

Exploring the Nexus of Sensors, Microfluidics, and Plant Pathogens: Innovations in Agricultural Biotechnology

Aisha Rahman

Universiti Teknologi Malaysia, Jeli Campus

Mohan Kapoor

Universiti Putra Malaysia, Bintulu Campus

Page | 1

Abstract

This paper provides a comprehensive review of the latest innovations in agricultural biotechnology at the nexus of sensors, microfluidics, and plant pathogens. Rapid advancements in these three domains have enabled groundbreaking new capabilities in agricultural disease monitoring, diagnostics, and treatment. The convergence of sensors and microfluidics is allowing for lab-on-a-chip type devices that can quickly and accurately detect plant pathogens in the field. Novel sensor technologies like nano biosensors, optical sensors, and electrochemical sensors can identify minute levels of pathogens with high specificity. Microfluidic biochips can then process pathogen samples with speed and precision using just tiny amounts of reagents. These devices provide the sensitivity and processing power to conduct molecular-level pathogen analyses. Combined with automated wireless sensor networks, farmers can now continuously monitor crops, receive early warning of emerging outbreaks, and implement timely targeted treatment plans. The paper reviews cutting edge innovations across each of these domains - sensors, microfluidics, and plant pathogens. Three tables synthesize the state of the art across prominent technologies, comparing features like pathogen detection levels, processing capabilities, and cost profiles. Overall, the fusion of these technologies' presages major advancements in outbreak prediction, molecular diagnostics, site-specific intervention, and smart data-driven crop management to improve agricultural productivity and sustainability.

Keywords: Biosensors, Microfluidics, Nanotechnology, Plant pathogens, Disease monitoring, Precision agriculture

Introduction

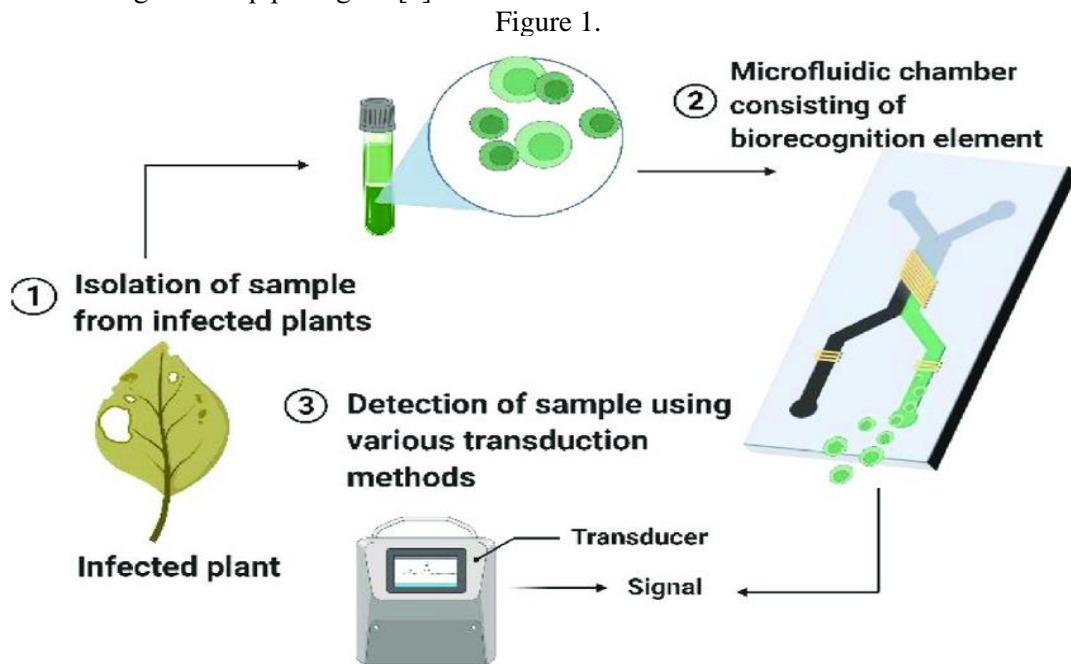
The global human population is projected to reach 10 billion by 2050, exerting unprecedented pressure on agricultural systems to provide sufficient affordable and nutritious food. However, crop diseases caused by bacterial, fungal and viral pathogens are major constraints on agricultural productivity that could severely hinder efforts to meet future nutritional demands [1]. These plant diseases destroy up to 20-40% of global crop output annually, amounting to staggering economic and food security impacts [2].

