

# Label-free Electrochemical Immunosensor based on Decorated Cellulose Nanofibrous Membrane for Point-of-Care Diagnosis of Amanitin Poisoning via Human Urine

Journal:	Lab on a Chip
Manuscript ID	LC-ART-06-2023-000508.R1
Article Type:	Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	29-Aug-2023
Complete List of Authors:	El-Moghazy, Ahmed; University of California Davis, ; City of Scientific Research and Technological Applications, Amaly, Noha; University of California Davis; City of Scientific Research and Technological Applications, Nitin, Nitin; University of California Davis Sun, Gang; University of California Davis

SCHOLARONE<sup>™</sup> Manuscripts

1	
23	Label-free Electrochemical Immunosensor based on Decorated Cellulose Nanofibrous
4	Membrane for Point-of-Care Diagnosis of Amanitin Poisoning via Human Urine
5 6	Ahmed Y. El-Moghazy <sup>1,2</sup> *, Noha Amaly <sup>1,2</sup> , Nitin Nitin <sup>1,3</sup> , Gang Sun <sup>1</sup>
8	<sup>1</sup> Department of Biological and Agricultural Engineering, University of California, Davis, CA 95616, USA
10 11 12	<sup>2</sup> Polymeric Materials Research Department, Advanced Technology and New Materials Research Institute, City of Scientific Research and Technological Applications (SRTA-City), New Borg El-Arab City 21934, Alexandria, Egypt.
13 14	<sup>3</sup> Food Science and Technology, University of California, Davis, United States.
15 16	Abstract:
17	
18	$\alpha$ -Amanitin (AMN) is one of the deadliest toxins from mushrooms, present in the deadly
19	mushroom species Amanita phalloides. It is a bicyclic octapeptide and represents up to 40% of the
20	amatoxins in mushrooms, damaging the livers and kidneys. Current methods of detecting
21	amatoxins are time-consuming and require use of expensive equipment. A novel label-free
22	electrochemical immunosensor was successfully developed for rapid detection of $\alpha$ -amanitin,
23	which was fabricated by immobilization of anti- $\alpha$ -amanitin antibodies onto functionalized
24	cellulose nanofibrous membrane-modified carbon screen-printed electrode. An oxidation peak of
25	the captured amanitin on the tethered antibodies was observed at 0.45 V. The performance of the
26	nanofibrous membrane on the electrode and necessary fabrication steps were investigated by
27	electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and cyclic voltammetry (CV). Due to their unique
28	structural features and properties such as high specific surface areas and microporous structure,
29	the nanofibrous membrane as the immunosensor matrix for the antibody tethering exhibited
30	improved electrochemical performance of the electrode by more than 3 times compared with the
31	casted membranes. Under the optimal conditions, the assembled immunosensor exhibited high

32 sensitivity toward  $\alpha$ -amanitin detection in the range of 0.009-2 ng mL<sup>-1</sup> with a limit of detection 33 of 8.3 pg mL<sup>-1</sup>. The results clearly indicate that the fabricated nanofibers-based-immunosensor is 34 suitable to point-of-care detection of lethal  $\alpha$ -amanitin in human urine without any pretreatment 35 within 30 min.

36 Keywords: α-amanitin, Cellulose, Nanofibers, Electrochemical immunosensor, Point-of-care.
 37

# 38 Introduction:

Thousands of mushroom poisonings are reported annually around the globe <sup>1–3</sup>. In over 80% of cases of mushroom poisoning, the kind of mushroom is unknown. Based on the poisons present and the clinical symptoms they cause, toxic mushrooms are frequently categorized <sup>5</sup>. Amatoxins are one of the most toxic groups of mushroom toxins, and are responsible for the majority of fatal mushroom poisonings worldwide. These toxins are produced by several species of mushrooms, including some of the Amanita genus, such as Amanita phalloides, also known as the death cap mushroom, which is responsible for most mushroom poisoning deaths <sup>4</sup>.

Amatoxins are highly stable and heat-resistant, which means that they are not destroyed by cooking
or processing. Once ingested, they are absorbed rapidly in the small intestine and transported to
the liver, where they bind to RNA polymerase II, a critical enzyme involved in protein synthesis.
This results in the inhibition of protein synthesis, leading to liver cell death and liver failure <sup>5</sup>.

50 The symptoms of amatoxin poisoning usually appear within 6 to 24 hours after ingestion, and may 51 include gastrointestinal distress (such as nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea), abdominal pain, and 52 dehydration. These symptoms may improve after a few days, but then the patient may develop 53 severe liver damage, which can lead to hepatic encephalopathy, coma, and death. Treatment of

amatoxin poisoning often involves supportive care, such as fluid and electrolyte replacement, and
 sometimes liver transplantation is necessary <sup>6</sup>.

