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PAPER

Vapor–liquid–solid grown silica nanowire based electrochemical glucose biosensor

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Vapor–liquid–solid (VLS) grown silica nanowires (SiO₂NWs) have been deposited electrophoretically on a gold electrode and utilized for covalent immobilization of glucose oxidase (GOx). Covalent binding has been achieved *via* 3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane (APTES) modification and *N*-ethyl-*N'*-(3-dimethylaminopropyl) carbodiimide and *N*-hydroxysuccinimide chemistry. Scanning electron microscopy, transmission electron microscopy and cyclic voltammetry techniques have been used to characterize SiO₂NW and GOx/APTES/SiO₂NW/Au bioelectrode. Electrochemical studies reveal that SiO₂NW increases the effective electro-active surface area thus resulting in higher loading of enzyme. Response characteristics show linearity in the range of interest 25–300 mg dl^{−1}, with a detection limit of 11 mg dl^{−1}, sensitivity: 0.463 μA (mg dl^{−1})^{−1} and regression coefficient of 0.992.

1. Introduction

Electrochemical biosensors possessing high accuracy, sensitivity and cost-effectiveness continue to be a technology of interest in clinical diagnostics.^{1–3} Integrating affordable nanomaterials with chemically tailored physicochemical properties enables improvement in sensitivity while reducing cost.^{4–6} Among nanomaterials, oxides such as ZnO, CeO₂, ZrO₂ and SiO₂ are potential candidates that have recently gained much attention due to high surface-to-volume ratio, high surface reaction activity, and ease of preparation.^{7–10} Sol–gel based silica (SiO₂) films have shown biocompatibility and high stability as a matrix material. SiO₂ nanowires (SiO₂NWs) have offered greater versatility due to their unique anisotropy in physical, optical, electronic properties with excellent photoluminescence and biocompatibility.^{11,12} Further, SiO₂NWs' surface can be easily and effectively modified with standard silane based chemistries.¹³ However, their growth and optimal deposition of SiO₂NWs on the surface of an electrode had proven to be a challenge that needed exploring.

There are many different techniques to synthesize semiconductor nanowires, however, the vapor–liquid–solid (VLS) process is most common for fabrication of semiconductor nanowires.¹⁴ VLS is a bottom-up method where metals like gold, palladium, platinum *etc.* react with the silicon substrate to form silicide islands that are dispersed on a Si substrate. The vapor phases dissolve in these silicide and nanowires precipitate out of the super saturated silicide. Using VLS, it is possible to grow

nanowires with controlled diameters.¹⁴ Recently, Sood *et al.*¹⁵ have described a method for selective growth of SiO₂NWs on silicon wafers using palladium ion implantation. They have shown that Pd nanoclusters get activated and act as catalyst silicide seeds for selective nanowire growth on the implanted region, when heated in an open tube quartz furnace, using Ar as carrier gas. They have also suggested their applications in on-chip optoelectronics, biosensors and microantennae. Sekhar *et al.*¹⁶ have described the selective growth of amorphous silica nanowires on a silicon wafer deposited with Pt thin film. They have established the mechanism of nanowire growth and suggested that it follows the vapour–liquid–solid (VLS) model *via* the PtSi phase acting as the catalyst. Using this bottom-up technique they were able to grow nanowires with diameters ranging from 50 to 500 nm. Later, they have described the selective growth of silica nanowires using an Au catalyst for optical recognition of interleukin-10.¹⁷ In the present work, an attempt has been made to utilize these biocompatible silica nanowires selectively grown using palladium implant for biosensor fabrication.

