Allosteric probe-driven catalytic CRISPR-Cas12a and dual-colored persistent luminescence nanoparticles tandem biosensing for ultra-sensitive MRSA detection

Shuai Liu¹, Zishan Ding¹, Zhiyong Liu¹, Yang Zhou¹, Xing Lu¹, Man Shen¹, Xianling Dai¹, Hanqing Xu¹, Jun Wang¹, Jing Bao¹, and Ming Chen¹

¹Third Military Medical University Southwest Hospital

September 14, 2024

Abstract

Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) is a prevalent and highly virulent bacterium encountered in clinical settings. Due to its uneven drug resistance profile and the multitude of factors influencing detection rates, precise and sensitive identification of MRSA is essential. Herein, we developed a detection system (called "APC-Cas-PLNPs") that can ultra-sensitive detection for MRSA, using nucleic acid-based allosteric probe, CRISPR-Cas12a and dual-colored persistent luminescent nanoparticles tandem detection. Simply, allosteric probe was used for specifically recognize MRSA and cyclic signal amplification, and then initiated catalytic CRISPR-Cas12a collateral cleavage. Meanwhile, red-emitting ZnGa2O4:Cr (ZGC) bonded with BHQ3 modified single-stranded DNA to create a detection probe known as ZGC@BHQ3, and green-emitting Zn2GeO4:Mn (ZGM) was utilized as the reference probe and electrostatically bound to both probes, forming the ratiometric luminescence sensor ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM for CRISPR-Cas12a detection.With this strategy, the non-nucleic acid targets were dexterously converted into fluorescent signals. This tandem detection system eliminates interference from background fluorescence and external factors, and provided a novel signal amplification and conversion strategy, which enables accurate and sensitive quantification of MRSA (1-105 CFU/mL) without requiring isolation and DNA extraction. Moreover, APC-Cas-PLNPs can recognize low levels of MRSA in food samples such as milk and orange juice, as well as in mouse serum, demonstrating greater sensitivity compared to real-time PCR. This method holds significant potential application value in food detection and early diagnosis of pathogenic bacteria, highlighting its broad applicability.

1	Allosteric probe-driven catalytic CRISPR-Cas12a and dual-colored
2	persistent luminescence nanoparticles tandem biosensing for ultra-sensitive
3	MRSA detection
4	Shuai Liu ^{1†} , Zishan Ding ^{1†} , Zhiyong Liu ¹ , Yang Zhou ¹ , Xing Lu ¹ , Man Shen ¹ ,
5	Xianling Dai ¹ , Hanqing Xu ¹ , Jun Wang ¹ *, Jing Bao ¹ *, Ming Chen ^{1,2, *}
6	¹ Department of Clinical Laboratory Medicine, Southwest Hospital, Third Military
7	Medical University (Army Medical University), Chongqing 400038, P. R. China;
8	² College of Pharmacy and Laboratory Medicine, Third Military Medical
9	University (Army Medical University), Chongqing 400038, China;
10	[†] Shuai Liu, Zishan Ding contributed equally to the writing of manuscript.
11	*Corresponding author. E-mail addresses: wangjun@tmmu.edu.cn (J. Wang),
12	baojing_1991@tmmu.edu.cn (J. Bao), chenming1971@tmmu.edu.cn (M. Chen).

13 Abstract

Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) is a prevalent and highly 14 virulent bacterium encountered in clinical settings. Due to its uneven drug resistance 15 profile and the multitude of factors influencing detection rates, precise and sensitive 16 identification of MRSA is essential. Herein, we developed a detection system (called 17 "APC-Cas-PLNPs") that can ultra-sensitive detection for MRSA, using nucleic acid-18 based allosteric probe, CRISPR-Cas12a and dual-colored persistent luminescent 19 nanoparticles tandem detection. Simply, allosteric probe was used for specifically 20 21 recognize MRSA and cyclic signal amplification, and then initiated catalytic CRISPR-Cas12a collateral cleavage. Meanwhile, red-emitting ZnGa₂O₄:Cr (ZGC) bonded with 22 BHQ3 modified single-stranded DNA to create a detection probe known as 23 24 ZGC@BHQ3, and green-emitting Zn₂GeO₄:Mn (ZGM) was utilized as the reference probe and electrostatically bound to both probes, forming the ratiometric luminescence 25 sensor ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM for CRISPR-Cas12a detection.With this strategy, the non-26 27 nucleic acid targets were dexterously converted into fluorescent signals. This tandem detection system eliminates interference from background fluorescence and external 28 factors, and provided a novel signal amplification and conversion strategy, which 29 enables accurate and sensitive quantification of MRSA (1-10⁵ CFU/mL) without 30 requiring isolation and DNA extraction. Moreover, APC-Cas-PLNPs can recognize low 31 levels of MRSA in food samples such as milk and orange juice, as well as in mouse 32 serum, demonstrating greater sensitivity compared to real-time PCR. This method holds 33 significant potential application value in food detection and early diagnosis of 34

- 35 pathogenic bacteria, highlighting its broad applicability.
- 36
- 37 Keywords: Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA); Allosteric probe;
- 38 CRISPR-Cas12a; Ratiometric luminescence sensor; Tandem detection system
- 39

40 **1 Introduction**

Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA) is a prevalent clinical 41 antibiotic-resistant pathogen with robust pathogenicity and resistance to most 42 antibiotics, making infection treatment challenging.^{1,2} Therefore, the prompt and 43 precise detection and identification of MRSA are crucial in curbing the spread of this 44 pathogen. Conventional methods for MRSA detection include traditional bacterial 45 isolation culture, amplification-based molecular diagnostic techniques and matrix 46 assisted laser desorption ionization time of flight mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF).³⁻ 47 ⁵ However, these approaches often entail intricate and time-consuming programs, 48 limiting their suitability for swift and on-site monitoring of microbial contamination.⁶ 49 Particularly in the initial phases of pathogen infection, effectively quantifying low 50 51 levels of pathogen poses a challenge. Hence, it is imperative to devise straightforward and cost-effective techniques for detecting minute traces of MRSA with high sensitivity 52 and specificity, thereby facilitating targeted treatment options in clinical settings. 53

