



Lateral flow aptamer assay integrated smartphone-based portable device for simultaneous detection of multiple targets using upconversion nanoparticles

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ABSTRACT

Simultaneous detection of multiple targets with different analyte-recognition reactions in the same sample in a rapid, low-cost and reliable way has immense potential with widespread applications in food safety, medical diagnostics and environmental monitoring. Herein, we developed a lateral flow aptamer assay (LFAA) integrated smartphone-based portable device for highly sensitive and precise detection of multiple targets, using aptamers functionalized multi-colored upconversion nanoparticles as probes. The developed LFAA can provide rapid and sensitive analysis of three different kinds of targets (*i.e.*, small molecules, ions and bacteria) without significant cross-reaction by using separate color channels. By using the competitive format, the concentration of each target can be determined from the color intensity of the corresponding colored band. With the LFAA, we have achieved detection ranges of $10\text{--}10^4$ ppb, $0.01\text{--}50$ $\mu\text{g/mL}$ and $150\text{--}2000$ CFU/mL and detection limits of 5 ppb, 3 ng/mL and 85 CFU/mL for mercury ions, ochratoxin A and *Salmonella* (as template analytes), respectively. The LFAA was further used for detection in real water samples (*i.e.*, tap water) within 30 min. Subsequently, a smartphone-based device was used instead of a CCD camera to read the results, which could make the detection process rapid and portable. Therefore, the developed LFAA holds great potential as a sensitive, specific, convenient and stable platform for point-of-care detection of multiple targets in various fields.

1. Introduction

Multiple target testing (*i.e.*, the simultaneous detection of different types of targets in a single specimen) has recently gained significantly increased attention in the areas of environmental monitoring, medical diagnostics and food safety. For instance, pathogens, heavy metal ions and other toxic substances are all important indicators for water quality evaluation [1–3]. Also, clinical doctors often need to assess the content of bacteria, fungal specimens or toxins in blood samples simultaneously to precisely diagnose whether a symptom is caused by inflammation, fungal infection or toxin accumulation [4]. In addition, a worldwide

public health issue, foodborne disease, is caused by different types of contaminants (*e.g.*, bacteria, antibiotics, illegal additives and pesticide residues) in food samples, which impacts almost 1 in 10 of the global population [5,6]. Therefore, it is of great importance to simultaneously detect of multiple targets in the same sample in a rapid, reliable and low-cost way.

The biggest challenge with existing analytical methods is that they are not sensitive, rapid, low-cost or capable of multiple targets detection at the same time. For example, polymerase chain reaction (PCR), liquid and gas chromatography and mass spectroscopy are known as the gold standard for analyzing samples and are capable of multiple target

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Table 1
The sequences of the aptamer and the complementary DNA.

Sample Name	Sequence (5–3')	Source
Aptamer 1 (OTA)	GCTGAGTCTGAGTCG ATCGGGTGTGGGTGGCGTAAAGGGAGCATCGGACA	Cruz-Aguado, J. A and Penner, G [26]
complementary DNA 1 Aptamer 2 (SE)	CGCCACCCACACCCGAT GCTGAGTCTGAGTCG TATGGCGCGCTCACCCGACGGGGACTTGACATTATGACAG	Xiaoyuan Ma et.al [27]
complementary DNA 2 Aptamer 3 (Hg ²⁺)	CTGTCATAATGTCAAG GCTGAGTCTGAGTCG TCATGTTTGTGGTGGCCCCCTTCITTTCTTA	Qing Li et.al [28]
complementary DNA 3 complementary DNA of control part	AAACAAACATGA CGACTCAGACTCAGC	

