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Branched, dendritic, and hyperbranched polymers in liquid biopsy device design

Michael J. Poellmann^{1,2} | Piper Rawding¹ | DaWon Kim¹ |
Jiyeon Bu¹ | YoungSoo Kim³ | Seungpyo Hong^{1,2,3,4,5,6}

¹Pharmaceutical Sciences Division, School of Pharmacy, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin, USA

²Capio Biosciences, Madison, Wisconsin, USA

³Department of Pharmacy, Yonsei University, Incheon, South Korea

⁴Department of Biomedical Engineering, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin, USA

⁵Carbone Cancer Center, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin, USA

⁶Wisconsin Center for NanoBioSystems, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin, USA

Correspondence

Seungpyo Hong, Pharmaceutical Sciences Division, School of Pharmacy, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI 53705, USA.
Email: seungpyo.hong@wisc.edu

Funding information

NSF Division of Materials Research, Grant/Award Number: 1808251. UW Head and Neck SPORE, Grant/Award Number: P50-DE026787. Milton J. Henrichs Fund. Wisconsin State Economic Engagement & Development (SEED) Program.

Edited by: Emily Friebe, Managing Editor and Nils G. Walter, Co-Editor-in-Chief

Abstract

The development of minimally invasive tests for cancer diagnosis and prognosis will aid in the research of new treatments and improve survival rates. Liquid biopsies seek to derive actionable information from tumor material found in routine blood samples. The relative scarcity of tumor material in this complex mixture makes isolating and detecting cancerous material such as proteins, circulating tumor DNA, exosomes, and whole circulating tumor cells a challenge for device engineers. This review describes the chemistry and applications of branched and hyperbranched to improve the performance of liquid biopsy devices. These polymers can improve the performance of a liquid biopsy through several mechanisms. For example, polymers designed to increase the affinity of capture enhance device *sensitivity*. On the other hand, polymers designed to increase binding avidity or repel nonspecific adsorption enhance device *specificity*. Branched and hyperbranched polymers can also be used to amplify the signal from small amounts of detected material. The further development of hyperbranched polymers in liquid biopsy applications will enhance device capabilities and help these critical technologies reach the oncology clinic where they are sorely needed.

This article is categorized under:

Diagnostic Tools > Biosensing

Diagnostic Tools > Diagnostic Nanodevices

KEYWORDS

biosensor, bottlebrush polymer, dendrimer, hyperbranched polymer, liquid biopsy

1 | INTRODUCTION

Cancer is the cause of nearly 10 million deaths annually (Sung et al., 2021), and new approaches to detection and treatment are sorely needed. The ongoing development and emerging practice of precision oncology are driven by new technologies for diagnosis, treatment selection, and disease monitoring (Alimirzaie et al., 2019). The genomic and

biomolecular analysis of a tumor by solid biopsy has many limitations and potential complications. However, tumors regularly shed material into the bloodstream, where it may be collected and sampled in a low-risk, routine peripheral blood draw. The purification and analysis of this circulating tumor material are called a liquid biopsy (Illustrated in Figure 1). A significant challenge in the development of liquid biopsies is the relative scarcity of tumor-derived material in a complex mixture of proteins, cells, and nucleic acids. In this section, we review the targets of a liquid biopsy and the information that each target carries. The remainder of this review describes how the device engineer may use branched and hyperbranched polymers in the design of liquid biopsies.

Liquid biopsies based on cell-free deoxyribonucleic acid (cfDNA), and the more specific subset of circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA), have already reached the clinic. The first cfDNA-based liquid biopsy to receive US FDA approval (2017) was designed to detect specific mutations in epithelial growth factor receptor (EGFR; Kwapisz, 2017). A subset of patients with certain somatic mutations in the EGFR gene is susceptible to specific inhibitors (Haber et al., 2005), thus personalizing treatment to the tumor. More recent technologies have been reported that combine the abundance of a large list of somatic mutations in cfDNA with eight protein biomarkers for diagnosis and tumor localization (Cohen et al., 2018). Other approaches use next-generation sequencing (NGS) methods to correlate methylation patterns in cfDNA (M. C. Liu et al., 2020) or cell-free ribonucleic acids (cfRNA; Larson et al., 2021) with tumor localization. This review has little to say about polymeric technologies for nucleic acid isolation, as this is efficiently accomplished with detergents and solvents. Nevertheless, it is difficult to derive diagnostic and prognostic information from DNA, as the amount released into the bloodstream is negligible, many tumors share the same mutational profiles, and it is challenging to separate cfDNA shed by tumors from those shed by healthy tissues.