The CRISPR-Cas system, renowned for its swift and precise diagnostic 54 capabilities in identifying and cleaving specific nucleic acid fragments,⁷⁻⁹ has been 55 harnessed alongside nucleic acid amplification modules to enable nucleic acid signal 56 amplification detection. For example, researchers have pioneered isothermal 57 amplification techniques, such as loop mediated isothermal amplification (LAMP),¹⁰ 58 recombinase polymerase amplification (RPA),¹¹ and nucleic acid sequence 59 amplification (NASBA)¹² in combination with CRISPR-Cas system. This synergy not 60 only enhances the sensitivity and specificity of CRISPR detection,^{13, 14} but also obviates 61

the need for thermal cyclers typically required by PCR. Nevertheless, pathogens 62 detection often necessitates prior nucleic acid extraction of the target before 63 amplification, a process involving multiple enzymes that may lead to cross-64 contamination and non-specific amplification.^{15, 16} Recent studies have highlighted that 65 aptamer and non-nucleic acid targets exhibit remarkable affinity and specificity for 66 recognition under enzyme-free conditions, thereby circumventing the need for nucleic 67 acid extraction.^{17, 18} Consequently, it can be deduced that by designing allosteric probe 68 (AP) as binding units and utilizing allosteric DNA molecules to catalyze DNA reactions, 69 linear signal amplification can be generated, achieving a one-pot reaction of 70 amplification process and CRISPR-Cas reaction concurrently. 71

Researchers have commonly utilized the trans cleavage properties of Cas enzymes 72 to convert detection signals into light signals.^{19, 20} Traditional molecular beacons are 73 obtained by connecting fluorescent groups with short nucleic acid chains and 74 fluorescence-quenching groups, which have low luminosity, monochromatic emission, 75 and small Stokes shift between excitation and emission peaks.²¹ Therefore, experiments 76 using such molecular beacons require highly sensitive optical equipment to readout, 77 which in turn requires amplification of target nucleic acids to enhance Cas activity.^{22,} 78 23 In addition, the detection relying on a singular fluorescence signal is susceptible to 79 variations in testing conditions, potentially resulting in the generation of false positive 80 outcomes.²⁴ The ratiometric detection method, incorporating a reference signal, enables 81 self-correction of fluorescence detection results and improves detection precision, 82 thereby eliminating the influence of the aforementioned adverse factors.²⁵ Currently, 83

the majority of ratiometric luminescence sensors necessitate continuous external excitation light sources, making it challenging to circumvent interference within the sample matrix, consequently significantly affecting target detection accuracy.^{26, 27}

Persistent luminescent nanoparticles (PLNPs), as an emerging photonic 87 nanomaterial, exhibit unique persistent luminescent properties after the cease of 88 excitation, surpassing traditional luminescent materials and eliminating 89 autofluorescence interference in biosensing and biomedical imaging.^{28, 29} Besides, the 90 luminosity of PLNPs is several orders of magnitude higher than that of commonly used 91 fluorescent groups such as 5-FAM (5-Carboxy fluorescein) and Cy3 (Sulfo-Cyanine3), 92 with strong ultraviolet absorption and large emission offset, as well as special 93 photostability.³⁰ Due to their unique optical properties, PLNPs are ideal energy donors 94 for luminescence resonance energy transfer (LRET).³¹ For example, Guo et al. 95 developed a ratiometric aptasensor based on dual color PLNPs for precise detection of 96 ochratoxin A. The sensor was not affected by real-time excitation and autofluorescence, 97 with a detection limit as low as 3.4 pg mL⁻¹.³² Similarly, Pan et al. also reported a 98 PLNPs-based ratiometric sensor for detecting trace aflatoxin B1 in food samples.³³ 99 Although the above methods eliminate the interference of autofluorescence by utilizing 100 PLNPs-based ratiometric sensor, they do not combine the target amplification module 101 with the sensor, which seriously reduces the sensitivity of detection. To improve the 102 signal output, the target amplification module in tandem with the sensor module is 103 highly desired. However, to the best of our knowledge, there have been no documented 104 instances of utilizing AP to induce CRISPR-Cas12a coupled with a PLNPs-based 105

ratiometric luminescence sensor for the quantification of pathogens to achieve ultra-sensitive detection.

Herein, we designed and synthesized an AP initiated catalysis CRISPR-Cas12a 108 collateral cleavage in tandem with a PLNPs-based dual-color ratiometric luminescence 109 sensor ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM for pathogen detection, termed the "APC-Cas-PLNPs" 110 system. This detection system provides a rapid, ultra-sensitive, and remarkably specific 111 approach for direct pathogen detection, eliminating the need for strain isolation and 112 nucleic acid extraction. Additionally, the capability of APC-Cas-PLNPs in detecting 113 114 low-level MRSA in food samples like milk and orange juice, as well as in mouse serum, was validated in comparison with real-time PCR. The results of this research suggest 115 that APC-Cas-PLNPs holds great potential for the detection of pathogenic bacteria in 116 117 food safety and clinical diagnosis.

118

119 2 Materials and methods

120 In compliance with the word count restriction, this part has been put in 121 supplementary information.

122

123 **3 Results and discussion**

124 **3.1 Mechanism and fabrication of the APC-Cas-PLNPs**

In the initial phase of our research (Fig. 1a), a distinctive allosteric probe (AP) was employed. This probe comprises a single-stranded DNA molecule with three distinct functional domains: the aptamer domain (blue) for MRSA recognition, the primerbinding site domain (green), and the stem sequence domain (red). The aptamer

developed by Turek et al. using Cell SELEX technology, to specifically recognize 129 MRSA was selected as the DNA sequence of the AP aptamer domain, with a sequence 130 length (75 nt) and dissociation constant ($K_d = 1.6 \pm 0.5 \times 10^2$ nmol/L).³⁴ To maintain 131 the structural stability and prevent self-elongation, a phosphate group was introduced 132 133 at the 3' end of the AP, thereby increasing the resistance to enzymatic hydrolysis. In the absence of MRSA, the AP remains inactive, adopting a hairpin structure that conceals 134 the primer-binding site domain, thereby hindering the downstream reactions. However, 135 upon recognition and binding of MRSA by the aptamer domain of AP, the hairpin 136 137 structure is destabilized, resulting in an active configuration that allows primer annealing and exposes the binding site domain. Subsequently, with the assistance of 138 DNA polymerase, AP functions as a template for the production of double-stranded 139 140 DNA (dsDNA), and releases MRSA for the next catalytic cycle, achieving signal amplification. In downstream reactions involving Cas12a-crRNA, the Wedge (WED) 141 and PAM-interacting (PI) domains of Cas12a proteins recognize the protospacer 142 adjacent motif (PAM) sequence of dsDNA targets, facilitating their unfolding.³⁵ The 143 Cas12a-crRNA complex then binds to proximal dsDNA, initiating the trans-cleavage 144 activity of Cas12a. 145

