Cu ²⁺ complex	LOD: 10 nM	[11c]
(13 nm)		glutathione,			
Monodisperse		thioglycolic acid and			
		mercaptoethyl alcohol			
AuNPs	Ascorbic acid	Fruit juices	Alkyne-azide click reaction	LOD: 3.0 nM	[4i]
		1			
(13 nm)					

AuNPs	Cysteine	19 amino acids	ssDNA-AuNPs	LOD: 100 nM	[4e]
(NR)				LDR: 0.1 to 5 µM	
Monodisperse					
AuNPs	Influenza	Virus dilution	Sialic acid-AuNPs	LOD: 0.09 vol%.	[10]
(20.1±1.8 nm)	B/Victoria,	(hemagglutination		upper limit of linearity	
Multi-disperse	influenza	assay titer, 512)		2.5 vol %	
-	B/Yamagata				
AuNPs	Tryptophan	D/L enantiomers	AuNPs	LOD: 0.1 µM	[4y]
(13 nm)	enantiomers				
Monodisperse					
-					
AuNPs	Arginine, histidine,	Urine samples	Quercetin-AuNPs	LOD: 0.04, 0.03, and	[30]
(~11.89 nm)	lysine	-		0.02 μM.	
Mono-disperse				LDR: 2.5–1,250 μM	
Ĩ				(Arg) and 1–1,000 µM	
				(His and Lys),	
AuNPs-I	Melamine	Pre-treated milk	Citrate-AuNPs	AuNPs-I (2.37 x10 ⁻⁸ M)	[4z]
(15 nm)				AuNPs-II (3.3 x 10 ⁻⁸ M)	
AuNPs-II				AuNPs-III (8.9 x 10 ⁻⁸	
(30 nm)				M)	
AuNPs-III					
(40 nm)					
Multi-disperse					
AgNPs	Cysteine	Various metals	2:1 cysteine/Ca ²⁺ complex	LOD: 83 nM	[3c]
(NR)	Cysteme	v unous mouns	2.1 cysteme, cu complex	LDR: $0.25 - 10 \mu M$	
Mono-disperse				ΕΕΓΚ. 0.25 ΤΟ μΙΝ	
mono dispense					
AgNPs	Cysteine	10 mM of nine amino	2:1 cysteine/Cr ³⁺ complex	LOD: 1 nM	[3b]
(10 - 15 nm)		acids	r start in r		
Multi-disperse					
AgNPs	Dopamine,	Tyrosinase	AgNPs	LOD: dopamine, L-	[4b]
(10-20 nm)	L-DOPA,	5	C	DOPA	
Multi-disperse	noradrenaline			and noradrenaline 2.5	
I I I I	adrenaline			μΜ	
				adrenaline 20 µM	
				tyrosinase activity~10	
				units (~100 μ g mL ⁻¹)	
AuNPs	Kanamycin	Other antibiotics:	ssDNA aptamer-AuNPs	LOD: 10 nM	[4j]
(~ 13 nm)		streptomycin,			
Multi-disperse		sulfadimethoxine and			
and and points		ampicillin			
AuNPs	Sulfadimethoxine	NR	AuNPs	LDR: 50 ng mL ⁻¹ to 1.0	[4n]
(~ 13 nm)	(SDM)		1 201 11 0	$\mu g m L^{-1}$	
Mono-disperse	(52111)			LOD: 50 ng mL ⁻¹	
AuNPs	Penicillin G	Different penicillins	CTAB-AuNPs	LOD: 0.007 mg mL ⁻¹	[7m]
(~15 nm)		Enterent pentennins			
(-15 mm)					

Multi-disperse					
AuNPs	Cysteine	19 essential amino	DNA-AuNPs	LOD: 100 nM	[4d]
(20 nm)		acids		LDR: $100 \text{ nM} - 2 \mu \text{M}$	
Mono-disperse					
AuNPs	Adenosine	inosine, guanosine,	aptamer-OD-AuNPs	LOD: 10 µM	[31]
(13 nm)		and cytosine			
Multi-disperse		-			
AuNPs	Adenosine and	Other nucleosides	Aptamers	LOD: 0.3 mM	[4c]
(13 nm)	caffeine				
Mono-disperse					
AuNPs	Digitoxin	Rat serum	AuNPs	LOD: 571 pM	[4aa]
(15 nm)	C				
Mono-disperse					
AuNPs	Cysteine	Interferents: Na ⁺ ,	AuNPs	LDR: 0.1 to 0.6 ppm	[4u]
(10.8-13.1 nm)		Cu^{2+} , Cl^+ and urea		LOD: 0.01ppm	
Multi-disperse		,		F F	
AgNPs	Cysteine/cystine	Other amino acids	AgNPs	LDR: 25-250 µM	[4m]
(5 – 20 nm)			-	LOD: 2.5 ppm	
Multi-disperse				**	
AgNPs	Cysteine and	Human urine and	Non-ionic	LOD: 0.4 µM.	[40]
(8 nm)	homocysteine	plasma samples	fluorosurfactant-AuNPs,	·	
Mono-disperse	5	1 1			
AgNPs	Cysteine	Human urine and	Fluorosurfactant-AgNPs	LOD: 0.05 µM.	[4r]
(8±1.6nm)		plasma samples	8	LDR: 1.5–6.0 µM	
Multi-disperse		FF			
AgNPs	Cysteine	Serum and artificial	AgNPs and Ca ²⁺	LDR: 0.1–1000 µM	[4t]
(9.5±2.0 nm)	-)	cerebrospinal fluid		LOD: 0.1 µM	
Multi-disperse		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			
AuNPs	Cysteine	Human urine	Pectinase-protected AuNPs	LDR: 4.85x10 ⁻⁶ to 302	[4ac]
(20.0 ± 1.4) nm	Cystelle			μ M and 3.25 to 0.103	
Multi-disperse				mM	
Ţ				LOD: 4.6x10 ⁻⁹ M.	
AuNPs	Cysteine	Brain microdialysate	Cysteine-AuNPs	LDR: 0.166 to 1.67 µM	[23]
(13 nm)		(sample),		LOD: 0.1 µM	
Monodisperse		lactate, ascorbic acid		· · · · · · · ·	
r		and glucose			
		(interferents)			
AuNPs	Pyruvic acid	Interferents: lactic	AuNPs	LDR: 5.6 µM to 168.0	[4w]
(13 nm)	,,	acid (LA), ascorbic		μΜ	
Monodisperse		acid (AA) and		LOD: 3.0 µM	
I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I		glucose.			
AuNPs	Sulfadimethoxine	Mixture of KAN,	Aptamer of KAN, SDM and	NR	[4x]
(13 nm)	(SDM),	SDM and ADE	ADE (1:1:1 mixture).		
Monodisperse	kanamycin (KAN)				
r	and adenosine				

	(ADE)				
AuNPs (13 nm)	17β-estradiol	Intereferents: methanol,	AuNPs	LOD: 0.1 ng mL ⁻¹	[4x]
Monodisperse		diethylstilbestrol, bisphenol A, 19- nortestosterone, estroil, estrone			
AuNPs (20 nm) Monodisperse	Caffeine	ATP and target-doped blood serum	AuNPs	LOD: 1.25 µM	[3f]
AuNPs (13 nm) Monodisperse	Parathion	Sea and tap water	Parathion inhibits AChE- induced aggregation of AuNPs	LDR: 15 to 65 ppb and 140 to 1000 ppb LOD: 0.7 ppb (2.4 nM)	[4ad]

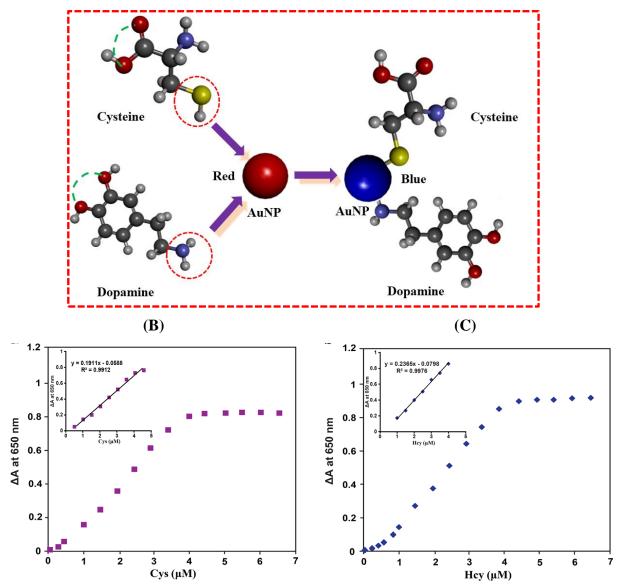
210 CTAB: cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide; OD: oligonucleotides; SDM: sulfadimethoxine; KAN: kanamycin; ADE: adenosine; AChE:

211 acetylcholinesterase, Cyt C: cytochrome c.; LDR: linear dynamic range; LOD: limit of detection.

212

Cysteine has been employed as a common strategy for the detection of metals, but it also can be quantified by colorimetric assays. Metal ions are used as cross-linking agents for cysteine-AuNP or -AgNP pairs to induce NP aggregation and the consequent red to blue color change of the NP solution is observed. The degree of aggregation depends on the cysteine concentration and the average AuNPs diameter in the presence of different cysteine concentrations. In such colorimetric assays, organic molecules bind to the Au/AgNPs surface via their amine ($-NH_2$) (blue) or thiol (-SH) (yellow) terminal groups (Fig 5).





214

Fig. 5A) Chemisorption model for cysteine and dopamine on the AuNP surface. The solution color
changes from red to blue in the presence of cysteine or dopamine. B and C shows linear
relationship of nonionic fluorosurfactant-capped gold nanoparticles versus Cys and Hcy 650 nm.
The linear range for Cys was 0.5–4.5 μM, and for Hcy was 1.0–4.0 μM. Conditions: pH 6.5, 100
mM NaCl , 30 s incubation period at 50 °C

228

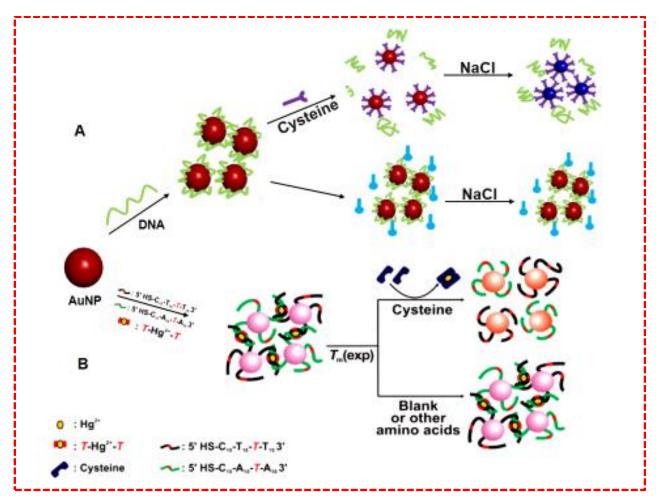
Ligands with the $C_6H_8O_6$ formula, without $-NH_2$ or -SH functional groups, preferably bind to the AuNPs surface, and are highly unlikely to induce AuNPs aggregation ^[4i, 4u, 32].

The thiol groups of cysteine interact with the surface of colloidal AuNPs or AgNPs via 231 chemisorption-type interactions; however, cysteine can complex with metal ions, such as Pb²⁺, 232 Zn^{2+} , Cu^{2+} [4i, 11c], Ca^{2+} [3c, 4t], Cr^{3+} [3b], at a ratio of two cysteines for each metal ion [10, 11c]. In the 233 presence of metal ions, cysteines can induce AgNP and AuNP aggregation with a color change 234 from vellow to purple and blue to red, respectively ^[3b, 3c, 4u, 11c]. These assays are based on the NP 235 236 distance-dependent optical properties after coordination, as confirmed by the change in the zeta potential from -30.7 mV for pure AgNPs to -19.63 mV after interaction with cysteine and Cr³⁺ 237 ^[3b]. Specifically, Hajizadeh *et al.* reported that cysteine can rapidly induce AgNP aggregation 238 (yellow-to-red color change) in the presence of Ca²⁺ and 10 mM NaCl, leading to a decrease in 239 electrostatic repulsion and faster aggregation ^[3c]. Cysteine concentration can be determined also 240 by using AuNPs and a UV-Vis spectrometer with a LOD of 10 nM (1.2 ng ml⁻¹) ^[11c]. The ratio 241 between absorption at 524 and absorption at 396 nm (A524/A396) is linear with a cysteine 242 concentration range from 0.25 to 10 mM ($R^2 = 0.993$) with a LOD of 83 nM ^[3c]. Jongjinakool 243 and co-workers detected cysteine in a concentration range from 0.1 to 0.6 ppm with a LOD of 244 0.01 ppm^[4u]. In Figure 5b-c, a multi-component mixtures demonstrated that cysteine and 245 homocysteine were identified based on the different SPR wavelengths induced by aggregation of 246 non-ionic fluoro-surfactant-functionalized AuNPs upon addition of a mixture of the amino acids. 247 The absorbance changes due to AuNPs aggregation induced by cysteine and homocysteine 248 increase the individual absorbance values (LDR from 0.5 to 4.5 µM for cysteine and LOD 249 (S/N=3) of 0.4 μ M for homocysteine)^[40]. 250

