



Selection of a metal ligand modified DNzyme for detecting Ni²⁺

Wei Ren^{a,b}, Po-Jung Jimmy Huang^b, Donatien de Rochambeau^c, Woohyun J. Moon^b, Jinyi Zhang^b, Mingsheng Lyu^{a,d}, Shujun Wang^{a,d}, Hanadi Sleiman^c, Juewen Liu^{b,*}

^a Jiangsu Key Laboratory of Marine Bioresources and Environment, Jiangsu Ocean University, Lianyungang, 222005, China

^b Department of Chemistry, University of Waterloo, Waterloo, Ontario, N2L 3G1, Canada

^c Department of Chemistry, McGill University, 801 Sherbrooke Street West, Montréal, Québec, H3A 0B8, Canada

^d Co-Innovation Center of Jiangsu Marine Bio-industry Technology, Jiangsu Ocean University, Lianyungang, Jiangsu, 222005, China

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ABSTRACT

Nickel is a highly important metal, and the detection of Ni²⁺ using biosensors is a long-stand analytical challenge. DNA has been widely used for metal detection, although no DNA-based sensors were reported for Ni²⁺. DNzymes are DNA-based catalysts, and they recruit metal ions for catalysis. In this work, in vitro selection of RNA-cleaving DNzymes was carried out using a library containing a region of 50 random nucleotides in the presence of Ni²⁺. To increase Ni²⁺ binding, a glycyl-histidine-functionalized tertiary amine moiety was inserted at the cleavage junction. A representative DNzyme named Ni03 showed a high cleavage yield with Ni²⁺ and it was further studied. After truncation, the optimal sequence of Ni03l could bind one Ni²⁺ or two Co²⁺ for catalysis, while other metal ions were inactive. Its cleavage rates for 100 μM Ni²⁺ reached 0.63 h⁻¹ at pH 8.0. A catalytic beacon biosensor was designed by labeling a fluorophore and a quencher on the Ni03l DNzyme. Fluorescence enhancement was observed in the presence of Ni²⁺ with a detection limit of 12.9 μM. The sensor was also tested in spiked Lake Ontario water achieving a similar sensitivity. This is another example of using single-site modified DNzyme for sensing transition metal ions.

1. Introduction

Nickel is a highly important metal widely used in alloys, coating, catalysis, and plating (Dubal et al., 2015). The high consumption of nickel-containing products inevitably leads to environmental pollution. Exposure to nickel can result in a variety of adverse health effects such as skin allergies, lung fibrosis, damages to kidney and cardiovascular system, and cancer (Denkhaus and Salnikow, 2002). Therefore, detection of Ni²⁺ is an important analytical task. Ni²⁺ can be detected using analytical instruments such as inductively-coupled plasma atomic emission or mass spectrometry. A complementary method is to develop sensors and biosensors for portable, on-site and real-time detection.

Rational design of Ni²⁺ chelators has been reported. For example, Alizadeh and coworkers synthesized 1-p-tolyl-3-(3-(trifluoromethyl)phenyl)triaz-1-ene 1-oxide, but it also reacted with Pb²⁺, Co²⁺ and Zn²⁺ (Alizadeh et al., 2014). Li and coworkers reported a colorimetric assay of Ni²⁺ using a glutathione-stabilized silver nanoparticles with a detection limit of 75 μM Ni²⁺, but it was interfered by Co²⁺ and Cd²⁺ (Li et al., 2009). A circular dichroism based sensor was also reported using

L-cysteine-functionalized quantum dots, but it responded to both Ni²⁺ and Co²⁺ (Tedsana et al., 2015). Aside from the specificity problem, most of these sensors required a fraction of organic solvents or immobilization to achieve high sensitivity.

DNA has been shown to be an excellent ligand for metal sensing (Zhang et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2017). DNA is highly stable, cost-effective to synthesize, and easy to modify compared to antibodies (Kahn et al., 2017; McConnell et al., 2020a; Qing et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020). In particular, for metal ion detection, DNA has unique advantages. While DNA has been shown to detect a large number of metal ions with excellent sensitivity and selectivity, detection of Ni²⁺ remains a major challenge in the field. We cannot find DNA aptamers in the literature for binding Ni²⁺, although a few in vitro selected and natural RNA aptamers exist were reported (Furukawa et al., 2015; Hofmann et al., 1997). However, DNA is preferred since RNA is unstable and too expensive for practical applications outside cells. Relying solely on binding, aptamers may suffer from non-specific metal binding since DNA is highly negatively charged (He et al., 2018; Hwang et al., 2016; Sigel and Sigel, 2010).

* Corresponding author.

E-mail address: liujw@uwaterloo.ca (J. Liu).

