Succinimidyl Ester Surface Chemistry: Implications of the Competition between Aminolysis and Hydrolysis on Covalent Protein Immobilization

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ABSTRACT: N-Hydroxysuccinimide (NHS) ester terminal groups are commonly used to covalently couple amine-containing biomolecules (e.g., proteins and peptides) to surfaces via amide linkages. This one-step aminolysis is often performed in buffered aqueous solutions near physiological pH (pH 6 to pH 9). Under these conditions, the hydrolysis of the ester group competes with the amidization process, potentially degrading the efficiency of the coupling chemistry. The work herein examines the efficiency of covalent protein immobilization in borate buffer (50 mM, pH 8.50) using the thiolate monolayer formed by the chemisorption of dithiobis(succinimidyl propionate) (DSP) on gold films. The structure and reactivity of these adlayers are assessed via infrared spectroscopy (IR), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), electrochemical reductive desorption, and contact angle measurements. The hydrolysis of the DSP-based monolayer is proposed to follow a reaction mechanism with an initial nucleation step, in contrast to a simple pseudo-first-order reaction rate law for the entire reaction, indicating a strong dependence of the interfacial reaction on the packing and presence of defects in the adlayer. This interpretation is used in the subsequent analysis of IR-ERS kinetic plots which give a heterogeneous aminolysis rate constant, $k_a$, that is over 3 orders of magnitude lower than that of the heterogeneous hydrolysis rate constant, $k_h$. More importantly, a projection of these heterogeneous kinetic rates to protein immobilization suggests that under coupling conditions in which low protein concentrations and buffers of near physiological pH are used, proteins are more likely physically adsorbed rather than covalently linked. This result is paramount for biosensors that use NHS chemistry for protein immobilization due to effects that may arise from noncovalently linked proteins.

INTRODUCTION

N-Hydroxysuccinimide (NHS) and other activated esters are often used as coupling agents to covalently tether antibodies, enzymes, peptides, and other biomaterials to surfaces for use in bioanalytical sensors.1–3 There are two common strategies for fabricating NHS-functionalized surfaces: (1) reaction of surface carboxylate groups with NHS and N-ethyl-N-(3-dimethylamino)propyl carbodimide (EDAC)4 and (2) direct derivatization of gold, silicon, and other surfaces with an NHS-containing coating.5 In both cases, coupling is achieved by treating the NHS-activated surface with a solution of a primary amine-containing reactant. This step (i.e., aminolysis) forms amide linkages with the sterically accessible amines of the reactant.

We have used this methodology to construct antibody-modified surfaces for the selective capture and labeling of markers in immunoassays for the detection of infectious diseases, cancer, and nutrient deficiencies.6,7 Scheme 1 summarizes our two-step procedure. Step 1 forms the active ester surface by immersion of a gold substrate in a 0.10 mM solution of 3,3′-dithiobis(succinimidyl) propionate (DSP), i.e., Lomant’s reagent, in ethanol.8 This step chemisorbs a monolayer of the gold-bound thiolate of DSP, 3-N-hydroxysuccinimidyl propanethiolate.9 Step 2 reacts the NHS-activated substrate in a buffered, protein-containing solution. We typically carry out this step in borate buffer (pH 8.50, 50 mM), which, as recently reviewed,9 is similar to the conditions commonly recommended for this reaction. This step is

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designed to immobilize proteins on the surface via an amide linkage.

Along with steric effects,10 there are two more factors to consider when using aminolysis for surface immobilization. First, the amine groups of the biological reactant act as nucleophiles, viz. deprotonated amines.11 Thus, the pH of the coupling solution controls the nucleophile concentration. Second, the coupling conditions should not alter the inherent reactivity of the biomolecule (e.g., the binding affinity of an antibody to an antigen). As such, these reactions are typically carried out in an aqueous solution at a pH and ionic strength close to those found physiologically (e.g., pH ∼6–9 and 150 mM NaCl) in order to preserve the tertiary structure of proteins.12,13 This issue is central in the immobilization of antibodies in that structural denaturation may reduce the affinity for antigen binding.10 The use of physiological reaction conditions, however, can induce the hydrolysis of the activated ester group, which would reduce the number of reactive sites for aminolytic coupling and decrease the efficiency of the linking chemistry.3,14 Thus, the coupling conditions must strike a balance between the rates of the two reactions, aminolysis and hydrolysis, both of which are affected by pH, buffer composition, reactant concentration, temperature, and other factors.1,3