In the second section, we have crafted a dual-color ratiometric luminescence sensor. As depicted in Fig. 1b and Fig. 3a, cDNA-BHQ3 (a BHQ3-modified chain) modified ZGC with red-emitting (696 nm) ZGC (ZGC@BHQ3) was used as a detection signal. Meanwhile, green-emitting (533 nm) ZGM was methylated to prepare positively charged ZGM-N⁺(CH₃)₃ as a reference signal. The ratiometric luminescence sensor,

ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM, was fabricated via the electrostatic interaction of the positively 151 charged ZGM-N⁺(CH₃)₃ with the negatively charged ZGC@BHQ3. When MRSA is 152 recognized by the AP, Cas12a is activated, acquiring the capability to randomly cleave 153 single chains and reinstating the red fluorescence signal of ZGC, whereas the 154 fluorescence of ZGM remains unaltered. The entire sample-to-result process took 155 approximately 55 min. Consequently, the ingenious APC-Cas-PLNPs system facilitates 156 ultrasensitive and highly specific detection of MRSA, which eliminates the 157 autofluorescence and external interference. 158

159

3.2 Analysis of AP performance

As illustrated in Fig. 2a, to affirm the specific binding of AP to MRSA and its 160 subsequent transition to an active structure, we synthesized covalently modified AP, 161 wherein the fluorescent group FAM is covalently attached to the 3' end of primer-162 binding site domain, while the quenching group BHQ1 is covalently and internally 163 linked to the 5' end of the aptamer domain. The inverted fluorescence microscope image 164 verifies that AP has been combined with MRSA and switched to the active structure 165 (Fig. 2a). In addition, AP was mixed with different pathogenic bacteria for incubation 166 to observe fluorescence images and fluorescence intensity (Fig. S1). Therefore, it can 167 be considered that the constructed AP exhibited strong specificity for MRSA. To further 168 validate that the combination of AP and MRSA triggered the amplification of dsDNA, 169 the results of polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) analysis reveal that AP still 170 maintained its original structure (Line3) when AP mixed solely with primer (Line2) or 171 172 simultaneously with primer and Klenow Fragment (KF) DNA polymerase. However, in the presence of MRSA, AP underwent structural unfolding, and an extension reaction 173

upon co-incubation with the primer and KF DNA polymerase was triggered, which 174 resulted in the generation of a substantial amount of dsDNA (Line4) (Fig. 2b). 175 176 Moreover, the trans-cleavage activity of CRISPR-Cas12a was also confirmed. As illustrated in Fig. 2c, in the presence of target dsDNA, Cas12a exhibited robust activity 177 178 under the guidance of crRNA.

To demonstrate the stability of AP in the absence of MRSA, the stem length in 179 the AP structure was investigated. The variations in fluorescence intensity (\triangle intensity) 180 of AP to 6 different stem lengths (9, 10, 12, 14, 15 and 16 bp) were monitored (Fig. 2d). 181 The \triangle intensity decreases along with the stem length increase, regardless of the 182 presence or absence of MRSA. However, as the stem length increased from 9 bp to 14 183 bp, a significant decrease in background signal and a slight decrease of signal resulted 184 185 in an increase in the signal-to-background ratio (S/BG) (blue line), and then decreased obviously from 14 bp to 16 bp. Therefore, it can be inferred that the excessively long 186 stem length leads to overly stable AP, hindering the unfolding of the AP structure, which 187 188 is detrimental to subsequent dsDNA amplification and Cas12a activation. These observations align well with the computed Gibbs free energy (ΔG) and melting 189 temperature (T_m) values of AP with different lengths of stem (Table S2). The 190 aforementioned data underscores that the AP with a stem length of 14 bp (AP-14 stem) 191 192 has excellent stability and state switching dynamics, which was chosen as the AP in the APC-Cas-PLNPs system. 193

3.3 Preparation and characterization of ratiometric luminescence sensor 194

The elaborate design and meticulous preparation of the innovative ratiometric 195 luminescence sensor ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM are highlighted in Fig. 3a. The preparation of 196

197	positively charged ZGM-N ⁺ (CH ₃) ₃ as a reference probe by methylation of ZGM.
198	cDNA-BHQ3 was connected to ZGC surface to form ZGC@BHQ3 as the detection
199	probe. ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM was finally obtained by combining positively charged
200	ZGM-N ⁺ (CH ₃) ₃ with negatively charged ZGC@BHQ3 via electrostatic interaction.
201	As depicted in Fig. 3b, TEM image reveals that the ZGM display a typical rod-like
202	morphology, with a length between 40-75 nm. HR-TEM reveals that the synthesized
203	ZGM has high crystallinity, and the distance between the two adjacent lattice fringes is
204	0.29 nm, which is corresponding to the distance between the (113) lattice planes.
205	Additionally, the power X-ray diffraction (XRD) results provide unequivocal evidence
206	that ZGM adopts a pristine diamond-like crystal structure of Zn_2GeO_4 (Fig. S2),
207	demonstrating its pristine purity and crystallinity. Moreover, high-angle annular dark-
208	field scanning TEM (HAADF) imaging and energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) (Fig.
209	S3a) confirmed the presence of Zn, Ge, Mn and O elements in the structures of ZGM.
210	In order to bind the ZGC, the ZGM are functionalized with amino group, then the
211	nanorods were further reacted with CH ₃ I to obtain ZGM-N ⁺ (CH ₃) ₃ . FT-IR spectra
212	showed that the characteristic peaks of ZGM-N ⁺ (CH ₃) ₃ at 3433 cm ⁻¹ , 2927-2855 cm ⁻¹ ,
213	1197 cm ⁻¹ and 1076 cm ⁻¹ are ascribed to the stretching vibration of -NH ₂ , -CH ₂ -, C-N
214	and -Si-O-Si-, respectively, indicating the $-N^+(CH_3)_3$ group was successful modified on
215	the surface of the ZGM (Fig. S4a). Moreover, after the modification, the hydrodynamic
216	size of ZGM-N ⁺ (CH ₃) ₃ increased significantly (Fig. 3e), and the zeta potential changed
217	from -33.2 \pm 3.2 mV to 32.9 \pm 2.8 mV (Fig. 3g), both of which serve as definitive
218	indicators of the successful preparation of ZGM-N ⁺ (CH ₃) ₃ .

