An aptamer-based biosensor for detection of aflatoxin M₁

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Aflatoxin M_1 (AFM₁), one of the most toxic mycotoxins, imposes serious health

hazards. AFM₁ had previously been classified as a group 2B carcinogen¹ and has been

classified as a group 1 carcinogen by the International Agency for Research on Cancer

(IARC) of the World Health Organization (WHO). Determination of AFM₁ thus plays

an important role for quality control of food safety. In this work, a sensitive and

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reliable aptasensor was developed for the detection of AFM₁. The immobilization of aptamer through a strong interaction with biotin–streptavidin was used as a molecular recognition element, and its complementary ssDNA was employed as the template for a real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) amplification. Under optimized assay conditions, a linear relationship (ranging from 1.0×10^{-4} to $1.0~\mu g~L^{-1}$) was achieved with a limit of detection (LOD) down to 0.03 ng L^{-1} . In addition, the aptasensor developed here exhibits high selectivity for AFM₁ over other mycotoxins and small effects from cross-reaction with structural analogs. The method proposed here has been successfully applied to quantitative determination of AFM₁ in infant rice cereal and infant milk powder samples. Results demonstrated that the current approach is potentially useful for food safety analysis, and it could be extended to a large number of targets.

Introduction

Aflatoxin M_1 (AFM₁), one of the most toxic contaminants in dairy products, is a metabolite produced by dairy cows as a result of being fed with feeds contaminated with Aflatoxin B_1 (AFB₁).³⁻⁵ Once present in dairy products, AFM₁ poses a hazard to humans (especially infants) who consume them.⁶ Taking this threat into consideration, many countries have set maximum limits for AFM₁ and established various regulations.^{7,8} The European Union (EU) set a maximum tolerated level of AFM₁ to 0.050 μ g/kg for adult consumption and subsequently more restrictively to

 $0.025~\mu g/kg$ for food for infants and children.⁹ In China and the United States, the maximum limit for AFM₁ is $0.5~\mu g/kg$ in milk.^{6,10} Hence, the development of simple, sensitive and selective methods to determine the presence and level of AFM₁ is much in demand for food safety organizations to implement regulatory requirements.

Approaches have been developed in recent years for quantitative determination of AFM₁ including high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) with fluorescence detection (FLD), 6,11-13 high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) combined with mass spectrometry (MS).^{8,14,15} However, the quantitative approaches require complicated pretreatment, professional operators and expensive instruments. Some immunological methods like enzyme-linked immune sorbent assay (ELISA)¹⁶⁻¹⁸ and immunosensors¹⁹⁻²¹ have also been reported for AFM₁ detection. There are disadvantages in both preparation of the antibody and its stability and this limits its application in the field. Recently, application of aptamer-based biosensors for mycotoxins has shown a remarkable potential with the advantages of low cost, high stability, easy synthesis and ease of modification compared with antibodies. Since the report of an aptamer for ochratoxin A (OTA) in 2008, 22 many aptasensors for OTA and AFB₁ have been developed for feed and food safety.²³⁻²⁹ In our previous study,²⁷ an aptasensor based on qPCR was successfully designed for AFB₁ determination with high sensitivity. Aptasensors were developed for the detection of AFM1 using electrochemical methods and impedance spectroscopy techniques. 30,31 However, the selectivity of the aptamer for AFM₁ was not clear since only irrelevant OTA was chosen as an interference to study the cross-reaction. Cross-activity tests between other toxins (AFB₁, AFB₂, AFG₁ and AFG₂) should be carried out to answer the question whether the aptasensor is suitable for quantifying the AFM₁ concentration in real samples.³⁰ Recently, an aptamer specific to AFM₁ with a dissociation constant (Kd) value of 35 nM has been reported.³² To the best of our knowledge, aptasensor based on this aptamer for AFM₁ detection have not been reported.

In this study, a new aptamer-based biosensor to sensitively and selectively detect AFM₁ was developed, combining the advantages of strong recognition ability of the aptamer to AFM₁ and excellent amplification efficiency of the RT-qPCR technique to improve sensitivity. Six complementary ssDNA fragments were designed to explore the binding sites between the specific aptamer and AFM₁. The presence of AFM₁ induced the release of complementary ssDNA because of forming an aptamer/AFM₁ complex, leading to the reduction in the amount of PCR template and the increase in cycle numbers. Quantification of AFM₁ has been achieved according to the linear relationship between the change of the PCR amplification signal and AFM₁ levels.