The diagnosis of amatoxin poisoning can be challenging, as symptoms may not appear until several hours after ingestion, and may initially resemble a gastrointestinal illness. Currently, there are no rapid or on-site diagnostic tools for amatoxin poisoning, which can delay the diagnosis of poisoning and subsequent treatment <sup>7</sup>.

Laboratory-based analysis is typically required, using techniques such as HPLC, mass spectrometry, or ELISA to detect the presence of amatoxins in blood, urine, or mushroom extracts 7.8. The diagnosis of amatoxin poisoning is usually based on a combination of clinical symptoms, history of mushroom ingestion, and laboratory results. In patients with suspected amatoxin poisoning, treatment should be initiated immediately based on clinical suspicion, even before laboratory results are available <sup>7–9</sup>.

Rapid diagnosis of amatoxin poisoning would allow for prompt initiation of appropriate treatment, including the administration of silibinin, which can improve patient outcomes and potentially reduce the need for more invasive treatments such as liver transplantation <sup>9,10</sup>. The development of biosensors for amatoxins is urgently needed to help for the rapid and on-site diagnosis of amatoxin poisoning, which allowing for quick and easy detection of amatoxins in mushroom samples or biological samples from patients with suspected poisoning.

In the recent years, nanomaterials have opened new horizons for the biosensor development with enhanced sensitivity, selectivity, and shortened detection time due to the ultrahigh surface areas <sup>11–15</sup>. Nanofibers (NFs) produced by electrospinning are among the most promising nanomaterials, gained a growing interest during the past decade for a wide range of applications <sup>16–20</sup>. The 76 employment of nanofibers with ultrahigh surface area has resulted in sensors with higher
 77 sensitivity and lower limits of detection (LOD) <sup>21,22</sup>.

In this study, an ultrasensitive label-free electrochemical immunosensor was developed based on citric acid decorated cellulose nanofibrous membranes immobilized with AMN antibodies to rapid detection of AMN in human fluids samples. The membrane is attached onto printed electrodes. Amperometric responses were based on the oxidation of hydroxyindole of the captured AMN molecules on the surface of anti-AMN-modified screen-printed electrodes. The developed labelfree electrochemical immunosensor was applied for AMN detection in real human urine samples.

84

# 85 Materials & Methods

#### 86 Chemicals, Materials, and Instrument.

87 Cellulose acetate (CA; white powder; Mw = 30,000 Da), N, N-dimethylacetamide (DMAc), citric 88 acid, α-Amanitin were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). N-Ethyl-N'-(3- dimethyl 89 aminopropyl) carbodiimide hydrochloride (EDC), N-hydroxyl succinimide (NHS), disodium 90 hydrogen phosphate (Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>), and monosodium orthophosphate (NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>) were supplied by 91 Acros Chemical (Pittsburgh, PA, USA). sodium chloride (NaCl), potassium chloride (KCl), bovine 92 serum albumin (BSA), potassium ferricyanide (K<sub>3</sub>[Fe(CN<sub>6</sub>)]), potassium ferrocyanide 93 (K<sub>2</sub>[Fe(CN<sub>6</sub>)]) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Milwaukee, WI, USA), AMN antibody (anti-94 AMN) was generously donated by Dr. Candace Bever (USDA-ARS). All water used was purified 95 using a Millipore Milli-Q plus water purification system. All chemicals were used as received.

A 263A potentiostat/galvanostat equipped with a frequency response detector (FRD100)
(Princeton Applied Research Co., Oak Ridge, TN, USA) was used for the electrochemical
measurements. The disposable SPE, comprising a carbon working electrode, a carbon counter
electrode, and an Ag/AgCl reference electrode, was purchased from Metrohm USA INC (GA, US).

100 The morphological characterizations of the polymeric nanofibrous membranes were implemented101 by a FEI 430 Nova NanoSEM scanning electron microscope (SEM).

102 The FT-IR spectra of membrane materials were achieved by using a Nicolet 6700 spectrometer,

103 following of the pressing of the grounded the Cel-A/Cel NFMs at the different reaction steps with

- anhydrous KBr, FT-IR spectra of these specimens were scanned in the wavenumber range of 500-
- 105 4000 cm<sup>-1</sup> with a resolution of 4 cm<sup>-1</sup>.

106

### 107 *Cellulose nanofibrous membranes production and functionalization:*

108 Cellulose acetate nanofibrous membranes production

109 Following Fu et al <sup>23</sup>. with minor modifications, cellulose acetate nanofibrous membranes (Cel-A 110 NFMs) were produced through electrospinning. Cellulose acetate was dissolved with vigorous 111 stirring overnight in a solvent combination of DMAC and acetone (1:1 w/w), and solutions of 112 various concentrations (5, 10 and 15 wt%) were prepared. A 10-mL plastic syringe with an 18-113 gauge tubular metal needle with a flat tip was used for the electrospinning process, which was 114 carried out using a DXES-1 spinning apparatus at a voltage of 20 kV, a distance of 15 cm between 115 the needle tip and the collector surface, and a feeding rate of 1 mL/h for the delivery of the 116 polymeric solution. The spinning process was performed at room temperature and humidity of 45 117 ± 5%.

