Sensors and Biosensors for Environment Contaminants



Heba M. Mohamed

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1 Introduction: Sensors/Biosensors as Green Analytical Tools

Many years' worth of effort has been dedicated by researchers to investigate and develop technologies toward both detection and reduction of the environmental impact of hazardous compounds. Electrochemical sensors prove to have several potentialities to detect widespread environmental pollutants like pesticides, heavy metals, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, and toxins, and other emerging contaminants including gasoline additives, pharmaceuticals, hormones, personal

H. M. Mohamed (🖂)

Faculty of Pharmacy, Cairo University, Cairo, Egypt

Higher Colleges of Technology, Abu Dhabi, UAE

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Inamuddin, A. M. Asiri (eds.), *Nanosensor Technologies for Environmental Monitoring*, Nanotechnology in the Life Sciences, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-45116-5_6

care products, endocrine-disrupting agents, organometallic compounds, disinfection by-products, plasticizers, perfluorinated compounds, and surfactants that are considered a massive threat for living things and ecosystems. Nowadays, monitoring the environment for various pollutants has become a fundamental factor to attain sustainability goals (Azmuddin et al. 2017). The principles of sustainable and green chemistry have a great focus on new eco-friendly synthetic paths and promoting development of analytical processes for real-time and in situ monitoring of perilous substances. Pioneering green technologies and tools are substantial to diminish or abolish the usage or production of perilous materials and minimize energy consumption. In this context, sensors/biosensors are expansively recognized to be highly useful for identification, monitoring, and analysis of various substances owing to their ease of use, simplicity of construction, portability, sustainability, and considerably cost-effective development (Kimmel et al. 2011).

The application of nano-sensors/biosensors in environmental monitoring and analysis has become increasingly imperative, and many researchers show a particular interest on the different types of fabricated structure encompassing those made by self-assembly, which can be adapted for monitoring of chemical processes (Riu et al. 2006).

In the last decades, novel and green synthesis procedures for nanomaterials and miniaturization approaches used for fabrication of sensors and biosensors to improve their eco-friendliness level toward more sustainability have emerged as promising tools for environmental monitoring and prompt warning. Green synthesis is essential to evade hazardous by-product production by using sustainable, reliable, and environment-friendly synthesis processes (Singh et al. 2018). Eco-friendly synthesis of nanoparticles is implemented to lodge several biological components (e.g., bacteria, fungi, algae, and different plant parts and extracts). The use of plant extracts has been proven to be a quite easy and simple route for large-scale nanoparticles production when compared to either bacteria or fungi-based synthesis. Green nanoparticles synthesized using biological components are collectively recognized as biogenic nanoparticles.

2 Miniaturization and Microfabrication

The current trend is heading toward using disposable and portable sensors that are pliable to miniaturization. A sensor is a tiny device which transforms chemical or biochemical data into a signal; it commonly comprises a recognition element, transducer, and signal processor, as three main parts, as shown in Fig. 1. The transducer functioned by transforming the signal obtained by the sensor into an electrical signal. Due to current progress in instrumentation and electronics very small electrical signals can now be measured to enable on/in site pollution monitoring. Different



Fig. 1 Scheme of an electrochemical biosensor composition

Type of sensors	Example(s)
Electrochemical	Biosensors, potentiometric sensors, and voltammetric sensors
Calorimetric	Thermistor
Optical	Spectrophotometric, colorimetric, fiber optic
Surface plasmon resonance	Biomolecule concentration

Table 1 Types of sensors based on the transducer used for detection of chemical species

types of sensors based on transducers are mentioned in Table 1. Miniaturization along with automation, have been the emphasis of growing efforts recently. Such miniaturization, implicit by the new terminology "lab on a chip," leads to less reagent consumption, less in-flow injection analysis approaches, and the ability to use the analysis system outside the laboratory. The aim of "lab on a chip" is that the whole process is conducted by means of a microfluidic system on the same device throughout, integrating all the steps and phases of pretreatment followed by separation and finally detection. Their fabrication is usually accompanied by some special challenges in terms of accuracy, precision, reproducibility, calibration, and so on that cannot be figured out in similar ways for conventional ones. (Rios et al. 2006). Many criteria have to be fulfilled within miniaturized systems to ensure their successful implantation including being probably disposable and being robust, and they require a minimum direct operator intervention, especially for environmental applications.

Microfabrication of lab-on-chip assays use clearly less reagents compared to classical bench methodologies and improve reaction kinetics and reduce overall reaction cost (Shitanda et al. 2011 and Das et al. 2011). Recently, a massive range of electrochemical devices has been developed for detection and monitoring of various organic and inorganic toxins, for instance, heavy metals (Choi and Kim 2009, Cooper et al. 2007 and Beni et al. 2005). Similarly, the use of disposable screen-printed electrodes has added new breadth to electrochemical analysis, particularly in support of speedy and sensitive monitoring of several materials with various characteristics and properties (Renedo et al. 2007).

