

Review

Survey of the year 2003 commercial optical biosensor literature

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In the year 2003 there was a 17% increase in the number of publications citing work performed using optical biosensor technology compared with the previous year. We collated the 962 total papers for 2003, identified the geographical regions where the work was performed, highlighted the instrument types on which it was carried out, and segregated the papers by biological system. In this overview, we spotlight 13 papers that should be on everyone's 'must read' list for 2003 and provide examples of how to identify and interpret high-quality biosensor data. Although we still find that the literature is replete with poorly performed experiments, over-interpreted results and a general lack of understanding of data analysis, we are optimistic that these shortcomings will be addressed as biosensor technology continues to mature. Copyright © 2004 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Keywords: affinity; Biacore; biomolecular interaction analysis; evanescent wave; IAsys; kinetics; optical biosensor; resonant mirror; Spreeta; surface plasmon resonance

Received 16 August 2004; accepted 27 August 2004

INTRODUCTION

It has been 13 years since the release of the first commercially available optical biosensor and by all accounts the technology has been a success. Biosensors have revolutionized the study of macromolecular interactions. Along the way, they have become the gold standard against which other interaction technologies are compared. Based on the publication record, we find the types of applications and the user base are continuing to expand at a healthy rate. However, while there is a small cadre of research groups who clearly understand how to apply the technology, the prevalence of ill-performed experiments or over-interpreted data in the literature is disappointing. In many ways, biosensor technology is going through its own adolescent growing pains. New users must experience first hand the challenges in setting up a biosensor experiment correctly and learn how to properly interpret data. New and old users alike must be cautious with the technology, remembering that, while the biosensor monitors biology at its most fundamental level, the data output reflects the quality of the reagents and operator attentiveness. So as both the technology and user base mature, we should all expect some challenges.

This year we highlight 13 papers that we recommend all biosensor users add to their reference library. These papers demonstrate the level of experimental error obtained from a variety of operators, as well as a range of biological systems, analysis types, instruments and assay designs. In an effort to educate users, we also present examples of good and bad

sensor data so that users will know what to look for in their own work. And finally, we discuss how to visually interpret binding profiles using examples commonly found in the literature.

LITERATURE OVERVIEW

In 2003, 962 papers that described work using commercially available optical biosensors were published in 273 different journals. This list represents a 17% increase in the number of articles compared with the year 2002, as well as an 8% increase in the number of journals publishing biosensor data. Although most studies were published in the *Journal of Biological Chemistry* (159 articles) *Biochemistry* (49), and the *Journal of Molecular Biology* (28), biosensor-based research was published in journals ranging from *Advanced Materials* and *Biometals* to *Arthritis and Rheumatism* and *Thorax* to *Food Control* and the *International Dairy Journal*. Together, these publications demonstrate the optical biosensor's expanding utility in traditional fields of life science research and drug discovery, as well as its emerging contribution in engineering disciplines, agriculture and bioproduction. Since biosensor data is now published in such a wide variety of journals, no single database is able to encompass this literature. Finding the articles for this year's review therefore required searching all of the major biological and physical sciences databases. In each search, we scanned the full text of articles for key words such as 'surface plasmon resonance' and 'optical biosensor', and commercial instrument names (i.e. Biacore, IAsys, Spreeta, etc.). We limited our search to articles published in English-language journals and omitted those that described work performed using non-commercial biosensors. While we have attempted to include every relevant article, it is possible we have missed a few. To ensure that your article

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Abbreviations used: CBP, chemokine binding protein; ITC, isothermal calorimetry; SAM, self-assembled monolayers.

is included in any future survey, remember to include keywords that will aid the search engines.

The compiled list of articles at the end of this survey is divided into two major sections: articles that review the current state and future direction of optical biosensors or describe application-specific methods^{1–67} and original research articles that use biosensors in a wide range of applications.^{68–962}

REVIEWS AND METHODS

Reviews by Jain and Leonard *et al.* provide general introductions to optical biosensor technology^{23,28} and others describe the fundamentals of surface plasmon resonance,^{21,55} evanescent wave generation,^{15,16,52} and mass transport.⁵⁰ Van Regenmortel also discussed critical issues in both the design and analysis of biosensor experiments⁵⁰ and, in our survey of the year 2002 literature, we highlighted examples of well-performed kinetic, equilibrium, competition, and active concentration analyses.⁴² In addition, several reviews compare the advantages and disadvantages (including sample preparation requirements, sensor sensitivity, and the range of applications) for optical biosensors and other interaction technologies such as quartz crystal microbalance,^{5,25,31,34,51} surface acoustic wave,^{10,25} calorimetry,¹⁰ and fluorescence spectroscopy.^{12,48}

Optical biosensors' impact in specific areas of life science research, drug discovery and medical applications is demonstrated in several review articles. In particular, a number of reviews describe the technology's contribution in understanding membrane^{1,35} and carbohydrate biology,^{14,32} T cell antigen recognition,^{13,49} HIV–host interactions,⁴³ protein isomerization⁵⁸ and assembly of multi-protein complexes.⁵³ References 4, 8, 11, 17, 30 and 36 illustrate how optical biosensors are used in each phase of drug discovery and development, from target identification/characterization/validation and ligand fishing/hit confirmation to compound screening/lead optimization, ADME and toxicity studies. Other reviews focused on the biosensor's increasing role in immunogenicity testing of therapeutic agents,^{20,40,47,54} for example, Swanson emphasized how optical biosensors can be used to detect both high- and low-affinity antibodies produced against therapeutics.⁴⁷ Also, a number of reviewers recognized the need for higher-throughput optical biosensors in streamlined drug discovery: they described the biosensor's potential in an array format, as well as the accompanying development of protein chips.^{9,10,19,22,24,26,29,39,41,56,57,59,60}

Several references provide step-by-step protocols for specific biosensor applications, including protein/carbohydrate interactions,^{64,66} small molecules binding to RNA,⁶⁷ TCR/MHC class II interactions,⁶² and ligands binding to receptors embedded in retroviral pseudotypes.⁶⁵ In addition, references 14 and 63 emphasized the care required to design and execute high-quality biosensor experiments, process and analyze primary data, and present informative figures. These authors also highlighted practical considerations, including selecting the application-appropriate chip and immobilization method, checking for self-consistency by comparing the interaction affinity obtained by equilibrium analysis and from the ratio of kinetic parameters, choosing

appropriate regeneration conditions, using low surface densities and high flow rates, and dealing with potential pitfalls such as non-specific binding, steric hindrance, and sample degradation, avidity and/or aggregation.

STATISTICS OF ORIGINAL RESEARCH ARTICLES

There were 895 primary research articles published in 2003 that reported using commercial optical biosensors. Figure 1 illustrates that authors in 35 countries around the world published biosensor-based work. Most reports came from institutions in Europe (369, 41%), the USA (288, 32%) and Japan (123, 14%). In the USA, the most articles were produced by investigators from California (59), with significant contributions also from groups in Massachusetts (29), Maryland (25) and Pennsylvania (21) [Fig. 1(B)]. In Europe, the greatest number of articles was published by researchers in Germany (75), the UK (64) and France (64) [Fig. 1(C)].

Biosensor platforms

This year's published work was performed using instruments produced by 10 manufacturers (Table 1; at this time it appears that only biosensors from Biacore, Texas Instruments, Autolab, Optrel, Analytical μ -systems and Eco Chemie are available for purchase in the USA and other major markets). As reflected in Fig. 2(A), the vast majority of the literature described work performed using Biacore platforms (813, 91%). Because of the large number of users applying Biacore-based technology, we have focused the remainder of this survey on the experiments performed using these instruments, but many of the points we emphasize can be applied to all of the technologies.