Tumors also shed nanoscale lipid vesicles called exosomes into circulation. Exosomes are a specific subset of extracellular vesicles involved in highly regulated endosomal processes to shuttle RNA and proteins out of the cell. In circulation, exosomes are identifiable as 50–150 nm in diameter. The abundance of tumor-associated exosomes has been linked to tumor growth, immune response suppression, angiogenesis, and metastasis (Perakis & Speicher, 2017). Additionally, these vesicles contain messenger RNA (mRNA), which is otherwise rapidly degraded in the extracellular environment, along with proteins and other components of the tumor cell cytoplasm. The mRNA within exosomes reflects the transcriptomic state of a tumor (Young et al., 2021), making them a promising vehicle for noninvasively characterizing gene expression patterns. Exosome-based diagnostics have not reached the clinic, but a growing number of technological advances have been reported to isolate tumor-derived exosomes from peripheral blood samples and extract information related to the presence and prognosis of cancer (Fais et al., 2016).

Finally, circulating tumor cells (CTCs) have been the subject of considerable focus for liquid biopsy technologies. Because CTCs are hypothesized to be the main source of distant metastasis, and because metastasis is responsible for a large majority of cancer deaths (Dillekås et al., 2019), the mere presence of CTCs has a great deal of prognostic value. One technology that reports CTC abundance, CellSearch, was cleared by the US FDA for clinical use in 2007, but it has not attained widespread use due to low sensitivity (Riethdorf et al., 2018). However, a wide array of devices have since been developed to improve CTC capture sensitivity and extract information from the cells beyond their abundance (Bankó et al., 2019; Lei, 2020; Rushton et al., 2021). CTCs carry the entire genetic and transcriptomic profile of the primary tumor from which they were shed (Alix-Panabières & Pantel, 2013). Comparatively, cfDNA provides only information about somatic mutations and methylation patterns. The presence of specific EGFR mutations, which may be

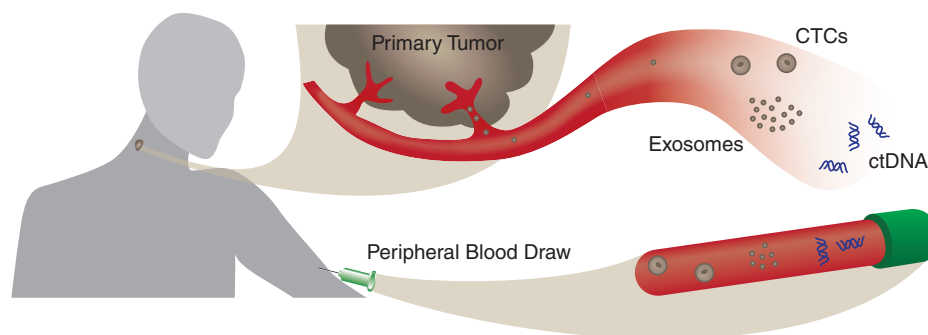


FIGURE 1 Tumors regularly shed material into the bloodstream, including circulating tumor DNA (ctDNA), exosomes, and circulating tumor cells (CTCs). Circulating material can be collected in a peripheral blood draw, which is minimally invasive compared to conventional biopsy. The collection of information from ctDNA, exosomes, and/or CTCs is called a liquid biopsy

detected in either CTCs or cfDNA, can predict the success of third-generation tyrosine kinase inhibitors (Tan et al., 2018). Exosomes and CTCs both carry information about protein and RNA abundance, which may correlate with the success or failure of ongoing treatment. In other cases, CTCs may be the only source of actionable information outside of the primary tumor. Specific examples include: detecting human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2) gene amplifications that may lead a physician to prescribe HER2-targeting therapies for breast cancer (Dent et al., 2013), detecting the androgen receptor (AR) V7 splice variant that predicts the failure of androgen-directed therapies in prostate cancer (Bastos & Antonarakis, 2018), or employing emerging methods in RNA or DNA sequencing to gain a deeper understanding of CTC biology (Z. Zhu et al., 2018). As a result, technologies that enable efficient CTC purification and analysis are likely to have a large impact on the practice of precision oncology.