3 Eco-Friendly Sensor/Biosensor Development

The reliability and efficiency of an electrochemical sensor highly depend on the constitution of the detection platform. The synergistic effect between the technology of electrochemical sensors and nanomaterials has offered many merits in novel transducing context, alongside signal enhancement. Carbon paste electrodes (CPE) have been modified by linking CPE with other distinctive substances to produce chemically modified carbon electrodes showing very high selectivity. They have valuable advantages like being easy to manufacture, low cost, wider operational window, stability, and flexibility in composition to fit for different purposes (Svancara et al. 2009). Modifiers like bismuth (Bi) nanoparticles (Rico et al. 2009), hydroxyapatite (HA) (El Mhammedi et al. 2007), and Bi-HA (Khan and Abdullah 2014) have been used, with higher sensitivity, to enhance cadmium and lead deposition through HA ion-exchange. There has also been an increasing trend of using plant tissues to prepare chemically modified carbon electrodes (CMEs) with many merits including simplicity of construction, being environmentally friendly, and being less harmful. Plant tissues CME was initially fabricated and used for L-glutamate determination. Table 2 shows some plant and animal materials used as modifiers for heavy metal detection (Kwon et al. 2000).

Sensors with plant extract modifiers contain several chemical components that function as active constituents for analyte binding. Amino acids can serve as a ligand for a variety of metal ions due to the large number of donor atoms they contain. Likewise, lignin and lignocellulosic materials can be used as binding sites for metals due to the oxygen-containing functional groups, for example, alcohol,

Table 2 Examples of some	Modifier	Detection limit (ppm)
modifiers of plant and animal	Plant origin	
origin	Kapok fiber	1000
	Apple peelings	-
	Grass weed	10
	Solanum tuberosum (potato)	-
	Stems from cabbage	-
	Banana	100
	Animal origin	
	Feather	121

phenol, and carboxylic acid structures in lignin that are in control for highly stable lignin–metal complexes via different bonding interactions. Likewise, cellulose, by its carbonyl and hydroxyl functional groups, can work as binding sites for different metals (Nazir et al. 2013).

4 Sensors/Biosensors Composition

Sensors technologies based on nanomaterials have been developed over the last two decades targeting the sensitive and highly specific detection and monitoring of environmental pollutants with many superior advantages of easy use, low cost, field-deployable technology. In general, sensors are composed of three main components: nanomaterials, recognition element (to increase selectivity), and a signal transduction means for analyte detection, as summarized in Fig. 1. Sensors are generally characterized on the basis of these three elements.

4.1 Nanomaterials

Nanomaterials have reinforced improvements and advances in sensor design in the direction of more sustainability, for instance, miniaturization, portability, disposability, and rapid signal response. Simplified surface functionalization and the high surface area-to-volume ratio support better sensors sensitivity and improve selectivity and reduce the detection limits to extreme low values. Graphene and carbon nanotubes are frequently used in nanosensors due to their large surface area, perfect electrical ad thermal conductivity, and improved mechanical strength (Yang et al. 2010). Metal and metal oxides nanoparticles have extensive uses in sensor fabrications for various applications as they can be produced in many different

shapes with different extinction coefficients (Link and El-Saved 1999) and easily modified by surface functionalization. Colloidal solutions of both silver and gold nanoparticles are widely used and due to their distinctive characteristics and color changes that make them useful as visual colorimetric sensors. Added to that, their nanoparticles excitation can cause the uniform oscillation of conduction electrons that leads to localized surface plasmon resonance-based spectroscopies, for example, surface enhanced Raman spectroscopy and surface plasmon resonance (Romo-Herrera et al. 2011). Gold nanoparticles are stable, biocompatible, and have been widely used in sensing applications (Saha et al. 2012). Surface coatings can be used for modification purposes and simplify the addition of recognition elements. Thioglycolic acid and 3-mercaptopropionic acid, thiol capping agents, are frequently used to afford chemical functionality and colloidal stability. A wide range of nanostructured metal oxides, for example, iron oxides, zinc oxides, titanium oxides, zirconium oxides, and others, have been tried for sensing uses. Quantum dots (ODs) are semiconductor nanocrystals and normally have broad absorption bands, yet narrow fluorescence emission bands; therefore they can superbly serve as optical transducers.