Figure 2(B) shows that most Biacore users reported data collected from Biacore 2000 (269, 33%), 3000 (194, 24%), X (104, 13%) and 1000 (58, 7%) instruments. Some 170 articles (21%) described experiments that used Biacore instruments but did not state which platform was used (or these may have been done on the first version of the technology, which was simply referred to as Biacore). The automation, reliability and versatility of the Biacore 2000 and 3000 make these two platforms the workhorses of biosensor technology (as shown in references 324, 384, 662, and 788, each of which we discuss in detail later in this survey). Good-quality data, however, can also be obtained using the Biacore X^{70,81,261,352} and 1000.^{71,264,298,448} There were a number of papers illustrating work performed using the two most recently released platforms, Biacore Q (for food analysis)^{841,844,845,847,852–855} and Biacore S51 (for rapid screening and ultra-high-resolution kinetic analyses of small molecules).^{434,561,779,783} Six references describe data obtained from the J^{144,183,547,823} and BIAlite platforms.^{534,655}

Biological applications

Figure 2(C) shows the distribution of publications based on the types of biological systems that were studied. The

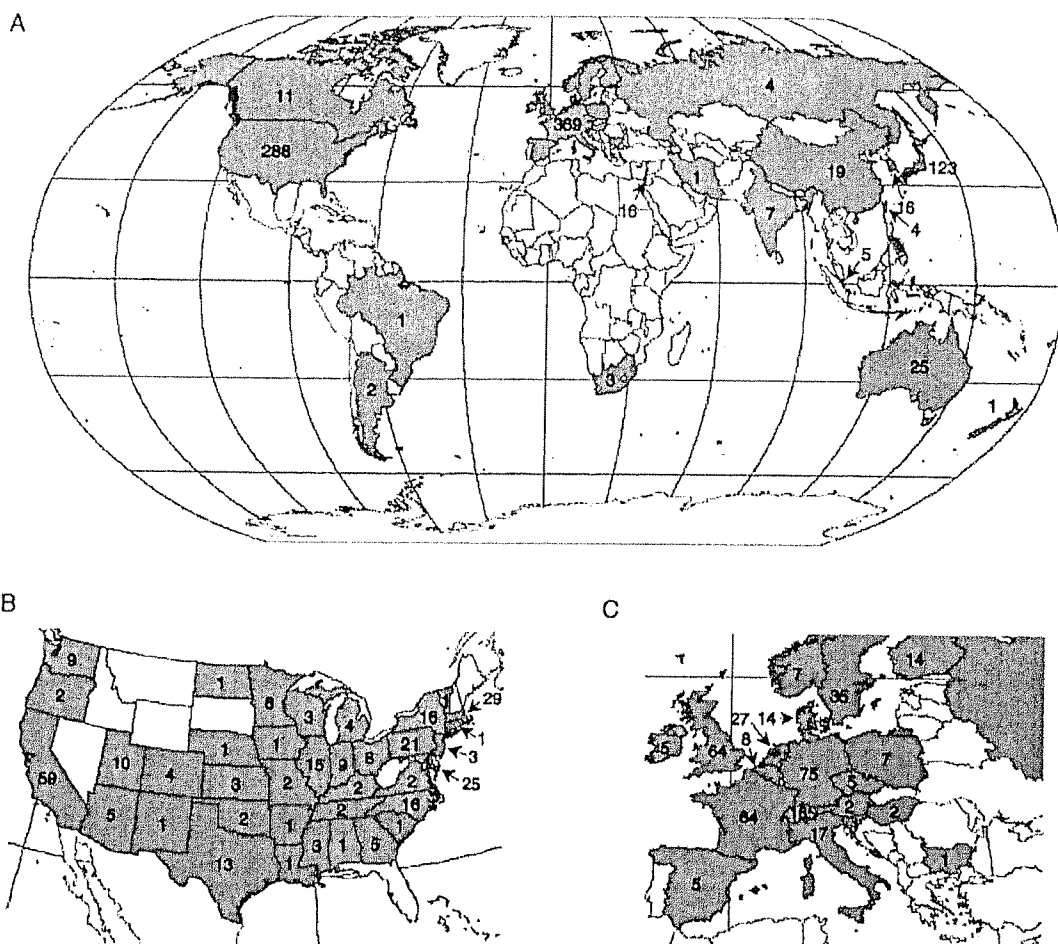


Figure 1. Distribution of biosensor articles published in the year 2003: worldwide (A) and within the USA (B) and Europe (C). Locations are based on the address of the first author.

Table 1. Commercial optical biosensors

Manufacturer	Instruments ^a	Website	References
Biacore AB	Biacore, Bialite, Q, J, X, 1000, 2000, 3000, S51	www.biacore.com	68–880
Affinity Sensors	IAsys, IAsys+, IAsys Auto	www.affinity-sensors.com	881–925
Texas Instruments	TISPR-1, Spreeta, Spreeta 2000	www.ti.com	926–937
DKK-TOA	SPR-20	www.dkktoa.net	938–943
Optrel GbR	Multiskop	www.optrel.de	944–947
Windsor Scientific Ltd	IBIS I, IBIS II	www.windsor-ltd.co.uk	948–951
Artificial Sensing Instruments	BIOS-1 ^b	www.microvacuum.com	952–954
Eco Chemic BV	Autolab	www.ccochemie.nl	955–957
Nippon Laser & Electronics	SPR-670	www.nle-lab.co.jp	958–960
Analytical μ -systems	BIO-SUPLAR	www.micro-systems.de	961, 962

^a Instruments used in 2003 publications, not necessarily all instruments produced by a manufacturer.

^b Now called OWLS.

application of biosensors is fairly evenly divided between proteins,^{68–235} antibodies,^{236–358} receptors,^{359–451} peptides,^{452–545} and oligonucleotides,^{546–645} while the technology's impact in lipid and self-assembled monolayer,^{646–704} extracellular matrix,^{705–749} carbohydrate,^{750–771} and small molecule^{772–817} studies has grown steadily over the past few years. Biosensors are also increasingly used in clinical

applications (such as quantitating antibody titers in animal models and human participants in drug trials and diagnosing diseases in patients),^{818–840} as well as in food, veterinary and environmental testing (for example, to track yield and monitor quality control of bioproducts, detect contaminants in food and environmental samples, and monitor the health of veterinary animals).^{841–856} Also, improvements in mass