The VLS method results in growth of dense nanowires akin to a bed of grass and weeds. Approaches for their dispersion in a suitable solvent and deposition on a metallic surface for electrochemical biosensor fabrication are still being optimized. Recently, electrophoretic deposition (EPD) of nanostructures including nanowires has been shown to result in uniform and densely packed structures with controlled thickness and morphology.^{18,19} EPD is commonly employed in processing and deposition of ceramics, coatings, composite materials, carbon nanotubes and conducting polymers. It is achieved *via* motion of charged particles, dispersed in a suitable solvent, towards an electrode under an applied electric field. Deposition on the electrode occurs *via* particle coagulation. Electrophoretic

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motion of charged particles during EPD results in the accumulation of particles and the formation of films or coatings with good microstructure homogeneity and high packing density from colloidal suspensions.^{20–24} EPD has the advantage of simplicity, cost-effectiveness, simple equipment requirement, amenability to scaling-up to large dimensions and applicability to a great variety of materials. Recently, Dhand *et al.* have described application of EPD for deposition of polyaniline film²⁵ and multiwalled carbon nanotubes (MWCNT-c)²⁶ on indium-tin-oxide (ITO) coated glass plate and shown that EPD results in smoother and uniform morphology for the deposited film in comparison to the electrochemically deposited films.

In this manuscript, we report the application of electrophoretically deposited VLS grown SiO₂NWs for fabrication of electrochemical enzymatic biosensor. SiO₂NWs were electrophoretically deposited, and modified with 3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane (APTES) for covalent immobilization of glucose oxidase (GOx) as model enzyme. The GOx/APTES/SiO₂NWs/Au bioelectrode fabricated in this way has been found to be sensitive to glucose, with high sensitivity of 0.463 μA (mg dl⁻¹)⁻¹.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Silica nanowire growth and bioelectrode fabrication

All chemicals of analytical grade were purchased from Sigma Aldrich. As reported earlier by our group, SiO₂NWs were grown using a metal seeded vapor–liquid–solid (VLS) mechanism.¹⁰ In brief, palladium (Pd) ions were implanted into Si(100) and then annealed at 1100 °C in Ar environment to grow nanowires. For electrophoretic deposition on gold surface, a stock solution of SiO₂NW (~ 0.4 mg ml⁻¹) was prepared in 10 mM NiCl₂·6H₂O through sonication and then 40 μl of the solution was aliquoted and dispersed in 2 ml of acetonitrile through sonication. Nanowire deposition was then carried out using a cell with two electrodes, placed parallel to each other with separation of 1 cm and by applying DC voltage (100 V) for 60 s. The electrode, now modified with SiO₂NWs, was washed with water and silanized using 2% APTES in methanol for 2 h which resulted in a large number of amino groups on NW surface. The GOx was covalently attached to APTES amino groups using *N*-ethyl-*N'*-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)carbodiimide and *N*-hydroxysuccinimide (EDC/NHS) chemistry. The quantity of enzyme used was optimized and 30 μl of 2 mg ml⁻¹ GOx solution in PBS containing 0.4 M EDC and 0.1 M NHS were used. The enzyme solution was poured onto APTES modified NW surface (0.25 cm²) and incubated for 2 h at room temperature for GOx binding. The electrode (GOx/APTES/SiO₂NW/Au) formed was washed thoroughly with phosphate buffer (10 mM, pH 7.0) containing 0.9% NaCl to remove any unbound enzyme. The electrode was stored at 4 °C when not in use. Fig. 1 shows the schematic for GOx/APTES/SiO₂NW/Au bioelectrode fabrication.

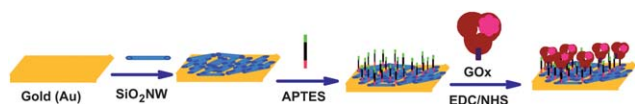


Fig. 1 Schematic for GOx/APTES/SiO₂NW/Au bio-electrode fabrication.

2.2. Measurement and apparatus

TEM characterization and SEM studies were conducted using FEI Tecnai™ SEM & TEM to characterize nanowires and electrode formation. Cyclic voltammetric studies, using an Autolab Potentiostat/Galvanostat from Autolab, were done to characterize electrode fabrication, concentration studies and electrochemical studies. CV studies were carried out in phosphate buffer saline (PBS) 10 mM, pH 7.5 containing 0.1 mM Fe(CN)₆^{3-/4-} in the electrode cell with Ag/AgCl as reference electrode and gold film as counter electrode.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. SEM and TEM characterization

Fig. 2 shows the SEM image of GOx modified electrode where globular kind of structures represent the bound GOx on SiO₂NWs. The inset shows the TEM image of VLS grown SiO₂NW revealing the presence of pure SiO₂NW with a diameter of 20 to 70 nm.

