



Titanium dioxide-mediated resistive nanobiosensor for *E. coli* O157:H7

Sh. Nadzirah¹ · U. Hashim² · Subash C. B. Gopinath^{2,3} · N. A. Parmin^{2,3} · Azrul Azlan Hamzah¹ · Hung Wei Yu⁴ · Chang Fu Dee¹

Received: 27 December 2019 / Accepted: 3 March 2020
© Springer-Verlag GmbH Austria, part of Springer Nature 2020

Abstract

A titanium dioxide nanoparticle (TiO₂ NP)-mediated resistive biosensor is described for the determination of DNA fragments of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 (*E. coli* O157:H7). The sol-gel method was used to synthesize the TiO₂ NP, and microlithography was applied to fabricate the interdigitated sensor electrodes. Conventional *E. coli* DNA detections are facing difficulties in long-preparation-and-detection-time (more than 3 days). Hence, electronic biosensor was introduced by measuring the current-voltage (*I*-*V*) DNA probe without amplification of DNA fragments. The detection scheme is based on the interaction between the electron flow on the sensor and the introduction of negative charges from DNA probe and target DNA. The biosensor has a sensitivity of $1.67 \times 10^{13} \Omega/\text{M}$ and a wide analytical range. The limit detection is down to 1×10^{-11} M of DNA. The sensor possesses outstanding repeatability and reproducibility and is capable to detect DNA within 15 min in a minute-volume sample (1 μL).

Keywords Titanium dioxide nanoparticles · Poultry sample detection · Interdigitated electrode · Microlithography · Electrical detection

Introduction

In the current trends, biosensor is playing a pivotal role in the front of diagnosis for human well-being. Further, designing a high-performance sensor has also been focused much due to its wide range of potentials [1–9]. Among the biosensors, electrical

biosensor provides the most effective, comprehensive, and rapid detection towards the biomolecules [10–12]. In addition, the results come out through the electrical reading in label-free manner are facilitating the easier interpretation. According to Xu et al. biosensors are in trend for detecting *E. coli* O157:H7, can be categorized into (i) optical, (ii) electrochemical, (iii) mass-sensitive, (iv) calorimetric, and others [13]. Among them, electrochemical biosensors have been tremendously studied. Electrochemical biosensor is a device that transforming the electrochemical information into an analytical signal. It is composed of a chemical recognition system and a physical transducer. The chemical recognition system can be considered as a complex set-up, which involves chemical reagents. Moreover, the system needs three electrodes which are reference, counter, and working electrodes [14]. The use of electrochemistry requires large volume of chemicals and analytes [15]. Recently, biosensor technology has been introduced with the use of electronic-biosensors that are able to detecting DNA with changes in output current, resistance, and conductance [2, 11, 16–21]. In addition, electronic biosensor can be categorized as a YES/NO device. The existence of DNA can be read by the electrical reading as low as femtomolar (10^{-15}) M [16, 17]. The working principle of electronic biosensor is shorter than

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (<https://doi.org/10.1007/s00604-020-4214-y>) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

✉ Sh. Nadzirah
sharipahnadzirah@ukm.edu.my

✉ Chang Fu Dee
cfdee@ukm.edu.my

¹ Institute of Microengineering and Nanoelectronics, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

² Institute of Nano Electronic Engineering, Universiti Malaysia Perlis, 01000 Kangar, Perlis, Malaysia

³ School of Bioprocess Engineering, Universiti Malaysia Perlis, 02600 Arau, Perlis, Malaysia

⁴ Department of Materials Science and Engineering, National Chiao Tung University, Hsinchu 30010, Taiwan

the electrochemical, where dropping-analyte-technique has been used. This biosensor integrates the biological elements with the transducer to produce an electrical signal. Basically, output current is measured after each process that acts as a reference measurement (reference electrode) towards the next process. The main highlights of the electrical biosensor are small analyte-volume consumption ($\sim 1 \mu\text{L}$), straightforward detection, and rapid in detection time.

On the other hand, the choices of target bring-out the importance of its applications. There are wide ranges of targets that have been demonstrated to be successful with biosensors [7, 22, 23]. Among different targets, detection of pathogens is the mandatory events and has been implemented with several sensors, which include optical, electrical, and electrochemical sensors [24, 25]. The performance of most of the pathogen detecting sensors covers monitoring the disease causing agents. However, detecting foodborne pathogen is limited, especially with the electrical-based sensors. *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) is one of the foodborne pathogen that urgently needs the ultra-fast and direct detection technique due to the limitations with the current technologies that normally needs more than 2 days. It is due to the necessity of cultured samples to obtain the clear-cut results. In addition, expertise is required to interpret the obtained results especially with the coloring and culture-based methods. In the current study, we have demonstrated an electronic resistive biosensor for a direct detection of *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA in real samples that eliminate amplification of DNA using polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Foodborne pathogenic detection in real sample using the resistive biosensor-coupled TiO_2 -NP without involving PCR is not explored in the past. Herein, we report using less volume consumption, the potential of TiO_2 -NP transducer for the detection of real sample, having *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA species at an extremely low concentration. Without involving any complex wet chemistry process was followed on this transducer, and the output result is simply tunable by electrical reading, which clearly shows the genuine detection. To demonstrate these appealing characteristics, the analytical performance on the TiO_2 -NP-based resistive transducer is discussed in detail.

