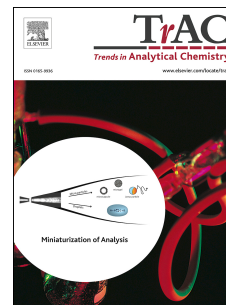


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New frontiers in microfluidics devices for miRNA analysis

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1 New frontiers in microfluidics devices for miRNA analysis

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20

21 **Abstract**

22 miRNA detection using microfluidics-based devices is one of the most important innovations in
23 biology and modern medicine. miRNAs are small regulatory molecules, whose varied
24 concentrations can indicate diseases or pathologic conditions, boosting their use as reliable
25 modern biomarkers for advanced medical diagnostics. Due to their small size and low
26 concentration (from femtomolar to picomolar), miRNA measurement is quite challenging. Being
27 rapid and affordable analytical devices for high-throughput quantification of miRNAs,
28 microfluidics-based biosensors are promising. Beside the small volumes of required sample,
29 simple handling, and manipulation of the sample, these tools enable amplification and detection
30 of target miRNA/miRNAs in a single device, overcoming common limitations of conventional
31 methodologies. Herein, we review the recent advancements in microfluidic devices applied for
32 miRNA sample handling, manipulation, and measurement. We also discuss their advantages and
33 limitations as well as future trends in this field.

34
35 **Keywords:** miRNA; microfluidic; biosensors; lab-on-a-chip; miRNA sample preparation.
36

37 **1. Introduction**

38 Micro-RNAs (miRNAs) are small non-coding RNAs with important roles in the post-translational
39 regulation of protein-coding genes. Any dysregulation in their concentrations, either up- or
40 down-regulation, may lead to complications in cell function and consequently leading to
41 diseases, like cancer, infertility, and Alzheimer's [1-3]. They could affect a single or a group of
42 genes, distressing their regulation and tissue-specific expression patterns. Thus, they could be
43 considered as specific biomarkers for a particular or a group of diseases. They are responsible for
44 cell-cell communications. In addition to the intracellular environment, miRNAs also exist in the
45 biological fluids (down to femtomolar concentration), including blood, saliva, tear, urine, milk,
46 and cerebrospinal fluid [4, 5]. Such miRNAs are either free, located inside exosomes and
47 microvesicles, or conjugated to high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol molecules [4, 6, 7].
48 Circulating miRNAs have tissue- and/or disease-specific expression levels. They are, therefore,
49 important biomarkers in the diagnosis, prognosis assessment, and monitoring of many diseases
50 [8, 9]. This is mainly because they could be measured in an easy and non/less-invasive manner,
51 through tear, saliva, and even sweat [4, 7, 10]. Due to the abovementioned advantages, many
52 miRNAs are considered for the diagnosis of different types of cancer as well as endocrine,
53 neurological, and cardiovascular diseases [11, 12]. This is while scientists are facing severe
54 challenges for the quantification of miRNAs due to their small size (18-23 nucleotides), high
55 homology, and low quantity (femtomolar to picomolar), as well as high interference with other
56 molecules [13]. Conventional miRNA detection and quantification methods include quantitative
57 real-time PCR (qRT-PCR), Next-Generation Sequencing, and Northern blotting [1, 8]. These
58 methods are expensive, complex, time-consuming, and require expensive instruments and skilled
59 personnel.

60 This points out the need for alternative simple and cost-effective methods, such as biosensors
61 that have been emerging over the past decade [1, 9, 13, 14]. These alternative tools benefit from
62 different transducers and innovative technologies, including the use of novel nanomaterials and
63 amplification methods, to overcome the limitations of conventional techniques [13, 15, 16].
64 Moreover, the integration of biosensors into microfluidic devices has led to the fabrication of
65 more sensitive, selective, affordable, portable, and small high throughput instruments, capable

66 of real-time and rapid detection methods compatible with point of care (POC) applications [13,
67 15-18].

68 Microfluidics encompasses miniaturized devices consisting of micro/nano size channels and
69 chambers to handle small volumes of reagents (10^{-9} to 10^{-18} liters) on a chip [19]. The
70 microfluidics' market is constantly growing for applications ranging from cells and stem cells
71 culture monitoring to single-cell analysis, 3D cultures, organ- and lab-on-chips (LOCs) [15, 20].
72 Microfluidics-based biosensing systems are classified into three classes, namely continuous-flow,
73 droplet-based, and digital microfluidics. The continuous-flow, one of the most common
74 biosensors, is named due to the continuous flow of fluids inside the channels [21]. This is while
75 droplet-based microfluidics, on the other hand, are based on the generation and manipulation
76 of sub-nanoliter-volume droplets within the microchannel environments [22]. Digital
77 microfluidics are based on the manipulation of droplets within a reconfigurable network on the
78 surface [23].

79 Over the past decade, microfluidics and LOCs have also been applied for miRNA analysis. Many
80 researchers and companies have introduced innovative ideas and designs to improve the
81 analytical performances of these devices. As an example, several materials have been exploited
82 to provide the best support for chip fabrication, including polymers (e.g. PDMS, PMMA), glass,
83 and paper. Sample preparation, pre-treatment, or pre-concentration on *ad hoc* designed
84 microfluidics devices are also crucial to enhance the sensitivity and selectivity of the analytical
85 tools [24, 25]. Microfluidics can also host different methods and strategies to lysis, extract,
86 isolate, and separate the target miRNAs in the samples [14]. This can be achieved using certain
87 structures inside the channels or chambers using innovative fabrication techniques [26, 27].
88 Moreover, sample manipulation and preparation can also consist of the conjugation of the
89 sample with micro- or nano-particles or incubation, mixing, and sorting with other reagents
90 through, for instance, fluorescence-activated cell sorting and magnetic activated cell sorting [28,
91 29]. In addition, miRNA-capture biomolecules (aptamers, oligonucleotides, and proteins) can be
92 immobilized upon the detection or capture area of the chip to enhance its separation and
93 detection efficacy [30, 31]. Amplification, enzymatic or non-enzymatic, is another important
94 sample preparation step to enhance sensitivity in miRNA analysis [32, 33].

95 All those steps can be integrated using different combinations, specific to each chip and
96 depending on the application or particular needs. This is also favorable for each biofluid, which
97 might need a different extraction or isolation technique. Automation and portability are other
98 possible benefits for these devices, especially for portable point of care applications. Finally,
99 multiple miRNA detection is also possible through a high-throughput method for parallel testing,
100 which helps save money and time [34, 35].

101 Biosensors are mostly categorized based on their transducer types which provide various
102 sensitivity and selectivity potentials [36, 37]. A wide range of transduction systems can be
103 integrated into the microfluidics chips for miRNA detection, such as electrochemistry,
104 fluorescence, Surface-Enhanced Raman Scattering (SERS), Surface Plasmon Resonance (SPR), and
105 colorimetric methods [15, 18]. Some microfluidic devices enable only sample preparation with
106 the detection, using other methods as sequencing and mass spectrometry, performed outside
107 the chip. However, on-chip detection in conjunction with sample preparation is more efficient,
108 time and cost-wise, as well as more convenient for automation [38, 39].

109 Herein, we aim to provide an overview and discuss the pros and cons of recent advancements in
110 the microfluidics-based miRNA quantification devices and categorize them based on their
111 transducer type into three main groups (i) electrochemical, (ii) optical, and (iii) electrical
112 biosensors. We also discuss existing microfluidics-based sample manipulation and amplification
113 strategies for miRNA analysis, which aim to enhance sensitivity. Later, we discuss the role of
114 microfluidics for (i) miRNA isolation for sequencing & PCR, (ii) miRNA amplification, and (iii)
115 sample preparation before mass spectrometry. To our best knowledge, this review addressed
116 several aspects of miRNA detection using microfluidic devices, going beyond the reviews
117 reported in the literature [40-46].

118

119 **2. Microfluidic-based miRNA detection**

120 In this section, the microfluidics-based miRNA detection techniques are categorized into three
121 main subsections based on the transducer types namely (i) electrochemical, (ii) optical, and (iii)
122 electrical detection, highlighting the different analytical features including pros and cons, as
123 pointed out in Table 1.