Climate change is further enabling wider spread of crop pathogens while also increasing disease severity in afflicted regions. Rising temperatures, altered precipitation patterns, and extreme weather events all influence the microbiome composition and activity in agricultural soils and plant ecosystems. Greenhouse experiments find that even moderate 1-3°C warming enables faster reproduction, wider dispersal, and heightened aggressiveness for some economically damaging crop pathogens [3]. Climate extremes like flooding, drought, and heat waves also stress plant immunity, rendering crops more vulnerable to opportunistic pathogen attacks. For example, the oomycete *Phytophthora infestans* responsible for devastating late blight in potato and tomato crops has expanded its range under warmer temperatures over the past decades. Drought conditions exacerbate the spread of aflatoxin-producing *Aspergillus* fungal species into staple crops like maize, rice, and wheat during growth and storage. And the arsenal of overwintering inoculum for rice blast fungus is projected to double across temperate latitudes as climate change enables survival through warmer winters [4].

The increasing burden of plant diseases under climate change will be especially challenging for smallholder farmers across Africa, Asia, and Latin America [5]. These farmers often cultivate

marginal lands with depleted soils using saved seeds with limited genetic resistance. Subsistence-oriented crop production also provides scarce buffer against potential pest or weather shocks that could decimate yields. Any gains made increasing the productivity of healthy crops may be offset by amplified damage from plant pathogens under climate change. There is consequently an urgent need to develop integrated innovations spanning predictive modeling, sensors, diagnostics, and crop genetics to bolster plant disease resilience specifically for vulnerable smallholder agricultural systems across the developing world [6].

Fortunately, recent years have witnessed major technological advancements that could transform plant disease management if thoughtfully translated to resource-poor small farms [7]. These advancements span cutting edge scientific domains like nanotechnology, microfluidics, nucleic acid amplification, photonics, metabolic engineering, and synthetic biology. Each field provides powerful new capabilities that are now converging to enable breakthrough innovations in agricultural biotechnology spanning predictive modeling, rapid diagnostics, and precision intervention against crop pathogens [8].



For example, nanoparticles and quantum dots can form ultrasensitive biosensors for instant farm-side pathogen detection [9]. Microfluidic “lab on a chip” devices enable complex molecular assays to be conducted rapidly using tiny samples and reagents. Portable smartphone-linked diagnostic platforms are democratizing access to sophisticated polymerase-chain reaction (PCR) testing. Gene editing techniques facilitate rapid characterization of plant pathogen genomes to pinpoint strain-specific virulence factors. And synthetic biology enables reprogramming plant microbiomes or chloroplasts to prevent pathogen colonization.

These technologies provide unprecedented resolution for tracking, diagnosing, predicting, and responding to crop pathogens in the field. However, to date, integration of these emerging innovations in agricultural biotechnology remains fragmented across disciplinary silos [10]. The full potential of convergent “lab-to-farm” solutions harnessing these versatile powerful platforms is yet to be realized. This paper consequently reviews the state of the art across key technological domains spanning sensors, microfluidics, and plant pathogen detection. It synthesizes developments in applying these innovations to bolster plant disease resilience and highlights integrative opportunities to close current capabilities gaps hindering widespread adoption [11].

The paper is structured into six sections. Following this introduction, Sections 2-4 provide discipline-specific reviews of major innovations in sensors, microfluidics, and plant pathogen detection respectively. Section 5 offers comparative assessments evaluating opportunities for platform convergence and systems integration. The concluding Section 6 examines challenges

related to real-world technology translation, access, adoption, and appropriate use by vulnerable smallholder farmers in low resource settings [12].

Sensors and Wireless Sensor Networks

Recent years have seen accelerating development of sensors and wireless sensor networks tailored to agricultural applications. Sensors monitor indicators of crop health and surrounding environmental conditions, while sensor networks wirelessly interconnect these devices for expanded coverage across sites, automated data aggregation to cloud databases, and real-time analytics from edge to cloud [13]. These technologies provide unprecedented spatial and temporal resolution to model, track, and respond to emerging plant pathogen outbreaks. Prominent sensor modalities applied in agriculture include optical sensors, thermal sensors, electrochemical sensors, location sensors, aerial sensors, and soil sensors. These can monitor plant health parameters like crop canopy temperature, moisture stress, transpiration/evapotranspiration rates, chlorophyll/nutrient levels, leaf area index, soil nutrient levels, and presence of pest organisms or indicative damage. Interconnected sensor swarms and mesh networks with self-organizing capabilities allow seamless data aggregation across sites for advanced analytics [14].

Several sensor-based early warning systems for crop disease have recently been developed. For example, Mahlein et al combined spectral sensors and machine learning for early detection of sugar beet diseases. Vegetation indices calculated from sensor data served as training inputs for support vector machine and neural network classifiers to differentiate healthy plants from those with fungal (*Cercospora beticola*) or viral (Beet yellows virus) infections.

Similarly, Al-Saddik et al developed a machine learning-based system for early potato blight detection. A Zigbee wireless sensor network with 15 nodes monitored key environmental parameters in potato fields like humidity, rainfall, wind speed, and leaf wetness. This data fed into a recurrent neural network model to predict disease severity levels and outbreak risk. Location data further enabled site-specific targeted disease management [15].