When dopamine (DA) and Cu^{2+} solutions are mixed, the amine group directly coordinates with Cu^{2+} without nitrogen atoms bonded to the gold surface ^[4i]. The LOD for DA is 30 nM with, differently from cysteine-based methods, a linear calibration curve for two concentration ranges $(3.3 \times 10^{-8} \text{ to } 1.0 \times 10^{-7} \text{ M} \text{ and } 3.0 \times 10^{-7} \text{ to } 4.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M})$ with correlation coefficients of 0.9981 and 0.9979, respectively ^[4i]. Likewise, addition of 5 mM Cu²⁺ improves

the colorimetric probe to a LOD of 200 nM ^[29]. AuNPs also can be used for the quantitative 256 colorimetric detection of neurotransmitters that mediate the generation and growth of AuNPs, 257 258 with a LOD of 2.5 µM for dopamine, L-DOPA and noradrenaline, and of 20 µM for adrenaline ^[4b]. The metal ion-Au/AgNPs interaction is mainly a coulombic interaction and its strength is 259 260 directly related to the molecular structure and charged groups. Therefore, selectivity can be improved by working on these two parameters ^[4r]. For instance, researchers highlighted the 261 excellent selectivity of AuNP-based colorimetric assays for cysteine compared with other 262 biomolecules, such as thioglycolic acid and mercaptoethyl alcohol ^[11c], glutathione ^[11b, 11c] 263 glutathione disulfide ^[11b], aspartic acid and glutamic acid ^[23]. Moreover, selectivity changes also 264 when using cysteine derivatives, namely glycine, dipeptide Cys-Gly, cysteamine, 265 mercaptopropionic acid, S-protected (S-methyl-L-cysteine), N-protected (N-acetylcysteine) and 266 O-protected cysteine (L-cysteine methylester hydrochloride), as indicated by the color change 267 from yellow to pink and peak broadening ^[4m]. Therefore, it is imperative to investigate the 268 detection of sulfur-containing amino acids compared with other standard amino acids ^[4m]. Chen 269 et al. used 19 naturally occurring amino acids, but they could not improve the colorimetric 270 response of cysteine^[4e]. 271

Another strategy for cysteine detection is based on the observation that when cysteine is added to AuNPs/ssDNA, the ssDNA molecules that stabilize AuNPs against salt-induced aggregation are displayed spontaneously by cysteine encapsulation on the AuNPs surfaces, via an Au–S bond ^[4e]. The salt-induced aggregations result in a characteristic AuNPs color change from red to blue ^[4e, 4m]. According to Chen *et al.* ^[4e] this approach is not feasible with other amino acids (Fig 6).



279

Fig. 6. In the presence of cysteine, the ssDNAs is displayed by cysteine on AuNPs surface resulting in AuNP aggregation and in a color change from red to blue upon addition of NaCl. Other amino acids do not lead to a color change due to the absence of thiol groups ^[4e]. (B) Cysteine colorimetric detection using AuNPs probes that contain T-T mismatches complexed with Hg²⁺: competitive approach in which cysteine can displace Hg^{2+[4d]}

285

In this system, the A₆₄₀/A₅₂₅ ratio is linearly dependent on the cysteine concentration (from 0.1 to 286 5.0 µM with LOD of 100 nM) ^[4e]. Differently from methods that require AuNPs modification, 287 288 this approach is simple and fast, but it requires specific links between the biomolecules and AuNPs to allow ssDNA displacement from the NPs surface. On the other hand, Mirkin's group 289 290 developed a cysteine detection assay where two sets of AuNPs probes are functionalized with different oligonucleotide sequences (probe A: 5' HS-C10-A10-T-A10 3'; probe B: 5' HS-C10-291 292 T10-T-T10 3') and rapidly form aggregates upon combination through the thymidine-thymidine (T-T) mismatches complexed with Hg²⁺ with LODs as low as a 100 nM ^[4d]. Comparison of the 293 two methods (ssDNA-AuNPs and mismatch assay) highlights that they rely on the distance-294 295 dependent optical properties of AuNPs, the sharp melting transition of oligonucleotide-AuNPs

aggregates and the very selective coordination of Hg²⁺ with cysteine during which the purple-to-296 red color change occurs ^[4d, 4e]. However proteins with one free cysteine residue, such as human 297 serum albumin, can spontaneously attach to AuNPs surfaces through Au-S bond formation ^[2]. 298 299 These studies demonstrate that the presence of negatively-charged carboxyl groups in the cross-300 linkers remains essential to induce AuNPs aggregation through ion pair interactions between amino groups present in cysteines and carboxyl groups in the cross-linkers [4m, 23]. On 301 302 comparison of the dopamine- and cysteine-based methods it was evident that functional groups present on the surface also plays a key role in metal detection. 303

305

4.1. Recognition of chiral molecules

306 Stereochemistry plays a central role in molecular recognition and interactions. Indeed, the 307 molecule's chemical and biological properties depends not only on the nature of their constituent atoms, but also on their position in space ^[32b]. Currently, chiral molecules are mostly separated 308 with techniques like capillary electrophoresis, high-performance liquid and gas chromatography. 309 310 Nanoparticles allow for the easy detection of chiral molecules by the naked eye. For instance, 311 the color of the AuNPs solution changes from red to blue in the presence of D-tryptophan (LOD of 0.1 µM and LDR of 0.2–10 µM), but not of L-tryptophan ^[4y]. Interestingly, AuNPs can 312 selectively adsorb D-tryptophan, and therefore, L-tryptophan molecules can easily be separated 313 by simple centrifugation of the tryptophan/AuNP solution ^[4y]. The infrared spectra confirms the 314 D-tryptophan absorption to AuNPs by disappearance of the NH (NH³⁺) stretching absorption 315 peaks (3078 and 3038 cm⁻¹), leaving the carboxylic group (-COOH) and nitrogen atom of the 316 indole ring free for further coordination. This distinctive feature allows for binding of one Cu²⁺ 317 ion to two tryptophan molecules by coordination with the COOH and nitrogen atom of the indole 318 ring, hence allowing for recognition ^[4y]. Another reported visual differentiation is between the 319 D- and L-forms of mandelic acid (MA) was based on their chirality towards 13 nm l-tartaric 320 321 acid-capped AuNPs. The L-MA solution changes the red colour of 1-TA-capped AuNPs to a bare-eye observable blue, while d-MA does not trigger any color changes ^[33]. The AgNPs 322 capped with a novel chiral R-mandelic acid-derived calix[4]arene (R-MAC4), for it good optical 323 324 and structural properties. These self-assembled NPs were used to recognize the N-Fmoc-d/laspartic acid (d/l-FAA)^[34]. 325

326

327

4.2. Detection of macromolecules

Nanoparticles can be easily modified by replacing surface-adsorbed weak ligands (e.g., negatively charged citrate ions) with thiolated macromolecules that are difficult to displace due to their strong binding to the surface.

Xue and co-workers described citrate-AuNP-based assays for trypsin and arginine residues screening (Fig. 8). The aggregation of negatively charged citrate-capped AuNPs in the presence of a peptide composed of six arginine residues (Arg₆) occurred mainly through electrostatic interactions, and led to a red-shift of the usual SPR profile ^[35]. However, when the Arg₆ peptide was hydrolyzed into fragments upon trypsin addition in the solution, the electrostatic interactions between AuNPs and arginine residues were weakened and, therefore,neither AuNPs aggregation nor SPR shift was observed.

338

339

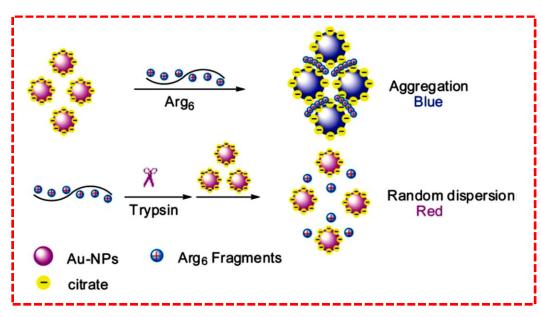


Fig. 7. Colorimetric assay for trypsin by using AuNP crosslinking/aggregation based on trypsin catalyzed hydrolysis of Arg₆ for random dispersion of citrate capped AuNPs. Reproduced with
 permission from ^[35].

Moreover, Arg₆ hydrolysis catalyzed by trypsin is retarded if trypsin inhibitors are present in the 344 solution. This feature was used to develop a label-free assay for trypsin (LOD: 1.6 ng ml⁻¹) and 345 Arg₆ residues screening with AuNPs^[35]. Similarly, interaction of citrate-AuNPs with fibrinogen 346 to form fibrinogen-AuNPs through electrostatic and hydrophobic interactions was used for the 347 detection of thrombin (LOD: 0.04 pM and LDR: 0.1–10 pM; $R^2 = 0.96$) ^[71]. Although the 348 mechanism of detection was the same, the molecular interactions was different. Indeed, 349 fibrinogen was adsorbed on NPs before the addition of thrombin ^[71]. Conversely, trypsin interacts 350 with Arg₆ before the NPs addition into the system ^[35]. Detection of thrombin has been improved 351 by the use of catalytic enlargement as shown in Fig. 9. ^[5a]. 352

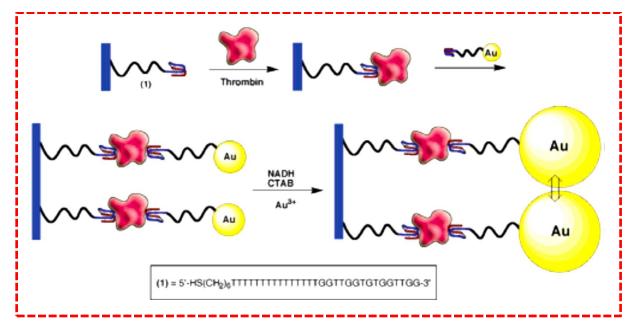


Fig. 8. Amplified thrombin detection on surfaces by catalytic enlargement of thrombin-aptamerfunctionalized Au-NPs ^[5a]. As the concentration of thrombin increases, the surface loading of bound thrombin is higher, resulting in a number of Au NP seeds for enlargement.

353

Specifically, upon aptamer-AuNPs reaction with thrombin, AuNPs aggregate. But in the presence of other proteins (200 nM BSA or human IgG antibodies), the aptamer-AuNPs does not precipitate implying that the precipitation originates from the specific interaction between aptamer and thrombin (LOD: 20 nM) ^[5a].

361 Similarly, Chen's group evaluated the possibility of using mannopyranoside-encapsulated AuNPs/concanavalin (Man-AuNPs/Con A) complexes for a competitive colorimetric assay for 362 ten proteins. However, only thyroglobulin, bandeiraea simplicifolia lectin I (BS-I), soybean 363 agglutinin (SBA) and maackia amurensis (MAL) significantly modified the absorption spectrum 364 of Man-AuNPs/Con A complexes ^[5b]. In contrast to the method proposed by Xue et al. ^[35], 365 the introduction of thrombin in the fibrin-AuNP solutions, catalyzes the 366 where upon polymerization of the free and conjugated fibrinogen species to form insoluble fibrillar fibrin-367 AuNP agglutinates ^[71]. Finally, Guarise *et al.* exploited the fact that, compared with the native 368 peptide substrates, protease-cleaved peptides do not induce NPs aggregation (and thus the color 369 of the solution does not change) to detect two proteases (thrombin and lethal factor)^[36]. 370

Quercetin-AuNPs have been used as a colorimetric probe for the detection of amino acids, such as arginine (Arg), histidine (His) and lysine (Lys). Indeed, quercetin-AuNPs aggregation caused by amino acids leads to a color change from red to blue ^[30]. In optimal conditions, a linear relationship exists between the absorption ratios at different wavelengths (A_{702}/A_{525} for Arg, A_{693}/A_{525} for His, and A_{745}/A_{525} nm for Lys) and the concentration ranges (from 1.25 to 2.50 μ M for Arg; from 1 to 1,00 μ M for His and Lys), with LOD values of 0.04, 0.03, and 0.02 μ M, respectively, at pH 5.0 ^[30]. Siddhartha and Debabrata reported that protein estimation is within a LOD of 10-80 μ g mL⁻¹ using unmodified AgNPs ^[5h].

Lately, the sequence-length-dependent adsorption of ssDNA on AuNPs has been 379 investigated for colorimetric nuclease assays and measurement of oxidative DNA damage ^[6g]. 380 Based on ssDNA adsorption rate on citrate-AuNPs, it can be hypothesized that incubation with 381 AuNPs for a specific period of time can lead to differential adsorption of short and long ssDNA. 382 Consequently, the stability of the ssDNA-AuNPs complex in the presence of salt could be 383 influenced by the ssDNA length ^[6g]. The confirmation of this hypothesis led to the development 384 of colorimetric assays taking advantage of ssDNA length to improve adsorption. For example, 385 when ssDNA is cleaved by the S1 nuclease or -OH radicals in small fragments, these shorter 386 ssDNA can be rapidly adsorbed on AuNPs and significantly enhance the negative charge density 387 on each AuNP surface for the same time of incubation (Fig. 9). 388

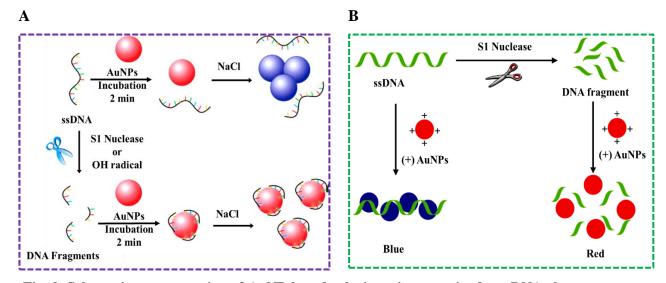


Fig. 9. Schematic representation of AuNP-based colorimetric strategies for ssDNA cleavage assays.
 (a) Salt-induced NP aggregation before and after ssDNA cleavage by the S1 nuclease or OH radicals. Reproduced with permission from ^[6g]. (b) Nuclease activity assay using positively charged AuNPs and polyanionic ssDNA ((+)AuNPs). Reproduced with permission from ^[7n].

