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Monitoring Single-Molecule Reactivity on a Carbon Nanotube

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ABSTRACT

Using point-functionalized carbon nanotube devices, we demonstrate continuous, multihour monitoring of a single carboxylate group interacting with its immediate environment. The conductance of the nanotube device directly transduces single-molecule attachments and detachments in the presence of the carboxylate-selective reagent 1-ethyl-3-(3-dimethylaminopropyl) carbodiimide hydrochloride (EDC). Because only one carboxylate is present in the device, it can be studied through hundreds of reactions, providing the statistical accuracy to directly determine a 12 s lifetime of the carboxy−EDC complex. An additional instability of the complex is transduced in real time and observed to have a median lifetime of 2 ms. By determining a turnover time in good agreement with bulk measurements and simultaneously illuminating additional dynamics, these results demonstrate this platform’s potential for complementing optical methods in single-molecule research.

Compared to conventional microelectronics, prototype nanoelectronic devices based on nanowires, carbon nanotubes, and clusters generally have extraordinarily high surface to volume ratios. This fact greatly enhances the sensitivity of such devices to the chemistry taking place on their surfaces and drives ongoing interest in their application as ultrasensitive chemical and biological sensors. For example, by tailoring the surface chemistry of nanoscale conductors, amperometric sensors have been demonstrated for a wide range of analytes.1,2 Furthermore, the range of sensitivity is believed to extend to the single-molecule limit since one-dimensional conductors can be disproportionately affected by single scattering sites.3−6 Electronic sensors with single-molecule precision could complement the optical techniques currently used for single-molecule research and, combined with other emerging technologies like cantilever-based detection, expand the variety of tools for investigating complex chemical processes.

Single-molecule chemical detection has been previously demonstrated using silicon nanowire electronic devices.7−10 For example, Patolsky et al. reported 10% conductance fluctuations as virus particles in solution individually interacted with an antibody-coated nanowire.7 Similar changes, though not necessarily with single-molecule resolution, have been observed using coated single-walled carbon nanotubes (SWCNTs).11,12 These coated nanoconductors must be operated in extremely low analyte concentrations in order to distinguish discrete, single-molecule events. Furthermore, statistical interpretation of the events is complicated by the large numbers of potential binding sites. For example, low reactant concentrations can severely slow target reactions or complicate multispecies studies. Multiple bound molecules or binding sites also complicate interpretation since simultaneous and overlapping reactions occur within the data. Such characteristics significantly reduce the applicability of such devices for assays of chemical behavior at equilibrium.

An alternate architecture demonstrated here is one that contains only a single chemically active site in the electronic circuit. With one transduction site, measurements can be uniquely ascribed to a single location, and single-molecule interactions can be observed even in high, synthetically relevant analyte concentrations. The sensing element described here consists of a single carboxylate introduced electrochemically into the sidewall of a SWCNT, as depicted in Figure 1a. Carboxylates provide a versatile handle for a broad range of chemical attachments via amide linkages,13 and we have chosen to monitor the highly chemoselective activation of carboxylates by EDC, a reaction used widely in chemical biology and in the derivatization of bulk nanotube materials.14

The device is fabricated by starting with an electrically connected, pristine SWCNT and then applying a recently described point-functionalization technique.15 This technique, in which conductance monitoring is used to observe and control electrochemical modifications, allows SWCNT devices to be chemically tailored to incorporate individual or multiple sidewall defects. Subsequent modification and
Carboxylate functionalities were introduced by electrochemical acid oxidation (1 M H₂SO₄, V_SWCNT = +0.9 V vs Pt) combined with potassium permanganate exposure (6.5 mM KMnO₄). To produce one carboxylate group on each Pt) combined with potassium permanganate exposure (6.5 mM KMnO₄). To produce one carboxylate group on each SWCNT, the protocol featured application of KMnO₄ after chemical acid oxidation (1 M H₂SO₄, pH 4.5 with and without the presence of 50 μM EDC). The same device exhibits substantially different behavior when 50 μM EDC is present (Figure 2e–h). Pronounced G(t) spikes and a broad noise spectrum appears. Inspection of G(t) over short time segments clarifies that the additional features are due to an intermittent, rapidly oscillating, two-level fluctuator (Figure 2g). When active, this fluctuator increases the instantaneous G(t) by as much as 50% through discrete jumps in conductance. Even though the fluctuator appears to have only two levels, its widely varying duty cycle leads to time-varying mean conductances, observed as spikes and plateaus in Figure 2e.