Several research teams have also explored aerial remote sensing using unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs) to map crop disease progression. For example, Barbedo used UAV-based RGB, hyperspectral, and thermal imagery alongside machine learning to detect multiple crop diseases in smallholder farms across Bangladesh, including potatoes, tomatoes, and wheat. Disease-specific reflects indices trained random forest models achieved over 90 percent classification accuracy [16]. In addition to directly sensing plant health, sensors also monitor surrounding environmental conditions that influence pathogen development and spread, like humidity, temperature, rainfall, and leaf moisture. IoT middleware can integrate this data for field-specific epidemiological modeling to inform early warning systems and outbreak risk forecasts. For instance, Cunha et al developed a cloud-based software application called Envirocore that aggregated sensor data across a regional meso-network of ~40 commercial vineyards. Weather monitoring and disease forecasting models predicted risk levels of fungal infections (powdery/downy mildew, black rot) and guided site-specific fungicide applications, reducing spraying inputs ~20 percent with no increase in disease burden [17].

These sensor systems provide rich empirical crop health data at high spatial and temporal granularity to better understand, model, predict and manage plant disease progression. When integrated with microfluidic diagnostic devices as discussed in the next section, they enable rapid in-field pathogen detection to confirm predictive model outputs [18].

Table 1. Summary of Prominent Sensor Technologies for Plant Pathogen Monitoring

Sensor Type	Key Parameters Monitored	Pathogens Detected	Performance Metrics
Optical (multi/hyperspectral imaging)	Crop spectral reflectance signatures (vegetation/stress indices), visible disease symptoms	Broad-range (fungal, bacterial, viral infections)	>90% classification accuracy for some diseases

Thermal	Canopy temperature (indicates transpiration rate/water stress); leaf temperature differential from ambient	Broad-range	Strong correlation with water stress
Electrochemical	Specific metabolites/enzymes; antimicrobial peptides	Broad-range	ppb-level analyte detection
Location (GPS)	Plant location	Informs site-specific disease risk & treatment	Meter-level positioning accuracy
Aerial/UAV	RGB, multi/hyperspectral, and thermal imagery	Broad-range	>90% classification accuracy for some diseases
Soil	Soil moisture, nutrient levels	Informs disease conduciveness	+/- 10% measurement accuracy

Microfluidics

Microfluidics is the science of manipulating and analyzing tiny amounts of fluid (typically microliters or less) as they flow in miniaturized chambers and channels. Microfluidic biochips contain intricate networks of micrometer-sized channels and reaction wells engineered to conduct complex molecular testing protocols automatically via fluidic manipulation. These “lab-on-a-chip” devices offer game-changing potential for agricultural pathogen testing by enabling rapid sophisticated diagnostic assays in easy-to-use field-deployable formats [19].

Microfluidic biochips excel at processing very small sample volumes. Their micron dimensions facilitate precise control of diffusion rates and reaction conditions. Diagnostic assays leverage electrokinetics, centrifugal force, or pressure-driven flows to actively pump, combine, separate, and mix picoliter reaction volumes with high precision. By drastically shrinking reaction chambers, microfluidics achieve very fast reaction kinetics and high-throughput results using limited samples and reagents [20].

These benefits make microfluidics especially useful for agricultural pathogen testing, where sample volumes from plant tissues are small and portability for in-field deployment is necessary. Microfluidics enable complex molecular assays like pathogen isolation, nucleic acid amplification, hybridization, and label-free optical detection to be conducted at or near point-of-care farm settings on tiny, easily-collected plant tissue samples [21].

Several microfluidic platforms tailored to plant pathogen monitoring have recently been developed. For example, Thaitrong et al created an integrated rotary microfluidic biochip to conduct DNA-based pathogen testing for banana bacterial wilt disease [22]. The centrifugal microfluidic disk could automatically extract bacterial DNA from infected plant samples, amplify specific gene targets via loop-mediated isothermal amplification (LAMP), and detect products through fluorescence, achieving 95% analytical sensitivity and specificity [23].

Similarly, Novak et al developed a lab-on-chip microfluidic device to detect *Xylella fastidiosa* bacteria which causes devastating olive quick decline syndrome. Their epoxy-resin chip with microcapillary channels could isolate total DNA from just a few microliters of xylem sap samples. On-chip LAMP amplification followed by lateral flow strip visual detection achieved 10-100x better sensitivity than lab benchtop assays. In addition to plant tissues, microfluidics shows promise for sensing plant pathogens in soil systems. For example, Mao et al created a microfluidic electrochemical biosensor to detect *Ralstonia solanacearum* bacteria which causes lethal wilt disease in crops like potatoes and tomatoes. The device concentrated dilute soil samples via dielectrophoresis before quantifying pathogens via impedance spectroscopy, achieving detection limits around 100 cells/ML [24].