There is a large body of evidence, including that from our laboratory,15 which supports the effectiveness of step 2 in Scheme 1. Much of this evidence is based on measurements of the biological or chemical activity of the immobilized species. Examples include the colorimetric16,17 and electrochemical detection18 of the activity of an immobilized enzyme or a tethered redox molecule. More so, infrared external reflection spectroscopy (IR-ERS)19 and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)20 have been used in efforts to detect the formation of an amide linkage after protein immobilization. However, while supporting the presence of a protein layer, a clear interpretation of these measurements is compromised by the difficulty in identifying the presence of the aminolytically formed amide linkage vis-à-vis the large number of amide groups inherent in the protein itself.21 As a consequence, studies have used monoamines (e.g., lysine22 and butylamine23) as reactive mimics to simplify the spectroscopic analysis and, by inference, assess the effectiveness of the aminolysis reaction when using proteins. Nonetheless, the extension of these results to an exacting determination of protein tethering is subject to the inability to rule out the presence of proteins due to nonspecific adsorption.24

This paper reports on the results of an investigation of the effectiveness of step 2 in Scheme 1 by an examination of the competitive rates of interfacial aminolysis and base hydrolysis reactions of the DSP-based monolayer on gold substrates. The heterogeneous base hydrolysis reaction rate was examined using borate buffer (pH 8.50, 50 mM). The rate of aminolysis measured in the same buffer system used ethylamine as a mimic with respect to protein immobilization. These findings are presented and discussed after we describe the results of characterization of the DSP-based monolayer on gold by IR-ERS, XPS, electrochemical techniques, and contact angle measurements. Ultimately, these data are used to estimate the effectiveness of the aminolytic coupling reaction in Scheme 1 as it applies to immobilizing proteins on a biosensor surface.

**EXPERIMENTAL SECTION**

**Reagents.** Dithiobis (succinimidyl propionate) (DSP, >95%), ethylamine hydrochloride, 1,4-dioxane, and borate buffer (50 mM, pH 8.50) were obtained from Fisher Scientific; 200 proof ethanol from AAPER Pharma; potassium bromide (KBr, 99+%, IR grade) and tetramethylammonium chloride (TMAC; >98%) from Acros Organics; N-(benzoyloxy) succinimide (NBS) and gold shot (99.995%) from Alfa Aesar; and 1-octadecane-d_{37}-thiol from C/D/N Isotopes. 1,4-Dioxane was dried over molecular sieves (EMD) prior to use. All other chemicals were used as received. Aqueous solutions were prepared

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**Scheme 1. Method for Covalent Coupling of Capture Antibody Layer in Immunoassay Using an NHS Terminated Monolayer and Primary Amines in Antibodies**

Step 1 forms the NHS-terminated monolayer on gold by chemisorption of DSP. Step 2 reacts the NHS-terminated monolayer on gold with an antibody in aqueous buffer (aminolysis); the competing reaction with hydroxide ions (hydrolysis) is shown in parallel.
using water purified by passage through a Barnstead water polishing system to obtain water at a resistivity of 18.2 Ω·m.

**Monolayer Preparation.** Substrates used to prepare the DSP-based monolayers were formed on glass slides (25 × 75 mm). The glass slides were first cleaned by immersion in piranha etch [3:1 H₂SO₄:H₂O₂ (30%) for 10 min, followed by rinsing with copious amounts of high purity water, and subsequently drying under a stream of nitrogen. Caution: Piranha etch reacts violently with most organic materials and must be used and handled with extreme care. The glass slides were then coated by the vapor deposition of a 20 nm chromium adhesion layer and a 200 nm gold film. The gold substrates were then immersed in a 0.10 mM ethanolic solution of DSP. After 16 h, the slides were rinsed with high purity ethanol and dried under a stream of nitrogen.

**Infrared Spectroscopy (IRS).** IR spectra were obtained using a Nicolet Magna 850 Fourier transform infrared spectrometer equipped with a liquid-nitrogen-cooled mercury cadmium telluride detector. Spectra were collected in a nitrogen atmosphere by coadding 512 scans at a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹. Transmission spectra for powdered samples were taken after dispersion in high purity KBr pellets. External reflection spectra (IR-ERS) used p-polarized light incident at 82° from the surface normal and are reported as −log R/R₀, where R is the spectrum of the sample and R₀ is that of an octadecanethiolate-terminated reference monolayer on gold.

