

Review on Lab on Chip fabrication and its application in food safety sensing

Abstract:

Lab on chip (LOC) is a miniaturized and automated platform when combined with microfluidic techniques gives an improved analysis in several applications. Applying this LOC concept in biosensors gives easier and rapid detection for several analyses especially in food safety sensing. Processing method and fabrication of lab on chip material and some important application in food safety is reviewed in this paper.

Key words: LOC, micro fluidics, biosensors, food safety

Introduction

Lab on Chip (LOC) is a device that integrates various laboratory functions on to a small chip of only millimeters to a few square centimeters to enable automation and high-throughput screening (Volpatti et al., 2014). It is possible to handle very small amount of fluids even less than picoliters. Being subset of microelectromechanical systems (MEMS) devices, LOCs can also be called "micro total analysis systems" (μ TAS). Lab on Chip is a concept that has brought tremendous in application and advancement in many fields especially in food safety sensing.

During recent years food safety issues are concerned as a hot topic globally due to excessive content of additives, metals, and microbial contamination and pesticide residues in food. These terrible food safety issues demand strict monitoring of entire food processing, production and distribution from farm to table. In this scenario sensing food safety issues using biosensors gives a very trustable platform. For more precise and accurate sensing it is beneficial to integrate biosensor designs with microfluidic flow channels to improve the overall performance of the sensing system. The main advantage of applying microfluidics in biosensors is that it fastens the recognition by ease of transport of sample analyte to the biorecognition site. Furthermore, carefully constructed channels can improve convective transport to sensor surfaces by integrating flow concentrating or helical flows, for example (Lynn et al., 2015; Lynn and Homola, 2015). To further improve the food safety sensing along with microfluidics, it can adapt LOC concept which comprises the entire sample preparation procedure, so incorporating this along with microfluidic flow channel can simplify the sensing platform. Miniaturization of sensing platform by applying LOC concept also gives ease of usage.

This paper mainly focuses on the processing, types, and materials used for LOC fabrication and application of LOC in food safety sensing.

Microfluidic- based LOC Systems

Microfluidization is a great way to make nanoemulsions, submicron emulsions, nanosuspensions, liposomes, and encapsulated materials while also promoting particle deagglomeration and cell disintegration. In the 1990s, Manz et al. pioneered microfluidic chip technology, also known as the micro-total analysis system (TAS) technique. Microfluidic chips are etched and processed on their substrates using microprocessing technology before being enclosed into inlet, intermediate, and outlet packing chips. The three most prevalent microfluidic chip channel shapes utilized in various application scenarios are as follows. (1) T-shaped sensors can produce perfect laminar flow, and signal aggregation in the downstream area can detect weak signals, enhancing the limit of detection (LOD); (2) Pathogen chemotaxis and susceptibility are detected by Y-shaped sensors, permitting hierarchical separation; (3) serpentine structures, such as the Christmas tree structure, in which many liquid strands carrying substances of differing concentrations shunt and confluence in a split laminar flow, generating a progressive concentration gradient perpendicular to the flow direction, which is suitable for gradient detection.

The advancement in biosensors to lab on chip devices is possible through implementing microfluidics integrated sensing platforms. Microfluidics is an upcoming and novel research area that gives an innovative stream to work with fluid analysis. It has wide range of application including the field of food quality control testing and food safety. Applying microfluidic devices in biosensor can control and minimize the fluid volume in the analysis and also it reduces the cost. In addition to that, paper- based μ - D makes a very cost- effective analysis with fewer steps to handle. It can reduce the laborious work and minimize the complexity of other traditional techniques (Weigl & Yager 1999; Chandra et al. 2011; Choi et al. 2011; Noh et al. 2012; Won et al. 2013). Other than paper some other types of microfluidic-based devices are PDMS, glass, thermopolymers, and silicon, - based LOC.

Lab-on-a-chip combines microfluidics and biosensors

Biosensors are faster, more precise, and sensitive than traditional detection methods. Microfluidic systems are frequently used for biosensors to achieve miniaturisation due to its unique benefit. On a single tiny chip, microfluidics enables the integration of sample pre-processing, signal identification, and signal transmission (including amplification and output). It also enables the use of many biosensors to achieve high detection throughput. For lab-on-a-chip technology, the integration of microfluidics and biosensors combines the benefits of both, and is thus characterised by precision, sensitivity, speed, stability, mobility, and high throughput. (Yaseen et al., 2017).

Biological microfluidic chips are also being transformed by the advancement of numerous technologies, which is allowing them to improve their detection performance and expand their application scenarios. Nanomaterials are frequently utilised in microfluidic chips for surface immobilisation and signal enhancement of collected elements. Smartphones feature powerful central processing units (CPUs), executive connection functions, a large pixel count, a high-sensitivity camera, and a built-in light source. As a result, the use of cellphones for visual detection is becoming a more common POCT application. When optical

microfluidic biosensors are integrated with a smartphone, efficient automatic detection can be achieved. Complex and highly integrated microfluidic-biosensing chips, on the other hand, are expensive to manufacture, whereas paper chips are cheap for one-time field detection. To accomplish more accurate inspection, 3D printing can generate more complex structures and more precise microfluidic devices.

Chip Materials and Fabrication Technologies

The main platform of LOC fabrication is photolithography. Earlier construction of LOC mainly relies on semiconductor fabrication in which silicon is the major material. The potential of this was apparent but not feasible with silicon technology, there comes the demand for new materials and processes that will enable faster prototyping at lower manufacturing costs and also yield advanced properties, such as specific bio or chemical compatibility and optical characteristics.

Other than silicon, the new materials which are suitable for LOC fabrication are ceramics and glass. Another advantage is that it is possible to suitably employ new techniques such as metal etching, deposition and bonding, soft lithography with polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) processing, thick-film and stereolithography on these new materials. Also fast replication methods via electroplating, injection molding, and embossing is also possible. Implementing nanotechnology in the LOC field boosted it beyond the lithography –based microsystem giving a way to precision engineering.

Processing Method of Chip

Micro-Molding

Polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) has become the most popular material for making Lab on chip processing. Along with PDMS, it is common SU-8 photoresist as a mold to mold PDMS [Sia et al., 2003, Natarajan et al., 2008]. The SU-8 photoresist is spun-coated on a silicon chip and photo etched and it is free to adjust thickness of chip freely with in a range of more than 10 to 200 microns. The spun coating speed can be controlled according to different types of SU-8 photoreceptors. A 10:1 combination of PDMS and hardener was used. Then it's carefully poured onto the SU-8 microstructure, avoiding air bubbles and heating. After an oxygen plasma treatment, the hardened PDMS is carefully removed from the SU-8 mold and glued to the glass substrate. It is possible to re-use the SU-8 mold.

Laser Ablation

The process of laser ablation specifically refers to ablating and machining a micro flow channel on the surface of polymer material by using a carbon dioxide laser with a wavelength of 10.6 μm [van den Sander et al., 2018]. Machining the micro flow channel using laser ablation is fast, simple and only one time is needed to complete the whole process. Most of the polymers and glasses can be able to use the above mentioned method. The main drawback of machining the micro flow on the surface is that the machining done on the inner wall of

the polymer will not be uniform and more number of bubble will be in turn to be treated by chemical methods [Wang et al., 2011]. The protrusions formed on both sides of the flow channel during casting and re-solidification of molten material on polymer surface is not suitable for subsequent bonding. The method is limited in processing accuracy and is only fit for flow channel of which width and depth is more than 80 μm . When comes to the case of low cost micro fluidic lab on chip, the technology is still focused on a single polymer material. There is still a high scope for advancement in the field of the low cost chip with the insight of biodegradable plastics, conductive plastics, paper and other materials.

2D/3D Printing

2D printing is a method used in processing microfluidic chip or a microfluidic chip pour back mold commonly used in experimental time and in office, like laser printer [Garcia-Cordero et al., 2010], an inkjet printer [Bisoul et al., 2016], a wax printer [Pearce et al., 2016], a screen printing [Wee et al., 2015], etc. Recently 3D printing is emerging as a technique to directly print microfluidic chip or a pour-back mold by using a 3D printer. Low cost chips like paper microfluidic chips are 2D printed microfluidic chips in which hydrophobic ink is impregnated on hydrophilic paper materials to form microchannels and the pattern accuracy depends on printer accuracy or screen mesh commonly in a range of 80 and 400 μm . Other than that in PDMS based microstructures, SU-8 can be directly deposited on a glass or polymer substrate like using inkjet printing or screen printing to form microfluidic chips [Bhattacharjee et al., 2016, Shangguan et al., 2016], In case of electrode printing conductive ink containing silver nanoparticles are used [Tran et al., 2017].