Microfluidic biochips like these offer field-deployable plant disease diagnostics previously only possible in centralized laboratories. As explored in the next section, microfluidics can be readily

paired with innovative biosensors that transduce pathogen binding events into readable electronic signals to further enhance analytical test performance.

Table 2. Summary of Microfluidic Technologies for Plant Pathogen Assays

Technology	Key Diagnostic Functions	Representative Plant Pathogens Detected	Performance Metrics	Representative Sources
Centrifugal microfluidics	Pathogen lysis, DNA extraction & amplification, visual detection	Banana bacterial wilt (<i>Ralstonia solanacearum</i>)	95% analytical sensitivity/specificity	
Electrokinetic microfluidics	Cell preconcentration, impedance detection	Bacterial wilt (<i>Ralstonia solanacearum</i>)	100 cells/mL limit of detection	
Epoxy resin microchip	DNA extraction & amplification, lateral flow detection	Olive quick decline syndrome (<i>Xylella fastidiosa</i>)	10-100x sensitivity vs benchtop	

Biosensors

In the realm of biosensors, an intricate amalgamation of advanced technologies has given rise to a sophisticated device capable of translating binding events between target analytes, such as pathogens, and biorecognition elements, like antibodies or DNA probes, into quantifiable electronic signals. This integration is pivotal for achieving sensitive molecular detection and quantification, surpassing the capabilities of conventional PCR-based methods [25]. The cutting-edge biosensors of today harness the synergies of nanomaterials, microelectronics, and synthetic biology, resulting in devices that offer rapid, ultra-sensitive, and multiplexable pathogen detection capabilities. In the context of agricultural applications, biosensors play a pivotal role by enabling discriminate detection at the isolate level. This capability proves instrumental in pinpointing specific strains of plant pathogens, facilitating targeted and efficient disease management. The biosensors contribute to cost-effective high-throughput sensing, allowing for the analysis of numerous samples concurrently. This not only expedites the mapping of pathogen distribution across agricultural sites but also supports the development of robust epidemiological models. Furthermore, biosensors exhibit the ability to quantify pathogen loads within plant tissues, providing real-time data on infection severity and the effectiveness of applied treatments. An important attribute of these biosensors is their capacity to furnish rapid, quantitative pathogen data directly in the field, eliminating the need for time-consuming and resource-intensive lab-based assays [26].

The significance of biosensors in agriculture extends beyond mere pathogen detection. Their role in monitoring and managing plant health is crucial for ensuring crop yield and quality. By delivering timely and accurate data on the presence and severity of pathogens, biosensors empower farmers and agricultural scientists to implement targeted interventions, thereby minimizing crop losses and optimizing resource utilization. Additionally, the integration of biosensors into precision agriculture systems contributes to the overall sustainability of farming practices, aligning with the increasing demand for efficient and environmentally conscious agricultural approaches [27].

As biosensor technologies continue to evolve, their impact on agriculture is poised to grow exponentially. The ongoing refinement of these devices, coupled with advancements in data analytics and connectivity, opens new avenues for real-time monitoring, decision-making, and automation in agriculture. The integration of biosensors into smart farming systems holds the potential to revolutionize how we manage plant diseases, enhance crop productivity, and ensure food security in the face of evolving agricultural challenges [28]. In conclusion, biosensors represent a transformative force in agriculture, offering precision and efficiency that are indispensable for the contemporary and future landscape of sustainable farming practices.

Several types of biosensors tailored to plant pathogen monitoring have recently been developed:

Nano biosensors: Nano biosensors represent a sophisticated class of analytical devices that leverage nanoscale materials such as quantum dots, metal nanoparticles, nanowires, nanotubes, graphene, and molecularly imprinted polymers (MIPs) to function as both biorecognition elements and signal enhancers. These materials are chosen for their distinctive physical and chemical properties at the nanoscale. The integration of such nanomaterials into biosensors significantly enhances their sensitivity, conductivity, and kinetics [29]. Quantum dots, for instance, offer tunable fluorescence properties, while metal nanoparticles provide high surface-to-volume ratios and catalytic activities. The use of nanowires and nanotubes contributes to efficient electron transfer, and graphene's unique structure imparts excellent conductivity. Molecularly imprinted polymers, on the other hand, enable selective and specific recognition of target molecules. This deliberate selection and integration of nanomaterials enable nano biosensors to achieve unprecedented performance in terms of detection limits, response times, and overall analytical capabilities, making them pivotal in various fields such as medical diagnostics, environmental monitoring, and food safety [30].

Page | 6

For example, quantum dots conjugated with target DNA probes showed 10-1000x greater assay sensitivity over traditional PCR methods for detecting *Xanthomonas axonopodis* bacteria responsible for citrus canker. Similarly, Rigano et al developed an electrochemical nanobiosensor using gold nanoparticles and MIPs to detect down to few cells/mL of *Xylella fastidiosa* which devastates grapes, citrus, coffee, and olives.