Experimental section

Materials and reagents

A p-type silicon wafer ($1\text{--}10 \Omega \text{ cm}$) with 4-in. diameter and $\langle 100 \rangle$ orientation was used in this work. Buffered oxide etch (BOE) and aluminum etchant were purchased from J.T. Baker, Fisherscientific (New Hampshire, USA, <https://www.fishersci.co.uk/gb/en/brands/IPF8MGDA/jt-baker.html>). A negative resist (NP ma-N 1405) and resist developer (RD6) were purchased from Futurrex, Inc. (Franklin, USA, <https://futurrex.com/en>). Ethanol, acetone, titanium (IV) isopropoxide (TTIP) 97%, glacial acetic acid, titanium (IV) butoxide (TiB), and 3-

aminopropyl triethoxysilane (APTES) 99% were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (M) Sdn Bhd (Petaling Jaya, Malaysia, <https://www.sigmaaldrich.com/malaysia.html>). All DNA oligonucleotides of *E. coli* O157:H7 were purchased from AIT Biotech (Singapore, <http://www.aitbiotech.com/>). A 30-mer COOH-terminated probe (5'-COOH-AACGCCGATACCAT TACTTATACCGCGACG-3') was synthesized as a probe. Six carbon (C6) spacer was used to stabilize the whole molecule. For the target DNA detection, 30-mer positive control target DNA (5'-CGTCGCGGTATAAGTAATGGTATCGGCGTT-3'), 30-mer negative control target DNA (5'-GCAGCGCCATATTC ATTACCATAGCCGCAA-3'), and another 30-mer single mismatch target DNA (5'-CGTCGCGGTATAACTAATGG TATCGGCGTT-3') were utilized.

Apparatus

TiO_2 solution and photoresist were spin-coated using spin coater WS-650MZ-23NPP; Laurell Technologies Corporation (North Wales, USA, <http://www.laurell.com/>). DNA was extracted from the poultry samples using QIAamp DNA Blood Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany, <https://www.qiagen.com/us/>). Vortex mixer SA8 was purchased from Fisher scientific (StuartTM, New Hampshire, USA, fishersci.fi/en/home.html). myFugeTM microcentrifuge and 12 Mini Centrifuge were purchased from Benchmark Scientific (New Jersey, USA, <http://www.benchmarkscientific.com/>). ThermoMixer[®] was purchased from Eppendorf (Selangor, Malaysia, <https://www.eppendorf.com/MY-en/>). MSH-30D Hotplate Stirrer was purchased from WiseStir[®] (Wertheim, Germany, <https://www.witeg.de/>). Keithley 6487-picoammeter and Autolab software were purchased from Mouser Electronics (Penang, Malaysia, <https://my.mouser.com/>) that used to measure the electrical performance of the sensor.

Development of titanium dioxide-mediated resistive nanobiosensor

The device was fabricated on a p-type $\langle 100 \rangle$ silicon wafer. The fabrication process was initiated with surface cleaning to remove the native oxide layer. The wafer was immersed in BOE for 15 min at room temperature and rinsed with distilled water (DIW). It was immediately blow-dried using N_2 gun to prevent regrowing the native oxide. Next, the wafer was used as a substrate to fabricate interdigitated electrodes (IDEs) [26]. Negative photoresist NP ma-N 1405 was used for the fabrication of IDEs using the photolithography process. A complete process of the IDEs fabrication was reported in our previous study [27]. After this process, TiO_2 solutions were prepared using the sol-gel method.

Two TiO_2 solutions (20.2 mL) were prepared by varying the TiO_2 precursors, (i) TTIP and (ii) TiB. Each precursor was mixed with ethanol (as a solvent) and glacial acetic acid (as a

stabilizer) at 1:9:0.1 ratio [28]. The mixed solution was vigorously stirred using magnetic stirrer and heated at 75 °C for 1 h on hot plate (WiseStir® & WiseTherm, Germany). The solutions were left to age for 24 h at room temperature.