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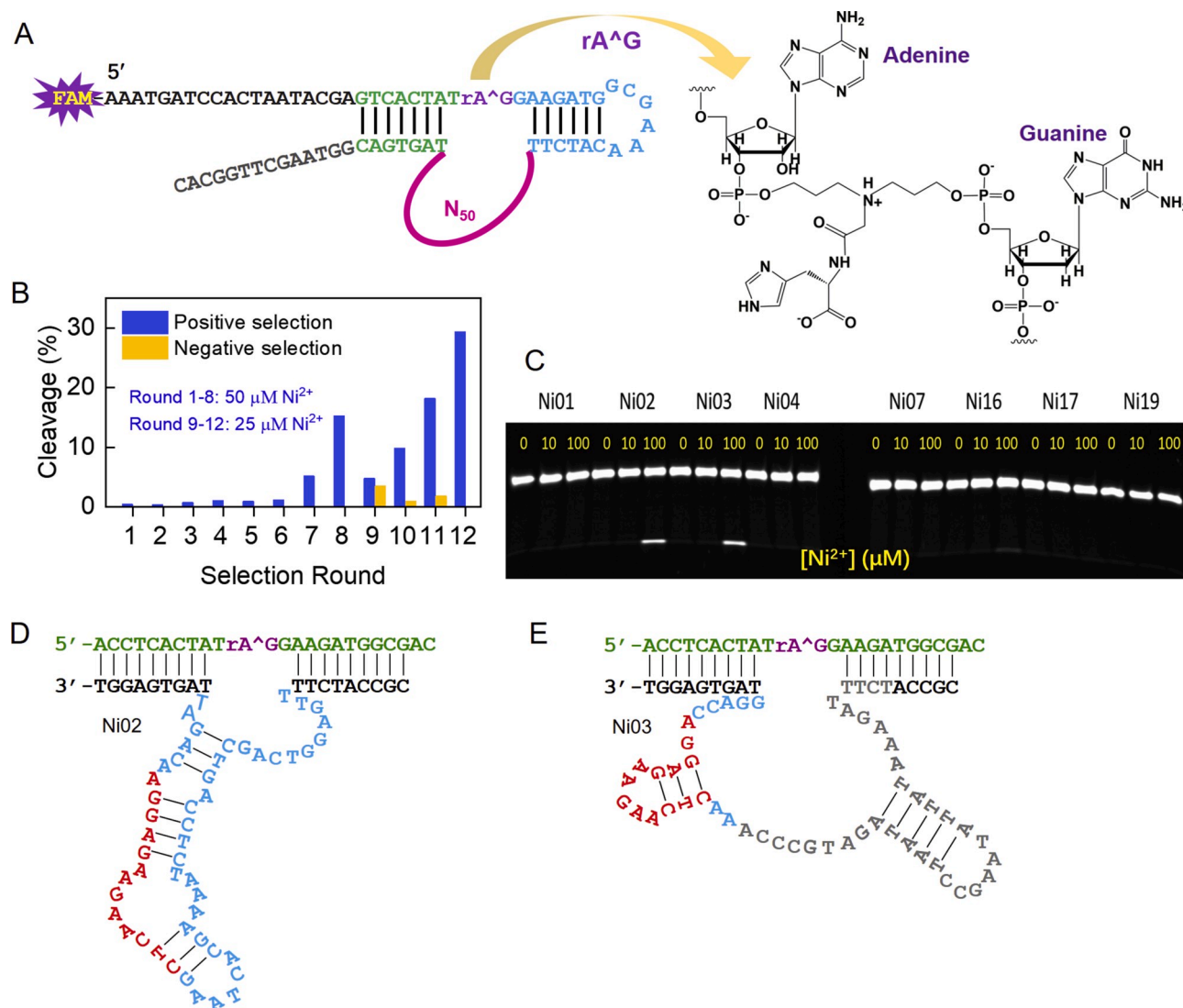


Fig. 1. (A) The library sequence before the cleavage step and the structure of the modified rA^G cleavage junction. (B) The progress of the selection. At each round, samples were incubated with Ni^{2+} for 1 h in 25 mM NaCl, 50 mM MOPS, pH 7.5 for the positive selections. From round 9 to 11, negative selections were also carried out in the same buffer but without Ni^{2+} . (C) A gel-based assay of the eight sequences tested. Each sample was incubated with 0, 10 or 100 μM of Ni^{2+} in 25 mM NaCl 50 mM MOPS, pH 7.5 for 1 h. The lanes with a lower band contained active DNazymes. The secondary structure of the trans-cleaving (D) Ni02 and (E) Ni03 DNazymes, and the conserved nucleotides are marked in red. The gray part in (E) was later truncated. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

DNAzymes are DNA-based catalysts and most DNAzymes require metal ions for activity (Hwang et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017; Ma and Liu, 2020; Silverman, 2016). Efforts have been made to obtain DNAzymes that can work in the presence of specific metal ions for metal sensing. Since 1994, various DNAzymes have been obtained to detect Pb^{2+} (Breaker and Joyce, 1994; Peng et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2020), Zn^{2+} (Gu et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2020; Li et al., 2000; Santoro et al., 2000), UO_2^{2+} (Liu et al., 2007), Hg^{2+} (Hollenstein et al., 2008), Cd^{2+} (Huang and Liu, 2015), Na^+ (Torabi et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2015, 2016), trivalent lanthanides (Huang et al., 2016), and other metals (Liu et al., 2003; Torabi et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2017). DNAzymes exhibit high catalytic activities that allow signal amplification and robust rate-based measurement, enabling high sensitivity (Gong et al., 2015; Lake et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2011). Enzymatic reactions may also avoid the non-specific metal binding problem of aptamers (He et al., 2018).