2 | BRUSH, DENDRITIC, AND HYPERBRANCHED POLYMERS

Polymers and polymer coatings have a long history in biosensors and other diagnostic devices. Proteins and other macromolecules adsorb to sensor surfaces according to multiple short-range molecular forces: hydrophobic interactions, electrostatic forces, van der Waals forces, and hydration interactions, among others (Leckband & Israelachvili, 2001). Many of these “nonspecific interactions” can be physically blocked by hydrophilic polymer chains grafted to the sensor surface (Figure 2). The original polymer investigated for this purpose was polyethylene glycol (PEG; K. L. Prime & Whitesides, 1991, 1993). The ability of PEG to resist protein adsorption is attributed to its extensive hydration layer and flexibility, and it remains the gold standard to which other polymers are compared (Maan et al., 2020). When PEG or similar hydrophilic chains are grafted at sufficient density, they pack into a lengthened “comb” configuration and provide excellent resistance to nonspecific adsorption (Figure 2b; Heuberger et al., 2005). Capture moieties such as antibodies can be attached to tethers incorporated into the brush structure with controlled density, while the tightly packed polymer chains mitigate the adsorption of nontargeted material. Such “non-fouling” surfaces have many applications in biomedical devices, and for liquid biopsies, they enhance the *specificity* by reducing the amount of nontumor material adsorbed alongside specifically targeted material.

Next-generation anti-fouling polymers have addressed the shortcomings of PEG, including the notable challenge of routinely generating tightly packed comb structures necessary for protein repulsion (Maan et al., 2020). Bottlebrush polymers, for example, achieve the same effect as PEG at much lower grafting density. A bottle brush polymer consists of a “backbone” chain with a high density of secondary chains built from anti-fouling monomers (Figure 2c; Hucknall, Rangarajan, & Chilkoti, 2009). A prime example of an effective bottlebrush polymer may be poly(oligo[ethylene glycol]), with both backbone and chains built from ethylene glycol monomers (Hucknall, Simnick, et al., 2009; H. Ma et al., 2004; Ma et al., 2006). Other examples include backbones based on poly(acrylic acid) (Su et al., 2019) and poly(L-lysine) (Morgese et al., 2018; Figure 3a). Alternatives to PEG side chains include poly(2-methyl-2-oxazoline) (Konradi et al., 2008), poly(2-ethyl-2-oxazoline) (Morgese et al., 2018), and poly(N-vinylpyrrolidone) (P. Wang et al., 2019).

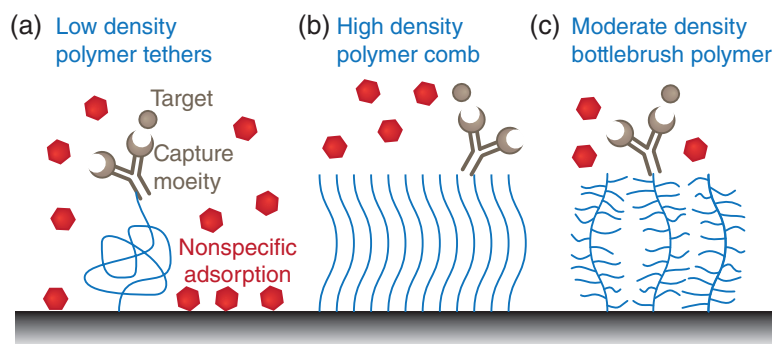


FIGURE 2 Conformations of surface-grafted polymers. (a) Linear polymers conjugated to a surface at low density can be employed to increase the accessibility and flexibility of a capture moiety, such as an antibody. However, nonspecific adsorption of nontargeted material can occur in the gaps between chains. (b) Linear, hydrophilic polymers achieve anti-fouling behavior when packed tightly enough to form a comb structure of extended chains. Conjugation of capture moieties to a non-fouling surface enhances the specificity of a liquid biopsy. (c) Branched bottlebrush polymers have superior non-fouling characteristics compared to linear polymers but at a much lower density

