

Principles of Electronic Nanobiosensors

Unit 1: Introduction to Nanobiosensors

Lecture 1.2: Introductory Concepts: Biomolecules

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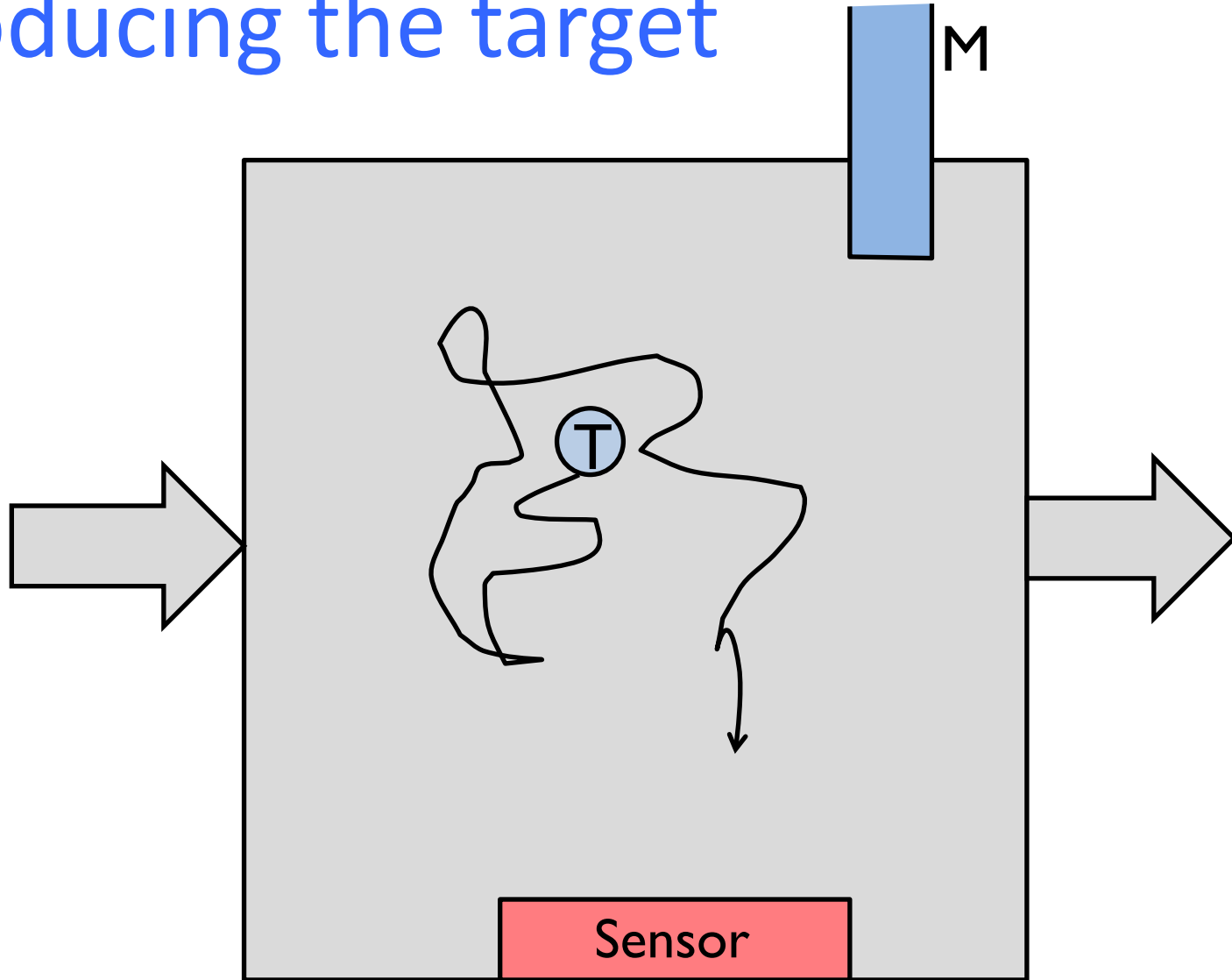
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Outline

- How does a biosensor work
- Types of biomolecules: DNA, Protein, Virus
- Density of biomolecules
- Diffusion and capture of biomolecules
- Summary and conclusions

