

Mao, K., Yang, Z., Du, P., Xu, Z., Wang, Z. and Li, X. (2016) Gquadruplex–hemin DNAzyme molecular beacon probe for the detection of methamphetamine. *RSC Advances*, 6(67), pp. 62754-62759. (doi:10.1039/c6ra04912e)

This is the author's final accepted version.

There may be differences between this version and the published version. You are advised to consult the publisher's version if you wish to cite from it.

http://eprints.gla.ac.uk/121774/

Deposited on: 12 August 2016

Enlighten – Research publications by members of the University of Glasgow http://eprints.gla.ac.uk33640

2	
3	
4	G-quadruplex-hemin DNAzyme molecular beacon probe
5	for the detection of methamphetamine
б	Kang Mao ^a , Zhugen Yang ^{b,c} , Peng Du ^a , Zeqiong Xu ^a , Zhenglu Wang ^a and Xiqing
7	$Li^{a,*}$
8	
9	a Laboratory for Earth Surface Processes, College of Urban and Environmental
10	Sciences, Peking University, Beijing 100871, China
11	b Division of Biomedical Engineering, School of Engineering, University of Glasgow,
12	Oakfield Road, G12 8LT, Glasgow, United Kingdom
13	c Department of Chemistry, University of Bath, Claverton Down, BA2 7AY, Bath,
14	United Kingdom
15	

^{*} Corresponding author, e-mail: <u>xli@urban.pku.edu.cn</u>, phone/fax: 86-10-62753246

16 Abstract

In this work, a simple, cost-effective, and label-free biosensor was constructed for 17 methamphetamine 18 (METH) detection. The biosensor consists of a 19 G-quadruplex-hemin DNAzyme molecular beacon (DNAzyme MB), a METH 20 aptamer, and a colorimetric substrate. The DNAzyme MB loses peroxidase activity when it hybridizes with the METH aptamer. In the presence of METH, DNAzyme 21 MB dissociates from the inactive hybrid due to preferable hybridization of METH 22 with the aptamer. This process recovers the activity of DNAzyme MB, which 23 24 catalyzes a reaction with the colorimetric substrate to yield measurable signals. Under optimized conditions, a detection limit as low as 0.5 nM (74.6 ng L⁻¹) was achieved. 25 Common illicit drugs were found to have little interference on detection of METH. 26 27 Recoveries of METH spiked in urines of addicts were greater than 85%. Good agreement was observed between METH concentrations in urines determined by the 28 sensor and by liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometer. These results 29 30 indicate that the G-quadruplex-hemin DNAzyme MB probe holds promise to detect 31 METH not only in biological samples, but also in environmental matrices.

32

33 Introduction

The abuse of illicit drugs is a worldwide problem that has severe societal consequences, such as loss of lives and health of abusers, increased treatment costs, and higher incidence of crimes¹⁻³. United Nations Office of Drugs and Crimes has recently estimated that a total of 246 million people, corresponding to 5 % of the world population aged between 15 and 64, had used illicit drugs at least once in 2013
⁴. Among the illicit drugs, methamphetamine (METH) is second only to marijuana as
the most widely abused illicit drug on the world⁵⁻⁷. METH abuse has increased
dramatically in the recent years in certain regions of the world. For example,
crystalline METH seizure has increased from a little over 7t in 2010 to 14t in 2013 in
East and Southeast Asia ⁴. To monitor and control METH abuse, samples of different
matrices (e.g., urine, blood, and wastewater) need to be analyzed.