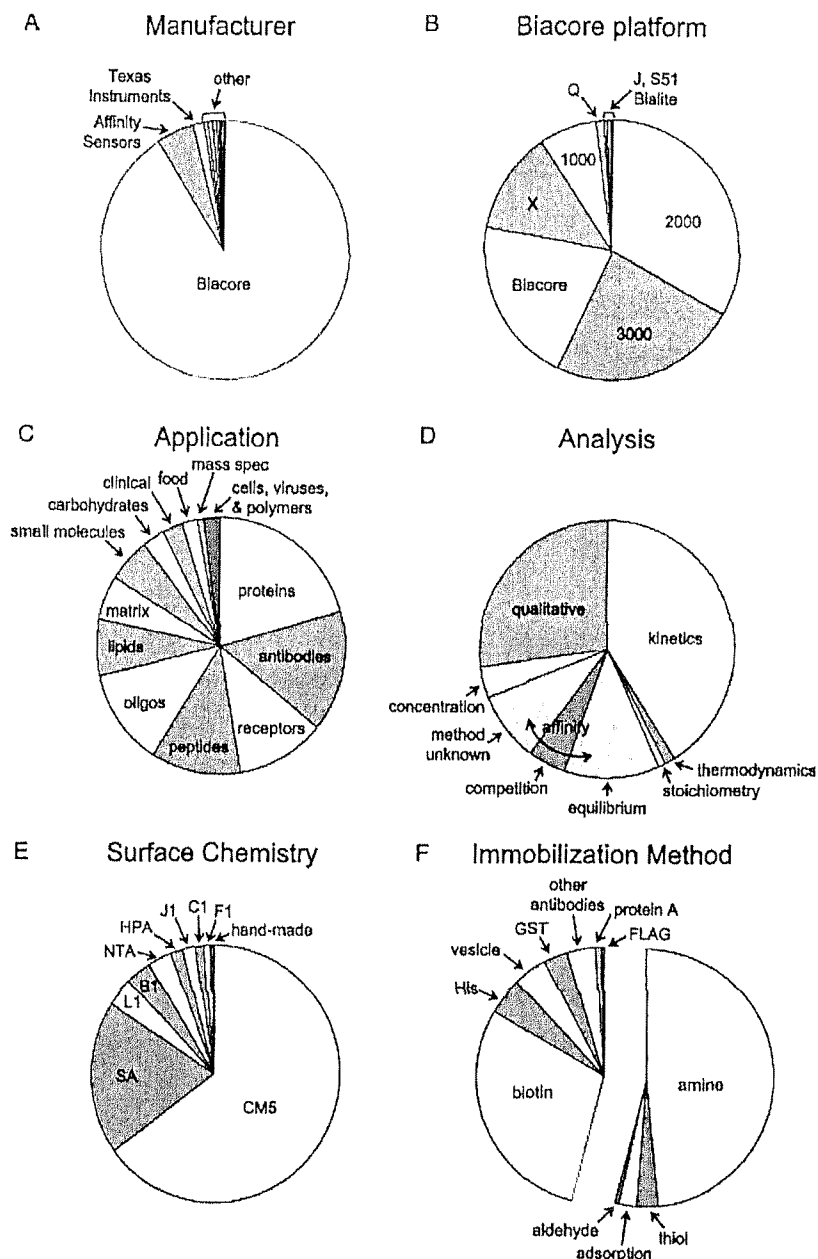


Figure 2. Pie charts showing the research articles categorized by various experimental parameters. (A) Manufacturer. The wedges grouped as 'other' include DKK-TOA, Optrel GbR, Windsor Scientific Ltd., Artificial Sensing Instruments, Eco Chemie BV, Nippon Laser and Electronics, and Analytical μ -systems. (B) Biacore platform. The wedge denoted 'Biacore' represents articles that either used the original Biacore instrument or did not state specifically which model was used. (C) Biological application. The articles in the reference list are grouped according to the classifications in this chart. (D) Analysis format. The wedge denoted 'method unknown' represents articles that reported K_D s but did not state which format (kinetic, equilibrium, or competition analysis) was used. (E) Surface chemistry, using the names of the different Biacore sensor chips. (F) Immobilization method, with the pie chart split into two segments: capturing (left) and direct coupling (right). Except for (A), these pie charts reflect the statistical analysis of Biacore-based articles.

spectrometry-coupled biosensor technology continue,⁸⁵⁷⁻⁸⁶³ as does the development of biosensor assays to characterize fibrils, synthetic polymers, viruses, whole cells and other complex systems.⁸⁶⁴⁻⁸⁸⁰

Analysis formats

Figure 2(D) shows the distribution of analysis formats. The biosensor was used most often to measure kinetic

rate constants (351, 43%) and interaction affinity (209, 26%; while 47% of affinities were determined using equilibrium analyses and 18% using competition analyses, 35% of the time the method used to obtain the K_D was not reported). Two-hundred and twenty-one articles (27%) describe qualitative analyses: identifying binding partners,^{388,429,567} establishing specificity,^{191,648,735,750,765} mapping epitopes,^{265,324,351} following molecular assembly,^{438,522} or comparing binding mechanisms.^{280,573,604} Thirty-two articles (4%) describe using the biosensor to determine analyte concentrations (either the total concentration of analytes such as drug residues, metabolites, and pesticides^{826,850,852,854} or the active fraction of antibodies and other proteins^{220,288,300}) and 19 (2%) used the biosensor to examine interaction thermodynamics^{142,143,173,400,411,448,468,527,632,648,773,805} and stoichiometry.^{130,211,257,389,716,770,817}

Surface chemistries

Of the 662 (74%) papers that reported what sensor surface chemistry was used in the analysis, 65% used the CM5 chip, which is coated with a layer of carboxymethyl dextran [Fig. 2(E)]. The SA chip, a chip with streptavidin pre-immobilized and dedicated to capturing biotinylated ligands, was used 19% of the time. The remainder of experiments employed L1 (coated with alkane-modified dextran; 4%) and HPA (hydrophobic layer of alkanethiols, 3%) to prepare lipid surfaces,^{430,662,704} B1 (the lower-charged version of the CM5 and now referred to as CM4; 3%) for minimizing non-specific binding and charge repulsion,^{229,377,403} NTA (nickel-derivatized dextran; 2%) to capture His-tagged ligands,^{850,870,875} J1 (plain gold surface, 1%) for simple protein adsorption,^{678,835,874} the C1 (a carboxylated gold surface; 1%), and F1 (coated with short dextran layer; 1%) for high-molecular-mass analytes,^{438,864,871} or user-defined chips (1%) intended for self-assembled monolayer surfaces.^{667,675–677,679,680,703}

Immobilization methods

Of the 676 papers (76%) that described how ligand surfaces were prepared, 54% used direct immobilization and 46% used some capturing method [Fig. 2(F)]. Ligands were immobilized using amine- (90%), thiol- (5%),^{143,169,377} or aldehyde-coupling (1%)^{317,768,827} chemistries or simple adsorption or immersion (4%).^{658,663,686} Ligands were most often captured using biotin (64%), anti-His mAbs (10%), anti-GST mAbs (7%), or anti-FLAG mAbs (1%).^{371,540} Alternatively, 8% of ligands were captured by user-specific antibodies^{362,366,376} and 2% by protein A,^{93,749,750} while lipid surfaces were most often prepared by vesicle capture (used 8% of the time).

MUST-READ ARTICLES FROM 2003

Below we spotlight 13 articles that should be in every biosensor user's reference library. The work described in these articles helps further validate the biosensor technology

(article 1), provide examples of well-performed experiments in various biological applications (articles 2–6) and analysis formats (articles 7–9), illustrate advances in ligand surface preparation (articles 10 and 11), and exemplify the importance of detailing the experimental design along with including informative figures of the data (articles 12 and 13).

1. Technology validation

The ABRF-MIRG'02 Study: assembly state, thermodynamic, and kinetic analysis of an enzyme/inhibitor interaction. Myszkowski DG *et al.* (2003) *J. Biomol. Tech.* 14: 247–269.

A study coordinated by the Association of Biomolecular Resource Facilities' Molecular Interactions Research Group (ABRF-MIRG) established the experimental variability between biosensor users. ABRF-MIRG invited 30 participants using six different platforms to examine the same molecular interaction: a small-molecule inhibitor in solution binding to an immobilized enzyme. Figure 3(A) shows a sampling of 12 of the 60 returned data sets. The binding response profiles appear similar and could be described by a simple interaction model to yield kinetic rate constants of $k_a = (4.0 \pm 0.7) \times 10^4 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $k_d = 0.036 \pm 0.007 \text{ s}^{-1}$ for the entire participant panel. This study demonstrated that, when multiple users are provided with the same samples and apply similar protocols, the experimental error in the rate constants is about 20%. To compare the surface-based results with those obtained from solution-based methods, 14 participants measured the same interaction using isothermal calorimetry (ITC). Figure 3(B) illustrates that, within experimental error, ITC and biosensor users obtained the same affinity ($K_D^{\text{SPR}} = 0.90 \pm 0.22 \mu\text{M}$ and $K_D^{\text{ITC}} = 1.00 \pm 0.22 \mu\text{M}$) and the error ranges were similar. This study demonstrated that immobilizing the ligand on the sensor surface did not alter the interaction, which has been a common concern regarding the binding parameters reported from biosensor analyses. Together, the comparisons across the participant panel and between the interaction technologies validated the biosensor as a biophysical tool. This paper provides very detailed methods if you would like to repeat the analysis. In addition, the reagents, which are commercially available, and methods used in this study can serve as teaching tools for new users, as well as test systems for evaluating other biosensors or interaction technologies.

2. Protein interactions

Mechanism for multiple ligand recognition by the human transferrin receptor. Giannetti AM *et al.* (2003) *PLoS Biol.* 1: 341–350.