3.2. Cyclic voltammetric characterization

Fig. 3 shows the cyclic voltammograms obtained from different modified electrodes. The increase in the oxidation current of the SiO₂/Au (curve (ii)) on gold plate compared to that of the Au electrode (curve (i)) indicates the deposition of SiO₂NW that results in formation of a three dimensional surface electrode with larger surface area compared to a plain Au surface. Further, the increase in current is attributed to the use of 10 mM NiCl₂·6H₂O solution as charger salt for dispersion and deposition of silica nanowires on a negative electrode. The interaction of NiCl₂·6H₂O solution with silica nanowires also results in deposition of Ni particles on the surface of the silica nanowires. EDAX studies confirm the presence of nickel on the surface (data not shown). Thus formation of the three dimensional surface electrode with a larger surface area and the presence of nickel on the surface result in an increase of redox probe (Fe(CN)₆^{3-/4-}) current in the diffusion controlled process. In curve (iii) the increase in current for APTES/SiO₂NW/Au suggests the APTES

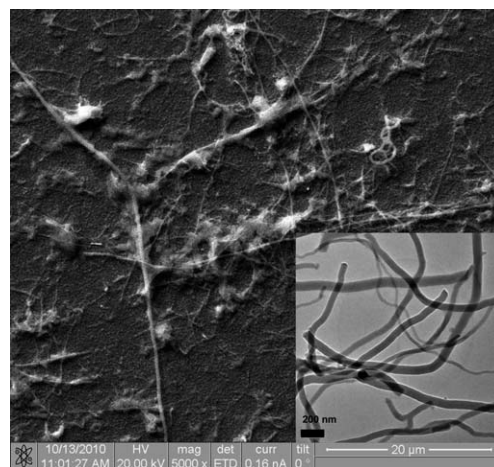


Fig. 2 SEM image of GOx modified electrode. Inset: TEM image of VLS grown SiO₂NW.

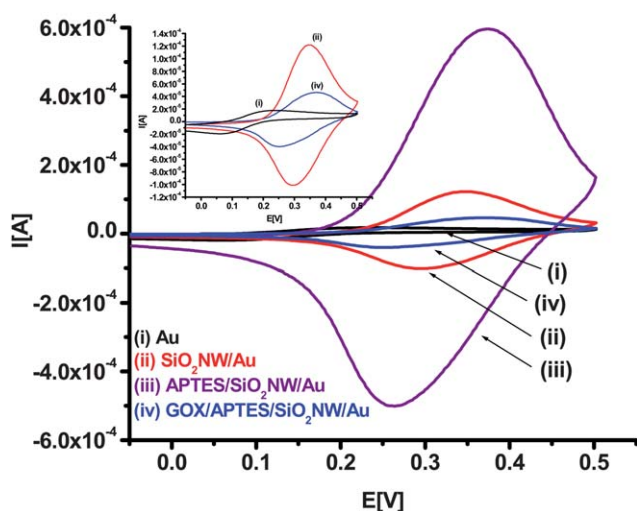


Fig. 3 CV characterization of GOx/APTES/SiO₂NW/Au bio-electrode fabrication in phosphate buffer saline (PBS) 10 mM, pH 7.5 containing 0.1 mM Fe(CN)₆^{3-/4-} at 50 mV s⁻¹.

SAM formation which results in the generation of a large number of polarizable amino groups on the surface. The presence of possible positive charge on the amino groups attracts the negatively charged redox probe towards the electrode surface and facilitates redox behavior of Fe(CN)₆^{3-/4-} at the surface.²⁷ After GOx binding (curve (iv)), a decrease in current response was observed and is attributed to the insulating and macromolecular structure of the GOx molecule that hinders the electron transfer.

3.3. Scan rate studies

Fig. 4a shows the CV studies of SiO₂/Au electrode at different scan rates ranging from 10 to 100 mV s⁻¹. It is clear from Fig. 4a that the magnitude of current response increases with increasing scan rate and exhibits a linear relationship with square root of scan rate (inset of Fig. 4a), suggesting a diffusion controlled process. Furthermore, the quasi reversible curves and observed linear dependence of potential difference as a function of scan rate reveal the facile electron transfer.²⁸ These studies suggest that the SiO₂NW based matrices can provide a useful matrix for electrochemical biosensors.