124

125 **2.1. Electrochemical detection**

126 Electrochemical transduction is one of the most commonly used detection methods in
127 microfluidics-based biosensors, because it is characterized by small size, portability, low cost as
128 well as high sensitivity and selectivity. In addition, thanks to the convergence of cross-cutting
129 technologies, several configurations can be customized considering the wide plethora of
130 supporting materials and electrochemical techniques available [47].

131 To report an example, Kutluk and colleagues [48] described the realization of a low-cost
132 microfluidic biosensor platform for the monitoring of miRNA-197 (a tumor biomarker candidate)
133 in undiluted human serum samples, based on chips designed through both sandwich and
134 competitive formats (Figure 1A). The obtained results showed that the sandwich assay has
135 superior performance regarding its sensitivity and selectivity, as well as the possibility to operate
136 with very low sample volumes (580 nl) and a sample-to-result time of one hour. This format
137 provided to reach a detection limit of 1.28 nM (0.74 femtomole) in comparison with the
138 competitive format that furnished a detection limit of 4.05 nM (2.35 femtomole). In addition, the
139 sandwich format was capable to provide better discrimination towards single-base mismatch
140 oligonucleotide sequences if compared to the competitive one.

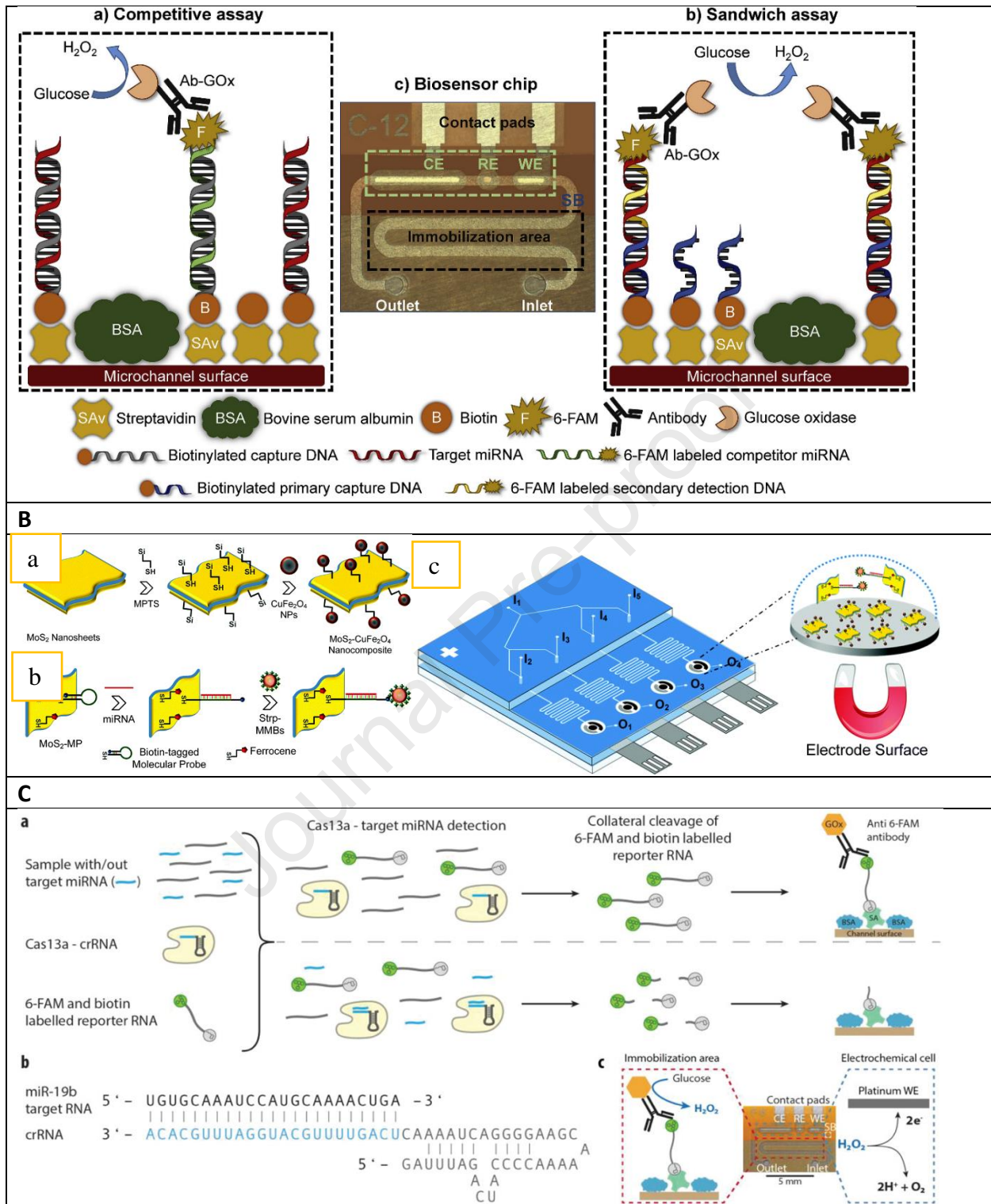
141 In the last decades, nanotechnology proved its potential to enhance the analytical performances
142 of microfluidic devices when associated with electrochemical transduction systems, as
143 demonstrated by Chand and co-workers [49]. The authors synthesized MoS₂ nanosheets
144 decorated with a copper ferrite (CuFe₂O₄) nanoparticle composite to immobilize a molecular
145 probe on such nanomodified support for the electrochemical detection of paratuberculosis-
146 specific miRNAs (Figure 1B). This MoS₂-CuFe₂O₄ nanocomposite-modified electrode was
147 demonstrated to generate an amplified signal of the miRNA-specific molecular probe, which was
148 previously biotin-tagged and thiolated with ferrocene thiol. Indeed, upon miRNA interaction with
149 the probe, an increase in the electrochemical signal from ferrocene was registered by means of
150 square wave voltammetric analysis, reaching a limit of detection of 0.48 pM, within a dynamic
151 range from 1 pM to 1.5 nM. The proposed nanomaterial enabled the target miRNAs to be
152 discriminated among different interfering molecules, also in spiked serum and positive clinical

153 samples, highlighting its potential as a portable diagnostic tool, or namely point-of-care, for
154 paratuberculosis assessment in dairy cows.

155 Biotechnology also supported in the last years the design of multiplexing microfluidic devices for
156 miRNAs biosensing in clinical diagnostics. Several microfluidic biosensing configurations have
157 been applied in different areas, devoted not only to the detection of the target but also to its
158 amplification to enhance the sensitivity. More recently, amplification-free formats have been
159 reported in the literature as more effective and sensitive devices powered with CRISPR/Cas
160 technology, which replace amplification steps by a Cas13a-driven signal amplification. Dincer's
161 group [50] realized an integrated electrochemical biosensor for the on-site detection of potential
162 miRNA tumor markers, namely miR-19b and miR-20a, exploiting a CRISPR/Cas13a-powered
163 microfluidics. The specificity was given by a target-specific CRISPR RNA that guided the Cas13a to
164 target RNA (Figure 1C). Upon recognition of the complementary RNA sequence, the reporter RNA
165 was enzymatically cleaved and thus activated target RNA for the quantitative readout. By
166 exploiting this mechanism, a limit of detection of 10 pM was achieved within a readout time of 9
167 min and an overall process time of less than 4 h, using a very small measuring volume equal to
168 0.6 μ L. Moreover, this biosensor platform was capable to detect miR-19b in serum samples of
169 children with brain cancer. More recently, the same group [51] implemented the above described
170 device and obtained a multiplexed electrochemical microfluidic biosensor based on four chips
171 designed for the amplification-free and simultaneous quantification of up to eight miRNAs.