Figure 1 shows typical characteristics of the conductance versus gate voltage G(V_g) from SWCNT devices before and after introduction of carboxylates. Devices point-functionalized with carboxylates typically regain 1−10% of their initial conductivity and a strong gate dependence, regardless of whether the initial SWCNT has a semiconducting band structure (Figure 1b) or a metallic band structure (Figure 1c). Scanning probe techniques indicate that the added resistance and gate sensitivity are concentrated and localized within the ∼50 nm resolution of these techniques, particularly when metallic SWCNTs are used. Thus, though these quasilocalized systems cannot be accurately modeled as resistors in series, this localization has proven that the region immediately surrounding a carboxylate can be responsible for more than 90% of the two-terminal device resistance.

The co-localization of the electrical resistance and the carboxylate functionalization provides the means for particularly sensitive electronic transduction of chemical events. Electric field sensitivity and enhanced scattering at the functionalized site can both play roles in converting chemical changes into conductance changes. To examine this hypothesis, we harness the single carboxylate as a catalyst in a simple reaction—the conversion of a reactive carbodiimide EDC into a mixed urea—and simultaneously monitor G and its fluctuations. Devices were monitored in phosphate buffer at pH 4.5 with and without the presence of 50 μM EDC. Figure 2 shows representative portions from two several-hour measurements of a carboxylate-modified SWCNT. Figure 2a–c shows measurements taken without EDC. Conductance data are depicted at three time scale magnifications to illustrate the uniform fluctuation characteristics at all time scales. G(t) wanders with a simple 1/f noise spectrum (Figure 2d) that provides a baseline for the device, regardless of the chemical environment. The 1/f spectra are very typical of SWCNT devices, and we have confirmed that this remains generally true of our functionalized devices, whether measured in air or buffer.

The same device exhibits substantially different behavior when 50 μM EDC is present (Figure 2e–h). Pronounced G(t) spikes and a broad noise spectrum appears. Inspection of G(t) over short time segments clarifies that the additional features are due to an intermittent, rapidly oscillating, two-level fluctuator (Figure 2g). When active, this fluctuator increases the instantaneous G(t) by as much as 50% through discrete jumps in conductance. Even though the fluctuator appears to have only two levels, its widely varying duty cycle leads to time-varying mean conductances, observed as spikes and plateaus in Figure 2e.

Approximately 10 point-functionalized devices have been prepared and tested in EDC. The appearance of a large-amplitude, high-speed fluctuator is common to all of the devices when measured with EDC, regardless of the initial SWCNT band structure. In each case, flushing EDC from the measurement cell reliably removes the fluctuator and restores the baseline noise spectrum of the device. As a further control, we have examined nonfunctionalized devices in EDC and observed typical 1/f spectra. We note that under special conditions of bias or temperature, large two-level fluctuators can add a Lorentzian peak to SWCNT or...
other nanodevice\textsuperscript{29,30} spectra; in this paper, point-function-
alized devices with anomalous noise spectra at any bias, in
either air or buffer, have not been used for further measure-
ments.

While it is tempting to directly attribute the differences
observed in Figure 2 to reactions between the carboxylate
and EDC, two experimental details quickly rule out a simple
interpretation. First, the mean lifetime of the fluctuator
resolved in Figure 2g is a mere 10 ms, whereas the EDC
turnover time in bulk solutions can exceed 100 s.\textsuperscript{31} Second,
the fluctuator randomly starts and stops, even in the presence
of excess EDC. For example, the fluctuator may be inactive
for less than a second, as observed in the middle of Figure
2f, or for a few minutes, as demonstrated in Figure 2e, before
becoming active again.

Thus, characterization of the $G(t)$ dynamics in the presence
of EDC requires statistical analysis of conductance stability
over multiple time scales. The high-speed jumps within each
active period can be analyzed in terms of the time spent in
high-current ($\tau_{\text{hi}}$) and low-current ($\tau_{\text{lo}}$) states. Simultaneously,
a slower process causes the fluctuator to become active or
inactive on the scale of tens to thousands of two-level
fluctuations. Fortunately, it is straightforward to inspect $G(t)$
and enumerate the durations of each active ($\tau_{\text{active}}$) and
inactive ($\tau_{\text{inactive}}$) period. In the following analysis, each time
period is considered separately, beginning with $\tau_{\text{active}}$.