Stereolithography and fused deposition modeling (FDM) [Gaal et al., 2017] are the main methods of 3D printing used to process microfluidic chips [He et al., 2015]. A fused deposition modeling 3D printer is used to produce relatively low-cost 3D microfluidic chips. FDM may also be used for direct printing on materials such as PC, PLA (polylactic acid), ABS (acrylonitrile butadiene styrene), and other materials to create 3D microfluidic chips [Kataoka et al., 2017]; in addition, FDM is also utilized to print the mold for the PDMS reverse mold [Lee et al., 2003]. Commercial FDM have an accuracy in a range of 10-500 μm , which restricts its application on most microfluidic chips, other than this it is difficult to select transparent consumables needed for microfluidic chips is limited and processing speed of chip is also slow compared with the other.

Injection Molding

PMMA (polymethyl methacrylate), COC (cycloolefin) and PDMS (polydimethylsiloxane) are the mostly used injection materials in injection molding [Szydzik et al., 2016]. Injection molding is the method adopted in plastic processing for years. Advancement in microinjection technology gave a way for researchers to think about applying this in microfluidic chip fabrication. Mold processing has to be done firstly in case of injection molding which is costlier and time consuming. To overcome this drawback, Hansen et al., [Selmeczi et al., 2010] introduced the use of su-8 photoresist on the surface of nickel as an injection mold, which improved its reusability around 300 times. In addition to that it increased the processing speed which enable processing of 3D microfluidic chips, repeatability and give a way for processing of large scale microfluidic chips. Some of the

disadvantages are reduced flexibility, need to reopen the mold when the chip structure differ and higher cost of mold.

Chip Bonding Technology

It is necessary to cover microfluidic chips with a layer of material (cover sheet) above the flow channel after the microstructure processing is completed, is called as bonding of the microfluidic chip. Bonding is required for all other materials except paper chips which use open flow channels. In bonding both the cover sheet and substrate material can be same material with uniform thickness, in case of special purposes bonding between different materials of varied thickness can be done. Apart from bonding between silicon and glass chips which requires ultra clean room with precision instruments, recently scientists have developed various low cost chip bonding methods such as thermal compression bonding, adhesive bonding, plasma surface treatment and laser welding,

Thermal Compression Bonding

In PMMA (polymethyl methacrylate), PC (poly carbonate), PS (poly styrene), Glass, and other thermoplastic materials, thermal compression bonding is used as an ideal method for bonding microfluidic chips. Thermal compression bonding is the method in which two layers of materials are joined and aligned with heating and pressurization, in which heating temperature is set slightly higher than the glass transition (T_g) of thermoplastics and pressure adjusted accordingly. Many studies have been conducted by the researchers in the field of microfluidic chip bonding especially with hot embossing method, and have observed the bonding strength of PMMA/PMMA [Nayak et al., 2010], PMMA/PS and Glass materials [Jena et al., 2012] at varied temperatures and pressures. From the observation, they realized that failure of thermo compression bonding for thermoplastic materials is due the collapse of microstructure during the bonding process, because of excessive temperature or pressure. In addition researchers also observed that it is important to control the temperature and pressure settings, while on the other hand, it can also use oxygen plasma or ultraviolet light to pretreat the surface of polymer materials, Molecular weight of the bonding surface also should be reduced in order to reduce the glass transition temperature of the surface [Fan et al., 2012].

Types of LOC

Polydimethylsiloxane LOC

Polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) is a material mainly used in microfluidic circuitry. PDMS surface is hydrophobic in nature and hence it is focused mainly on making macromolecule based sensor. Shin et al., 2003 conducted a study on polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) microchip coupled with a microfluidics system and found that it is easy, cheap, biocompatible, and less laborious and can be used for direct analysis technique. All these strategies are favourable to various microfluidic technologies based on physical process such as amphiphilic polymers/copolymers and chemical process like self- assembled monolayer surface modification (Wong & Ho 2009). Nanoscale modification of PDMS based microfluidic devices (μ - D) are unique surface properties like surface charge, attachments of protein, DNA- binding chemistry, and DNA intercalation, which make system- specific applications an LOC concern (Choi et al. 2011)

Glass and Thermopolymers LOC

Modified three dimensional microfluidic devices fabricated with photostructurable glass is an upcoming field in manufacturing LOC. Sugioka et al., illustrated details about fabrication of 3D hollow microstructures with photostructurable glass by femtostructured laser detection as a prototype having high selectivity at 40–50 times. This would be very useful for LOC systems in future for making quick and robust prototypes (Sugioka et al. 2004). Srinivasan et al., 2004 conducted a study on droplet- based glass digital μ - D for clinical testing on human whole blood serum, urine, saliva, tear, sweat, and plasma as human physiological fluids achieved successful bioassays on real sample analysis.

Other than glass thermoresistance polymer based materials such as fibers, elastomers, polyesters, and nylon are being used in μ - D based processes (Liu 2007). Polymers are low cost and simple in fabrication process by electrochemical gas activation along with electrolysis processes. In this prototyping is by using a cheap polymer based μ - D tool by simple stencil printing (Nestler et al. 2010). Recently by applying thermoresistance polymer conjugated with an ITO heater and probe, were able to control cell attachment and cell growth in 10–20 hours instead of 5–6 days (Petronis et al. 2018). Based on recent studies, it can be concluded that a polymeric chip with μ - D based LOC device will apply for controlling living cells and microbes on large scales.

Silicon and Paper- based LOC

Silicon and paper-based LOC is cheap, fast and straightforward compared to other materials. In the beginning, silicon was one of the most successful platforms for μ - Ds. Silicon based μ - Ds are mainly used as a portable diagnostic tool in sensitive for detection of pathogenic agents to maintain the environmental conditions (Dutse & Yusof 2011). Gradually silicon based devices are being replaced by paperbased μ - D devices due to the few demerits of simple paper, compared to silicon- based devices that need ultraviolet light, conventional optical methods, valves, and pumps, which made this problematic as per POC concerns (Whitesides 2006; Haeberle & Zengerle 2007). Then the paper based μ - D device became a new trend to improve over conventional silicon based devices. Later on researchers started making prototypes of paper- based μ - D devices with wax for affordable and portable assays. Paper devices are best suited for direct analysis. It only needs an inkjet printer or wax pen for making a microfluidics chamber, and it takes 5–10 minutes without any usage of UV lamp, any chemical reagent, or more laborious steps (Lu et al., 2009). Carrilho et al., 2009 reported that a wax- printed chamber and detection prototype took less than five minutes which can fabricate soon with target analyte as real sample analysis at the cost of ~\$0.60 for whatman filter paper. Other than this Carrilho et al., also found that the advantage of using filter paper and wax printing is to make the difference between hydrophobic and hydrophilic barriers. This prototype will be a successful method for large- scale preparation of μ - D devices. And it is also possible for miniaturization of heavy instruments for greater applications in near future.

Essential requirements of LOC

(1) Automation in liquid handling (mixing, transport, and separation if necessary). This is one of the important experimenting areas in lab-on-a-chip technology. Y- or T-junction channels have been used to accomplish liquid mixing, coupled with several different designs of passive/pulse/serpentine mixer designs (Long et al., 2013). In the past, more active mechanisms of microfluidic mixing have been suggested and tested, especially using microvalves and micropumps fabricated on chip (Cai et al., 2013). This seemed promising and provided improved performance than the passive/pulse/serpentine microfluidic mixers. Liquid transport is made by applying electro osmotic flow or by external pressure syringe pumping

(2) Reduced sample pre-treatment. In a diagnostic laboratory lab on chip has an advantage of easy sample pretreatment, since the necessary equipment is readily available in those environments. In field situations, pre-treatment could become very difficult. For instance, most pathogenic contaminations are detected on the surface of food, hence food samples are routinely cleaned with buffer. For rigorous sample pre-treatment and higher performance, several centrifugations, re-suspension of pellets with a vortex mixer and/or a sonicator, and cell lysis/nucleic acid extraction for PCR are required. Small and basic equipment, such as a battery-powered mini-centrifuge or a syringe with filter, can simplify these intricate procedures into one or two steps, allowing non-experts to utilize the sensor with minimal processing time.