172

A



173 **Figure 1. Electrochemical methods in miRNA microfluidics biosensors:**
 174 **A) Illustration of the (a) competitive and (b) sandwich assay formats employed for the detection**
 175 **of target miRNA-197 in the microfluidic biosensor. (c) Image of the microfluidic biosensor,**
 176 **visualizing the immobilization area (black), the electrochemical cell with the counter, reference**

177 *and working electrodes (green), and the stopping barrier (SB), shown in blue, which separates the*
178 *two chambers [48].*

179 **B) *MoS₂ nanosheet-based electrochemical miRNA sensor: (a) schematic of MoS₂–***
180 ***CuFe₂O₄ nanocomposite synthesis, (b) principle of miRNA detection using MoS₂–MP nanocarriers,***
181 ***and (c) structure of the PDMS microfluidic platform showing inlets (I_{1–5}), mixing, incubation and***
182 ***sensing zones, outlets (O_{1–4}) and integrated electrodes, inset: miRNA detection on the***
183 ***nanocomposite-modified electrode [49].***

184 **C) *Combination of the CRISPR technology along with an electrochemical microfluidic biosensor for***
185 ***miRNA diagnostics. a) Schematic of the off-chip miRNA targeting, including the enzyme Cas13a,***
186 ***the target miRNA (blue), the target-specific crRNA, and the biotin and 6-FAM-labeled reporter***
187 ***RNA, which is immobilized after the cleavage process onto the streptavidin (SA) and BSA blocked***
188 ***channel surface. b) Schematic of the single-stranded target miRNA, miR-19b, and the crRNA,***
189 ***where the complementary sequence is highlighted in blue. c) Working principle and photo of the***
190 ***microfluidic biosensor with its main elements, including the contact pads for the working,***
191 ***reference, and counter electrodes (WE, RE, CE) in the electrochemical cell (marked in blue) and***
192 ***the immobilization area for the assay preparation (highlighted in red), separated by the***
193 ***hydrophobic stopping barrier SB [50].***

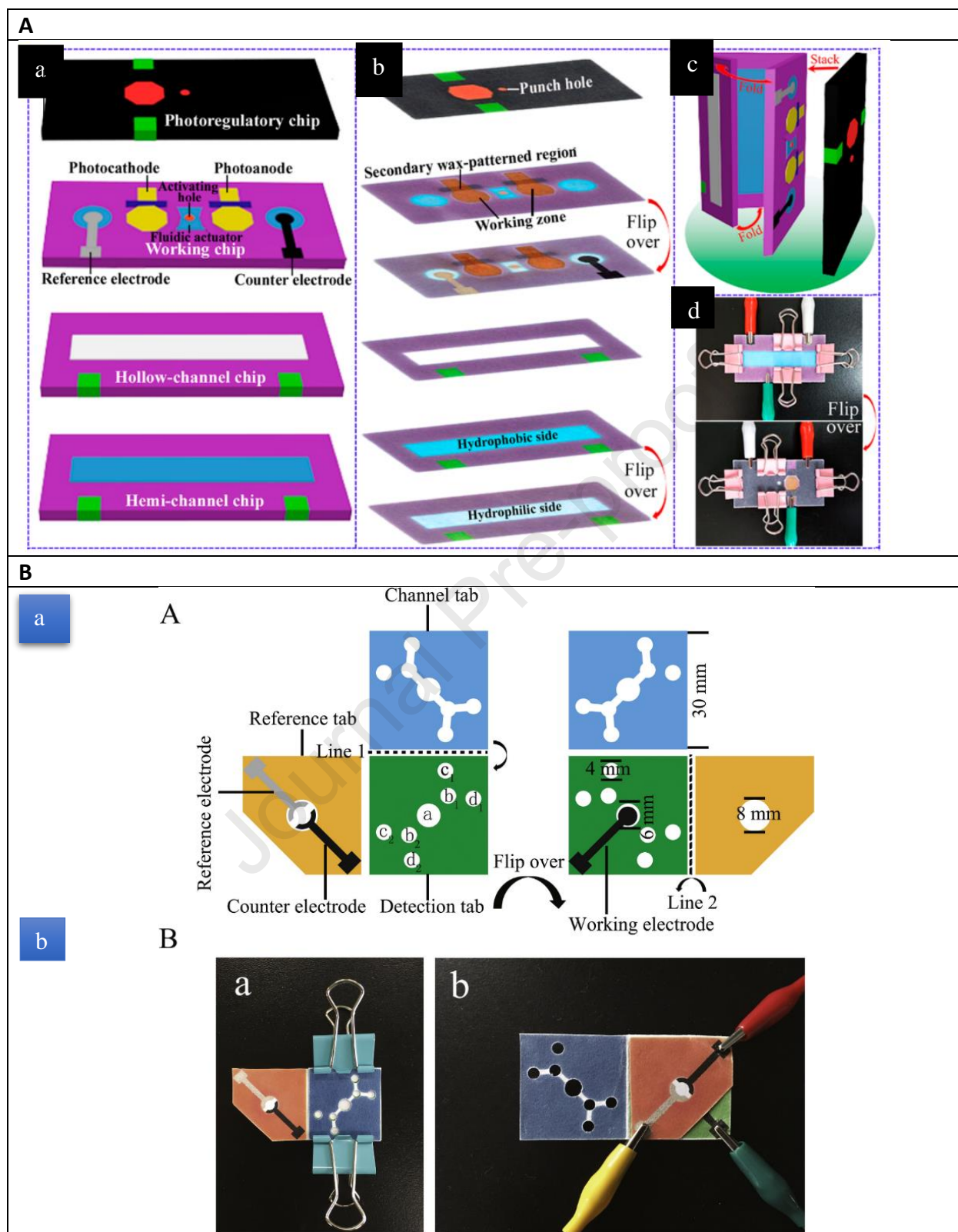
194

195 Likewise, material sciences have provided smart materials for microfluidics, including paper with
196 leading actor especially in the realization of specific sections of the device devoted to different
197 applications, from target amplification to detection and sample treatment. Yang and colleagues
198 [52] described the fabrication of an integrated ratiometric photoelectrochemical paper analytical
199 device with a hollow double-hydrophilic-walls channel for miRNA-141 quantification (Figure 2A).
200 In particular, a photoanode was integrated onto the paper, together with a photocathode,
201 exploited to improve the selectivity. Dendriform polymeric DNA duplex structures decorated
202 with glucose oxidase (GOx)-mimicking gold nanoparticles were used as a probe for the
203 quantitative detection of miRNA-141 with a linear range between 0.15 fM and 2 nM, and a
204 detection limit of 52 aM (S/N = 3).

205 With the convergence of nanotechnology and material sciences, Sun et al. [53] realized an
206 electrochemical analytical device for miRNA detection, exploiting paper as the substrate and Au
207 nanorods to modify the chip and cerium dioxide-Au@glucose oxidase (CeO₂-Au@GOx) as an
208 electrochemical probe for signal amplification (Figure 2B). The biosensor was able to achieve a
209 linear range from 1.0 fM to 1000 fM and a detection limit of 0.434 fM.

210

211



212 **Figure 2.** Paper-based electrochemical methods of miRNA microfluidics biosensors:
 213 **A)** (a) Schematic layout and (b) Photograph of the HDHC paper PEC device; Three-dimensional
 214 view of the HDHC paper PEC device (c) before assembly; and (d) after assembly [52].

215 **B)** (a) The schematic representation, size, and shape of μ PADs. (b) The fabrication of microfluidic
216 paper-based analytical devices for miRNA detection, combining chromogenic reaction and
217 electrochemistry [53].
218