Introducing the target



Biomolecules

- **Chemical Indicators**
 - Glucose (diabetes)
 - Nitric oxide (Parkinson)
- **Elements of life**
 - DNA (Genetic)
 - Protein (disorders)
- **Invaders**
 - Virus (infection)
 - Bacteria (infection)
 - DDT (disrupts cells function)

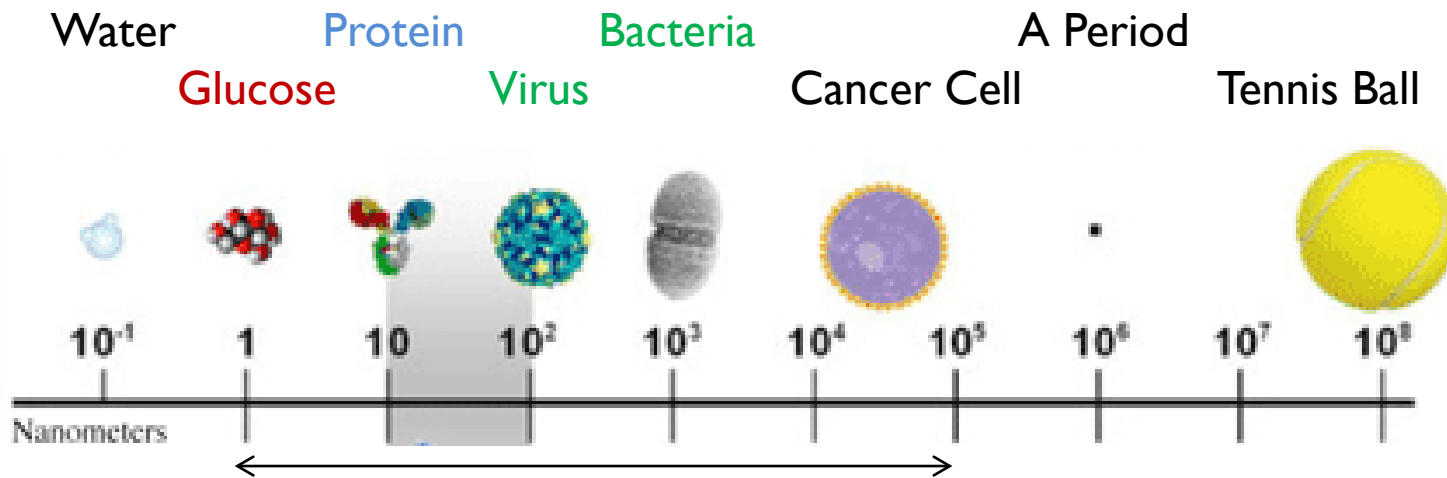
Charges

Mass

Redox potential

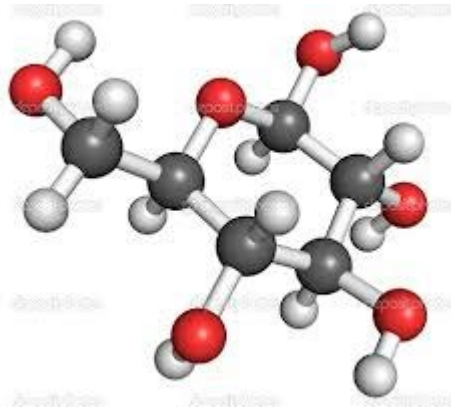
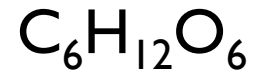
Optical index