Traditional methods for the quantitative METH analysis include 45 gas chromatography-mass spectrometry^{8, 9}, high performance liquid chromatography-46 mass spectrometry^{2, 3}, ion mobility spectrometry¹⁰, imaging mass spectrometry¹¹, 47 surface enhanced Raman spectroscopy and microfluidics^{12, 13}, etc. Although highly 48 49 sensitive and selective, these techniques require expensive instruments and tedious sample pretreatment in laboratory, preventing its use for onsite detection. Thus, there 50 is a need to develop simple, cost-effective tools that are able to accurately and rapidly 51 monitor low levels of METH at the site of sample collection. 52

The limitations of conventional analytical tools maybe overcome by biosensors. A biosensor is a small device with a biological receptor that generates a signal (electrochemical, optical, nanomechanical, mass sensitive, etc.) in the presence of an analyte. Biosensors have great promise for on-site detection of analytes in body fluids and environment samples, as it have the advantages of miniaturization and being potentially portable and capable of measuring complex matrices with minimal sample preparation¹⁴⁻¹⁶. In the past few decades, biosensors have been developed to measure numerous analytes in various matrices, such as heavy metals ¹⁷, small molecule^{18, 19},
targeted DNA^{14, 20}, peptides²¹, enzyme²², protein²¹, biomarkers^{14, 15} and even
bacteria^{23, 24}.

Among biosensors, DNAzymes based sensors known as catalytic beacons have 63 been extensively investigated due to its high specificity and sensitivity²⁵⁻²⁹. 64 DNAzymes are catalytically active DNA molecules that are able to catalyze chemical 65 reactions^{25, 26}. Compared to protein enzymes, DNAzymes are chemically more stable, 66 inexpensive, simple to synthesize and easy to modify^{28, 29}. One important and 67 increasingly popular type of DNAzymes is the G-quadruplex-hemin complexes that 68 have peroxidase activity^{26, 29-34}. This class of DNAzyme has been used to detect 69 targets from proteins and DNAs^{29, 30}, to small molecules and metal ions³⁰⁻³². However, 70 71 to our knowledge, no attempt has been reported in the literature to detect METH using DNAzyme-based sensors. 72

In this work, we developed a colorimetric biosensor for METH detection that was 73 based on the G-quadruplex-hemin DNAzyme MB, a METH aptamer, and a 74 colorimetric substrate. The sensor was optimized by varying the number of base pair 75 of the MB. Selectivity of the sensor was examined using 15 commonly illicit drugs 76 other than METH. The optimized sensor was used to detect METH in urine specimens 77 of drug addicts and compared to measurement by liquid chromatography -tandem 78 mass spectroscopy. The highly sensitive and specific sensor reported here has the 79 80 potential for onsite detection of METH in biological and environmental samples.

82 Materials and Methods

83 **Biosensor construction and optimization**

The biosensor consisted of a DNAzyme MB, hemin, a METH aptamer, and a colorimetric substrate. The DNAzyme MB is expected to bind METH aptamer through hybridization to form a catalytically inactive double strands DNA (dsDNA).

In the presence of METH, would dissociate from the inactive dsDNA due to preferable binding between METH and the aptamer. The dissociated DNAzyme MB is expected to bind with hemin to form the G-quadruplex-hemin, which could catalyze a colorimetric reaction of a substrate to generate a signal that can be measured by a spectrometer. The designed mechanism of the biosensor is illustrated in Figure 1.

92 To confirm the effectiveness of the designed mechanism, a DNAzyme MB with a

93 sequence of 5'-AGGGACGGGTGCCAACGTTCACCCTGAGACCATCCGACCCA

94 ATAAACCGTGGAGGGT-3' (MB1) and a METH aptamer with a sequence 5'-

95 ACGGTTGCAAGTGGGACTCTGGTAGGCTGGGTAATTTGG-3' were tested.

Both the MB and the aptamer were synthesized and purified using HPLC by Sangon
Biotech Co. Ltd. (Shanghai, China). The colorimetric substrate chosen in this work is
2, 2'-azinobis (3-ethylbenzothiozoline)-6- sulfonic acid (ABTS), which is obtained
from J&K Scientific (Beijing, China). Both MB1 and the aptamer were dissolved in
HEPES buffer (25 mM HEPES, 20 mM KCl, 200 mM NaCl, pH 7.40) to a
concentration of 10 μM.