Selection of Ni^{2+} -specific DNAzymes has not yet been carried out, although Ni^{2+} was mixed with other metal ions to form a soup for selection (Liu et al., 2003). Ni^{2+} can activate the 17E DNAzyme, although the activity is very low compared to other divalent transition metals

such as Zn^{2+} and Co^{2+} (Li et al., 2000). Given the low but still measurable activity with 17E, the likelihood of re-selecting the 17E or the related 8–17 DNAzyme is high if we directly use Ni^{2+} on a standard library (Schlosser and Li, 2010). To avoid this problem, a modified library might be used. We recently obtained a series of Zn^{2+} -specific DNAzymes by introducing a single glycyl-histidine-functionalized tertiary amine moiety at the cleavage junction (de Rochambeau et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2020). Such a single modification at the fixed region is advantageous for selection and application, since the standard PCR process can be used and the cost of synthesis is relatively low (Huang and Liu, 2015, 2016; McConnell et al., 2020b; Morrison et al., 2018). Since this nitrogen-rich ligand may also have a high affinity for Ni^{2+} , we herein performed a new selection using this modified library for Ni^{2+} and developed a biosensor using the resulting DNAzyme.

2. Materials and methods

Chemical. The DNA sequences for in vitro selection were purchased from Integrated DNA Technologies (Coralville, IA, USA). The

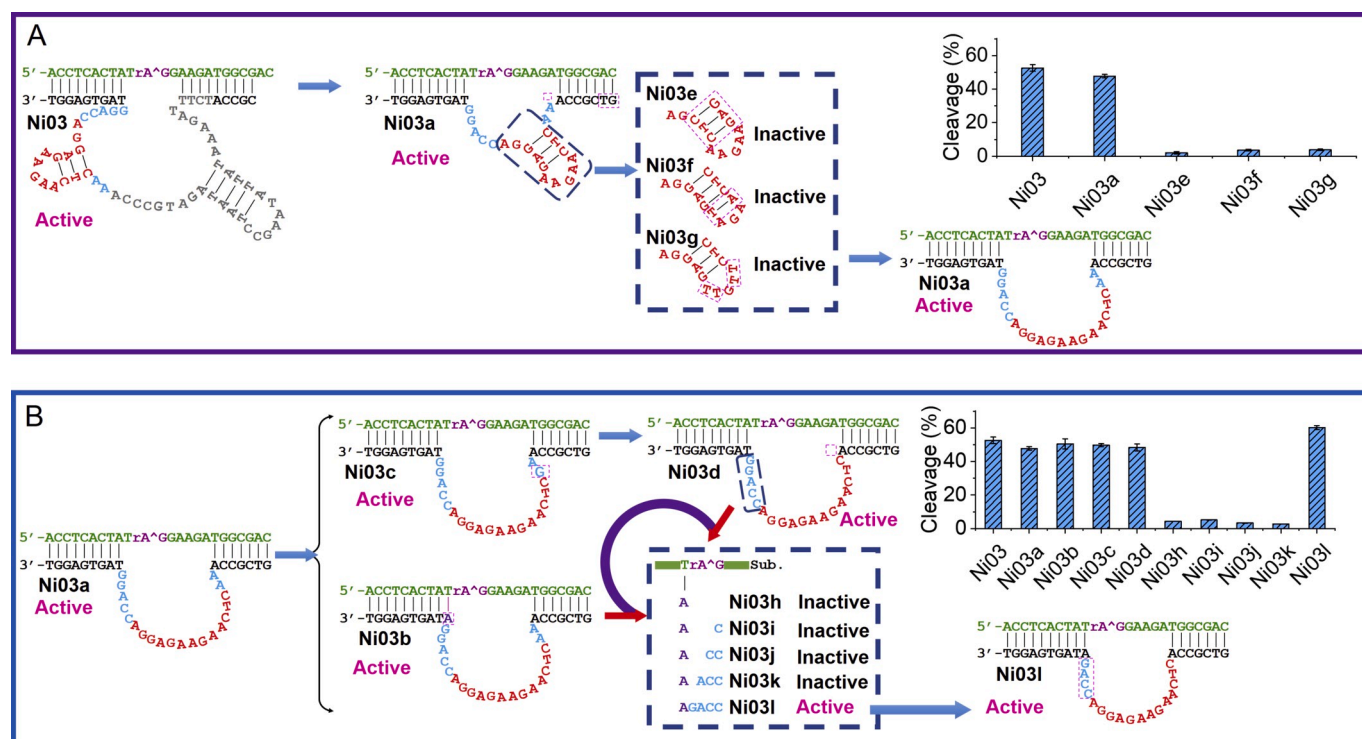


Fig. 2. Truncation and mutation of the NiO3 DNAzyme. (A) Truncation of the gray part and the test of the hairpin structure in red. The cleavage activity of each mutant is summarized in the bar plot. (B) Starting from the NiO3a mutant for further truncation of the DNAzyme. The activity of the mutants is summarized in the bar plot. The reactions were performed in 50 mM MOPS, pH 8.0 for 2 h with 100 μM Ni^{2+} . The mutated regions based on the previous mutant are shown in the pink boxes. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

oligonucleotides containing the modified cleavage junction were synthesized and characterized as described previously (Huang et al., 2020). The other DNA samples used in this work were from Eurofins (Huntsville, AL, USA). All the metal salts, Tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane (Tris), 3-(N-morpholino)propanesulfonic acid (MOPS), and 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid (HEPES) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and Mandel Scientific (Guelph, ON, Canada). Milli-Q water was used to prepare all buffers and solutions.

In vitro section. The method of in vitro selection has been described by our group with some modification (Huang et al. 2014, 2020). For each selection round, modified DNA library was dissolved in buffer B (25 mM NaCl, 50 mM MOPS, pH 7.5). After incubating with Ni^{2+} (25 μM –50 μM in different rounds, see Table S2) at room temperature, the reaction was quenched with 8 M urea and the cleaved product was purified and extracted. The selected DNA was re-suspended in 60 μL HEPES buffer (5 mM, pH 7.5) before two PCR steps were used to obtain the library for subsequent round of selection. For negative selections, the library was incubated with the same buffer but without Ni^{2+} , and the noncleaved sequences were harvested for the next positive selection with Ni^{2+} .