219 **2.2 Optical detection**

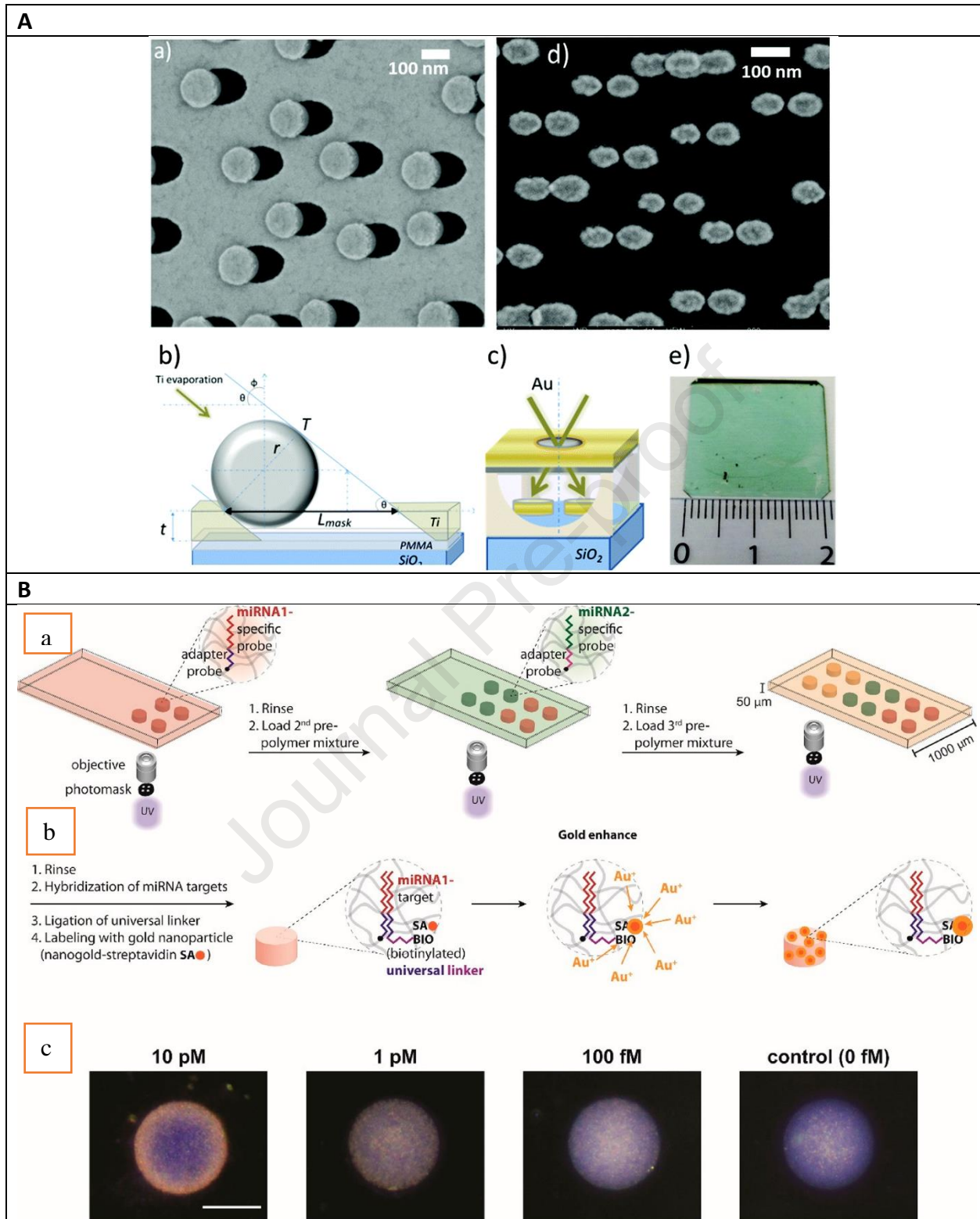
220 The exploitation of optical detection in microfluidics is common, thanks to its easy coupling and
221 rapid response. Optical transduction entails absorption, fluorescence, chemiluminescence, and
222 surface plasmon resonance [54]. Various miniaturized optical components and innovative
223 nanomaterials can be integrated into the microfluidic chips to enhance the sensitivity. As an
224 example, Portela and colleagues [55] exploited nanogap antenna structures to fabricate large-
225 area nanoplasmonic sensor chips by a customized, simple, and low-cost colloidal lithography
226 process. In detail, the authors realized large-area sensor chips of nanogap antennas formed by
227 pairs of gold nanodisks separated by gaps with an average size of 11.6 ± 4.7 nm (Figure 3A). This
228 optical configuration allowed for the detection of miRNA-210, a relevant biomarker for lung
229 cancer diagnosis, through a DNA/miRNA hybridization assay, with a limit of detection of 0.78 nM
230 (5.1 ng mL^{-1}) and without any amplification steps. This underlined the high sensitivity of these
231 plasmonic nanogap antennas for direct and label-free detection of low molecular weight miRNAs.
232 The hydrogel was also exploited for the fabrication of a microfluidic platform for the colorimetric
233 monitoring of miRNAs, without the use of other equipment for fluidics and imaging [56]. To avoid
234 the risk of sequencing bias, a gold deposition-based signal amplification scheme and dark-field
235 imaging were assembled to integrate a previously developed miRNA assay scheme into this
236 platform (Figure 3B). The assay demonstrated a limit of detection of 260 fM, along with
237 multiplexing of small panels of miRNAs in healthy and cancer samples. This versatile platform
238 was able to analyze a wide range of miRNAs in cancer-associated dysregulation with high
239 confidence by exploiting the unique features of hydrogel substrate in an on-chip format and
240 colorimetric analysis.

241

242

243

244



245 **Figure 3.** Optical methods of miRNA microfluidics biosensors:
 246 **A)** Fabrication of nanogap antennas. (a) SEM image of the elliptical mask obtained after tilted
 247 evaporation of 20 nm Ti; (b) sketch of the flexibility for tuning the length of the long axis of the
 248 ellipsoid shape mask; (c) evaporation of gold using two opposite angles with respect to normal

249 *evaporation; (d) SEM image of Au nanogap antennas over a glass substrate; (e) photograph of a*
250 *fabricated sensor chip. A ruler (mm) is shown as a reference scale [55].*

251 **B)** *(a) Schematics of on-chip hydrogel post synthesis for multiplexing of small miRNA panels using*
252 *projection lithography with the spatial encoding scheme. (b) miRNA assay scheme: target*
253 *hybridization, universal linker ligation, gold nanoparticle labeling, and gold ion deposition-based*
254 *signal amplification. (c) Dark-field images of posts after complete miRNA assay, demonstrating*
255 *the dose-dependent response of miRNAs. Scale bar represents 100 μm [56].*