118

119 Deacetylation of cellulose acetate nanofibrous membranes

Cellulose nanofibrous membranes (Cel NFMs) were made by deacetylating Cel-A NFMs. To
hydrolyze the acetate groups and create Cel NFMs, the deacetylation procedure was carried out in
0.05 M NaOH in 1:1 EtOH/water solutions at room temperature for 48 hours. After rinsing with

123	ultrapure water, the prepared Cel NFMs were dried in a vacuum oven for 12 hours at 80 °C. The
124	acetyl% of the produced cellulose was determined by immersing a membrane sample in 20 mL of
125	0.05 N NaOH in 50% ethanol for 12 hours at room temperature. Followed by titrating of excess
126	alkali with 0.05 N HCl using a pH meter. The percentage of acetyl % in cellulose was calculated
127	according to equation (1) $^{24}$ :
128	Acetyl %= $(V_B . C_B - V_A . C_A) 4.3/W$ (1)
129	Where W is the sample weight, $V_B$ and $C_B$ are the volume and concentration of NaOH solution,
130	and $V_A$ and $C_A$ are the volume and concentration of HCl solution, respectively.
131	
132	Functionalization of produce nanofibrous membranes
133	The hydroxyl groups on the Cel NFMs were then reacted with the carboxylic groups of citric acid
134	in a procedure performed as follows <sup>25</sup> : A citric acid solution 8 % (w/v) was prepared in 10 mL of
135	PBS buffer pH 7.2, followed by adding EDC and NHS at a final concentration of 1 mM to the
136	citric acid solution. This mixture was vigorously stirred at room temperature for 2 hours. Then, the
137	Cel NFMs were submerged in the prepared solution for 1 hour at 60 °C. Subsequently, the
138	modified membranes (Cel-CA NFM) were rinsed using PBS and placed in a vacuum oven at 80
139	°C for 1 h.
140	AMN Immunosensor fabrication:
141	Immobilization of anti-amanitin antibodies

Prior to the sensor fabrication, the screen-printed electrodes will be pretreated by applying potentials between 1 and -1.5 V vs. Ag/AgCl in 0.5 M  $H_2SO_4$  until a stable signal is obtained to remove the organic binders. A 4 mm Cel NFM disc with 0.05 mm thickness was laminated on the working electrode of the SPE using a conductive paste to fabricate Cel NFM/SPE, and similarly

146 Cel casted membranes were used for in parallel preparing of Cel CM/SPE. 100 µL of 1mM 147 EDC/NHS was used to activate the carboxylic groups of the Cel-CA NFMs/SPE for 1 hour. After 148 washing with PBS, 10 µL of anti-AMN (100 µg mL<sup>-1</sup>) antibodies were dropped onto the surface 149 of EDC/NHS decorated Cel-CA NFMs/SPE, and the electrode was kept at 4°C for 1 hour. 150 Followed by being rinsed with PBS to remove any un-immobilized antibodies, the remaining 151 active groups were blocked with 50 µL of 1% BSA for 1 hour at the room temperature, and then 152 rinsed again with PBS. The resulting immunosensor was then operational for AMN detection 153 experiments. The schematic diagram of the assembly steps of the AMN immunosensor and 154 detection mechanism are illustrated in scheme 1.



Scheme 1: Fabrication process and sensing mechanism of the electrochemical immunosensor for
 AMN detection

158

155

#### 159 *Electrochemical measurements*

160 The electrochemical characterizations for the assembled immunosensor were performed by cyclic 161 voltammetry and Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) in a 2.5 mM ferri/ferrocyanide 162 ( $[Fe(CN)_6]^{4-/3-}$ ) solution. Cyclic voltammograms (CV) were recorded from -1 to 1 V *vs* Ag/AgCl

at a scan rate of 25 mV s<sup>-1</sup>. The Nyquist plots were recorded at applied potential of 0.09 V *vs* Ag/AgCl, with a frequency range from 10 KHz to 1 Hz. Differential pulse voltammetry (DPV) measurements were carried out with applied potential range of 200 - 700 mV, pulse amplitude 60 mV, pulse period 200 ms, pulse width 100 ms and scan rate of 50 mV/s. The electrochemical measurements were conducted at least in triplicates using a 263A potentiostat/galvanostat equipped with a frequency response detector (FRD100) (Princeton Applied Research Co., Oak Ridge, TN, USA).

170

## 171 Applicability of the immunosensor for real sample analysis

Urine samples were gathered from a healthful person and spiked with various concentrations of AMN from 0.01 to 1 ng mL<sup>-1</sup> after the negative AMN content verified using LC-MS. Informed consent was obtained from the participant enrolled in this study. The sample collection and analysis steps followed the IRB-approved protocol (Faculty of Medicine Ethical Committee-Alexandria University, IRB approval No: 00012098) and followed the principles outlined in the Declaration of Helsinki for all human experimental investigations. Prior the direct analysis using the developed immunosensor, the urine samples were diluted 2 times with PBS buffer pH 7.2.