Giannetti *et al.*'s analysis of soluble transferrin and its immobilized receptor is an excellent example of how biosensors can be used to characterize protein–protein interactions. They examined how the kinetics and affinity were affected when specific residues in the receptor were mutated, as well as differences in receptor recognition between apo- and holo-transferrin. Even from a simple inspection of the binding responses in Fig. 4, we can compare response levels and binding profiles to evaluate

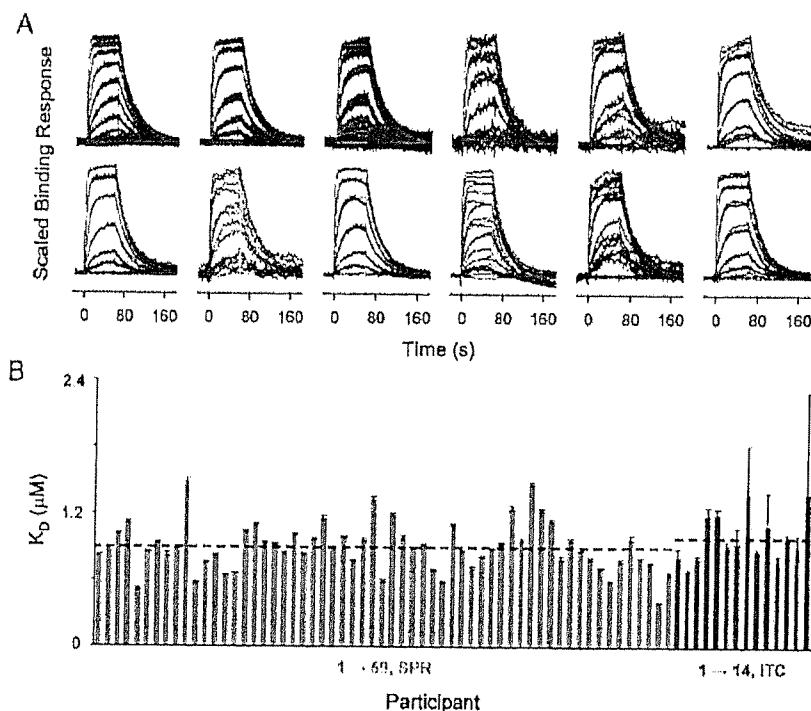


Figure 3. Reproducibility of biosensor experiments. (A) Subset of binding responses (black lines) and fits to a 1:1 interaction model (red lines) for a test system analyzed by study participants using six different biosensor platforms. (The entire 60-panel figure is shown in reference 805.) (B) Comparison of Biacore- (green) and ITC- (red) derived affinities for the enzyme-inhibitor interaction. The dashed lines and colored bands represent the averages and standard deviations obtained from the two types of analyses. Adapted from ref. 805 with permission from the Association of Biomolecular Resources Facilities © 2003.

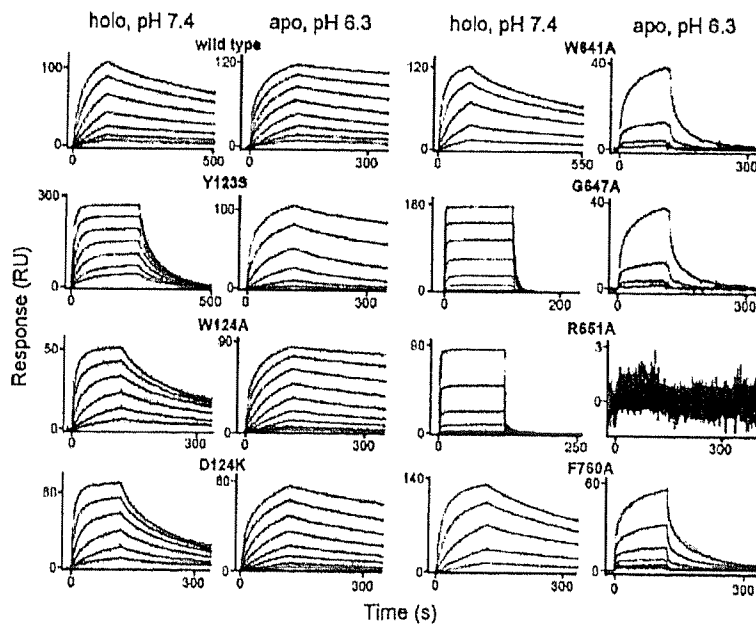


Figure 4. Kinetic analysis of apo- and holo-transferrin binding to immobilized wild type and mutant transferrin receptor. The binding responses (black lines) are superimposed with the fit of the chosen interaction model (red lines). Adapted from reference 384 with permission from PLoS Journals and Giannetti *et al.* © 2003.

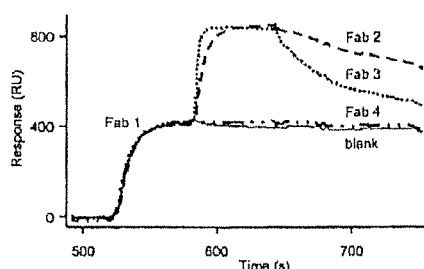


Figure 5. Epitope mapping of Fabs against fibroblast growth factor receptor 3. Adapted from reference 324 with permission from the American Society for Biochemistry and Molecular Biology © 2003.

which changes altered the association rate, dissociation rate or both. Using this kinetic information, these researchers mapped the binding interface and developed a model to describe how the receptor mediates transferrin activity. Other notable examples of well-performed protein–protein studies are described in references 82, 85, 201 and 223.

3. Competitive epitope mapping

Human combinatorial Fab library yielding specific and functional antibodies against the human fibroblast growth factor receptor 3. Rauchenberger R *et al.* (2003) *J. Biol. Chem.* **278**: 38194–38205.

Since they were first released, commercial optical biosensors have been used to characterize antibodies by identifying antigen binders, mapping binding epitopes, and yielding kinetic and affinity parameters. For example, Fig. 5 depicts Rauchenberger *et al.*'s epitope mapping of Fabs against fibroblast growth factor receptor 3. No increase in response is observed when Fab4 was injected over the Fab1/receptor complex ($t > 580$ s), indicating these two Fabs compete for receptor binding. In contrast, the binding

signal increased when Fab2 or Fab3 was injected over the complex, indicating these two Fabs do not compete with Fab1 for receptor binding. In addition, the different profiles of the Fab2 and Fab3 binding responses indicated these two Fabs bind the receptor with different kinetics. Complementing this mapping study, reputable antibody screening studies and kinetic analyses are described in references 280, 322, 301 and 338.

4. Small molecule interactions

Analysis of the pH-dependencies of the association and dissociation kinetics of HIV-1 protease inhibitors. Gossas T, Danielson UH. (2003) *J. Mol. Recognit.* **16**: 203–212.

Improvements in experimental design and data processing make it fairly routine to measure the binding of small molecules to macromolecular targets using biosensor technology. Danielson and co-workers' study of small-molecule HIV-1 protease inhibitors emphasizes the importance of determining rate constants (rather than simply the interaction affinity) to understand binding events.^{774,788,812} For example, Gossas and Danielson measured how pH affects interaction rates for different structural classes of inhibitors.⁷⁸⁸ Sensorgrams obtained for one inhibitor are shown in the main panel of Fig. 6. The high signal-to-noise responses obtained for this small molecule (635 Da) demonstrate the biosensor's ability to produce reliable binding responses even for low-molecular-mass compounds. The inset in Figure 6 shows a kinetic map of an inhibitor panel tested at three different pHs. While some compounds displayed little pH dependence, others displayed changes in either the association or dissociation rate, and a third group displayed significant changes in both rates. The inset also identifies interactions of similar affinities that actually have very different kinetics and therefore distinct binding mechanisms. Additional examples of high-quality characterizations of small molecules are found in references 779–782, 792 and 809.

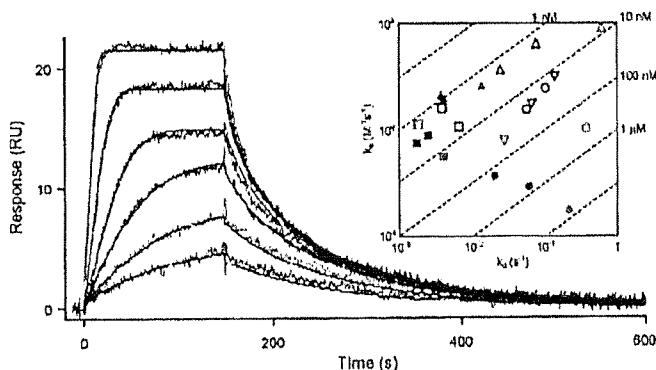


Figure 6. Main panel: kinetic analysis of a small-molecule sulfonamide inhibitor binding to HIV-1 protease. Overlaid black lines depict the fit of the data to the interaction model. Inset: plot of rate constants (k_a vs k_d) obtained for seven inhibitors tested at pH 4.1 (red), 5.1 (blue) and 7.4 (green) with dashed lines bracketing regions of similar affinities. Adapted from reference 788 with permission from John Wiley and Sons Ltd © 2003.