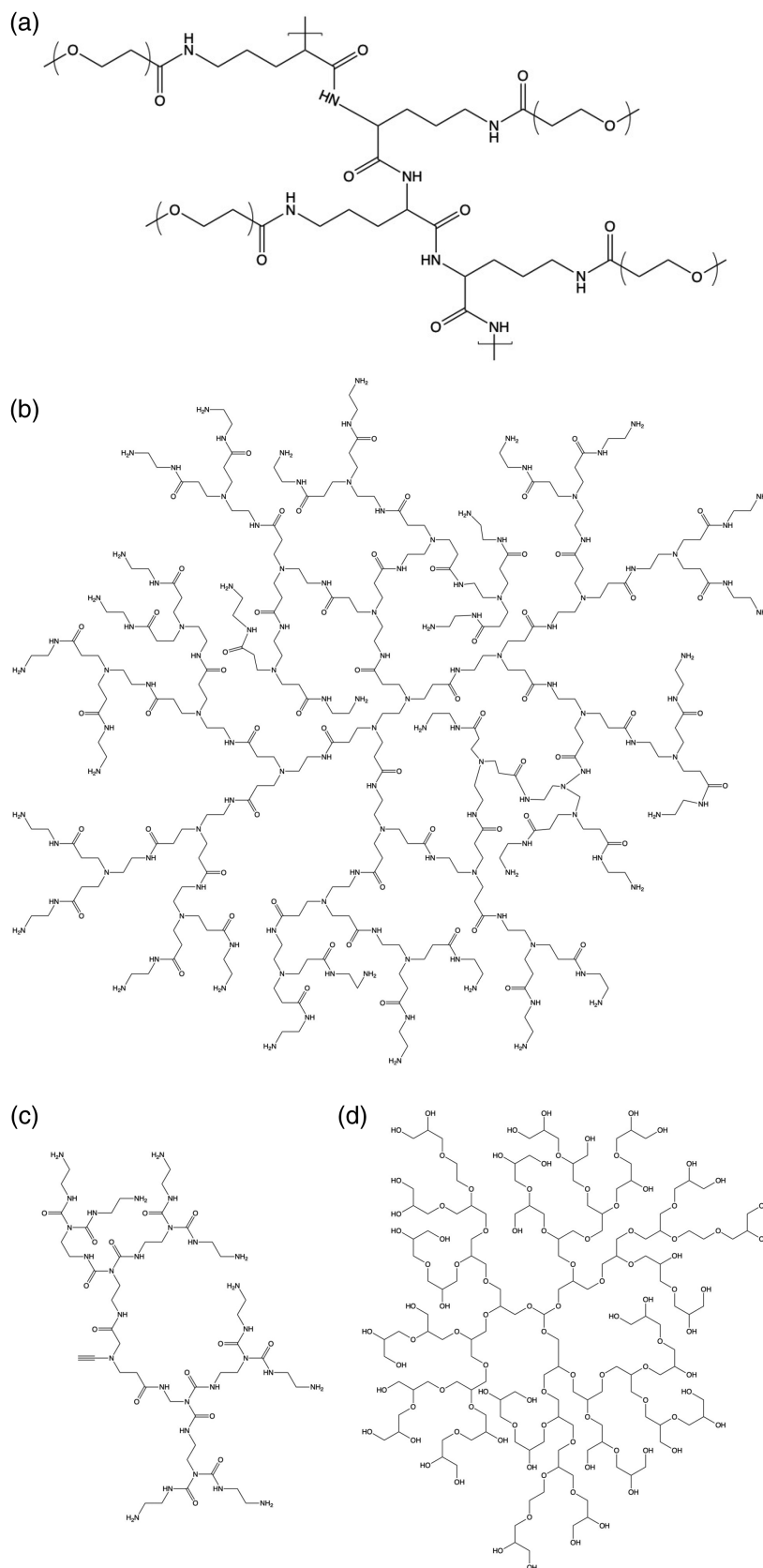


FIGURE 3 Chemical structures of select branched and hyperbranched polymers. (a) Bottlebrush poly(L-lysine)-graft-poly(ethylene glycol). (b) G3 PAMAM dendrimer. (c) G3 PAMAM dendron with a nitrile functional group. (d) Hyperbranched polyglycerol

The term “dendrimer” refers to a polymer with several highly ordered branching units (Svenson & Tomalia, 2012; Tomalia & Fréchet, 2002). Dendrimers have found a wide variety of uses in liquid biopsy applications, detailed in the section below. Dendrimers are “hyperbranched” by definition, meaning they are constructed from a high density of small branching units (Voit & Lederer, 2009). Synthesis of these nanoparticles is most commonly achieved by branching out from a single, small molecule in a stepwise fashion. The most extensively studied dendrimer, poly(amidoamine) (PAMAM; Esfand & Tomalia, 2001), is generally grown from an ethylenediamine core (Figure 3b). Next, methyl acrylate is reacted with each amine via Michael addition, followed by a reaction with ethylenediamine to produce a new primary amine at each branch. This process, termed “divergent synthesis,” produces nanoparticles with exceptionally low polydispersity compared to other materials, although the probability of defects increases with each step. The process results in a roughly spherical macromolecule with a low-density core and higher-density shell (Tomalia, 1994). Generation 2 (G2) PAMAM has a theoretical 16 surface groups, while G7 PAMAM has 512 surface groups (Bugno et al., 2016, 2019). Dendrimers can also be synthesized from the outside-in using convergent synthesis techniques (J. W. Lee et al., 2006). In addition to PAMAM, common dendrimers in biomedical and biosensor applications include polylysine (Boyd et al., 2006; Kaminskis et al., 2008, 2009), poly(propyleneimine) (Idris et al., 2020; Scherrenberg et al., 1998), poly(carbosilane) (Rabiee et al., 2020), and DNA (L. Liu et al., 2021; Meng et al., 2014; J. Wang et al., 1998).