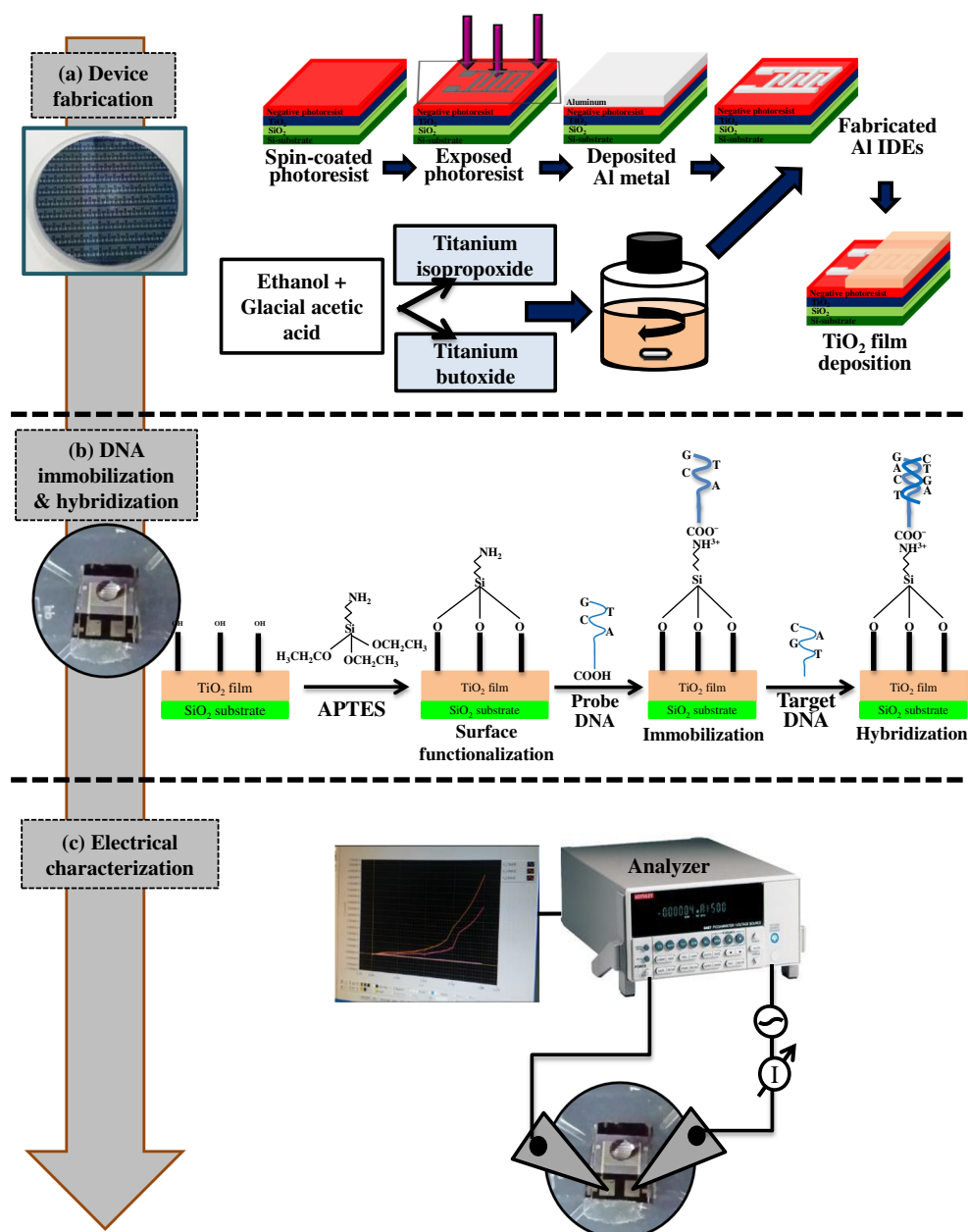
The fabrication of sensor was further processed by developing TiO₂ thin film on the surface of IDEs. Hence, each TiO₂ solution was separately spin-coated on the IDEs at a spin rate of 2000 rpm for 30 s. The optimization of IDE fabrication was discussed previously [27]. The TiO₂ films were dried on a hot plate with 175 °C for 10 min. The spin-coating and drying processes were repeated twice in order to obtain a 60-nm thickness. Finally, the TiO₂ film was annealed at 400 °C. The annealing temperature was discussed previously [29].

The overall process for the preparation of TiO₂ solution and the fabrication of IDEs device were summarized in Fig. 1a.

Characterization of titanium dioxide-mediated resistive nanobiosensor

The characterizations on TiO₂-NPs thin films were performed to study the surface morphology of the thin films using atomic force microscope (AFM) (SPA400; Seiko Instruments Inc.) and field-emission electron microscope (FESEM) (HITACHI SU8020). The electrical measurements of the thin films were done using Keithley 6487-picoammeter. There are two needles on probe station with positive and negative potential

Fig. 1 **a** Fabrication of titanium dioxide-mediated resistive nanobiosensor; **b** Process to introduce oligonucleotide on the surface of inorganic TiO₂; **c** Electrical measurement using Keithley 6487 Picoammeter analyzer



supply. The probes were biased on the pads of the IDEs (Fig. 1c). The applied sweep potential was from 0 to 1 V, and the resistance and conductance graphs were plotted based on the potential of 0.5 V. The electrical measurement was applied at the end of each process with the same value of sweep voltage.

Surface functionalization on TiO₂-NPs for DNA detection

Functionalization process is crucially important for inorganic material (TiO₂-NPs) to have contact with organic sample (*E. coli* O157:H7 DNA). Silanization is one of the surface-functionalization processes, which avail the self-assembly of triethoxysilane group of APTES on the hydroxyl group of TiO₂-NPs. A 2% APTES was diluted with ethanolic solution at 25 °C. TiO₂ surface was chemically modified by dripping 1.0 µL of 2% APTES and kept for 2 h in moist condition (>80%). A covalent bond of –Si–O–Ti– is formed between the APTES mixture and the TiO₂ surface (Fig. 1b). The sample was rinsed with deionized DIW (ddIW) to remove the excess APTES and treated for 20 min at 50 °C in order to strengthen the bonding. Finally, the sensor was ready for electrical measurement.

DNA on TiO₂-NP-mediated transducer

Immobilization is a process to introduce single-strand DNA probe onto the modified surface of TiO₂. The modified probe (5'-COOH-AACGCCGATACCATTACTTATACCGC GACG-3') was diluted in dDIW to be 10 µM. Then, 1 µL of the probe was placed onto the sensing area. The sample was then incubated for 2 h, and the excess DNA probe was washed by rinsing the surface with dDIW. The purpose of rinsing is to remove the unbound DNA probe residues. After that, the sensor was ready for electrical measurement. Basically, when the amino group (NH₂) from APTES, reacts with the carboxyl group (COOH) from the DNA probe, it forms an electrostatic interactions and amide bond. This peptide bond is formed by releasing H₂O molecule.