179

## 180 **Results and discussion**

- 181
- 182

# 183 *Physico-Chemical characterizations of the produced Cel NFMs*184

First, cellulose nanofibers were created from cellulose acetate nanofibers using a regeneration approach (Fig. 1A). The successful conversion of acetate group of Cel-A to hydroxyl groups of cellulose was proofed using Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR). Figure 1B presents the FT-IR spectra of the Cel NFM (curve b) and the pristine Cel-A NFM (curve a). After the

regeneration process, the peak at around 1750 cm<sup>-1</sup> ascribed to C=O of the ester of Cel-A disappeared and a new distinctive peak at about 3450 cm<sup>-1</sup> corresponded to the stretching vibration of -OH appeared (Figure 1B), suggesting that acetate was successfully converted to hydroxyl groups.

The decoration of the cellulose nanofibrous membranes with citric acid was carries out as shown in Fig. 1C. The appeared peak of C=O of the ester at 1750 cm confirmed the successful grafting of CA onto the NFM and the effective incorporation of carboxyl groups onto the Cel NFM surface between the hydroxyl group of the regenerated cellulose nanofibers and carboxylic acid (-COOH) group of CA, and the decrease of hydroxyl group peak intensity at 1042 cm<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 1D) <sup>26,27</sup>.

- 198
- 199



Fig.1. (A) Scheme of deacetylation process of cellulose acetate. (B) FT-IR spectra of (a) Cel-A
 NFM, (b) regenerated Cel NFM. (C) Scheme of grafting of citric acid onto Cel NFM. (D) FT-IR
 spectra of (a) Cel NFM, (b) Cel NFM decorated with citric acid.

The morphologies of the nanofibrous membranes were characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). SEM images of electrospun Cel-A NFMs in Fig. 2 a and b demonstrated that the Cel-A nanofibers were aligned and assembled with average diameter of 290 nm as a nonwoven fabric <sup>28</sup>. The Cel-A nanofibers ester groups were converted through the deacetylation process to hydroxyl groups, the Cel NFMs still retained the morphology and similar average diameter (Fig. 2 c and d).



Fig. 2. (a) SEM images and (b) diameter distribution of cellulose acetate NFM. (c) SEM images and (d) diameter distribution of Cel NFM.

224 225

## 226 *Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy and cyclic voltammetry characterization*

The effect of using of the nanofibrous membranes as a supporting matrix for the immobilization of the antibodies during the immunosensor fabrication was examined by comparing the electrochemical performance between screen-printed electrodes modified with Cel casted membranes (Cel CM/SPE) and Cel nanofibrous membranes (Cel NFM/SPE). The effective surface area of the different modified electrodes was calculated according to Randles-Sevcik equation <sup>29</sup>.

232

 $i_p = 2.69 \times 10^5 \text{ An}^{3/2} \text{D}^{1/2} \text{Cv}^{1/2}$  [2]

233

234 where A is effective area of an electrode, n is electrons transferred number, D is the diffusion 235 coefficient, C is electrolyte solution concentration while v is the scan rate. The Cel CM/SPE had a higher electroactive surface area by about 3 times in comparison with the Cel CM/SPCE (Fig. 3A). 236 237 The improvement in the electroactive surface of the Cel NFM/SPCE could be due to the unique 238 microporous structure of the nanofibrous membranes which can facilitate easy access of analytes 239 toward the surface of the electrode and accelerate the electron movement between the analyte and 240 the electrode surface, introducing the nanofibers as an ideal matrix for development of highly 241 sensitive sensing platforms.

242 Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) is an effective technique for probing the features 243 of surface-modified electrodes made through the fabrication process. Impedance spectra consist of two parts: a semicircle portion that corresponds to the electron-transfer-resistance (Ret), and a 244 245 linear portion which reflects the diffusion process <sup>30</sup>. Fig. 3B shows the Nyquist plots observed 246 after modification of the SPE surface with Cel NFM with different nanofibrous membranes 247 thicknesses of 0.05, 0.1 and 0.2 mm. It was shown that Ret was directly proportional to nanofibrous 248 membrane thickness. Due to its lower insulating effect, a membrane thickness of 0.05 mm was 249 found to be most suitable for further experiments.

250 Cyclic voltammograms were recorded with the developed immunosensor between -1 and 1 V vs 251 Ag/AgCl in PBS pH 7.2. No oxidation nor reduction peak was observed in the absence of AMN. 252 After incubation of the immunosensor with AMN at concentration of 1 µg mL<sup>-1</sup>, one anodic peak 253 appeared at approximately 0.45 V, and a cathodic peak was observed at -0.05 V (Fig. 3C). The 254 anodic peak could be attributed to the electrochemical oxidation of AMN hydroxyindole to 255 quinone imine with two electrons and two protons. Based on these results, a potential of 0.45 V vs 256 Ag/AgCl was selected for AMN immunosensing.