Approximately 60 distinct $\tau_{\text{active}}$ values are generated per
hour of data acquisition. The complete data set (of which
Figure 2e is a small subset) has a mean active duration of
$<\tau_{\text{active}}>$ = 12.4 ± 2.1 s. Histograms of $\tau_{\text{active}}$ values can be
fit to a normal Poisson process, as shown in Figure 3. The
quality of this fit indicates that $\tau_{\text{active}}$ can be interpreted as a
simple probability distribution; once activated, the probability
that the fluctuation continues at time $t$ follows the normal
distribution $P(t) = (e^{-t/<\tau_{\text{active}}>})/<\tau_{\text{active}}>$, though a significant
deviation occurs for long-lived events having $<\tau_{\text{active}}> >$
40 s, which is examined below. A similar analysis of the
corresponding inactive periods $\tau_{\text{inactive}}$ yields a mean duration
of $<\tau_{\text{inactive}}>$ = 46.5 ± 16.2 s. The sum of $<\tau_{\text{active}}>$ +
$<\tau_{\text{inactive}}>$ = 58.9 s constitutes an average cycle time for
the fluctuator to go from one active period to another.

In bulk solutions, carboxylates provide nucleophilic,
catalytic sites to which EDC binds and forms a transient and
reactive intermediate species (termed an O-acylisourea).

Figure 2. (a–c) $G(t)$ recordings of a carboxylate-functionalized SWCNT in phosphate buffer without EDC. The same data are depicted
on 500, 10, and 0.2 s time axes (expanded about $t = 193$ s). (d) Averaged noise power spectrum $S_G$ of the conductance data in (a). The
dashed line (red) indicates the fit to 1/f behavior. (e–g) Measurements on the same device over similar time scales with 50 $\mu$M EDC added
to the buffer, after 100 s have passed to allow for equilibration. Enhanced two-level switching is clearly visible at higher magnifications
(f, g) and has variable duration during the experiment. (h) Averaged noise power spectrum corresponding to data in (e).
Hydrolysis liberates a mixed urea, freeing the carboxylate to bind another EDC molecule. This reaction can be characterized by a mean turnover time, a substantial fraction of which is determined by the stability of the acylisourea. Using reaction monitoring by UV absorbance, the bulk half-life of the EDC reaction near our experimental conditions has been measured as 100 s. This value corresponds to a single-molecule turnover time of approximately 140 s.

This turnover time, inferred from bulk measurements, is in reasonable agreement with the cycling of fluctuator activity described above. The faster turnover in the SWCNT experiment may be due to an exceptionally low concentration of carboxylate and a large excess of EDC, which should result in maximum reaction rate conditions. Since the active periods described above are only observed in the presence of EDC, we hypothesize that the turnover time is associated with an EDC molecule being bound to the SWCNT carboxylate and that no EDC is bound when the two-level fluctuator is inactive. According to this interpretation, the mean turnover time is a quantitative probability for the O-acylisourea intermediate to become hydrolyzed and released as urea. The parameter describes the time required before EDC capture. Though UV absorbance measurement of the turnover rate is comparatively easy, such bulk measurements do not allow the observation of intermediates. The SWCNT measurement, on the other hand, determines the intermediate lifetimes by monitoring single-molecule turnover events.

The value of the mean turnover time is consistent with the experimental conditions used. Reaction with the carboxylate is considerably faster with diprotonated EDC, with the second protonation step having a pK₂ of 3.5. Our experiments are run at pH 4.5, as part of a protocol optimized for protein coupling using the dual reagents EDC and NHS. The resulting EDC deprotonation (approximately 90% at this pH), and perhaps noncovalent electrostatic interactions between carboxylate and EDC, can lengthen the mean turnover time and slow the reaction rate. This pH dependence provides an independent control of the reaction time to slow the on rate without requiring a chemically relevant half-life for a reactive intermediate affects the calculation and interpretation of the mean times and . For example, and for . For example, and for . Further investigation may allow the pH dependence of both time components to be mapped, though similar analysis will be difficult for very short intervals where the active fluctuations merge.

The assignment of as a chemically relevant half-life for a reactive intermediate affects the calculation and interpretation of the mean times and . Determining meaningful values of and therefore requires that long periods corresponding to be explicitly excluded from the averaging of and . The separation of data into active and inactive periods, as described above, aids this processing and further allows a comparison of and values from one active period to another.

Figure 4a depicts representative histograms of and events observed during a single active fluctuation period. These histograms can be used to calculate the probability distribution functions, which in turn fit simple exponential decays characteristic of Poisson processes. The inset to Figure 4a shows the measured distribution and its fit on semilogarithmic axes. The main figure shows the same distribution multiplied by the dwell time, equivalent to the percentage of time spent at a particular or , with peaks corresponding to and . In approximately 90% of the active periods analyzed, and have nearly equal...
distributions and means, and the distributions suggest an individual fluctuator rather than a collection of two-level systems.