An intermediate stage in the convergent synthesis of dendrimers consists of singular branches of dendrimers called “dendrons” (Grayson & Fréchet, 2001). Dendrons are similarly synthesized through multi-step reactions of iterative isolation and purification procedures by taking advantage of their well-controlled size and shape. Dendrons, used as precursors, may be attached to various central structures to prepare hybrid and multifunctional materials. An example of a G3 PAMAM dendron with a functional group compatible with click chemistry is illustrated in Figure 3c (Nair et al., 2021).

Hyperbranched polymers comprise a final class of materials. Unlike the stepwise synthesis of dendrimers and dendrons, hyperbranched polymers are typically synthesized in a single step of polycondensation (J. M. Fréchet, 1994; J. M. J. Fréchet et al., 1996). Several synthetic approaches have been developed with varying degrees of control over the degree of branching and total molecular weight (C. Gao et al., 2011; Schömer et al., 2013). The high density of functional groups, although relatively disordered compared to dendrimers and on polymers with wide polydispersity, can be used to enhance non-fouling behavior, enable rapid biodegradation, or improve capture avidity on the surface of a biosensor (Saadati et al., 2021; Smet, 2011). The most commonly studied polymer of this class in biosensor applications is hyperbranched polyglycerol (Schömer et al., 2013; Figure 3d). Hyperbranched polyethylene imine (Kurunczi et al., 2013), polyester (Sun et al., 2013, 2014; Tiwari et al., 2009), aromatic polyamide (Shen et al., 2011), polyurethane (Li et al., 2016), and many other polymers have also been used in small molecule and protein biosensor applications.

The remainder of this article reviews polymers in liquid biopsy applications targeting ctDNA, exosomes, and CTCs. For a broader literature review of dendritic and hyperbranched polymers in biosensors for chemical or protein-based analytes, the reader is referred elsewhere (Bahadır & Sezgentürk, 2016; Quadir & Haag, 2012; Sánchez et al., 2019; Satija et al., 2011).

3 | APPLICATIONS OF BRANCHED POLYMERS IN LIQUID BIOPSY

3.1 | Non-fouling coating

The bodily fluids analyzed in liquid biopsies contain an incredibly diverse mixture of macromolecules, vesicles, and whole cells. All nonspecific binding matter reduces the effective *specificity* of the liquid biopsy. Since the target analytes are typically at a very low concentration with respect to “healthy” circulating material, it is critical to minimize the capture or adsorption of nontargeted material on the sensor surface for accurate measurement (Vaisocherová et al., 2015). Branched and hyperbranched polymers are a means to achieve a high density of non-fouling proteins to reduce nonspecific binding to surfaces (Hucknall, Rangarajan, & Chilkoti, 2009). Examples of these polymers reported to reduce non-fouling in protein biosensors include poly(*N*-isopropylacrylamide) brushes (Rosenthal et al., 2018), poly(L-lysine)-*graft*-poly(*N*-[2-hydroxypropyl]methacrylamide) bottle brushes (Roeven et al., 2020), poly(L-lysine)-*graft*-poly(2-alkyl-2-oxazoline) and poly(2-ethyl-2-oxazoline) (Morgese et al., 2018), branched zwitterionic peptides (N. Liu et al., 2019; Song et al., 2021), and hyperbranched polyglycerol (Becherer et al., 2015). Compared to linear polymers, branched polymers can achieve similar or superior non-fouling behavior at a lower grafting density, while also providing a diversity of functional groups for further sensor modification.