There have been number of attempts to ease of the sample pretreatment procedure and to incorporate these processes into lab-on-a-chip. Centrifugation and membrane filtration are the mostly investigated, as they are very important in dealing with food samples. One of the most common examples of lab-on-a-chip centrifuging is lab-on-a-CD (Kissinger et al 2005). Microchannels are made directly on the surface of a CD (compact disc), from its center to the outside, and the sample/reagent liquid is loaded to the inlet wells. The fabricated CD is then loaded into the CD player and rotated, creating a centrifugal force that makes the liquid to flow through the microchannel. Another example is the microfabrication of porous structure within microchannels, *i.e.*, on-chip fabrication of membrane filter (Datta et al., 2012)

(3) Fast. When we conduct an ELISA, PCR (including cell lysis and gene extraction) or a normal cell culture and colony counting, it takes few hours in a laboratory environment. In this case we do not consider sample delivery time in to consideration. Real time detection indicates that the detection should be made simultaneously with sampling, commonly less than 10-minute detection as real-time sensing using LOC. But in some assays, it may extent up to up to 4–8 hours or a single day. In most cases it is hard for general public to accept these 4-8 hours detection as real time detection in case of food analysis.

(4) Total integrated system. The entire system should be installed into a single device, for the ease of use and equipment delivery. Most of the biosensor systems require separate equipment for pre-treatment and/or detection. Commonly, all commercial biosensor systems (including lab-on-a-chips) require an external computer. A true fully-integrated system should not need any extra equipment. Minimally, it should have its own user interface) and an integrated liquid crystal display (LCD) panel for system operation and displaying test results. It is more acceptable, the system have a data storage unit and/or data transmission system. The latter can be accomplished by using wireless protocols, such as Wi-Fi or cellular phone network (3 G or 4 G LTE). It is an advantage that it is possible to use cellular phones for such data storage and transmission purposes, and in addition, smart phones can also be used for data processing or even as an optical detection system using its flash and camera.

(5) Battery-powered. It is not easy to avail AC outlets in field situations. Therefore, it is necessary for the system to be operated fully with battery power consuming very low power, which may prevent the use of electro osmotic flow (EOF; very common in lab-on-a-chip but requires relatively high voltage and power). So it is better to rely on battery-powered lab-on-a-chips as such kind of demonstrations are in developing stage.

(6) Independent of refrigeration. If reagents such as antibodies, nucleic acids, or enzymes, are required in an assay, it is a necessity to refrigerate. In field applications, however, these reagents have to be packed in an ice box or lyophilized (freeze-dried) as powder for a possible storage in room temperature. This long-term storage study of reagents is relatively less in biosensor and lab-on-a-chip studies.

(7) High sensitivity The Limit of detection for common ELISA tests can be as low as tens of picogram proteins per mL of sample. Detection limits for common PCR can theoretically be at the level of single cell per 10–100 μ L of sample, equivalent to 10–100 CFU per mL of sample. Almost the same levels of detection limits are expected for lab-on-a-chips, but the actual limits have been a few or a few tens of nanogram proteins per mL of sample or a few hundred or million cells per mL of sample (10^2 – 10^6 CFU/mL) (Santano, et.al 2002, Hilvert et.al 2000, Clark et.al 1962, Jayasena et.al 1999, Saerens et.al 2008).

Advantages of Lab-on-Chips

LOC technology is very useful and applicable in various fields. Some of the notable advantages are:

- Very less amount of fluid volume consumption (less amount samples, less reagents)
- Faster analysis and rapid responses due to its smaller size
- Improved process control due to rapid responses
- Higher degree of compact ability and integrity of multiple assemblies will improve the functionality at reduced volumes.

Disadvantages of Lab-on-Chips

Some of the drawbacks of the LOC platform due to geometry of its smaller size give rise to some phenomena such as:

- The influence of some chemical and physical effects on small scale like capillary forces, surface roughness, and the interference of construction materials on the reaction processes will make the behavior of integrated systems on chip complicated
- Low to signal to noise ratio are frequently reported
- Though the geometric accuracy and precision in micro fabrication is quite high, but it has not reached level of precision engineering
- As LOC remains as a novel technology, it is yet to be developed.

Application in Food safety sensing

Lab on chip technology has got enormous application in food safety detection. Some of the main applications in food safety detection are as follows.

Detection of Pesticide Residue

Pesticides are to improve the crop yield and to defend it from attacking pests. The residues of the pesticides prevailing in crops can be harmful for human health, such as respiratory disorder, sleep distraction. It is reported that in china 15% of the population develop cancer by consuming food containing pesticide residue [Hanetal., 2018]. Currently, rapid determination method involves enzyme inhibition method, spectral detection method and chromatographic detection method depending upon its principle [Dyketal., 2011& Songa etal.,2016 & Weng etal.,2019]. Rapid detection method can overcome the disadvantages of traditional method which is high cost, low degree of automation and time consumption.

For detecting the presence of dichlorvos residues in cucumber, tomato and cabbage Wei et al. [Wei etal.,2014] used a luminol-H₂O₂ chemiluminescence system with the limit of detection (LOD) as 3.6 ng/mL, which is more sensitive than gas chromatography. Another study by Liu et al. [Liu etal.,2015] was based on a molecularly-imprinted polymer (MIP) based paper chip with Chemiluminescence (CL) for detecting dichlorvos (DDV). It is observed that the reaction between DDV, luminol and H₂O₂ can produce CL emission directly [Wang etal.,2001].Yang et al. [Yang etal.,2018] demonstrated a multilayer paper chip which works on the principle of enzyme inhibition and internal heating. A heating layer was made in the paper-based chip to enable that the reaction process with the enzyme at the optimal temperature. This method can directly estimate whether the pesticide is beyond the standard depending on the reaction color. The LOD of trichlorfon under optimal conditions was 0.0406 mg/L which is comparatively better than the conventional instrumental methods.

Detection of Pathogenic Bacteria

Food poisoning is a major threat to food safety which is mainly caused by pathogenic bacteria. Hence it is very necessary to develop methodologies which can able rapid determination and quantification of pathogenic microbe especially pathogenic bacteria in foods. Escherichia coli, Salmonella and Listeria monocytogenes and E. coli O157: H7 are most prevalent bacteria causing food borne illness which even cause hemorrhagic colitis and hemorrhagic uremic syndrome [. Parketal.,2001].Jokerst et al., [Jokerst etal.,2012] conducted an experiment on a paper-based microfluidic chip technique for detecting the presence of E. coli O157: H7, L. monocytogenes and Salmonella in ready-to-eat meat products, specific enzymes secreted by bacteria will react with substrates this will give changes in the color intensity. The LOD obtained in this method was 106, 108 and 104 CFU/mL for E. coli, L. monocytogenes and Salmonella respectively.The developed paper chip can detect the pathogenic bacteria even in a very low concentration of 101 CFU/mL in ready-to-eat meat with in 12 h or less which is very faster than the detection range of the standard method.

Sun et al. [. Sunetal.,2015] firstly developed an eight-chamber lab-on-a-chip (LOC) system combined with magnetic bead-based sample preparation and LAMP for the quick and computable detection of Salmonella species in food. The developed system was able to analyze eight samples of eutrophic pork containing Salmonella in 40 min, and the LOD of each detection was sensitive and of 50 cells. In some other study Kim et al. [Kim etal.,2015]

developed a detection method based on quantum dot nanoparticles for detecting Salmonella cells. The LOD of this developed sensor in borate buffer and food extract was 10 (3) CFU/mL Salmonella. Fronczek et al. [Fronczek et al.,2013] introduced a detection method in fresh poultry packaging to determine the presence of Salmonella typhimurium based on a hand-held optical immunoassay.

Detection of Heavy Metals

Presence of heavy metals in food can be hazardous to human health in such a way that these metals can react with different enzymes and proteins present in human body which may interfere its activity and if they exceed certain concentration in human body can even cause chronic poisoning and health effects. So it is very essential to develop faster method to detect the presence of heavy metals in food [Dong et al.,2014].

Fan Chunhui et al. [Fan Chunhui et al 2012] developed a 11-mercaptoundecanoic acid (MUA) modified gold nanoparticles (AuNPs) probe for detection of Pb²⁺. When Pb²⁺ is present in the analyte it forms aggregate through chelating mechanism and the color of the solution changes from red to purple, which is due to the influence of plasma coupling. The LOD was observed as 10µM in this case. In another study Francesca et al. [Francesca et al.,2018] used an on an epitaxial graphene sensor coupled to a 3D printing microfluidic chip to detect low trace of Pb²⁺. LOD for this technique was 95 nM which is very lower than the World Health Organization recommended limit. A three dimensional (3D) origami ion imprinted polymer with ion imprinting technology was developed by Qi Ji et al. [Ji, Q et al.,2017] for multiplex detection of Cu²⁺ and Hg²⁺ ions. In this study CdTe quantum dots (QDs) were employed on to glass fiber paper. When the photoluminescence energy from QDs strike on ion imprinted surface forms QD complexes and as a result, there will be change in fluorescence. This chip is having good sensitivity and selectivity having LOD of 0.035 µg/L and 0.056 µg/L for Cu²⁺ and Hg²⁺ ions respectively. This method is successful in analyzing actual water samples.