Enzyme assays. Gel-based assays were performed with the carboxyfluorescein (FAM)-labeled glycyl-histidine modified substrate (5 μM) and an enzyme (7.5 μM) in buffer B. The samples were annealed at 95 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 1 min followed by slow cooling to 4 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 30 min. The annealed DNAzyme was then diluted 5-fold in buffer (total 5 μL), and then 2 μL Ni^{2+} (or other metals) was added to initiate the cleavage reaction. At designated time points, the reaction was quenched by adding the gel loading buffer (7 μL , 5 mM EDTA, 8 M urea). The products were then separated by 15% denaturing polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (dPAGE) at 200 V for 80 min and analyzed using a Bio-Rad ChemiDoc MP imaging system. All assays were run at least in duplicate and the data obtained were fitted according to the first-order rate equation $Y_t = Y_0 + a(1 - e^{-kt})$, where Y_t and Y_0 are the cleavage fraction at a given reaction

time t and 0 min, respectively; a is the fitting coefficients; and k is the observed rate constant. When the cleavage fraction was less than 20% after 13 h, the rate constant was estimated as $k = \text{cleavage fraction}/t$.

Sensing. The stock sensor was prepared by annealing the FAM-labeled substrate (5 μM) and the quencher-labeled enzyme (15 μM) in 50 mM HEPES with 100 mM NaCl, pH 7.5 at 95 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 1 min followed by slow cooling to 4 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. The sample was then stored in a -20°C freezer overnight. The annealed DNAzyme (1 μL , 5 μM) in 50 mM MOPS at pH 8.0 (4 μL) was mixed with a final concentration of 10–100 μM Ni^{2+} or other metal ions (2 μL) to initiate the cleavage reaction for 2 h. The products were diluted to 100 μL with 100 mM NaCl, 1.5 mM HEPES, pH 7.5. This solution was then diluted to 200 μL with Milli-Q water. The samples were excited at 485 nm, and fluorescence emission from 500 nm to 650 nm was collected using a FluoroMax-4 spectrofluorometer (Horiba Jobin Yvon). The sensor response in Lake Ontario water was prepared by mixing the Lake Ontario water with buffer at 1:1 ratio, and the other operations were the same.

3. Results and discussion

In Vitro Selection of a Ni^{2+} -specific DNAzyme. To isolate a Ni^{2+} -specific DNAzyme, in vitro selection was carried out with a library containing 50 random nucleotides as described previously (Huang et al., 2020), and the main difference was that Ni^{2+} was used as the metal ion (Fig. S1). The structure of the cleavage junction with a nitrogen-rich glycyl-histidine modified ligand is shown in Fig. 1A, and we named the new junction (rA^G) (de Rochambeau et al., 2018), where rA denotes for ribo-adenine. This modified linkage contained an imidazole and a carboxyl group, which may provide multiple metal binding sites. Since RNA is more susceptible to cleavage (Li and Breaker, 1999), cleavage most likely takes place at this position. After adding Ni^{2+} , a fraction of the library might be cleaved resulting in a shorter sequence, which was readily harvested by a denaturing gel electrophoresis and