219	Meanwhile, the ZGC were synthesized by doping the Cr ³⁺ into the matrix ZnGa ₂ O ₄
220	via hydrothermal method. Fig. 3c and Fig. S2 shows that the ZGC are granular with the
221	diameters in the range of 5-9 nm, and the ZGC have the standard rhombic crystal
222	structure of ZnGa ₂ O ₄ , with a distance of 0.25 nm between two neighboring lattice
223	planes, which corresponds to the distance between the (311) lattice planes. In addition,
224	HAADF imaging and EDS (Fig. S3b) confirmed the presence of the elements Zn, Ga,
225	Cr and O in the ZGC. In order to conjugate the cDNA-BHQ3, the ZGC was
226	functionalized amino groups. The characteristic peaks of ZGC-NH ₂ at 3424 cm ⁻¹ , 2928-
227	2853 cm ⁻¹ and 1062 cm ⁻¹ belonged to the stretching vibration of -NH ₂ , -CH ₂ - and -Si-
228	O-Si-, confirming the successful modification of -NH ₂ (Fig. S4b). Also, the
229	hydrodynamic size of ZGC-NH2 increased compared to ZGC (Fig. 3f) and the zeta
230	potential changed from 23.7 \pm 2.5 mV to 35.0 \pm 3.4 mV (Fig. 3h). Thus, it can be
231	considered that ZGC-NH ₂ was successfully prepared.

Next, to prepare the ratiometric luminescence sensor, we first prepared 232 ZGC@BHQ3 to quench the red fluorescence of ZGC by utilizing the amino and thiol 233 groups reaction between ZGC-NH₂ and cDNA-BHQ3 (5'-SH-234 TATATATCGATGCGCCATCG-BHQ3-3'). As shown in Fig. 3f, the hydrodynamic size 235 of ZGC@BHQ3 had slightly increased compared to ZGC-NH2. Meanwhile, the zeta 236 potential changed from 35.0 ± 2.2 mV to -17.1 ± 1.6 mV, which was attributed to the 237 introduction of a phosphate group in the cDNA-BHQ3 (Fig. 3h). These findings 238 unequivocally indicate the successful preparation of ZGC@BHQ3. Subsequently, the 239 positively charged ZGM-N⁺(CH₃)₃ was combined with the negatively charged 240

241	ZGC@BHQ3 via electrostatic interaction to obtain the ratiometric luminescence sensor
242	ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM. The hydrodynamic size of ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM increased to 712.4
243	\pm 40.2 nm (Fig. 3f) and the zeta potential changed to 15.8 \pm 1.1 mV (Fig. 3h). TEM
244	images revealed a distinct core-shell architecture in the prepared ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM,
245	characterized by a granular ZGC shell adsorbed on a rod-shaped ZGM core (Fig. 3d,
246	white box). The results of HAADF images and EDS indicate the presence of Zn, Ge,
247	Mn, Ga, Cr, and O elements in ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM. Due to the extremely low content
248	of Mn and Cr in the structure of ZGM and ZMC, the element mapping is not significant.
249	It is noteworthy that Ga was conspicuously present in ZGC (white box), absent in ZGM,
250	while Ge, on the other hand, was detected in ZGM but not in the designated area of
251	ZGC. Additionally, the XRD results indicate that ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM has a high
252	crystallinity with diffraction peaks originating from ZnGa ₂ O ₄ and Zn ₂ GeO ₄ (Fig. S2).
253	Collectively, these findings conclusively validate the successful preparation of the
254	ratiometric luminescence sensor, with ZMG and ZGC retaining their inherent
255	morphology and crystalline structure.

256 **3.4 Analysis of ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM performance**

To assess the performance of the ratiometric luminescence sensor ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM, the optical properties of ZGM and ZGC were initially investigated. As depicted in Fig. 4a and b, upon excitation with UV light at 254 nm, ZGM and ZGC exhibited emissions in green and red luminescence at 533 nm and 696 nm, respectively. These typical near infrared emissions were originated from ${}^{4}T_{1}$ (4G)- ${}^{6}A1$ (6S) transition of doped Mn²⁺ and ${}^{2}E \rightarrow {}^{4}A_{2}$ transitions of twisted Cr³⁺.^{36,37} To prove the successful

bioconjugation between ZGC and BHQ3, UV-vis absorption of BHQ3, and emission 263 spectra of ZGC and ZGC@BHQ3 were measured, respectively. As shown in Fig. 4c, 264 265 the quenching rate of BHQ3 on ZGC was determined to be 88.3%, which was due to the shortened distance between ZGC and BHO3, resulting in effective energy transfer. 266 This result offered a minimal background signal for MRSA detection. Besides, ZGM 267 and ZGC have long-lasting afterglow after UV lamp irradiation (254 nm, 5 min), 268 confirming that the prepared ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM has excellent afterglow performance 269 (Fig. 4d). 270

Furthermore, to ascertain the potential impact of single-emissive PLNPs on 271 ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM (Fig. 4e), an exploration into the influence of varying 272 concentrations, test voltages, and durations on fluorescence intensity and fluorescence 273 274 ratio at 537 nm and 696 nm (I_{696}/I_{533}) were investigated. Although the fluorescence intensity of each emission peak gradually increased along with the increase of 275 ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM concentration and test voltage, I₆₉₆/I₅₃₃ remained stable (Fig. 4f 276 277 and g, Fig. S5a and b). Notably, Fig. 4h, Fig. S5c illustrates the fluorescence intensity at 533 nm and 696 nm rapidly decays with time, but the ratio of fluorescence intensity 278 (I_{696}/I_{533}) remains almost unchanged, avoiding the influence of test time on the 279 ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM. In addition, as the storage time changes, the fluorescence intensity 280 and corresponding fluorescence ratio at 535 nm and 696 nm still kept constant, 281 indicating that the ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM shows excellent stability (Fig. 4i, Fig. S5d). The 282 abovementioned results collectively suggest that the developed ratiometric sensor 283 boasts attributes such as immunity to autofluorescence interference, ease of 284