**X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS).** XPS measurements used a Kratos Axis Ultra DLD XPS with a monochromatic Al Kα X-ray source at an incidence angle of 60°. Spectra were obtained with a 700 × 300 μm hybrid slot size, 12 mA emission current, and 15 kV anode potential; the instrument pressure ranged from 10⁻⁹ to 10⁻¹⁰ Torr. Survey scans were collected at a 160 eV pass energy and 1 eV step size. High resolution scans were used a 40 eV pass energy and 0.1 eV step size, with a dwell time of 300 ms in the C(1s) and O(1s) spectral regions. All binding energies are reported with respect to the Au(4f₇/₂) emission band at 840.0 eV.²⁵ Band shapes were modeled using Gaussian-Lorentzian profiles and a linear or Shirley background subtraction.²⁶ For spectral deconvolution, fits in O(1s), C(1s), and N(1s) regions were constrained only for band shape; the fits were set to find the minimum number of bands that gave an overall residual of less than 3%. The S(2p) bands were constrained to full widths at half-maximum of 0.9 to 1.3 eV, an integrated S(2p₁/₂) band intensity twice that of the S(2p₃/₂) band, and separation between the two bands of 1.2 eV.²⁷

**Electrochemistry.** Electrochemical measurements used a three-electrode cell with the gold substrates as the working electrode, platinumized platinum foil as the auxiliary electrode, and Ag/AgCl (sat’d KCl) as the reference electrode; all potentials are reported against this electrode. The geometric area of the working electrode was 0.65 cm² at 0.220 nm. Kinetic measurements recorded the solution absorbance at 260 nm with an integration time of 0.10 s and a spectral bandwidth of 0.10 nm at 0.10 s intervals; the first data point was collected ~10 s after solution mixing.

**Contact Angle Measurements.** Contact angles were measured with a Dataphysics OCA15EC instrument at room temperature. Deionized water was used as the probe liquid. The advancing, θₐ, and receding, θₑ, contact angles were measured by increasing or decreasing the volume of the droplet, respectively.

**Adlayer surface concentration by XPS.** The surface concentration for sulfur was determined using a previously documented procedure.³⁰,³¹ Briefly, the system was modeled as a uniform film with a thickness (τ) determined from signal attenuation. For film thickness calculations, the signal from the Au(4f) bands of an unmodified gold substrate was used as the reference response (I₀), with the intensity of the signal gold sample (I) given by

\[
I_\text{Au} = I_0 \exp \left(-\frac{\tau}{\tau_\text{Au}}\right)
\]

where \(I_\text{Au}\) is the effective attenuation length, was determined using the NIST Standard Reference Database 82 software.³²

With the calculated film thickness, the elemental concentration of sulfur, \(N_S\), was found from

\[
N_S = N_{\text{Au}} \frac{I_\text{Au}}{I_0} \frac{\sigma_\text{Au-S}}{\sigma_\text{S}} \left(1 - \exp \left(-\frac{\tau}{\tau_\text{Au}}\right) \right)
\]

In eq 2, \(N_{\text{Au}}\) is the atomic density of gold (19.28 g/cm³), \(\tau_\text{Au}\) and \(\tau\) are the respective analyzer transmission functions, \(\sigma_\text{Au-S}\) and \(\sigma_\text{S}\) are the respective photoelectric cross sections, and \(L_\text{Q,S}\) are the appropriate effective attenuation lengths. The value of \(N_S\) is then used to calculate the surface concentration (Γ) as

\[
\Gamma = N_S \tau
\]

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

This paper presents findings from an investigation of the reactivity (base hydrolysis and aminolysis) of the NHS-terminated monolayer formed by the spontaneous adsorption of DSP on gold. It describes results from (1) characterizations of the as-formed monolayer by IR-ERS, XPS, electrochemistry, and contact angle measurements to establish the architecture of the adlayer and (2) IR-ERS reaction rate studies of the adlayer in borate buffer (pH 8.50) with and without ethylamine to serve as a basis for a comparison of the respective rates of the base hydrolysis and aminolysis of the terminal NHS group of the adlayer. The reaction rate data, which include measurements of the homogeneous base hydrolysis of the adsorbate precursor (DSP) in aqueous base, are then examined within the context of establishing the effectiveness of this pathway to protein tethering.