257

Fig.3. (A) CV of 2.5 mM  $[Fe(CN)^6]^{3-/4-}$  at a scan rate of 25 mV s<sup>-1</sup> for: (a) Cel CM/SPE and (b) Cel NFM/SPE. (B) Nyquist plots of EIS in 2.5 mM  $[Fe(CN)^6]^{4-/3-}$  for SPE surface modified with (a) bare SPE, (b) Cel NFM (0.05 mm)/SPE, (c) Cel NFM (0.1 mm)/SPE, and (d) Cel NFM (0.2 mm)/SPE. (C) CV of AMN (1 µg mL<sup>-1</sup>) on SPE.

# 263 Optimization of the experimental conditions for AMN detection

The analytical performance of the fabricated immunosensor were adjusted by optimizing different parameters including antibodies concentration, tethering time of antibodies, temperature and immunoreaction time and the pH value of the electrolyte solution.

267

# 268 Anti-AMN antibodies concentration

- 269 The influence of antibody concentration on the sensor response to AMN (1 ng mL<sup>-1</sup>) was examined
- 270 using the Cel NFM-modified SPE activated using 1mM EDC/NHS and an immobilization time of
- 271 60 min. The current response steadily increased as antibody loading increased. The highest

amperometric signal was achieved by using of anti-AMN antibodies at concentration of 100  $\mu$ g mL<sup>-1</sup>. However, the sensor response was diminished at antibody concentrations greater than 150  $\mu$ g mL<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 4a). This could be because of steric hindrance of the antibodies, which may influence accessibility of the AMN molecules to the binding sites of the antibodies on the nanofibrous membranes <sup>31</sup>. As a result, the ideal anti-AMN antibodies concentration for the immunosensor fabrication was determined to be 100  $\mu$ g mL<sup>-1</sup>.

278

# 279 Antibodies immobilization time

By using the antibody immobilization procedure with antibodies concentration of 100 g mL<sup>-1</sup> at 4°C for various durations ranging from 10 to 120 min, the impact of antibodies immobilization time on the immunosensor response was investigated. The immunosensor response to AMN (1 ng mL<sup>-1</sup>) increased with raising the time of antibodies tethering up to 60 min Fig. 4b. Nonetheless, longer incubation periods did not result in higher amperometric signals, indicating that active sites on the nanofibrous membrane were saturated. Further experiments were carried out by using immobilization time of 60 minutes.

287

## 288 Immunoreaction temperature

The AMN reaction with immobilized antibodies is significantly influenced by the incubation temperature, which also affects the obtained current. The response signal was observed to raise with increasing the temperature and reach a maximum value at 37 °C (Fig. 4c). Thereafter, the signal progressively diminishes, most likely as a result of the denaturation of the immobilized antibodies <sup>32</sup>. Therefore, 37°C was chosen as the ideal temperature for the formation of immunocomplexes.

295

296 Immunoreaction time

The immunosensor response to AMN at the concentration of 1 ng mL<sup>-1</sup> was assessed after incubation durations varying from 5 to 60 minutes. Fig. 4d clearly indicates that the immunosensor response raised linearly with incubation time and reaches a plateau after 30 minutes, showing that the AMN molecules fully interacted with the immobilized antibodies <sup>32</sup>.

301

# 302 *pH of the electrolyte solution*

303 The pH of the electrolyte solution is an important element in the performance evaluation of an 304 immunosensor. Fig. 4e depicts the influence of PBS pH values ranging from 5 to 8.5 on the current 305 response of the fabricated immunosensor. The experimental results demonstrated that the 306 immunosensor response increases as the pH value increases from 5 to 7.2, and subsequently 307 decreases as the pH value increases from 7.2 to 8.5. The reasons for this are most likely related to 308 the biological activity of the antibody, which decreased in acid and alkaline solutions, and the 309 antigen-antibody complex might readily disintegrate in the inappropriate pH of the working 310 solution <sup>33,34</sup>.

311



312

Fig.4. Response to 1 ng mL<sup>-1</sup> AMN of immunosensors fabricated by using different experimental
 conditions: (a) antibody concentration, (b) antibodies immobilization time, (c) immunoreaction
 temperature, (d) immunoreaction time, (e) pH of electrolyte solution.