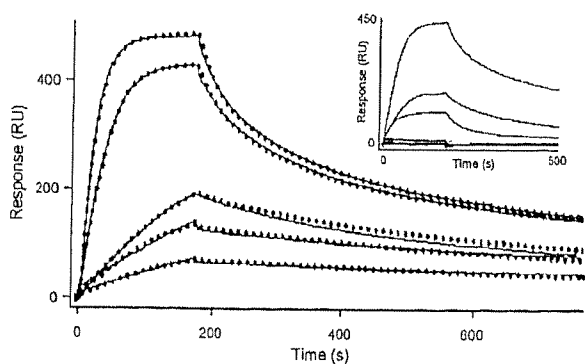


Figure 7. Main panel: kinetic analysis of soluble ricin toxin B-chain binding to an asialoganglioside surface (solid lines depict the fit of the interaction model). Inset: ricin toxin B-chain binding to seven different glycolipid surfaces. Adapted from reference 662 with permission from Elsevier Science © 2003.

5. Lipid interactions

Investigating the interaction of the toxin ricin and its B-chain with immobilised glycolipids in supported phospholipids membranes by surface plasmon resonance. Gustafson I. (2003) *Colloids Surf. B* 30: 13–24.

One significant advantage of the biosensor's flow cell/sensor chip arrangement is it can be used to mimic the solution–surface interface that occurs in membrane biology. In real time, the sensor can monitor how analytes bind to, and then embed into or transport across, immobilized lipid layers that model different membranes. For example, Gustafson used the biosensor to examine glycolipids both qualitatively and quantitatively. To identify the membrane components required for a successful interaction, ricin toxin was screened against lipid surfaces that varied in their carbohydrate contents (Fig. 7 inset) and promising interactions were re-examined in detail to determine rate and affinity constants (an example is shown in the main panel of Fig. 7). Using lipid layers that mimic cancer and normal cell membranes, Papo *et al.* confirmed that the mode of action for a new class of chemotherapeutic peptides involves preferentially binding to cancer cell membranes.^{681,683} Taking a different approach, Whitesides and co-workers prepared a variety of mixed self-assembled monolayers (SAMs) on the sensor chip to identify and optimize coatings that can be applied to surfaces to make them resistant to protein adsorption.^{670,680} Together, these three examples hint at the diversity of lipid and SAM studies that rely on biosensors.

6. Interactions in crude material

Substrate specificity and expression of three 2,3-dihydrobenzyl 1,2-dioxygenases from *Rhodococcus globerulus* strain P6. McKay DB *et al.* (2003) *J. Bacteriol.* 185: 2944–2951.

In 2003, the number of articles that described using the biosensor to detect and/or quantitate analytes in crude materials (such as serum, cell culture and food products) more than doubled compared with years past. Illustrating

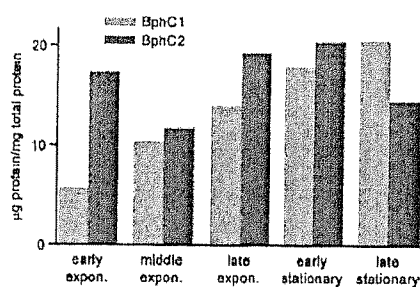


Figure 8. Monitoring expression levels of two proteins (BphC1 and BphC2) throughout the phases of cell culture growth. Adapted from reference 873 with permission from the American Society for Microbiology © 2003.

the latest developments in this promising biosensor application, McKay *et al.* designed an assay to track protein expression levels in cell extracts during different phases of culture growth. These researchers first constructed a calibration plot by testing purified BphC proteins binding to immobilized anti-BphC antibodies and then measured the binding responses generated when crude cell extracts were injected over the surface. Figure 8 illustrates how the expression levels of BphC1 and BphC2 differed during culture maturation. Further demonstrating the biosensor's utility in analyzing complex samples, Mobini *et al.* screened plasma panel to identify patients having antibodies against cardiac tissue proteins⁸²⁸ and Choe *et al.*, using the biosensor as a protein purification tool, screened different buffer conditions to determine which conditions were optimal to extract recombinant proteins from *E. coli* exclusion bodies.⁸⁶⁵ The work performed by these research groups provides the groundwork for developing next-generation assays that will require little, if any, pre-analysis sample purification, as well as better approximate the *in vivo* milieu.

7. Kinetic analysis

Analysis of an orf virus chemokine-binding protein: shifting ligand specificities among a family of poxvirus viroceptors. Seet BT *et al.* (2003) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 100: 15137–15142.

The ability to monitor binding events in real time without reagent labels is what sets biosensors apart from other interaction technologies. A kinetic analysis, however, requires careful experimental design and execution, as well as appropriate data processing, analysis, and interpretation. Figure 9 epitomizes a good kinetic analysis. In this experiment, Seet *et al.* immobilized the chemokine-binding protein (CBP) at a low density on the sensor chip surface, examined chemokine over a wide range of concentrations, and measured each concentration in triplicate. These researchers also demonstrated how to measure the dissociation rate for an extremely slowly dissociating complex. Since the binding signal for the cotaxin–CBP interaction shows no decay in the dissociation phase over the four minutes used in the initial kinetic analysis [Fig. 9(D), left panel], the highest concentration of this chemokine was retested with the dissociation phase monitored long enough to detect decay in the response intensity [Fig. 9(D), right

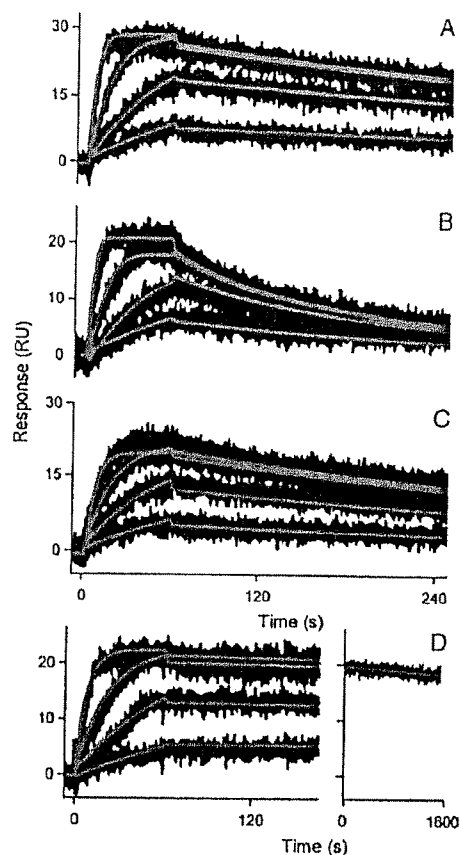


Figure 9. Kinetic analysis of a protein-protein interaction. (A–D) The responses generated by concentration series (1, 3, 9 and 27 nM) of four different chemokines flowed across an immobilized chemokine-binding protein; the sub-panel in (D) shows the dissociation of one chemokine/protein interaction (measured at 27 nM chemokine) for ~30 min. The gray lines depict the fit of each data set to a simple interaction model to yield kinetic and affinity parameters. Adapted from reference 196 with permission from the National Academy of Sciences USA (c) 2003.

panel]. Simultaneously fitting the two data sets shown in Fig. 9(D) yielded rate and affinity constants for this tight interaction: $k_a = 6 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $k_d = 5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$; $K_D = 8 \text{ pM}$. Additional examples of high-quality kinetic analyses are shown in references 569, 619, 747 and 809.

8. Equilibrium analysis

Structure and ubiquitin binding of the ubiquitin-interacting motif. Fisher RD *et al.* (2003) *J. Biol. Chem.* 278: 28976–28984.