4.1.1 Green Synthesis of Metal/Metals Oxide Nanoparticles

An innovative era of green synthesis methodologies is attaining prodigious focus in the modern research and material improvement. Nanoparticle green synthesis is composed of single bio-reduction step methodology that necessitates fairly low consumption of energy and is also cost-effective, and allows for large-scale production of nanoparticles (Wadhwani et al. 2016), Fig. 2 illustrates the key merits of green synthesis. Ultimately, regulated and controlled green synthesis of materials/nanomaterials will directly assist elevating their environmental friendliness. Prevention/minimization of waste, using safer solvent/reagents and reduction of pollution are all considered some of the main principles for green synthesis. Solvents are an essential element in the greening of synthesis methods. Ideally, water is always the solvent of choice for green synthesis processes, for example, synthesis of Ag and Au nanoparticles using gallic acid in an aqueous medium at room temperature (Yoosaf et al. 2007). Ionic liquids are also acknowledged for being eco-friendly and can be used for synthesis of various metal nanoparticles (Vollmer et al. 2010). Ionic liquids are able to work both as a reducing and a protecting agent; this facilitates and simplifies the nanoparticle synthesis process.

Various reaction parameters like temperature, solvent, pH and pressure can affect and control green synthesis methodologies. One of the highly considered factor in metal/metal oxide nanoparticles synthesis is biodiversity in plants because of the presence of different useful phytochemicals within different plants, for instance, aldehydes, ketones, phenols, carboxylic acids, amides, ascorbic acids, flavones, and terpenoids in different percentages based on cultivation location, season and species,



Fig. 3 Different biological components used for green synthesis

and other factors. These components reduce metal salts into metal nanoparticles. Figure 3 summarizes the currently used biological components for green synthesis.

4.1.2 Bacteria

Bacterial species, mainly prokaryotic and actinomycetes, have been broadly used for biotechnological applications (Gericke and Pinches 2006). With a relatively easy manipulation, bacteria owns the capability of reducing metal ions and considered as significant parameter in the preparation of various nanoparticles (Iravani 2014; Thakkar et al. 2010). Some strains of bacteria have expansively been

Organism	Species	Nanoparticles	Applications	Ref.
Bacteria	Klebsiella pneumonia, E. coli	Ag	Electrical batteries, optical receptors	Ahmad et al. (2010)
	Bacillus megaterium D01	Au	Bio sensing, catalysis	Wen et al. (2009)
	<i>E. coli</i> DH 5α	Ag	Hemoglobin electrochemistry	Du et al. (2007)
Fungi	Verticillium	Ag	Catalysis	Mukherjee et al. (2001)
	Fusarium semitectum	Ag	Bio-labeling	Basavaraja et al. (2008)
	Verticillium luteoalbum	Au	Optics, sensor, coatings	Gericke and Pinches (2006)
	Aspergillus terreus	ZnO	Bio sensing, catalysis	Raliya and Tarafdar (2014)
Yeast	МКҮ3	Ag	Coatings, electrical batteries	Kowshik et al. (2002)
	Saccharomyces cerevisiae broth	Ag, Au	Catalysis	Mourato et al. (2011)
Plant	Aloe barbadensis, Miller	Au, Ag	Optical coatings	Chandran et al. (2006)
	Azadirachta indica	Ag, Au	Toxic metals remediation	Shankar et al. (2004)
	Camellia sinensis	Ag, Au	Sensors, catalysts	Raliya and Tarafdar (2014)
	Medicago sativa	Au	Labeling in structural biology	Gardea-Torresdey et al. (2002)

Table 3 Examples of metallic nanoparticles prepared from biological components

investigated for the green production of silver nanoparticles, for instance, *Escherichia coli, Enterobacter cloacae, Lactobacillus casei, Bacillus cereus, Pseudomonas proteolytica, Bacillus indicus, Bacillus amyloliquefaciens*, and others. Similarly, gold nanoparticles are bio-reduced using several bacterial species, for instance, *Desulfovibrio desulfuricans, E. coli* DH5a, *Bacillus megaterium*, and others. Distinct size/shape and morphology can be obtained as summarized in Table 3.

4.1.3 Fungi

Biosynthesis of metal/metal oxide nanoparticles based on fungi as a biological element is a very competent development for green nanoparticles generation. Owing to the presence of intracellular enzyme in addition to enzymes, proteins, and other reducing elements on the fungi cell surfaces, make them a better biological agents for the nanoparticles preparation (Chen et al. 2009; Narayanan and Sakthivel 2011). Efficient fungi can produce greater amounts of nanoparticles rather than bacteria (Mohanpuria et al. 2008). Reductase enzymatic reduction is the most probable mechanism for the metallic nanoparticle formation. Various fungal species can be used for the synthesis of nanoparticles of several metals and metals oxides like gold, silver, zinc oxide, and titanium dioxide, and synthesis of other components, Table 3.