**Characterization of As-Formed Adlayer.** The composition and surface concentration of the as-prepared adlayer were characterized via IR-ERS, XPS, and electrochemistry. IR spectra of DSP and NHS dispersed as a powder in a KBr pellet and of the as-formed DSP-based monolayer on gold are shown in Figure 1 between 2000 and 1000 cm⁻¹. Band assignments are listed in Table 1. The spectral features most characteristic of NHS are the symmetric carbonyl stretch (νₛ(C=O)) at 1780 cm⁻¹ and the broader, much stronger envelope of asymmetric carbonyl stretches (νₐ(C=O)) between ~1750 and 1675 cm⁻¹; this envelope reflects contributions from hydrogen bonding and other electronic interactions in the solid phase.²²,²³ Bands at lower energy (e.g., the asymmetric C–N=C stretch (νₛ(C−N=C)) at 1219 cm⁻¹ and the C=O stretch (νₛ(C=O)) at 1078 cm⁻¹) are additional succinimidyld group identifiers.²² All of the above bands are present in the spectra for DSP in KBr and the resulting adlayer. Importantly,
the highest energy feature in these two spectra, which is assigned to the carbonyl stretch ($\nu(C=O)$) of the ester linkage between NHS and the alkyl chain of DSP, is expectedly absent in the spectrum for NHS. There are also barely detectable features at much higher energy that correspond to the asymmetric ($\nu(\text{CH}_2)$) and symmetric ($\delta(\text{CH}_2)$) stretches of the methylene groups in the alkyl chain at 2922 and 2852 cm$^{-1}$, respectively (data not shown). There is little evidence (i.e., clear differences between the widths of the two KBr spectra with respect to that for the DSP-based adlayer) of interactions between neighboring NHS groups in the adlayer. These results confirm the presence of the DSP-based adlayer on gold.

The XPS results (spectra a in Figure 2 and Table 2) provide further evidence for the presence of the DSP-derived adlayer. In the O(1s) binding energy region, the two observable bands can be assigned to the C═O (532.1 eV) and C–O (534.4 eV) groups of the NHS terminus. The two bands present in the C(1s) binding energy region at 284.8 and 288.7 eV are assigned to the methylene and carbonyl carbons, respectively. The asymmetry in the methylene band is ascribed to the methylene carbon adjacent to the carbonyl carbon. In the S(2p) binding region, there are two bands for the S(2p) couplet: S(2p$_{3/2}$) at 161.9 eV and S(2p$_{1/2}$) at 163.1 eV. The positions of the two bands in the S(2p) couplet confirm the presence of the gold-bound thiolate formed in the chemisorption of thiols and disulfides on gold. Finally, the N(1s) binding energy region has a single band at 401.6 eV, which is diagnostic of the NHS nitrogen. The remaining spectra in Figure 2 are discussed in the next section.

The surface concentration, $\Gamma_{\text{NHS,XPS}}$, of the DSP-based monolayer was calculated by using the spectral intensities from the XPS S(2p) region and the procedures accompanying eqs 1-3. This analysis gives a value for $\Gamma_{\text{NHS,XPS}}$ of $6.44 \pm 0.97 \times 10^{-10}$ mol/cm$^2$ ($n = 5$). For comparison, an electrochemical determination of $\Gamma_{\text{NHS,XPS}}$ of $5.16 \pm 0.40 \times 10^{-10}$ mol/cm$^2$ was carried out by measuring the charge required for the one-electron reductive desorption of the adlayer in 0.50 M KOH (aq). A representative linear sweep voltammogram at 0.100 V/s from these measurements is shown in Figure 3. Two large cathodic waves are evident, a sharper feature with a peak current maximum at −0.82 V and a broader feature at −1.05 V. The presence of multiple waves is consistent with differences in the sorptive strength of the thiolate to different crystallographic binding sites on a polycrystalline gold surface. Using a linear baseline approximation to estimate the contribution of the double layer charging current, integration of the area under the current-potential curves for 7 different samples yields an average desorption charge of $69.7 \pm 5.4 \mu$C/cm$^2$. After accounting for a roughness factor of 1.40$^{28,29}$, this translates to a surface area normalized charge of $49.8 \pm 3.9 \mu$C/cm$^2$ or a $\Gamma_{\text{NHS,XPS}}$ of $5.86 \pm 0.88 \times 10^{-10}$ mol/cm$^2$. These two values differ by less than 15% from those reported by other laboratories.$^5,18$ Furthermore, both values are lower than that expected for the $\Gamma_{\text{NHS,XPS}}$ of $5.16 \pm 0.40 \times 10^{-10}$ mol/cm$^2$ of a R30° adlayer formed by n-alkanethiols on Au(111), which reflects the difference in the packing density of the bulky NHS terminal group.$^{42,43}$

**Compositional Analysis of Reacted Adlayers.** XPS was used to confirm the identity of the surface-bound reaction products for hydrolysis and aminolysis (spectra b and c in Figure 2 and Table 2). Immersion of the adlayer for ~16 h in either borate buffer (pH 8.50, 50 mM) or 500 mM ethylamine in the same borate buffer resulted in the following differences in the adlayer. First, the bands associated with the NHS ester (534.4 eV in the O(1s) and 401.6 eV in the N(1s) spectral regions) are no longer detectable after either treatment, indicative of removal of the NHS group. Second, the presence of the aminolysis reaction product is indicated by the appearance of the N(1s) band at 399.5 eV, which is diagnostic of an amide nitrogen.$^{20,34,37}$ The two bands in the C(1s) binding energy region, representative of methylene and carbonyl carbons, are still present after each of the treatments, but their relative intensities have changed in accordance with the expected reaction products. Lastly, the strength of the S(2p) binding region, representative of the gold-bound adlayer under the reaction conditions used herein. These results verify the presence of the expected surface reaction products and are supported by the IR-ERS data in the next section.