The hybridization process was carried out under the similar conditions with the immobilization process. Three different controls (i) target complementary DNA (5'-CGTC GCGGTATAAGTAATGGTATCGGCGTT3-'), (ii) single mismatch DNA (5'-CGTCGCGGTATAA CTAAT GGTATCGGCGTT3-'), and (iii) non-complementary (porcine DNA) were used for the analyses (Fig. 1b). The target complementary DNA was diluted serially with dDIW. The purpose of performing a serial dilution test is to obtain various concentrations (10 µM to 1 pM) of target complementary DNA. The 1 µL of complementary target DNA was further dropped on the immobilized probe. The electrical measurement was performed which contributed the sensitivity test for sensing. These methods were repeated on each concentration.

After completing the hybridization of *E. coli* O157:H7 target DNA measurement, the target DNA was dehybridized (denatured) to obtain the original reading of the transducer surface that has been immobilized with the DNA probe. The de-hybridization or denaturation process was implemented by dropping 1 µL of freshly prepared 0.1 M NaOH liquid on the sensing area that has been covered with targeted *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA. This process was conducted for 5 min at room temperature. The transducer was then rinsed with dDIW, blew for drying, and ready for the next sample hybridization process.

Specificity test

Further testing was performed for the specificity test of the sensor by varying the synthetic DNA controls: (i) complementary target DNA (1 µM), (ii) single mismatch DNA and (iii) porcine DNA. The test was carried out to prove the ability of the sensor to give the same conductivity performance with repetitive hybridization testing of samples. One microliter of single mismatch DNA was hybridized on the immobilized probe of a sensor. Then, the electrical measurement was performed. The steps were repeated for the porcine DNA. The electrical performances were observed and compared with the performance of the synthetic complementary target DNA at 1 µM concentration.

Reproducibility test

The reproducibility performance of the sensor was tested by using two synthetic DNA concentrations: (i) 1 nM and (ii) 1 pM. Lower DNA concentrations were selected as samples for this test in order to prove the device sensing ability towards these samples. The electrical performances of the synthetic target DNA were further used as a reference for real samples testing. Directly, we were able to estimate the concentration of the real samples by comparison.

Poultry sample DNA extraction and complementation analysis

The sensor was further tested with real samples. Chicken organs were used and the sample DNA was isolated from the recovered *E. coli* using QIAamp®DNA Mini purification kit and followed the instructions from Blood Mini Handbook. The extracted DNA was denatured into single stranded DNA using thermoshaker for 2 min. Then, it was quickly placed in ice for 5 min to retain the single-stranded DNA form. Without any further DNA amplification, a small volume of the extracted sample (1 µL) was then applied on the sensor. The sample was then incubated for 15 min, and the excess DNA was rinsed out from the surface using dDIW. Finally, the electrical measurement of the sample was observed.

Results and discussion

Choice of materials

TiO₂ is a metal oxide that has three phases which commonly known as brookite, anatase, and rutile [30, 31]. Among them, rutile is usually more stable than anatase at most temperatures and pressures [32, 33]. It has a wide bandgap ~ 3.2 eV and possesses unique electrical properties. This makes it to be an excellent candidate for DNA biosensor as the electrical reading will not be too low as it can interrupt the performance reading. In fact, the electrical reading will not be too high and prevents the DNA damaging. Furthermore, it is nontoxic, low-cost, and highly stable material in the harsh environments [34, 35]. As compared with ZnO, TiO₂ has stable active area for reusable biosensor as the structure is able to stand with multiple cleaning and drying processes (dehybridization).

Dimensions and parameters of TiO₂-NP-based resistive biosensor

In this research, two different TiO₂ thin films were synthesized via sol-gel method and spin-coating technique using TiB and TTIP as precursor, respectively. However, TiO₂ thin film with TTIP precursor had the most convincing properties. Hence, it was further selected to be used as an active area (sensing area) and fabricated as a complete resistive transducer. TiO₂-NP is an important mediator in biosensor that provides an effective surface for biomolecule immobilization [36] with desired size

and growth rate. The morphological features of the TiO₂-NP information are as shown in supplementary explanation, E1, and figure supplementary, Fig. S1.

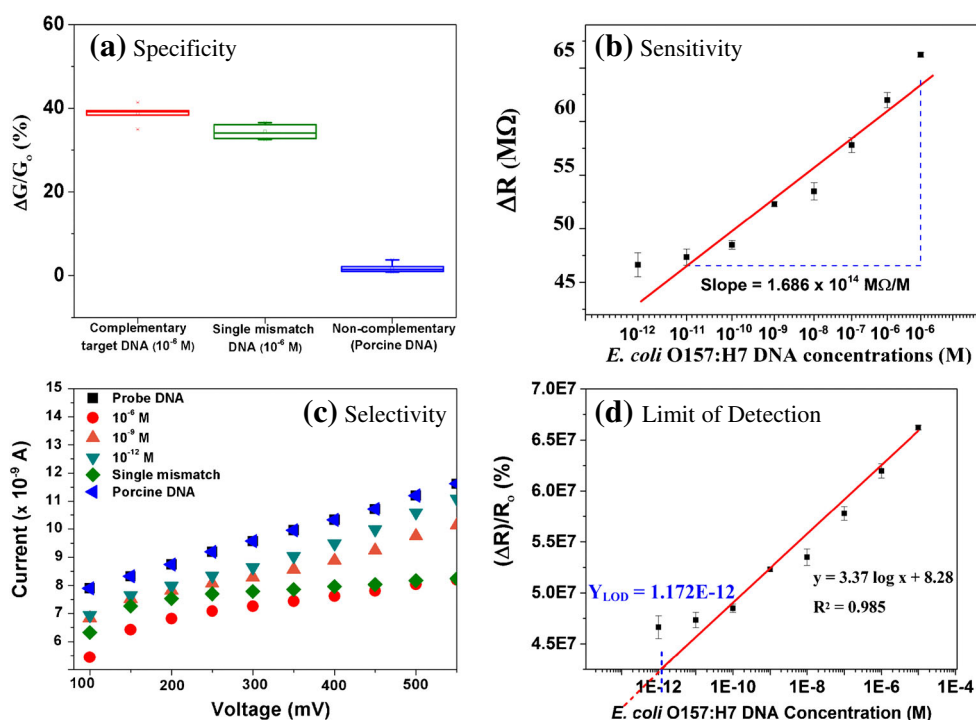
Resistive sensor for *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA

This sensor is eliminating a common step, which link the introduction between APTES and DNA. It has also been reported that glutaraldehyde is the best linker for the nucleic acid interaction. The purpose of the crosslinking is to make bonds stronger. Unfortunately, this binding can only withstand up to 14 days [37, 38]. Thus it is not suitable with sensor-device for commercialization purpose. Hence, the basic detection steps for this resistive sensor are (i) APTES silanization, (ii) DNA probe immobilization, and (iii) target DNA hybridization.

Specificity detection conditions for *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA

In this research, the specificity test of the TiO₂ NP-based resistive transducer for the detection of *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA was further verified by hybridizing the similar concentration (1 μ M) of complementary target DNA, single mismatched target DNA and non-complementary target DNA. Three separate devices were used to conduct this test. Figure 2a (box chart) portrays the significant differences in conductance (ΔG) values for each DNA hybridization process. Upon hybridization with fully complementary target DNA and single mismatched target DNA, the ΔG values 39.6% and 36% were obtained, respectively. However, very

Fig. 2 Electrical measurements on TiO₂-NP-based resistive biosensor. **a** Hybridization conductance specificity of complementary *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA target, single mismatch target DNA and non-complimentary (porcine DNA) target; **b** ΔR response with different concentrations of *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA; **c** The response of the biosensor towards different *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA concentrations, porcine DNA and single mismatch DNA; **d** Calibration curve of the relative change in resistance with estimated LOD



minimal ΔG of 1.37% was recorded for the non-complementary target DNA. The magnitudes of ΔG values indicates that the sensor produces a large ΔG for the specific binding of target DNA with the immobilized probe compared with a low ΔG for improper binding with mismatched DNA target. A very low ΔG or close to no mass loading effect is recorded for non-complementary target DNA binding with the immobilized probe. This indicates that the transducer has a high specificity, which is able to discriminate among complete complementary target DNA, single mismatch target DNA, and non-complementary target DNA oligonucleotides.

Sensitivity and selectivity of *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA detection

Further tests were conducted on the device to determine the sensor's sensitivity. The resistance characteristics of this experiment at 0.5 V are shown in Fig. 2b. The device sensitivity test was performed by concentration-dependent resistance upon hybridization by the complementary target DNA. The output currents were used as an indicator towards each concentration of target DNA. The stability test for each concentration was further improved from previous study [39]. The effect of different concentrations of fully complementary target *E. coli* O157:H7, ranging from 1 pM to 10 μ M were analyzed. As the target DNA concentration increased, there was a denser DNA hybridization on the surface, which consequents the increased mass loading effect. The sensitivity of the transducer is 16.69 M Ω /0.1 nM, which was calculated from the slope of the calibration curve. The current-voltage (*I*–*V*) characteristics exhibit significant differences in the measured output current with each hybridized targeted DNA (Fig. 2c). It was observed that, the decrement of target DNA concentrations (1 μ M to 1 pM) were against the output current of the hybridized target DNA. This is due to the less number of targets DNA molecules, compared with the number of DNA probe molecules. The increment in output current is caused by decrease in number of negative phosphate ions originated. When the concentration of the targeted DNA was reduced to 1 nM and 1 pM, the negative ion of target DNA also decreases. Hence, the ion

mobility of the electron decreases and causes the output current to decrease. Thus, the ion mobility of the electron increases when the concentration of the targeted DNA decreases.

The selectivity ability of *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA probe has been further assessed by dropping 1 μ L of two target typologies: (i) single mismatch (synthetic single-strand target DNA) and (ii) porcine DNA (negative control of synthetic single-strand target DNA). The negative target DNA (1 μ M single mismatch) lies near to 1 μ M target DNA that shows 88% different. This is caused by the number of negative phosphate ions, which are slightly different with the positive control target DNA. Therefore, the output current is slightly different due to the single misplace (mismatch) of the DNA sequence. However, the current response towards the hybridization of porcine DNA lies exactly on the *E. coli* DNA probe (no changes). This indicated that there is no double-helix formation between the ssDNA of *E. coli* and the ssDNA of porcine.

In this electrical biosensor, limit of detection (LOD) is defined as the lowest detectable molar concentration of target DNA. It can be calculated as $Y_{\text{lod}} = Y_{\text{blank}} + 3SD_{\text{blank}}$, where Y_{blank} is mean of the blank measurement and SD_{blank} is the standard deviation of the blank measurement [11]. The LOD was calculated with 5 replicates by the standard deviation related to the response of resistive nanobiosensor towards the reduction of target DNA concentration. Figure 2d shows the extrapolated detection limit of the sensor to be 1.172×10^{-12} M (the linear range). However, the experimental plot shows the lowest detection limit is 10^{-10} M. The resistance values at lower concentration range of 10^{-11} M and 10^{-12} M were start to deviate from the extrapolated values. Hence, those data collectively demonstrated that our new device can provide a quantitatively measurement of *E. coli* O157:H7 with a detection limit down to 1×10^{-11} M using 1.0 μ L volume of sample consumption in a time frame of 15 min.