Basically, charging the NPs surface increases the electrostatic repulsion between the ssDNA-AuNPs complexes enough to inhibit NP aggregation at the same salt concentration, and the solution color does not change. Thus, DNA cleavage can be directly visualized by naked eye ^[6g].

397 Charge interaction between positively charged AuNPs and polyanionic ssDNA leads to AuNPs aggregation that can be monitored by the color change from red to blue (Fig. 9)^[7n]. However, in 398 399 the presence of the S1 nuclease, the ssDNA substrate is cleaved into small fragments, and the AuNPs solution remains red. Thus, the nuclease activity can be easily monitored by naked eye or 400 401 with a simple colorimetric reader ^[7n]. In this case, the exocyclic amino group of nucleotides is the main cause of nucleotide-dependent aggregation because cysteamine-capped AuNPs are 402 403 positively-charged at pH 3.6 (with a pKa of 10.75), leading to efficient electrostatic interactions with the negatively charged DNA. These results complement each other because during S1 404 enzymatic activity, ssDNA is degraded into smaller fragments that cannot induce aggregation ^{[6g,} 405 7n] 406

Additionally, the non-crosslinking AuNPs aggregation induced by the loss of surface charges 407 also is exploited for enzymatic activity testing and screening for potential inhibitors ^[7a]. This 408 approach has been extended to the serotype I-specific detection of dengue virus DNA. In the 409 absence of the DNA target solution, peptide nucleic acids (PNA) induce AuNPs aggregation with 410 a red-to-purple color change and the appearance of a second absorbance peak at 650 nm due to 411 the AuNPs surface coating by PNA ^[37]. Likewise, sialic acid-reduced and -stabilized AuNPs (d= 412 20.17 ± 1.8 nm) can be used for the colorimetric detection of influenza viruses ^[10]. The 413 discrimination of such molecules can also be standardized using chemometric techniques 414 including hierarchical cluster analysis and principal component analysis. This approach was used 415 416 to accurately classified and measure the array response of cysteine, gluthatione, glutathione [38] disulfide interferences misclassification and without 417 any

418 **5.** DNA-functionalized nanoparticles (aptasensors)

419 This is the most fascinating area of NP-based colorimetric assays. Much attention has 420 been focused on aptamers (i.e., ssDNAs and oligopeptides with high binding affinity and selectivity for target molecules) as powerful biological macromolecules (Table 3). Particularly, 421 422 the aptamer advantages compared with antibodies, such as possibility of chemical synthesis and modification and lower immunogenic response, contribute to their potential ^[4j]. They are 423 424 generally selected in vitro by using the systematic evolution of ligands by exponential enrichment (SELEX) technique and random-sequence nucleic acid libraries ^[4j, 4l, 4p, 4v, 4x, 39]. This 425 allows selecting, the highest binding aptamer(s). Then, aptamers can be capped with thiol groups 426 that bind to two AuNPs ^[6c, 9, 18]. The principle of colorimetric sensing based on aptamers to 427 detect specific DNA sequences was introduced about a decade ago and is now a key tool in 428 biodiagnostics ^[9, 18]. Since then, other aptamer-based sensors have been developed for the 429 detection of metal ions, small molecules ^[4d, 4e] and proteins ^[5c, 5g, 7d]. 430

431

Nanoparticle	Analyte/Target	Functionalization	Analytical	Analytical	Ref.
(size)			application	performance	
AuNPs (13 nm)	DNA3	DNA1-AuNPs	Complementary DNA	NR	[16]
and AgNPs	complementary DNA	DNA2-AgNPs	recognition		
(10 -20 nm)					
Monodisperse					
AuNPs	Maltose > mannose >	Carbohydrates-	carbohydrate-lectin	NR	[26]
(12.33 nm)	glucose > lactose >	AuNPs	interactions		
Monodisperse	MAN5.				
AuNPs	Lysozyme	HSA-AuNPs	Colorimetric detection	LOD: 50 nM.	[7f]
(13-nm)					
Monodisperse					
AgNPs	Globular proteins	AgNPs	Concentration-dependent	LOD: 10 to 80 µg	[5h]
(10-15 nm)	(BSA and IgG)		particle agglutination	mL ⁻¹	
Monodisperse					
AuNPs and	Specific DNA	AuNPs and AgNPs	Detection of DNA through	LOD: DNA/PNA	[6a]
AgNPs	sequence		nucleic acids (PNA)	ratio of 0.05	
Monodisperse			hybridization		
AuNPs	Con A	p-Aminophenyl-D-	Carbohydrate-lectin system	LOD: 9.0 nM (R ²	[25]
(50 nm)		mannose- AuNPs		= 0.983)	
Multidisperse				LDR: 10-100 nM	
AuNPs	PDGFs and PDGFR	Apt-AuNPs	Protein analysis and cancer	-2.5-10 and 10-20	[5c]
Multidisperse			diagnosis	nM, respectively,	
				for 0.42 nM Apt-	

432 Table 3: DNA/protein sensing based on AuNP aggregation

				AuNPs	
				-25-75 and 75-200	
				nM,	
				respectively, for	
				8.4 nM Apt-	
				AuNPs.	
AuNPs	Con A binding	Mannopyranoside-	Competitive colorimetric assay	NR	[5b]
(32 nm)	partners	encapsulated	for ConA binding partners		
Monodisperse		gold nanoparticles	through protein-protein		
		(Man-AuNPs)	interactions		
AuNPs	24-bp polynucleotide	AuNPs capped with	Hybridization of the target with		[6c]
(13 nm)	target	3¢- and 5¢	the probes		
Monodisperse		(alkanethiol)			
		oligonucleotides			
AuNPs (20 nm)	H ₂ N-Cys-Tyr(PO ₃ ²⁻)-	AuNPs	Sensing phosphatase activity of	54: 3.4 uM of	[40]
Monodisperse	Arg-OH		alkaline phosphatase	peptide : alkaline	
				phosphate	
AuNPs (15 nm)	Bla molecules	AuNPs	β-Lactamase activity	60 pM	[41]
Monodisperse			Identification of Bla molecules		
			and screening for Bla inhibitors		
AgNPs (31 nm)	AgNP-oligonucleotide	DNA-AgNPs	Hybridization of two	NR	[17a]
Multidisperse	conjugates		complementary DNA-AgNPs		
AuNPs (13 nm)	Single-stranded DNA	AuNPs	Enzymatic cleavage	NR	[6g]
Monodisperse	cleavage		and oxidative damage of		
			single-stranded DNA		
AuNPs	HIV-1 ribonuclease H	AuNPs	Colorimetric detection of HIV-	27 units mL ⁻¹	[70]
(14 nm)			1 ribonuclease H activity by		
Monodisperse			AuNPs		
AuNPs (13 nm)	Tyrosin	AuNPs	Crosslinking/	1.6 ng mL ⁻¹	[35]
Monodisperse			aggregation of Au-NPs based		
			on trypsin-catalyzed hydrolysis		
			of Arg6		
AuNPs	Methyltransferase	DNA-AuNPs	Colorimetric assay	NR	[7k]
Monodisperse	activity		for endonuclease/		
			methyltransferase activity and		
			inhibition		
AuNPs (13 nm)		DNA-modified	Enzymatic cleavage of nucleic	0.5 units mL ⁻¹	[7i]
Monodisperse		AuNPs	acids, colorimetric biosensors		
AuNPs (13 nm)	Thrombin	Aptamer-AuNPs	Colorimetric assay based on the	LDR: 0 to 167 nM	[5g]
Monodisperse			aptamer folding and unfolding	LOD: 0.83 nM	
AuNPs (20 nm)	Thrombin	AuNPs	G-quadruplex structure folding	LOD: 10 nM	[3f]
Monodisperse	Thomon		S quadrapies structure rotaling	LOD. 10 mm	
AuNPs	Triplex DNA binders:	Antamar AnNDa	Screening triplex DNA binders	NR	[42]
	-	Aptamer-AuNPs	Screening upper DINA binders	INK	· · - 1
(NR)	BePI or CORA				

Thrombin	Fibrinogen-AuNPs	Colorimetric assay for blood	LOD: 0.04 pM	[71]
	(56 nm)	plasma	LDR: 0.1 to 10 pM	
		-	_	
CIAP and PKA	AgNPs	Adenosine phosphorylation	LOD: CIAP: 1.0	[7h]
	-	and dephosphorylation	unit mL ⁻¹	
			PKA: 0.022	
			unit mL ⁻¹	
staphylococcal	AuNPs	Colorimetric assay based on	LDR: 10 to 50 ng	[4p]
enterotoxin B		aggregation in the absence of	mL ⁻¹	
		the aptamer	LOD: 10 ng mL ⁻¹	
Aminopeptidase N	Gold nano-	Activity based on	AR: 20 to 50 U L ⁻¹	[43]
	composites	inhibition of the disassembly of		
	conjugated with a	-		
		1		
	*			
0 1			LOD	[44]
1 0	•			[44]
glucosidase	Glc-Lip-AuNPs	screening	-	
			·	
			-	
ADA	AuNPs	-	LOD: 0.8227 U L ⁻¹	[8]
		aggregation		
Endonuclease	DNA-AuNPs with	Endonuclease activity and	NR	[7e]
	duplex	inhibition		
	interconnection			
Biotin (biotinylation)	Peptide-AuNPs and	Kinase-catalyzed substrate	NR	[7d]
	avidin-AuNPs	biotinylation		
Protein kinase A,	AuNPs	Kinase activity based on	NR	[7g]
Acetylcholinesterase	Citrate-AuNPs		0.6 mU mL ⁻¹	[45]
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·				
		Con A induced aggregation	Mannose - AuNPs	[2]
Con A	Mannose AuNPs	88 8	mainose marti s	
Con A	Mannose AuNPs Mannose-AgNPs		LOD: 0.04 µM	
Con A				
Con A			LOD: 0.04 µM	
Con A			LOD: 0.04 µM LDR: 0.04-0.10 µM	
Con A			LOD: 0.04 µM LDR: 0.04-0.10 µM Mannose-AgNPs:	
Con A			LOD: 0.04 µM LDR: 0.04-0.10 µM	
	CIAP and PKA staphylococcal enterotoxin B Aminopeptidase N β-galactosidase and β- glucosidase ADA Endonuclease Biotin (biotinylation)	CIAP and PKA(56 nm)Staphylococcal enterotoxin BAuNPsAminopeptidase NGold nano- composites conjugated with a thermo-responsive copolymerβ-galactosidase and β- glucosidaseGal-Lip-AuNPs and Glc-Lip-AuNPsADAAuNPsADAJNA-AuNPs with duplex interconnectionBiotin (biotinylation)Peptide-AuNPs and avidin-AuNPsProtein kinase A,AuNPs	(56 nm)plasmaCIAP and PKAAgNPsAdenosine phosphorylation and dephosphorylationstaphylococcalAuNPsColorimetric assay based on aggregation in the absence of the aptamerAminopeptidase NGold nano- composites conjugated with a thermo-responsive copolymerActivity based on inhibition of the disassembly of Gold nano-compositesβ-galactosidase and β- glucosidaseGal-Lip-AuNPs and Gle-Lip-AuNPsGlycosidase inhibitor screeningADAAuNPsNucleotide-dependent aggregationEndonucleaseDNA-AuNPs with duplex interconnectionEndonuclease activity and inhibitionBiotin (biotinylation)Peptide-AuNPs and avidin-AuNPsKinase-catalyzed substrate biotinylationProtein kinase A,AuNPsKinase activity based on the coagulating ability of a cationic substrate peptide and its phosphorylation	(56 nm)plasmaLDR: 0.1 to 10 pMCIAP and PKAAgNPsAdenosine phosphorylation and dephosphorylation and dephosphorylationLOD: CIAP: 1.0 unit mL.1 PKA: 0.022 unit mL.1staphylococcal enterotoxin BAuNPsColorimetric assay based on aggregation in the absence of the aptamerLDR: 10 to 0 ng mL.1 LOD : 10 ng mL.1Aminopeptidase N composites conjugated with a thermo-responsive copolymerGold nano- composites (Gold nano-composites)AR: 20 to 50 U L-1 (DD : 10 ng mL.1)β-galactosidase and β- glucosidaseGal-Lip-AuNPs and Glc-Lip-AuNPsGlycosidase inhibitor screeningLODs: β- galactosidase 2.2.3 nM at 20'CADAAuNPsNucleotide-dependent aggregationLOD: 0.8227 U L.1 aggregationEndonucleaseDNA-AuNPs with duplex interconnectionEndonuclease activity and inhibitionNRBiotin (biotinylation)Peptide-AuNPs and avidin-AuNPsKinase-catalyzed substrate biotinylationNRProtein kinase A, ActetylcholinesteraseAuNPsKinase activity based on the coagulating ability of a cationic substrate peptide and its posphorylationNR