Variety of target biomolecules



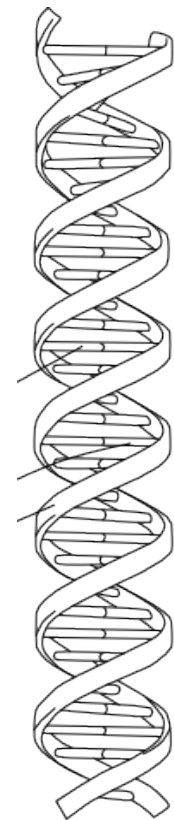
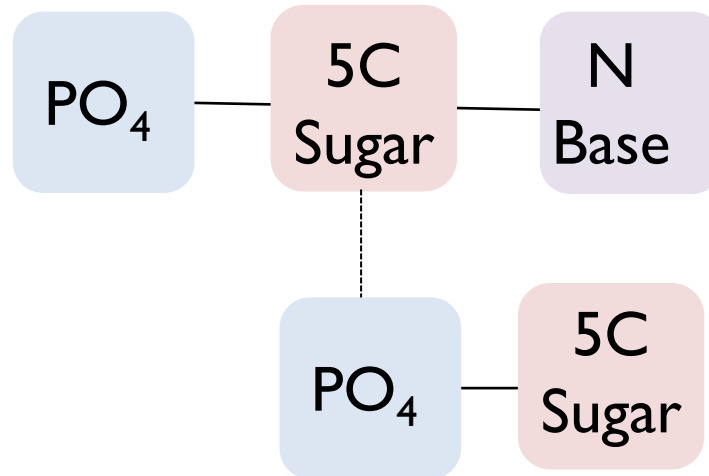
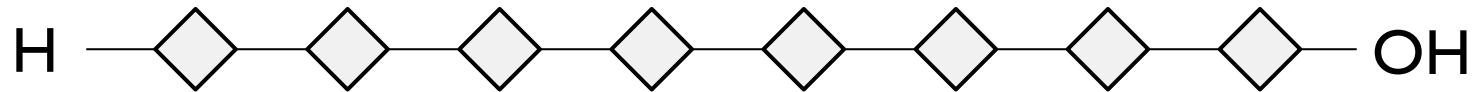
They have different mass, charge, and electron affinity

Small biomolecules: Glucose



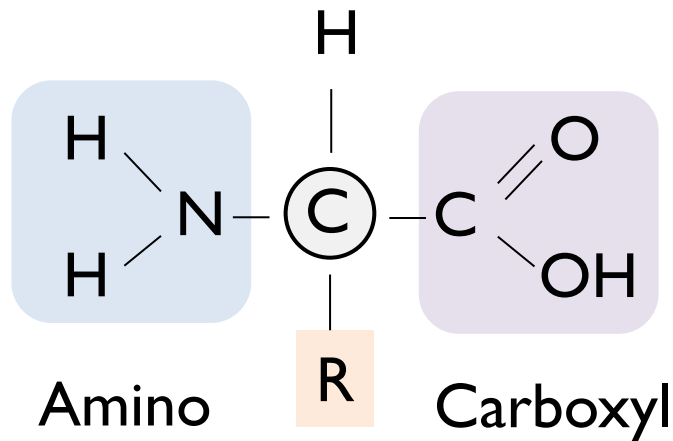
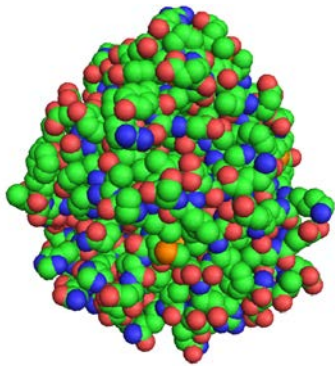
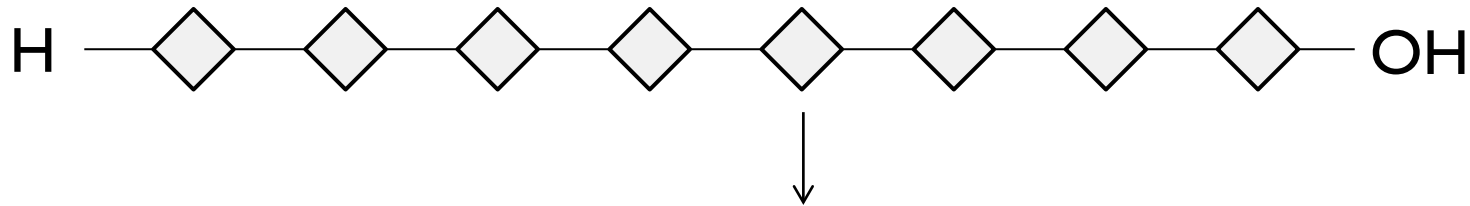
Mass .. 180 g mol⁻¹, Size ~ 1 nm

Biopolymers: DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid)



Charge $\sim q$, Mass ~ 300 Dalton

Biopolymers: Protein



Enzymes
Hormones
Tissue
Transport molecules

Charge ..variable, Mass ~125 Dalton

Protein Biomarkers for Cancer

- PSA for prostate cancer
- Cardiac Troponin T (CTnT) for heart attack
- Phosphorylation of histone protein (Y-HYAX)
for ionizing exposure
- BRCA1 BRCA2 for breast & ovarian cancers