Results and Discussion

Optimization of the amplification of complementary ssDNA

The complementary ssDNA is applied as the subsequent PCR template. The

melting curve in this step is a key factor which affects amplification efficiency and primer specificity. The concentration of the complementary ssDNA and specificity of the primer should thus be optimized. Amplification curves are shown in Fig. S1(A). As the concentration of complementary ssDNA decreases over the range of 1×10⁻³ to 10 nM the cycle number (Ct) increased. Corresponding to the amplification curve the standard curve relating the cycle number threshold (Ct) and the complementary ssDNA in the range of 1×10⁻³ to 10 nM is shown in Fig. S1(B), demonstrating the sensitive and quantitative detection of the complementary ssDNA with high amplification efficiency (103.1%) and a good linear relationship with a high correlation coefficient (0.995). The linear regression equation was described by Ct=-3.2495 log C + 36.363, where Ct is cycle threshold number and C is the concentration of the complementary DNA. The optimal concentration of the complementary ssDNA was 10 nM with the lowest Ct values. The PCR melting curves are shown in Fig. S2, demonstrating the specificity of the PCR amplification without the appearance of primer dimers or other nonspecific DNA products since an obvious single peak was observed at 80°C.

Optimization of streptavidin and the biotinylated aptamer

Other factors would affect the performance of this method including the concentrations of streptavidin, the biotinylated aptamer and the complementary ssDNA and these all should be optimized. Under a fixed concentration of complementary ssDNA at 10 nM, the concentrations of streptavidin and the

biotinylated aptamer were analyzed for the PCR amplification signal change (Fig. S3). The adsorptive power of streptavidin to PCR tubes and the binding ability of streptavidin-coated tubes to biotinylated aptamer was primarily detected using different concentrations of streptavidin (Fig. S3). This also shows that there was a clear difference of Ct values between the control group and streptavidin-coated tubes, which showed the intense adsorptive ability between biotinylated aptamer and streptavidin-coated tubes. In analysis of the Ct values at different concentrations of streptavidin, the Ct value reached the lowest level when the concentration of streptavidin was 2.5 ng mL⁻¹. This graph also shows that the Ct values decreased with the increase of the amount of aptamer when aptamer levels were below 10.0 nM andalso that the Ct values increased with the amount of aptamer above 10.0 nM mainly because of steric hindrance. Thus, 2.5 ng mL⁻¹ of streptavidin and 10 nM of aptamer were the optimal conditions for RT-qPCR amplification.

AFM₁ determination

Under optimal conditions, the amplification curves and calibration curve of this aptasensor for different levels of AFM₁ with AFM₁ DNA1 were determined by RT-qPCR (Fig. 1). As is shown in Fig. 1(A), the cycle number increased with an increase in AFM₁. More complementary ssDNA would be released when more AFM₁ is present in the reaction system, which leads to a decrease in the amount of the PCR template and an increase in cycle number. Meanwhile, a good linear relationship between Ct values and AFM₁ levels in the range of 1×10^{-4} to $1~\mu g~L^{-1}$ was obtained as

indicated in Fig. 1(B) with the limit of detection 0.03 ng L⁻¹ (S/N=3). The linear regression equation was described by Ct=3.703 log C + 20.736 (R²=0.998), where Ct is cycle threshold number and C is AFM₁ concentration. All the detection conditions of the other five AFM₁ DNA were identical to those used in the AFM₁ DNA1 procedure, allowing a comparison of the performance of amplification curves (Fig. 2). Results clearly show the determination of AFM₁ DNA1 has the best results with excellent amplification efficiency, indicating the binding site between the specific aptamer and AFM₁ mainly exists in the position close to 5'-terminal of the aptamer. In addition, the aptasensor in this study demonstrates a high sensitivity in AFM₁ determination in comparison to other current approaches (Table 1).