Similar analysis of the $\tau_{hi}$ and $\tau_{lo}$ probability distributions from each active period proves that these distributions and their mean transition rates vary from one active period to the next. A cumulative histogram of $\tau_{hi}$ and $\tau_{lo}$ values from several active periods cannot be assigned to only a single peak. Furthermore, in approximately 10% of the active periods, highly asymmetric distributions are observed, where either the high or the low conductance state is strongly preferred (Figure 4b). Within the resolution of the data sets, the changes in the probability distributions seem to occur in an abrupt, step-like manner during the inactive periods. This variation demands that the fluctuators of different active periods be analyzed separately; it further requires a simple way of characterizing fluctuators for comparison.

The study of two-level fluctuations in electronic devices is a well-developed field, particularly for silicon devices in which localized trap states interact with conduction channels.29 Typically, the dynamics of these systems are bias- and temperature-dependent, reflecting a slight energy difference $\Delta E$ between the two stable conductance states.29 From measured $\tau_{hi}$ and $\tau_{lo}$ values, this energy difference may be calculated as $\Delta E = k_b T \ln(\frac{\tau_{hi}}{\tau_{lo}})$. Such standard analysis offers a useful tool for determining causes of two-level noise in silicon electronics.29

The conductance fluctuations transduced from the O-acylisourea complex provide an analogous two-state process. In this case, the highly resistive, point-functionalized site on the SWCNT sidewall is sensitive to charge-charge and dipole-dipole interactions with surrounding molecules. The attached acylisourea may strongly interact with the SWCNT conductance due to its attachment to the point-functionalized site. This interaction could be as simple as providing a trap state near the nanotube, analogous to the silicon oxide traps which cause two-level fluctuations in silicon transistors. However, many possible interactions between the acylisourea and the nanotube, the surrounding liquid environment, or the point-functionalized site could lead to the observed two-level switching. Without presuming to solve for the responsible degree of freedom in the acylisourea or its attachment, we can assume a generic model of two states separated by $\Delta E$ to further examine the fluctuation dynamics.

Figure 5 plots the values of $\Delta E$ calculated for each of the active periods described above. Symmetric fluctuations with small $|\Delta E|$ are most prevalent in the data and account for over 75% of the active periods. This main cluster of data is visible as the central peak in Figure 5. However, the distribution has one other statistically significant population with substantially different behaviors. Approximately 11% of the active periods are highly asymmetric, with $\Delta E < -7 k_b T$.33 When the mean lifetime $<\tau_{active}>$ is calculated separately at each $\Delta E$, these asymmetric fluctuators are observed to form a cluster with unusually long lifetimes (Figure 5). As a subgroup, this cluster is responsible for the long tail in the $\tau_{active}$ distribution plotted in Figure 3, as well as the deviation of the data from the curve fit at $\tau > 40$ s.

Figure 5. Histogram of $\Delta E$ values shows the preponderance of active events have symmetric fluctuators with $\Delta E \sim 0$ (black). Fluctuators with $\Delta E$ of a few $k_b T$ tend to have relatively short lifetimes (red), except for a population of unusually long-lived fluctuators with $\Delta E < -7 k_b T$.

In addition, the average conductance change for the main group of active periods is 66 nS, while in the separated subgroup, the conductance change is much smaller at 22 nS. We note that the active events in this subgroup are not randomly distributed in time. Instead, they cluster together with most (19 of 27) occurring among 7 groups of asymmetric events.

These large $|\Delta E|$ events may be due to aging of the analyte solution or perhaps chemical variability of the attachment surface. For example, two broken carbon-carbon bonds sit immediately adjacent to the SWCNT carboxylate (Figure 1c), and the tautomerization or protonation of these may affect EDC binding. Alternately, EDC protonation, which should affect about 10% of the molecules at pH 4.5, could be responsible for substantially stronger interactions with the SWCNT than the O-acylisourea of the unprotonated EDC. Consistent with this hypothesis, the doubly protonated O-acylisourea could form stronger charge-charge or dipole interactions with the SWCNT, leading to its greater stability. Such stronger interactions would be expected to result in the long $<\tau_{active}>$ values and large $|\Delta E|$ values observed here.

In conclusion, point-functionalized SWCNT devices can provide a novel electronic platform for studying single-molecule chemical events. Electronic transduction by the SWCNT device conductance clearly illuminates the carboxylate reaction with EDC and the subsequent hydrolysis of the reactive intermediate. The technique can also provide an accurate ensemble measurement of kinetic rates in addition to direct observation of the lifetimes for intermediates. The single-molecule resolution of the technique further indicates some of the underlying chemical variability of the EDC-carboxylate interaction. The SWCNT device is sufficiently stable that measurements can be performed for long periods in diverse chemical environments, suggesting broad applicability for ongoing chemical and biochemical studies.

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(17) Overoxidized devices, which presumably contain multiple carboxylates, often recover less than 1% of their initial conductance.
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