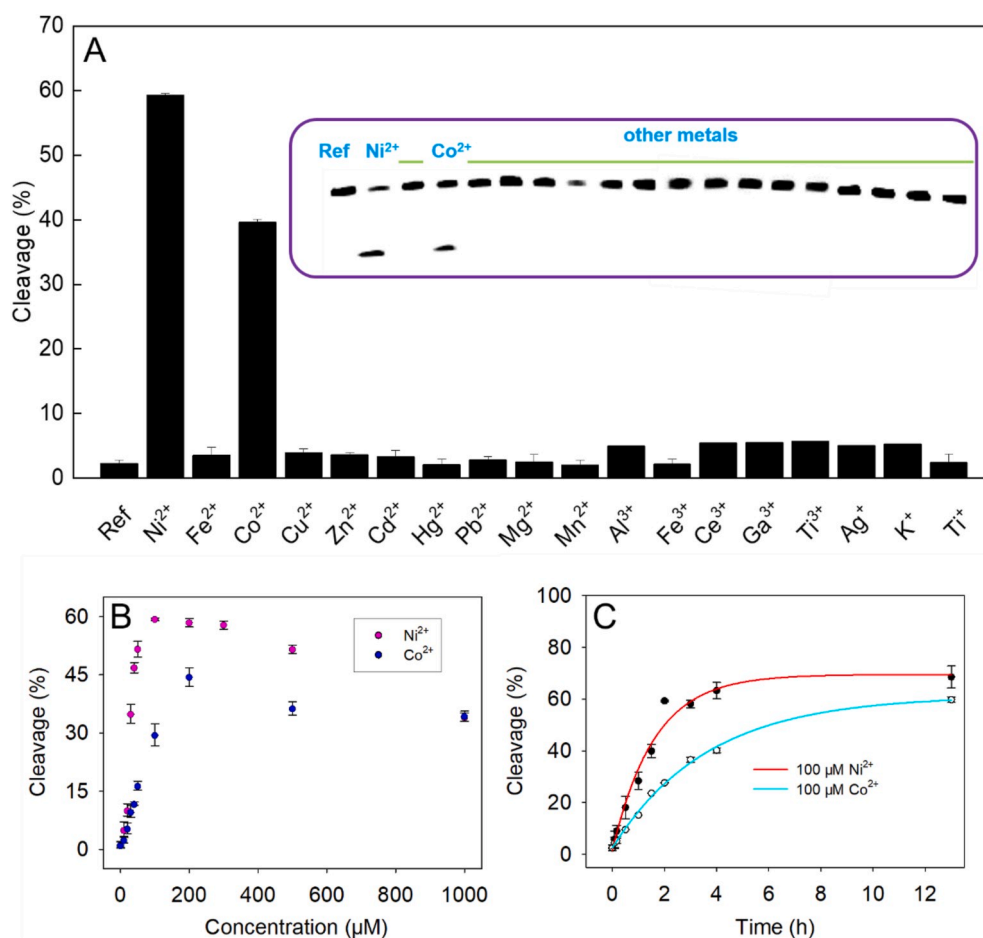


Fig. 3. (A) NiO3I reacting with 100 μM different metals after 2 h. Inset: the corresponding gel micrograph. (B) Fraction of cleavage as a function of Ni^{2+} or Co^{2+} concentration after a 2 h reaction. (C) Kinetics of NiO3I in the presence of 100 μM Ni^{2+} or Co^{2+} . All of the reactions were performed in 50 mM MOPS, pH 8.0.

amplified using two rounds of PCR to reconstruct the library for the next round of selection. To avoid nonspecific cleavage, we carried out negative selections from round 9 to 11 (Fig. 1B), where just the selection buffer was used (no Ni^{2+} added), and the remaining uncleaved population were harvested for the next positive Ni^{2+} selection. The cleavage yield increased gradually and reached 29.3% at round twelve (Fig. 1B and Table S2), when we stopped the reaction and sequenced the library.

We obtained a total of 28,302 well-aligned sequences. The most abundant 18 families accounted for 42.7% of them (Fig. S2). We predicted the secondary structure of each family (Zuker, 2003), and tested eight of them for activity in the trans-cleaving form using a FAM-labeled substrate (Fig. 1C). NiO2 and NiO3 showed about 20% cleavage with 100 μM Ni^{2+} after 1 h. The analyzed sequences contained a conserved motif of CTCAAGAAGAGGA. Since this sequence was predicted by Mfold to be in a stable stem region in NiO2 (Fig. 1D), we focused our attention on NiO3 (Fig. 1E). The NiO3 sequence represented 5.42% of the final sequenced library (Fig. S2).

Truncation and optimization. Since NiO3 has a large catalytic loop, we first tried to truncate it to make it a smaller DNzyme (Fig. 2A and Fig. S3). The NiO3a was obtained by deleting the entire gray region of NiO3, which greatly shortened NiO3 while still maintained a high activity with Ni^{2+} (see the bar plot in Fig. 2A).

Since a hairpin structure was predicted in the conserved region in NiO3a, we then wanted to test this structure using three mutants: NiO3e swapping the three base pairs, NiO3f extending the paired region, and NiO3g mutating the four A bases to four T bases in the loop. The purpose of these three mutants was to test if the hairpin structure was important or not. However, none of the mutants were active, arguing against a

hairpin structure. Therefore, we believe that the structure of NiO3a should be a large loop without the predicted base pairs as shown in the bottom right corner of Fig. 2A.

Based on NiO3a, we aimed to further optimize and truncate it (Fig. 2B). First, an adenine base was inserted to extend the stem by pairing it with the T in the substrate strand (NiO3b), which still maintained a high cleavage activity. At the same time, we tested the NiO3c by mutating the adenine in the right end of the enzyme loop to a guanine, which was still active. Therefore, we suspected these two adenines in blue were unimportant and we deleted them and produced NiO3d, which was indeed still active. Based on NiO3b and NiO3d, we wanted to further truncate the structure by gradually deleting the longer loop in blue (NiO3h, NiO3i, NiO3j, NiO3k, and NiO3l). Among them, only NiO3l maintained a high cleavage activity (about 60%, see the bar plot in Fig. 2B). The final optimized NiO3l structure is shown in the bottom right part of Fig. 2B. The catalytic loop has only 17 nucleotides and is rich in purine. For the NiCo riboswitches, the metal binding site is created in part by the positioning of nucleophilic groups from conserved guanine nucleotides (Furukawa et al., 2015). Small asymmetric purine-rich loops that contain a G-A interaction may represent a divalent metal ion binding site in RNA (Hofmann et al., 1997; Wrzesinski and Ciesiolka, 2005). In our DNzyme, similar interactions might also take place considering this purine rich sequence.