4.1.4 Yeast

There are around 1500 yeast species that have been recognized. Many research groups have reported successful synthesis trials of nanoparticles/nanomaterials by the use of yeast. *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* broth and silver-tolerant yeast strain have been reported to successfully produce silver and gold nanoparticles (Yurkov et al. 2011). Various species are incorporated for numerous metallic nanoparticles preparation (Table 3).

4.1.5 Plants

Plants can store specific amounts of heavy metals. Consequently, biosynthesis practices using plant extracts have acquired amplified attention as a simple, feasible, efficient, and cost-effective methods along with being an excellent alternate to traditional methods of nanoparticles preparation, as illustrated in Fig. 4. Plants contain organic biomolecules, for instance, proteins, carbohydrates, and coenzymes, that are capable of reducing metal salts to their nanoparticles in a single step process. Many plants including neem, aloe vera, oat, tulsi, coriander, mustard, lemon grass, and lemon have been extensively used for silver and gold nanoparticle synthesis, as described in Table 3.



Fig. 4 Mechanism of nanoparticle formation by plant leaf extracts

4.2 Recognition Elements

Selectivity is crucial property in the design of an efficacious sensor. A wide range of recognition elements have been executed in the design of nanosensor that includes antibodies (Jiajie et al. 2014), aptamers (Ma et al. 2013) functional proteins (Bies et al. 2004), enzymes (Evtugyn et al. 1998), and whole cells (Olaniran et al. 2011).

4.2.1 Antibodies

Antibodies bind specifically to a distinct antigen, and they are commonly used for capturing and labeling microorganisms or substances that evoke an immune response (Ellington et al. 2010). Three types of antibodies used to recognize the analytes: polyclonal, monoclonal, and antibody fragments. Though antibodies are commonly utilized in biosensor fabrication, they have some drawbacks such as high costs, pH sensitivity, short shelf-lives, temperature, and batch-to batch variations (Bordeaux et al. 2010). Even with these weaknesses, antibodies are regularly the most selective recognition means for immunogenic analytes (Huang et al. 2005). Many immunosensors and screen-printed electrodes are designed and used for the detection of environmental pollutants as multi-analytes in different settings and are offered both as a laboratory device and a portable system.

4.2.2 Aptamers

Aptamers can be defined as short oligonucleotide of RNA or ssDNA that can bind to certain molecules. Aptamers have long shelf-lives, have low variability between batches, are thermally stable, and have low cost production compared to antibodies (Low et al. 2009; Hamula et al. 2011). Aptamers of nucleic acid are known for their high specificity (Hoinka et al. 2015). The oligonucleotide sequences are isolated, identified and amplified through polymerase chain reaction and affinity testing, and after de novo synthesis they can be integrated into biosensors (Tombelli et al. 2002). Bacteria and pathogenic microorganisms were detected using aptamers-based sensors with optical detection in different environment matrices, air and drinking water, and food samples too.

4.2.3 Enzymes

Enzyme-based biosensors are having increasing significance and abundance in environmental and food applications. Improvement of enzyme biosensors using different strategies were done, for example, electrochemical interfaces to enzymes (Chen and Gorski 2001), application of quinoproteins (Matsushita et al. 2002) and metalloproteins (Sinibaldi et al. 2001), and investigations on immobilization (Gill and Ballesteros 2000). Acetylcholine esterase was used to detect organophosphates and carbamates with either single-use devices (Schulze et al. 2002) or in traditional graphite electrodes. For instant detecting phenols in environmental matrices was done using continuous electrochemical sensor (Freire et al. 2002) going up to biosensor arrays (Young et al. 2001). Toxic gas can also be detected using enzymebased sensors. For example, SO₂ was detected by screen-printed electrodes (Hart et al. 2002). Nitrite reductase-based optical biosensor was used for monitoring purposes. In addition heavy metals and nitrite can be detected in potable water using several biosensors (Lee and Lee 2002).

4.2.4 Whole Cells

Whole cell-mediated biosensors are founded on the use of biosensing cells, for instance, microorganisms, protozoa, algae, and plant cells. Being cheaper gives an advantage to whole cell-based biosensors compared to enzyme-based biosensors. Multistep reactions are usually possible since all the enzymes and cofactors needed are present in one cell. Many microbial-mediated optical biosensors have been designed and used for toxicity and pollutants detection (Olaniran et al. 2011). A *rapid and effective heavy metals monitoring in waste water was achievable by* a whole-cell bacterial biosensors (Olaniran et al. 2011). Because of the use of *Shigella sonnei* and *Escherichia coli*, the sensors were recording high sensitivity. An integrated fluorescence-based sensor was reported to monitor bacterial respiratory activity by measuring the reduction in oxygen partial pressure and pH value reduction (Arain et al. 2006).