preservation, and significant practical utility. 285

286

3.5 Optimization of the experimental parameters

287 To enhance the efficiency of our experiments, we meticulously fine-tuned the detection conditions. The concentration of AP has a significant impact on the specific 288 recognition of MRSA. The increase of the concentration of AP can increase the catalytic 289 reaction rate and generate a large quantity of dsDNA (containing PAM sites) to activate 290 more Cas12a in APC-Cas-PLNPs. Therefore, we first mixed MRSA (about 10^2 291 CFU/mL) with the AP to investigate the influence of AP concentration on the change 292 293 of fluorescence intensity ratio ($\Delta(I_{696}/I_{533})$). As shown in Fig. S6a and S7a, $\Delta(I_{696}/I_{533})$ gradually increased with an increase in AP concentration from 100 to 400 nm. However, 294 with a further increase in AP concentration to 500 nm, the $\Delta(I_{696}/I_{533})$ was significantly 295 296 decreased. This may be due to the formation of dimers structures at excessively high AP concentration, which affect the binding efficiency of AP to MRSA. Consequently, 297 we opted for a concentration of 400 nM for subsequent experiments. Furthermore, our 298 299 investigation highlighted the pivotal role of DNA polymerase in dsDNA synthesis. It could be seen that the $\Delta(I_{696}/I_{533})$ increased with the increasing concentration of DNA 300 polymerase and reached its maximum value at 0.05 U/µL (Fig. S6b and Fig. S7b). Thus, 301 a concentration of 0.05 U/µL was deemed optimal for our future experiments. In 302 303 addition, the concentration of crRNA was a critical factor for CRISPR/Cas12a-based signal amplification. Fig. S6c and Fig. S7c illustrate the concentration of crRNA ranged 304 305 from 5 to 25 nM, and the $\Delta(I_{696}/I_{533})$ reached the maximum value at 20 nM. Lastly, we optimized the reaction time of the CRISPR/Cas12a system for trans cleavage. As shown 306

in Fig. S6d and Fig. S7d, $\triangle(I_{696}/I_{533})$ progressively increases from 5 to 15 min, and as time further increases to 20 to 25 min, the $\triangle(I_{696}/I_{533})$ shows no significant change. Therefore, the concentrations of APS, DNA polymerase and crRNA of 400 nM, 0.05 U/µL, and 20 nM, respectively, and the reaction time of 15 min were selected as the optimal conditions for MRSA detection.

312 **3**

3.6 APC-Cas-PLNPs for MRSA detection

313 To demonstrate the exceptional sensitivity of APC-Cas-PLNPs in detecting MRSA, a series of samples containing MRSA cells (1-10⁶ CFU/mL) were prepared. The results 314 315 in Fig.5a shown that $\Delta(I_{696}/I_{533})$ varied linearly with the amount of MRSA in the range of 1 to 10⁵ CFU/mL, and APC-Cas-PLNPs can easily detect MRSA at levels as low as 316 1 CFU/mL. In comparison to alternative detection techniques, this assay system is 317 distinguished by its capability to sustain a broader detection range and achieve a lower 318 detection limit within a significantly shorter timeframe (Table S3). It can be inferred 319 that the aptamer domain of AP demonstrates exceptional MRSA specific recognition 320 321 ability, leading to the disruption of the secondary structure of AP upon MRSA recognition. Subsequently, under the action of DNA polymerase, dsDNA containing 322 PAM site is synthesized, allowing MRSA to proceed into the next catalytic cycle, 323 thereby achieving primary amplification. In addition, the prepared dual-color 324 ratiometric luminescence sensor ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM possesses significant advantages 325 such as strong ultraviolet absorption, large emission offset, high luminosity, eliminating 326 autofluorescence interference, and high signal/noise ratio. When the aforementioned 327 dsDNA hybridizes with Cas12a/crRNA, it activates the collateral cleavage ability of 328

Cas12a, cleaving multiple ZGC@BHQ3 (secondary amplification), consequently 329 generating amplified ratio fluorescence signals. The results obtained demonstrate that 330 331 APC-Cas-PLNPs can detect a single MRSA through the two-stage amplification of the AP, CRISPR-Cas12a and dual-colored persistent luminescent nanoparticles tandem 332 333 detection. Currently, real-time PCR is the most effective method for analyzing and quantifying pathogen due to its high sensitivity. Therefore, we compared APC-Cas-334 PLNPs system with real-time PCR for MRSA detection. The extracted genomic DNA 335 of MRSA was within the range of $6 \times 10^{-6} \times 10^{-7}$ CFU/mL (genomic DNA range: 0.25-336 1.2×10^5 pg/µL) and subjected to real-time PCR reaction. As illustrated in Fig. 5b, the 337 $C_{\rm t}$ value varies linearly within the range of 6×10^2 - 6×10^7 CFU/mL. However, when the 338 amount of MRSA was below 6×10^2 CFU/mL, the C_t value is greater than 35. Even after 339 340 more 40 cycles, 60 CFU/mL bacterial cells still have no Ct value. This disparity can be attributed to the loss of target sequences during genome extraction, underscoring the 341 superior sensitivity and efficiency of the APC-Cas-PLNPs system over real-time PCR 342 for MRSA detection. 343

The study further investigated the specificity of the APC-Cas-PLNPs system for detecting MRSA. Fig. 5c illustrates that in the presence of *K. pneumoniae*, *P. aeruginosa*, *E. coli* or *L. monocytogenes*, the fluorescence signal can be ignored; however, the $\Delta(I_{696}/I_{533})$ of MRSA was significantly increased than these pathogens (*P* < 0.001). In addition, we detected two methicillin-susceptible *S. aureus* (ATCC29213 and ATCC25923), and the results showed that APC-Cas-PLNPs could accurately distinguish MRSA from methicillin-susceptible *S. aureus* strains (*P* < 0.001) (Fig. 5d).