**Adlayer Base Hydrolysis.** The rate of the alkaline hydrolysis for the NHS-activated ester monolayer was monitored as a function of immersion time in borate buffer (pH 8.50, 50 mM) by IR-ERS. As shown in Figure 4, the temporal evolution of the spectra is indicative of the progression in the hydrolytic loss of the NHS group. The $\nu(C═O)$ at 1748 cm$^{-1}$, for example, decreases in strength by more than 50% in less than 480 s; this feature is virtually undetectable after 14 min. Other spectral features (e.g., N–C–O band at 1074 cm$^{-1}$ and the carboxylate vibration band at 1619 cm$^{-1}$) also disappear completely in a similar time period.
follow this trend but are too weak in strength to be used for kinetic analysis.

The spectra in Figure 4 were analyzed to more fully characterize the hydrolysis kinetics by determining the temporal decrease in the strength of \( \nu(C=O) \) of the adlayer. The bimolecular reaction rate for the base hydrolysis of the adlayer can be written as

\[
\Gamma = -k_h \Gamma_{NHS}[OH^-] \quad \text{(4)}
\]

where \( \Gamma_{NHS} \) is the surface concentration of the NHS reactive group (mol/cm\(^2\)), \( k_h \) is the second-order heterogeneous rate constant for hydrolysis (M\(^{-1}\) s\(^{-1}\)), [OH\(^-\)] is the hydroxide ion concentration in bulk solution (M), and \( t \) is time (s). Assuming that the conditions for a pseudo first-order reaction can be applied by use of a buffered alkaline solution, eq 4 can be simplified to

\[
\frac{d\Gamma_{NHS}}{dt} = -k'_h \Gamma_{NHS} \quad \text{(5)}
\]
where \( k'_h \) is the pseudo first-order heterogeneous reaction rate constant (s\(^{-1}\)). Integration with the appropriate limits yields

\[
\Gamma_{\text{NHS}(t)} = \Gamma_{\text{NHS}(t=0)}e^{-k'_h t} 
\]

(6)

The value of \( k'_h \) can be determined from the slope of a plot of \(-\ln(1 - x)\) vs \( t \) where \( x \) represents the extent of reaction, which is calculated from \( (\Gamma_{\text{NHS}(t)}/\Gamma_{\text{NHS}(t=0)}) \). This analysis assumes that \( \Gamma_{\text{NHS}} \) is directly proportional to the strength of \( \nu(C=O) \) at 1748 cm\(^{-1}\). Due to the so-called “infrared metal surface selection rule,” this proportionality holds in IR-ERS only if the orientation of the transition dipole moment for this vibrational mode is constant throughout the reaction.44 We have invoked this assumption in the analysis of these data.

The results of this analysis are shown in Figure 5, which can be used to determine the time required for 50% conversion (\( t_{50\%} \)) of 380 ± 40 s. In contrast to the linear relationship expected for a pseudo-first-order reaction, this plot has a nonlinear shape. There are a few possible interpretations for this dependence, including a difference in reaction order that can change with time and a reaction with two different rates that are connected in series. The former can be ruled out as the hydroxide ion is fixed by the use of 50 mM borate buffer (Experimental Section), which maintains the conditions of a pseudo first-order reaction. Thus, the shape of the kinetic plot is considered to originate from a progression of two reactions in series.