detection with high sensitivity and selectivity. However, these methods are expensive, time-consuming and require well-trained operators [7]. Paper-based lateral flow assays (LFAs) show great potential for point-of-care testing (POCT) due to their short turnaround time, sensitivity, specificity, robustness and cost-effectiveness [8]. However, lateral flow immunoassays (LFIAs), for example, are often developed for detection of a single target per assay [9,10]. Thus, several LFIA formats have been developed to address the challenge of detecting more than one analyte in a single strip, which lends to further opportunity to increase speed and decrease cost by screening multiple targets simultaneously [11–14]. However, these LFAs are associated with limitation of non-specific binding and crossover reactions, which can lead to false positive results [15]. Moreover, the inability to detect multiple targets based on different analyte-recognition reactions (e.g., antibody-antigen reaction, complementary base pairing and dry chemical reaction) has greatly hindered its practical applications, since the recognition of multiple targets (e.g., metal ions, food additives and pesticide residues) often require different analyte-recognition reactions. For instance, target capture based on antibody-antigen reaction is greatly compromised by the difficulty to raise antibodies for toxicants or non-immunogens (e.g., metal ions, food additives and pesticide residues). Thus, it remains a big challenge to design LFAs capable of detecting multiple targets with different analyte-recognition reactions.

Aptamers, single-stranded DNA or RNA, are considered “chemical antibodies” due to their sequence-specific, target-binding functionality, which provides them a high affinity to form higher-order structures [16]. More importantly, the conformational diversity of aptamers makes them capable of recognizing a wider range of targets, such as amino acids, metal ions, polysaccharides, protein complexes, virus particles, bacteria and even whole cells, through hydrogen bonding, electrostatic interactions, shape effect, aromatic rings, and/or base pairing [17–21]. In addition, the synthetic feasibility of aptamers makes them easy to modify and tag, providing extraordinary flexibility in the development of POCT assays [21]. Thus, modified aptamers have been tethered to colorimetric particles (e.g., gold nanoparticles) and then employed in lateral flow aptamer assays (LFAAs). Various types of LFAAs have been used to detect different targets, e.g., sandwich format [22], competitive format [23], signal amplification for aptamer hybridization-based LFIAs [24] and other formats of LFAAs [25]. However, these existing colorimetric-based LFAAs suffer from poor detection limits and mainly aim at single target detection.

The use of fluorescence nanoparticles can significantly improve the

detection limit (by one or two orders of magnitude), which satisfies various detection applications [10,14]. Upconversion nanoparticles (UCNPs) can convert near-infrared (NIR) excitation into visible emissions, thus allowing great advances when used as signal reporters (e.g., avoiding background fluorescence, increasing photostability and improving signal-to-noise ratio and sensitivity in complex biological samples). However, LFAAs using UCNPs as fluorescence signal generators have not been reported yet.

In this study, we developed a novel LFAA for simultaneously detecting multiple types of targets (i.e., bacteria, small molecules and ions). To improve the detection sensitivity, UCNPs with red, green and blue emission peaks were synthesized and used as detection probes generating fluorescence signal. However, the generation of fluorescence signal requires 980 nm laser irradiation and the fluorescence intensity should be further related to the targets concentrations. We therefore designed a portable reader to improve the usability of the assays, which allows us to simultaneously detect and quantify multiple targets using an LFAA and obtain the results via a smartphone. The conclusions can be drawn from the presence and level of each target from the presence and color intensity of a corresponding colored band. The developed LFAA enables sensitive and specific detection of multiple targets using different aptamers, which lends itself to potential applications in the monitoring of quality and safety for various foodstuffs.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

1-Ethyl-3-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-carbodiimide hydrochloride (EDC), N-hydroxysulfosuccinimide sodium salt (sulfo-NHS), poly (acrylic acid) (PAA, Mw = 800–1000), ErCl₃·6H₂O, YCl₃·6H₂O, TmCl₃·6H₂O, YbCl₃·6H₂O and NH₄F were all purchased from Sigma Aldrich. 1-Octadecene (90%) sodium and oleic acid (90%) were obtained from Alfa Aesar. NaOH, methanol, chloroform, ethanol, saline-sodium citrate (SSC), Tris-HCl, Tween 20 and bovine serum albumin (BSA) were obtained from Tianjin Zhiyuan Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. Aptamers and their complementary sequences (Table 1) were selected according to literature [26–28] and synthesized by Shanghai General Biological Science & Technology Company.

Table 2
The dosage of rare-earth chlorides.