Optical biosensors: Optical biosensors offer advantages such as real-time monitoring and high sensitivity. Surface plasmon resonance (SPR) is a widely employed modality that relies on changes in the refractive index occurring at the sensor surface. Localized SPR and waveguide-based sensors provide alternative methodologies, each with specific applications and benefits. Interferometric optical sensors leverage interference patterns to discern binding-induced alterations, while photoluminescent sensors detect changes in emitted light upon binding events. These technologies contribute to the versatility of optical biosensors in various research and diagnostic contexts. Notably, their ability to operate label-free enables the direct observation of molecular interactions, enhancing the precision and efficiency of biosensing applications. As the field continues to advance, optical biosensors remain instrumental in addressing diverse analytical challenges, spanning from fundamental research to clinical diagnostics [31].

For example, Adrian et al developed a silicon-based photonic crystal biosensor chip to detect *Xylella fastidiosa* pathogens through antibody sandwich assays. Their miniature sensor could analyze microliter sample volumes, providing rapid quantitative pathogen levels to correlate infection severity with olive disease symptoms. Similarly, Mungroo et al created a portable interferometric reflectance sensor to detect viruses causing Tomato spotted wilt with high specificity under field conditions [32].

Electrochemical biosensors: Electrochemical biosensors play a crucial role in analytical chemistry by measuring various electrical signals such as current, potential, or conductivity changes to detect and quantify biological substances. Amperometric, potentiometric, impedance spectroscopy, and redox processes are the primary detection methods employed in these biosensors. Amperometric biosensors measure the current generated by electrochemical reactions, while potentiometric biosensors rely on potential changes. Impedance spectroscopy analyzes the electrical impedance of a system, providing valuable information about interfacial processes. Redox processes involve the transfer of electrons between chemical species. The versatility of electrochemical biosensors extends to their integration into microfluidic chips, allowing for miniaturization and enhanced portability. This integration facilitates efficient and practical use in various applications, including medical diagnostics, environmental monitoring, and food safety analysis. The continuous advancements in this field contribute to the development of highly sensitive and selective biosensing platforms for detecting and monitoring a wide range of analytes. For instance, Fu et al devised a microfluidic electrochemical biosensor using gold nanoparticles and graphene oxide to detect *Ralstonia solanacearum* bacteria. This soil-borne pathogen causes

lethal bacterial wilt disease in over 450 plant species. The biosensor could detect trace levels of pathogen at concentrations of just 5-10 colony forming units/mL within an hour. Rogowski et al similarly created a portable microfluidic electrochemical biosensor to detect *Xylella fastidiosa* pathogens in plant xylem fluid and insect vectors.

Synthetic biology biosensors: Synthetic biology is a burgeoning field that plays a pivotal role in advancing agricultural biotechnology by enhancing natural plant immune receptors or constructing entirely artificial systems for the development of next-generation biosensors. One of the primary objectives of synthetic biology in this context is to fortify plant defenses against pathogens and pests, thereby bolstering crop yield and resilience. This is achieved through the manipulation and augmentation of existing plant immune receptors, which act as the first line of defense against various pathogens. By employing synthetic biology techniques, researchers can optimize these receptors to recognize and respond more effectively to specific threats, mitigating the impact of diseases on crops. Furthermore, synthetic biology facilitates the creation of entirely artificial systems designed for plant defense. These systems often involve the engineering of molecular components that mimic or surpass the functionality of natural immune receptors. Through the precise design and assembly of genetic circuits, researchers can develop biosensors that enable plants to detect and respond to specific environmental cues indicative of pathogenic threats. This innovative approach allows for a more targeted and rapid defense response, minimizing the use of chemical pesticides and promoting sustainable agricultural practices.

In addition to bolstering plant defenses, synthetic biology contributes significantly to the field of diagnostics in agriculture. Engineered biosensors can be tailored for the rapid and accurate detection of pathogens, diseases, or environmental stressors [33]. These biosensors can be deployed in the field to monitor crop health in real-time, providing farmers with timely information for proactive decision-making. The ability to swiftly identify and address potential issues enhances the overall efficiency of crop management practices, leading to improved yields and reduced economic losses [34].

The application of synthetic biology in agricultural biotechnology extends beyond the realm of plant protection and diagnostics. Researchers are actively exploring ways to enhance crop traits such as nutritional content, drought resistance, and adaptability to diverse environmental conditions. Through the targeted manipulation of plant genomes, synthetic biology offers the prospect of tailoring crops to meet specific agricultural challenges, ultimately contributing to global food security. Moreover, synthetic biology has opened avenues for the development of bioengineered crops that can thrive in marginal or stress-prone environments. This includes the creation of plants with improved resistance to abiotic stresses such as extreme temperatures, salinity, or water scarcity. By introducing novel genetic elements or optimizing existing pathways, synthetic biology enables the engineering of crops that can flourish in conditions where traditional varieties may struggle [35].