256

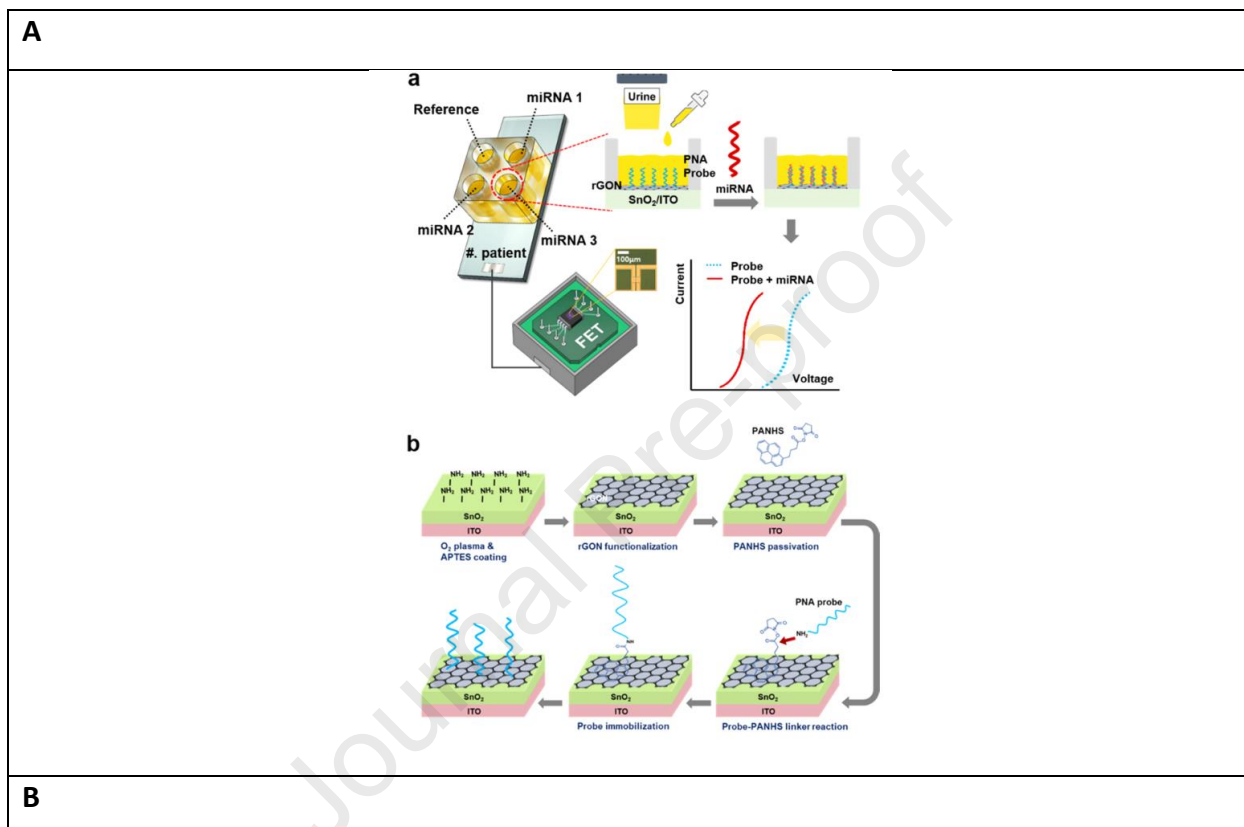
257 **2.3 Electrical detection**

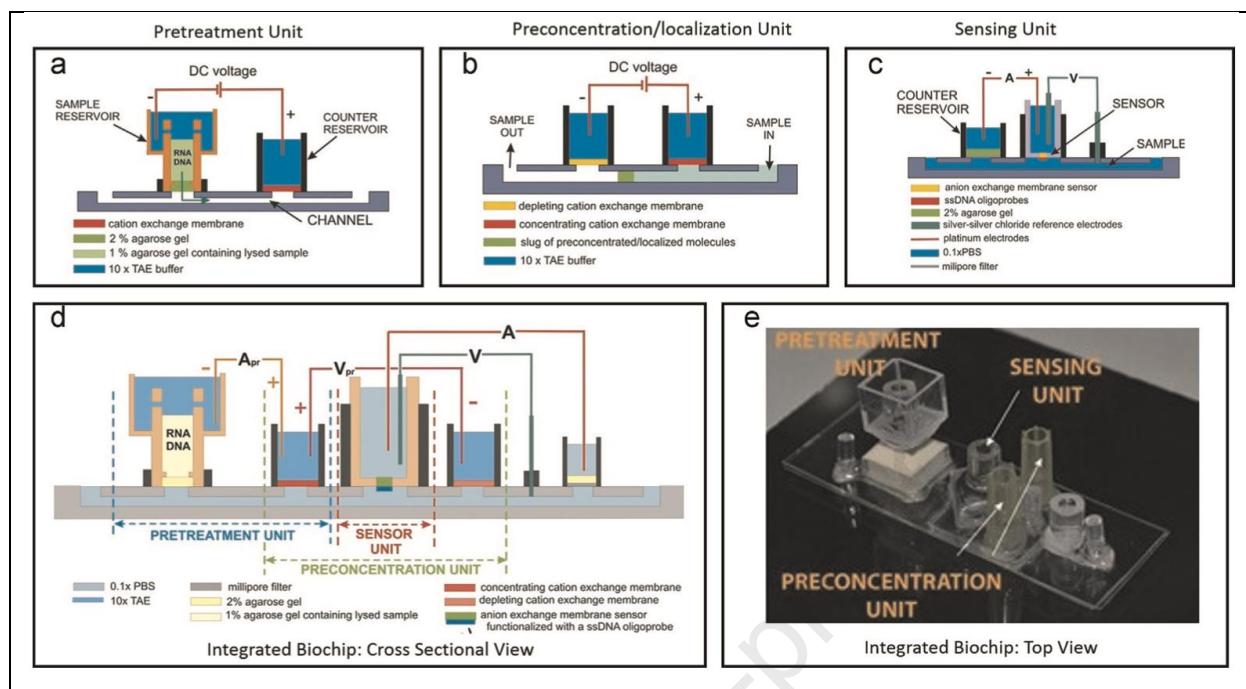
258 Electrical detection methods have been exploited in microfluidic-based biosensors for miRNA
259 detection due to their potential for being miniaturized, integrated into a chip, being portable,
260 and having a simple methodology [57]. Field-effect transistor (FET)-based sensors for label-free
261 measurement of specific chemicals and biomolecules with electrical signals have been recently
262 applied for extracellular vesicles (EVs) extraction and thus quantitative miRNA assessment. EVs
263 are carriers of biologically important molecules, including miRNAs. EV extraction, therefore, is
264 one of the main steps in the miRNA measurement. The main benefits of such technology include
265 miniaturization, rapid turnaround time, cost-effectiveness, and mass production as well as
266 durability, stability, high sensitivity and specificity, low signal-to-noise (S/N) ratio, and minimized
267 contamination risk [58, 59].

268 As an example, an integrated microfluidic system was described in the literature, equipped with
269 highly sensitive FET capable of EV extraction, EV lysis, target miRNA isolation, and miRNA
270 detection within 5 h [60]. The limit of detection was within the physiological fM range for two
271 targeted miRNAs (miR-21 and miR-126) for early diagnosis of cardiovascular diseases. The
272 absence of need for signal amplification in the immunoaffinity-based magnetic beads for high
273 yield EV isolation (54.3 %) is one of the main benefits of this platform over with fluorescent
274 quantification methods using RT-qPCR [61].

275 In another work, Kim et al. developed a label-free disposable sensing platform with high
276 sensitivity and specificity for detecting femtomolar levels of miR-21 as an oncogene, let7b as a
277 controller of the androgen-signaling pathway, and miR-1246 as a tumor regulator, without the
278 need for pretreatment or signal amplification in urine samples from patients with prostate cancer
279 **(Figure 4A)** [62]. The FET biosensing module facilitated rapid, direct, and multiplex miRNA
280 detection. In this regard, the surface of the disposable chip was functionalized with reduced

281 graphene oxide nanosheets and then peptide nucleic acid (PNA). The former provided the sp^2
 282 carbon-structure domains, which improved the immobilization of PNA probes for capturing
 283 miRNA in large surface areas. It also enhanced conductivity and electron mobility, and thus
 284 electrical signals and sensitivity.
 285





286 **Figure 4.** Electrical methods of miRNA microfluidics biosensors;
 287 **A)** (a) Schematic illustration of the urinary miRNA sensing platform based on a disposable and
 288 switchable electrical sensor in urine. (b) Process of chemical fabrication and surface modification
 289 of the disposable sensor chip [62].
 290 **B)** schematics of (a) pretreatment unit, (b) preconcentration unit, (c) flow-through sensing unit,
 291 (d) integrated platform with all electrical connections, (e) Top view of an actual integrated device
 292 [63].
 293

294 CMOS-compatible silicon nanowire field-effect (SiNW-FET) devices are another high throughput
 295 and low-cost tools that can be used for this purpose. The SiNW nanosensors can also be
 296 integrated with microfluidics to enable highly selective and sensitive multiplexed and automated
 297 detection with rapid analyte delivery, using rather small sample volumes. In a recent study, this
 298 system was used for real-time monitoring of miRNA-126 and CEA detection in lung cancer
 299 patients [64]. To overcome the complex integration issues accompanied by the use of SiNWs, a
 300 simple and low-cost “top-down” method, compatible with commercial semiconductor processes,
 301 was applied. In this regard, optical lithography was combined with anisotropic wet etching using
 302 tetra-methylammonium hydroxide (TMAH). It was then integrated into a PDMS microfluidic
 303 manifold to ensure sensitivity of 0.1 fM for miRNA-126 and 1 fg/ml for CEA detection.
 304 FET sensors, however, suffer from certain shortcomings such as only being capable of detecting
 305 the smallest charged molecules and not the nucleic acid molecules, due to the ionic strength

306 within the electrical Debye layer being 2-3 times higher than the bulk [65]. This requires
307 expensive micro-fabricated electrodes and long assay times due to diffusion-based transport of
308 large nucleic acid molecules to the electrode surface. The use of ion-selective nanoporous
309 membranes is another technology with promising results in miRNA measurement and the
310 possibility to overcome some of these shortcomings. In this regard, Slouka et al. managed to
311 develop a simple, inexpensive, label- and PCR-free microfluidic platform for miRNA measurement
312 in oral cancer using commercially available heterogeneous ion-selective nanoporous membranes
313 **(Figure 4B)** [63]. The platform enabled rapid and selective detection of microRNA 146a
314 biomarkers from oral cancer cell lines in approximately 30 minutes. The three units of the device,
315 pre-treatment, pre-concentration, and sensing, utilized the inherent negative charge of the
316 nucleic acid molecules and the ion-selective properties of cation- and anion-exchange
317 membranes. This is while a DC field was applied to extract the nucleic acid molecules from the
318 sample through an agarose gel, reducing the contamination risk. The cation exchange membrane
319 under DC field was then used to create an electrokinetic filter, needed for concentration and
320 rapid detection of the target. This technique prevented any possible hydrodynamic resistance.
321 The ion depletion feature of the membrane, on the other hand, helped exclude all charged
322 molecules at a precise location in the microfluidic channel, reducing diffusion time to the sensor
323 and resulting in rapid target detection. These steps are much simpler and less expensive than the
324 hydrodynamic, mechanical, acoustic, electric, magnetic bead, and ultrasonic approaches used in
325 other similar LOCs [66, 67]. Moreover, the absence of any electron transfer reaction on the
326 membrane surface has turned such sensors into highly stable measurement tools.