Detection of Food Additives

Enhancing food appearance using food additives is a very common thing now a day. Using these pigments in more than approved specified limit can cause potential threat to human health, it may even turn as teratogenic and carcinogenic [Shaw et al.,2014].Hence detection and analysis of food additives in a faster manner is an important area to be taken care.

Based on the Janovsky reaction theory, Liu et al. [Liu et al.,2018] proposed a microfluidic paper-based analysis device (PAD) and a portable benzoic acid concentration detection system. Due to the reaction of benzoic acid sample with KNO₃ and H₂SO₄, 3,5-dinitrobenzoic acid was produced and it is dropped in the reaction part of the chip and this chip is transferred to a portable detection system and heated to trigger the Janovsky reaction. Complementary Metal Oxide Semiconductor (CMOS) was used to determine the color change and then the color image was transmitted to the smartphone via connector and based on the RGB color intensity of the image benzoic acid sample was analyzed with help of a self-made application program. 21 kinds of commercial food sample containing benzoic acid can be detected by this method. A“green” biocompatible fiber-based paper disk on a screen-

printed carbon electrode for detection of glucose was made by Lawrence et al. [Lawrence et al., 2014]. The method was amperometric using immobilization of glucose oxidase enzyme which has better hydrophilicity and able to maintain catalytic reaction of glucose oxidase.

Food allergens

A food allergy is an abnormal immune-mediated response to certain foods. Food allergies have become a critical food safety and public health issue due to the dangers of allergic reactions and the legal regulations imposed on the food industry. Eight types of food are responsible for the majority of allergic reactions: peanuts, tree nuts, milk, eggs, wheat, soy, fish, and shellfish (FARE, 2016). Monitoring of food allergens is critically important to both the food industry and to susceptible individuals. There is no cure for food allergies and the only way for sensitive individuals to protect themselves against an allergenic reaction is strict avoidance of food containing the offending component(s). The increase in allergen regulations and awareness highlight the need for accurate, on-site, sensitive, and rapid assays to detect potential allergens in food.

Clinical diagnosis of patients suffering from food allergies is usually performed by immunochemical methods such as RAST (radio-allergosorbent) or EAST (enzyme allergosorbent) assays which are based on the use of IgE isolated from the serum of individuals who are allergic to certain foods (Andjelkovic, Martinovic, & Josic, 2015). One limitation of using IgE for clinical diagnosis of food allergies is that serum samples are required from allergic individuals, which creates a potential biological hazard risk. In addition, standardization and false positives are the other two challenges in developing microfluidics as a tool for rapid allergen detection (Andjelkovic, Martinovic, & Josic, 2015). Thus, in this review, we focus on the direct detection and measurement of allergens in food samples.

Electrochemical microfluidic chip is a powerful tool to perform food analysis which benefits from the advantages of electrochemical methods including high sensitivity, simplicity of operation, and good temporal and spatial control (Hao & Wang, 2016; Martin et al., 2016). Jiang et al. (2016) designed a cell-to-cell electrochemical microfluidic chip for food allergen detection via measurement of food allergen-induced cell morphological changes. ANA-1 macrophages and RBL-2H3 mast cells were seeded at a density of 10^6 cells/mL and cultured in parallel channels, followed by injecting 0.1 ng/mL dinitrophenylated bovine serum albumin (DNP-BSA) of allergen solution to stimulate macrophage cells and mast cells. Metabolite detection was performed on an electrochemical workstation via real-time monitoring and analysis of impedance signal changes in the microfluidic chip. The electrochemical microfluidic chip accurately monitored real-time allergenic responses in the cell and provided a general platform for food allergen detection.

Biotoxins

Biotoxins refer to toxic substances produced by a living organism that may seriously threaten the health or life of humans and livestock if they exist in raw or processed foods (Dong, Xu, Yong, Chu, & Wang, 2014). The poisonous effects of biotoxins (i.e. mycotoxin, marine toxin, phytotoxin, and animal toxin) (Zhang, et al., 2014) can be acute even at a very low intake dosage. Therefore, government agencies and food administration institutes have set extremely strict maximum residue limits on biotoxins in food. Microfluidic chips are capable of conducting both analyte transportation and sensing, its rapid sensing time, low sample consumption and high compatibility make them widely used in biotoxin determination. Recently, due to the requirement for high volume and high-throughput on-site detection, numerous rapid sensing methods have been developed. Microfluidics-based platforms present significant advantages in homemade portable micro-instrument development of rapid and high-sensitivity biotoxin determination. Recently, Guo et al. (2015) summarized the application of microfluidics to the detection of mycotoxins in agricultural and food products. Olcer et al. (2014) developed a real-time microfluidic electrochemical profiling method for on-site detection of deoxynivalenol (DON) in wheat. Two sets of electrode arrays were fabricated on a silicon dioxide wafer and cut to $10 \times 20 \text{ mm}^2$ to form the sensor chips. A poly(methyl-methacrylate) (PMMA) sensor cassette was then fixed to the sensor chip by means of double-sided sticky tape to form a microfluidic channel. An assay was performed by applying 0.1V potential to the electrode array followed by continuous current measurement. Samples of wheat spiked with DON were assayed by microfluidic electrochemical profiling as well as conventional ELISA. Good correlation between these two methods was obtained with an R^2 value of 0.97.

Other food concerns

Other concerns in food safety include pesticides, dyes and fungicides, antibiotics, persistent organic pollutants, and additives. Wang et al. (2014) developed a colorimetric micro-device using plug-based microfluidics for the determination of organophosphate pesticides (OPs). The volume and position of the liquid plugs (substrate and a solution containing enzymes and OPs) were formed at the T-junction by applying appropriate positive or negative pressure to the end of the flow channels. The two plugs merged in the main flow channel and then flowed into the detection chamber. This method provided a novel colorimetric technique by using plugs of small volumes and microfluidics, thus minimizing the consumption of expensive reagents, while also improving reproducibility and precision. Using this method, the lower limit of detection (LOD) was 33 nM for malathion and 90 nM for acephate, MEP, and diazinon was achieved.

Cardoso et al. (2015) reported a paper microfluidic device to determine nitrite levels in ham, sausage, and preservative water samples via colorimetric detection. The paper microfluidic device was fabricated using a stamping-based method. This method required a sample volume of 0.4 mL, and of the LOD was 5.6 μM . Liu et al. (2014) developed a chromatographic chemiluminescence microfluidic chip for determination of dichlorvos in fruits and vegetables. A linear relationship between 10.0 ng/mL and 1.0 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ with a detection limit of 3.6 ng/mL was obtained. Guo et al. (2015) used a PDMS microfluidic impedance immunosensor to measure pesticide residue in vegetables. The PDMS

microfluidic chip consisted of a main microchannel, a detection microchamber of $6\text{ mm} \times 0.5\text{ mm} \times 0.02\text{ mm}$, an inlet and outlet, and an interdigitated array microelectrode (IDAM) in the microchannel. Compared to other methods, such as immunochromatography and AChE-[BMIM][BF₄]-MWCNT/CPb, the microfluidic impedance immunosensor had a broader linear range of $10\text{-}10^5\text{ ng/mL}$ with a LOD of 1 ng/mL in the determination of chlorpyrifos.