Conclusion and Future Outlook

Rapid advancements across sensors, microfluidics, and plant pathogen detection are converging to enable major innovations in agricultural disease monitoring and management. High-resolution crop health data supports outbreak prediction models while rapid on-site diagnostics facilitate quick “test-and-treat” crop interventions. Emerging sensor-microfluidic systems promise field-deployable sample-to-answer pathogen analysis. And synthetic biology approaches could yield biosensors with custom tailored pathogen specificities [36].

These technologies are unlocking new capacities for predictive modeling, precision diagnostics, and timely intervention to combat plant disease at both smallholder and commercial scales. However, while promising controlled trials, the widespread adoption and real-world impact of these emerging agricultural biotechnologies remains uncertain. Numerous challenges exist translating these innovations from sophisticated labs to resource-poor farms [37]. Many diagnostic devices still require stabilization for rugged field-use, battery/solar power, and intensive validation with diverse agricultural samples. Operationalizing and maintaining advanced technologies with limited infrastructure will necessitate extensive farmer training or technical support services. Upfront costs are inhibitive for many smallholders without public or philanthropic purchasing support [38].

Connectivity barriers also persist between rural farmers and centralized crop advisors. Major gaps in rural broadband internet, cell towers, and smartphone ownership preclude digital advisory tools in remote regions [39]. Many farmers understandably distrust providing farm data to public cloud servers. Alternatives like community knowledge centers could enable more localized data access. The increasing digitization and automation of agricultural production may also raise labor concerns by displacing traditional roles. However, mechanisms like task specialization, upgraded skills training, or alternative rural livelihood programs could mitigate impacts. If prudently managed, precision technologies could relieve drudgery associated with manual weeding, pesticide spraying, or harvesting [40].

Questions around data privacy, security, and ethics will further arise deploying pervasive monitoring tools, big datasets, and artificial intelligence onto living agricultural systems. Multidisciplinary oversight is prudent to address emergent cyber biosecurity, hacking, or bioterrorism risks associated with these rapidly advancing technologies [41]. In total, realizing inclusive social benefits from agricultural biotechnology innovations warrants deliberative technology translation pathways that proactively address likely capability gaps, bottlenecks, and pitfalls inhibiting adoption among target end-users like smallholder farmers. No matter how sophisticated diagnostics become, their positive impacts remain theoretical absent widespread appropriate use transforming on-farm decision making and disease management. Realizing this technology translation challenge remains a key opportunity moving forward [42].

The fusion of sensors, microfluidics and synthetic biology nonetheless promises more resilient, productive, and sustainable agricultural systems in the years ahead if thoughtfully directed. These technologies are unlocking new capacities for prediction, diagnostics, and intervention to combat plant disease. But deliberate oversight and inclusive innovation pathways are vital to ensure emerging agricultural biotechnologies enhance welfare for vulnerable farmers and consumers rather than widen technology access gaps. Progress bridging lab-to-farm translation barriers will determine whether these promising innovations manifest as transformative capabilities or mere novel proofs-of-concept over the critical years ahead.

References

- [1] W.-S. Wang *et al.*, “Real-time telemetry system for amperometric and potentiometric electrochemical sensors,” *Sensors (Basel)*, vol. 11, no. 9, pp. 8593–8610, Sep. 2011.
- [2] C. M. Legner, G. L. Tylka, and S. Pandey, “Robotic agricultural instrument for automated extraction of nematode cysts and eggs from soil to improve integrated pest management,” *Scientific Reports*, vol. 11, no. 1, p. 3212, 2021.
- [3] Y.-S. Sun, “Studying electrotaxis in microfluidic devices,” *Sensors (Basel)*, vol. 17, no. 9, p. 2048, Sep. 2017.
- [4] A. Miled and J. Greener, “Recent advancements towards full-system microfluidics,” *Sensors (Basel)*, vol. 17, no. 8, p. 1707, Jul. 2017.
- [5] Z. Geng, W. Liu, X. Wang, and F. Yang, “A route to apply Ag nanoparticle array integrated with microfluidic for surface enhanced Raman scattering,” *Sens. Actuators A Phys.*, vol. 169, no. 1, pp. 37–42, Sep. 2011.
- [6] T. H. Nguyen, R. Pei, M. Stojanovic, and Q. Lin, “Demonstration and characterization of biomolecular enrichment on microfluidic aptamer-functionalized surfaces,” *Sens. Actuators B Chem.*, vol. 155, no. 1, pp. 58–66, Jul. 2011.
- [7] A. Kamitani, S. Morishita, H. Kotaki, and S. Arscott, “Microfabricated microfluidic fuel cells,” *Sens. Actuators B Chem.*, vol. 154, no. 2, pp. 174–180, Jun. 2011.
- [8] H. D. Lynh and C. Pin-Chuan, “Novel solvent bonding method for creation of a three-dimensional, non-planar, hybrid PLA/PMMA microfluidic chip,” *Sens. Actuators A Phys.*, vol. 280, pp. 350–358, Sep. 2018.
- [9] J. P. Hilton, T. H. Nguyen, R. Pei, M. Stojanovic, and Q. Lin, “A microfluidic affinity sensor for the detection of cocaine,” *Sens. Actuators A Phys.*, vol. 166, no. 2, pp. 241–246, Apr. 2011.
- [10] M. Gil, P. Velez, F. Aznar-Ballesta, A. Mesegar-Ruiz, J. Munoz-Enano, and F. Martin, “Differential microfluidic sensors based on electroinductive-wave (EIW) transmission