The MB1 and aptamer solutions were first denatured for 5 min at 90°C and cooled
down slowly to the room temperature. The cooled MB1 and aptamer solutions (20 μL

104 each) were mixed in 70 μ L HEPES buffer and incubated at 37°C for 30 min. Then 40 105 μ L of 10 μ M METH and 10 μ L of 5 μ M hemin (Alfa Aesar Chemicals Co. Ltd., 106 Shanghai, China) were added to yield a total volume of 160 μ L. After the mixture was 107 incubated at 37°C for 1 h, 20 μ L 7.2 mM ABTS and 20 μ L H₂O₂ (15‰, v/v) were 108 added. UV-Vis spectra measurement was performed at a wavelength of 415 nm, after 109 the mixture was vortexed to react for 10 min at room temperature.

110 Control experiments were performed with following combinations: hemin +

111 ABTS+ H₂O₂; MB1 + hemin + ABTS + H₂O₂; MB1 + aptamer + hemin + ABTS +

H₂O₂. In these experiments, each component was added at the same volumes and concentrations as in the presence of METH. The missing components were replaced by the HEPES buffer to maintain a constant total volume (200 μ L).

115 The biosensor was optimized using two DNAzyme MBs of different lengths,

116 following the same procedure mentioned above. The sequences of the DNAzyme

117 MBs were 5'-AGGGACGGGTGCCAACGTTCACCCTGAGACCATCCGACCCAA

118 TAAACCGTGGAGGGT-3' (MB 2), and 5'- AGGGACGGGCACCCTGAG

119 ACCATCCGACGTGGAGGGT-3' (MB 3).

120 **Detection of MEHT in aqueous solutions**

MB 3 was used in the biosensor for further experiments. The sensitivity and linearity of the biosensor to detect METH were examined with the procedure mentioned above, at following final METH concentrations: 0, 0.50, 1.00, 2.00, 4.00,

124 6.00, 8.00, 10.00, 20.00, 40.00, 60.00, 80.00, 100.00, 200.00, 500.00, 1000 nM.

125 **Possible interference by other illicit drugs**

Selectivity of the biosensor was examined using 15 common illicit drugs and 126 metabolites, namely, ketamine (KET), norketamine (NK), morphine (MOR), 127 methadone (MTD), cocaine (COC), mephedrone (MEP), cathinone 128 (CAT), methcathinone (MCAT), 3-trifluoromethyphenylpiperazine 129 (BZP), 130 1-(3-trifluoromethylphenyl) piperazine (TFMPP), 3,4-Meth-ylenedioxypyrovalerone (MDPV), MDA, MDMA, EDDP, and mCPP. These drugs and metabolites were all 131 purchased from Cerilliant (Round Rock, TX, USA). The experiment procedure was 132 same as above, except that METH was replaced by other illicit drugs or metabolites. A 133 much higher concentration $(1 \text{ mg } L^{-1})$ was used for other drugs and metabolites, 134 where as a METH concentration of 15 ng L^{-1} was used as control. 135

136

Analysis of urine samples

137 To test the feasibility to detect METH in real samples, METH concentrations in urines were determined using the biosensor. Five urine samples of the METH addicts 138 were provided by local drug police in Shandong province. The urine samples were 139 filtered using 0.22 µm syringe filters. An aliquot of 20µL of each samples were used 140 for detection, following the procedure mentioned above. The measured concentrations 141 142 were compared with those determined using high performance liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometer (HPLC-MS/MS). The HPLC-MS/MS 143 used a UFLCXR-LC system (Shimadzu, Japan) with a Phenomenex Gemini C₁₈ 144 column (100 mm \times 2 mm, 3 µm) and an ABI 4000 triple quadrupole mass 145 spectrometer (AB SCIEX, USA). To examine the recovery of METH, one of the 146 urine samples was spiked with three concentrations (50, 100, and 200 ng L^{-1}). The 147