UCNPs	Dosage of rare-earth chlorides
NaYF ₄ :Yb,Er (Green)	YCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O (242.69 mg, 0.8 mmol), ErCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O (7.64 mg, 0.02 mmol) and YbCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O (69.75 mg, 0.18 mmol)
NaYF ₄ :Yb,Tm (Blue)	YCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O (210.8 mg, 0.695 mmol), YbCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O (116.2 mg, 0.30 mmol), and TmCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O (1.9 mg, 0.005 mmol).
NaYF ₄ : Er,Tm (Red)	YCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O (267.0 mg, 0.88 mmol), TmCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O (7.7 mg, 0.02 mmol), ErCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O (38.2 mg, 0.1 mmol)
Enhanced NaYF ₄ : Er,Tm (Red)	YCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O (267.0 mg, 0.88 mmol)

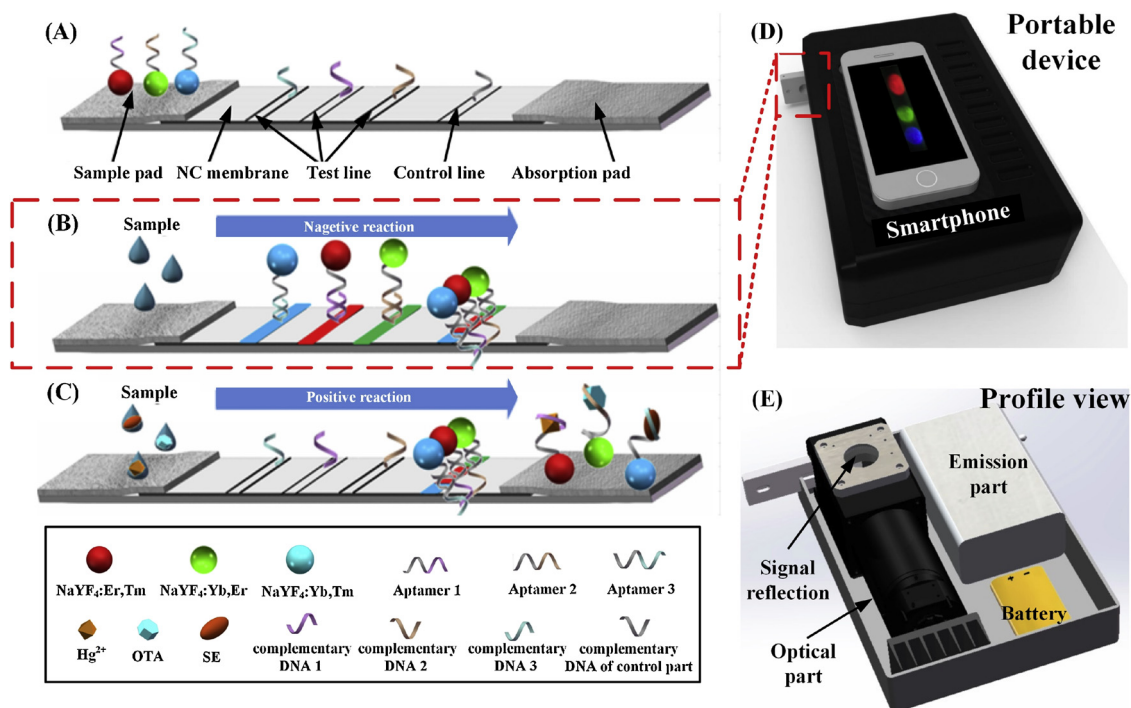


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of LFAA for simultaneous multiple targets detection.

(A) The structure of the developed LFAA. The three kinds of ssDNA sequences were attached to three kinds of UCNPs (red, green and blue) by a condensation reaction, respectively. Streptavidin was used as an intermediate to react with both biotin and the NC membrane to immobilize complementary DNA of aptamer parts and control parts on an NC membrane. We mixed probes in buffer solution, this solution was further mixed with sample solution and was finally detected by the design strip. (B) In the absence of target, UCNP probes were separately hybridized with the corresponding complementary DNA. (C) In the presence of targets (*i.e.*, bacteria, small molecules and metal ions), the aptamers preferentially bonded to the corresponding targets and caused fewer aptamers hybridized with complementary DNA, thereby liberating UCNPs and resulting in fluorescence decrease. The color intensities of the corresponding test zones gradually decrease as the concentrations of the analytes in the samples increase. (D) A smartphone-based portable device is using to read the detection results. (E) The schematic of the smartphone-based portable device. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