4.3 Signal Transduction

There are three chief signal transduction means used in nanomaterials-mediated sensors, namely, optical, electrochemical, and magnetic methods.

4.3.1 Optical

Optical transduction takes place because of the interaction between electromagnetic radiation (ultraviolet, visible, or infrared light) and the sensing element. The two widely used optical methods employed in the design of nanosensor are surface plasmon resonance and fluorescence. Quantum dots or polymer nanoparticle probes or dye-doped silicon is commonly used in fluorescent nanosensors due to their photostability and robustness (Vikesland and Wigginton 2010).

4.3.2 Electrochemical

Electrochemical methods of detection works by measuring the change in potential or current resulting from the reaction between the analyte and the electrode. Different methods can be used for change detection including amperometry, cyclic voltammetry, chronopotentiometry, chronoamperometry, and impedance spectroscopy (Grieshaber et al. 2008).

4.3.3 Magnetic

Magnetic transduction has been incorporated to detect signals upon analyzing biological samples due to the low background magnetic signal (Koets et al. 2009).

5 Environmental Applications for Sensors/Biosensors

There are vast of environment contaminants that can be accurately detected and monitored via sensors/biosensors using antibodies, enzymes, and aptamers as recognition elements. Different environmental applications are summarized in Fig. 5.



5.1 Pesticides

Owing to their significant environmental existence, pesticides are among the utmost crucial environmental pollutants. Currently, over 800 active ingredients are present in pesticides (Liu et al. 2013). Organophosphates (OP), carbamates, neonicotinoids, and triazines are the prevailing ones. The organophosphates insecticides are broadly used in agriculture but they have the topmost environmental concern because of their unlimited harmfulness. Consequently, simple, sensitive, reliable, and sustainable approaches such as biosensors have been used to detect and monitor the pesticides with minimum sample pretreatment procedures. Table 4 describes a summary of some latest biosensors for pesticides detection and monitoring.

5.1.1 Organophosphates

Paraoxon has been detected by the aid of disposable amperometric acetylcholinesterase-based biosensors on gold screen-printed electrodes in water samples (Arduini et al. 2013). The disposable biosensors showed a good analytical performance in regard to linearity, sensitivity, and detection limits due to the proper enzyme immobilization by the self-assembled monolayer. Other biosensors for paroxon detection were fabricated (Arduini et al. 2015) using butyrylcholinesterase and carbon black nanoparticles that added some advantages such as low applied potential, cost-effectiveness, and ease of preparing a stable dispersion (Arduini et al. 2015). Gold nanorods were also used in colorimetric acetylcholinesterase biosensor (Guo et al. 2017) to detect paraoxon in real water samples. Besides, the colorimetric biosensor allowed paraoxon detection in irrigation water with good recoveries.

Methyl parathion, was determined by hydrolase- based biosensor using magnetic Fe₃O₄ nanocomposite and gold nanoparticles with high sensitivity and selectivity (Zhao et al. 2013). The advantages of using hydrolase were; no poisoning by organophosphates, produces a reusable biosensor and allows the continuous measurement (Zhao et al. 2013). Due to great catalytic effectiveness, high conductivity, and being exceptionally biocompatible, biosensors using gold nanoparticles showed wide linear range and high sensitivity. Another acetylcholinesterase amperometric biosensor was used for methyl parathion detection in contaminated lake, for immobilization purpose a graphite working electrode and macroalgae were employed (Nunes et al. 2014). Another acetylcholinesterase-based biosensor for methyl parathion detection was fabricated using a nanoporous carbon paste electrode with gold nanoparticles, chitosan, and Nafion (Deng et al. 2016). Determination of chlorpyrifos in river water samples was done at low cost by disposable tyrosinase based biosensor on screen printed electrodes (Mayorga-Martinez et al. 2014) and aptasensor using a new composite film (Wei et al. 2014). Dichlorvos detection in environmental samples was achieved using several biosensors that constructed via bi-enzyme system composed of acetylcholinesterase in addition to choline oxidase