148 METH concentrations in spiked samples were then determined using the biosensor.

149

150 **Results and discussion**

151 **Confirmation of biosensor mechanism**

In the control experiment using ABTS, hemin, and H₂O₂ only, an absolute 152 absorbance intensity of 0.35 was observed. When MB1 was added to the system, the 153 absorbance intensity increased dramatically (Figure 1, MB). This is because of the 154 formation of the G-quadruplex-hemin complex that has peroxidase activity and that 155 156 catalyzes ABTS oxidation by H₂O₂ to produce ABTS⁺⁺. The formation of ABTS⁺⁺ lead to an increase in absorbance signal at 415 nm^{31, 33, 34}. When METH aptamer was 157 further added to the system, the absorbance was drastically reduced (Figure 1, 158 159 MB+Apt). The signal was only slightly higher than that of the system of ABTS, hemin, and H₂O₂ only. The decrease in absorbance in the presence of METH aptamer 160 is due to binding between MB1 and METH aptamer following the base pair matching 161 162 principle to form dsDNA. The dsDNA is catalytically inactive, preventing the formation of G-quadruplex-hemin complex and conversion of ABTS into ABTS⁺⁺. 163 Finally, when METH was added to the system, absorbance was recovered to about 164 82% of the intensity observed in presence of MB1 and absence of METH aptamer 165 (Figure 1, MB+Apt+METH). The recovery in absorbance confirms the preferable 166 binding of METH and the aptamer, which leads to dissociation of dsDNA, formation 167 of G-quadruplex-hemin complex, and conversion of ABTS into ABTS⁺. These results 168 indicate that designed mechanism is effective to detect METH. 169

Optimal biosensor 170

The length of DNAzyme MB, i.e. the number of base pairs, has a great influence on 171 its catalytic activity as a result of its effects on the formation of G-quadruplex 172 structure and its decisive role in the stability of dsDNA formed with the METH 173 174 aptamer. Excessive base pairs would hinder the dissociation of METH aptamer from the dsDNA in the presence of METH, whereas insufficient base pairs could prevent 175 the DNAzyme MB from forming the G-quadruplex-hemin complex. All the three 176 DNAzyme MBs could increase the absorbance in the absence of METH and METH 177 178 aptamer (Figure 2). MB 2 had the maximal signal intensity, which means the length of MB 2 was optimal for formation of the G-quadruplex structure. Yet the dissociation of 179 METH aptamer from the dsDNA must be considered as well. In the presence of 180 181 METH aptamer and METH, MB 3 showed the greatest signal intensity (Figure 3), indicating that fewer base pairs could facilitate dissociation of METH aptamer and 182 formation of METH-aptamer complex. Thus MB 3 was chosen to construct the 183 optimal biosensor which was used for all further experiments. 184

185

Sensitivity and linearity of METH detection

As shown in Figure 4A, the signal intensity was dependent on the concentration of 186 METH over a range of 0-1000 nM when the concentrations of MB3 and METH 187 aptamer were set at 1 µM. The limit of detection (LOD) of the biosensor was 188 calculated to be 0.5 nM (3 times standard deviation rule). The insert of Fig. 4A shows 189 that the signal intensity at 415 nm displayed an excellent linearity with the METH 190 concentration ranging from 8 nM to 500 nM (R²=0.991). In addition, the logarithmic 191

concentration also exhibited a linear relationship with the corresponding absorbance signal intensity (R^2 = 0.983) in a METH concentration range from 0.5 nM to 200 nM (figure not shown). Furthermore, compared with the blank (METH concentration = 0), color changes were visible even with the bare eyes at METH concentrations of 0.50 nM and above (Figure 4B).