316 317

## 318 **Detection of amanitin**

With optimizing the different experimental factors, the analytical performance of the developed immunosensor for AMN detection was investigated at different concentrations. A 100  $\mu$ l of the sample was added to the immunosensor surface and incubated at 37 °C for 30 min. After the immunosensor washing with PBS buffer pH 7.2 to remove non-binded AMN, the electrochemical measurements were carried out using PBS buffer (pH 7.2) as electrolyte. Figure 5A depicts the

324 DPV responses of the fabricated immunosensor at different concentration levels of AMN, it 325 was obvious that the achieved current increased as AMN concentration increased. As observed 326 in Figure 5B, the current responses exhibited a linear increase with the logarithm of AMN 327 concentration in the range of 9 pg mL<sup>-1</sup> to 2 ng mL<sup>-1</sup> ( $R^2=0.9901$ ). The developed immunosensor 328 showed a high sensitivity toward AMN with a limit of detection (LOD) at 8.3 pg mL<sup>-1</sup>  $(LOD=3S_b / m, where S_b is the standard deviation of the blank and m is the slope of the calibration$ 329 plot.). The designed immunosensor performed good in terms of LOD and detection range, but 330 331 its key benefit is that direct detection of AMN and does not require any extra reagent. It is not 332 based on time-consuming and expensive AMN-conjugates-based competitive approaches. when 333 comparing the fabricated electrochemical immunosensor to other AMN detection biosensors 334 (Table 1), the developed nanofibers-based electrochemical immunosensor observed a good 335 behavior in terms of LOD and linear range with a main advantage is related to the fact that 336 detection of AMN is direct and does not involve any additional reagent. Moreover, the ultrahigh 337 sensitivity of the nanofibers-based electrochemical immunosensor could be attributed to 338 including the microporous nanofibrous membranes enhancing the accessibility of the AMN to 339 the recognition sites and accelerating the electron transfer, consequently improving the sensing 340 surface.



Fig. 5. (a) Electrocatalytic current responses of the fabricated electrochemical immunosensor for the detection of different concentrations of AMN in the range of 9 pg mL<sup>-1</sup> to 2 ng mL<sup>-1</sup>, (b) Calibration curve of the immunosensor for the detection of different concentrations of AMN. (n=3)

344 345

346 Table 1: Comparison of the detection ranges and detection limits of AMN of the developed 347 immunosensor with other biosensors previously published researches.

	21		
Method	Range	LOD	ref
ELISA	1-6 μg/mL	0.1 μg/mL	35
LFIA	0.3-10 ng/mL	0.3 ng/mL	36
ELISA	1-120 ng/mL	0.91 ng/mL	37
LFIA	0.1-50 ng/g	0.1 ng/g	38
Fluorescent Aptasensor	0.01 - 5 μg/mL	7 ng/mL	39
ELISA	1.18-15.00 ng/mL	0.88 ng/mL	40
LFIA	0.3-10 ng/mL	0.3 ng/mL	41
Gold-nanoparticle based immunochromatographic	2 ng/mL- 2 μg/mL	1.9 ng/mL	42
Electrochemical immunosensor	0.009-2 ng /mL	8.3 pg /mL	This work

348

## 349 Immunosensor specificity, reusability, and stability

One of the main challenges in the field of sensing technology is developing a sensor to selectively identify the desired target in samples comprising multiple closely related compounds. The specificity of the fabricated immunosensor was studied by analyzing 0.1 ng mL<sup>-1</sup> of mushroom toxins including psilocybin, muscimol, and ibotenic acid as well as cyclic peptides including microcystin-LR and nodularin. Cross reactivity (CR%) was investigated by calculating the

reaction to each antibiotic in terms of AMN-equivalent concentration using the AMN calibration curve, it was presented as a percentage of AMN response <sup>43</sup>. As shown in Table S1, the developed immunosensor was highly specific toward AMN as there was no cross-reactivity with all tested compounds.

359 The ability of the fabricated immunosensor to be reused may help to lower the cost of medical 360 screening tests and minimize medical waste. After detecting 0.1 ng mL<sup>-1</sup> of AMN, the fabricated 361 immunosensor was regenerate by dipping in 0.1M of glycine hydrochloric acid buffer at pH value 362 of 2.8 for 5 min. As shown in Fig. S1, the developed immunosensor demonstrated good reusability 363 by retaining more than 95% of its original activity after 4 assay cycles and around 88% after the 364 fifth cycle. The loss of activity might be brought either by denaturation of the immobilized 365 antibodies or destruction of the nanofibrous membranes during the repeated regeneration in an 366 acidic glycine buffer <sup>34</sup>.

To investigate the stability, the immunosensor was kept at 4°C and its performance was checked every week. After six weeks, the fabricated immunosensor demonstrated still good stability with retaining more than 91% of its initial activity.