AuNPs (15 nm)	Kaposi's sarcoma	Oligonunucleotides-	Aggregation reaction with	LOD: 1 nM	[15]
AgNPs (20 nm)	associated herpesvirus	AuNPs	multi-color changes		
Monodisperse	and Bartonella DNA	Oligonunucleotides-			
		AgNPs			
AgNPs	BSA and	AgNPs	Nanoparticle agglutination	LOD: 10 -80 µg	[5h]
(10-15 nm)	immunoglobulins			mL ⁻¹	
Multidisperse					
AuNPs (21 nm)	polyA, polyC, polyU,	AuNPs	Aggregation due to self-	LOD: Protein ~100	[5i]
Monodisperse	polyI, BSA, lysozyme,	Aurvis	assembly (discrimination and	pM	
Wohodisperse	dsDNA,ssDNA		detection)	pw	
	usdina,ssdina		detection)	TT 1 1 (1	
				Homopolynuclotid	
				e ~10 pM	
AuNPs (13.2 nm)	Dengue virus	AuNPs	PNA/DNA hybridization	LOD: 0.12 µM	[37]
Monodisperse					
AuNPs (~13 nm)	ssDNA and dsDNA	AuNPs	DNA sequences based on	AR: 100 fmol	[6e]
Monodisperse			electrostatic interactions		
AuNPs (13 nm)	Abrin	Catalytic AuNPs	Peroxidase-like activity	LDR: 0.2 to 17.5	[46]
Monodisperse				nM	
				LOD: 0.05 nM	
AuNPs (13 nm)	Lipase	Tween 20-GNPs	Enzyme-regulated AuNP	LOD: 0.028 mg	[7p]
Monodisperse			aggregation	mL ⁻¹	
				LDR: 0.15 to 1.80	
				mg mL ⁻¹	
AuNPs (50 nm)	Native proteins	DNA-AuNPs	50% human urine	Cluster analysis	[5j]
Multidisperse					

NR: Not Reported; CIAP: Calf Intestine Alkaline Phosphatase; HSA-AuNPs : Human serum albumin-modified gold
nanoparticles, PKA: Protein Kinase A; SEB: Staphylococcal enterotoxin B; LOD: Limit of detection; AR: Activity Range;
PDGFs : Platelet-derived growth factors; PDGFR : platelet- derived growth factor receptors,, Con A: Concanavalin A; ManAuNPs: Mannopyranoside- encapsulated gold nanoparticles; Gal: β-galactosidase and Glc: β-glucosidase; ADA: Adenosine
Deaminase; AChE: Acetylcholinesterase, KSHV: Kaposi's sarcoma associated herpesvirus; BePI: benzo[e]pyridoindole; CORA:
coralyne, BSA: Bovine serum albumin: PNA: peptide nucleic acid; LDR: linear dynamic range; LOD: limit of detection.

439

The development of DNA-aptamer-based colorimetric assays by Mirkin's group was inspired by the fact that the steps necessary for NPs+ modification with ligands can be tedious or timeconsuming and relatively expensive^[6c, 18, 47]. NPs stabilized by ssDNA aptamers do not aggregate with the addition of salt only ^[3e, 4c]. Conversely, in the presence of the target/analyte, the aptamer is folded because it binds to the target while desorbing from the NPs surface, which leads to NPs aggregation and colorimetric changes. Ideally, folded aptamers or dsDNAs should hardly adsorb onto the NPs. This is related to the higher structure rigidity and high proton density inside

dsDNA ^[3e, 4g, 4x, 6e]. Indeed, ssDNAs cannot hybridize with each other to form dsDNAs. Thus, 447 their strategy is based on the observation that unmodified AuNPs and AgNPs can differentiate 448 between ssDNA and dsDNA, mainly due to the higher structure rigidity of the latter ^[3e, 4n, 6e]. 449 However, not only the strands but also their lengths contribute to NP stabilization. For instance, 450 451 Chen and co-workers tested ssDNAs of different length (18nt: 5' TAG AAT ACT CCC CCAGGT 3'); 24nt: 5' GGT TGG TCA GAT TCA GTG GGT TAG 3', and 30nt: 5' AAA CCC 452 453 CCC TGC TAAAAC CCC AAA CCC 3') for AuNP stabilization and consequently for detection 454 and sensitivity. They found that the longer ssDNAs have a better stabilization effect because at the same molar concentration, longer ssDNAs have more monomeric deoxynucleotide units. 455 Moreover, it is difficult for cysteine to replace highly stable DNA-protected AuNPs ^[4e]. DNA 456 bases possess higher affinity towards gold than silver via coordination between Au and nitrogen 457 atoms (thus favoring DNA adsorption). However, the negatively charged surfaces of AuNPs 458 electrostatically repel DNA phosphate backbones (reducing DNA adsorption) ^[3e]. The key 459 challenge to their successful application is in transforming the aptamer-binding events into 460 physically detectable signals ^[4c]. 461

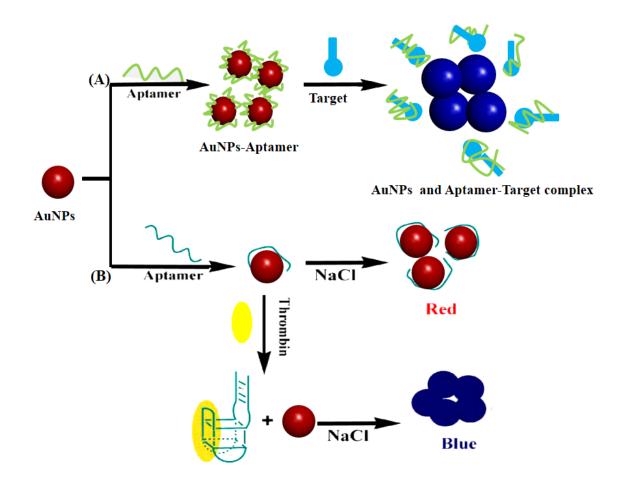
The development of the nanotechnology for NPs functionalization with DNA and the biotechnology for the *in vitro* selection of target-specific nucleic acids offer a unique opportunity for designing colorimetric biosensors ^[7c, 17a]. The four types of DNA aptamer-based colorimetric approaches are highlighted below:

466

5.1. TYPE I: Aptamers adsorbed on nanoparticles

Type I aptasensors includes two common steps: i) adsorption of the DNA unit onto the 467 NPs surface and ii) recognition of the target molecule by the DNA strands while serving as an 468 optical sensing element. DNA adsorption on NPs surface is favored by the high charge density 469 and stability provided by the aptamer ^[4f] (Fig. 10). This is a crucial step because the selectivity of 470 471 the targeting molecule must be retained during adsorption onto NPs, especially when the aptamer is designed for qualitative assays ^[4f]. The aptamer conjugation constant is stronger than that of 472 antibodies and that of non-specific adsorption between aptamer and NPs ^[4q]. With these 473 conditions in mind, Xu and co-workers used unmodified DNA and AgNPs to detect ligands 474 475 binding to homoadenine, by monitoring the color change from yellow to brown due to AgNP aggregation after salt addition. When coralyne binds to the homoadenine sequence in the 476 aptamer, the aptamer is removed from the AgNP surface and AgNP can aggregate ^[4f]. The 477

478 A₅₅₀/A₃₉₇ ratio shows a good linear correlation with coralyne concentrations between 0.0 and 10 479 mM with a LOD of 0.3 mM ^[4f]. Using a similar strategy, DNA-AuNPs/AgNPs were used to 480 detect several targets, such as bisphenol A (LOD: 0.1 ng mL⁻¹ ^[4q] and LOD: 0.01 pg mL⁻¹ ^[4ab]), 481 digoxin (LOD: 571 pM) ^[4aa], oxytetracycline (OTC) (LOD: 25 nM) ^[4g], thrombin, (LOD: 0.83 482 nM) ^[5g], kanamycin (LOD: 25 nM) ^[4j], OTC (LOD: 0.1 nM), ampicillin (LOD: 5 ng mL⁻¹) ^[41], 483 staphylococcal enterotoxin B (LOD: 10 ng ml⁻¹) ^[4p], and pyruvic acid (LOD: 3.0 μ M) ^[4w].



484

Fig. 10. Schematic representation of Type I colorimetric aptasensors for detection (A) small ^[4q, 4aa]
 and (b) large molecular targets ^[5g]

It is acknowledged that for many type I aptamers, addition of the target/ligand induces the aptamer release from the NP surface and consequently the color change as the salt tolerance decreased by NPs ^[4f, 4q, 4aa, 48]. Two groups reported an intriguing observation using a similar approach ^[4c, 49]. When aptamers are added to NPs, their interaction via hybridization leads to NP aggregation and consequently to the color change from red to blue. Addition of the target molecule (e.g., adenosine) to the aptamer-NP solution induces a dramatic conformational change 494 of the aptamer structure that leads to the dissociation of the NP network and to a new color 495 change (blue to red) $^{[4c, 49]}$.

AuNPs have also been used by Dong's group ^[5g] to understand the conformational 496 changes of thrombin-binding aptamers (TBA) when they are removed from the AuNP colloidal 497 solution in the presence or not of thrombin. Addition of 100 mL of 0.5 M NaCl causes a quick 498 color change (red to purple) in the solution with thrombin, but not in that with only TBA.. Due to 499 500 the color change, the TBA conformation modification from unfolded to G-quadruplex/duplex formation could be directly monitored by naked eye, thus allowing the easy detection of 501 thrombin ^[5g]. Likewise, the addition of enough salt could be used to inhibit the repulsion 502 503 between unmodified negatively charged AuNPs and result in their aggregation and in the 504 corresponding red-to-blue color change. As previously reported, there is stronger coordination interaction between the nitrogen atoms of unfolded ssDNA and AuNPs than electrostatic 505 repulsion between the negatively charged phosphate backbone and the negatively charged 506 AuNPs ^[5g]. Conversely, the relatively rigid structure of dsDNA or folded ssDNA (e.g., G-507 quadruplexes) prevents the exposure of the DNA bases to AuNPs and the high density of 508 509 negative charges increases the repulsion between DNA and AuNPs. However aggregation of DNA-functionalized AuNPs can be induced also by hybridization of target DNA that does not 510 511 cross-link the NPs. A conceivable disadvantage of this non-crosslinking system, compared with the crosslinking system, is the consumption of target DNA^[48]. 512

Recently, a viable approach to overcome the limitations of type I aptamers due to the DNA length was reported. Briefly, the design of shortened aptamers is mainly based on selecting nucleotide bases characterized by high homogeneity in accordance with their conserved regions $^{[4l, 4v]}$. Shortened aptamers that contain common regions have approximately the same binding affinity as the original. For instance, based on the conserved sequences with high homogeneity of the original five 76-mer aptamers, A1 and A2 (8-mer sequences) were successfully obtained and still exhibited high affinity and specificity for tetracycline (TC) $^{[4v]}$ (Fig. 11).

520

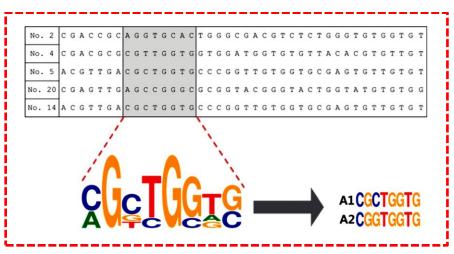


Fig. 11: Truncation process after analysis of the sequences of the original five 76-mer aptamers that bind to oxytetracycline, 20 to 8 mer ^[4v].

525 Although only the original stacking pocket and six additional specific bases are present in A1 and A2, they display higher binding affinity (Kd 1.067 nM for TC). The LOD of A2 for 526 527 oxytetracycline (OTC) was0.1 nM, which is about 500-fold better than that of the original 76mer aptamer, and the color change can be detected in the presence of 10 nM OTC ^[4v]. Similarly, 528 based on their common sequence and predicted structure, Changill Ban's group ^[41] shortened 529 three 90-mer ssDNA aptamers that specifically bind to ampicillin to obtain AMP4 (21-mer 5'-530 CACGGCATGGTGGGCGTCGTG-3'), AMP17 (19-mer 5'-GCGGGCGGTTGTATAGCGG-531 3'), and AMP18 (21-mer 5' TTAGTTGGGGTTCAGTTGG-3') [41]. Comparison of AMP17, 532 AMP4 and AMP18 (at concentrations of 100 mM, 150 mM, and 200 mM, respectively) showed 533 that ampicillin can be detected at concentrations as low as 5 ng mL⁻¹ using the AuNP-based dual 534 fluorescence–colorimetric method and in a milk sample at 10 ng mL^{-1 [4]}. 535

536 537

521

Thus, the results by Song *et al.* ^[4v] and Kwon *et al.* ^[41] illustrate and confirm that using aptamers
harboring only the binding site/active site sequence can further improve their selective features.

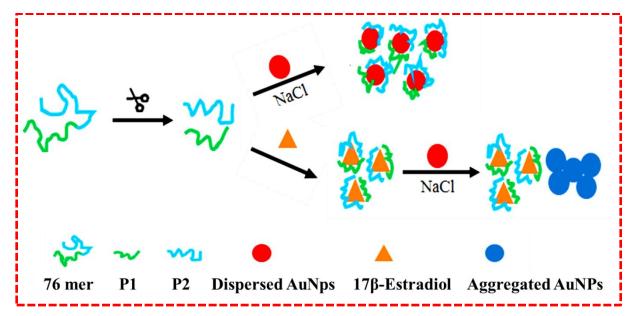
Importantly, the target must not react or crosslink with NPs. Moreover, the ratio between NPs and aptamer could affect the final sensitivity. Too many aptamers in the sensing system reduce the sensitivity, while too few decrease the stability of the sensing systems ^[4q]. One of the primary challenges of Type I approaches relies on the different binding affinities of ssDNA and dsDNA towards unmodified NPs. However, the important feature is that negatively charged ssDNA sequences can effectively stabilize NPs against salt-induced aggregation, providing a
convenient route for colorimetric assays without NP surface biomodification.