2.2. Synthesis and surface modification of UCNPs

UCNPs were synthesized according to the protocol from the literature [29]. For three types of UCNPs, rare-earth chlorides were mixed with a different molar ratio as shown in Table 2. The mixture was dissolved in water (2 mL) and then added to a flask containing 1-octadecene (30 mL) and oleic acid (12 mL). The oxygen was removed from the obtained mixture for 5 min. The mixture was then heated to 160 °C under the protection of argon atmosphere and keeping for 1 h to remove water. And then the solution was cooled down to room temperature. Then, NH₄F (148.15 mg, 4 mmol) and NaOH (100 mg, 2.5 mmol) were dissolved in 10 mL of a methanol and added into the flask. The mixture was then kept stirring for 2 h at room temperature. Next, the mixture was heated to 296 °C after methanol evaporation, and then maintained for 1.5 h before cooling down. The product was then centrifuged and washed with cyclohexane and ethanol for two times, respectively, and was finally stored in cyclohexane (10 mL).

Core-shell UCNPs with enhanced fluorescence intensity were synthesized following the protocol from the literature [4]. For formation of the shell, YCl₃·6H₂O (267.0 mg, 0.88 mmol) was added to a flask containing 1-octadecene (15 mL) and oleic acid (7.5 mL). The detailed process was the same as mentioned in the synthesis process of the core UCNPs. It is noteworthy that the core UCNPs (5 mL) with red emission should be added and then the mixture should be heated to 100 °C to remove cyclohexane.

The surface modification of UCNPs was achieved by a ligand exchange process [30]. PAA, as a multidentate ligand, was used to displace the original hydrophobic ligands on the UCNPs surface by mixing PAA (15.8 mg), UCNPs (1 mL), ethanol (2 mL) in chloroform (1 mL). The mixture was dispersed and stirring overnight. Then, the product

was centrifuged and washed with ethanol for two times. Then the obtained product was re-dispersed in PBS (5 mL).

2.3. Attachment of aptamers to the UCNPs

UCNP-aptamer conjugates were prepared using the condensation reaction [17]. As-prepared UCNPs-PAA (500 μL) was centrifuged at 8000 rpm for 8 min and re-suspended in 500 μL of MES buffer (50 mM, pH = 6.1). EDC (2 mg/mL, 120 μL) and sulfo-NHS (2 mg/mL, 60 μL) were subsequently added into the mixture and kept standing for 2 h. The aptamer solution (2 nmol/mL, 400 μL) was added into the mixture and then overnight incubated. Then the aptamer conjugated UCNPs were centrifuged and washed for two times with Tris-HCl buffer and then finally re-dispersed in Tris-HCl buffer (500 μL). The red NaYF₄: Er, Tm nanoparticles (**rUCNP**) with aptamer 1 (for Hg²⁺) is called **R-probe** hereinafter. And the green NaYF₄: Yb,Er (**gUCNP**) with aptamer 2 (for ochratoxin A) and blue NaYF₄: Yb,Tm (**bUCNP**) with aptamer 3 (for Salmonella) are called **G-probe** and **B-probe**, respectively.

2.4. Preparation of LFAA

The lateral flow aptamer assay was prepared following the protocol from the literature [31]. An absorbent pad (2.5 × 30 cm), a nitrocellulose membrane (NC membrane, 2.0 × 30 cm) and an immersing pad (1.9 × 30 cm) were pasted on a backing pad (6.0 × 30 cm) with 2 mm overlap between every two adjacent pads. Then the as-prepared pads were cut into strips with a width of 2.5 mm using Matrix 2360™ Programmable Shear. Control and test zones were separately generated by dispensing capture and control probe (100 μM, 0.3 μL).