370

## 371 Applicability of the developed immunosensor

To validate the feasibility of the fabricated immunosensor in the detection of AMN at low concentrations in real samples, human urine samples were spiked with known concentrations of AMN ranging from 0.01 to 1 ng mL<sup>-1</sup>. Prior to spiking, the urine samples were analyzed using LC-MS to confirm the free content of AMN. The spiked urine samples were diluted 2 times with PBS without any further treatment before being examined blindly by the developed immunosensor. Each concentration was tested in triplicate. As shown in Table 2, the recovery rate ranged from 92.9% to around 98.7%, with a relative standard deviation (RSD%) of about 4.8%. In addition to the DPV responses of the fabricated immunosensor to different spiked urine samples (Fig. S2), These aforementioned findings demonstrate the applicability, accuracy, and repeatability of the fabricated immunosensor for rapid detection of AMN in the human urine at extremely lower concentration without pre-cleaning for the samples.

	Spiked concentration	Found concentration	Recovery
Sample	(ng mL <sup>-1</sup> )	(ng mL <sup>-1</sup> )	(%)
1	0	ND	-
2	0.01	0.0093	92.9
3	0.05	0.0481	96.2
4	0.1	0.0943	94.3
5	1	0.987	98.7

383 T	<b>Fable 2:</b> Recoveries	of AMN from s	piked human	urine samples	determined by th	e immunosensor
-------	----------------------------	---------------	-------------	---------------	------------------	----------------

384

# 385 **Conclusion**

An ultrasensitive, disposable, and rapid label-free electrochemical immunosensor for AMN determination was successfully fabricated by using SPEs laminated with a layer of cellulose nanofibrous membranes. The unique structure of cellulose nanofibrous membranes improved the immunosensor response by about 3 times. The immunosensor showed very competitive analytical performances with a LOD value of AMN at 8.3 pg mL<sup>-1</sup>, as well as stability over time. Furthermore, the feasibility of using the immunosensor in accurate determination of AMN in 392 human urine samples without any pretreatment has been demonstrated with good recovery during

around 30 min.

394

# 395 Acknowledgment

The research was partially supported by both National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences (NIEHS) (Grant No. 5P42ES004699) and USDA National Institute of Food and Agriculture

- 398 (USDA-NIFA) program (Grant No. 2015-68003-23411)
- 399

# 400 **References**

- 401 1 D. D. Gummin, J. B. Mowry, D. A. Spyker, D. E. Brooks, K. M. Osterthaler and W.
  402 Banner, *Clin Toxicol*, 2018, 56, 1213–1415.
- 403 2 W. E. Brandenburg and K. J. Ward, *Mycologia*, 2018, **110**, 637–641.
- 404 3 G. Cervellin, I. Comelli, G. Rastelli, F. Sanchis-Gomar, F. Negri, C. De Luca and G.
  405 Lippi, *Hum Exp Toxicol*, 2018, **37**, 697–703.
- 406 4 K. A. Graeme, *Journal of Medical Toxicology*, 2014, **10**, 173–189.
- 407 5 F. C. Durand and D. Valla, *Drug-Induced Liver Disease*, 2013, 621–629.
- 408 6 S. L. Taylor, *Encyclopedia of Food Sciences and Nutrition*, 2003, 5813–5819.
- 409 7 C. S. Bever, K. D. Swanson, E. I. Hamelin, M. Filigenzi, R. H. Poppenga, J. Kaae, L. W.
- 410 Cheng and L. H. Stanker, *Toxins (Basel)*, 2020, **12**, 123.
- 411 8 T. P. Bambauer, L. Wagmann, A. A. Weber and M. R. Meyer, *Toxins (Basel)*, 2020, 12, 1–14.
- 413 9 D. Varvenne, K. Retornaz, P. Metge, L. De Haro and P. Minodier, *Pediatr Emerg Care*,
  414 2015, **31**, 277–278.
- 415 10 F. Enjalbert, S. Rapior, J. Nouguier-Soulé, S. Guillon, N. Amouroux and C. Cabot, J
  416 Toxicol Clin Toxicol, 2002, 40, 715–757.
- 417 11 C. Chen, X.-L. Zhao, Z.-H. Li, Z.-G. Zhu, S.-H. Qian and A. Flewitt, *Sensors*, 2017, 17, 182.
- 419 12 G. A. Lopez, M.-C. Estevez, M. Soler and L. M. Lechuga, *Nanophotonics*, 2017, 6, 123–
   420 136.
- 421 13 A. Y. El-Moghazy, N. Wisuthiphaet, X. Yang, G. Sun and N. Nitin, *Food Control*, 2022,
  422 135, 108811.
- 423 14 A. El-Moghazy, N. Amaly and G. Sun, in *29th Annual UC Davis Biotechnology Program*424 *Retreat*, 29th Annual UC Davis Biotechnology Program Retreat, Davis, 2023.
- 425 15 A. El-Moghazy, N. Amaly and G. Sun, 2021, 8179.
- 426 16 J. Quirós, K. Boltes and R. Rosal, *Polymer Reviews*, 2016, **56**, 631–667.
- 427 17 S. S. Ray, S.-S. Chen, C.-W. Li, N. C. Nguyen and H. T. Nguyen, *RSC Adv*, 2016, 6,
  428 85495–85514.
- 429 18 X. Lu, C. Wang, F. Favier and N. Pinna, *Adv Energy Mater*, 2017, 7, 1601301.
- 430 19 N. Amaly, P. Pandey, A. Y. EL-Moghazy, G. Sun and P. K. Pandey, *Talanta*, 2022, 242, 123281.
- 432 20 N. Amaly, A. Y. EL-Moghazy, G. Sun and P. Pandey, J Environ Manage, ,
- 433 DOI:10.1016/j.jenvman.2020.111574.