197 The detection limit of the biosensor developed here was at least 2 orders of magnitude lower than the previous sensors. For example, Shi et al. developed a 198 biosensor based on METH aptamer and gold nanoparticles and reported a detection 199 200 limit of 0.82 μ M⁷. Oghli et al. developed an electrochemical sensor that had a detection limit of 50 nM³⁵. Furthermore, the detection limit of this assay for METH is 201 much lower than 1000 ng mL⁻¹ (6.7 μ M), the threshold of positive methamphetamine 202 203 detection in urine samples recommended by the National Institute on Drug Abuse of United States³⁶. Furthermore, the proposed biosensor for METH had higher sensitivity 204 than the limited biosensors and chemical sensors reported in the literature. 205

206 Selectivity of the biosensor

In the presence of the 15 illicit drugs or metabolites (at a concentration of 1 mg L^{-1}) other than METH, absorbance signals greater than blank (less than 0.2) were observed

209 (Figure 5). However, these signals were much lower than that in the presence of

METH, despite the fact that METH concentration (15 μ g L⁻¹) was much lower

Furthermore, the enhancement in absorbance signals (relative to the blank) was not

212 statistically significant among other drugs, indicating that interference of these drugs

213 to METH detection was not specific. These results demonstrate that binding affinity

of METH to METH-aptamer were much stronger than that to all other illicit drugs,

215 rendering the biosensor with high specificity toward METH.

216 **Detection of METH in urine samples**

In order to further investigate the potential application of the newly-designed sensor 217 218 in the practical samples, the assay was employed to detect METH in urine samples. 219 Average recovery of METH in spiked urine sampled ranged from 85.1 and 89.1% (Table 1). The METH concentrations analyzed using the our biosensor ranged from 220 23.2 to 587 ng mL⁻¹ (Figure 6) METH concentrations derived from HPLC-MS/MS 221 fell within the same range. For the particular urine samples, deviations of 222 biosensor-derived concentrations from HPLC-MS/MS-derived concentrations were all 223 less than 7.9 %. These results demonstrate the accuracy and validity of the biosensor 224 225 to detect METH in real samples.

226

227 Conclusion

228 A simple, cost-effective, and label-free biosensor based on the G-quadruplex-hemin DNAzyme MB was constructed for METH detection. The biosensor had a detection 229 230 limit of 0.5 nM and a linear range was 8-500 nM. Other common illicit drugs had little interference on the detection of METH. Recoveries of METH in the spiked urine 231 samples were more than 85%. The concentrations of METH in urine samples derived 232 from the biosensor agreed well with the concentration derived from HPLC-MS/MS. 233 The high sensitivity and specificity indicates that the biosensor could be a promising 234 tool for onsite detection of METH. The DNAzyme MB probe may offer a new 235

236	approach for sensitive and selective detection of a wide spectrum of analytes by
237	changing some bases of MBs and choosing different aptamers.
238	
239	Acknowledgments
240	We gratefully acknowledge the support from the Natural Science Foundation of
241	China (NSFC) (No. 41371442 and 41401566).
242	
243	Notes and references
244	
245	1. S. Galanie, K. Thodey, I. J. Trenchard, M. F. Interrante and C. D. Smolke, Science,
246	2015, 349 , 1095-1100.
247	2. P. Du, K. Li, J. Li, Z. Xu, X. Fu, J. Yang, H. Zhang and X. Li, Water Research,
248	2015, 84 , 76-84.
249	3. B. Subedi and K. Kannan, Environmental Science & Technology, 2014, 48,
250	6661-6670.
251	4. United Nations Office of Drugs and Crime, World Drug Report 2015, 2015.
252	5. S. E. Stephans, T. S. Whittingham, A. J. Douglas, W. D. Lust and B. K. Yamamoto,
253	J. Neurochem., 1998, 71 , 613-621.
254	6. R. B. Rothman, M. H. Baumann, C. M. Dersch, D. V. Romero, K. C. Rice, F. I.
255	Carroll and J. S. Partilla, Synapse, 2001, 39, 32-41.
256	7. Q. Shi, Y. Shi, Y. Pan, Z. Yue, H. Zhang and C. Yi, Microchim. Acta, 2015, 182,
257	505-511.