Fig. 4b shows the scan rate response for the GOx/APTES/SiO₂NW/Au bio-electrode. It can be seen that after binding of GOx on APTES modified SiO₂ the oxidation current decreases and the oxidation peak potential shifted to a higher value suggesting formation of a diffusion inhibiting insulating layer on the electrode surface. However, well defined quasi reversible peaks even after GOx deposition reveal the advantage of SiO₂NW's for matrix application. Further, the linear relationship between magnitude of the current response and square root of scan rate (inset of Fig. 4b), suggests a diffusion controlled process on the GOx/APTES/SiO₂NW/Au bio-electrode.

3.4. Glucose concentration studies

Fig. 5 shows the CV spectra of GOx/APTES/SiO₂NW/Au for various glucose concentrations. It is observed that the magnitude

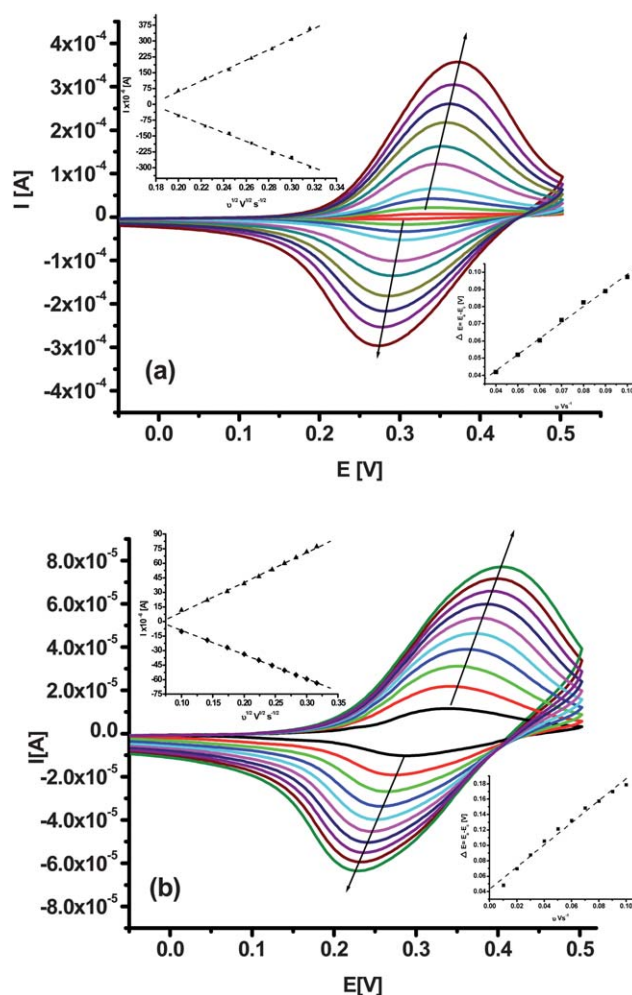


Fig. 4 Scan rate studies of (a) SiO₂NW/Au and (b) GOx/APTES/SiO₂NW/Au bio-electrode.