Another strong feature of the biosensor is its ability to monitor and quantitate low-affinity interactions. For example, Sundquist and coworkers tested ubiquitin binding to a panel of immobilized peptides to identify essential contact residues. The sensorgrams for one interaction are shown in Fig. 10(A) and the binding isotherms for six of the peptides are shown in Fig. 10(B). Although these interactions were weak, the analysis yielded reproducible responses for the low-affinity mutant peptides that could be fit to obtain

binding constants approaching the mM range. References 167, 223, 448, 459 and 815 also include well-performed equilibrium analyses and references 201, 384, 389, 412 and 779 demonstrate the agreement between affinities determined by both kinetic and equilibrium analyses.

9. Competition analysis

Probing the interactions of phosphosulfomannans with angiogenic growth factors by surface plasmon resonance. Cochran S *et al.* (2003) *J. Med. Chem.* 46: 4601–4608.

Equilibrium dissociation constants can be determined directly as shown in Fig. 10, but can also be determined from competition studies. For example, Cochran *et al.* used this type of analysis to determine the affinities of oligosaccharide anti-tumor agents for the growth factors FGF-1, FGF-2, and VEGF (Fig. 11). Using an immobilized heparin surface to determine the concentration of free growth factor in solution, these researchers determined the optimal oligosaccharide chain length and degrees of phosphorylation and sulfation required to induce high-affinity binding. Using a similar assay, He *et al.* determined the solution-based

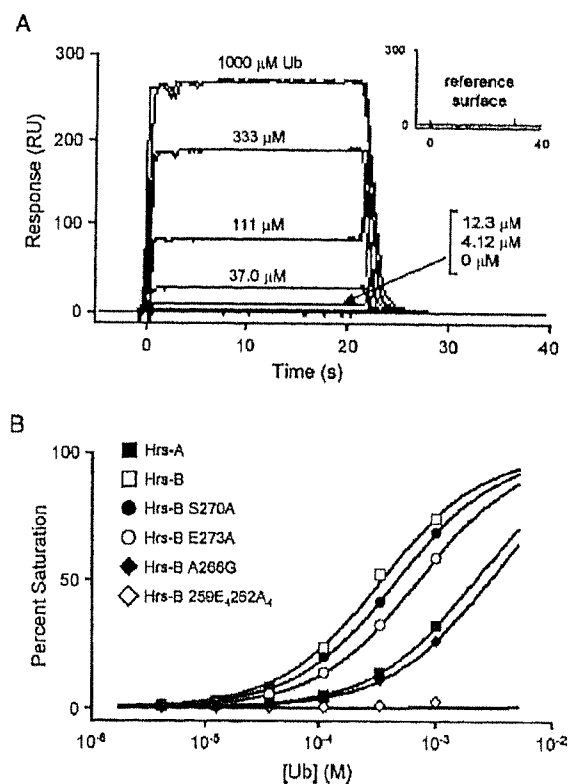


Figure 10. Equilibrium analysis of a protein-peptide interaction. (A) Responses for ubiquitin (Ub) in solution binding to an immobilized peptide, Hrs-B, which encompassed a Ub-interacting motif. (Inset: Ub injected over a reference surface.) Fitting the responses at equilibrium ($t = 5\text{--}15 \text{ s}$) plotted vs Ub concentration to a simple binding isotherm yielded an interaction affinity of $291 \pm 12 \text{ } \mu\text{M}$. (B) Isotherms for Ub binding to wild type and mutant peptides. Reproduced from reference 473 with permission from the American Society for Biochemistry and Molecular Biology (c) 2003.

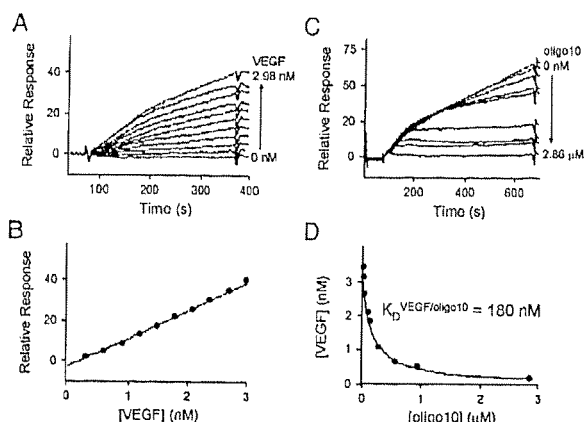


Figure 11. Solution competition analysis to determine the affinity of VEGF for oligosaccharide 10. (A) Sensorgrams obtained for a concentration series of VEGF binding to immobilized heparin. (B) Responses from (A) plotted vs VEGF concentration to yield the standard curve. (C) Sensorgrams obtained for VEGF (2.98 nM) binding to heparin as the concentration of oligo10 increases. (D) Free VEGF concentration plotted vs oligo10 concentration and fit to a simple binding isotherm to obtain the solution-phase affinity for the VEGF/oligo10 interaction. Adapted from reference 709 with permission from the American Chemical Society © 2003.

affinities constants for CoA/acylCoA dehydrogenase interactions to identify the key enzyme residues responsible for substrate specificity⁷⁹² and Carnahan *et al.* obtained the affinity for an antibody/antigen interaction (and complemented this competition analysis with a direct kinetic analysis performed in the opposite orientation).²⁵¹

10. Ligand preparation

Kinetics and energetics of the binding between barley α -amylase/subtilisin inhibitor and barley α -amylase 2 analyzed by surface plasmon resonance and isothermal titration calorimetry. Nielsen PK *et al.* (2003) *Biochemistry* 42: 1478–1487.

Nielsen *et al.* detailed a ligand immobilization method that is rapidly gaining popularity (also see references 78, 349, 441, 450 and 744). We refer to it as 'minimal biotinylation'. By adding a substoichiometric amount of biotinylation-

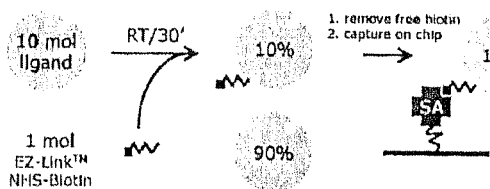


Figure 12. Schematic of minimal ligand biotinylation procedure. Ligand and biotin are mixed at a 10:1 ratio in buffer (pH $\approx$ 7) and allowed to react for 30 min at room temperature. To selectively immobilize biotinylated ligand, the mixture is then passed over a fast desalting column (e.g. Pharmacia[®] PD-10) to remove free biotin and then injected across a streptavidin (SA)-coated chip.

ing agent to the ligand solution, we favor modifying only a single residue on the ligand. It is an efficient yet gentle method to prepare an active, stable ligand surface because it avoids exposing the ligand to the low-pH, low-salt environment that is used during standard amine coupling. Minimal biotinylation is quick (requiring less than 1 h total) and straightforward (the steps are outlined in Fig. 12). In addition, it can be performed in standard buffers like HEPES-buffered saline and the variety of available EZLink[™] biotinylating agents (of varying linker lengths and targeting different reactive group) makes this method chemically feasible for almost any system. We highly recommend trying this method the next time you have a ligand that loses activity when it is immobilized through standard amine coupling.

11. Ligand capture

Determination of the energetics governing the regulatory step in growth hormone-induced receptor homodimerization. Bernat B *et al.* (2003) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 100: 952–957.