- 547
- 548

5.2. TYPE II: Aptamer-target adsorbed on nanoparticles

Type II aptamers also include two common steps: (i) aptamer linkage to the target 549 550 molecule to form a complex, and (ii) aptamer-target complex adsorption to the NP surface. With 551 Type II approaches, it is always wise to check the interaction of the pure aptamer with NPs (Type I) because the system may follow a similar mechanism ^[4c, 50]. Ideally, aptamer adsorption 552 onto the NP surface should not lead to NP aggregation (and thus color change) after addition of 553 554 high salt concentration. In the presence of the target, the aptamers should bind in competition 555 with AuNPs, resulting in a color change in the presence of salts. A typical Type II system has been used by Chen et al. for sulfadimethoxine (SDM) detection using unmodified AuNPs. In 556 optimal conditions (pH 8, 0.2 mM of aptamer and 2 M of salt), the LDR was 50 ng mL⁻¹ to 1 mg 557 mL⁻¹ and the LOD was 50 ng mL^{-1 [4n]}. 558

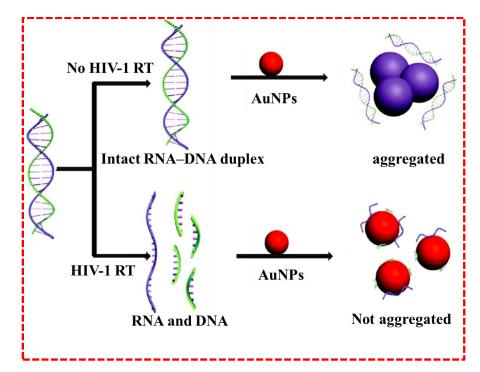
559 Upon addition of SDM, the conformation of the SDM-binding aptamer changes from a random 560 coil structure to a more folded rigid structure that promotes the detachment of the adsorbed 561 aptamers from AuNPs and results in the subsequent AuNP aggregation after salt addition (Fig. 562 15). This leads to a color change from red to purple-blue that can be easily observed by naked 563 eye ^[4n]. Recently, Liu *et al.* assessed whether aptamer truncation could improve the sensitivity 564 also in Type II aptamers ^[4x] (Fig. 1).



566

Fig. 12. Schematic illustration of an AuNP-based colorimetric aptasensor to detect 17β-estradiol
 using split aptamers. Reproduced from ^[4x]. Split aptamers binds irreversibly to the target analyte

570 Briefly, the long (76-mer) aptamer specific for 17β -estradiol was split in two shorter sequences (P1 and P2) that still retain the original aptamer affinity and specificity, but with 10-fold higher 571 LODs. Indeed, 17 β -estradiol could be detected with a LDR from 0.1 ng mL⁻¹ to 105 ng mL⁻¹ [4x]. 572 The authors hypothesized that this increased sensitivity is caused by the lower aptamer 573 adsorption concentration and lower affinity for AuNPs of the shorter ssDNA sequences ^[4v, 4x]. 574 Likewise, Xie et al. developed an assay in which incubation of a RNA-DNA duplex with the 575 576 HIV-1 reverse transcriptase (RT) leads to the production of ssDNAs and ssRNAs that can form a charged protecting layer on the AuNPs surface and consequently, to NP stabilization at a 577 precisely defined salt concentration (Fig. 17). In the absence of RT, the selected RNA-DNA 578 duplex remains intact, and the unprotected AuNPs aggregate in the presence of salt with a 579 concomitant change in color^[70]. 580



582

Fig. 13. Schematic of the approach by Xie *et al.* A synthetic RNA–DNA duplex substrate is first
 incubated or not with HIV-1 RT. HIV-1 RT should cleave the RNA into fragments, resulting in the
 dissociation of ssDNA and ssRNA probes at room temperature (≈ 28 °C). Reproduced with
 permission from ^[70]. GNPs, AuNPs.

Wang *et. al* ^[3e] used K⁺ as a target because it stabilizes ssDNA, thus facilitating the formation of 588 589 G-tetrads within 4 min. AuNPs incubated with G-tetrads changes color (red-to-purple) like unmodified AuNPs, suggesting that the G-tetrad structure is not significantly adsorbed onto 590 AuNPs ^[3e]. The presented assay, which uses C-rich (5'-CCTCCTTCTTCC ACCCACC-3') 591 592 oligonucleotide aptamers, cationic polymers and AuNPs, provides a platform for the detection of other ions and molecules ^[3g] (Fig. 18). For instance, in the presence of Ag+, the two 593 oligonucleotide form a tightly bound complex with a C-Ag⁺-C notation and change 594 conformation, from a random coil to a hairpin structure with a stronger π - π * transition of the 595 596 bases with deoxyribose. The resulting C-Ag⁺-C complex poorly interacts with a cationic polymer known as Poly (diallyldimethylammonium chloride) (PDDA) and subsequently the polymer 597 aggregates AuNPs through electrostatic interactions, with a color change from wine red to blue 598 ^[3g]. In the absence of Ag⁺, the positively charged polymer can electrostatically interact with 599 ssDNA and destroy the charge balance, leading to induction of AuNP aggregation (LOD of 48.6 600 nM and LDR from 100 to 1000 nM for Ag⁺). Together, the results by Wang et al. ^[3e, 3g] are in 601

agreement with the hypothesis that unstructured DNA oligonucleotides strongly adsorb onto theNP surface and prevent salt-induced NP aggregation.

604

606



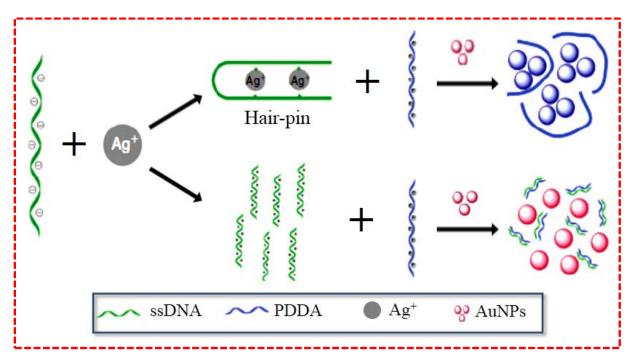


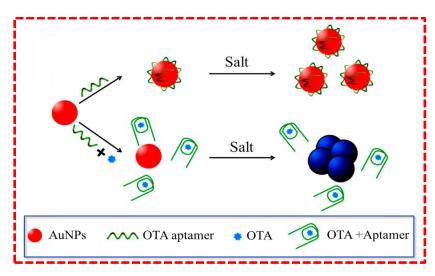
Fig. 14. Schematic description of the colorimetric lead biosensor for Ag⁺ detection based on AuNP
 aggregation induced by PDDA and Ag⁺ aptamers ^[3g].

Recently, Zhang *et al.* ^[7p] demonstrated that AuNPs possess peroxidase-like activity that can catalyze 3, 3, 5, 5-tetramethylbenzidine (TMB) in the presence of H_2O_2 . AuNP peroxidase-like activity can be improved by surface activation with target-specific aptamers. However, by increasing the concentration of abrin (i.e., the target), AuNP peroxidase-like activity decreases and the aptamer is desorbed from the AuNP surface, resulting in a decrease of AuNP catalytic activity. The LDR for the current analytical system ranges from 0.2 nM to 17.5 nM with LOD of 0.05 nM ^[7p].

617 Comparison of Type I and Type II systems shows that aptamer-NP complexes are preferentially 618 formed in Type I and aptamer-target complexes in type II systems. It is reasonable to expect less 619 sensitivity from Type I systems because the colorimetric changes are related to the aptamer 620 detachment from the NP surface. The amount of aptamer removed will depend on the amount of 621 target. On the other hand, Type II systems are limited by the fact that the aptamer is expected to 622 retain its adsorption properties after complexation with the target. This suggests that if it is folded during target binding, it should be flexible enough to facilitate colorimetric changes.
Overall it all depends on the aptamer capability because we would prefer induced aggregation in
the absence of the aptamer.

5.3. **TYPE III:** Competition in "One-pot detection systems"

Type III approaches are an intermediate between Type I and Type II systems because the aptamer and the target (or targets) interacts in the presence of NPs, and therefore, this approach is often referred to as "*one-pot detection systems*". Sometimes, more than one class of aptamers are used to stabilize NPs ^[4x]. Yang and co-workers ^[4k] described a "*one-pot detection system*" for ochratoxin A (OTA) where phosphate buffered saline (PBS), Mg²⁺, OTA and the aptamer are mixed with AuNPs that can undergo salt-induced aggregation within 5 min ^[4k] (Fig. 15).



634

Fig. 15. One-pot detection system of ochratoxin A (OTA). The target is bound to the aptamer and
upon salt addition, AuNP aggregation can be detected by the solution color change.

Although the method is different, the authors hypothesized that "the duly formed G-quadruplex structure could not protect AuNPs against salt-induced aggregation, and thus the color change from red to blue could be observed by the naked eye", as previously proposed by Wei *et al.* ^[5g] and Wang *et al.* ^[3e] for Type I and Type II detection systems. Interestingly the LOD is 20 nM, while the LDR from 20 to 625 nM ^[4k]. The major limitation of the Type III approach is that there is more than one source of electrostatic interactions that could change the solution color. For instance, if the metal is in excess, it will also contribute to the electrostatic interactions, and this can only be prevented by having ssDNA in excess. Therefore selectivity is a major limitingfactor for this approach.

- 647
- 648

5.4. TYPE IV: Multiplex Aptasensors

In this section, the systems that use more than one aptamer based on the previously 649 650 described structure-switching strategies are described. In homogeneous multiplex aptasensors, 651 more than one class of aptamer is used to stabilize NPs for detection of single or several targets 652 ^[4x]. Several approaches are based on the likelihood that the target DNA molecules with one nucleotide mismatch have different melting temperatures, and therefore they can be 653 distinguished by NPs disassociation based on temperature ^[6b, 6c, 6f, 7e, 17a, 50]. A typical example of 654 such a DNA sensor was reported by Mirkin and co-workers, in which the target DNA molecules 655 656 triggered AuNPs aggregation by hybridizing two complementary DNA strands on the AuNPs [18] 657

658

659

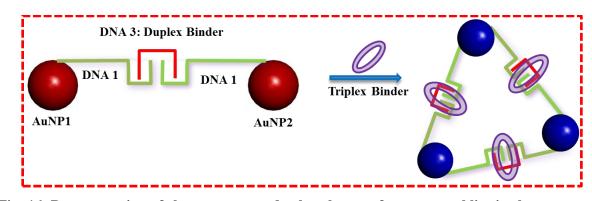


Fig. 16. Representation of the structure and color change of nano-assemblies in the presence of a
 triplex binding agent at room temperature ^[42].

663 Another assay includes AuNPs of different sizes (AuNP1 and AuNP2) that are functionalized with non-complementary DNAs (3' or 5' pyrimidine-rich thiol-modified oligonucleotides) (Fig. 664 16). Functionalized AuNP1 and AuNP2 are then cross-linked with another complementary DNA 665 to form non-aggregating duplexes ^[42]. Introduction of a triplex binding agent induces triplex 666 667 formation through base hydrogen bonds and consequently, reversible NP aggregation that result in a red-to-blue color change ^[42]. Analysis of the aggregate melting properties in terms of 668 cooperative binding theories suggests a lower DNA surface coverage on AgNPs functionalized 669 with 12 mer-thiolated homo-oligonucleotides containing only adenine (AgNPs/ST) than that on 670

AuNPs functionalized with 12mer-thiolated homo-oligonucleotides containing only thymine
(AuNPs/ST), while exhibiting changes that are significantly different from those of AuNPs upon
hybridization ^[51].

Interestingly, Sato et, al. [48] demonstrated that ssDNA-AuNPs have different stability against 674 salt-induced aggregation in the presence of complementary DNA, although there is no triplex 675 binder ^[48]. Using a similar assay format, Zhao et al. configured oligonucleotide-modified AuNPs 676 677 duplexes with a short complementary oligonucleotide. Upon addition of adenosine (the target), the aptamer switches its structure from a DNA duplex to an aptamer/target complex, because the 678 aptamer preferentially binds to the target molecule ^[7b]. Importantly, the aptamer on NP surfaces 679 must retain its switching capability ^[7b, 18, 42, 48]. Erickson's group ^[15] developed a multiplexed 680 one-pot detection system for Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV) and Bartonella 681 682 using both AuNPs and AgNPs. Specifically, when the Bartonella-targeted DNA (BA-DNA) is introduced in the solution, AgNPs aggregate and the solution turns pink, more dependent on the 683 SRP characteristics of non-aggregated AuNPs. When KSHV-DNA was introduced, AuNP 684 aggregate and the solution changes to a murky yellow-orange color, more dependent on AgNP 685 aggregation^[15]. The multi-color change tuning of AuNPs and AgNPs gave LODs down to 1 nM 686 and 2 nM, respectively^[15]. 687

Niu et *al*. ^[4x] used more than one class of aptamers to stabilize AuNPs (Type I). Specifically, a kanamycin-specific aptamer (750 nM), a sulfadimethoxine-specific aptamer (250 nM) and an adenosine-specific aptamer (500 nM) are mixed (1:1:1 volume ratio) and adsorbed directly onto the surface of unmodified AuNPs by electrostatic interaction. Upon addition of any of the three targets, the conformation of the corresponding aptamer changes from a random coil structure to a rigid folded structure that cannot adsorb and stabilize AuNPs ^[4x]. Although this looks more like a type III system, more than one aptamer is present and the reaction does not proceed sequentially.