3.2 | Analyte capture

A liquid biopsy should separate relatively rare analytes with a high degree of probability and efficiency. Thus, the second critical performance characteristic of a liquid biopsy, alongside specificity, is *sensitivity*. Branched and hyperbranched polymers may promote enhanced binding affinity, and therefore increase sensitivity, by three mechanisms. First, the physical separation of the binding agent improves binding kinetics by generally increasing the accessibility of the capture moiety to the target in solution (Figure 4a). Physical separation also improves the solvation of protein- and peptide-based agents that may denature in contact with a flat surface (Goddard & Hotchkiss, 2007; Sebra et al., 2005). Additionally, a nearby polymer may encourage a functional conformation. For example, Jeong et al. demonstrated that cell-targeting peptides were stabilized in a functional β -hairpin conformation when conjugated to PAMAM dendrimers but were less stable when conjugated to PEG (Jeong et al., 2020). Second, the flexible nature of the polymers allows a certain amount of conformational reorientation by the capture moiety (Figure 4b; Goddard & Hotchkiss, 2007; Sebra et al., 2005). In contrast, antibodies or other capture moieties conjugated to a rigid surface may be locked in a nonfunctional orientation with inaccessible binding sites. Third, the polymers provide a high density of branched end-groups, allowing for an increased density of potential binding sites (Figure 4c). The exceptionally high surface areas achieved by nanostructured materials dramatically enhances binding affinity compared to flat or even micron-scale patterns. A recent paper by Dong et al. (2020) reviews this phenomenon across a wide range of nanoscale geometries for CTC capture and retrieval. A high density of captured analytes enhances the signal generated, particularly in electrochemical sensors. Examples include hyperbranched polyesters as critical components of highly sensitive electrochemical sensors for detecting small molecules (Sun et al., 2013; Tiwari et al., 2009) and proteins (Miao et al., 2014; Niu et al., 2017) in biofluids. Exceptionally high densities can also be achieved using dendrimers. Myung et al. demonstrated that an average of 4.9 antibodies could be conjugated to a single G7 PAMAM dendrimer, despite the small diameter of the nanoparticle (8 nm; Myung et al., 2011). These properties are beneficial for capturing biomarkers, such as CTCs, due to their phenotypic diversity. The use of branched and hyperbranched polymers with multiple capture agents has also been proven to capture higher numbers of CTCs than devices with a single agent alone (Myung et al., 2014, 2019). In particular, PAMAM dendrimer coatings have proven to enhance the performance of a wide variety of biosensors for DNA (N. Zhu et al., 2006), exosomes (Poellmann et al., 2020), and CTCs (Myung et al., 2011).

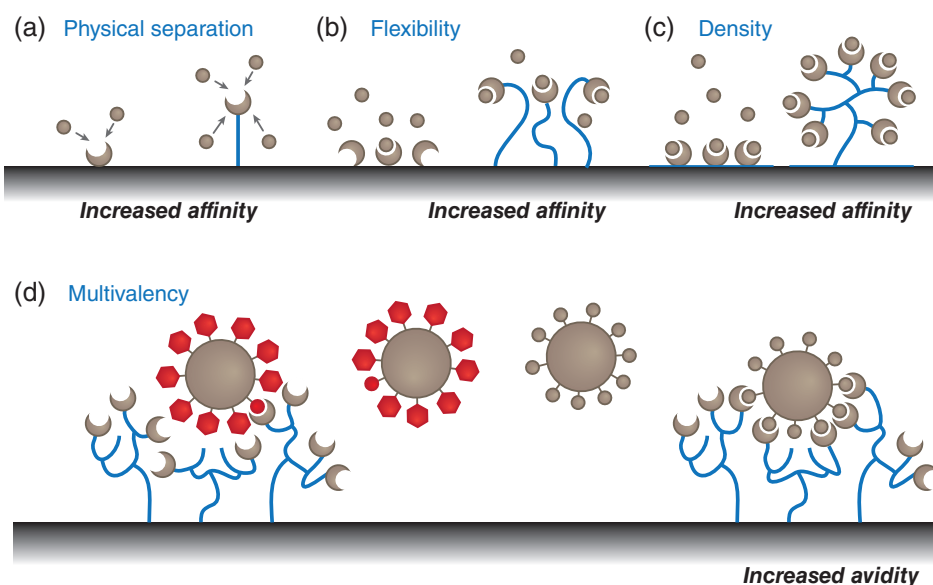


FIGURE 4 Mechanisms of increased affinity and avidity. (a) Polymers separate the capture moiety from the surface, increasing accessibility. (b) Polymers further offer conformational flexibility and avoid nonfunctional orientations. (c) Hyperbranched polymers offer a high density of functional sites compared to rigid surfaces. (d) Hyperbranched polymers facilitate multivalent recognition on the nanometer scale, which increase specificity. Nontargeted materials may have transient interactions with the capture moiety (left), while multivalent specific interactions (right) have high avidity even if each individual interaction has relatively weak binding affinity

Branched and hyperbranched polymers may be used to enhance binding avidity in addition to binding affinity. Dendrimers are particularly amenable to achieving a high density of flexible capture moieties sufficient to support multivalent binding (C. C. Lee et al., 2005). Properly designed multivalent capture systems enhance the specificity of an assay, as the collective strength of many individual interactions dramatically lowers dissociation rates (Figure 4d; Mammen et al., 1998). Even when the univalent interactions are relatively weak, multivalent binding effectively increases selectivity (Scheepers et al., 2020). Liquid biopsies utilizing PAMAM dendrimers for multivalent recognition have been used extensively by Myung et al. to enhance CTC capture (Myung et al., 2011, 2014, 2015, 2018). For example, dissociation rate constants of antibody-coated G7 PAMAM dendrimers from recombinant epithelial cell adhesion molecule (EpCAM) were estimated to be over 1 million times lower than the antibody alone (Myung et al., 2011). The combination of multivalent binding and high capture density has a positive effect on CTC capture efficiency. The Hong research group has reported a 4-fold increase in capture efficiency of various cell lines (Bu et al., 2020; Myung et al., 2011, 2014) and a 1.8-fold increase in patient CTC capture (Myung et al., 2018) when antibodies were conjugated to G7 PAMAM dendrimers compared to PEG.