Therefore, it can be deduced that the developed APC-Cas-PLNPs system had excellent 351 specificity for MRSA. Also, to further analyze the specificity of APC-Cas-PLNPs in 352 353 complex samples, a mixture of MRSA and other pathogens was tested in a molar ratio of 1:10. As shown in Fig. 5e and f, whether mixed with pathogenic bacteria of different 354 genera or S. aureus (ATCC29213 and ATCC25923), there is no significant difference 355 in $\Delta(I_{696}/I_{533})$ compared to the presence of MRSA alone. In conclusion, these results 356 emphasize the outstanding sensitivity and specificity of APC-Cas-PLNPs in MRSA 357 detection, positioning it as a promising novel platform for pathogen identification. 358

359 **3.7 Method validation and application to milk, orange juice and serum**

To demonstrate the feasibility of proposed detection method in food sample 360 detection, we evaluated the MRSA levels of pasteurized milk (PM) samples (n = 20)361 362 and contaminated milk (CM) samples (n = 20), as well as pasteurized orange juice (PO) samples (n = 20) and contaminated orange juice (CO) samples (n = 20) using APC-Cas-363 PLNPs in a blind validation study. As illustrated in Fig. 6a and d, all 20 contaminated 364 365 milk or orange juice samples exhibited higher levels of $\Delta(I_{696}/I_{533})$ compared to pasteurized milk or orange juice samples, demonstrating that APC-Cas-PLNPs could 366 effectively distinguish contaminated food samples from pasteurized food samples 367 (P < 0.001). However, C_t value showed that although there was a significant difference 368 369 in the genomic DNA expression of MRSA between pasteurized milk or orange juice samples and contaminated milk or orange juice samples (P < 0.01), there was a certain 370 371 proportion of signal overlap between these two columns of data (Fig. 6b and e). The ROC curve of APC-Cas-PLNPs shows that compared to pasteurized milk samples, the 372

AUC values of contaminated milk or orange juice samples are both 1.0. By contrast, 373 real-time PCR has a poorer classification of contaminated food samples from 374 375 pasteurized food samples (AUC values of 0.85 and 0.77, respectively) (Fig. 6c and f). It can be considered that during the process of genome extraction, both target and non-376 377 target strains will be cleaved together, especially mixing trace amounts of MRSA genomic DNA with non-target strain genes will affect the concentration of detected 378 nucleic acid sequences, leading to a decrease in real-time PCR sensitivity. Furthermore, 379 the complexity of the amplification program and the specificity of primers can also 380 381 affect the detection results. On the contrary, the APC-Cas-PLNPs detection system we established does not require genomic DNA extraction. Upon APS binding specifically 382 to MRSA, the allosteric switch structure of AP would activate the collateral cleavage 383 384 of CRISPR-Cas12a, while a ratiometric luminescence sensor using PLNPs as molecular beacons enables more sensitive and precise signal detection. 385

Finally, we infected 6-8-week-old mice with MRSA bacterial solution via 386 387 intravenous injection, and used uninfected mice of the same age and number as control. Then, blood samples were collected, and the APC-Cas-PLNPs was used to detect 388 MRSA in the mice serum (Fig. 6g). The $\triangle(I_{696}/I_{533})$ value of each mouse was detected 389 by APC-Cas-PLNPs every 30 min for the first 6 h after infection, and then every 12 h 390 until the 4th d to prove the presence of MRSA in the mouse (Fig. 6h). As a result, the 391 $\Delta(I_{696}/I_{533})$ value of the infected mice model increased over time, while there was no 392 significant change in the $\Delta(I_{696}/I_{533})$ value of the uninfected mice, indicating that 393 MRSA had already colonized and grown in the blood. It is worth noting that the 394

 $\Delta(I_{696}/I_{533})$ value of infected mice slightly decreased from 2.5 to 4 h, which may be due to the immune system clearing a portion of MRSA. The ROC curve of APC-Cas-PLNPs indicated an AUC of 0.98 in uninfected mice compared to infected mice, suggesting it has the potential to detect early MRSA infection (Fig. 6i). These above results fully demonstrate that the developed APC-Cas-PLNPs system is capable of the accurate detection of MRSA in food detection and clinical testing.

401

402 Author Contributions

J.W., J.B., and M.C. conceived, directed, and supervised the study and critically revised
and approved the manuscript. S.L. and Z.D. performed the experiment, analyzed the
data, and wrote the manuscript. Z.L., Y.Z., X.L., M.S., X.D., and H.X participated in
the experiments and analyzed the data. All authors read and approved the final
manuscript.

408

409 Acknowledgements

410 This work was supported by the National Key R&D Program of China 411 (2022YFC2603800), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (82472385 and

- 412 82372105), the Chongqing Natural Science Foundation (CSTB2022NSCQ-MSX0151
- and CSTB2022NSCQ-MSX0205), the Army Military Medical University Southwest

414 Hospital Doctor Youth Lift project 2024BQTJ-3.

415

416 **Conflict of Interest Statement**

417 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

418

419 **ORCID**

- 420 Ming Chen https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0613-7932
- 421

422 Abbreviations

MRSA, Methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus; AP, allosteric probe; PLNPs, 423 persistent luminescent nanoparticles; APC-Cas-PLNPs, allosteric probe initiated 424 catalysis CRISPR-Cas12a collateral cleavage in tandem with a dual-color PLNPs-based 425 ratiometric luminescence sensor ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM for pathogen detection; TEM, 426 transmission electron microscopy; HR-TEM, high resolution-transmission electron 427 microscopy; XRD, X-ray diffraction; FT-IR, fourier transform infrared; HAADF, high-428 angle annular dark-field scanning TEM; EDS, energy dispersive spectroscopy; PM, 429 pasteurized milk; CM, contaminated milk; PO, pasteurized orange juice; CO, 430 contaminated orange juice. 431

432

433 **References**

- 434 1. Y. Cong, S. Yang, X. Rao, J. Adv. Res. 2019, 21:169-176. doi:
 435 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jare.2019.10.005.
- 436 2. Q.Q. He, J. Meneely, I.R. Grant, J. Chin, S. Fanning, C. Situ, *Chin. Med.* 2024,
- 437 *19*, 1. doi: https://doi.org/10.1186/s13020-024-00960-8.
- 438 3. B. Baumann, A. Martin, B. Malorny, Int. J. Food. Microbiol. 2015, 193:8-14.
 439 doi: https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2014.10.004.
- 440 4. R.W. Li, J.T. Yan, B. Feng, M. Sun, C.F. Ding, H. Shen, J. Zhu, S. Yu, ACS