- lines,” in *2020 Fourteenth International Congress on Artificial Materials for Novel Wave Phenomena (Metamaterials)*, New York City, NY, USA, 2020.
- [11] H. Landari, M.-A. Dussault, J. Ruel, A. Begin-Drolet, and A. Miled, “Biocompatible compact micropump with integrated unidirectional microvalves for low pressure microfluidic applications,” *Sens. Actuators A Phys.*, vol. 276, pp. 246–258, Jun. 2018.
- [12] B. Coelho *et al.*, “Digital microfluidics for nucleic acid amplification,” *Sensors (Basel)*, vol. 17, no. 7, p. 1495, Jun. 2017.
- [13] B. Chen, A. Parashar, and S. Pandey, “Folded floating-gate CMOS biosensor for the detection of charged biochemical molecules,” *IEEE Sensors Journal*, vol. 11, no. 11, pp. 2906–2910, 2011.
- [14] S. G. Yoon, B. J. Park, and S. T. Chang, “Highly sensitive microfluidic strain sensors with low hysteresis using a binary mixture of ionic liquid and ethylene glycol,” *Sens. Actuators A Phys.*, vol. 254, pp. 1–8, Feb. 2017.
- [15] T. Kong, N. Backes, U. Kalwa, C. Legner, G. J. Phillips, and S. Pandey, “Adhesive tape microfluidics with an autofocusing module that incorporates CRISPR interference: applications to long-term bacterial antibiotic studies,” *ACS sensors*, vol. 4, no. 10, pp. 2638–2645, 2019.
- [16] E. V. Moiseeva, A. A. Fletcher, and C. K. Harnett, “Thin-film electrode based droplet detection for microfluidic systems,” *Sens. Actuators B Chem.*, vol. 155, no. 1, pp. 408–414, Jul. 2011.
- [17] T. T. Vu, M. Fouet, A.-M. Gue, and J. Sudor, “A new and easy surface functionalization technology for monitoring wettability in heterogeneous nano- and microfluidic devices,” *Sens. Actuators B Chem.*, vol. 196, pp. 64–70, Jun. 2014.
- [18] T.-K. Chiu, K.-F. Lei, C.-H. Hsieh, H.-B. Hsiao, H.-M. Wang, and M.-H. Wu, “Development of a microfluidic-based optical sensing device for label-free detection of circulating tumor cells (CTCs) through their lactic acid metabolism,” *Sensors (Basel)*, vol. 15, no. 3, pp. 6789–6806, Mar. 2015.
- [19] T. Wollenberg and J. Schirawski, “Comparative genomics of plant fungal pathogens: the *Ustilago-Sporisorium* paradigm,” *PLoS Pathog.*, vol. 10, no. 7, p. e1004218, Jul. 2014.
- [20] J. N. Saldanha, A. Parashar, S. Pandey, and J. A. Powell-Coffman, “Multiparameter behavioral analyses provide insights to mechanisms of cyanide resistance in *Caenorhabditis elegans*,” *toxicological sciences*, vol. 135, no. 1, pp. 156–168, 2013.
- [21] The PLOS Pathogens Staff, “Correction: Microbial pathogens trigger host DNA double-strand breaks whose abundance is reduced by plant defense responses,” *PLoS Pathog.*, vol. 10, no. 6, p. e1004226, Jun. 2014.
- [22] J. Song and A. F. Bent, “Microbial pathogens trigger host DNA double-strand breaks whose abundance is reduced by plant defense responses,” *PLoS Pathog.*, vol. 10, no. 4, p. e1004030, Apr. 2014.
- [23] S.-M. Yu, U.-S. Jeong, H. K. Lee, S. H. Baek, S. J. Kwon, and Y. H. Lee, “Disease occurrence in transgenic rice plant transformed with silbene synthase gene and evaluation of possible horizontal gene transfer to plant pathogens,” *Sigmulbyeong Yeongu*, vol. 20, no. 3, pp. 189–195, Sep. 2014.
- [24] U. Kalwa, C. Legner, E. Wlezien, G. Tylka, and S. Pandey, “New methods of removing debris and high-throughput counting of cyst nematode eggs extracted from field soil,” *PLoS One*, vol. 14, no. 10, p. e0223386, 2019.
- [25] I. Stergiopoulos and T. R. Gordon, “Cryptic fungal infections: the hidden agenda of plant pathogens,” *Front. Plant Sci.*, vol. 5, p. 506, Sep. 2014.
- [26] F. Chen, P. Han, P. Liu, N. Si, J. Liu, and X. Liu, “Activity of the novel fungicide SYP-Z048 against plant pathogens,” *Sci. Rep.*, vol. 4, no. 1, p. 6473, Sep. 2014.
- [27] H. Soni, K. Ishnava, and K. Patel, “Anticariogenic Activity and Haemolytic Study of Some Medicinal Plants Leaf Protein Extract against Six Oral pathogens in In vitro condition,” *Int. J. Appl. Sci. Biotechnol.*, vol. 2, no. 3, pp. 253–259, Sep. 2014.