327 In other examples, the combination of the electric and acoustic pressures induced by surface
328 acoustic waves (SAWs) are applied in microfluidics [68, 69]. In this regard, two microfluidic
329 platforms for miRNA lysis (~30 min) and detection (~1 h) were developed using sample volumes
330 as low as ~100 μL . SAW-based lysis, which benefits from the combination of dielectrophoretic
331 and acoustic radiation forces, is a promising alternative to traditional chemical or surfactant
332 lysates as it does not interfere with RNA detection downstream, through affecting the buffer pH
333 and ionic strength or disrupting self-assembled layers. It was reported to have a yield of about
334 38 %. The label-free chip was an ion-exchange nanomembrane sensor sandwiched between two

335 reservoirs, enabling the measurement of the current–voltage characteristic (CVC) [70]. CVC has
 336 shown promising results for miRNA detection as in this technique a dramatic change is observed
 337 as large, negatively charged molecules such as RNA are adsorbed to the surface of the positively
 338 charged membrane. The nanomembrane sensor was capable of measuring the target microRNA
 339 (hsa-miR-550) with a limit of detection of 2 pM for early diagnosis of pancreatic cancer.

340

341 *Table 1- List of Pros and Cons in function of the different transducers*

342

Transduction	Pros	Cons
Electrochemical	Simple to use Miniaturization Low cost Real-time response Continuous analysis Simultaneous analysis of targets	Need of redox probe in the case of voltametric detection
Optical	Real-time detection Reliability High sensitivity Simultaneous analysis of targets	Sensitive to surrounding environment
Electrical	High sensitivity Label-free detection Real-time response	Detection of smallest charged molecules and not the nucleic acid molecules

343

344 **3. Microfluidics for miRNA sample preparation, amplification, and other analysis**

345 Microfluidics can be used to manipulate miRNA-containing samples to enhance the sensitivity
 346 and selectivity of the quantification process. This can be performed outside the chip, in
 347 laboratories using conventional methods such as sequencing and mass spectrometry. Therefore,
 348 in this section, we evaluate the literature on microfluidics for miRNA preparation and
 349 manipulation, including sequencing, polymerase chain reaction (PCR), other amplifications, and
 350 mass spectrometry detection.

351

3.1. Microfluidic devices to isolate miRNA for Sequencing & PCR

A successful miRNA quantification is highly affected by the isolation methods. Only a few studies have offered novel techniques for extracting miRNAs from biological samples. Most of them have benefited from existing commercial isolation technologies such as ultracentrifugation (UC), UC plus density gradient, qEV size-exclusion chromatography (Izon Science), and the exoEasy Maxi Kit (QIAGEN) [71]. These kits isolate miRNA by combining the sample lysis and silica-based spin-column technologies. These column-based separation methods are mainly suitable for isolating miRNAs in fully equipped labs with skilled personnel and are time-consuming, as they require multiple washing and spinning steps.

To overcome the limitations of such column-based protocols, microfluidic-based devices have become a promising alternative with the capability to improve the yield and purity of the extracted miRNA in a fast, portable, and automated set-up with higher efficiency while requiring less input fluid (Table 2). Generally, microfluidic-based devices can be used to separate EVs and /or exosomes. These cell-cell messengers reflect the state of the parent cell and therefore are commonly used in health assessments. This step could be based on the difference in size, immunoaffinity, and dynamic force separation methodologies. A nanoscale deterministic lateral displacement array (nanoDL), for instance, has demonstrated a superior ~50% yield for both serum and urine samples with the need for smaller sample volumes, up to ~3× higher concentration factor enhancement for both sample types, to ~60× for urine through adjusting the chip design to make the outlet channel width twelve times tighter [71]. Results revealed nanoDL as a promising alternative for fast, reproducible, and automatable EV-isolation prior to a quantitative PCR. In another attempt, ultrasonic transducer coupled to microfluidic channel was used for EV isolation and processing. This automated acoustic EV trapping technique combined with an optimized RNA sequencing can help detect RNA markers in urine samples in an efficient and robust manner (Figure 5) [72].

The purity and recovery ratios of miRNAs and RNAs isolated from the circulating exosomes could be increased up to 90 % and 84 % respectively, using the charged-based separation microchips [73]. The main concept of such microfluidic devices is to apply positively charged chitosan-

380 bearing NH_3^+ to separate the negatively charged exosomes. The separated exosomes have to be
381 treated with Trizol buffer before complete extraction of RNAs and miRNAs qPCR quantification.
382 The yield ratio and purity of the isolated EVs could be enhanced by improving the selectivity of
383 the separation system. Immunoaffinity-based microfluidic devices offer better selectivity via the
384 recognition of specific antigens in the EVs. In this regard, conjugated antibodies facilitate the
385 immobilization of the antibodies and release EVs in the microfluidic device. The HBEXO-Chip is
386 an example of a device built based on this principle to isolate EVs in the plasma [74]. This tool
387 was functionalized with anti-Glypican-1 antibodies, which resulted in specific capture of the
388 exosomes through Glypican-1, a tumor-specific surface marker. The captured exosomes were
389 then eluted with glycine-HCl buffer (pH 2.8) and lysed using Trizol as lysis buffer. The organic and
390 the aqueous phases were then separated using chloroform. Trace levels of miRNA in the aqueous
391 phase were finally precipitated using TAKARA precipitating aid. The expression level of the
392 miRNAs was determined using the SYBR[®] Green method real-time PCR analysis. Compared with
393 the gold standard, the device had the capability to increase the tumor-specific exosomes
394 enrichment ratios by four times. Using this device, hsa-miR-214-3p and hsa-miR-125b-5p were
395 shown to be highly expressed in pancreatic cancer.

396 Various strategies benefit from conjugated antibodies for the EV separation. Biotinylated
397 antibodies, for instance, recognize common EV surface markers immobilized in a microfluidic
398 system using desthiobiotin [75]. Such device has shown promising capability in capturing EVs
399 from whole blood or cell culture samples. The captured EVs are then released from the microchip
400 using excess amounts of biotin. This competition causes the release of the desthiobiotin-
401 antibody–EV complex from the Neutravidin-coated surface, allowing for EV collection. The
402 processing time was minimized to 1 hr, requiring sample volume as low as 1.2 ml of plasma or 10
403 ml of cell culture medium. RNAs and miRNAs were, then, extracted using a lysis reagent.

404 Conjugated antibodies can be also used to recognize EVs in the biological samples without being
405 immobilized on the microfluidic channels [76]. In this regard, antibody-conjugated microbeads
406 for EV recognition are infused in the microfluidic system with negative pressure application after
407 being mixed with the sample. While being pulled through, the magnetically-labeled EVs are
408 captured at the edge of the pores in the chip. EVs could be released for quantification using a

409 lysis reagent in less than 30 minutes. Although the Immunoaffinity-based microfluidic devices
410 offer high selectivity in separation, their cost is higher compared to other microdevices. On the
411 other hand, the extra step often needed to release the antibodies from the microfluidic chip may
412 increase the separation time.