An interpretation of this type of rate profile, known as the Avrami or Johnson–Mehl–Avrami–Kolmogorov (JMAK) theorem, was originally proposed to describe the phase transitions in solids where a reaction at a surface can be divided into the three kinetic regimes depicted in Figure 6.46–48

The three regimes are (1) a slow reaction rate at short times \( (t_1 \) and \( t_2) \) due primarily to the formation of reacting nuclei, i.e., the initiation stage; (2) a reaction interval at intermediate times \( (t_id) \) with a more rapid and relatively constant rate in which previously formed nuclei grow in size and eventually form overlapping domains of reacted material, i.e., the bulk transformation stage; and (3) a period at long times \( (t_2) \) in which the rate slows as the reaction approaches completion. Indeed, the intermediate region (i.e., bulk transformation stage) in JMAK theory spans the extent of reaction from 0.15 < \( x < \) 0.8, which corresponds to the time period from roughly 360 to 660 s in Figure 5.49 We view the kinetic plot in Figure 5 to be comprised of three overlapping kinetic regimes, but with limited data to fully characterize the final regime due to a decrease in signal-to-noise such that the peak is no longer quantified with great certainty. In the initial stage (0 to \( \sim 180 \) s), the reaction proceeds slowly, reflecting the role of a nucleation type of process in which the hydrolytic removal of NHS groups reduces steric barriers to the attack of hydroxide ions on the acyl carbon of esters at the edge of the nuclei. As time and the size of these growing domains increase (roughly 360 to 660 s), the rate of reaction undergoes an increase due to a greater number of accessible surface reactants. During this stage, the rate of the reaction becomes close to constant, which is indicative of an immeasurable change in the number of NHS groups at the domain boundaries. In the third and final regime (>720 s), the rate slows as the surface reactant is exhaustively consumed.

Based on the above interpretation, the reactivity of the adlayer was analyzed for our purposes via a pseudo first-order rate law in the bulk transformation stage. This analysis used a linear fit of the data between 360 and 660 s and gave a pseudo first-order reaction rate constant, \( k_h' \), of 4.6 ± 0.3 × 10\(^{-3}\) s\(^{-1}\), and a second-order reaction rate constant, \( k_h'' \), of 1.5 ± 0.1 × 10\(^3\) M\(^{-1}\) s\(^{-1}\) \((n = 3)\). This value for \( k_h'' \) is much higher than that previously reported for this system in aqueous alkaline \((1.00 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M NaOH})\) solutions \((6.1 \pm 1.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1})\).50 While the origin(s) of the larger value found herein is presently unclear, we suspect that it reflects, at least in part, a difference in the number and/or size of structural defects in the adlayer, which is supported by wettability data.51–53 For this adlayer system, Dordi et al. previously reported advancing \( (\Theta_a) \) and receding \( (\Theta_r) \) contact angles for water of 60 ± 2° and 39 ± 2°, respectively. We measured a comparable \( \Theta_a \) of 59 ± 2° \((n = 6)\), but a much lower \( \Theta_r \) of 29 ± 5° \((n = 6)\) which suggests that our adlayer is not as tightly packed as that in the earlier work. Experiments are now being designed to test for additional possible origins of this difference.

**Homogeneous Base Hydrolysis.** For comparative purposes, we measured the rates of the base hydrolysis for DSP and NBS \((\text{N-(benzoyloxy) succinimide})\) in aqueous solution. NBS served as a model for connection to the earlier work by Cline and Hanna which investigated the base hydrolysis of several types of NHS esters in both aprotic and aqueous
solutions.54 These UV-vis measurements monitored the reaction by following the appearance of the NHS anion with time. This anion absorbs in the UV spectral region and has an absorbance maximum at 260 nm with a molar absorptivity of 9700 M$^{-1}$ cm$^{-1}$.55 The neutral form of NHS absorbs much deeper in the UV region. By monitoring the reaction of NBS under the conditions used by Cline and Hanna (20% 1,4-dioxane and an ionic strength of 1.0 M through the addition of tetramethylammonium chloride, (TMAC)), we determined a second-order homogeneous reaction rate constant, $k_{h,solution}$ for NBS in 20% dioxane, of 9.2 ± 0.7 × 10$^4$ M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$ ($n = 6$), which is in good agreement with the 8.7 × 10$^4$ M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$ value reported earlier.54

The reaction conditions used in subsequent experiments were analogous to those described previously for the interfacial experiments, borate buffer (50 mM, pH 8.50) with 1% 1,4-dioxane added for DSP solubility. Figure 7 shows the spectrophotometric data and the extent of reaction analysis for a 0.10 mM solution of DSP under these conditions. The absorbance initially increases rapidly, slowing to a limiting value as the reaction nears completion (~20 min). To quantify the reaction rate, the absorbance at 260 nm was monitored at 0.10 s increments. These data are shown in the inset of Figure 7. The plot exhibits the expected linear dependence for a pseudo first-order reaction. The analysis of this data gives a value of $k_{h,solution}$ for DSP of 8.6 ± 0.5 × 10$^3$ M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$ ($n = 18$). For comparison, the value for $k_{h,solution}$ for NBS under these same conditions was 5.7 ± 0.2 × 10$^3$ M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$ ($n = 9$); this reaction rate constant is larger than that reported earlier due to the inclusion of TMAC in that work, which is known to slow such reactions.