Reproducibility of TiO₂-NP-based resistive biosensor

Further analysis was conducted to determine the reproducibility of the sensor in relation to 1 nM and 1 pM target DNAs

Fig. 3 TiO₂-NP-based resistive transducer for *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA; **a** Reproducibility test of TiO₂-NPs on five different transducers; and **b** Specificity test of poultry samples with the absence of *E. coli* O157:H7

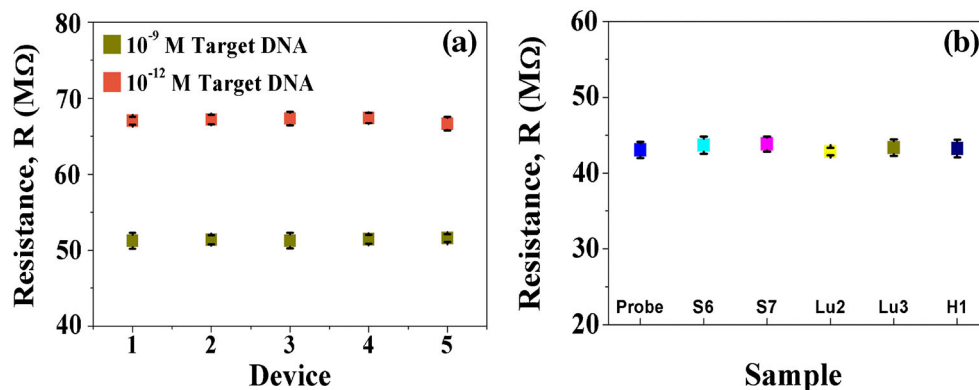


Table 1 Comparison of performance on electrical biosensor for *E. coli* O157:H7 detection

Method applied	Material used	Immobilized molecule	Limit of detection	References
Resistive nanobiosensor	Titanium dioxide	DNA	1 pM in 15 min	Current work
Capacitance voltage	Silicon nitride	DNA	2 nM	[40]
Electrochemical sensing	Multi-walled carbon nanotube	DNA	0.5 pmole in 20 min	[41]

(Fig. 3a). From the test, the RSD values for 1 nM and 1 pM *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA are $5.12 \pm 2.04\%$ and $4.66 \pm 0.91\%$, respectively, which indicates this TiO₂-NP-based resistive transducer has a good reproducibility with both DNA concentrations.

Table 1 compares our research with the reported researches on *E. coli* O157:H7 biosensors. This sensor can be considered as competent biosensor with the detection limit of 1 pM; 15 min detection time towards the electrochemical sensing, which has 0.5 pM detection limit and 20 min detection time.

Poultry sample DNA-based *E. coli* detection

Fifteen samples were obtained from different chicken organs, which include the heart, liver, lung, and swab. Those samples were diagnosed by both methods (i) conventional (from a private and independent diagnostic laboratory) and (ii) TiO₂-NP-based resistive biosensor. It was found that ten samples have infected by *E. coli* except S6, S7, Lu2, Lu3, and H1. Those samples with positive *E. coli* results were further classified based on their concentrations. Figure supplementary (Fig. S2) classifies type of samples and the resistance values which are comparable with the resistance value of the DNA probe. The electrical performance of the TiO₂-NP resistive sensor with the immobilized probe was used a reference towards the electrical performance of the real samples after hybridization. From the analyses, sample S1, S3, S4, and Lu4 have been categorized to have μM concentration of *E. coli*. Whereas, S5 and Li1 were at nM and pM concentrations, respectively. However, S2, Lu1, Li2, and Li3 target samples were identified to be infected by *E. coli* with higher than 1 μM concentration. The classification of the concentrations is represented at table supplementary (Table S1).

Next, we further specified the samples on the non-infected: (i) S6, (ii) S7, (iii) Lu2, (iv) Lu3, and (v) H1 for the stability test. Figure 3b shows the comparable results were obtained with six parallel experiments, and each sample was tested for quintuplicate. The uninfected samples were compared with the DNA probe because it acts as a reference signal. From the analysis, all samples were parallel with the DNA probe with RSD values are $4.5 \pm 13\%$, $4.6 \pm 14.3\%$, $4.5 \pm 21.3\%$, $4.5 \pm 19.8\%$, and $4.5 \pm 23\%$ for S6, S7, Lu2, Lu3, and H1, respectively. Based on these results, we confirmed the samples were free from *E. coli* O157:H7 and proved the good reproducibility of the biosensor. In addition, Fig. 3b is compared

with the Fig. 3b, and there are significant difference between the uninfected samples and the complementary DNA with lower concentrations. The electrical signal for the uninfected sample is $\sim 44.6 \text{ M}\Omega$. In contrast, the signals of the complementary DNA are $\sim 51.0 \text{ M}\Omega$ (1 nM) and $\sim 67.3 \text{ M}\Omega$ (1 pM).

Conclusion

We demonstrated TiO₂ NP-based resistive biosensor with 15 min detection of *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA. In addition, we proved the concept that this electronic biosensor has a high capability to be used commercially in *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA detection. The responsivity of this resistive biosensor with a real sample of *E. coli* O157:H7 was identified by observing the electrical detection in response to the concentrations-dependent *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA. Without amplification of DNA fragments, the resistive biosensor is able to detect the extracted DNA, as low as 10^{-10} M concentration (LOD) with high specificity, repeatability, and reproducibility. This research is useful in making a novel electrical detection of *E. coli* O157:H7 DNA. Further study should focus on the effect of reduction of probe concentration to 1 μM towards reducing the LOD.