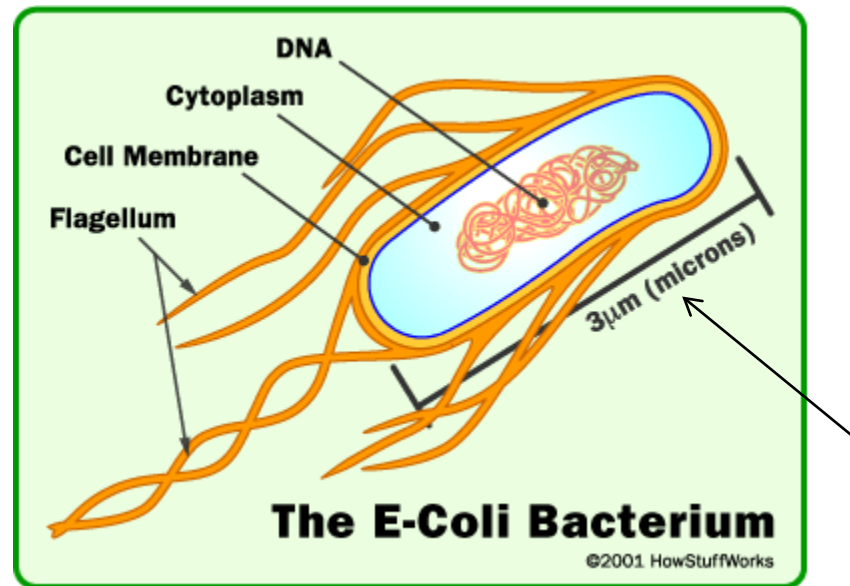
Viruses



~100 nm

No charges, but mass and tagging help identify them

Bacteria



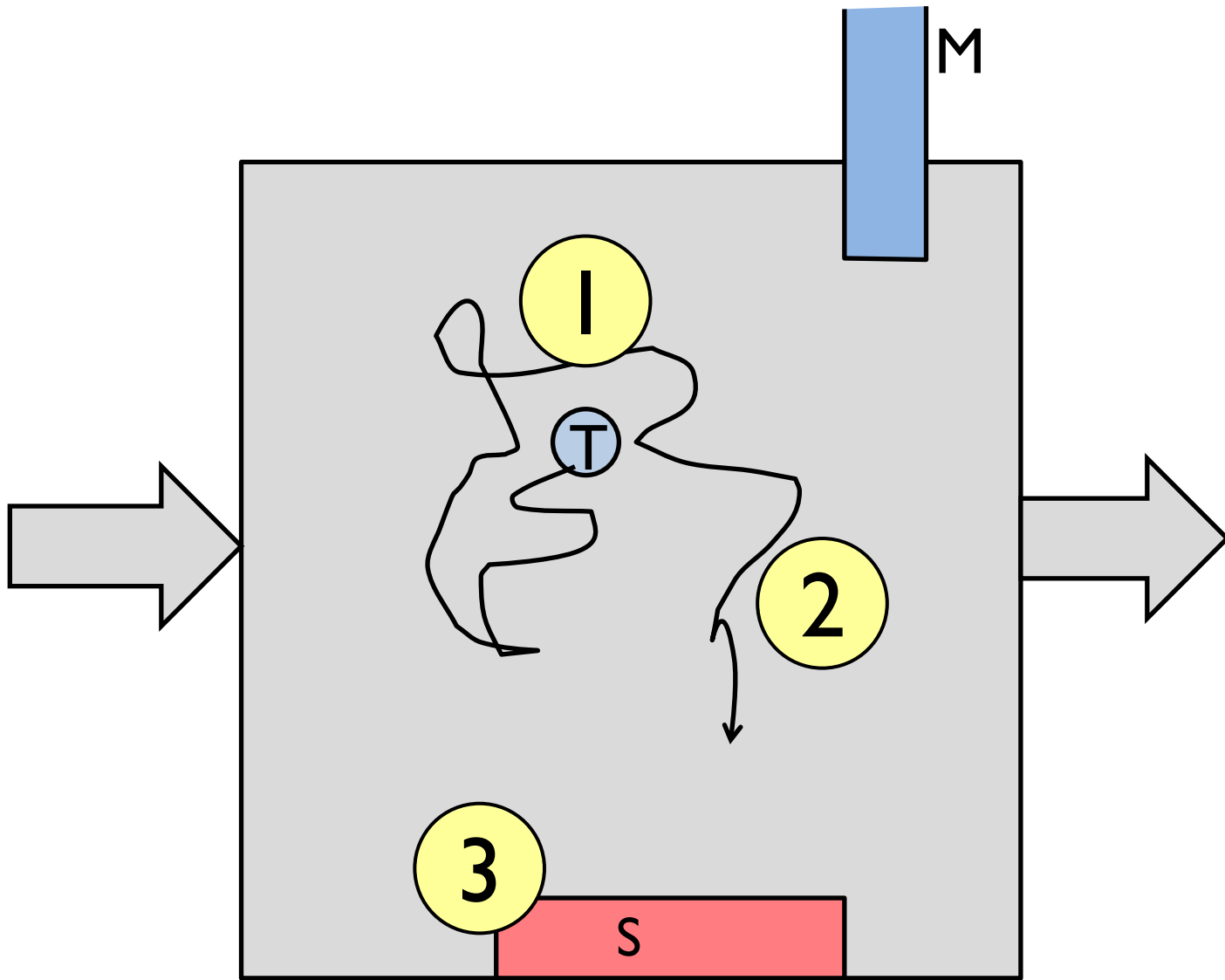
1 mm³ have tens of millions of bacteria
1 lb of our weight comes from bacteria