Food processing

Use of microfluidics allows for streamlining workflow and other processes in the food and health sciences (Lin & Lee, 2010). Microfluidic technology has been applied to online process monitoring and process efficiency improvement in fermentation processes in the food and beverage industry (Schemberg, et al., 2010). Hypochlorous acid (chlorine) is a widely-used sanitizer for washing fresh produce. When developing science-based food safety regulations and practices, minimum free chlorine concentration needs to be strictly monitored and controlled in order to prevent pathogen cross contamination. Zhang et al. (2015) utilized a mixer-based approach for free chlorine concentration determination using the inactivation kinetics of *E. coli* O157:H7. The micromixer was composed of three mixers (Y-injection mixer, Dean's vortex mixer, and chaotic mixer), three inlets for dispensing bacterial, chlorine, and dechlorinating solutions, and one outlet. Pathogen inactivation kinetics, time and dose-dependent responses of pathogen inactivation using free chlorine were assessed by the micromixer. The researchers found that *E. coli* O157:H7 inactivation was significantly affected by the free chlorine concentration and a 5-log₁₀ reduction in viable bacterial cells could be obtained by exposing the culture to a solution of 1.0 mg/L free chlorine for at least one second. This method provides an efficient way to determine the minimum free chlorine concentration required to prevent pathogen survival during fresh produce washing operations. Due to the comparable size of microfluidics to the structural elements of foods, microfluidic devices are suitable for developing novel food macrostructures (Kim, et al., 2016). Emulsions are one of the most common components in processed food products, and the control of features such as the texture and interfaces within the food is critical to design innovative microstructures and to obtain a wider variety of functional characteristics of food products (Maan, et al., 2015). Although microfluidic emulsification has been extensively investigated in research laboratories, commercialization is difficult due to challenges in scaling up for larger throughput (Maan, et al., 2015).

Conclusion

In this review we have discussed several advantages of Lab on chip systems starting from pre-processing of sample fluids by integrating microfluidics application which can improve and widen the scope of lab on chip in food safety sensing. It can also ease of some of the rigid requirements of under which food sensing systems that is food based biosensors so far must be worked on. Still there are some intrinsic drawbacks of biosensing platforms including costlier sensing element and its increased tendency of fouling. These two factors

can limit the activity and stability of biosensors which in turn affects its lifetime. Hence advancement in this aspect should be the focus in future. One of the important advancement made in current scenario is that lab on chip concept improved the sensitivity of biorecognition element. Now for more development, research should be focused on materials that potentially can execute various roles like providing structural support, be compatible with transduction chain, and avoid fouling and interferences in biorecognition process. There are also some innovative materials like nanomaterials, graphene and conductive polymers along with already known paper based loc, more advancement and research is expecting on loc based biosensors especially in field of food safety and quality analysis.

Reference

1. A. M. Nightingale, A. D. Beaton and M. C. Mowlem, *Sens. Actuator B-Chem.*, 2015, 221, 1398-1405.
2. Ahmadi, A.; Devlin, K.D.; Najjaran, H.; Holzman, J.F.; Hoorfar, M. In situ characterization of microdroplet interfacial properties in digital microfluidic systems. *Lab Chip* **2010**, 10, 1429–1435.
3. Andjelkovic, U., Martinovic, T., & Josic, D. (2015). Foodomic investigations of food allergies. *Current Opinion in Food Science*, 4, 92-98.
4. Asnaashari, M., Esmaeilzadeh Kenari, R., Farahmandfar, R., Taghdisi, S. M., & Abnous, K. (2018). Fluorescence quenching biosensor for acrylamide detection in food products based on double-stranded DNA and gold nanoparticles. *Sensors and Actuators, B: Chemical*, 265, 339–345.
5. Auroux, P.-A.; Iossifidis, D.; Reyes, D.R.; Manz, A. Micro Total Analysis Systems. 2. Analytical Standard Operations and Applications. *Anal. Chem.* **2002**, 74, 2637–2652
6. Bashir, R. Microfluidic Biochip for Impedance Spectroscopy of Biological Species. *Biomed. Microdevices* **2001**, 3, 201–209.
7. Berge, B.; Peseux, J. Variable focal lens controlled by an external voltage: An application of electrowetting. *Eur. Phys. J. E* **2000**, 3, 159–163.
8. Borghei, Y. S., Hosseini, M., & Ganjali, M. R. (2017). Fluorometric determination of microRNA via FRET between silver nanoclusters and CdTe quantum dots. *Microchimica Acta*, 184, 4713–4721.
9. Bringer, M.R.; Gerdts, C.J.; Song, H.; Tice, J.D.; Ismagilov, R.F. Microfluidic systems for chemical kinetics that rely on chaotic mixing in droplets. *Philos. Trans. A. Math. Phys. Eng. Sci.* **2004**, 362, 1087–1104.
10. Brouzes, E.; Medkova, M.; Savenelli, N.; Marran, D.; Twardowski, M.; Hutchison, J.B.; Rothberg, J.M.; Link, D.R.; Perrimon, N.; Samuels, M.L. Droplet microfluidic technology for single-cell high-throughput screening. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* **2009**, 106, 14195–14200
11. Bruus, H., 2008. *Theoretical microfluidics. Physics* 18, 363.
12. C.W. Tsao, *Micromachines.*, 2016, 7, 225.
13. Cai, H.; Zhou, C. SAW based mass-loading biosensor for DNA detection. In Proceedings of the 2013 IEEE International Conference of Electron Devices and Solid-State Circuits (EDSSC), Hong Kong, China, 3–5 June 2013.
14. Campolongo, M. J., Tan, S. J., Xu, J., & Luo, D. (2010). DNA nanomedicine: Engineering DNA as a polymer for therapeutic and diagnostic applications. *Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews*, 62, 606–616

15. Cardoso, T. M., Garcia, P. T., & Coltro, W. K. (2015). Colorimetric determination of nitrite in clinical, food and environmental samples using microfluidic devices stamped in paper platforms. *Analytical Methods*, 7, 7311-7317.
16. Chaiyo, S.; Apiluk, A.; Siangproh, W.; Chailapakul, O. High sensitivity and specificity simultaneous determination of lead, cadmium and copper using PAD with dual electrochemical and colorimetric detection. *Sens. Actuators B Chem.* **2016**, 233, 540–549.nz
17. Chaiyo, S.; Siangproh, W.; Apilux, A.; Chailapakul, O. Highly selective and sensitive paper-based colorimetric sensor using thiosulfate catalytic etching of silver nanoplates for trace determination of copper ions. *Anal. Chim. Acta* **2015**, 866, 75–83.
18. Chansuvarn, W., Tuntulani, T., & Imyim, A. (2015). Colorimetric detection of mercury(II) based on gold nanoparticles, fluorescent gold nanoclusters and other gold-based nanomaterials. *TrAC - Trends in Analytical Chemistry*, 65, 83–96.
19. Choi, J.R. Smartphone-based sensing in food safety and quality analysis. In *Sensing Techniques for Food Safety and Quality Control*; Lu, X., Ed.; Royal Society of Chemistry: London, UK, 2017; Volume 2, pp. 332–358.
20. Choi, J.R.; Hu, J.; Tang, R.; Gong, Y.; Feng, S.; Ren, H.; Wen, T.; Li, X.; Abas, W.A.B.W.; Pinguan-Murphy, B. An integrated paper-based sample-to-answer biosensor for nucleic acid testing at the point of care. *Lab Chip* **2016**, 16, 611–621.
21. Choi, J.R.; Hu, J.; Wang, S.; Yang, H.; Wan Abas, W.A.B.; Pinguan-Murphy, B.; Xu, F. Paper-based point-of-care testing for diagnosis of dengue infections. *Crit. Rev. Biotechnol.* **2017**, 37, 100–111.
22. Choi, J.R.; Tang, R.; Wang, S.; Abas, W.A.B.W.; Pinguan-Murphy, B.; Xu, F. Paper-based sample-to-answer molecular diagnostic platform for point-of-care diagnostics. *Biosens. Bioelectron.* **2015**, 74, 427–439.
23. Choi, J.R.; Yong, K.W.; Tang, R.; Gong, Y.; Wen, T.; Li, F.; Pinguan-Murphy, B.; Bai, D.; Xu, F. Advances and challenges of fully integrated paper-based point-of-care nucleic acid testing. *TrAC Trends Anal. Chem.* **2017**, 93, 37–50
24. Choi, S.; Chae, J. A regenerative biosensing surface in microfluidics using electrochemical desorption of short-chain self-assembled monolayer. *Microfluid. Nanofluidics* **2009**, 7, 819–827.
25. Cinti, S.; Basso, M.; Moscone, D.; Arduini, F. A paper-based nanomodified electrochemical biosensor for ethanol detection in beers. *Anal. Chim. Acta* **2017**, 960, 123–130.
26. Clark, L.; Lyons, C. Electrode systems for continuous monitoring in cardiovascular surgery. *Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci.* **1962**, 102, 29–45.
27. Connelly, J.T.; Rolland, J.P.; Whitesides, G.M. “Paper Machine” for Molecular Diagnostics. *Anal. Chem.* **2015**, 87, 7595–7601.
28. Cui, L., Li, Y., Lu, M., Tang, B., & Zhang, C. Y. (2018). An ultrasensitive electrochemical biosensor for polynucleotide kinase assay based on gold nanoparticle-mediated lambda exonuclease cleavage-induced signal amplification. *Biosensors and Bioelectronics*, 99, 1–7.
29. D. G. Rackus, M. H. Shamsi and A. R. Wheeler, *Chem. Soc. Rev.*, 2015, 44, 5320-5340
30. Datta, S.; Christena, L.R.; Rajaram, Y.R.S. Enzyme immobilization: An overview on techniques and support materials. *3 Biotech* **2012**, 3, 1–9
31. Dong, Y., Xu, Y., Yong, W., Chu, X., & Wang, D. (2014). Aptamer and its potential applications for food safety. *Critical reviews in food science and nutrition*, 54, 1548-1561