Specificity analysis

The specificity of the aptasensor plays an important role in the development and practicality of this method. In order to evaluate the specificity of the detection system, the change of PCR amplification produced by other five mycotoxins (including OTA, ZEN, FB₁, AFB₁ and AFB₂) was determined. As shown in Fig.3, the detection of OTA, ZEN, FB₁, as well as the control, had no obvious Ct value changes at the concentration of 1 ng mL⁻¹ among the five mycotoxins. However, AFB₁ and AFB₂, the structural analogs of AFM₁, resulted in a slight increase of the Ct values but no significant effect (P>0.05). In addition, a similar result was detected using a mix of these five mycotoxins without AFM₁ (Mix1). The corresponding Ct value of AFM₁ in a mix of these five mycotoxins (Mix2) was slightly lower than the Ct value of AFM₁

alone with no significant difference between Mix2 and AFM₁. This sensing system thus has high specificity for the detection of AFM₁ owing to the high recognition ability of the biotin-labeled aptamer to the target, and the inability of the aptamer to recognize other mycotoxins.

Repeatability analysis

The repeatability of this method is an important issue for the development and practical implementation of AFM₁ detection, which was assessed by analyzing the Ct values of the same sample (1.0 ng mL⁻¹ AFM₁) five times. As indicated in Fig. S4, results showed a good repeatability of the measurements with a relative standard deviation (RSD) of 5.0%.

Method validation

In order to evaluate feasibility and reliability of this method, we applied it to the determination of different concentrations of AFM₁ in infant rice cereal samples and infant rice cereal samples. As shown in Table 2, The recoveries of the spiked infant rice cereal and infant rice cereal samples were in the range of 84–106% and 68–80.3%, correspondingly, indicating that the proposed aptasensor was suitable for quantitative determination of mycotoxins in food samples for quality control of food safety. However, the relatively low recovery in the infant rice cereal samples might be due to sample pretreatments, and the future work would focus on improving sample pretreatments to AFM₁ determination for food safety.

Experimental

Methods

The aim of this work was to develop an aptasensor for the detection of AFM₁. The schematic of the sensing method is described in Fig. 4. The aptasensor is based on conformational change of the aptamer owing to the formation of AFM₁/aptamer complex and release of complementary ssDNA and signal amplification by RT-qPCR. Firstly, a strong interaction of biotin-streptavidin (Fig. 4A) results in the immobilization of the aptamer on the surface of streptavidin-coated PCR tubes. The complementary ssDNA, as the amplification template of PCR, is partly hybridized with the single-strand aptamer to form dsDNA, which is stable in the absence of AFM₁, resulting in no obvious changes of the amount of the complementary ssDNA as the template for RT-qPCR amplification. Upon the addition of AFM₁, a binding event between the aptamer and AFM₁ (Fig. 4B) induces a conformational change in the aptamer that leads to the release of the complementary ssDNA, with the result that the amount of template was reduced (Fig. 4C). As a consequence, for the aptasensor, a strong signal change in PCR amplification was observed, which can be used for the quantification of the concentration of AFM₁.

Materials and reagents

Aflatoxin M_1 (AFM₁) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (USA). Aflatoxin B_1 (AFB₁) was obtained from the National Standard Reference Center (Beijing, China). Ochratoxin A (OTA), zearalenone (ZEN), aflatoxin B_2 (AFB₂), and fumonisin (FB₁) were

purchased from Pribolab Co. Ltd (Singapore). Streptavidin was obtained from Sangon Biotechnology Co. Ltd. (Shanghai, China). Other chemicals such as sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃), anhydrous calcium chloride (CaCl₂), sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃), ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), sodium chloride (NaCl), potassium chloride (KCl), 2-Amino-2-(hydroxymethyl)-1,3-propanediol (Tris), , and sodium citrate ($C_6H_5Na_3O_7$) were purchased from Shanghai Chemical Reagent Company (Shanghai, China). Water was purified with a Milli-Q purification system.