Funding information This work is financially supported by HICOE (phase II) fund—"MEMS for Biomedical Devices (Artificial Kidney)" from Ministry of Education, Modal Insan Fund (MI-2019-005) and Dana Impak Perdana (DIP-2018-006) from Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM) and Geran COEMTUN under Grant Nos. 9016-00004, Institute of Nano Electronic Engineering (INEE), Universiti Malaysia Perlis (UniMAP); One-Point Healthlab Sdn. Bhd. and LRGS grant (600-RMI/LRGS 5/3 (3/2013)).

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

References

- Nomura K, Gopinath SCB, Lakshmi Priya T et al (2013) An angular fluidic channel for prism-free surface-plasmon-assisted fluorescence capturing. *Nat Commun*:4
- Nadzirah S, Azizah N, Hashim U et al (2015) Titanium dioxide nanoparticle-based Interdigitated electrodes: a novel current to

- voltage DNA biosensor recognizes *E. coli* O157:H7. *PLoS One* 10: e0139766. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0139766>
3. Gopinath SCB, Lakshmi Priya T, Awazu K (2014) Colorimetric detection of controlled assembly and disassembly of aptamers on unmodified gold nanoparticles. *Biosens Bioelectron* 51:115–123. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bios.2013.07.037>
 4. Gopinath SCB, Lakshmi Priya T, Chen Y et al (2016) Aptamer-based 'point-of-care testing'. *Biotechnol Adv* 34:198–208. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2016.02.003>
 5. Kalaiyarasi J, Meenakshi S, Pandian K, Gopinath SCB (2017) Simultaneous voltammetric determination of vanillin and guaiacol in food products on defect free graphene nanoflakes modified glassy carbon electrode. *Microchim Acta* 184:2131–2140. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00604-017-2161-z>
 6. Ibraheem AS, Al-Douri Y, Voon CH et al (2017) Surface functionalized Cu₂Zn_{1-x}Cd_xSnS₄ quaternary alloyed nanostructure for DNA sensing. *Appl Phys A Mater Sci Process* 123:200–209. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00339-017-0838-0>
 7. Odeh AA, Al-Douri Y, Voon CH et al (2017) A needle-like Cu₂CdSnS₄ alloy nanostructure-based integrated electrochemical biosensor for detecting the DNA of dengue serotype 2. *Microchim Acta* 184:2211–2218. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00604-017-2249-5>
 8. Karim SSA, Dee CF, Majlis BY, Mohamed MA (2019) Recent progress on fabrication of zinc oxide nanorod-based field effect transistor biosensors. *Sains Malaysiana* 48:1301–1310. <https://doi.org/10.17576/jsm-2019-4806-19>
 9. Hamzah AA, Selvarajan RS, Majlis BY (2017) Graphene for biomedical applications: a review. *Sains Malaysiana* 46:1125–1139. <https://doi.org/10.17576/jsm-2017-4607-16>
 10. Pandey A, Gurbuz Y, Ozguz V et al (2017) Graphene-interfaced electrical biosensor for label-free and sensitive detection of foodborne pathogenic *E. coli* O157:H7. *Biosens Bioelectron* 91: 225–231. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bios.2016.12.041>
 11. Rahman SFA, Yusof NA, Hashim U et al (2016) Enhanced sensing of dengue virus DNA detection using O₂ plasma treated-silicon nanowire based electrical biosensor. *Anal Chim Acta* 942:74–85. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aca.2016.09.009>
 12. Bruck HA, Yang M, Kostov Y, Rasooly A (2013) Electrical percolation based biosensors. *Methods* 63:282–289. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ymeth.2013.08.031>
 13. Xu M, Wang R, Li Y (2017) Electrochemical biosensors for rapid detection of *Escherichia coli* O157:H7. *Talanta* 162:511–522. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.talanta.2016.10.050>
 14. Khalid WEFW, Heng LY, Arip MNM (2018) Surface modification of cellulose nanomaterial for urea biosensor application. *Sains Malaysiana* 47:941–949. <https://doi.org/10.17576/jsm-2018-4705-09>
 15. Rahman M, Heng LY, Futra D, Chiang CP, Rashid ZA, Ling TL (2017) A highly sensitive electrochemical DNA biosensor from acrylic-gold nano-composite for the determination of Arowana fish gender. *Nanoscale Res Lett* 12:1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s11671-017-2254-y>
 16. Nuzaihan MNM, Hashim U, Md Arshad MK et al (2016) Electrical detection of dengue virus (DENV) DNA oligomer using silicon nanowire biosensor with novel molecular gate control. *Biosens Bioelectron* 83:106–114. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bios.2016.04.033>
 17. Ten ST, Hashim U, Gopinath SCB et al (2017) Highly sensitive *Escherichia coli* shear horizontal surface acoustic wave biosensor with silicon dioxide nanostructures. *Biosens Bioelectron* 93:146–154. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bios.2016.09.035>
 18. Adzhri R, Md Arshad MK, Gopinath SCB et al (2017) Enhanced sensitivity mediated ambipolar conduction with p-type TiO₂ anatase transducer for biomarker capturing. *Sensors Actuators A Phys* 259:57–67. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SNA.2017.03.015>
 19. Rajapaksha A, Hashim U, Uda M et al (2017) Target ssDNA detection of *E. coli* O157:H7 through electrical based DNA biosensor. *Microsyst Technol* 23:5771–5780. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00542-017-3498-2>
 20. Fathil MFM, Md Arshad MK, Ruslinda AR et al (2017) Substrate-gate coupling in ZnO-FET biosensor for cardiac troponin I detection. *Sensors Actuators B Chem* 242:1142–1154. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SNB.2016.09.131>
 21. Azizah N, Hashim U, Gopinath SCB, Nadzirah S (2016) Gold nanoparticle mediated method for spatially resolved deposition of DNA on nano-gapped interdigitated electrodes, and its application to the detection of the human papillomavirus. *Microchim Acta* 183: 3119–3126. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00604-016-1954-9>
 22. Lakshmi Priya T, Fujimaki M, Gopinath SCB, Awazu K, Horiguchi Y, Nagasaki Y (2013) A high-performance waveguide-mode biosensor for detection of factor IX using PEG-based blocking agents to suppress non-specific binding and improve sensitivity. *Analyst* 138:2863–2870. <https://doi.org/10.1039/C3AN00298E>
 23. Gopinath SCB, Hayashi K, Lee J-B et al (2013) Analysis of compounds that interfere with herpes simplex virus–host receptor interactions using surface plasmon resonance. *Anal Chem* 85:10455–10462. <https://doi.org/10.1021/ac4025522>
 24. Gopinath SCB, Hayashi K, Kumar PKR (2012) Aptamer that binds to the gD protein of herpes simplex virus 1 and efficiently inhibits viral entry. *J Virol* 86:6732–6744. <https://doi.org/10.1128/JVI.00377-12>
 25. Perumal V, Hashim U, Gopinath SCB, Haarindraprasad R, Poopalan P, Liu WW, Ravichandran M, Balakrishnan SR, Ruslinda AR (2016) A new nano-worm structure from gold-nanoparticle mediated random curving of zinc oxide nanorods. *Biosens Bioelectron* 78:14–22. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bios.2015.10.083>
 26. Siyar N, Dee CF, Mohamed MA, et al. (2016) Electrical characterization of reduced graphene oxide deposited on interdigitated electrodes. In: IEEE international conference on semiconductor electronics, Proceedings, ICSE. pp 332–335
 27. Nadzirah S, Hashim U (2017) Interdigitated microelectrode geometry for simple electrical *Escherichia coli* O157:H7 DNA detection. *Microelectron Int* 34. <https://doi.org/10.1108/MI-08-2016-0054>
 28. Nadzirah S, Foo KL, Hashim U (2015) Morphological reaction on the different stabilizers of titanium dioxide nanoparticles. *Int J Electrochem Sci* 10
 29. Nadzirah S, Hashim U, Kashif M, Shamsuddin SA (2016) Stable electrical, morphological and optical properties of titanium dioxide nanoparticles affected by annealing temperature. *Microsyst Technol* 34:1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00542-016-2913-4>
 30. Khalid NS, Mohd Fazli FI, Hamed NKA et al (2016) Biocompatibility of TiO₂ nanorods and nanoparticles on HeLa cells. *Sains Malaysiana* 45:1675–1678
 31. Rahim S, Sasani Ghamsari M, Radiman S (2012) Surface modification of titanium oxide nanocrystals with PEG. *Sci Iran* 19:948–953. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SCI.2012.03.009>
 32. Bai J, Zhou B (2014) Titanium dioxide nanomaterials for sensor applications. *Chem Rev* 114:10131–10176. <https://doi.org/10.1021/cr400625j>
 33. Li Z, Yao ZJ, Haidry AA et al (2018) Resistive-type hydrogen gas sensor based on TiO₂: a review. *Int J Hydrog Energy* 43:21114–21132. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhydene.2018.09.051>
 34. Li Z, Haidry AA, Gao B et al (2017) The effect of Co-doping on the humidity sensing properties of ordered mesoporous TiO₂. *Appl Surf Sci* 412:638–647. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.APSUSC.2017.03.156>
 35. Kwon H, Lee Y, Hwang S, Kim JK (2017) Highly-sensitive H₂ sensor operating at room temperature using Pt/TiO₂ nanoscale Schottky contacts. *Sensors Actuators B Chem* 241:985–992. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SNB.2016.11.022>