	TI ADDATION TO LEAD			
Pesticide	Biosensor type	Sensing material	Recognition element	Ref.
Paraoxon	Electrochemical	Gold SPE ^a + cysteamine SAM ^b	Acetylcholinesterase enzyme	Arduini et al. (2013)
	Electrochemical	SPE ^a + carbon black NP ^c	Butyrylcholinesterase enzyme	Arduini et al. (2015)
	Optical	Iodine-starch	Acetylcholinesterase and choline oxidase	Gao et al. (2012)
			enzymes	
Methyl	Electrochemical	SPE^{a} with $Fe_{3}O_{4} + gold NP^{c}$	Hydrolase enzyme	Zhao et al. (2013)
parathion	Electrochemical	Graphite + macroalgae	Acetylcholinesterase enzyme	Nunes et al. (2014)
	Electrochemical	NiCo ₂ S ₄ reticulated spheres in carbon	Acetylcholinesterase enzyme	Deng et al. (2016)
		electrode		
Acetamiprid	Electrochemical	Gold NP ^c + MWCNT ^d + rGO^{e}	Aptamers	Fei et al. (2015)
		nanoribbons		
	Electrochemical	Silver NPc + nitrogen doped GOf	Aptamers	Jiang et al. (2015)
	Optical	Gold NP ^c	Aptamers	Shi et al. (2013)
Dichlorvos	Optical	QD ^g + acetylcholine	Enzyme (AChE ^e + ChO ^e)	Meng et al. (2013)
	Electrochemical	Platinum electrode + ZnO	Acetylcholinesterase enzyme	Sundarmurugasan et al. (2016)
	Electrochemical	Ionic liquids-gold NPc + porous carbon	Acetylcholinesterase enzyme	Wei et al. (2014)
		comp		
Chlorpyrifos	Electrochemical	SPCE ^h and IrOx NP ^c	Enzyme (tyrosinase)	Mayorga-Martinez et al. (2014)
	Electrochemical	Boron-doped diamond electrode + gold NP ^c	Acetylcholinesterase enzyme	Wei et al. (2014) Chai et al. (2013)
Pirimicarb	Electrochemical	Prussian blue + MWCNT ^d SPE ^a	Acetylcholinesterase enzyme	Oliveira et al. (2013)
	Electrochemical	Carbon paste electrode + MWCNT ^d	Laccase enzyme	
Atrazine	Electrochemical	Gold NP ^c	Monoclonal antibodies	Liu et al. (2014a, b)
	Electrochemical	SWCNT	Monoclonal antibodies	Belkhamssa et al. (2016a, b)
	Electrochemical	Magnetic beads + G protein	Phage-antibody complex	González-Techera et al. (2015)

Table 4 Biosensors for pesticide monitoring

Carbofuran	Electrochemical	IrOx-chitosan nanocomposite	Acetylcholinesterase enzyme	Jeyapragasam and Saraswathi (2014)
	Electrochemical	GCE ^j with GO ^f + MWCNT ^d	Acetylcholinesterase enzyme	Li et al. (2017)
	Electrochemical	$GCE^{j} + NiO NP^{c} + COOH$	Acetylcholinesterase enzyme	Yang et al. (2013)
		graphene-Nafion		
Fenitrothion	Electrochemical	Carbon paste electrode	Whole cell (Pseudomonas putida JS444)	Lei et al. (2007)

^aSPE screen printed electrode

^bSAM self-assembled monolayer

°NP nanoparticles

^d*MWCNT* multiwalled carbon nanotubes

°rGO reduced graphene oxide

^fGO graphene oxide ^gQD quantum dots ^hSPCE screen-printed carbon electrode

iSWCNT single-walled carbon nanotubes JGCE glassy carbon electrode

(Meng et al. 2013), a platinum electrode modified with acetylcholinesterase-zinc oxide (Sundarmurugasan et al. 2016) and a composite of ionic liquids, gold nanoparticles, and porous carbon (Peng et al. 2017). The combination of ionic liquid, porous carbon, and gold nanoparticles improves the adsorption of enzyme, preserves the activity of enzyme, and enhances the sensitivity of the analysis, Table 4.

5.1.2 Other Types of Pesticides

Acetamiprid analysis in water samples has been achieved by impedimetric aptasensors (Fei et al. 2015). Gold nanoparticles, a composite composed of reduced graphene oxide nanoribbons along with multiwalled carbon nanotubes were utilized, which cause higher electron transfer with overall improvement of analytical performance (Fei et al. 2015). Atrazine was analyzed in crop samples using an electrochemical immunosensor based on gold nanoparticles (Liu et al. 2014a, b) and in seawater/river water samples using a disposable immunosensor with single-walled carbon nanotubes (Belkhamssa et al. 2016a, b). A novel recognition element formed by recombinant complex of antibody/ M13 phage and G protein functionalized magnetic beads was used in fabrication of atrazine electrochemical immunosensor (González-Techera et al. 2015). The biosensor displayed a boosted detection limit due to high sensitivity of phage/antibody complex (González-Techera et al. 2015).