The multivalent binding effect from dendrimer-coated surfaces is achieved at even nanometer distances, as shown by Poellmann et al. (2020) with atomic force microscopy. In this article, tumor exosomes were captured with high specificity on surfaces designed to achieve multivalent capture of sub-100 nm vesicles. The device surface was coated with multiple layers of G7 PAMAM dendrimers tethered together with PEG chains and functionalized with anti-tumor antibodies (Poellmann et al., 2020). Surfaces using other hyperbranched polymers for the same purpose have also been reported. For example, Zhang et al. deposited PAMAM dendrimer-coated gold nanoparticles on a sensor surface and functionalized the dendrimer end groups to capture exosomes expressing glypican 1 (GPC1; Zhang et al., 2019). Jiang et al. reported a technique using phenoxyl dendrons to generate a high density of dipicolylamine-Zn²⁺ complexes to capture microvesicles with an abundance of phosphatidylserine phospholipids (Jiang et al., 2019). These reports suggest that the mechanisms underlying enhanced avidity by surfaces coated with dendrimers, dendrons, or hyperbranched polymers operate at the nanometer scale or smaller.

Branched and hyperbranched polymers have also been used as part of molecularly imprinted polymers (MIPs). In a MIP, the polymers themselves form the capture moiety. A hydrogel containing a mixture of functional groups is polymerized around the analyte of interest. When the analyte is washed out, an imprint remains with various functional groups polymerized in an orientation capable of capturing the same analytes with high specificity (Chen et al., 2016). The high density and potential diversity of functional groups in brush and dendron polymers make them an attractive scaffold for this purpose, and PAMAM dendrimers have formed a critical component of many reported applications (Lian et al., 2012; Pan et al., 2015). Whole dendrimers have also been used as MIPS when the nanoparticles were synthesized using the target analyte as a template (Prasad et al., 2010). The further development of MIPS for protein-based biomarkers, MIPS to mimic or replace antibodies, and surface-imprinted polymers for larger biomarkers like whole cells is a promising direction for liquid biopsy (El-Schich et al., 2020).

3.3 | Analyte detection and signal amplification

Finally, device sensitivity can be improved by amplifying the signal generated when an analyte is captured. Branched and hyperbranched particles are particularly well-suited to amplify signals due to the abundance of functional groups on the surface of a molecule that supports a high density of fluorophores (Figure 5a) or other signal-generating molecules (Ong et al., 2001; Zhou et al., 2015). For example, a G4 dendrimer with a fluorescent compound on each end group is 32 times more sensitive than the fluorescent compound alone (Balzani et al., 2000). Bottlebrush polymers have been used to amplify the fluorescent signal from a secondary antibody by over a 1000-fold (Fouz et al., 2015). Fluorescently labeled dendrimers constructed of DNA have been used to amplify the signal of exosomes detected in solution (M. L. Gao et al., 2019). In another approach, Lin et al. (2013) constructed hyperbranched polymers containing fluorescent diketopyrrolophyrrole, which is quenched upon binding to DNA. In each case above, branched polymers localize a high number of fluorescent molecules at the site of detection to provide enhanced sensitivity compared to traditional methods.

Electrochemical detection is often employed to directly convert captured analyte mass into a current, and amplification of current-generating sensor elements in turn increases the sensitivity of a device. As with fluorescent- and enzyme-based amplification methods above, dendrimers have been incorporated into a wide range of electrochemical sensors for small molecules and proteins (Hasanzadeh et al., 2014; Park & Park, 2009). Gold or indium tin oxide (ITO)