36. Solanki PR, Kaushik A, Agrawal VV, Malhotra BD (2011) Nanostructured metal oxide-based biosensors. *NPG Asia Mater* 3: 17–24
37. Sykes JE, Sykes JE, Weese JS (2014) Infection control programs for dogs and cats. *Canine Feline Infect Dis*:105–118. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-1-4377-0795-3.00011-9>
38. Rutala WA, Weber DJ (2015) Disinfection, sterilization, and control of hospital waste. *Mand Douglas, Bennett's Princ Pract Infect Dis* 3294-3309.e4. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-1-4557-4801-3.00301-5>
39. Nadzirah S, Azizah N, Hashim U, et al (2015) Titanium dioxide nanoparticle-based interdigitated electrodes: a novel current to voltage DNA biosensor recognizes *E. coli* O157:H7. *PLoS one* 10. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0139766>
40. Petralia S, Cosentino T, Sinatra F et al (2017) Silicon nitride surfaces as active substrate for electrical DNA biosensors. *Sensors Actuators B Chem* 252:492–502. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.snb.2017.06.023>
41. Ozkan-Ariksoysal D, Kayran YU, Yilmaz FF, Ciucu AA, David IG, David V, Hosgor-Limoncu M, Ozsoz M (2017) DNA-wrapped multi-walled carbon nanotube modified electrochemical biosensor for the detection of *Escherichia coli* from real samples. *Talanta* 166: 27–35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.talanta.2017.01.005>

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.