- 8. I. Koide, O. Noguchi, K. Okada, A. Yokoyama, H. Oda, S. Yamamoto and H.
 Kataoka, *J.Chromatogr. B*, 1998, **707**, 99-104.
- 260 9. K. Okajima, A. Namera, M. Yashiki, I. Tsukue and T. Kojima, *Forensic Sci. Intern.*,
- 261 2001, **116**, 15-22.
- 262 10. M. L. Ochoa, P. B. Harrington and A. Chem., Anal. Chem., 2004, 76, 985-991.
- 263 11. S. Muramoto, T. P. Forbes, A. C. V. Asten, G. Gillen and A. Chem., *Anal. Chem.*,
 264 2015, 87.
- 265 12. Z. Han, H. Liu, J. Meng, L. Yang, J. Liu and J. Liu, *Anal. Chem.*, 2015, 87,
 266 9500-9506.
- 267 13. C. Andreou, M. R. Hoonejani, M. R. Barmi, M. Moskovits and C. D. Meinhart,
 268 Acs Nano, 2013, 7, 7157-7164.
- 269 14. Z. Yang, M. A. D'Auriac, S. Goggins, B. Kasprzyk-Hordern, K. V. Thomas, C. G.
- 270 Frost and P. Estrela, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 2015, **49**.
- 271 15. R. D. L. Rica and M. M. Stevens, *Nature Nanotech.*, 2012, **7**, 821-824.
- 16. Z. Yang, B. Kasprzyk-Hordern, C. G. Frost, P. Estrela and K. V. Thomas, *Environ*.
- 273 Sci. Technol., 2015, **49**, 5845-5846.
- 274 17. K. Mao, Z. Wu, Y. Chen, X. Zhou, A. Shen and J. Hu, *Talanta*, 2015, 132,
 275 658-663.
- 276 18. Y. Song, X. Yang, Z. Li, Y. Zhao and A. Fan, *Biosens. Bioelectron.*, 2013, **51C**,
 277 232-237.
- 19. D. Roncancio, H. Yu, X. Xu, S. Wu, R. Liu, J. Debord, X. Lou and Y. Xiao, Anal.
- 279 *Chem.*, 2014, **86**, 11100-11106.

- 280 20. K. Mao, Y. Liu, H. Xiao, Y. Chen, Z. Wu, X. Zhou, A. Shen and J. Hu, *Anal.*281 *Methods*, 2014, 7, 40-44.
- 282 21. A. B. Iliuk, L. Hu, W. A. Tao and A. Chem., Anal. Chem., 2011, 83, 4440-4452.
- 283 22. Z. Wu, Y. Liu, X. Zhou, A. Shen and J. Hu, *Biosens. Bioelectron.*, 2013, 44, 10-15.
- 285 23. K. Saha, S. S. Agasti, C. Kim, X. Li and V. M. Rotello, *Chem. Rev.*, 2012, **112**,
 2739-2779.
- 287 24. P. D. Howes, R. Chandrawati and M. M. Stevens, *Science*, 2014, 346.
- 288 25. X. H. Zhao, R. M. Kong, X. B. Zhang, H. M. Meng, W. N. Liu, W. Tan, G. L.
- 289 Shen, R. Q. Yu and A. Chem., *Anal. Chem.*, 2011, **83**, 5062-5066.
- 290 26. W. L. Ward, K. Plakos and V. J. DeRose, *Chem. Rev.*, 2014, **114**, 4318-4342.
- 291 27. F. Wang, C.-H. Lu and I. Willner, *Chem. Rev.*, 2014, **114**, 2881-2941.
- 292 28. C. W. S. Chan and L. M. Khachigian, *Intern. Med. J.*, 2009, **39**, 249-251.
- 293 29. A. M. Rojas, P. A. Gonzalez, E. Antipov and A. M. Klibanov, Biotechnol. Lett.,
- 294 2007, **29**, 227-232(226).
- 295 30. R. Fu, T. Li, S. S. Lee, H. G. Park and A. Chem., Anal. Chem., 2011, 83, 494-500.
- 296 31. D. W. Zhang, J. Nie, F. T. Zhang, L. Xu, Y. L. Zhou, X. X. Zhang and A. Chem.,
- 297 Anal. Chem., 2013, **85**, 9378-9382.
- 298 32. T. Li, E. Wang and S. Dong, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 2009, 131, 15082-15083.
- 299 33. J. Elbaz, B. Shlyahovsky and I. Willner, *Chem. Commun.*, 2008, **13**, 1569-1571.
- 300 34. Y. Lee, R. Kissner and U. V. Gunten, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 2014, 48, 5154-5162.
- 301 35. A. H. Oghli, E. Alipour and M. Asadzadeh, *Rsc Adv.*, 2015, **5**, 9674-9682.