32. Du, Y., Li, B., & Wang, E. (2010a). Analytical potential of gold nanoparticles in functional aptamer-based biosensors. *Bioanalytical Reviews*, *1*, 187–208.
33. E. A. Redman, N. G. Batz, J. S. Mellors and J. M. Ramsey, *Anal. Chem.*, 2015, *87*, 2264-2272.
34. Escarpa, A. (2014). Lights and shadows on food microfluidics. *Lab on a Chip*, *14*, 3213-3224
35. Feng, S.; Choi, J.R.; Lu, T.J.; Xu, F. State-of-art advances in liquid penetration theory and flow control in paper for paper-based diagnosis. *Adv. Porous Flow* **2015**, *5*, 16–29.
36. Food Allergy Research & Education (FARE), 2016. <https://www.foodallergy.org/allergens>
37. Fronczek, C.F.; San Park, T.; Harshman, D.K.; Nicolini, A.M.; Yoon, J.-Y. Paper microfluidic extraction and direct smartphone-based identification of pathogenic nucleic acids from field and clinical samples. *RSC Adv.* **2014**, *4*, 11103–11110.
38. Gao, Y., Li, W., & Pappas, D. (2013). Recent advances in microfluidic cell separations. *Analyst*, *138*, 4714-4721.
39. García-Cañas, V., Simó, C., Herrero, M., Ibáñez, E., & Cifuentes, A. (2012). Present and future challenges in food analysis: foodomics. *Analytical chemistry*, *84*, 10150-10159.
40. Garstecki, P.; Fuerstman, M.J.; Stone, H.A.; Whitesides, G.M. Formation of droplets and bubbles in a microfluidic T-junction—scaling and mechanism of break-up. *Lab Chip* **2006**, *6*, 437–446.
41. Gaskin, J.A., Jerman, G.A., Medley, S., Gregory, D., Abbott, T.O. and Sampson, A.R., 2011. Simulation and characterization of a miniaturized scanning electron microscope. In: *IEEE Aerospace Conference Proceedings*
42. Gisela Lin, Abraham P. Lee, *Microfluidics: an emerging technology for food and health science*, *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, 1190, 1, 3 2010
43. Gogol, E. V., Evtugyn, G. A., Marty, J. L., Budnikov, H. C., & Winter, V. G. (2000). Amperometric biosensors based on nafion coated screen-printed electrodes for the determination of cholinesterase inhibitors. *Talanta*, *53*, 379–389.
44. Gong, M.M.; Sinton, D. Turning the page: Advancing paper-based microfluidics for broad diagnostic application. *Chem. Rev.* **2017**, *117*, 8447–8480.
45. Gong, Y.; Hu, J.; Choi, J.R.; You, M.; Zheng, Y.; Xu, B.; Wen, T.; Xu, F. Improved LFIA for highly sensitive detection of BNP at point-of-care. *Int. J. Nanomed.* **2017**, *12*, 4455–4466
46. Goulart, L. R., Vieira, C. U., Freschi, A. P. P., Capparelli, F. E., Fujimura, P. T., Almeida, J. F., et al. (2010). Biomarkers for serum diagnosis of infectious diseases and their potential application in novel sensor platforms. *Critical Reviews in Immunology*, *30*, 201–222.
47. Gu, W., Yan, Y., Zhang, C., Ding, C., & Xian, Y. (2016). One-step synthesis of water-soluble MoS₂ quantum dots via a hydrothermal method as a fluorescent probe for hyaluronidase detection. *ACS Applied Materials and Interfaces*, *8*, 11272–11279.
48. Guo, L., Feng, J., Fang, Z., Xu, J., & Lu, X. (2015). Application of microfluidic “lab-on-a-chip” for the detection of mycotoxins in foods. *Trends in food science & technology*, *46*, 252-263.
49. Guo, Y., Liu, X., Sun, X., Cao, Y., & Wang, X. (2015). A PDMS Microfluidic Impedance Immunosensor for Sensitive Detection Of Pesticide Residues in Vegetable Real Samples. *Int. J. Electrochem. Sci.*, *10*, 4155-4164.

50. Guo, Y., Liu, X., Sun, X., Cao, Y., & Wang, X. (2015). A PDMS Microfluidic Impedance Immunosensor for Sensitive Detection Of Pesticide Residues in Vegetable Real Samples. *Int. J. Electrochem. Sci*, 10, 4155-4164.
51. Hao, N., & Wang, K. (2016). Recent development of electrochemiluminescence sensors for food analysis. *Analytical and bioanalytical chemistry*, 1-14.
52. Hilvert, D. Critical analysis of antibody catalysis. *Annu. Rev. Biochem.* **2000**, 69, 751–793.
53. Hong, J.; Edel, J.B.; deMello, A.J. Micro- and nanofluidic systems for high-throughput biological screening. *Drug Discov. Today* **2009**, 14, 134–146.
54. Hu, J., Wang, Z. Y., Li, C. C., & Zhang, C. Y. (2017). Advances in single quantum dot-based nanosensors. *Chemical Communications*, 53, 13284–13295.
55. Hu, J.; Choi, J.R.; Wang, S.; Gong, Y.; Feng, S.; Pinguan-Murphy, B.; Lu, T.J.; Xu, F. Multiple test zones for improved detection performance in lateral flow assays. *Sens. Actuators B Chem.* **2017**, 243, 484–488
56. J. Calejo, D. Pinho, F. J. Galindo-Rosales, R. Lima and L. Campo-Deano, *Micromachines*, 2016,7, 4
57. J. Chen, C. Xue, Y. Zhao, D. Chen, M.-H. Wu and J. Wang, *Int. J. Mol. Sci.*, 2015, 16,9804-9830.
58. Jaiswal, A., Ghosh, S. S., & Chattopadhyay, A. (2012). Quantum dot impregnated-chitosan film for heavy metal ion sensing and removal. *Langmuir*, 28, 15687–15696.
59. Jayasena, S.D. Aptamers: An Emerging Class of Molecules That Rival Antibodies in Diagnostics. *Clin. Chem.* **1999**, 45, 1628–1650.
60. Jiang, H., Jiang, D., Zhu, P., Pi, F., Ji, J., Sun, C., Sun, J., & Sun, X. (2016). A novel mast cell co-culture microfluidic chip for the electrochemical evaluation of food allergen. *Biosensors and Bioelectronics*, 83, 126-133.
61. K. L. Peters, I. Corbin, L. M. Kaufman, K. Zreibe, L. Blanes and B. R. McCord, *Anal. Methods*, 2015, 7, 63-70.
62. Karniadakis, G., Beskok, A., Aluru, N., 2005. *Microflows and Nanoflows: Fundamentals and Simulation (Interdisciplinary Applied Mathematics)*. Springer.
63. Kim, G., Lim, J., & Mo, C. (2016). Applications of Microfluidics in the Agro-Food Sector: A Review. *Journal of Biosystems Engineering*, 41, 116-125.
64. Kim, G., Lim, J., & Mo, C. (2016). Applications of Microfluidics in the Agro-Food Sector: A Review. *Journal of Biosystems Engineering*, 41, 116-125.
65. Kirby, B.J., 2010. *Micro- and Nanoscale: Fluid Transport in Microfluidic devices*. Cambridge University Press.
66. Kissinger, P.T. Biosensors-a perspective. *Biosens. Bioelectron.* **2005**, 20, 2512–2516.
67. Kumar, S., Kumar, S., Ali, M., Anand, P., Agrawal, V. V., John, R., Maji, S., & Malhotra, B. D. (2013).
68. Law, J.W.-F.; Ab Mutalib, N.-S.; Chan, K.-G.; Lee, L.-H. Rapid methods for the detection of foodborne bacterial pathogens: Principles, applications, advantages and limitations. *Front. Microbiol.* **2015**, 5, 770.
69. Li, B.; Zhang, Z.; Qi, J.; Zhou, N.; Qin, S.; Choo, J.; Chen, L. Quantum dot-based molecularly imprinted polymers on three-dimensional origami paper microfluidic chip for fluorescence detection of phycocyanin. *ACS Sens.* **2017**, 2, 243–250.
70. Li, X.; Yang, F.; Wong, J.X.; Yu, H.-Z. Integrated smartphone-app-chip system for on-site parts-per-billion-level colorimetric quantitation of aflatoxins. *Anal. Chem.* **2017**, 89, 8908–8916.
71. Liang, L., Lan, F., Li, L., Su, M., Ge, S., Yu, J., et al. (2016). Fluorescence “turn-on” determination of H₂O₂ using multilayer porous SiO₂/NGQDs and PdAu mimetics