Characterization of the NiO3l DNzyme. Since the NiO3l appeared to be a minimal DNzyme, we then further characterized it. For Ni^{2+} sensing, metal specificity is important. We tested NiO3l in the presence of 100 μM of different metal ions (Fig. 3A). NiO3l is quite specific for Ni^{2+} (~60% cleavage), and it had almost no cleavage with other metals

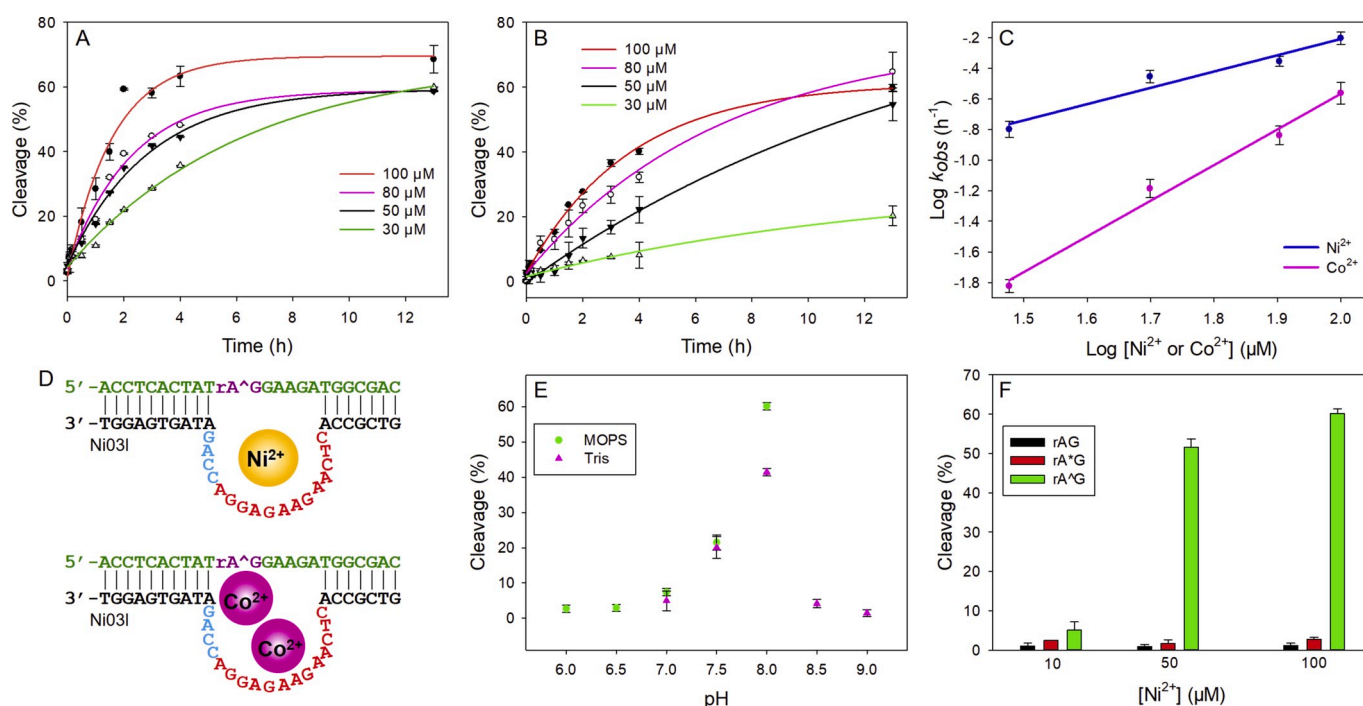


Fig. 4. Kinetics of cleavage by NiO3I with different concentrations of (A) Ni²⁺ and (B) Co²⁺. (C) Double log plots of rate constant versus [Ni²⁺] or [Co²⁺] for NiO3I. (D) Schemes showing the DNAzyme using one Ni²⁺ or two Co²⁺ ions for catalysis. (E) Cleavage yield of NiO3I with 100 μM Ni²⁺ in different pH after 2 h reaction. (F) Cleavage yield of NiO3I with 100 μM Ni²⁺ in different pH after 2 h reaction. All of the reactions were performed in 50 mM MOPS, pH 8.0 except for the pH effect.

except for Co²⁺ (~40%). We then tested various concentrations of Ni²⁺ and Co²⁺ by measuring the cleavage yield at 2 h. At each concentration, Ni²⁺ showed higher cleavage yield than Co²⁺ (Fig. 3B). The most optimal concentration was 100 μM Ni²⁺ (cleavage yield ~60%). At even higher Ni²⁺ concentrations, inhibition was observed, which might be attributable to nonspecific Ni²⁺ binding to DNA bases, inducing denaturation or misfolding of the DNAzyme. We also measured the cleavage kinetics (Fig. 3C), and the first-order cleavage rate constants were 0.63 h⁻¹ with 100 μM Ni²⁺, and 0.27 h⁻¹ with 100 μM Co²⁺.

Since this inserted metal ligand might bind multiple metal ions (Huang et al., 2020), we wanted to quantitatively measure the number of Ni²⁺ ions involved in NiO3I. We measured the cleavage rate at different Ni²⁺ and Co²⁺ concentrations. NiO3I had higher rates of cleavage at higher Ni²⁺ or Co²⁺ concentrations (Fig. 4A and B). We fitted each kinetic data and obtained the rate constants (*k*). With 100 μM Ni²⁺, we obtained a rate constant *k* of 0.63 h⁻¹. In Fig. 4C, we made a double log plot of [Ni²⁺] or [Co²⁺] versus log*k*, and its slope is *n*, the number of Ni²⁺ or Co²⁺ required for the reaction. The slope was 1.06 for Ni²⁺, and 2.33 for Co²⁺, suggesting that it used one Ni²⁺ or two Co²⁺ ions for catalysis (Fig. 4D). Therefore, the mechanism of the reaction (e.g. recruiting metal ions for interacting with the scissile phosphate in the transition state for charge neutralization) was different for these two metal ions. For the NiCo riboswitch, binding is not a simple one-to-one interaction between RNA and Co²⁺ or Ni²⁺, but rather involves the cooperative binding of more than one cation by each aptamer (Furukawa et al., 2015).