Enzymatic biosensors were used to determine pirimicarb using enzymatic laccase and multiwalled carbon nanotubes on carbon paste electrode composite (Chai et al. 2013). Carbofuran, a carbamate insecticide, was determined by acetylcholinesterase biosensor immobilized onto iron oxide–chitosan nanocomposite with square wave voltammetry (Jeyapragasam and Saraswathi 2014). A superior limit of detection was achieved by immobilizing acetylcholinesterase using modified electrode with (nickel oxide +Nafion+ carboxylic graphene) to detect carbofuran in a mixture with methyl parathion and chlorpyrifos (Yang et al. 2013). It was suggested that the conjugation of nickel oxide nanoparticles and carboxylic graphene decrease oxidation peak potential and increase the electron transfer (Yang et al. 2013), Table 4.

5.2 Metals

Nano-enabled sensors have been effectively utilized to detect and monitor a number of heavy metals in different environmental matrices. From these metals are mercury, lead, chromium, and cadmium.

5.2.1 Mercury

There is usually an extensive research concern for Mercury detection due to its known negative neurological effects to humans (Selid et al. 2009). Production of DNA-based probes is a main emphasis of mercury nanosensor development (Liu



et al. 2014a, b). In DNA, the base mismatch of thymine–thymine are of significant finding in case of mercury presence due to metal base pairs formation. Many mercury sensors have been fabricated with several nanomaterials, for example using mercury sandwich type assay (Liu et al. 2014a, b) where spheres of magnetic silica are captured into gold shell along with gold nanoparticles attached to complementary sequences of DNA containing five positions of mismatched thymine with an insufficient binding energy not to allow complete hybridization, as shown in Fig. 6. In the presence of mercury, full hybridization took place, hence reducing the interprobe spacing and generating a plasmonic hotspot. Thiol based assays for the detection of mercury have been severally using various nanoparticles, for instance, gold (Chansuvarn et al. 2015), silver (Alam et al. 2015) or quantum dots (Ke et al. 2012). Likewise, a competition-based reaction assay wherein surface coating is replaced with mercury has been designated (Huang and Chang 2006). It was reported that thiol coatings improved the assay specificity.

5.2.2 Lead

Lead can result in higher risk of different types of cancer and neurological problems (Goyer 1990) consequently, lead detection is considered as a chief concern. Various nanosensors have been constructed for lead analysis. 8–17 DNAzyme and catalytic nucleic acid were used for label-based lead detection (Tang et al. 2013), in addition to a class of oligonucleotides capable of formation of G-quadruplexes in lead presence (Li et al. 2010). An AlOOH–graphene oxide nanocomposite for detection of lead and other metals like cadmium by voltammetry was investigated (Gao et al. 2012), the great adsorption capacity of AlOOH to form a composite results in the

electron transfer kinetics. The AlOOH does not show good selectivity for a single metal; thus, the AlOOH–graphene oxide nanocomposite is considered a good option for multiplex detection.

5.2.3 Chromium

High chromium absorption can result in several health problems, for example, airway hypersensitivity, nasal and lung cancer, and other types of tumors and fibroproliferative diseases, (Gibb et al. 2000). Several immunoassays have been suggested for chromium detection (Liu et al. 2012). A new anti-CrIII-EDTA antibody was developed for chromium detection via immunochromatographic assay. In order to ensure evoking an immune response, chromium ions were mixed with bifunctional chelating agent, isothiocyanobenzyl-EDTA then linked to a carrier protein to reach an appropriate size for ultimate, sensitive, and rapid detection (Liu et al. 2012).

5.2.4 Cadmium

A diversity of nanomaterials have been investigated for cadmium detection, this includes quantum dots (Gui et al. 2012, 2013), SWCNT (Sun et al. 2007), and antimony nanoparticles (Toghill et al. 2009). An off/on- fluorescence sensor for cadmium detection was designed (Gui et al. 2012,). First, Photoluminescent CdTe/CdS quantum dots were quenched using ammonium pyrrolidine dithiocarbamate, upon introducing cadmium ions, it displaced the quenching agent from the QD surface and reinstated the photoluminescence; therefore, turning on the sensor. These sensors showed high selectivity for cadmium, and to improve their accuracy, a ratiometric sensor was later developed (Luan et al. 2012).