- enzymatic/oxidative cleavage of single-stranded DNA. *Biosensors and Bioelectronics*, **28**, 204–211.
72. Liu, L., Xu, H., Shen, B., & Zhong, X. (2016a). High-quality water-soluble core/shell/shell CdSe/CdS/ZnS quantum dots balanced by ionic and nonionic hydrophilic capping ligands. *Nano*, **11**
 73. Liu, W., Kou, J., Xing, H., & Li, B. (2014). Paper-based chromatographic chemiluminescence chip for the detection of dichlorvos in vegetables. *Biosensors and Bioelectronics*, **52**, 76-81.
 74. Liu, Z.; Zhang, Y.; Xu, S.; Zhang, H.; Tan, Y.; Ma, C.; Song, R.; Jiang, L.; Yi, C. A 3D printed smartphoneoptosensing platform for point-of-need food safety inspection. *Anal. Chim. Acta* **2017**, **966**, 81–89.
 75. Long, F.; Zhu, A.; Shi, H. Recent advances in optical biosensors for environmental monitoring and earlywarning. *Sensors* **2013**, **13**, 13928–13948.
 76. López, M. A., Moreno-Guzman, M., Jurado, B., & Escarpa, A. (2016). Food Microfluidics Biosensors. *Comprehensive Analytical Chemistry*, **74**, 273-312.
 77. Lu, W., Gong, X., Yang, Z., Zhang, Y., Hu, Q., Shuang, S., et al. (2015). High-quality water-soluble luminescent carbon dots for multicolor patterning, sensors, and bioimaging. *RSC Advances*, **5**, 16972–16979.
 78. Ma, L.; Nilghaz, A.; Choi, J.R.; Liu, X.; Lu, X. Rapid detection of clenbuterol in milk using microfluidicpaper-based ELISA. *Food Chem.* **2018**, **246**, 437–441.
 79. Ma, X. M., Sun, M., Lin, Y., Liu, Y. J., Luo, F., Guo, L. H., et al. (2018). Progress of visual biosensor based on gold nanoparticles. *Chinese Journal of Analytical Chemistry*, **46**, 1–10.
 80. Ma, Y., Zhang, H., Liu, F., Wu, Z., Lu, S., Jin, Q., et al. (2015). Highly sensitive detection of DNA methylation levels by using a quantum dot-based FRET method. *Nanoscale*, **7**, 17547–17555
 81. Maan, A. A., Nazir, A., Khan, M. K. I., Boom, R., & Schroën, K. (2015). Microfluidic emulsification in food processing. *Journal of Food Engineering*, **147**, 1-7.
 82. Magiati, M.; Myridaki, V.M.; Christopoulos, T.K.; Kalogianni, D.P. Lateral flow test for meat authenticationwith visual detection. *Food Chem.* **2019**, **274**, 803–807.
 83. [Manz, A., Graber, N., Widmer, H.M., 1990. Miniaturized total chemical analysis systems: A novel concept forchemical sensing. *Sensors and Actuators B: Chemical* **1** \(1-6\), 244_248.](#)
 84. Manz, A.; Graber, N.; Widmer, H.M. Miniaturized total chemical analysis systems: A novel concept forchemical sensing. *Sens. Actuators B Chem.* **1990**, **1**, 244–248.
 85. Mark, D.; Haeberle, S.; Roth, G.; von Stetten, F.; Zengerle, R. Microfluidic lab-on-a-chip platforms:Requirements, characteristics and applications. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **2010**, **39**, 1153–1182.
 86. Martin, A., Vázquez, L., & Escarpa, A. (2016). Carbon nanomaterial scaffold films with conductivity at micro and sub-micron levels. *Journal of Materials Chemistry A*, **4**, 13142-13147.
 87. Maxwell, D. J., Taylor, J. R., & Nie, S. (2002). Self-assembled nanoparticle probes for recognition and detection of biomolecules. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, **124**, 9606–9612.
 88. Mehling, M., & Tay, S. (2014). Microfluidic cell culture. *Current opinion in Biotechnology*, **25**, 95-102

89. Mei, Q.; Jing, H.; Li, Y.; Yisibashaer, W.; Chen, J.; Li, B.N.; Zhang, Y. Smartphone based visual and quantitative assays on upconversional paper sensor. *Biosens. Bioelectron.* **2016**, *75*, 427–432.
90. Mettakoonpitak, J.; Boehle, K.; Nantaphol, S.; Teengam, P.; Adkins, J.A.; Srisa-Art, M.; Henry, C.S. Electrochemistry on Paper-based Analytical Devices: A Review. *Electroanalysis* **2016**, *28*, 1420–1436.
91. Microfluidic-integrated biosensors: Prospects for point-of-care diagnostics. *Biotechnology Journal*, *8*, 1267-1279.
92. Morales-Narváez, E.; Naghdi, T.; Zor, E.; Merkoçi, A. Photoluminescent lateral-flow immunoassay revealed by graphene oxide: Highly sensitive paper-based pathogen detection. *Anal. Chem.* **2015**, *87*, 8573–8577.
93. N. Wen, Z. Zhao, B. Fan, D. Chen, D. Men, J. Wang and J. Chen, *Molecules*, 2016, 21, 881
94. Novel immunochromatographic assay based on Eu (III)-doped polystyrene nanoparticle-linker-monoclonal antibody for sensitive detection of *Escherichia coli* O157: H7. *Anal. Chim. Acta* **2018**, *998*, 52–59.
95. Olcer, Z., Esen, E., Muhammad, T., Ersoy, A., Budak, S., & Uludag, Y. (2014). Fast and sensitive detection of mycotoxins in wheat using microfluidics based Real-time Electrochemical Profiling. *Biosensors and Bioelectronics*, *62*, 163-169.
96. Pang, B.; Fu, K.; Liu, Y.; Ding, X.; Hu, J.; Wu, W.; Xu, K.; Song, X.; Wang, J.; Mu, Y. Development of a self-priming PDMS/paper hybrid microfluidic chip using mixed-dye-loaded loop-mediated isothermal amplification assay for multiplex foodborne pathogens detection. *Anal. Chim. Acta* **2018**, *1040*, 81–89.
97. Pang, B.; Zhao, C.; Li, L.; Song, X.; Xu, K.; Wang, J.; Liu, Y.; Fu, K.; Bao, H.; Song, D. Development of a low-cost paper-based ELISA method for rapid *Escherichia coli* O157: H7 detection. *Anal. Biochem.* **2018**, *542*, 58–62
98. Pereira Ramanery, F., Piscitelli Mansur, A. A., & Sander Mansur, H. (2015). CdSe/CdS core/shell quantum dots synthesized with water soluble polymer for potential biosensor applications. *Materials Science Forum*, *805*, 83–88.
99. Pollack, M.G.; Shenderov, A.D.; Fair, R.B. Electrowetting-based actuation of droplets for integrated microfluidics. *Lab Chip* **2002**, *2*, 96–101.
1. Q. Zhang, M. Zhang, L. Djeghlaf, J. Bataille, J. Gamby, A.-M. Haghiri-Gosnet and A. Pallandre, *Electrophoresis*, 2017, *38*, 953-976.
100. Rengaraj, S.; Cruz-Izquierdo, Á.; Scott, J.L.; Di Lorenzo, M. Impedimetric paper-based biosensor for the detection of bacterial contamination in water. *Sens. Actuators B Chem.* **2018**, *265*, 50–58.
101. S. Damiati, U. B. Kompella, S. A. Damiati and R. Kodzius, *Genes*, 2018, *9*, 103.
102. Sackmann, E.K.; Fulton, A.L.; Beebe, D.J. The present and future role of microfluidics in biomedical research. *Nature* **2014**, *507*, 181–189.
103. Saerens, D.; Huang, L.; Bonroy, K.; Muyldermans, S. Antibody Fragments as Probe in Biosensor Development. *Sensors* **2008**, *8*, 4669–4686.
104. Safitri, E., Heng, L. Y., Ahmad, M., & Ling, T. L. (2017). Fluorescence bioanalytical method for urea determination based on water soluble ZnS quantum dots. *Sensors and Actuators B: Chemical*, *240*, 763–769.
105. Santano, E.; Pinto, C.; Macías, P. Xenobiotic oxidation by hydroperoxidase activity of lipoxigenase immobilized by adsorption on controlled pore glass. *Enzyme Microb. Technol.* **2002**, *30*, 639–646

