

# Enhanced Kinetics of Enzymatic Nanosensors

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## ABSTRACT

Nanosensors employing quantum dots (QDs) and functional moieties such as enzymes are promising for diagnostics and chemical/biological threat activity. Their small size permits cell penetration and their inherent photochemical properties are well-suited for rapid, optical measurements. The effectiveness of biorecognition agents immobilized on QDs are not completely understood, hindering development of chemical/biological sensors and remediation materials. We analyze an engineered enzyme construct's effectiveness when attached to QDs illustrating an important biological threat application: neutralization of paraoxon, a simulant nerve agent. Phosphotriesterase trimer (PTE<sub>3</sub>) was engineered to contain 3 PTE monomers attached to a V-domain, collagen linker, and an oligohistidine (His<sub>6</sub>) tail. Various ratios of PTE<sub>3</sub> were attached to two sizes of QDs, 525 or 625 nm via metal coordination. Characteristic kinetic parameters of PTE<sub>3</sub>-QD were compared to free enzyme.

**Keywords:** Quantum dots, enzyme, phosphotriesterase, paraoxon, kinetics

## 1 INTRODUCTION

As nature's catalysts, enzymes rapidly and efficiently transform numerous chemicals in chemical synthesis far beyond our capabilities. Harnessing enzymes' ability to catalyze chemicals of interest would circumvent creating difficult synthetic processes. Indeed, much effort has been focused in engineering enzymes with modulated activity for a variety of industrial processes.[1, 2] One phenomenon that is poorly understood but has been observed to increase catalytic activity is attaching enzymes to nanoparticles.[3] Understanding how and why enzyme activity increases at the nanoparticle surface could lead to developments in creating microfluidic devices that detect biomarkers or chemical warfare agents.

Nanosensors composed of QDs and functional moieties such as enzymes are promising for disease surveillance/diagnostics and chemical/biological threat activity. Numerous advantages of QDs over other

nanoscaffolds include their inherent photochemical properties such as size tunable fluorescence, ease in attaching functional moieties, resistance to photobleaching, and much more making QDs well-suited for rapid, optical measurement applications.[4] Their small size also permits cell penetration which might be useful in theranostic application development.[5]

PTE catalyzes the detoxification of organophosphate pesticides to *p*-nitrophenol. To elucidate the mechanisms that increase catalytic activity of enzymes attached to nanoparticles, we attached various ratios of PTE<sub>3</sub> to two distinctly sized QDs, 525 or 625 nm and study the kinetics of hydrolyzing paraoxon.

## 2 METHODS

### 2.1 Quantum Dots

Green and red emitting CdSe/Zns (core/shell) QDs whose emission was centered at ca. 525 and 625 nm were synthesized and solubilized with dihydroplipoic acid-based zwitterionic compact ligand (DHLLA-CL4) as described elsewhere.[6] DHLLA-CL4 renders the QDs biocompatible with high quantum yields and long term stability in a broad pH range (pH = 5-13) while still allowing the QD surface to be functionalized with a variety of biologicals through either covalent attachment or metal affinity coordination.[7, 8] QDs functionalize with these ligands have already proven themselves in a variety of challenging environments.[9-11]

### 2.2 Phosphotriesterase Trimer Enzyme Preparation

The PTE<sub>3</sub> was engineered by combining the phosphotriesterase gene from *Brevundimonas diminuta* [12] with the collagen-like triple helix domain and the trimerization V domain from *Streptococcus pyogenes*. [13, 14] The PTE<sub>3</sub> cassette was excised from a maintenance plasmid and cloned to the bacterial expression vector pET28 (Stratagene) via a NcoI/NotI restriction enzyme digest. The pET28 vector allowed for controlled protein expression and integration of a C-terminal hexa-histidine which could be employed for subsequent immobilized metal affinity

chromatography and QD assembly. The expression construct's sequence was confirmed prior to transformation into the *Escherichia coli* BL21 (DE3) expression strain. Protein was expressed and purified using shake flask cultures, typically yielding ~10 mg of protein per liter of cell culture. While spontaneous, trimer formation was not immediate, therefore, purified monomeric protein (Mw~53 kDa) was incubated at 4°C for 48 h to allow the triple helix PTE<sub>3</sub> tertiary structure (Mw ~160 kDa) to form. The trimer was isolated from the monomers and dimers by size exclusion chromatography. The gene sequence, description of the protein engineering and purification are described elsewhere. [15]

### 2.3 Phosphotriesterase Trimer-QD Bioconjugate Assemblies

QDs were diluted to a final concentration of 2.22 nM in 150 μM (pH = 8) CHES buffer and molar equivalents of PTE<sub>3</sub> were added at the indicated ratios while maintaining the final volume of each reaction at 1350 μL within 2 mL Eppendorf tubes. The solutions were vortexed and microcentrifuged briefly to ensure solution homogeneity. Enzyme control reactions contained no QD and only equivalent concentrations of PTE<sub>3</sub>.