- 441 Appl. Mater. Interfaces. 2023, 15:18663-18671. doi:
 442 https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.3c00632.
- 443 5. L.Váradi, J.L. Luo, D.E. Hibbs, J.D. Perry, R.J. Anderson, S. Orenga, P.W.
 444 Groundwater, *Chem. Soc. Rev.* 2017, 46(16):4818-4832. doi:
 445 https://doi.org/10.1039/c6cs00693k.
- 446 6. M.M. Hassan, A. Ranzoni, M.A. Cooper, *Biosens. Bioelectron.* 2018, 99:150447 155. doi: https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.3c00632.
- J.F.K. Elliott, D. McLeod, T.B. Taylor, E.R. Westra, S. Gandon, B.N.J. Watson,
 ISME. J 2024, 18(1). doi: https://doi.org/10.1093/ismejo/wrae108.
- 450 8. J. G. Zalatan, M. E. Lee, R, Almeida. L. A. Gilbert, E. H. Whitehead, M. La
- 451 Russa, C. T. Jordan, S. W. Jonathan, E. D. John, S. Q. Lei, Cell, 2015, 160(1-

452 2):339-350. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2014.11.052.

- 453 9. Z. Wang, W. Cui, View, 2020, 20200008. doi:
 454 https://doi.org/10.1002/VIW.20200008
- 455 10. T. Notomi, H. Okayama, H. Masubuchi, T. Yonekawa, K. Watanabe, N. Amino,
- 456 H. Tetsu, *Nucleic Acids. Res.* 2000, 28(12):E63. doi:
 457 https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/28.12.e63.
- 458 11. R. K. Daher, G. Stewart, M. Boissinot, M. G. Bergeron, *Clin. Chem.* 2016,
 62(7):947-958. doi: https://doi.org/10.1373/clinchem.2015.245829.
- 460 12. K. Karasawa, H. Arakawa, *Luminescence* 2022, 37(5):822-827. doi:
 461 https://doi.org/10.1002/bio.4226. doi: https://doi.org/10.1002/bio.4226.
- 462 13. M. Patchsung, K. Jantarug, A. Pattama, K. Aphicho, S. Suraritdechachai, P.

- 463 Meesawat, Nat. Biomed. Eng. 2020, 4(12):1140-1149. doi:
 464 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41551-020-00603-x.
- 465 14. S. Y. Lee, S. W. Oh, *Talanta* 2022, 241:123186. doi: https://doi.org/241.
 466 10.1016/j.talanta.2021.123186.
- 467 15. M. Aladhadh, *Microorganisms* 2023, 11(5):1111. doi:
 468 https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms11051111.
- 469 16. S. Rao, J. Hosp. Infect. 2006, 64:20-21. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/S0195470 6701(06)60066-2.
- 471 17. A. Aihaiti, J. K. Wang, W. R. Zhang, M. P. Shen, F. X. Meng, Z. D. Li, *Compr.*472 *Rev. Food. Sci Food Saf.* 2024, 23(4):13358. doi: https://doi.org/10.1111/1541473 4337.13358.
- 474 18. J. Shen, X. M. Zhou, Y. Y. Shan, H. H. Yue, R. Huang, J. M. Hu, *Nat. Commun.*475 2020, 11(1):267. doi: https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-14135-9.
- 476 19. J. E. van Dongen, J. T. W. Berendsen, R. D. M. Steenbergen, R. M. F. Wolthuis,
- 477 J. C. T. LI Eijkel Segerink, *Biosens. Bioelectron.* 2020, 166:112445. doi:
 478 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bios.2020.112445.
- 479 20. H. Li, M. L. Li, Y. C. Yang, F. Wang, C. Li. Anal. Chem 2021, 93(6):3209-
- 480 3216. doi: https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.analchem.0c04687.
- 481 21. C. P. Liang, P. Q. Ma, H. Liu, X. G. Guo, B. C. Yin, B. C. Ye, *Angew. Chem. Int.*482 *Edit.* 2017, 56(31):9077-9081. doi: https://doi.org/10.1002/anie.201704147.
- 483 22. C. Van Tricht, T. Voet, J. Lammertyn, D. Spasic. Trends Biotechnol. 2023,
- 484 *41*(6):769-784. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tibtech.2022.10.003.

- 485 23. Y. X. Li, Z. W. Luo, C. Y. Zhang, R. Sun, C. Zhou, C. J. Sun, *Trends Anal. Chem.*486 2021, 134:116142. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trac.2020.116142.
- 487 24. D. E. Armstrong-Price, P. S. Deore, R. A. Manderville, J. Agric. *Food Chem.*488 2020, 68(7):2249-2255. doi: https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jafc.9b07391.
- 489 25. L. M. Yang, X. H. Yin, B. An, F. Li, *Anal. Chem.* 2021, 93(3):1709-1716. doi:
 490 https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.analchem.0c04308.
- 491 26. B. C. Su, Z. Zhang, Z. C. Sun, Z. W. Tang, X. X. Xie, Q. Chen, J. Hazard Mater.

492 **2022**, 422:126838. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2021.126838.

- 493 27. Y. X. Yu, G. L. Li, *J. Hazard Mater.* 2022, 422:126927. doi:
 494 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2021.126927.
- 495 28. M. H. Chan, Y. C. Chang, Anal. Bioanal. Chem. 2024, 416(17):3887-3905.
 496 doi: https://doi.org/10.1007/s00216-024-05267-z.
- 497 29. R. M. Calderón-Olvera, E. Arroyo, A. M. Jankelow, R. Bashir, E. M. Valera,
 498 ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 2023, 15(17):20613-20624. doi:
 499 https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.2c21735.
- 500 30. K. Ge, J. M. Liu, P. H. Wang, G. Z. Fang, D. D. Zhang, S. Wang, *Microchim* 501 *Acta* 2019, 186(3):197. doi: https://doi.org/10.1007/s00604-019-3294-z.
- 502 31. N. Le, J. S. Wang, L. Huang, L. Zeng, W. C. Xu, Z. J. Li, *Adv. Mater.* 2022,
 503 34(14):2107962. doi: https://doi.org/10.1002/adma.202107962.
- J. X. Guo, L. M. Pan, M. C. Wang, L. J. Chen, X. Zhao, *Food Chem.* 2023,
 413:135611. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2023.135611.
- 506 33. L. M. Pan, X. Zhao, X. Wei, L. J. Chen, C. Wang, X. P. Yan, Anal. Chem.