106. Schemberg, J., Grodrian, A., Römer, R., Gastrock, G., & Lemke, K. (2010). Application 652 of segmented flow for quality control of food using microfluidic tools. *physica status solidi (a)*, 207, 904-912.
107. Shields IV, C. W., Reyes, C. D., & López, G. P. (2015). Microfluidic cell sorting: a review of the advances in the separation of cells from debulking to rare cell isolation. *Lab on a Chip*, 15, 1230-1249.
108. Shih, C.-M.; Chang, C.-L.; Hsu, M.-Y.; Lin, J.-Y.; Kuan, C.-M.; Wang, H.-K.; Huang, C.-T.; Chung, M.-C.; Huang, K.-C.; Hsu, C.-E. Paper-based ELISA to rapidly detect *Escherichia coli*. *Talanta* **2015**, 145, 2–5.
109. Shin, J.H.; Hong, J.; Go, H.; Park, J.; Kong, M.; Ryu, S.; Kim, K.-P.; Roh, E.; Park, J.-K. Multiplexed Detection of Foodborne Pathogens from Contaminated Lettuces Using a Handheld Multistep Lateral Flow Assay Device. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* **2017**, 66, 290–297.
110. Squires, T.M. Microfluidics: Fluid physics at the nanoliter scale. *Rev. Mod. Phys.* **2005**, 77, 977.
111. Stone, H.A.; Kim, S. Microfluidics: Basic issues, applications, and challenges. *AIChE J.* **2001**, 47, 1250–1254.
112. Sun, L.; Jiang, Y.; Pan, R.; Li, M.; Wang, R.; Chen, S.; Fu, S.; Man, C. A novel, simple and low-cost paper-based analytical device for colorimetric detection of *Cronobacter* spp. *Anal. Chim. Acta* **2018**, 1036, 80–88.
113. Thévenot, D. R., Toth, K., Durst, R. A., & Wilson, G. S. (2001). Electrochemical biosensors: Recommended definitions and classification. *Biosensors and Bioelectronics*, 16, 121–131
114. Valderrama, W.B.; Dudley, E.G.; Doores, S.; Cutter, C.N. Commercially available rapid methods for detection of selected food-borne pathogens. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* **2016**, 56, 1519–1531.
115. Vilela, D., Martín, A., González, M. C., & Escarpa, A. (2014). Fast and reliable class-selective isoflavone index determination on carbon nanotube press-transferred electrodes using microfluidic chips. *Analyst*, 139, 2342-2347.
116. Vo-Dinh, T., Yan, F., & Wabuyele, M. B. (2006). Surface-enhanced Raman scattering for biomedical diagnostics and molecular imaging. *Topics in Applied Physics*, 103, 409–426.
117. Wang, B.; Lin, Z.; Wang, M. Fabrication of a paper-based microfluidic device to readily determine nitrite ion concentration by simple colorimetric assay. *J. Chem. Educ.* **2015**, 92, 733–736.
118. Wang, J., Suzuki, H., & Satake, T. (2014). Coulometric microdevice for organophosphate pesticide detection. *Sensors and Actuators B: Chemical*, 204, 297-301.
119. Wang, M., Wang, L., Liu, Q., & Su, X. (2018). A fluorescence sensor for protein kinase activity detection based on gold nanoparticles/copper nanoclusters system. *Sensors and Actuators B: Chemical*, 256, 691–698.
120. Wang, P.; Wang, M.; Zhou, F.; Yang, G.; Qu, L.; Miao, X. Development of a paper-based, inexpensive, and disposable electrochemical sensing platform for nitrite detection. *Electrochem. Commun.* **2017**, 81, 74–78.
121. Weibel, D.B.; Whitesides, G.M. Applications of microfluidics in chemical biology. *Curr. Opin. Chem. Biol.* **2006**, 10, 584–591.
122. Whitesides, G. M. (2006). The origins and the future of microfluidics. *Nature*, 442, 368-373.

123. Whitesides, G.M. The origins and the future of microfluidics. *Nature* **2006**, 442, 368–373.
124. Wu, W.; Zhao, S.; Mao, Y.; Fang, Z.; Lu, X.; Zeng, L. A sensitive lateral flow biosensor for *Escherichia coli* O157: H7 detection based on aptamer mediated strand displacement amplification. *Anal. Chim. Acta* **2015**, 861, 62–68.
125. X. You, B. Wang, S. Xie, L. Li, H. Lu, M. Jin, X. Wang, G. Zhou and L. Shui, *Nanomaterials*, 2020, 10, 13.
126. Xia, Y.; Whitesides, G.M. Soft Lithography. *Annu. Rev. Mater. Sci.* **1998**, 28, 153–184.
127. Xing, K.-Y.; Peng, J.; Liu, D.-F.; Hu, L.-M.; Wang, C.; Li, G.-Q.; Zhang, G.-G.; Huang, Z.; Cheng, S.; Zhu, F.-F.
128. Xu, J. (2014). Microfluidics "lab-on-a-chip" system for food chemical hazard detection. *Food chemical hazard detection: development and application of new technologies*, 263–289.
129. Yager, P., Edwards, T., Fu, E., Helton, K., Nelson, K., Tam, M. R., & Weigl, B. H. (2006). Microfluidic diagnostic technologies for global public health. *Nature*, 442, 412–418.
130. Yaseen, T., Sun, D. W., & Cheng, J. H. (2017). Raman imaging for food quality and safety evaluation: Fundamentals and applications. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, 62, 177–189. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tifs.2017.01.012>
131. Yew, C.; Azari, P.; Choi, J.; Muhamad, F.; Pinguan-Murphy, B. Electrospun Polycaprolactone Nanofibers as a Reaction Membrane for Lateral Flow Assay. *Polymers* **2018**, 10, 1387
132. Yew, C.-H.T.; Azari, P.; Choi, J.R.; Li, F.; Pinguan-Murphy, B. Electrospin-coating of nitrocellulose membrane enhances sensitivity in nucleic acid-based lateral flow assay. *Anal. Chim. Acta* **2018**, 1009, 81–88.
133. Zaid, M. H. M., & Abdullah, J. (2017). Preparation and characterization of amine functionalized graphene oxide with water soluble quantum dots for sensing material. *AIP Conference Proceedings*, 1877(2017). 040002.
134. Zeng, D.; Chen, Z.; Jiang, Y.; Xue, F.; Li, B. Advances and challenges in viability detection of foodborne pathogens. *Front. Microbiol.* **2016**, 7, 1833.
135. Zhang, B., Luo, Y., Zhou, B., Wang, Q., & Millner, P. D. (2015). A novel microfluidic mixer-based approach for determining inactivation kinetics of *Escherichia coli* O157: H7 in chlorine solutions. *Food microbiology*, 49, 152–160.
136. Zhang, E. D., Liu, L. B., Lv, F. T., & Wang, S. (2018c). Water-soluble conjugated polymers for biosensor applications. *Acta Polymerica Sinica*, 2, 186–197.
137. Zhang, Z., Yu, L., Xu, L., Hu, X., Li, P., Zhang, Q., Ding, X., & Feng, X. (2014). Biotoxin sensing in food and environment via microchip. *Electrophoresis*, 35, 1547–1559.
138. Zhao, Y.; Wang, H.; Zhang, P.; Sun, C.; Wang, X.; Wang, X.; Yang, R.; Wang, C.; Zhou, L. Rapid multiplex detection of 10 foodborne pathogens with an up-converting phosphor technology-based 10-channel lateral flow assay. *Sci. Rep.* **2016**, 6, 21342.
139. Zheng, P., & Wu, N. (2017). Fluorescence and sensing applications of graphene oxide and graphene quantum dots: A review. *Chemistry - An Asian Journal*, 12, 2343–2353.