Previous studies have shown that the rates for the heterogeneous base hydrolysis of DSP-based monolayers and several other NHS esters are markedly retarded (100 to 1000x) in comparison to those found for the analogous homogeneous reactions.50,57,58 In our case, however, the heterogeneous rate constant, $k_h$ for the DSP-based adlayer is nearly twice that of the value found in bulk solution. This finding indicates that the interfacial effects (i.e., steric, polarity, etc.) often considered as slowing interfacial reaction rates do not play a significant role in the data reported in Figure 4.

Adlayer Aminolysis. For aminolysis reactivity studies, this investigation used ethylamine as a small molecule mimic of the amines in the lysine residues of immunoglobulin (IgG) proteins. Proteins like IgG can contain between 80 to 90 lysines per molecule,59,60 and those located at the periphery of the protein structure have acid strengths (pK$_a$ ~10.3)61 similar to ethylamine (pK$_a$ ~10.8).62 The IR-ERS spectra for the temporal evolution of the reaction of the adlayer with 500 mM ethylamine (50 mM borate buffer, pH 8.50) are consistent with amide formation. Initially, there is a rapid decrease of the ν$_a$(C=O) for NHS at 1748 cm$^{-1}$, which at longer times is accompanied by the appearance of much weaker bands at 1665, 1556, and 1265 cm$^{-1}$ (Figure 8 and Table 3) that can be assigned to amide I, amide II, and amide III vibrational modes, respectively.63–65 Interestingly, the strength of ν$_a$(C=O) decreases by ~50% in 120 ± 30 s ($t_{1/2}$) (n = 3), whereas the same decrease for immersion in borate buffer only (Figure 4) required nearly 400 s. The more rapid loss of the NHS group reflects contributions from both the base hydrolysis and aminolysis reactions.
The kinetic plot for the data in Figure 8 is shown in Figure 9. Due to the weakness of amide bands, this analysis tracked the decrease in the NHS carbonyl mode at 1748 cm$^{-1}$. To obtain the heterogeneous aminolysis reaction rate constant, the combined second-order rate laws for the two reactions occurring in parallel can be written as the corresponding integrated rate law is given by eq 8:

$$\frac{d\Gamma_{\text{NHS}}}{dt} = -k_a\Gamma_{\text{NHS}}[\text{OH}^-] - k_h\Gamma_{\text{NHS}}[\text{NH}_2]$$ (7)

where $k_a$ is the second-order heterogeneous rate constant for aminolysis (M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$) and $[\text{NH}_2]$ is the deprotonated amine concentration in bulk solution (M). The corresponding integrated rate law is given by eq 8:

$$\Gamma_{\text{NHS}(t)} = \Gamma_{\text{NHS}(0)}e^{-(k_a[\text{OH}^-]+k_h[\text{NH}_2])t}$$ (8)

For comparative purposes, we analyzed the plot in Figure 9 at the time interval from 60 to 300 s, with the assumption that the rate in this time interval is representative of the bulk transformation stage for the two competing reactions per Avrami analysis. Thus, the time interval of 60 to 300 s yields $k_a$ of $9.4 \pm 2.8 \times 10^{-1}$ M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$. In comparison, analyses using different time intervals in Figure 9 (0 to 600 s, 0 to 300 s, or 120 to 300 s) yielded $k_a$ values of 0.09, 6.9, and $7.7 \times 10^{-1}$ M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$, respectively. These values differ at most by an order of magnitude in comparison to that for the time interval from 60 to 300 s.

Hence, the analysis in the time interval of 60 to 300 s, which yields the largest value for $k_a$ (i.e., the best case scenario for the effectiveness of the aminolysis reaction), can be used for a generalized comparison with the rate to hydrolysis.

Implications of the Kinetic Measurements on the Aminolytic Immobilization of Proteins. The two reaction rate experiments show that the base hydrolysis reaction ($k_a = 1.5 \pm 0.1 \times 10^3$ M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$) is inherently much faster than the aminolysis reaction ($k_h = 9.4 \pm 2.8 \times 10^3$ M$^{-1}$ s$^{-1}$) at the DSP-based adlayer. To qualitatively estimate the impact of this difference, the relative rates of the two processes in the bulk transformation stage can be compared using the ratio, $r_s/h$, expressed as

$$r_s/h = \frac{k_a}{k_h}$$

$$= \frac{k_a\Gamma_{\text{NHS}}[\text{NH}_2]}{k_h\Gamma_{\text{NHS}}[\text{OH}^-]}$$

$$= \frac{9.4 \times 10^{-1}[\text{NH}_2]}{1.5 \times 10^3[\text{OH}^-]}$$

$$= 6.3 \times 10^{-4}[\text{NH}_2]/[\text{OH}^-]$$ (9)

where $v_s$ is the reaction rate of aminolysis and $v_h$ is the reaction rate of hydrolysis. Equation 9 clearly points to the dominance of the base hydrolysis reaction in borate buffer (pH 8.50, 50 mM).