- [28] R. Charlermroj *et al.*, “Correction to antibody array in a multiwell plate format for the sensitive and multiplexed detection of important plant pathogens,” *Anal. Chem.*, vol. 86, no. 18, pp. 9356–9356, Sep. 2014.
- [29] W. J. Vlietstra, R. Vos, A. M. Sijbers, E. M. van Mulligen, and J. A. Kors, “Using predicate and provenance information from a knowledge graph for drug efficacy screening,” *J. Biomed. Semantics*, vol. 9, no. 1, p. 23, Sep. 2018.
- [30] S. Sari *et al.*, “Antifungal screening and in silico mechanistic studies of an in-house azole library,” *Chem. Biol. Drug Des.*, vol. 94, no. 5, pp. 1944–1955, Sep. 2019.
- [31] A. Knopf, “USPSTF in draft recommends screening for illicit drug use,” *Alcohol. Drug Abuse Wkly.*, vol. 31, no. 32, pp. 5–6, Aug. 2019.
- [32] Z. Njus *et al.*, “Flexible and disposable paper-and plastic-based gel micropads for nematode handling, imaging, and chemical testing,” *APL bioengineering*, vol. 1, no. 1, 2017.
- [33] A. Q. Beeman, Z. L. Njus, S. Pandey, and G. L. Tylka, “Chip technologies for screening chemical and biological agents against plant-parasitic nematodes,” *Phytopathology*, vol. 106, no. 12, pp. 1563–1571, 2016.
- [34] X. Ding, Z. Njus, T. Kong, W. Su, C.-M. Ho, and S. Pandey, “Effective drug combination for *Caenorhabditis elegans* nematodes discovered by output-driven feedback system control technique,” *Science advances*, vol. 3, no. 10, p. eaao1254, 2017.
- [35] K. Usui *et al.*, “An ultra-rapid drug screening method for acetaminophen in blood serum based on probe electrospray ionization-tandem mass spectrometry,” *J. Food Drug Anal.*, vol. 27, no. 3, pp. 786–792, Jul. 2019.
- [36] S. H. Au, M. D. Chamberlain, S. Mahesh, M. V. Sefton, and A. R. Wheeler, “Hepatic organoids for microfluidic drug screening,” *Lab Chip*, vol. 14, no. 17, pp. 3290–3299, Sep. 2014.
- [37] T. Kong, R. Brien, Z. Njus, U. Kalwa, and S. Pandey, “Motorized actuation system to perform droplet operations on printed plastic sheets,” *Lab on a Chip*, vol. 16, no. 10, pp. 1861–1872, 2016.
- [38] M. Zhu, “A review on recent robotic and analytic technologies in high throughput screening and synthesis for drug discovery,” *Lett. Drug Des. Discov.*, vol. 12, no. 9, pp. 778–784, Sep. 2015.
- [39] J. A. Carr, R. Lycke, A. Parashar, and S. Pandey, “Unidirectional, electrotactic-response valve for *Caenorhabditis elegans* in microfluidic devices,” *Applied Physics Letters*, vol. 98, no. 14, 2011.
- [40] W. Maohua, “Possible adoption of precision agriculture for developing countries at the threshold of the new millennium,” *Comput. Electron. Agric.*, vol. 30, no. 1, pp. 45–50, Feb. 2001.
- [41] C. K. Choi and H. H. Yoo, “Precision fault diagnosis procedure for a structural system having a defect employing Hidden Markov Models,” *Int. J. Precis. Eng. Manuf.*, vol. 15, no. 8, pp. 1667–1673, Aug. 2014.
- [42] R. Finger, S. M. Swinton, and N. El Benni, “Precision farming at the nexus of agricultural production and the environment,” *Annual Review of*, 2019.