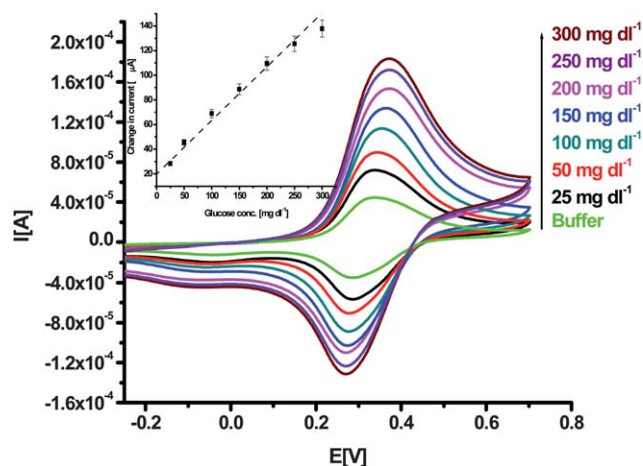


Fig. 5 CV spectra of GOx/APTES/SiO₂NW/Au for (i) buffer, (ii) 25 mg dl⁻¹, (iii) 50 mg dl⁻¹, (iv) 100 mg dl⁻¹, (v) 150 mg dl⁻¹, (vi) 200 mg dl⁻¹, (vii) 250 mg dl⁻¹ and (viii) 300 mg dl⁻¹ of glucose concentration in phosphate buffer saline (PBS) 10 mM, pH 7.5 containing 0.1 mM Fe(CN)₆^{3-/4-} at 50 mV s⁻¹. Inset: linearity curve for various glucose concentrations. Results of triplicate sets are indicated by error bars.

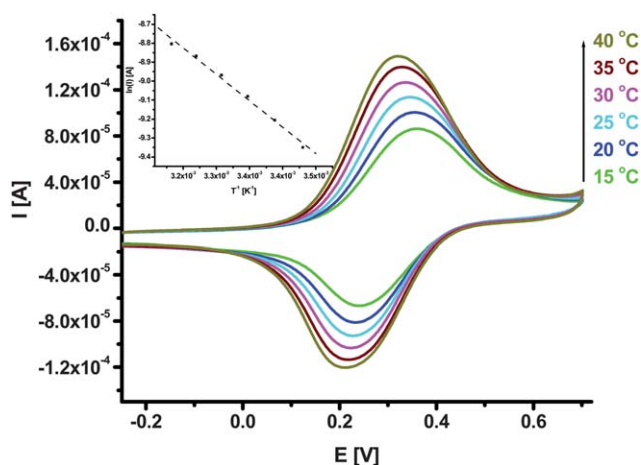


Fig. 6 Temperature response studies of GOx/APTES/SiO₂NW/Au bio-electrode for 100 mg dl⁻¹ glucose in phosphate buffer saline (PBS) 10 mM, pH 7.5 containing 0.1 mM Fe(CN)₆^{3-/4-} at 50 mV s⁻¹. Inset: Arrhenius plot, curve between inverse of absolute temperature and ln (*I*).

of the electrochemical response current of the GOx/APTES/SiO₂NW/Au electrode increases with increasing concentration of glucose (Fig. 5). It is attributed to enzymatic catalytic action of GOx bound on the SiO₂NW surface that acts as a high surface area matrix and facilitates higher electron transfer rate. A linear relationship (inset, Fig. 5) between magnitude of current and glucose concentration has been observed and follows $I (\mu\text{A}) = 19.744 (\mu\text{A}) + 0.4359 (\mu\text{A} (\text{mg dl}^{-1})^{-1}) \text{Glu. Conc. (mg dl}^{-1})$, with a detection limit of 11 mg dl⁻¹, a standard deviation of 1.60 μA and $R^2 = 0.99157$. A high sensitivity of 0.4359 ($\mu\text{A} (\text{mg dl}^{-1})^{-1}$) indicates high loading of GOx on a larger surface area and faster electron transfer provided by SiO₂NWs.

3.5. Temperature and interferent studies

Temperature studies between 15 and 40 °C (Fig. 6) show gradually increasing current response for 100 mg dl⁻¹ glucose concentration, revealing a high thermal stability for immobilized enzyme with a low activation energy (E_a) of 16.56 kJ mol⁻¹ calculated from the Arrhenius plot (inset, Fig. 6). Interferent studies and pH studies (pH 6.0 to 8.0) (data not shown) indicate that electrodes work best at pH 7.0 and are selective against urea (0.5 mM) and ascorbic acid (0.25 mM).

4. Conclusions

In summary, SiO₂NW provides a biocompatible matrix and increases the electroactive surface area of the electrode for the immobilization of GOx, thus resulting in enhanced electron transport and a high sensitivity of 0.4359 ($\mu\text{A} (\text{mg dl}^{-1})^{-1}$). Electrophoretically deposited SiO₂NW represents a new biosensor platform for the sensitive detection of glucose and may

find potential application for detection of other clinically important analytes such as cholesterol and urea, among others.

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