413 In all the above-mentioned devices, the process mainly focused on separating the EVs or
414 exosomes from the biological fluids, which were then released from the chip and quantified by
415 qPCR using a lysis buffer. This is while some studies have reported microdevices designed to
416 directly capture miRNAs from biological samples using a simple lysis protocol. This is of great
417 importance as such devices are easier to use because no sample post-separation treatment is
418 required. In this type of separation, the internal surface of the microdevice is modified with
419 positively charged 3-amino-propyl-triethoxysilane (APTES) alone or along with two different
420 neutral poly(ethylene glycol) silanes (PEG-s) [77]. This surface was found to be capable of
421 capturing miRNAs followed by reverse transcription. The resulting cDNA was collected and
422 amplified via real-time PCR. Another study also showed improved performance of the same tool
423 after optimizing the morphological and chemical properties of its surface [78]. The idea behind
424 this modification was to make the surface more positively charged. The optimized device showed
425 high selectivity and a sensitivity of about 0.01 pM in purifying both synthetic and natural
426 circulating miRNAs.

Table 2- List of microfluidics-based devices utilized for isolating miRNAs from biofluid prior to PCR, their characteristics along with their pros and cons

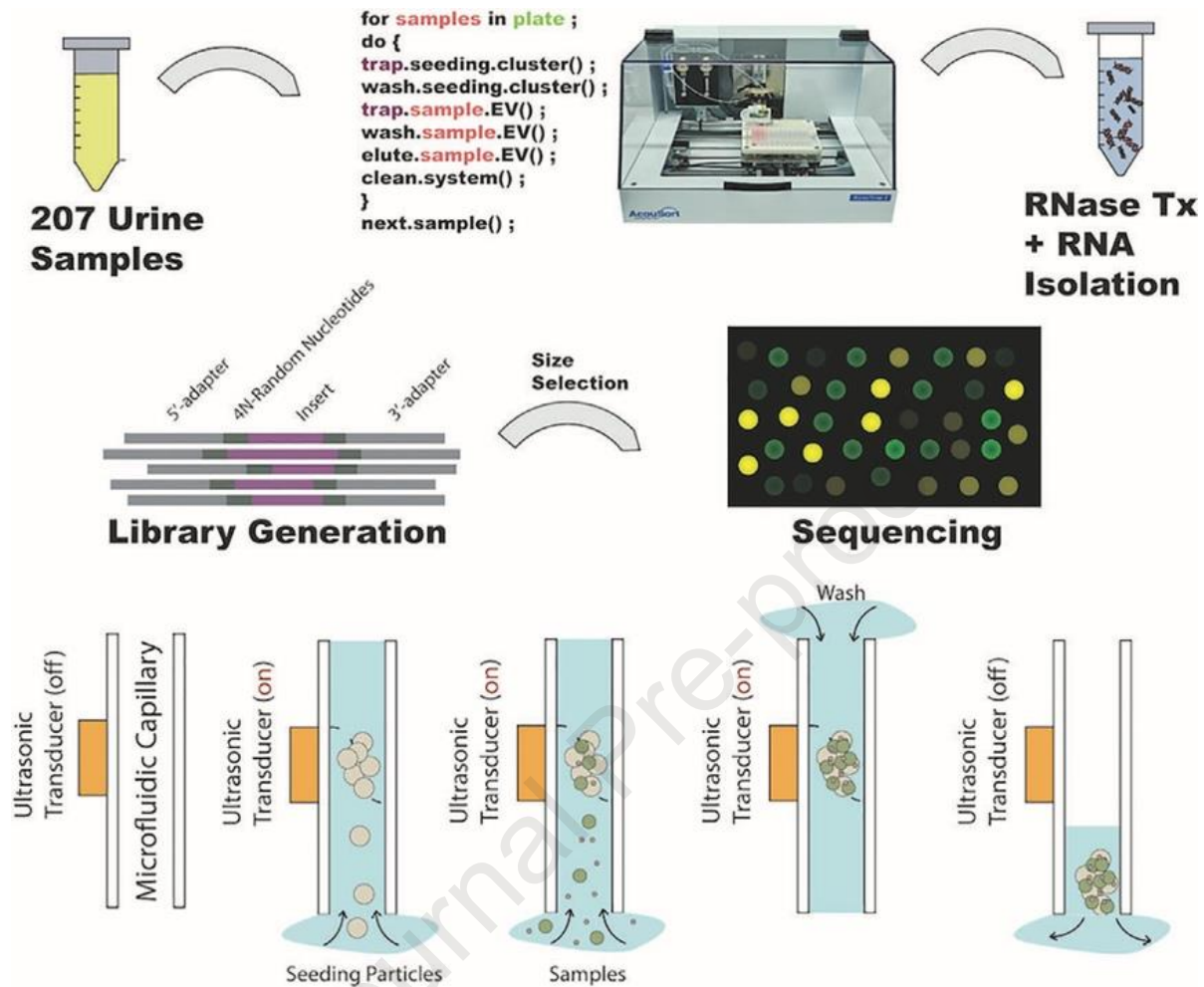
Device	Isolated target	Sample	Separation technique	Recovery ratio	Post-isolation purification	Advantages	Disadvantages	Ref.
nanoDLD	EVs	Serum, urine	Size-based separation	50%	Required	✓ Low volume needed (μL range)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • miRNA extraction required • No-selectivity • Low recovery 	[71]
Microchip	Exosomes	Blood	Chitosan electrostatic-adsorption	84%	Required	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Low volume needed (μL range) ✓ Up to 84% recovery ✓ No harsh buffers needed to elute exosomes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • miRNA extraction required • No-selectivity 	[73]
HBEXO-Chip	Exosomes	Plasma	Immunoaffinity-based	NA	Required	✓ Highly selective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Harsh buffers needed to elute exosomes • miRNA extraction required 	[74]
Immunoaffinity-based microfluidic	EVs	Whole blood / cell culture	Immunoaffinity-based	NA	Required	✓ Highly selective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expensive (need for labelling) • miRNA extraction required 	[75]
Microchip for TBI	EVs	Serum plasma	/ Immunoaffinity-based	NA	Required	✓ Highly selective	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expensive (need for labelling) • Complicated miRNA extraction protocol 	[76]

Optimized microfluidic	VEs or Plasma exosomes blood	/ Electrostatic-adsorption	NA	Required	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Able to quantify miRNA ✓ High sensitivity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre qPCR reverse transcription required 	[77], [78]
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Table 3- List of microfluidics-based devices for miRNA amplification prior to PCR, their characteristics along with their pros and cons

Sample	Detection technique	Amplification	Pre-amplification purification	Advantages	Disadvantages	Ref.
Human breast cancer cell line MCF-7	Gel electrophoresis	ddPCR	Required	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Low volume needed (μL range) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low sensitivity (Gel detection) 	[81]
	Fluorescent images	ddPCR	Required	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Low volume needed (μL range) ✓ Highly sensitive 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre-amplification required 	[82]
GAPDH mRNA	Fluorescent images	ddPCR	Not required	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Low volume needed (nL range) ✓ Integrated device ✓ Suitable for single cell biomarkers ✓ High-Throughput 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extended current throughput makes further scaling difficult. 	[83]

1



2

3 **Figure 5.** Automated microfluidic EV enrichment workflow for small RNA sequencing in urine.
4 (A) Schematic of workflow beginning with urine sample randomization, automated EV isolation
5 by AcouTrap, RNA isolation, small RNA library preparation and finally sequencing. (B)
6 Illustration of acoustic trapping steps [72].