Example: How many molar in a 1000 mg Headache medicine?

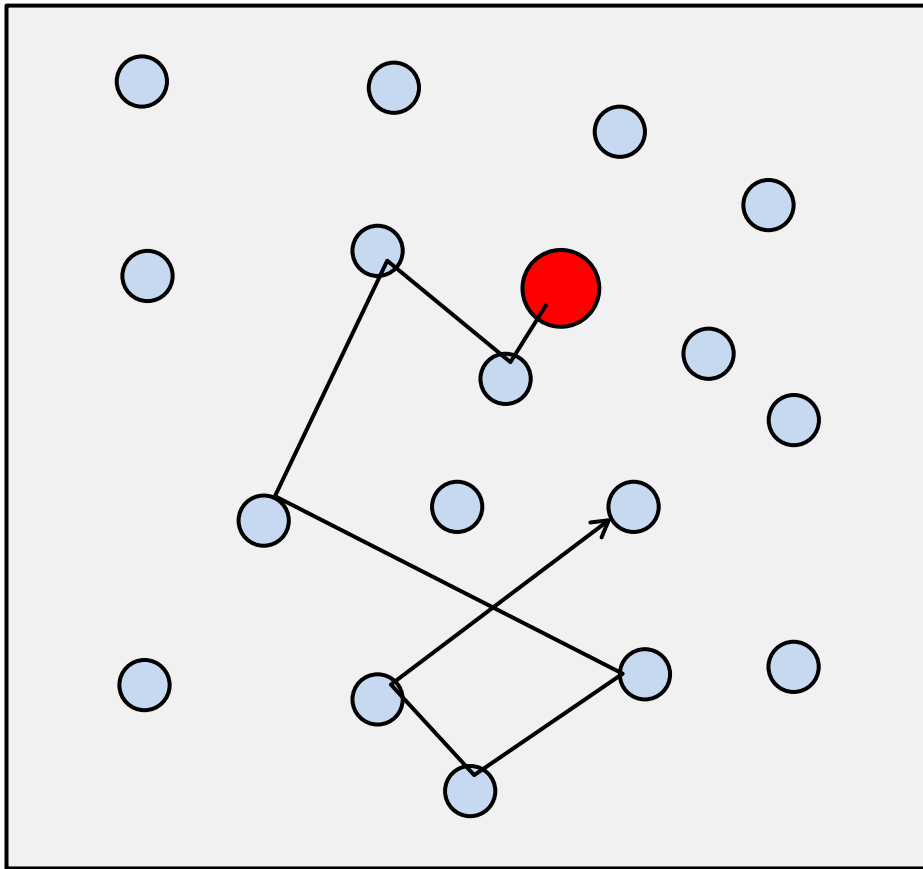
- Tylenol is $C_8H_9NO_2$. (C=12, H=1, N=14, O=16)
- 151.16 gm contains 6.023×10^{23} molecules.
- 1000 mg contains $\sim 4 \times 10^{21}$ molecules.
- Blood volume is 5 liters.
- Therefore, 8×10^{20} molecules/L, or the concentration is $8e20/6e23 = 1.32$ mM.
- High concentration. Should work in minutes.