The SYBR® Premix Ex Taq™ II (includes SYBR® Premix Ex Taq® (2×)(SYBR® Premix Ex Taq™ II (Perfect Real Time)) & ROX Reference Dye II(50×)) were purchased from Takara Bio Co. Ltd. (Dalian, China). In order to explore the binding sites between the specific aptamer and AFM₁, the complementary DNA fragment of the aptamer was designed with six alternative sequences. The aptamer with 3′-terminal biotin groups was chemically synthesized by Genecreate Biological Co. Ltd. (Wuhan, China), and the complementary DNA fragments were chemically synthesized by Sangon Biotechnology Co. Ltd. (Shanghai, China) and purified by HPLC. Their sequences are as follows:

AFM₁ Aptamer³²:

5'-ATCCGTCACACCTGCTCTGACGCTGGGGTCGACCCGGAGAAATGCATTCCCCTGTGGTGTT GGCTCCCGTAT-3'

Complementary DNA (AFM₁ DNA):

AFM₁ DNA1:

5'-GGTGTGACGGATAATCTGGTTTAGCTACGCCTTCCCCGTGGCGATGTTTCTTAGCGCCTTAC

-3'

AFM₁ DNA2:

5'-AGCGTCAGAGCAAATCTGGTTTAGCTACGCCTTCCCCGTGGCGATGTTTCTTAGCGCCTTAC

-3'

AFM₁ DNA3:

5'-CGGGTCGACCCCAATCTGGTTTAGCTACGCCTTCCCCGTGGCGATGTTTCTTAGCGCCTTAC

-3'

AFM₁ DNA4:

5'-AATGCATTTCTCAATCTGGTTTAGCTACGCCTTCCCCGTGGCGATGTTTCTTAGCGCCTTAC-

3′

AFM₁ DNA5:

5'-ACACCACAGGGGAATCTGGTTTAGCTACGCCTTCCCCGTGGCGATGTTTCTTAGCGCCTTA

C-3'

AFM₁ DNA6:

5'-ATACGGGAGCCAAATCTGGTTTAGCTACGCCTTCCCCGTGGCGATGTTTCTTAGCGCCTTAC

-3'

Upstream primer: 5'-AATCTGGTTTAGCTACGCCTTC-3'

Downstream primer: 5'-GTAAGGCGCTAAGAAACATCG-3'

Immobilization of the aptamer

Based on our previous studies,²⁷ we carried out immobilization of the aptamer

with some modifications. The details are as follows. PCR tubes were treated with 50

μL 0.8% glutaraldehyde solution at 37°C for 5 h in order to improve their

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adsorbability. After washing three times with ultrapure water, 50 μ L of streptavidin dissolved in 0.01 M carbonate buffer solution was added and incubated at 37°C for 2 h. Next, the tubes were washed twice with PBST (10 mM PBS, pH 7.2, 0.05% Tween-20). The aptamer and its complementary ssDNA were mixed sufficiently in a hybridization buffer (750 mM NaCl, 75 mM $C_6H_5Na_3O_7$, pH 8.0) in the ratio 1:1 (v/v), and 50 μ L of the mixture was added to each tube and incubated at 37°C for 1 h. Then the tubes were subsequently washed three times with hybridization buffer to remove the uncombined DNA fragments.

RT-qPCR measurements for AFM₁

 $50~\mu L$ of AFM $_1$ standard solution was added and incubated with Tris buffer (10 mM Tris, 120 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 20 mM CaCl $_2$, pH 7.0) at 45°C for 1 h. Then all PCR tubes were washed three times with the Tris buffer to remove the uncombined AFM $_1$ and the released complementary ssDNA.

In the next step, RT-qPCR was carried out using the ABI 7500 Real-Time PCR System (USA). The 50 μ L PCR mixture consisted of 2 μ L of 10 μ M upstream and downstream primers, respectively, 25 μ L SYBR[®] Premix Ex Taq[®](2×), 1 μ L of ROX Reference Dye II(50×) and 20 μ L water. The reaction conditions of real-time PCR were as follows: an initial denaturation for 30 s at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles of denaturation for 5 s at 95°C, and annealing for 34 s at 60°C. The amplification efficiency (E) of RT-qPCR was determined using the formula, E=10^(-1/slope)-1, where the slope is estimated from the standard curve. ^{27,38} Fluorescence measurements

were taken after each annealing step. A melting curve analysis was performed from 60°C to 95°C to detect potential nonspecific products with the following conditions: an initial denaturation for 15 s at 95°C, followed by 40 cycles of denaturation for 1 min at 60°C, and annealing for 15 s at 95°C.