- 507 **2022**, 94(16):6387-6393. doi: https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.analchem.2c00861.
- M. X. X. Ran, R. Sun, J. Q. Yan, A. T. Pulliainen, Y. Zhang, H. B. Zhang, *Small* 2023, 19(47). doi: https://doi.org/10.1002/smll.202304194.
- 510 35. H. Hirano, J. S. Gootenberg, T. Horii, O. O. Abudayyeh, M. Kimura, P. D. Hsu,
- 511 *Cell*, **2016**, *164*(5):950-961. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2016.01.039.
- 512 36. Y. Q. Wang, Z. H. Li, Q. S. Lin, Y. R. Wei, J. Wang, Y. X. Li, ACS Sens. 2019,
- 513 *4*(8):2124-2130. doi: https://doi.org/10.1021/acssensors.9b00927.
- 514 37. X. H. Wang, Y. H. Wang, S. Chen, P. Fu, Y. B. Lin, S. Y. Ye, Biosens. Bioelectron
- 515 **2022**, 198:113849. doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bios.2021.113849.

Fig. 1 Illustration of allosteric probe to initiate catalytic CRISPR-Cas12a collateral
cleavage in tandem with dual-color ratiometric luminescence sensor ZGC@BHQ3ZGM (APC-Cas-PLNPs) system for MRSA detection.

Fig. 2 Performance analysis of AP. (a) Illustration and representative inverted 520 521 fluorescence microscope images of FAM/BHQ1-labeled AP binding to MRSA. (b) Feasibility of electrophoretic analysis for AP detection of MRSA. M: DNA ladder, 522 Lane1: AP; Lane2: AP + primer; Lane 3: AP + primer + DNA polymerase; Lane4: AP 523 524 + primer + DNA polymerase + MRSA. '+' means presence, '-' means absence. (c) Fluorescence intensity detection of CRISPR-Cas12a system. (d) Comparison of relative 525 fluorescence intensity and signal-to-background ratio of AP with six different stem 526 527 lengths. Values are the mean \pm SD of the results from three independent experiment.

Fig. 3 The preparation process and characterization of ratiometric luminescence sensor 528 ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM. (a) Schematic of the developed ratiometric luminescence sensor 529 ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM. (b) TEM, HR-TEM and element mapping images, and size 530 distribution of ZGM. (c) TEM, HR-TEM and element mapping images, and size 531 distribution of ZGC. (d) TEM, HR-TEM and element mapping images of 532 ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM. The white box represents the TEM and element mapping images 533 of ZGC. (e) Hydrodynamic size of ZGM, ZGM-NH₂ and ZGC-N⁺(CH₃)₃. (f) 534 Hydrodynamic size of ZGC, ZGC-NH₂, ZGC@BHQ3 and ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM. (g) 535 Zeta potential of ZGM, ZGM-NH₂ and ZGC-N⁺(CH₃)₃. (h) Zeta potential of ZGC, 536 ZGC-NH₂, ZGC@BHQ3 and ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM. 537

538	Fig. 4 Performance analysis of ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM. Emission (excitation at 254 nm)
539	spectra of ZGM, and the inset image refers to ZGM aqueous solution (0.5 mg/mL) (a).
540	Emission (excitation at 254 nm) spectra of ZGC, and the inset image refers to ZGC
541	aqueous solution (0.5 mg/mL) (b). Emission (excitation at 254 nm) spectra of
542	ZGC@BHQ3, and the inset image refers to ZGC and ZGC@BHQ3 aqueous solution
543	(0.5 mg/mL) (c). Afterglow decay curves of ZGM and ZGC (d). Emission spectrum
544	(excitation at 254 nm) of ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM (e). Effects of ZGC@BHQ3-ZGM
545	concentration (10-30 μ g/mL) (f), test voltage (600-700 V) (g), test time (0-10 min) (h)
546	and storage time (0-60 d) (i) on the fluorescence intensity and fluorescence ratio at 537
547	nm and 696 nm (I_{696}/I_{533}).

Fig. 5 Evaluation of APC-Cas-PLNPs system sensitivity and specificity for MRSA 548 detection. (a) The fluorescence intensity of APC-Cas-PLNPs for detection of MRSA 549 (The amount of MRSA from 1 to 10⁶ CFU; insets: the linear analysis of MRSA 550 detection by APC-Cas-PLNPs). (b) The C_t values of real-time PCR for detection of 551 MRSA (The amount of MRSA from 6×10^2 - 6×10^7 CFU; insets: the linear analysis of 552 MRSA detection by real-time PCR). (c-d) Specificity of APC-Cas-PLNPs for detection 553 of MRSA (MRSA: 10² CFU/mL, all other pathogens: 10³ CFU/mL). (e-f) Specificity 554 of APC-Cas-PLNPs for MRSA detection in complex samples (the amount of MRSA 555 was one-tenth of other pathogens). Values are the mean \pm SD of the results from three 556 independent experiments. Asterisks indicate significant differences (***, P < 0.001, by 557 Student's *t* test). 558



560	MRSA expressed in a milk blind validation cohort. PM: pasteurized milk; CM:
561	contaminated milk; PO: pasteurized orange juice; CO: contaminated orange juice. (b)
562	$C_{\rm t}$ value of the genomic DNA of MRSA in a milk blind validation cohort. (c) ROC
563	curve analysis of blind validation queue for milk. (d) $\triangle(I_{696}/I_{533})$ of MRSA expressed
564	in an orange juice blind validation cohort. (e) C_t value of the genomic DNA of MRSA
565	in an orange juice blind validation cohort. (f) ROC curve analysis of blind validation
566	queue for orange juice. (g) Construction of MRSA infected mouse model and schematic
567	diagram of blood collection. (h) Growth curves of MRSA in infected and uninfected
568	mice over time. The blue dashed line and the red dashed line represent the $\Delta(I_{696}/I_{533})$
569	of 6 infected mice and 6 uninfected mice over time, respectively. The blue solid line
570	and the red solid line represent the average $\Delta(I_{696}/I_{533})$ of 6 infected and 6 uninfected
571	mice over time, respectively. (i) ROC curve analysis of 6 uninfected mice versus 6
572	MRSA infected mice at all stage (0 to 96 h). Asterisks indicate significant differences
573	(**, <i>P</i> < 0.01, ***, <i>P</i> < 0.001, by Student's <i>t</i> test).