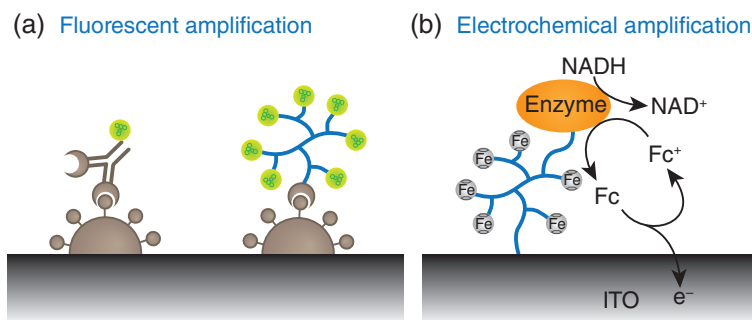


FIGURE 5 Mechanisms of signal amplification. (a) Fluorophores can be attached to functional groups on a dendrimer at exceptionally high density compared to antibodies. (b) Electrochemical detection typically involves an enzyme-mediated redox reaction. The electron generated by the oxidation of NADH is transferred through a high density of ferrocenyl groups on dendrimers to a conductive surface below, generating a current proportional to the enzyme activity

biosensors coated with a layer of ferrocene-functionalized PAMAM dendrimers (Figure 5b) have been used to effectively convert redox chemical reactions into a current with DNA hybridization (Kim et al., 2003), avidin capture (Yoon et al., 2000), and antibody-based biosensors (Kwon et al., 2006). The dendrimers supported a sufficiently high density of ferrocene in close proximity to the conductive surface to reliably generate a current in the redox environment. Electrochemical reactions can also produce luminescent signals. For example, Zhang et al. (2019) generated such a signal when exosomes were captured on a gold nanoparticle surface and subsequently labeled by polydopamine-coated Galinstan liquid metal shell-core-core nanohybrids. Electrochemical sensors have not yet been widely employed applications involving CTCs or exosomes. We refer the reader to several reviews covering the technology for DNA, protein, and small molecule detection by electrochemical means (Hasanzadeh et al., 2014; Park & Park, 2009).

In addition to amplifying a detection signal, hyperbranched polymers may be used to target and increase the mass of a targeted analyte detected by surface plasmon resonance (SPR) and similar methods. For example, Ding et al. (2017) reported amplification of an SPR signal where a captured analyte exposed a trigger sequence for DNA dendrimer ligation and dendrimer formation, known as “hybridization chain reaction amplification”. The growth of a dendrimer on a captured analyte increases the mass of the targeted analyte exponentially with time, greatly enhancing the signal generated during capture. This approach also remains largely unexplored in the context of CTC or exosome detection, and significant opportunities exist for innovation in the field. Electrochemical and SPR sensors have excellent sensitivity and avoid many of the issues related to fluorescent measurements.

4 | CONCLUSION

Human blood contains a wide diversity of proteins, vesicles, and whole cells. The isolation of specific analytes such as tumor-derived proteins, exosomes, or CTCs from this complex mixture remains a challenging engineering problem. Branched and hyperbranched polymers are valuable elements in the design of devices for liquid biopsy. These polymers may enhance the specificity of an assay by (1) reducing nonspecific adsorption of nontargeted analytes or (2) facilitating multivalent interactions. Sensitivity may be improved through (1) a high density of capture moieties, (2) binding agents with a great degree of conformational flexibility, or (3) amplification of a signal corresponding to specific capture. In our view, the relative rarity of tumor-derived materials in peripheral blood, combined with the complex and heterogeneous nature of such materials, requires extremely high sensitivity and specificity of liquid biopsies to provide clinically significant information. We believe that the incorporation of dendrimers and other hyperbranched polymers would provide a clear route to substantially improve the performance of existing liquid biopsy platforms, which would ultimately facilitate the clinical adoption of these promising technologies.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

Seungpyo Hong is co-founder and Michael Poellmann is an employee of Capio Biosciences, a biotechnology company currently developing liquid biopsies.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Michael Poellmann: Conceptualization (equal); writing – original draft (equal); writing – review and editing (equal). **Piper A Rawding:** Writing – original draft (equal). **DaWon Kim:** Writing – original draft (equal). **Jiyoong Bu:** Writing – review and editing (equal). **YoungSoo Kim:** Conceptualization (equal). **Seungpyo Hong:** Conceptualization (equal); funding acquisition (equal); writing – review and editing (equal).

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Data sharing is not applicable to this article as no new data were created or analyzed in this study

ORCID

Michael J. Poellmann  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0085-3957>

Piper Rawding  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9233-9700>

DaWon Kim  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8912-7096>

Jiyoong Bu  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0153-5109>

YoungSoo Kim  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5029-7082>

Seungpyo Hong  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9870-031X>

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How to cite this article: Poellmann, M. J., Rawding, P., Kim, D., Bu, J., Kim, Y., & Hong, S. (2022). Branched, dendritic, and hyperbranched polymers in liquid biopsy device design. *WIREs Nanomedicine and Nanobiotechnology*, 14(3), e1770. <https://doi.org/10.1002/wnan.1770>