### 2.4 PTE Trimer Enzymatic Assays

PTE<sub>3</sub>-QD bioconjugate activity was monitored using a Tecan Infinite M1000 dual monochromator multifunction plate reader equipped with a xenon flash lamp (Tecan, Research Triangle Park, NC). Hydrolysis of paraoxon in the presence of PTE<sub>3</sub>-QD or PTE<sub>3</sub> free in solution was monitored over time by measuring the absorbance at 405 nm every 20 seconds while maintaining the temperature at 25°C. To a 384-well Corning flat bottom, non-binding plate, 10 μL of free PTE<sub>3</sub> or PTE<sub>3</sub>-QD bioconjugate was pipetted into each well. A serial dilution of paraoxon solution was made in CHES buffer ranging in concentration from 5000 to 20 μM in a separate 96-well plate. Right before the start of the experiment, 10 μL of the serially diluted paraoxon was added to each well of the 384-well plate. Absorbance values were converted to concentrations values using a standard curve of *p*-nitrophenol. Initial rates were determined using a macro written in excel with an R<sup>2</sup> value=0.995. Kinetic parameters were determined by fitting the initial rates to the Micheales-Menten equation (1) by minimizing the error between the estimated initial rates and the actual rates.

$$\frac{dP}{dt} \cong -\frac{d[S]}{dt} = \frac{V[S]}{K_M + [S]}, k_{cat} = \frac{V_{max}}{[E]_0} \quad (1)$$

### 2.5 Agarose Gel Electrophoresis

PTE<sub>3</sub> was allowed to self-assemble onto 525 nm QDs at increasing stoichiometric ratios (0 to 16 per QD).[15] Each

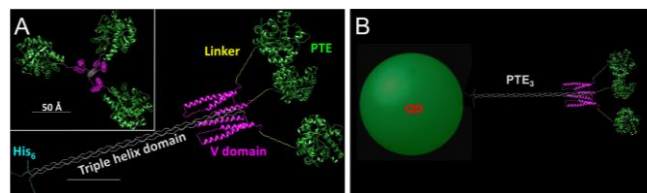
reaction contained 5 picomoles of QD at a final volume of 20 μL and was incubated at room temperature for 30 min to facilitate assembly. The assemblies were run on a precast 1.5% agarose low electroendosmosis (EEO) gel in 1X Tris-Borate-EDTA buffer at pH = 8.3. The gel was visualized with a BioRad Gel Image Analyzer to monitor QD migration.

## 2.6 Dynamic Light Scattering and ζ-potential

Dynamic light scattering (DLS) measurements were carried out using a CGS-3 goniometer system equipped with a single-photon counting avalanche photodiode for signal detection (ALV, Langen, Germany) and analyzed using Dispersion Technology Software (DTS, Malvern Instruments Ltd, Worcestershire, UK).[16, 17] The data of the pre-filtered QDs (with 0.25 μm Millipore syringe filters for typically ~ 1 μM) was repeatedly collected (3-5 times) at 20°C and the number profile versus hydrodynamic size was used for data presentation. For Zeta-Potential (ζ-potential) measurement, Laser Doppler Velocimetry (LDV) measurements were performed using a ZetaSizer NanoSeries (Malvern Instruments Ltd, Worcestershire, UK) at 25°C. Three runs of the measurements were performed for each sample prepared in 0.1×PBS buffer at pH 7.4.