 Ultimately, multiplex systems are not straight forward because multiplex detection largely depends on the concentration of each aptamer and the buffer used for the aptamer reaction with its target 14x. Moreover, all the aptamers in solution can be adsorbed onto the NP surface; however, the level of adsorption also depends on the neighboring aptamers. For this reason, the use of aptamers with short sequences gives better adsorption yields. It has been shown that changing the length of the ssDNA sequences yields different particle dispersion profiles on unmodified AuNPs, and that short DNA sequences might improve the colloidal stability against salt-induced aggregation ^[41, 4v, 6e]. Most importantly, the aptamer on the NP
surface must retain its switching capability and for this reason the switching capability of the
structures with aptamers is a key factor that determine the LOD of the assay ^[7b].

The multiplex type of aptamers has proven to be useful for enzyme activity and inhibitor assays.

706

720

5.5. Nanoparticle-based enzyme assays

NPs can be used also to improve colorimetric assays of enzymes ^[52]. In these systems, the 707 708 substrate for the target enzyme should also be a suitable NP stabilizer. For instance, it should be 709 stable at high salt concentration (approximately 100 mM). Moreover, a charged molecule that can provide electrostatic and steric stabilization is likely to yield better selectivity. The strong 710 711 interaction between amino groups and AuNPs surfaces has been well confirmed and the bond energy is comparable to that of a thiol-Au bond. The rapid aggregation induced by the non-712 crosslinking process is a useful approach for enzyme inhibition-based colorimetric screening, as 713 714 shown by several studies using assays that rely on polymeric aggregates of DNA-functionalized AuNPs (DNA-AuNPs) with DNA-duplex interconnections ^[7e, 7j, 7k]. Mirkin's group 715 functionalized two separate batches of 13-nm AuNPs with two different thiol-modified 716 oligonucleotide strands (DNA-1: 5'-CTCCCTAATAACAATTTATAACTATTCCTA-A10-SH-717 3', and DNA-2: 5'-TAGGAATAGTTATAAATTGTTATTAGGGAG-A10- SH-3') (blue and 718 red ribbons, respectively, in Fig. 17)^[7e]. 719

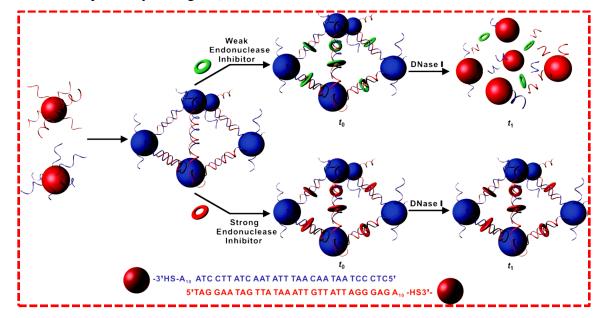


Fig. 17. Aggregation and dissociation of the DNA-AuNPs probe used in the colorimetric screening of endonuclease inhibitors. The probe consists of spherical AuNPs functionalized with two complimentary oligonucleotides (blue and red ribbons). Individual NPs (red) aggregate into a crosslinked network of NPs (blue) through hybridization of their oligonucleotide chains. Upon addition
 of DNase I, the aggregates remain intact longer in the presence of a strong endonuclease inhibitor
 ^[7e].

- The endonuclease (DNase I) degrades the DNA-duplex interconnections and NPs are released, 728 thus generating a red color ^[7e] (Fig 17). In the presence of inhibitors, the DNase 1 activity is 729 decreased and the aggregates are strongly hydrolyzed (T_H) . Consequently, the time required for 730 the color change is much longer. Most importantly, strong inhibitors (in contrast to weak 731 inhibitors) hinder DNase I activity to such an extent that the color change is no longer possible 732 ^[7e]. In their method, endonucleases cleaves dsDNA in the absence of inhibitors and cross-linked 733 AuNPs can separate into single AuNP molecules, as indicated by the instant color change, from 734 blue to red. With this approach, the inhibitor performance can be directly evaluated. Similar 735 observations were made using a system that includes a single type of DNA-AuNPs probe and an 736 737 appropriate oligonucleotide linker that can hybridize with the DNA probe. The linker was 738 designed to contain a self-complementary region that can form a duplex structure with a basepair overlap that contains the recognition sites and overhanging 3'-ends ^[7k] (Fig. 18). Significant 739 color change is observed when the endonuclease (DNA methyltransferase, DNA MTase) 740 degrades the DNA duplex ^[7k]. 741
- 742

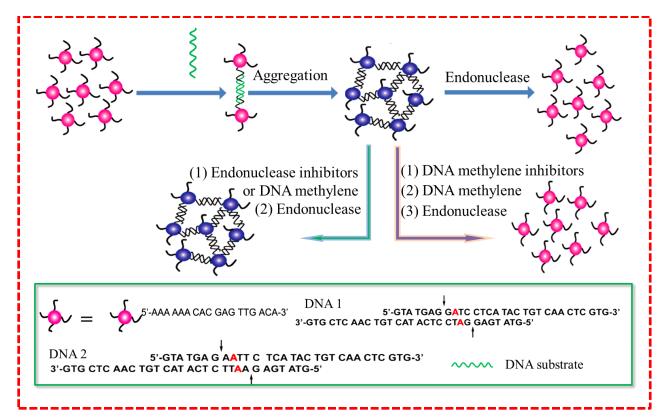


Fig. 18. (A) Schematic representation of the assay to assess endonuclease and methyltransferase
activity and inhibition. (B) Sequences of the DNA probe, DNA-1 (recognition site for the
DpnII/Dam MTase) and DNA-2 (recognition site for the EcoRI/EcoRI MTase). The arrows show
the cleavage sites, and the red letters indicate the methylation sites ^[7k].

743

749 Although highly selective and more sensitive than conventional methods, this visual inspection assay is limited for the preparation of probes by functionalizing two separate AuNP batches with 750 751 two different thiol-modified oligonucleotide strands. On the other hand, this approach can be used for most endonucleases by simply changing the recognition sequence in the linker DNA^[7k]. 752 For instance, similar assays were used for assessing adenosine triphosphate (ATP) 753 754 dephosphorylation by calf intestine alkaline phosphatase (CIAP) and peptide phosphorylation by protein kinase A (PKA). ATP can protect AgNPs from salt-induced aggregation only in the 755 absence of enzymes. Phosphorylation and dephosphorylation can be readily detected by the color 756 change of AgNPs (CIAP LOD: 1 unit mL⁻¹, and PKA LOD: 0.022 unit mL⁻¹) ^[7h]. Zhao and co-757 workers took advantage of the non-crosslinking AuNPs aggregation phenomenon to develop a 758 759 simple colorimetric assay for monitoring an enzymatic dephosphorylation reaction, where ATP is converted into adenosine by CIAP ^[7a]. AuNPs capped by adenosine 5'-monophosphate 760 (AMP), adenosine 5'-diphosphate (ADP), or adenosine 5'-triphosphate (ATP) are progressively 761

762 more stable than bare AuNPs, but their stability gradually decreases (and thus the color of the solution) with the dephosphorylation process ^[7a]. Likewise, Choi *et al.* ^[40] described an alkaline 763 phosphatase assay based on AuNPs aggregation ^[40]. To develop an adenosine deaminase assay, 764 Zhang and co-workers hypothesized that the interaction between adenosine amino group and 765 AuNPs surface will displace the weakly bound citrate ions from the AuNPs surface and diminish 766 the stability of citrate-capped AuNPs, resulting in the aggregation of AuNPs in the presence of 767 768 NaCl and a corresponding red to blue color change. Adenosine, guanosine and cytidine (molecules that contain amino groups) strongly interact with AuNPs, causing aggregation. 769 Conversely, inosine, thymidine and uridine have negligible effects on AuNPs stability, therefore 770 the solution remains red because of the stronger electrostatic repulsion between negatively-771 charged AuNPs^[8]. Xinhui et al. described a suitable method for nucleases, such as the S1 772 nuclease ^[7j]. In the presence of nucleases and their substrates, unmodified AuNPs are stabilized 773 by dNMPs at high salt concentration and the solution remains red. Conversely, in the absence of 774 nucleases or substrates, the unmodified AuNP solution turns blue at high salt concentration due 775 to aggregate formation ^[7j]. 776

Xu and co-workers developed a colorimetric assay to screen for inhibitors of several
kinases with the same type of NPs ^[7d] (Fig. 19). The method takes advantage of peptide-capped
NPs, in which 10% of peptide ligands carry an extension that is the substrate for a specific kinase
(PKA or calmodulin-dependent kinase II, CaM KII). Using γ-biotin-ATP as a co-substrate, the
kinase reaction results in substrate-AuNP biotinylation.

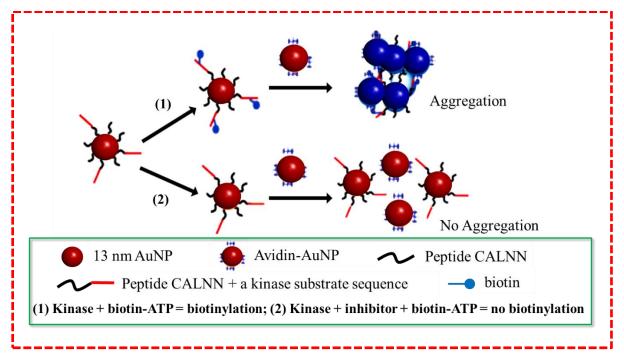


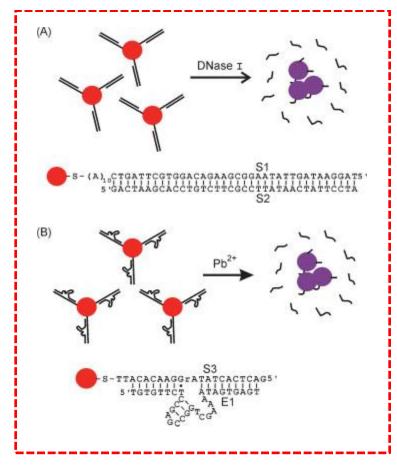
Fig. 19. Schematic representation of phosphorylation/biotinylation of substrate-NPs followed by
 addition of avidin-modified NPs, in the presence and absence of a kinase inhibitor ^[7d]

782

786 When biotinylated substrate-AuNPs are mixed with avidin-AuNPs, they immediately aggregate due to the specific binding between avidin and biotin^[7d]. Similarly, Wei *et al.*^[7h] reported that in 787 788 the absence of the kinase, or in the presence of an efficient inhibitor, no observable color change occurs after addition of avidin-modified NPs, and the solutions are indefinitely stable without 789 showing signs of aggregation ^[7d]. Furthermore, a hydrolysis-based colorimetric assay for 790 acetylcholinesterase (AChE) was developed based on the finding that AChE can catalyze 791 acetylthiocholine hydrolysis into thiocholine ^[45]. AChE and acetylthiocoline are added in the 792 AuNP solution, the generated thiocholine can take the place of citrate on the AuNP surface, 793 794 promoting NP aggregation and a change of color from red to gray. Addition also of the AChE inhibitor tacrine (1,2,3,4-tetrahydroacridin-9-amine) leads to less AuNP aggregation and a 795 slower color change ^[45]. Uehara *et al.* ^[43] reported that gold nanocomposites conjugated with a 796 797 thermo-responsive copolymer can be used in a colorimetric assay to quantify the activity of 798 aminopeptidase N (APN). By heating the solution, the assembled gold nanocomposites disassemble and the solution color change from blue, purple to red. This process is inhibited by 799 800 cysteine, therefore the enzymatic decomposition of cysteinylglycine into cysteine and glycine by APN can be monitored [43]. 801

Tiwari et al. hypothesized that particles could be used for the detection of the hydrolytic 802 activity of penicillin G acylase (PGA) on penicillin G. This hydrolysis reaction leads to a shift in 803 804 the surface plasmon band of AuNPs from 527 to 545 nm accompanied by a solution color change from red to blue. The presence of 0.007 mg ml⁻¹ PGA can be detected ^[7m]. The enzyme is known 805 806 to hinder the salt-induced NP aggregation. Xie and co-workers found that DNA-RNA duplexes cannot stabilize unmodified NPs at a certain salt concentration, a typical type II approach. 807 808 However, addition of the active HIV-1 RNase H enzyme leads to the specific cleavage of RNA strands into RNA fragments and ssDNAs that can stabilize NPs against salt-induced aggregation 809 ^[70]. In an assay for glycosidases based on self-immolative elimination to release amines, 810 functionalized trigger-AuNPs aggregate by electrostatic attraction upon cleavage of the trigger. 811 812 The assay gives LODs for β-galactosidase (Gal) and β-glucosidase (Glc) of 9.2 and 22.3 nM, respectively, at 20 min, and they improve slightly over time ^[44]. The functionalized AuNPs (2.0 813 nM), which were capped with the enzyme substrate ligand Gal-Lip (or Glc-Lip) and lipoic acid 814 at a ratio of 1:1, showed a typical SPR peak at 521 nm (i.e., a red shift of 2 nm compared with 815 citrate-AuNPs) and good stability in PBS. The respective addition of Gal or Glc caused a time-816 dependent decrease of the peak absorbance induced by NP aggregation that could be observed by 817 naked eye. 818

Two different systems (the DNA endonuclease DNase I and the Pb²⁺-dependent RNAcleaving DNA enzyme 8-17) were chosen to demonstrate the utility of an assay for the detection of metal ions and enzyme activities based on rapid NP aggregation driven by van der Waals attraction ^[7i] (Fig. 20).