7

8 3.2. Microfluidic devices to amplify miRNA

9 Droplet Digital PCR (ddPCR) is a recent method used for oligonucleotides amplification based on
10 water-oil emulsion droplet technology. In this technique, a sample is fractionated into thousands
11 of water-oil emulsion droplets, and then PCR amplification of the template oligonucleotides
12 occurs in each individual droplet. Similar to traditional PCR, ddPCR technology utilizes primer or
13 primer/probe assays, DNA template, and thermocycler. However, ddPCR has offered advantages
14 to both traditional and qPCR, including higher sensitivity and absolute quantification without the

15 need for an external calibration curve [79]. Microfluidic PCR strategy can be miniaturized and
16 portable, automatic, fast and high-throughput which are beneficial to be integrated into lab-on-
17 chip devices for oligonucleotide detection [80]. In contrast, PCR-free strategies, in most cases,
18 might suffer from lower sensitivity; this is while most of these devices are less-complicated and
19 less-expensive, which is compatible with commercialization and easy-handling products [7, 15].
20 To benefit from ddPCR technology in miRNA amplification, several microfluidic devices have been
21 developed (Table 3). It is noteworthy that 3D printing technology has facilitated the fabrication
22 of microfluidic devices for droplet-based miRNA PCR [81]. To simplify the formation of the
23 droplets inside such devices, a T-shaped design provides the needed two inlets and a single
24 outlet. It also helps with the generation of the droplets via fluid shear stress. In this regard, one
25 channel is used to infuse oil as the continuous phase, while the other is for the introduction of
26 the PCR solution as the dispersed phase. The major benefit of this highly controllable and rapid
27 thermal cycling is reduced turnaround time and energy consumption due to the small size of the
28 particles and the fast thermal transfer. Despite the high efficiency of this microchip in miRNA
29 amplification, a pre-amplified miRNA extraction step is still needed. Moreover, the detection step
30 is normally performed outside the chip using gel electrophoresis. The PCR process was also
31 reported to be more effective in commercial thermal cycler.

32 In another attempt to address these shortcomings, a microfluidic device for both amplification
33 and detection of miRNAs was designed [82]. Soft lithography was used to fabricate the T-shaped
34 microfluidic chip in polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS). Similar to the previous attempts, the chip
35 consisted of two inlets for the PCR solution and oil phase, a reaction chamber, and an outlet for
36 pumping. Droplets were formed through high shear forces, and then generated a monolayer in
37 the reaction chamber for ddPCR reaction. Later on, the hydrolysis of fluorescent probes took
38 place inside the droplets containing the miRNA RT products (cDNA templates). Fluorescent
39 images of the droplets were obtained under the fluorescent microscope. This microfluidic chip
40 platform was shown to be more sensitive and accurate compared with qPCR. Though the number
41 of positive droplets observed in this device (10^5 to 10 copies/ μl) was narrower than that of qPCR
42 (10^6 to 10 copies/ μl). Its main limitation, however, was the need to extract the miRNAs from the
43 biological samples prior to the amplification.

44 The lap-on-chip concept has also been applied in the development of an integrated chip for high-
45 throughput digital PCR (dPCR) analysis of single cells [83]. In this tool, the pre-amplification
46 purification step was integrated into the PCR tool. It therefore allowed for parallel processing of
47 single cells and executes, including cell capture, washing, lysis, reverse transcription, and dPCR
48 analysis, in a single chip. After over 1200 single-cell measurements, the device was demonstrated
49 to be highly sensitive and selective; the coefficient of variation (CV) at the single-cell level was as
50 high as 40%.

51

52 **3.3. Microfluidic devices for sample preparation before Mass Spectrometry analysis**

53 Recently, isothermal signal amplification of miRNA, which benefits from enzyme rather than
54 nucleic acid assisted miRNA target recycling using exonuclease (Exo) and duplex-specific nuclease
55 (DSN), is becoming more and more common [84, 85]. Such step is generally coupled with various
56 detection methods, namely chemiluminescence, fluorescence, surface-enhanced Raman
57 spectroscopy, electrochemical, and magnetic relaxation switch or optomagnetic. The main
58 shortcoming of most of these techniques is the need for labeled DNA probes, which are difficult
59 to prepare, have poor stability, and high cost. Interference from biological sample matrices,
60 producing inaccurate results, is also a common bias in many of these techniques.

61 Mass spectrometry (MS) is a powerful technique for chemical characterization and measurement
62 of a wide range of molecular classes and sizes with high sensitivity and specificity [86]. This tool
63 has also shown promising results in miRNA analysis [87, 88]. Quantitative assay of miRNAs with
64 MS though suffers from two major disadvantages, as low sensitivity and need for extraction or
65 chromatographic separation prior to MS analysis.

66 Microfluidic tools have shown high potential to improve nanoparticle and EV enrichment prior to
67 MS, overcoming the need for UC, the current laborious and time-consuming gold standard [89].
68 These tools apply laminar flow profile and thus need smaller amounts of the sample, and report
69 improved reproducibility of the results through reducing variations in the used rotors and
70 protocols. Various technologies, ranging from nano-DLD [90], immunoaffinity-functionalized
71 microstructures or beads [91, 92], dielectrophoresis (DEP) [93], viscoelastic separation [94],
72 surface acoustic waves (SAW)[95], and acoustic trapping [96] are applied in such microfluidics,

73 each having their pros and cons. Some of these technologies are already explained in the PCR
74 section above.

75 Acoustic trapping-based microfluidic tools are among promising alternatives for UC for isolating
76 and enriching EVs. They have shown the significantly higher capacity and throughput, mainly
77 because unlike UC, they are not limited to smaller samples with flow rates $< 50 \mu\text{L}/\text{min}$. The label-
78 and contact-free multinode microfluidic tools benefit from a larger capillary, which has resulted
79 in 40 times higher seed particle capacity by and 25–40 times higher throughput [89]. Using this
80 tool, Broman et al. succeeded to isolate nanogram amounts of miRNA from acoustically trapped
81 urinary EVs for downstream mass spectrometry analysis within 10 min. Vesicle coalescence and
82 aggregation as well as co-precipitation of larger protein complexes, commonly reported with UC,
83 was also not an issue in the novel technology. The main benefit of such tool, apart from the need
84 for low volumes, is the short processing time, which is important for future automated biomarker
85 profiling in clinical samples.

86 In another study, a simple but sensitive targeted miRNA assay based on the combination of cyclic
87 enzymatic amplification (CEA) and microfluidic voltage-assisted liquid desorption electrospray
88 ionization-tandem mass spectrometry (VAL-DESI-MS/MS) was developed [33]. In this work, the
89 ssDNA probe was modified with a sequence complementary to the miRNA target, aiming to
90 facilitate its preparation as well as improve its stability. The modified ssDNA probe formed a DNA-
91 miRNA hybrid in the sample solution. Duplex-specific nuclease (DSN) was then used to specifically
92 cleave the probe in heteroduplex strands. The repetition of the hybridization-cleavage cycles
93 resulted in the production of a large quantity of CpC molecules that were later quantified by VAL-
94 DESI-MS/MS with accuracy and specificity. miRNA-21, as a model target, was assessed in the 2.5
95 pM to 1.0 nM range with a limit of detection of 0.25 pM. Therefore, this tool can be used for
96 accurate and cost-effective quantification of targeted miRNAs in biomedical samples.

97

98 **4. Conclusions and future perspective**

99 In this review, we discussed recent advancements in the microfluidic-based miRNA analytical
100 devices along with their sample preparation and detection strategies. Despite the significant
101 progress in the field, such devices still suffer from several shortcomings including low sensitivity,

102 high cost, and complexity. Amplification and, in general, microfluidic-compatible sample
103 manipulation methods were described along with the use of nanomaterials in different forms,
104 shapes, and combinations that can help enhance the sensitivity. This latter could be also
105 enhanced through improvements on the device design. With the novel advances in the
106 fabrication techniques such as 3D printing, the cost and time needed to prepare these chips can
107 be reduced, while providing more flexibility in terms of the design of the channels and chambers.
108 Multiplexed arrays are attractive for miRNA analysis, as several miRNAs need to be tested for the
109 detection of the selected disease. Moreover, considering the growing demand for POC and in-
110 home testing, portable and user-friendly miRNA devices are going to be a commercial reality. The
111 advent of washable and reusable chips for miRNA analysis is another way to reduce the cost.
112 Finally, mass production and marketing are still big challenges for microfluidics and LOC devices.

113

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Highlights

- ✓ Microfluidics devices are used for miRNA sample preparation and detection.
- ✓ Electrochemical, electrical, and optical biosensors combined with microfluidic tools
- ✓ Microfluidics for miRNA sample preparation, amplification, and other analysis

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Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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