5.3 Toxins

Many sensors were constructed for detection and monitoring of various toxins (Eissa et al. 2015). Brvetoxin was detected with a sensitive and selective aptasensor by gold electrodes modified via cysteamine SAM (Eissa et al. 2015). A further detection of brevetoxin and saxitoxin was reported using cardiomyocyte-based portable biosensor (Wang et al. 2015). Cardiomyocytes provided real-time screening of pathogens in a rapid manner detection. Microcystin-LR detection in water samples was performed using graphene electrochemical impedance spectroscopy immunosensor and showed good reproducibility and repeatability results (Zhang et al. 2017a, b). A better detection limit for microcystin-LR detection in the studies samples of lake water was achieved using immunosensor with gold electrodes modified with a molybdenum disulfide–gold nanorod composite (Zhang et al. 2017a, b). This improvement could be explained by the augmented effect of gold nanorods and



molybdenum disulfide that endorsed larger surface area, increasing electrical conductivity and overall electrochemical performance.

Okadaic acid toxin in algal, shellfish and seawater can be detected using different biosensors (McNamee et al. 2013, Pan et al. 2017). For okadaic acid, saxitoxin, and domoic acid determination in seawater and algal samples, fabrication of multiplex surface plasmon resonance biosensor was reported (McNamee et al. 2013). A multiplex immunological method was developed to be used as an early warning tool for variable marine biotoxin monitoring in seawater samples. A highly sensitive fluorescence-based immunosensor using CdTe QDs and carboxylic acid modified magnetic beads was investigated for the analysis of okadaic acid in mussel (Pan et al. 2017). An illustration of the fluorescence immunosensor working principle is shown in Fig. 7.

To detect domoic acid toxin, carbon nanotube disposable immunosensors were fabricated and showed good reproducibility and low limit of detection when analyzing the seawater samples (Marques et al. 2017). For improving the detection limit an underwater surface plasmon resonance biosensor was designed (Colas et al. 2016); in addition, it also allows for in situ quantitative determination of domoic acid in seawater.

5.4 Endocrine Disrupting Chemicals

Detection of bisphenol A, an endocrine disrupting chemical, in water samples was achieved by using fluorescence aptasensors (functionalized by fluorescein amidite) and gold nanoparticles (Ragavan et al. 2013). A portable, fast, and cost-effective

evanescent-wave optical fiber aptasensor was successfully used for sensitive detection of bisphenol A in water samples with no need of pretreatment procedures (Yildirim et al. 2014).

17β-estradiol was monitored in lake water using CdSe nanoparticles and TiO₂ nanotube arrays aptasensor with an outstanding selectivity and femtomolar level of detection. The particular recognition reaction takes place between the 17-estradiol and aptamer and leads to an increase in the steric hindrances to the electron donor diffusion, which leads to a decrease of the photocurrent, thereby resulting in in situ complex formation. The superior selectivity toward 17-estradiol could be credited to the excellent photoelectrical activity, the tubular microstructure of sensing interface, high affinity of the aptamer to 17β-estradiol, and large packing density of aptamer (Fan et al. 2014).

6 Challenges and Future Perspectives

It is obvious that the future trends and the forthcoming advances of sensors/biosensors will count on the achievements of evolving micro- and nano-level technologies including electronics, materials science, physics, and biochemistry. Since environmental pollution within various media is growing incredibly fast and becoming a severe global fear, designing and developing novel biosensor-based techniques capable of precisely identifying and analyzing different pollutants from a larger spectrum is of high significance. Nevertheless, sensors/biosensors for environmental monitoring have some limitations including response time, selectivity, sensitivity, stability, and lifetime. Researchers have to collaborate in work to eliminate these limitations for effective eco-friendly, reliable, competitive tools of analysis.

It is also clear that need for speedy detecting tools like biosensors will grow in the upcoming future. Despite the current and past significant research and efforts in electrochemical sensor development field, a challenge to improve devices to evade instrumental errors and improve reliability in complex matrices is still crucial. Sensors have to fulfil all demands for proper, robust, and sustainable monitoring by being integrated networks, offering screening and analysis of complex mixtures of multi-analytes and providing remote sensing through combining with wireless signal transmitters. In this context, comprehensive studies and research are required in the fields of biosensors, bioelectronics, and bionanotechnology that will definitely have a manifest impact on expanding innovative biosensing approaches, putting into consideration being "smart" and user friendly to fit more into the future.

7 Conclusion

Researchers' effort is being focused in the direction of designing and developing reliable, sustainable, and more sensitive methods of analysis that are able to detect, monitor, and eliminate noxious environmental contaminants. Being able to give more sensitive, selective, robust, and low-cost results in addition of being ecofriendly, sensors are rapidly becoming a vital deliberation in all environmental screening and monitoring programs. Shifts from classical harmful mercury-based electrodes with low sensitivity and stability and lifetime problems to disposable electrodes with inert green materials, improved stability are among the essential routes explored. Consequently, selection of appropriate sensing and modifying materials, miniaturization and green synthesis approaches are of supreme importance toward sustainability of environmental analysis. Together with methods optimization, reliable analyses should guard public health and improve the quality of the environment.

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