Ni²⁺ and Co²⁺ are very similar to each other, and this similarity was reflected in many nucleic acid based ligands. For example, for the aptamer in the NiCo riboswitch, the dissociation constants were determined to be of 5.6 μM for Co²⁺ and 12 μM for Ni²⁺ (Furukawa et al., 2015). An in vitro selected Ni²⁺-binding aptamer showed a similarly high affinity (*K*_d ~ 1 μM) to Ni²⁺ as to Co²⁺ (Hofmann et al., 1997). On the other hand, the *K*_d for a Co²⁺-binding aptamer (no. 18) investigated by the elution of RNA from metal ion affinity column was about 3.1 mM (Wrzesinski and Ciesiolka, 2005). The formation of a stable RNA

aptamer-biotin complex mediated by Ni²⁺ was moderately inhibited in the presence of Co²⁺ (Seetharaman et al., 2001). The cleavage of hammerhead ribozyme cleaved 12–14% in the presence of 20 μM Ni²⁺ or Co²⁺ (Markley et al., 2001). Our results also showed that even with the modified metal ligand, it is still quite difficult to tell these two metals apart.

We then studied the effect of pH (Fig. 4E). The cleavage yields were measured after 2 h, and higher pH produced higher cleavage yields up to pH 8. When the pH was further increased, the cleavage decreased. Therefore, high pH is more favorable for the reaction, which might be related to the deprotonation of the 2'-OH of the RNA base, making it a better nucleophile (Dahm et al., 1993; Saran and Liu, 2016). In addition, we found that MOPS was more suitable for the cleavage activity based on comparing the cleavage yields at pH 8, likely due to chelation of Ni²⁺ by the primary amine in Tris. At pH 8, the background cleavage in the absence of metal ions was still very low (Fig. S4).

To confirm that the importance of the modified cleavage junction, we also studied the effect of the junction base composition. The current junction is denoted by rA^{*}G as shown in Fig. 1A. When it was replaced by a normal rAG (typical phosphodiester linkage) or rA^{*}G (phosphorothioate modified), the cleavage activities of NiO3I with Ni²⁺ were fully abolished (Fig. 4F). Thus, the inserted metal ligand is critical for the cleavage activity.

A biosensor for Ni²⁺ detection. After understanding the structure and activity of the NiO3I DNAzyme, we then tested its performance as a biosensor for Ni²⁺. To design the biosensor, the 3'-end of the substrate strand was labeled with a FAM fluorophore, and the 5'-end of the enzyme was labeled with a dark quencher. This DNAzyme complex had a low fluorescence in this initial state due to the proximity of the two labels. Cleavage was expected to separate the fluorophore from the quencher to enhance fluorescence.

We incubated this sensor with various metal ions to test for selectivity. As shown in Fig. 5A and B, the fluorescence enhancement was observed mainly with Ni²⁺ and Co²⁺ as expected. It is interesting to note that the natural riboswitch can also recognize both Ni²⁺ and Co²⁺