Specificity analysis

In order to assess the selectivity of this aptasensor and investigate whether presence of other mycotoxins could interfere with the detection of AFM₁, the following mycotoxins, including OTA, ZEN, FB₁, AFB₁ and AFB₂, were applied to the aptasensor. These mycotoxins were used at the same concentration of 1 ng mL⁻¹. All other experimental conditions were identical to that for AFM₁ determination, and the change in cycle number among these mycotoxins was compared.

Method validation

Application of the method to infant rice cereal samples and infant milk powder was conducted to validate the AFM₁ determination. Infant rice cereal samples were spiked with AFM₁ at 5×10⁻⁴, 5×10⁻³ and 0.05 ng mL⁻¹ (3 replicates per treatment), and infant milk powder samples were spiked with AFM₁ at 5×10⁻⁴, 5×10⁻² and 0.1 ng mL⁻¹ (3 replicates per treatment). Each sample was accurately weighed (0.5 g) after drying into 10 ml centrifuge tubes. Then, 2.5 mL of 70% methanol in water was added to extract AFM₁ from the sample. The entire mixture was vortexed for 5 min using Vortex-Genie 2 (Scientific Industries, USA) and subsequently centrifuged at 10,000 g for 10 min. The supernatant was collected and concentrated to 0.5 mL under a

nitrogen stream. Finally, each residue was re-dissolved in 2 ml of aqueous methanol solution (5%) and subjected to RT-qPCR.

Statistical analysis

Each analysis (aflatoxin calibration curve standards and test samples) was performed in triplicate. Amplification curves for AFM₁ were plotted with Origin 8.0 software (OriginLab Corporation, Northampton, MA, USA). Simple linear regression analysis of the cycle threshold number (Ct) values on log concentrations of AFM1 were carried out using Microsoft Excel. Standard deviations (SDs) and means for Ct values were obtained from three replicates.

Conclusions

In this work, we describe a reliable and sensitive aptamer-based biosensor for determination of AFM₁, which simultaneously combined the advantages of high recognition power of the aptamer to AFM₁ and excellent amplification efficiency of RT-qPCR technique to improve sensitivity. Under optimal conditions, a good linear relationship existed between Ct values and AFM₁ levels over the range from 1×10^{-4} to $1~\mu g~L^{-1}$ with high sensitivity (LOD = 0.03 ng L^{-1}). The detection of five other mycotoxins was limited, but there may be a small cross-reaction with AFB₁. This shows its value in the determination of AFM₁ for food safety with an acceptable selectivity. Importantly, this method can be applied to the detection of AFM₁ in infant rice cereal and infant rice cereal samples with satisfactory recoveries.

Therefore, this aptasensor has a highly potential application for biologically small molecules.

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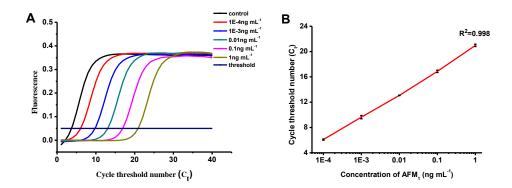


Fig. 1. (A) The amplification curves at different concentrations of AFM₁ in the range of 1×10^{-4} to 1 μ g L⁻¹ for the determination of AFM₁ DNA1, including the negative control without AFM₁. (B) The standard curves between the AFM₁ concentration and the Ct value in the range of 1×10^{-4} to 1 μ g L⁻¹.