434	21	A. Y. El-Moghazy, N. Amaly, G. Istamboulie, N. Nitin and G. Sun, <i>Microchimica Acta</i> ,
435		2020, <b>18</b> 7, 535.
436 437	22	A. Y. El-Moghazy, J. Huo, N. Amaly, N. Vasylieva, B. D. Hammock and G. Sun, ACS Appl Mater Interfaces 2020 12 6159–6168
438	23	Q. Fu, Y. Si, C. Duan, Z. Yan, L. Liu, J. Yu and B. Ding, <i>Adv Funct Mater</i> , 2019, <b>29</b> , 1–
439		11.
440	24	H. Y. Liu H, J Polym Sci—Polym Phys, 2002, 40, 2119–2129.
441	25	N. Amaly, Y. Si, Y. Chen, A. Y. El-Moghazy, C. Zhao, R. Zhang and G. Sun, Colloids
442		<i>Surf B Biointerfaces</i> , 2018, <b>170</b> , 588–595.
443	26	B. Cerroni, R. Cicconi, L. Oddo, M. Scimeca, R. Bonfiglio, R. Bernardini, G. Palmieri, F.
444		Domenici, E. Bonanno, M. Mattei and G. Paradossi, Heliyon, 2018, 4, e00770.
445	27	Q. Fu, X. Wang, Y. Si, L. Liu, J. Yu and B. Ding, ACS Appl Mater Interfaces, 2016, 8,
446		11819–11829.
447	28	S. S. B. Ding, C. Li, S. Fujita, <i>Colloid. Surface. A</i> , 2006, <b>285</b> , 257-262.
448	29	J. E. B. Randles, Transactions of the Faraday Society, 1948, 44, 322–327.
449	30	F. J. Santaclara, R. I. Pérez-Martín and C. G. Sotelo, Food Chem, 2014, 143, 22–26.
450	31	L. Qiao, X. Wang and X. Sun, Int J Electrochem Sci, 2014, 9, 1399–1414.
451	32	N. Zhang, F. Xiao, J. Bai, Y. Lai, J. Hou, Y. Xian and L. Jin, Talanta, 2011, 87, 100-105.
452	33	Y. Yang, Q. Liu, Y. Liu, J. Cui, H. Liu, P. Wang, Y. Li, L. Chen, Z. Zhao and Y. Dong,
453		<i>Biosens Bioelectron</i> , 2017, <b>90</b> , 31–38.
454	34	F. Li, J. Han, L. Jiang, Y. Wang, Y. Li, Y. Dong and Q. Wei, Biosens Bioelectron, 2015,
455		<b>68</b> , 626–632.
456	35	J. Gao, N. Liu, X. Zhang, E. Yang, Y. Song, J. Zhang and Q. Han, Molecules, ,
457		DOI:10.3390/molecules27020538.
458	36	C. S. Bever, K. D. Swanson, E. I. Hamelin, M. Filigenzi, R. H. Poppenga, J. Kaae, L. W.
459		Cheng and L. H. Stanker, Toxins (Basel), DOI:10.3390/toxins12020123.
460	37	K. He, Q. Mao, X. Zang, Y. Zhang, H. Li and D. Zhang, Biologicals, 2017, 49, 57-61.
461	38	S. Zhou, L. Guo, X. Xu, S. Song, L. Liu, H. Kuang, Y. Zhu, L. Xu and C. Xu, Food
462		Chem, , DOI:10.1016/j.foodchem.2022.133660.
463	39	R. Tian, Y. Ye, X. Lu, J. Sun, W. Wang and X. Sun, Highly Sensitive Fluorescent
464		Aptasensor for Detecting $\alpha$ -2 amatoxin Based on Rolling Circle Amplification Triggered
465		by Aptamer-Tetrahedral, 2023.
466	40	H. Liu, Y. Qin, W. Xing and L. Ma, Science and Technology of Food Industry, 2022, 43,
467		294–301.
468	41	C. S. Bever, C. A. Adams, R. M. Hnasko, L. W. Cheng and L. H. Stanker, PLoS One,
469		DOI:10.1371/journal.pone.0231781.
470	42	K. He, X. Zhang, R. Zhao, L. Wang, T. Feng and D. Wei, <i>Microchimica Acta</i> , 2016, 183,
471		2211–2219.
472	43	V. Gaudin and P. Maris, Food Agric Immunol, 2010, 37–41.
473		