Example: Importance of Sample Volume

- A cancerous organ releases about 10000 cells that can be captured and lysed to detect the onset of the disease. Could a finger prick (mm^3 of blood) provide the same level of information as drawing blood (cm^3 of blood)?
- *Solution:* 1 cm^3 blood will contain $\sim 10^4/5000 \text{ cm}^3 \sim 2$ cells. A finger prick contains $10^4/(5000 \times 10^3) \sim 2e-3$ cells – the statistical probability is close to zero that a finger prick will pick up the disease.
- Even for a cm^3 blood, the probability of detecting $x=2$ is the average. Any statistical sample will contain $P(n,x) = \frac{x^n \exp(-x)}{n!}$ number of particles – approximately $1/e^2 \sim 13\%$ of the time, the test will contain no diseased cell, i.e. $n=0$.
- **Sample volume is very important for any sensor analysis.**

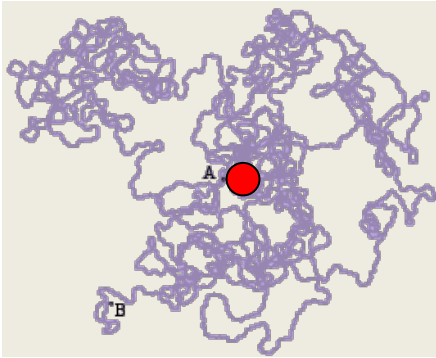


Diffusion Process – Why random walk



$$\frac{d\rho}{dt} = D\nabla^2\rho$$

Diffusion Distance

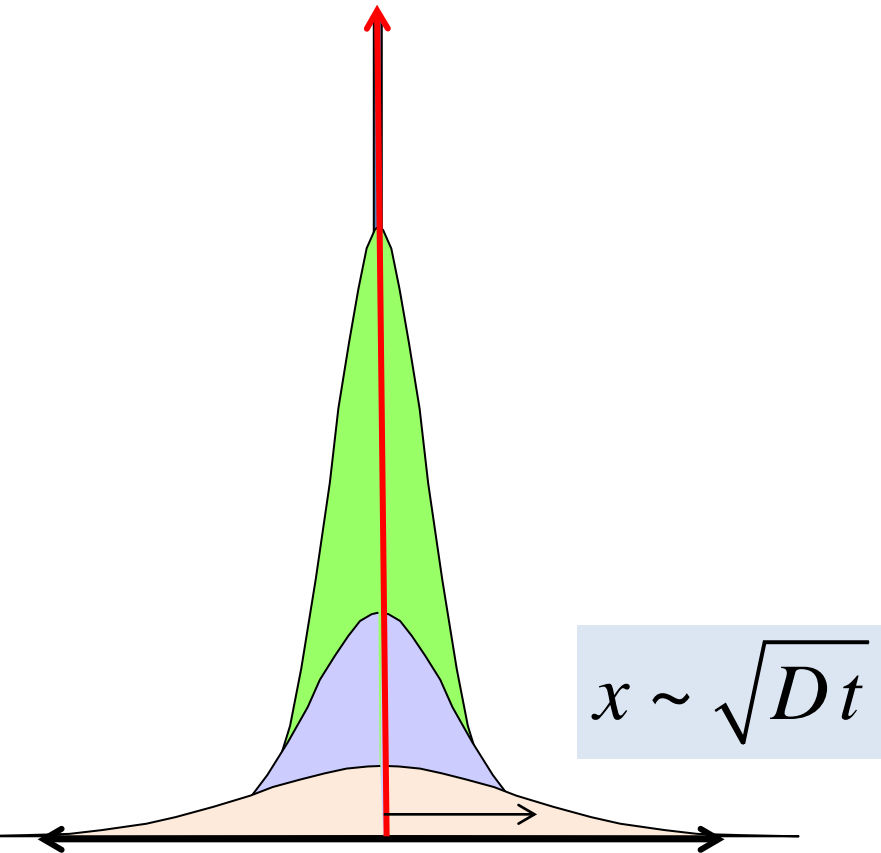


$$\frac{d\rho}{dt} = D\nabla^2\rho$$