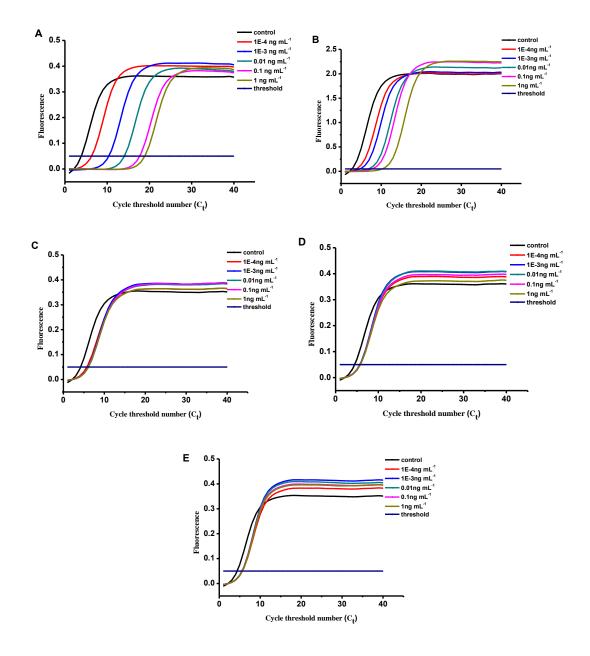


Fig. 2. The amplification curves at different concentrations of AFM₁ in the range of 1×10^{-4} to 1 µg L⁻¹ for the determination of different AFM₁ DNA, including the negative control without AFM₁. (A) AFM₁ DNA2; (B) AFM₁ DNA3; (C) AFM₁ DNA4; (D) AFM₁ DNA5; (E) AFM₁ DNA6.

Table 1. Comparison of the sensitivity of currently available methods for the detection of AFM₁.

No.	Method	LOD	reference
1	LC/MS/MS	6 ng L ⁻¹	33
2	Fluorometric sensor	50 ng L ⁻¹	34
3	Electrochemical immunosensors	1 ng L ⁻¹	35
4	Indirect competitive ELISA	0.04 μg L ⁻¹	3
5	Impedimetric biosensor	1 μg L ⁻¹	36
6	HPLC	6 ng L ⁻¹	11
7	Cellular biosensor	5 ng L ⁻¹	37
8	Direct chemiluminescent ELISA	1 ng L ⁻¹	21
9	DART-MS	$0.1~\mu g~L^{-1}$	10
10	SPE-UPLC-MS/MS	0.25 ng L ⁻¹	15
11	RT-qPCR based aptasensor	0.03 ng L ⁻¹	This work

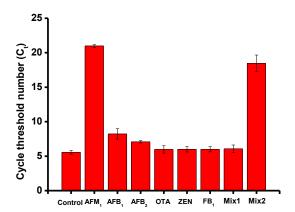


Fig. 3. The Ct values in the absence and presence of 1 ng mL $^{-1}$ mycotoxins including AFM₁, OTA, ZEA, AFB₁, AFB₂, FB₁, Mix1 (OTA, ZEA, AFB₁, AFB₂, FB₁) and Mix2 (OTA, ZEA, AFB₁, AFB₂, FB₁, and AFM₁). The experiment conditions are as following: complementary ssDNA 10 nM, aptamer 10 nM, and streptavidin 2.5 ng mL $^{-1}$. Means and standard deviations are shown with three replicates for each treatment.

Table 2. Determination of AFM₁ spiked into infant rice cereal samples.

Sample	Spiked concentration (pg/mL)	Detected concentrations Mean ^a ±SD ^b (pg/mL)	Recovery (%)
Infant rice cereal	50.0	45.0±5.7	90
	5.0	5.3±0.3	106
	0.50	0.42±0.02	84
Infant milk powder	100.0	80.3±6.4	80
	50.0	36.9±1.8	74
	0.50	0.34±0.02	68

a. The mean of three replicates; b. SD=standard deviation

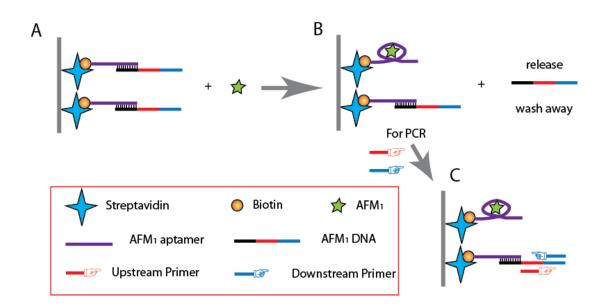


Fig. 4. Schematic to illustrate the aptasensor for detection of Aflatoxin M_1 .