## 3 RESULTS

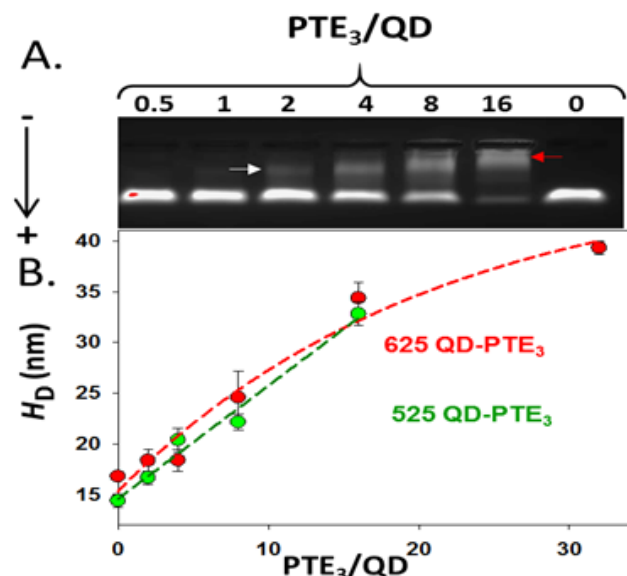
In this work, we attempt to elucidate the mechanisms for enhanced catalytic activity when enzymes are attached to nanoparticle surfaces as compared to free enzyme in solution. Figure 1 schematically shows the ribbon and stick model of PTE<sub>3</sub> composed of His<sub>6</sub> tail, triple helix domain, V stabilization domain, linker sequence, and PTE monomer and how the assembly would attach to the QD surface.



**Figure 1.** (A) Ribbon and stick model of PTE<sub>3</sub> composed of His-6 tail, triple helix domain, V stabilization domain, linker sequence, and PTE monomer. Scale bar = 5 nm (B) Schematic demonstrating PTE<sub>3</sub> assembly onto QD relative to scale. Adapted from Ref [15] with permission of the Royal Society of Chemistry.

To confirm PTE<sub>3</sub> attached to the QD surface through metal coordination, increasing discrete ratios of PTE<sub>3</sub> were assembled to QD and performed an agarose gel, DLS and measured the ζ-potential. The diameters of the green and red QDs were determined to be 4.3 ± 0.5 and 9.2 ± 0.8 nm, respectively corresponding to surface areas of ~58 and ~266 nm<sup>2</sup>. [15, 18] As shown in Figure 2 A, the electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) demonstrates as the ratio of PTE<sub>3</sub> assembled to QD increases, the mobility of the assemblies decreases; indicating an overall increase in the

MW of the assemblies. Arrows indicate the smallest and highest ratios of assembled PTE<sub>3</sub>/QD. DLS confirmed bioconjugates spontaneously self-assemble as shown in Figure 2 B by the increasing hydrodynamic diameter with increasing PTE<sub>3</sub>/QD ratio. The constructs were engineered to have the (His)<sub>6</sub> tail distally located from the enzyme therefore more than two times the maximum of 12 or 24 dimeric PTE to 525 or 625 nm QDs respectively could be assembled to the QD surface. Also, the enzyme binding pocket should face outward and not be sterically hindered.

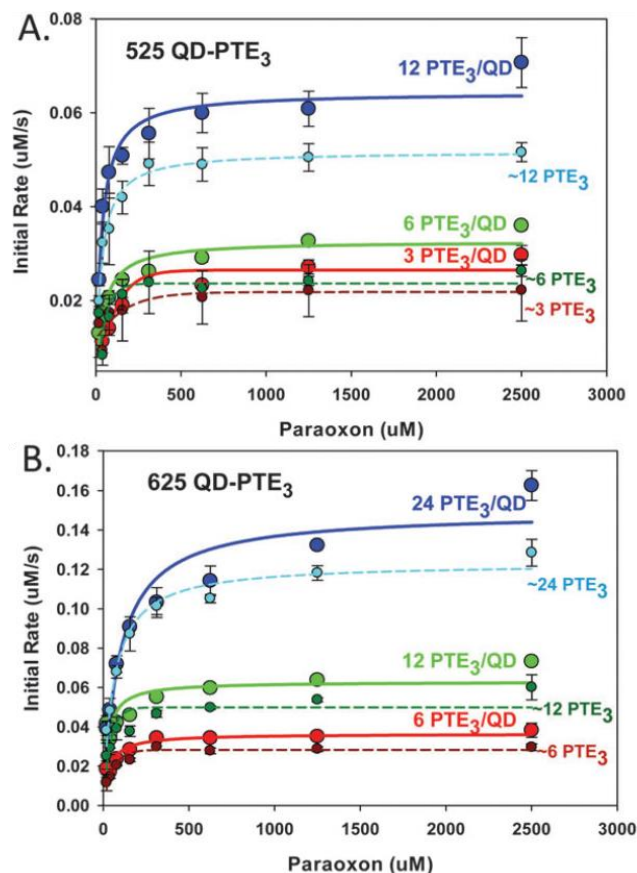


**Figure 2.** (A) Representative gel of increasing ratios of PTE<sub>3</sub> assembled to 525 nm QDs. (B) Hydrodynamic diameter ( $H_D$ ) determined by DLS for increasing ratios of PTE<sub>3</sub> attached to either 525 or 625 nm QD. Adapted from Ref. [15] with permission of the Royal Society of Chemistry.