$$\rho(x, t = 0) = \delta(x = 0)$$

$$\rho(x, t) = \frac{N}{\sqrt{4\pi Dt}} e^{-x^2/4Dt}$$

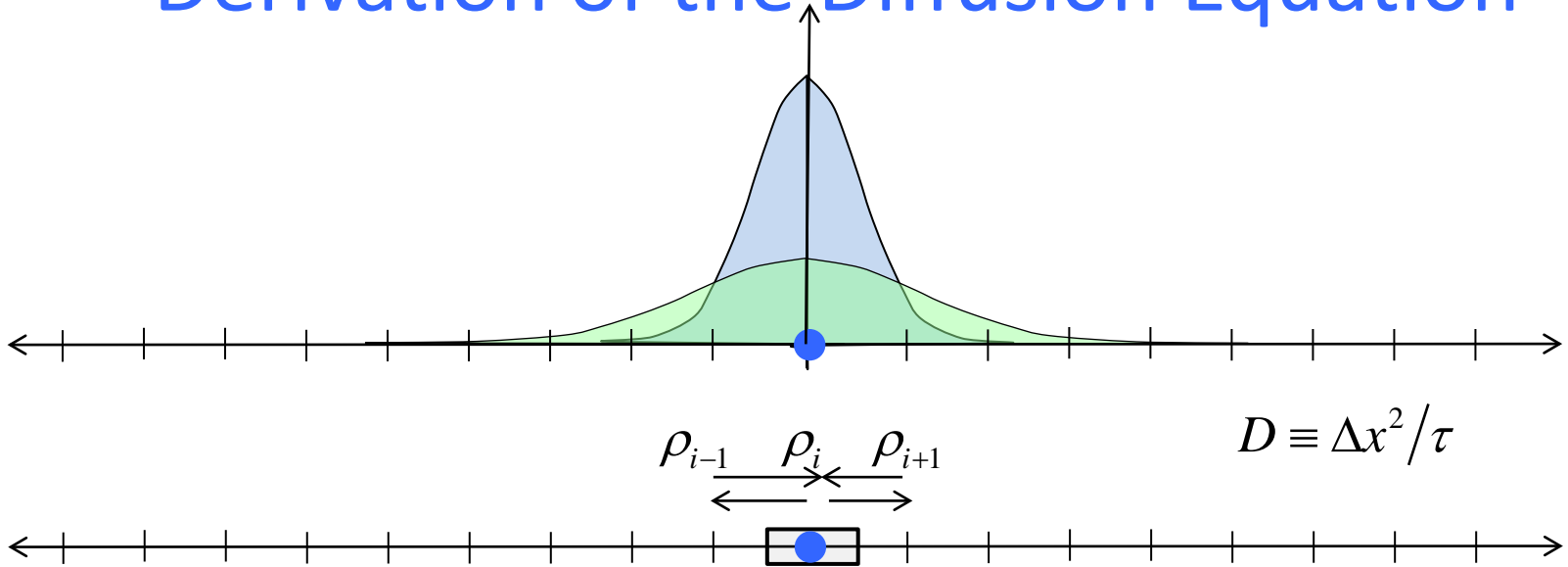
$$\langle x^2 \rangle = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 \rho(x, t) dx}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho(x, t) dx} = 2Dt$$



Conclusions

- We are interested in broad range of biomolecules from glucose to DNA to bacteria.
- Typical sensors detect at mM range, nanobiosensors may detect at fM range.
- Classical theory of diffusion suggests that a molecule diffuses a distance of $\sim(Dt)^{1/2}$.

Appendix: Derivation of the Diffusion Equation



$$\rho_i(t + \Delta t) - \rho_i(t) = \frac{\Delta t}{\tau} \left[\frac{1}{2} \rho_{i-1}(t) + \frac{1}{2} \rho_{i+1}(t) - \frac{1}{2} \rho_i(t) - \frac{1}{2} \rho_i(t) \right]$$

$$\frac{\rho_i(t + \Delta t) - \rho_i(t)}{\Delta t} = D \left[\frac{\rho_{i-1}(t) + \rho_{i+1}(t) - 2\rho_i(t)}{2\Delta x^2} \right]$$

$$D \equiv \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{\tau}$$

$$\frac{d\rho}{dt} = D \frac{d^2\rho}{dx^2} = D \nabla^2 \rho$$