Kossiakoff and co-workers used a ligand-capturing assay to characterize the two-step hormone-induced dimerization of human growth hormone receptor.^{363,438} First, receptor was immobilized on the sensor chip surface, then the ligand (human growth hormone) was captured and, finally, receptor was injected over the receptor–ligand complex. Since the interaction could be fully disrupted by the regeneration conditions, the immobilized receptor surface was used to screen panels of mutants to identify residues in both the hormone and receptor that were essential for binding. Hormone–receptor pairs of interest were then further examined to obtain kinetic rate constants that described assembly of the trimolecular complex (one example is shown in Fig. 13). Although this analysis was complicated

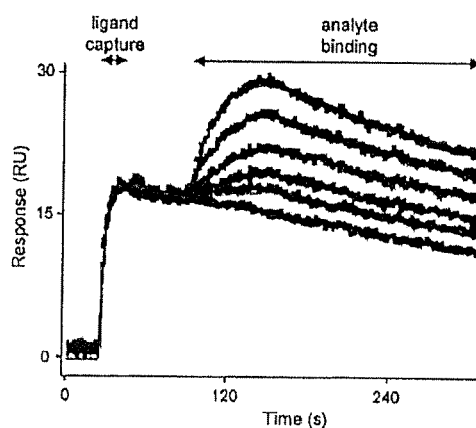


Figure 13. Kinetic analysis of human growth hormone receptor homodimerization. Hormone was first captured by immobilized receptor and then the kinetics of soluble receptor binding to the complex on the surface was measured. The grey lines depict the fit of the data to a simple interaction model that accounts for the slow dissociation of ligand from the surface. Adapted from reference 363 with permission from the National Academy of Sciences, USA © 2003.

by the dissociation of ligand from the surface during the analyte binding cycle, the kinetics of this interaction could be determined by applying a fitting model that accounted for the background decay.

Other researchers expanded on the theme of using the surface as a scaffold for molecular assembly. For example, Stenlund *et al.* developed a 'capture and reconstitution' method to examine membrane-associated receptors.⁴³⁰ Chemokine receptors were first captured from crude cell preparations by immobilized antibodies and a lipid bilayer was then reconstituted on the surface to maintain the receptors' activities. Demonstrating the biosensor's contribution in physical science/engineering applications, Ryadnov *et al.* built and characterized stable ternary peptide complexes that serve as a model system for self-assembling nanoscale networks.⁵²²

12. Experiment description

Discovery of an inhibitor of a transcription factor using small molecule microarrays and diversity-oriented synthesis. Koehler AN *et al.* (2003) *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 125: 8420–8421.

Koehler *et al.* included an exceptionally detailed experimental section in the supporting information that accompanies their article describing small-molecule transcription factor inhibitors. These authors outlined how to maintain a well-running biosensor, as well as how to equilibrate the instrument fully when changing buffers. In addition, they explained the steps involved in the immobilization of anti-GST and capture of ligand, the construction of a calibration curve to correct for the excluded-volume effect of the co-solvent dimethylformamide, and the binding analysis of the analyte concentration series. Including details like these make it easy for other biosensor users to replicate the experiment or adapt the methods to other applications, as well as to determine the expertise of the user and identify potential artifacts that may complicate the analysis.

13. Data presentation

Thermodynamic analysis of degenerate recognition by the NKG2D immunoreceptor: not induced fit but rigid adaptation. McFarland BJ, Strong RK (2003) *Immunity* 19: 803–812.

As we have said before, publishing figures of primary data and fits is critical. Figure 14 exemplifies the type of figures we like to see when kinetic and/or affinity parameters are reported. Simply from looking at these two panels, we can evaluate the quality of the experiment, as well as the mechanistic differences between the two interactions. In the kinetic analysis [Fig. 14(A)], we see significant curvature in the association phase of the highest responses and measurable decay in the dissociation phase. In the equilibrium analysis [Fig. 14(B)], the analyte concentrations span the reported K_D and a plateau in response (indicating equilibrium was achieved) is evident in each sensorgram. Additional examples of informative figures from well-performed experiments are found in references 81, 134, 212, 229, 264, 338, 349, 362, 425, 448, 561, 619 and 747.

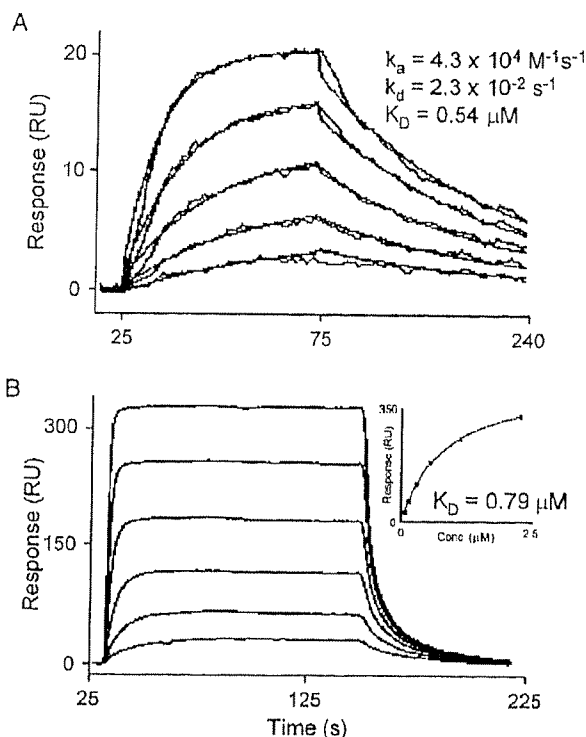


Figure 14. Characterization of immunoreceptor NKG2D binding to its ligands, MIC-A and MIC-B. (A) Kinetic analysis of 0.16–2.5 μM NKG2D binding to immobilized MIC-A. The overlaid lines represent the fit of the data to a simple 1:1 interaction model. (B) Equilibrium analysis of 0.06–2.3 μM NKG2D binding to immobilized MIC-B. The inset shows the responses at equilibrium (≈ 125 s) plotted vs the injected NKG2D concentrations and fit to a simple binding isotherm. Adapted from reference 412 with permission from Elsevier © 2003.

PRESENTING INFORMATIVE FIGURES

Whenever possible, it is best to present data as figures. It is much easier to interpret trends and extract information from graphical forms than from tables. For example, in Fig. 1 we present the distribution of papers published from different countries around the world and by states within the USA. This graphical representation makes it easy to interpret a large set of information. A less appealing way of presenting this same data would have been to list the countries and states in a table.

Presenting biosensor data in a graphical form is also extremely important. Compared with a table of numbers with chi-square values, a figure of primary response data allows the reader to judge quickly the quality of the data, as well as its interpretation. Some 70% of the year 2003 articles included at least one figure of primary data. While this is a tremendous improvement over years past (in which only $\sim 40\%$ of articles included a figure), it means that we cannot gauge the quality of data described in the other 30%. Even more unfortunately, only 25% of the quantitative analyses showed both data and fits and many of these were of mediocre quality. For example, only 8% (28 out of the 351 articles published in 2003) that reported kinetic

rate constants included an information-rich figure of sensorgrams overlaid with a simple fit. The remaining 92% of kinetic analyses included either figures of data that were highly suspect or no figures of biosensor data whatsoever, so we were unable to judge the merit of the experiment.

The figures we have included from the spotlighted articles are excellent examples of informative, well-presented figures. Look at the biosensor data in Fig. 3 again. It is easy to compare the reproducibility of the responses within an experiment, as well as between experimenters. It is also possible to judge the quality of the fit based on how well the modeled data (red lines) overlay the experimental data (black lines). Now look at the data in Fig. 4. Here are eight different forms of the protein studied under two different conditions. It is very easy to interpret visually which mutations and buffer conditions had an effect on the binding interaction and which did not.

The binding profiles recorded from a biosensor can tell you a lot about a system even without fitting the data to an interaction model. The response for a simple 1:1 interaction, in which two molecules must come together to form a complex, should be single exponential in the association and dissociation phase. The binding responses modeled in Fig. 15 are examples of four simple interactions that differ in their kinetics but are all described by single exponentials. In Fig. 16, we present deviations from a single exponential curve that we commonly see in the literature. We group these deviations into four general classes: instrument artifacts, poor quality reagents, poor experimental design, or complex biology.

Figure 16(A) and (B) are examples of responses that result from mass transport effects. In order for an analyte to bind to a ligand on the sensor surface it must first diffuse down to the surface. If the binding rate is faster than the diffusion rate, then a concentration gradient will form in the flow cell and the interaction will be limited by the diffusion event. When this happens, the binding response will be linear in the initial phases of the reaction [Fig. 16(A)]. In some cases, by reducing the surface capacity or increasing the flow rate it is possible to eliminate the mass transport effect. Otherwise, it is appropriate to fit the data using a model that accounts for the mass transport step.⁷⁷⁹ Figure 16(B) is an example of binding data that are so highly limited by mass transport that concentration gradients develop within the dextran layer at the sensor surface. When this occurs, the binding response has a sigmoidal shape. Modeling these types of data becomes very challenging and it is often best to redesign the experiment to minimize the mass transport event.