Significant enhancement in activity was seen when PTE<sub>3</sub> attached to either 525 nm or 625 nm QDs as compared to free enzyme at each of the ratios tested (Figure 3). Paraoxon is an insecticide and an organophosphate stimulant therefore it is commonly used as substrate for studying this family of enzymes. PTE hydrolyzes paraoxon to *p*-nitrophenol whose absorbance can be monitored overtime at 405 nm. Characteristic kinetic parameters were determined by fitting the Michaelis–Menten equation (Equation 1) to the initial rates versus paraoxon concentrations for each ratio of PTE<sub>3</sub> on or off the QD tested. As shown in Figure 3, assembly of PTE<sub>3</sub> onto the QD caused an enhancement in catalytic activity compared to free enzyme at all the ratios tested for both QD sizes.

As shown in Table 1, the  $K_M$  values should be considered apparent values as the PTE<sub>3</sub>/QD constructs are not the same as freely diffusing enzyme. The  $K_M$  values for our engineered PTE<sub>3</sub> are better or at least comparable to numerous other PTE wild types and variants but the  $k_{cat}$  is decreased.[19, 20] The highest apparent activity occurs at the lowest valency of PTE<sub>3</sub> on the smallest QD which we have noted before with alkaline phosphatase attached to QD. [18] The  $k_{cat}$  of PTE<sub>3</sub>

attached to QD increased by 2X compared to PTE<sub>3</sub> free in solution at the lowest valency and smallest QD.



**Figure 3.** Trimeric PTE activity in solution and attached onto 525 nm (A) or 625 nm emitting QDs (B). Solid lines indicated activity of PTE when assembled onto QDs while dashed lines are equivalent amounts of free PTE in solution. Ratios or equivalents (~) of PTE to QD are indicated. Each data point is the average of three replicates. Note the difference in scale. Adapted from Ref. [15] with the permission of the Royal Society of Chemistry.

PTE <sub>3</sub> /QD	$k_{cat}$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )	$K_M$ (μM)	$k_{cat}/K_M$ (μM <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )
<b>525 nm QD</b>			
3	7.9±1.0	111.9±18.9	0.07±0.01
6	4.9±0.3	33.3±7.7	0.15±0.03
12	4.8±0.4	30.0±6.9	0.16±0.03
Average:	5.9±1.8	58.4±11.2	0.13±0.05
<b>625 nm QD</b>			
6	5.1±0.8	28.8±1.8	0.18±0.03
12	4.7±0.1	24.6±3.3	0.19±0.02
24	5.7±0.6	167.1±39.5	0.05±0.03
Average:	5.2±0.5	73.5±20.3	0.14±0.07
<b>PTE<sub>3</sub> alone</b>			
Average:	3.9±0.8	50.1±9.8	0.10±0.03

**Table 1:** Summary of estimated PTE<sub>3</sub> kinetic parameters on or off QD. Adapted from Ref [15] with the permission of the Royal Society of Chemistry.

## 4 CONCLUSIONS

By performing in-depth kinetic modeling we postulate an enhancement mechanism due to the substrate being captured by the bioconjugate and undergoing a translational diffusion process between closely-spaced enzymes on the QD surface. Another possibility is the solvation shell surrounding the PTE<sub>3</sub>/QD construct is influencing the kinetics. Development of these nanosensors as optical-based biosensors (e.g., within compact microfluidic devices) may greatly improve the sensitivity of conventional biological/chemical detection schemes. These enzyme/QD constructs have been engineered to have the substrate binding pocket facing outward, away from the QD surface thereby increasing favorable interactions with the substrate. Further work is being carried out to determine if these results can be replicated with other enzyme constructs and the influence of packing density as well as nanoparticle curvature in catalytic enhancement.

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