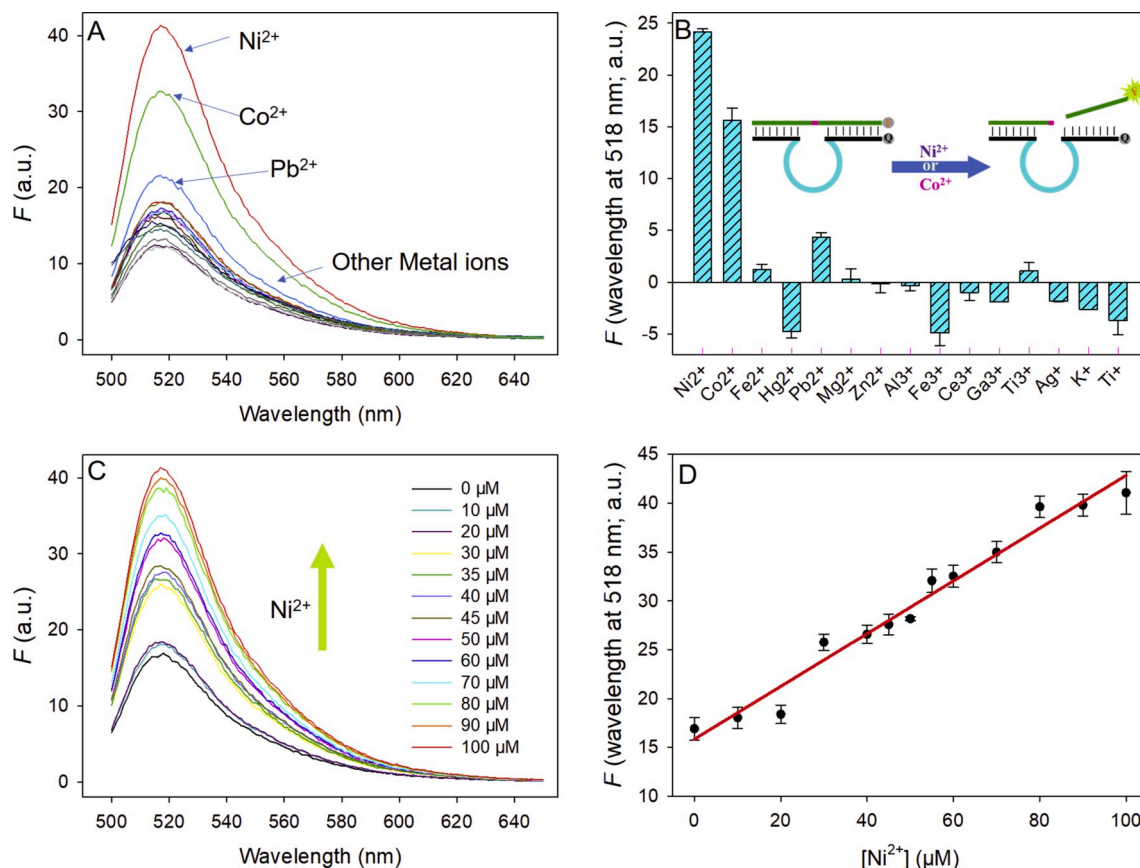


Fig. 5. (A) Sensor specificity tests with 100 μM of metal ions after 2 h incubation. (B) Fluorescence enhancement at $\lambda = 518$ nm with different metal ions. Insert: Schematic representation of the NiO3I DNAzyme beacon design. (C) Fluorescence spectra of the sensor after incubation with different concentrations of Ni^{2+} for 2 h. (D) Fluorescence enhancement with different Ni^{2+} concentrations (the reaction concentration). The error bars represent the standard deviation from three independent measurements.

(Furukawa et al., 2015). Some metals showed decreased fluorescence attributable to fluorescence quenching by them. We reason that it is possible to use another DNAzyme, such as 17E, to help distinguish Ni^{2+} and Co^{2+} . 17E has a higher activity with Co^{2+} (~7-fold higher in cleavage rate constant than Ni^{2+} at 100 μM concentration) (Li et al., 2000). We have also confirmed the much higher activity of 17E in the presence of Co^{2+} in Fig. S5. By using multiple DNAzymes, the specificity can be further improved (Huang and Liu, 2014; Liu and Lu, 2007).

In addition, Ni^{2+} concentration-dependent fluorescence enhancement was observed (Fig. 5C). The change in the fluorescence peak at $\lambda = 518$ nm is plotted against Ni^{2+} concentration (Fig. 5D). We obtained a detection limit of 12.9 μM Ni^{2+} based on a calculation of $3\sigma/\text{slope}$, which was higher than the toxic level of Ni^{2+} in drinking water (1.7 μM), and thus water samples need to be concentrated to directly use this sensor. More likely, this sensor may find applications for detecting Ni^{2+} in wastewater from mining and plating, which contain higher concentration of Ni^{2+} . For example, the samples from 57 treatment plants in Michigan showed that range in Ni was 12–800 mg/kg (about 200 μM –14 mM). Nickel is present in effluents of electroplating industries in the range of 20–200 ppm (about 340 μM –3.4 mM) (Revathi et al., 2005). The nickel wastewater from an electroplating factory in Jordan had a Ni^{2+} concentration of 12.48 mg/L (about 210 μM) (Salem and Awwad, 2014). The acceptable limit of Ni in industrial discharge wastewater is 2 mg/L (34 μM) (Sharma et al., 1991). According to the Ni data from the industries, our designed sensor based on NiO3I with a detection limit of 12.9 μM Ni^{2+} might be useful to detect Ni in these industry fields. To assess the robustness of this sensor, water from Lake Ontario was also tested (Fig. S6). A similar response was observed for the spiked water samples and Ni^{2+} still reached a limit of detection of 15.9 μM .

We have searched the literature for Ni^{2+} sensors (Table S3), and most small organic molecule based sensors were tested in organic solvents or contained a fraction of solvent. Those that measured in water were strongly interfered by many other divalent metal ions. To achieve a high sensitivity, the sensors had to be immobilized on some solid support. Our DNAzyme-based sensor was tested in water without immobilization, and it was only interfered by Co^{2+} . While previous efforts have been made to obtain aptamers and riboswitches for Ni^{2+} , they have not yet been converted to biosensors for detection. When nucleic acid based sensors are considered, our DNAzyme is the first tested as a biosensor for Ni^{2+} .

4. Conclusions

In conclusion, we reported the first nickel-specific RNA-cleaving DNAzymes, which were evolved by an in vitro selection effort using Ni^{2+} as the metal cofactor. The success of this selection was attributed to the metal binding ligand introduced at the cleavage site. The NiO3 DNAzyme was studied in detail and was truncated to obtain NiO3I, which still maintained high activity with Ni^{2+} . NiO3I shows high selectivity for Ni^{2+} and only Co^{2+} showed activity among the other tested metal ions. Interesting, NiO3I binds one Ni^{2+} ion but two Co^{2+} ions, indicating that it has different mechanisms of using these two metal ions. We have also demonstrated the use of NiO3I for selectively sensing Ni^{2+} with a detection limits of 12.9 μM Ni^{2+} . The proposed sensor was also tested in a real water sample, and the results agreed well with the analysis using the buffer. This work indicated the single metal ligand modified strategy can be a general method to obtain sensing DNAzymes, and it also represents the first nucleic acid based biosensor for Ni^{2+} .

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Wei Ren: Investigation, Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **Po-Jung Jimmy Huang:** Investigation, Methodology, Writing - review & editing. **Donatien de Rochambeau:** Writing - review & editing. **Woohyun J. Moon:** Investigation. **Jinyi Zhang:** Investigation. **Min-gsheng Lyu:** Supervision. **Shujun Wang:** Supervision. **Hanadi Sleiman:** Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing. **Juewen Liu:** Conceptualization, Writing - review & editing.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bios.2020.112285>.

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