302 36. Urine Testing for Drugs of Abuse, *NIDA Research Monograph* 1986, 73.

306	Tab.1.	Recovery	of	METH	in	urines	at	three	spiked	METH	concentration	(50.0,
			_	1.								

307 - 100.0 and 200.0 $\mu g \ L^{\text{--}1}$), respectively.

Spiked concentration (µg L ⁻¹)	The me	easured con of MET	ncentratio H (µg L ⁻¹	Rate of standard recovery (%)				
	1	2	3	Average	1	2	3	Average
0	57.7	63.5	58.3	59.8	-	-	-	-
50	103.2	110.7	99.2	104.4	91.0	94.4	81.8	89.1
100	146.3	151.2	139.8	145.8	88.6	87.7	81.5	86.0
200	235.6	227.6	226.9	230.0	89.0	82.1	84.3	85.1



Scheme 1. Schematic representation of colorimetric detection of METH.



Figure 1. Absorbance at 415 nm from the ABTS oxidation for the analysis of METH. An amount of 1 μ M DNAzyme MB1/METH aptamer was employed. MB: 1 μ M DNAzyme MB1 +250 nM hemin+ABTS/H₂O₂; MB+Apt: 1 μ M DNAzyme MB 1/METH aptamer +250 nM hemin +ABTS/H₂O₂; MB+Apt+METH: 1 μ M DNAzyme MB1/METH aptamer+250 nM hemin+2 μ M METH+ABTS/H₂O₂; None: 250 nM hemin +ABTS/H₂O₂. The signal (\triangle A) is expressed as the relative absorbance with respect to the blank and error bars represent three replicate measurements (same for below).



Figure 2. Effect of DNAzyme MB length on the absorbance at 415 nm for the analysis in the absence of METH. The reaction systems contain 1 μ M DNAzyme MB with different lengths and 1 μ M METH aptamer without METH.



Figure 3. Effect of DNAzyme MB length on the absorption at 415 nm for the analysis in the presence of METH. The reaction systems contain 1 μ M DNAzyme MB with different lengths and 1 μ M METH aptamer in the presence of METH.



А



В

Figure 4. (A) Absorbance at 415 nm from the ABTS oxidation for the analysis of METH at concentrations ranging from 0 to 1000 nM (0, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 4.00, 6.0, 8.0, 10.0, 20.0, 40.0, 60.0, 80.0, 100.0, 200.0, 500.0, 1000.0 nM). The inset shows the linear range. (B) Color changes of the the G-quadruplex-hemin DNAzyme MB probe in the presence of METH. The METH concentrations in tubes from left to right were: 0 (blank), 0.5 nM, 1.0 nM, 5.0 nM, 10.0 nM, 50.0 nM, 100.0 nM, 200.0 nM, 500.0 nM, and 1000.0 nM.



Figure 5. Selectivity of the G-quadruplex-hemin DNAzyme MB probe for METH. The METH concentration was 15 μ g L⁻¹ (100 nM), while the concentration of other illicit drugs was 1000 μ g L⁻¹. From left to right: METH, KET, NK, MOR, MTD, COC, MEP, MDMA, CAT, MCAT, BZP, TFMPP, MDPV, MDA, EDDP, m-CPP, and blank.



Figure 6. METH concentrations in human urine samples measured by the G-quadruplex-hemin DNAzyme MB probe (red) and by LC-MS/MS (black).