823

Fig. 20. Schematic illustration of AuNP aggregation and color change triggered by the enzymatic cleavage of DNA on AuNPs. Before enzymatic cleavage, DNA-modified AuNPs are stable at a relatively high salt concentration, due to their electrostatic and steric stabilization. DNA removal from the AuNP surface by enzymatic cleavage destabilizes AuNPs and results in their rapid aggregation. A) Cleavage of a DNA duplex by DNase I. B) Pb²⁺-mediated cleavage of an RNAcontaining DNA substrate by the 8-17 DNA enzyme^[7i].

830

The authors reasoned that the removal from the NP surface of DNA strands, which serve as electrostatic and steric stabilizers at relatively high salt concentrations (e.g., 40 mM MgCl₂), should result in AuNPs destabilization and aggregation, a process driven by van der Waals attraction ^[7i]. Indeed, addition of 100 mM Pb²⁺ generated a rapid red-to-purple color change at room temperature ^[7i].

AuNPs generation induced by neurotransmitters can be used to analyze the activity of tyrosinase, an enzyme that catalyzes the O₂-induced hydroxylation of tyrosine to L-DOPA ^[4b]. As tyrosinase concentration increases, the SPR bands of NPs are intensified and slightly blueshifted, suggesting that larger particles are formed, and small Au nanoclusters enlarged ^[4b]. This system can be used for the sensitive detection of dopamine, L-DOPA and noradrenaline (LOD of 841 2.5 μ M) and adrenaline (0.2 μ M) that act as active reducing agents for Au-NP generation of Au-842 NPs ^[4b].

843 Colorimetric aptasensors for the quantitative analysis of abrin using catalytic AuNPs were reported for the first time by Zhang et al. and Wu et al. The AuNP peroxidase-like activity 844 can catalyze 3, 3, 5, 5-tetramethylbenzidine (TMB) formation in the presence of H₂O₂, leading to 845 a color change ^[4a, 7p]. Particularly, Song *et al.* ^[7k] quote the work by Mirkin's group ^[7e] and say 846 that the rest of the methods eliminate the binder use of different DNAs to obtain functionalized-847 NP1 and functionalized-NP2. However, such method requires cumbersome preparation of 848 modified NPs and the formation of crosslinked NPs. Thus, it is not suitable for high-throughput 849 screening. 850

Crosslinking also offers a unique selectivity in reversibility of NP aggregation, where analytes dissociate the cross-linker and re-disperse the NP aggregates to their original color. For instance, Lu and co-workers described detection assays for Pb^{2+} , adenosine and cocaine where DNA molecules with a single RNA linkage serve as cross-linkers that bring complementary DNA-AuNPs into aggregates. The DNA enzyme catalyzes the specific hydrolytic cleavage of the substrate strand that disrupts the NP assembly, changing the color from purple to red and thus indicating the presence of Pb^{2+} [^{3a, 7c]}.

Zhao and co-workers speculated that if the substrate and product of an enzymatic reaction affect
differently AuNP stability by changing their electrophoretic properties, such a reaction can be
monitored colorimetrically and the enzymatic activity can therefore be determined ^[7a].

861

6. Core-Shell Nanoparticles and Ratios

863 Core-shell nanoparticles (CSNs) are a class of nanostructured materials that have 864 recently received increased attention owing to their interesting properties and broad range of applications in catalysis, biology, materials chemistry and sensors. By rationally tuning the cores 865 866 as well as the shells of such materials (ratios), a range of core-shell nanoparticles can be 867 produced. In this review, the combination of gold and silver enhancement, an electron-dense deposits that can be read by a simple colorimetric array workstation ^[6d]. However, Cao *et al.* 868 stated that AgNPs cannot be effectively passivated by alkylthiol-modified-oligonucleotides using 869 870 the protocols for modifying AuNPs, because they irreversibly aggregate when heated in a solution with 0.05MNaCl, the concentration needed for DNA hybridization ^[17b]. For this reason, 871

an Au shell can be grown on AgNP, forming a particle with an Au outer surface $(3.1 \pm 0.6 \text{ Å})$. This surface can be easily modified with alkylthiol-oligonucleotides and indefinitely suspended in high salt solutions. Ag/Au core-shell NPs retain the optical properties of the silver core, but have optical properties different from pure gold NPs, thus providing another "color" option for 30-mer DNA target-directed colorimetric detection ^[6f, 17b].

By taking advantage of their reversible aggregation and melting nature, oligonucleotide-877 modified Ag@SiO₂ nano-probes can be prepared by using 5' TCT-CAA-CTC-GTA-(CH₂)7-NH₂ 878 3' and non-complementary oligonucleotides with a 5' TAC-GAG-TTG-AGA-GAG-TGC-CCA-879 CAT3' sequence in which no hybridization product was reported ^[50]. The high stability of oligo-880 modified Ag@SiO₂ nano-probes at elevated temperatures (30-70°C) was confirmed by the 881 absence of peak shift and of broadening of well-dispersed nano-probes in their UV-Vis spectra 882 883 after long heating. The fast hybridization kinetics of the resulting Ag@SiO₂ nano-probes with complementary target oligonucleotides render them very useful for fast colorimetric detection 884 based on the sequence-specific hybridization properties of DNA^[50]. 885

CSNs can also be used to introduce a second colorimetric change, distinct from the gold 886 system, for monitoring two different oligonucleotide targets in one sample ^[17b]. For instance, 887 lactose-stabilized AuNPs are mixed with mannose (2-mercaptoethyl R-D-888 when mannopyranoside)-stabilized AgNPs^[2], addition of concanavalin A (Con A) leads to the 889 aggregation only of mannose-stabilized AgNPs, thereby demonstrating the system selectivity. 890 891 Limited non-specific interaction occurs with lectin Con A, thereby enabling the subsequent specific interaction with the lectin from Ricinus Communis Agglutinin (RCA120). Although 892 893 mannose-stabilized AgNPs show a longer LDR and faster reaction kinetics for the target lectin, mannose-stabilized AuNPs provide the most sensitive bioassay^[2]. 894

895

Nevertheless, the synthesis of the CSNs can be a daunting task for quick assays ^[4f].

896

897 **7. Summary and outlook**

The detection of metals and molecules based on bare-eye observable colorimetric changes depends on various parameters that are even more complex for macromolecules. The functional groups on the NP surface are very influential in various areas of research, such as sensor arrays and biosensor detection. Overall in any given condition, both thiols and nucleotides compete for adsorption sites, and the equilibrium shifts towards thiols adsorption as the salt concentration increases. Therefore, nucleotide adsorption could be completely eliminated after being 'crowded
out' (steric hindrance) as more thiols are adsorbed onto the metal. In one-pot detection approach
(where nanoparticles, analyte, DNA or enzyme are mixed together) qualitative analyses is
deemed imprecise because the color changes are not only due to the analyte, as they could be
triggered also by DNA or enzyme adsorption to the NP surface.

Also, the multiplex aptasensors have some limitations. For instance, it is not possible to determine which target is detected when the sample gives a positive result (change of color). While enzyme-assisted assays have a huge potential for many applications in biomedicine and bio-imaging, the application of the described *in vivo* techniques faces formidable challenges. Indeed, the interactions of NPs with enzyme molecules are not yet fully understood.

Through the review, there are viable approaches that have been introduced, Firstly, aptamer truncation to overcome the limitations due to the DNA length, while maintaining the original binding affinity. Secondly, overcoming the limitation imposed by the stability of AgNPs by coating them with a thin layer of gold to produce a core–shell structure that retains the spectrophotometric signature of the silver core. Thirdly, use of chemometric approaches provides synergy in colorimetric discrimination or classification of small molecules and macromolecules.

Overall, the AuNP-based colorimetric aptasensors are currently used for many analytes, largely because of the ease of detection, high sensitivity and potential for high-throughput analysis. Moreover, the synergy between chemometrics and biotechnology selectivity narrows the gap for the development of smart apta-based colorimetric sensing devices. In any case, careful interpretation of the findings is critical because the colorimetric changes are not general or universal, suggesting that they are highly dependent on the analytes and matrices.

925

926 **REFERENCES**

a) V. Chegel, O. Rachkov, A. Lopatynskyi, S. Ishihara, I. Yanchuk, Y. Nemoto, J. P. Hill,
K. Ariga, J. Phys. Chem. C 2012, 116, 2683; b) T. C. Prathna, N. Chandrasekaran, A.
Mukherjee, Colloids Surf. A Physicochem. Eng. Asp. 2011, 390, 216; c) V. Amendola, O. Bakr,
F. Stellacci, Plasmonics 2010, 5, 85; d) W. Wang, M. Yang, Z. Wang, J. Yan, C. Liu, RSC Adv.
2014, 4, 63079.

933 [3] a) J. Liu, Y. Lu, Journal of the American Chemical Society 2003, 125, 6642; b) A.

934 Ravindran, V. Mani, N. Chandrasekaran, A. Mukherjee, *Talanta* **2011**, 85, 533; c) S. Hajizadeh,

935 K. Farhadi, M. Forough, R. Molaei, Anal. Methods 2012, 4, 1747; d) J. M. Slocik, J. S. Zabinski,

936 D. M. Phillips, R. R. Naik, Small 2008, 4, 548; e) L. Wang, X. Liu, X. Hu, S. Song, C. Fan,

937 Chem. Comm. 2006, 3780; f) F. Xia, X. Zuo, R. Yang, Y. Xiao, D. Kang, A. Vallée-Bélisle, X.

^{932 [2]} C. L. Schofield, A. H. Haines, R. A. Field, D. A. Russell, *Langmuir* **2006**, 22, 6707.

Gong, J. D. Yuen, B. B. Y. Hsu, A. J. Heeger, K. W. Plaxco, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. 2010, 107, 938 939 10837; g) F. Wang, Y. Wu, S. Zhan, L. He, W. Zhi, X. Zhou, P. Zhou, Aust. J. Chem. 2013, 66, 940 113. [4] a) Z.-S. Wu, S.-B. Zhang, M.-M. Guo, C.-R. Chen, G.-L. Shen, R.-Q. Yu, Anal. Chim. 941 Acta 2007, 584, 122; b) R. Baron, M. Zayats, I. Willner, Anal. Chem. 2005, 77, 1566; c) J. Liu, 942 Y. Lu, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. 2006, 45, 90; d) J.-S. Lee, P. A. Ulmann, M. S. Han, C. A. Mirkin, 943 Nano Lett. 2008, 8, 529; e) Z. Chen, S. Luo, C. Liu, O. Cai, Anal. Bioanal. Chem. 2009, 395, 944 489; f) X. Xu, J. Wang, F. Yang, K. Jiao, X. Yang, Small 2009, 5, 2669; g) Y. S. Kim, J. H. Kim, 945 I. A. Kim, S. J. Lee, J. Jurng, M. B. Gu, Biosens. Bioelectron. 2010, 26, 1644; h) Y. Zhang, B. 946 Li, X. Chen, Microchim. Acta 2010, 168, 107; i) Y. Zhang, B. Li, C. Xu, Analyst 2010, 135, 947 1579; j) K.-M. Song, M. Cho, H. Jo, K. Min, S. H. Jeon, T. Kim, M. S. Han, J. K. Ku, C. Ban, 948 Anal. BioChem. 2011, 415, 175; k) C. Yang, Y. Wang, J.-L. Marty, X. Yang, Biosens. 949 Bioelectron. 2011, 26, 2724; 1) K.-M. Song, E. Jeong, W. Jeon, M. Cho, C. Ban, Anal. Bioanal. 950 Chem. 2012, 402, 2153; m) J. Athilakshmi, M. Mohan, D. K. Chand, Tetrahedron Lett. 2013, 54, 951 427; n) A. Chen, X. Jiang, W. Zhang, G. Chen, Y. Zhao, T. M. Tunio, J. Liu, Z. Lv, C. Li, S. 952 Yang, Biosens. Bioelectron. 2013, 42, 419; o) H. Gao, W. Shen, C. Lu, H. Liang, Q. Yuan, 953 954 Talanta 2013, 115, 1; p) A. Liu, Y. Zhang, W. Chen, X. Wang, F. Chen, Eur. Food Res. Technol. 2013, 237, 323; q) Z. Mei, H. Chu, W. Chen, F. Xue, J. Liu, H. Xu, R. Zhang, L. Zheng, Biosens. 955 Bioelectron. 2013, 39, 26; r) S. Chen, H. Gao, W. Shen, C. Lu, Q. Yuan, Sens. Actuator B-Chem. 956 957 2014, 190, 673; s) H.-H. Deng, C.-L. Wu, A.-L. Liu, G.-W. Li, W. Chen, X.-H. Lin, Sens. Actuator B-Chem. 2014, 191, 479; t) C. Han, K. Xu, Q. Liu, X. Liu, J. Li, Sens. Actuator B-958 Chem. 2014, 202, 574; u) S. Jongjinakool, K. Palasak, N. Bousod, S. Teepoo, Energy Procedia 959 **2014**, 56, 10; v) Y. S. Kwon, N. H. Ahmad Raston, M. B. Gu, *Chem. Comm.* **2014**, 50, 40; w) W. 960 Li, C. Pan, T. Hou, X. Wang, F. Li, Anal. Methods 2014, 6, 1645; x) J. Liu, W. Bai, S. Niu, C. 961 Zhu, S. Yang, A. Chen, Sci. Rep. 2014, 4; y) L. Zhang, C. Xu, C. Liu, B. Li, Anal. Chim. Acta 962 2014, 809, 123; z) I. E. Paul, A. Rajeshwari, T. C. Prathna, A. M. Raichur, N. Chandrasekaran, 963 A. Mukherjee, Anal. Methods 2015, 7, 1453; aa) A. Sarreshtehdar Emrani, N. M. Danesh, P. 964 Lavaee, S. H. Jalalian, M. Ramezani, K. Abnous, S. M. Taghdisi, Anal. Methods 2015; ab) K. V. 965 Ragavan, L. S. Selvakumar, M. S. Thakur, Chem. Comm. 2013, 49, 5960; ac) Y. Zhang, J. Jiang, 966 M. Li, P. Gao, Y. Zhou, G. Zhang, S. Shuang, C. Dong, *Talanta* 2016, 161, 520; ad) S. Wu, D. 967 Li, J. Wang, Y. Zhao, S. Dong, X. Wang, Sens. Actuator B-Chem. 2017, 238, 427. 968 a) V. Pavlov, Y. Xiao, B. Shlyahovsky, I. Willner, Journal of the American Chemical 969 [5] 970 Society 2004, 126, 11768; b) C.-S. Tsai, T.-B. Yu, C.-T. Chen, Chem. Comm. 2005, 4273; c) C.-C. Huang, Y.-F. Huang, Z. Cao, W. Tan, H.-T. Chang, Anal. Chem. 2005, 77, 5735; d) J. Li, X. 971 Chu, Y. Liu, J.-H. Jiang, Z. He, Z. Zhang, G. Shen, R.-O. Yu, Nucleic Acids Res. 2005, 33, e168; 972 e) J.-M. Nam, K.-J. Jang, J. T. Groves, Nat. Protocols 2007, 2, 1438; f) R.-Q. Liang, C.-Y. Tan, 973 974 K.-C. Ruan, J. Immunol. Methods 2004, 285, 157; g) H. Wei, B. Li, J. Li, E. Wang, S. Dong, Chem. Comm. 2007, 3735; h) S. Siddhartha, D. Debabrata, Nano-Micro Lett. 2010, 2, 164; i) M. 975 976 Lepoitevin, M. Lemouel, M. Bechelany, J.-M. Janot, S. Balme, Microchim. Acta 2015, 182, 1223; j) J. Mao, Y. Lu, N. Chang, J. Yang, S. Zhang, Y. Liu, Biosens. Bioelectron. 2016, 86, 56. 977 a) R. Kanjanawarut, X. Su, Anal. Chem. 2009, 81, 6122; b) R. Elghanian, J. J. Storhoff, 978 [6] 979 R. C. Mucic, R. L. Letsinger, C. A. Mirkin, Science 1997, 277, 1078; c) J. J. Storhoff, R. 980 Elghanian, R. C. Mucic, C. A. Mirkin, R. L. Letsinger, Journal of the American Chemical Society 1998, 120, 1959; d) I. Alexandre, S. Hamels, S. Dufour, J. Collet, N. Zammatteo, F. De 981