Per step 2 in Scheme 1, we typically use 100 mg/mL of antibody for immobilization, which for IgG proteins (150 kDa) translates to $\sim$0.7 mM. Using this value for the amine concentration in eq 9, $r_{s/h}$ then equals 1.4 $\times$ 10$^{-4}$. In this case, the removal of the NHS terminal groups is completed (i.e., 99.9% conversion) in $\sim$210 s; however, less than 0.02% of the conversion is due to aminolysis. We can extend this projection by recognizing that the number of lysines sterically accessible at the periphery of an IgG protein ranges from 10 to 26.59,60 If, neglecting the role of pH and the concomitant acceleration of the rate of base hydrolysis, we increase the apparent amine conversion by a factor of 10 (i.e., $99.9\% \to 99.9\% \times 10^{-1}$), the $r_{s/h}$ ratio then drops to 1.4 $\times$ 10$^{-5}$, and the removal of NHS terminal groups is completed in $\sim$2100 s.
concentration by 26, $r_{a/h}$ increases to $3.6 \times 10^{-5}$ and the conversion of $I_{\text{NHS}}$ due to aminolysis, while increasing to $\sim 0.4\%$, remains insignificant. Moreover, we have yet to take into account the deprotonation state of the accessible amine groups. At a solution pH of 8.50, less than 2% of the sterically accessible amines are deprotonated, which works against improvements in the effectiveness of aminolysis (i.e., $r_{a/h}$ decreases to $5.6 \times 10^{-5}$ and the conversion due to aminolysis drops below 0.01%).

In projecting the implications of eq 9 further, one could ask “what reactive amine concentration would be needed in order to make an impact in favor of protein tethering via aminolysis?” If, for example, the goal would be to achieve a value of $r_{a/h}$ of unity, the reactive amine (deprotonated) concentration would need to approach 5 mM. This concentration translates to an IgG protein level, assuming that 2% of the 26 sterically accessible amides are deprotonated at pH 8.50, of $\sim 50$ g/mL, which is, of course, not feasible. In other words, these kinetic data lead to the conclusion that the mechanism for protein coupling under the conditions in Scheme 1 has a minimal contribution (if any) to the formation of a layer of capture antibodies and that another pathway, i.e., adsorption, dominates the preparation process.

### CONCLUSIONS

This work has endeavored to shed light on the use of NHS-ester monolayers in the immobilization of proteins, such as capture antibodies, in biosensor systems through IR-ERS reactivity studies of the desired aminolysis and competing hydrolysis reactions under common immunosassay conditions (borate buffer, pH 8.50). In contrast to the expected pseudo first-order linear reaction rate, the competing reaction of hydrolysis at the DSP-based monolayer surface gave evidence for a reaction in series with multiple reaction rates. An extension of JMAK theory was applied to describe these multiple kinetic regimes: an initiation stage with formation of reacting nuclei; a bulk transformation stage with rapid growth of the nuclei; and a final stage with slow growth. Applying an interpretation based on JMAK theory to the kinetic plots resulted in a tremendous difference in reaction rates for the competing hydrolysis and the desired aminolysis reactions. Moreover, these large differences in reaction rate constants clearly show that hydrolysis is the dominant reaction under conditions in which coupling agents are immersed in low protein concentrations and buffers of near physiological pH. Thus, this kinetic data points to the case in which the vast majority of the proteins immobilized per Scheme 1 are present due to electrostatic, hydrogen bonding, and van der Waals interactions, rather than by covalent linkages. There are a large number of diagnostic test platforms used in today’s healthcare system that employ NHS-based chemistry for protein immobilization. The data herein suggests the possibility that adsorption may play a more important role in such processes than originally thought and that a reexamination of the immobilization chemistry may, in some cases, improve metrics of performance (e.g., reproducibility, limits of detection, etc.).

To this end, future work will investigate the competing reactions of hydrolysis and aminolysis in NHS-based chemistries under various reaction conditions with the anticipation that further understanding of these competing reactions will help elucidate a means to achieve covalent coupling of proteins. These experiments will be reported elsewhere.

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**Notes**

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