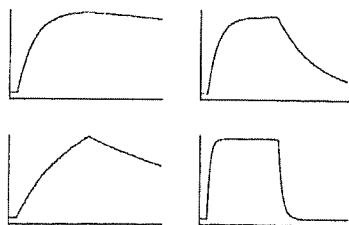


Figure 15. Examples of single-exponential profiles for simple binding interactions.

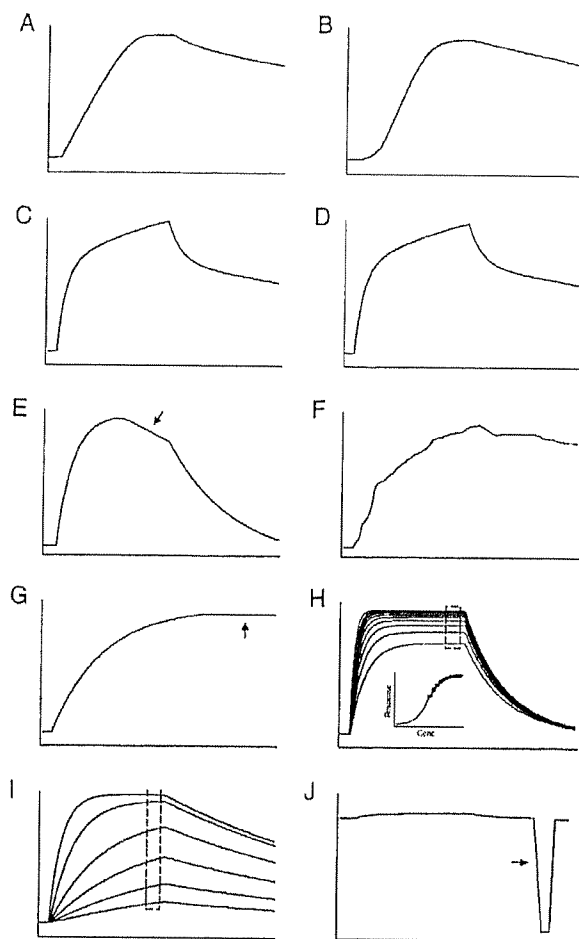


Figure 16. Binding responses that are not described by a simple 1:1 interaction model or exhibit problems relating to instrument function, assay design, and data presentation. (A) Profile of a 1:1 interaction influenced by mass transport. (B) Sigmoidal profile produced by a highly mass transported-limited interaction. (C) Complex profile described by heterogeneous binding model. (D) Complex profile described by a conformational change model. (E) Sensorgram showing signal decay at the end of the association phase (marked by the arrow) due to sample plug dispersion. (F) Bumpy sensorgram produced by impure reagents or a fouled instrument. (G) Sensorgram lacking sufficient decay in the dissociation phase (marked by the arrow) to measure k_{off} . (H) Main panel: sensorgrams obtained for a narrow analyte concentration series. Inset: Response intensities at the end of the association phase (enclosed by the box in the main panel) plotted on a log scale against analyte concentration. (I) Sensorgrams inappropriately used for an equilibrium analysis even though some of the responses have not reached equilibrium by the end of the association phase (enclosed by the box). (J) Sensorgram scaled with respect to regeneration pulse (marked by the arrow), which obscures the signal produced by the binding interaction.

Two other sensorgram profiles that commonly appear in the literature are depicted in Fig. 16(C,D). These binding profiles are composed of multiple exponentials. Typically the association phase never reaches equilibrium. It is striking to see the number of publications that attribute this deviation from a simple model as due to some interesting complex mechanism (conformational changes, allosteric interactions, or multiphasic binding events). Instead, a vast

majority of the time the deviation is produced by heterogeneity in either the ligand or analyte (most often it is in the ligand and is induced by the immobilization process). Regardless of the cause, it is very difficult to resolve binding constants from these types of data sets. For example, the data shown in Fig. 16(C,D) were generated for two different types of reaction mechanisms (heterogeneity and conformational change, respectively), but to the eye and to the fitting programs these data sets look identical. Both models will fit each of these data sets equally well. We often find investigators reporting the results from fitting a conformational change model to these types of data and claiming they have uncovered some interesting binding mechanism. While it is true that there could be a number of macromolecular interactions that involve intricate mechanisms, poor experimental design and poor quality reagents are more than likely the cause of complex binding profiles.

Figure 16(E,F) depicts sensorgrams that indicate mechanical and/or sample issues. For example, the decay in response at the end of the association phase in Fig. 16(E) is sometimes interpreted as resulting from a conformational change, but more than likely it is caused by dispersion of the sample plug. The injected sample is being diluted as it passes through the flow system. This could be an indication that the fluidic cartridge needs cleaning/replacing or the sample-handling valve is not functioning properly. Profiles like the 'bumpy' sensorgram shown in Fig. 16(F) are often produced by aggregates in the analyte, particulates in the running buffer, or an instrument that needs to be cleaned. Centrifuging the analyte samples, filtering and degassing the running buffer, and performing the 'desorb' command (for Biacore instruments) can help correct this problem.

The sensorgrams shown in Fig. 16(G,H,I) arise from experimental design problems. In Fig. 16(G), we see no decay in the response during the dissociation phase and therefore a k_d determined from this sensorgram would be unreliable. As Seet *et al.* demonstrated [as shown in Fig. 9(D) and reference 196], dissociation of the complex should be monitored until significant decay in the response is observed. A general rule is that if your eye can see the decay (and the decay is reproducible across repeated experiments) then the dissociation rate can be reliably determined. With Biacore instruments, it is possible to monitor the dissociation phase for up to 24 h, which sets the limit on the slowest determinable k_d at $\sim 1 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

Figure 16(H) shows the binding responses for a very narrow concentration range of analyte. We refer to this example as the 'pearls on a string' approach because the responses are bunched together when plotted vs concentration [Fig. 16(H) inset]. While this may be fine in the fashion world, it is a faux pas from a statistical standpoint. To rigorously analyze an interaction requires testing the analyte over a wide concentration range—ideally, from

concentrations that produce little or no apparent binding to concentrations that saturate the ligand surface. Expanding the analysis shown in Fig. 16(H) to include more dilute samples would be simple since it consumes little material. Although the example we have shown here is of an equilibrium analysis, testing a wide range of analyte concentrations is critical in a kinetic analysis as well.

Figure 16(I) is an example of measuring the binding interaction across a wide range of concentrations, which is good except that we all too often see investigators using this type of data to perform an equilibrium analysis. The problem here is that the responses for all of the analyte concentrations have not reached equilibrium. To obtain useable data, the investigator would need to extend the time of the association phase.

Figure 16(J) illustrates a common data presentation issue. In this example, the entire binding cycle is being presented to the reader, including the dip due to the regeneration pulse. On this scale, it becomes difficult to see the relevant information contained in the association and dissociation phase. While it is important to confirm that surface regeneration was complete, it is better demonstrated by showing the overlay of replicate analyte injections.^{196,436,669,779}

As a rule, if you want the reader to feel confident in the rate constants you report from biosensor data, you need to show the data and fit since the data reveal the quality of the experiment and the fit justifies the interpretation of the interaction. For a kinetic analysis, this means including a figure of the binding responses for an analyte concentration series overlaid with the model fit, for equilibrium and inhibition/competition analyses the analyte concentration series and binding isotherm should be shown, and for a concentration analysis it would be good to see at least a subset of the sensorgrams obtained for the standards and samples, as well as the calibration curve. There is clearly room for improvement in how biosensor data are presented in the literature.

SUMMARY

Based on the number of disappointingly low-quality biosensor articles we read this past year, it is not surprising that the scientific community in general still regards data obtained from this technology with some suspicion. This is regrettable since the biosensor's capabilities have been proven. We are excited, however, about what biosensors can offer in the study of almost any biological system and want this technology to be used to its full potential. We are also confident that with good reagents and attention to detail most biosensor users can obtain high-quality data. To illustrate this point, we spotlighted thirteen important contributions that should advance the biosensor's application and its reputation.

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