- 982 Longueville, J. L. Gala, J. Remacle, Anal. BioChem. 2001, 295, 1; e) H. Li, L. Rothberg,
- 983 Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 2004, 101,

- 984 14036; f) Y. C. Cao, R. Jin, C. S. Thaxton, C. A. Mirkin, *Talanta* **2005**, 67, 449; g) Q. Shen, Z.
- 985 Nie, M. Guo, C.-J. Zhong, B. Lin, W. Li, S. Yao, *Chem. Comm.* **2009**, 929.
- 986 [7] a) W. Zhao, W. Chiuman, J. C. F. Lam, M. A. Brook, Y. Li, *Chem. Comm.* 2007, 3729;
- b) B. Liu, L. Wen, X. Zhao, *Mater. Chem. Phys.* 2007, 106, 350; c) J. Liu, Y. Lu, J. Fluoresc.
 2004, 14, 343; d) Z. Wang, R. Lévy, D. G. Fernig, M. Brust, Journal of the American Chemical
- 2004, 14, 343; d) Z. Wang, R. Lévy, D. G. Fernig, M. Brust, *Journal of the American Chemical Society* 2006, 128, 2214; e) X. Xu, M. S. Han, C. A. Mirkin, *Angew. Chem* 2007, 119, 3538; f)
- 990 Y.-M. Chen, C.-J. Yu, T.-L. Cheng, W.-L. Tseng, *Langmuir* **2008**, 24, 3654; g) J. Oishi, Y.
- Asami, T. Mori, J.-H. Kang, T. Niidome, Y. Katayama, *Biomacromolecules* **2008**, 9, 2301; h) H.
- 992 Wei, C. Chen, B. Han, E. Wang, Anal. Chem. 2008, 80, 7051; i) W. Zhao, J. C. F. Lam, W.
- 993 Chiuman, M. A. Brook, Y. Li, Small 2008, 4, 810; j) X. Lou, Y. Xiao, Y. Wang, H. Mao, J.
- 994 Zhao, *ChemBioChem* **2009**, 10, 1973; k) G. Song, C. Chen, J. Ren, X. Qu, *ACS Nano* **2009**, 3,
- 995 1183; l) C.-K. Chen, C.-C. Huang, H.-T. Chang, *Biosens. Bioelectron.* 2010, 25, 1922; m) N.
- 996 Tiwari, Rathore, A., Prabhune, A. and Kulkarni, S., Adv. Biosci. Biotechnol. 2010, 1, , 322; n)
- 997 R. Cao, B. Li, Y. Zhang, Z. Zhang, *Chem. Comm.* **2011**, 47, 12301; o) X. Xie, W. Xu, T. Li, X.
- Liu, Small 2011, 7, 1393; p) W. Zhang, Y. Tang, J. Liu, L. Jiang, W. Huang, F.-W. Huo, D.
 Tian, J. Agric. Food Chem. 2015, 63, 39.
- 1000 [8] L. Zhang, J. Zhao, J. Jiang, R. Yu, Chem. Comm. 2012, 48, 10996.
- 1001 [9] N. L. Rosi, C. A. Mirkin, *Chemical Reviews* 2005, 105, 1547.
- 1002 [10] C. Lee, M. A. Gaston, A. A. Weiss, P. Zhang, *Biosens. Bioelectron.* 2013, 42, 236.
- 1003 [11] a) Y. Yu, Y. Hong, Y. Wang, X. Sun, B. Liu, Sens. Actuator B-Chem. 2017, 239, 865; b)
- 1004 F. Ghasemi, M. R. Hormozi-Nezhad, M. Mahmoudi, Anal. Chim. Acta 2015, 882, 58; c) L. Li, B.
- Li, Analyst 2009, 134, 1361; d) N. Fahimi-Kashani, M. R. Hormozi-Nezhad, Anal. Chem. 2016,
 88, 8099.
- 1007 [12] Z. Chen, C. Zhang, T. Zhou, H. Ma, *Microchim. Acta* 2015, 182, 1003.
- 1008 [13] S. Basu, S. Jana, S. Pande, T. Pal, J. Colloid Interface Sci. 2008, 321, 288.
- 1009 [14] B. C. Vidal Jr, T. C. Deivaraj, J. Yang, H.-P. Too, G.-M. Chow, L. M. Gan, J. Y. Lee,
- 1010 New J. Chem. 2005, 29, 812.
- 1011 [15] M. Mancuso, L. Jiang, E. Cesarman, D. Erickson, *Nanoscale* 2013, 5, 1678.
- 1012 [16] X. Zhang, M. R. Servos, J. Liu, *Chem. Comm.* **2012**, 48, 10114.
- 1013 [17] a) J.-S. Lee, A. K. R. Lytton-Jean, S. J. Hurst, C. A. Mirkin, *Nano Lett.* 2007, 7, 2112; b)
- 1014 Cao, R. Jin, C. A. Mirkin, *Journal of the American Chemical Society* **2001**, 123, 7961.
- 1015 [18] C. A. Mirkin, R. L. Letsinger, R. C. Mucic, J. J. Storhoff, *Nature* 1996, 382, 607.
- 1016 [19] G. Mie, Ann. Phys. 1908, 330, 377.
- 1017 [20] S. Kundu, Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys. 2013, 15, 14107.
- 1018 [21] a) V. Banerjee, K. P. Das, *Colloids Surf. B* 2013, 111, 71; b) X. Zhao, R. Liu, Y. Teng, X.
- 1019 Liu, Sci Total Environ 2011, 409, 892; c) C. Bhan, R. Mandlewala, A. Gebregeorgis, D.
- 1020 Raghavan, *Langmuir* 2012, 28, 17043; d) C. Bhan, T. L. Brower, D. Raghavan, *J. Colloid*1021 *Interface Sci.* 2013, 402, 40.
- 1022 [22] W. Zhao, M. A. Brook, Y. Li, *ChemBioChem* **2008**, 9, 2363.
- 1023 [23] Q. Qian, J. Deng, D. Wang, L. Yang, P. Yu, L. Mao, Anal. Chem. 2012, 84, 9579.
- 1024 [24] H. Chen, W. Hu, C. M. Li, Sens. Actuator B-Chem. 2015, 215, 421.
- 1025 [25] S. Watanabe, K. Yoshida, K. Shinkawa, D. Kumagawa, H. Seguchi, *Colloids Surf. B* 1026 2010, 81, 570.
- 1027 [26] Y.-J. Chuang, X. Zhou, Z. Pan, C. Turchi, *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* **2009**, 389, 1028 22.
- 1029 [27] Y. Zheng, Y. Wang, X. Yang, Sens. Actuator B-Chem. 2011, 156, 95.

- 1030 [28] J.-J. Feng, H. Guo, Y.-F. Li, Y.-H. Wang, W.-Y. Chen, A.-J. Wang, ACS Appl. Mater.
- 1031 *Interfaces* **2013**, 5, 1226.
- 1032 [29] H. Su, B. Sun, L. Chen, Z. Xu, S. Ai, *Anal. Methods* **2012**, 4, 3981.
- 1033 [30] K. Rawat, S. Kailasa, *Microchim. Acta* 2014, 181, 1917.
- 1034 [31] W. Zhao, W. Chiuman, M. A. Brook, Y. Li, *ChemBioChem* 2007, 8, 727.
- 1035 [32] a) S. Aryal, R. B.K.C, N. Dharmaraj, N. Bhattarai, C. H. Kim, H. Y. Kim,
- 1036 Spectrochimica Acta Part A: Molecular and Biomolecular Spectroscopy 2006, 63, 160; b) A.
- 1037 Kuhnle, T. R. Linderoth, B. Hammer, F. Besenbacher, *Nature* 2002, 415, 891.
- 1038 [33] G. Song, C. Xu, B. Li, Sens. Actuator B-Chem. 2015, 215, 504.
- 1039 [34] Y. Sun, H. Zhao, I. Boussouar, F. Zhang, D. Tian, H. Li, Sens. Actuator B-Chem. 2015,
 1040 216, 235.
- 1041 [35] W. Xue, G. Zhang, D. Zhang, *Analyst* **2011**, 136, 3136.
- 1042 [36] C. Guarise, L. Pasquato, V. De Filippis, P. Scrimin, *Proceedings of the National* 1043 *Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* **2006**, 103, 3978.
- 1044 [37] S. Abdul Rahman, R. Saadun, N. E. Azmi, N. Ariffin, J. Abdullah, N. A. Yusof, H. Sidek, R. Hajian, *J. Nanomater.* **2014**, 2014, 5.
- 1046 [38] F. Ghasemi, M. R. Hormozi-Nezhad, M. Mahmoudi, Analytica Chimica Acta 2015,
- 1047 doi:10.1016/j.aca.2015.04.011.
- IO48 [39] J. Mehta, B. Van Dorst, E. Rouah-Martin, W. Herrebout, M.-L. Scippo, R. Blust, J.
 Robbens, *Journal of Biotechnology* 2011, 155, 361.
- 1050 [40] Y. Choi, N.-H. Ho, C.-H. Tung, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. 2007, 46, 707.
- 1051 [41] R. Liu, R. Liew, J. Zhou, B. Xing, Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. 2007, 46, 8799.
- 1052 [42] M. S. Han, A. K. R. Lytton-Jean, C. A. Mirkin, *Journal of the American Chemical* 1053 *Society* **2006**, 128, 4954.
- 1054 [43] N. Uehara, M. Fujita, T. Shimizu, Anal. Sci. 2009, 25, 267.
- 1055 [44] Z. Zeng, S. Mizukami, K. Kikuchi, Anal. Chem. 2012, 84, 9089.
- 1056 [45] M. Wang, X. Gu, G. Zhang, D. Zhang, D. Zhu, *Langmuir* 2009, 25, 2504.
- 1057 [46] J. Hu, P. Ni, H. Dai, Y. Sun, Y. Wang, s. jiang, Z. Li, Analyst 2015, 140, 3581.
- 1058 [47] T. A. Taton, C. A. Mirkin, R. L. Letsinger, *Science* **2000**, 289, 1757.
- 1059 [48] K. Sato, K. Hosokawa, M. Maeda, *Journal of the American Chemical Society* 2003, 125,
- 1060 8102.
- 1061 [49] M. Famulok, G. Mayer, *Nature* **2006**, 439, 666.
- 1062 [50] S. Liu, Z. Zhang, M. Han, Anal. Chem. 2005, 77, 2595.
- 1063 [51] I. Tokareva, E. Hutter, *Journal of the American Chemical Society* **2004**, 126, 15784.
- 1064 [52] X. Xie, W. Xu, X. Liu, Acc. Chem. Res. 2012, 45, 1511.
- 1065