Streptavidin was used as an intermediate to immobilize control and

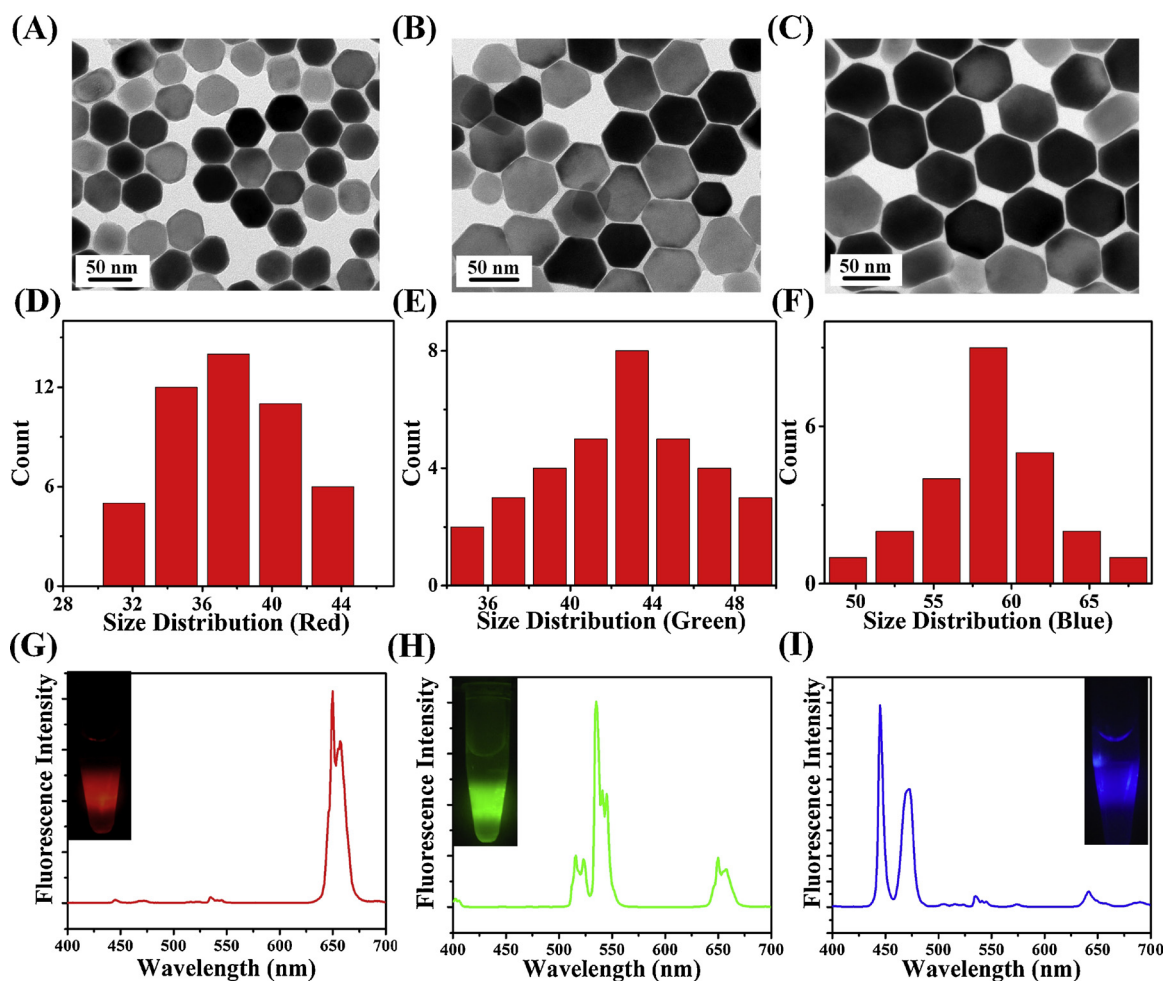


Fig. 2. Characterization of UCNPs.

TEM images of (A) NaYF₄:Er,Tm, (B) NaYF₄:Yb,Er and (C) NaYF₄:Yb,Tm. The size distribution of (D) NaYF₄:Er,Tm, (E) NaYF₄:Yb,Er and (F) NaYF₄:Yb,Tm. Fluorescence emission spectrum of (G) NaYF₄:Er,Tm, (H) NaYF₄:Yb,Er and (I) NaYF₄:Yb,Tm. Insets of (G–I) show photographs of the solution of NaYF₄:Er,Tm, NaYF₄:Yb,Er and NaYF₄:Yb,Tm excited by a 980 nm laser, respectively.

capture probes on the NC membrane due to that it can react with both biotin and the NC membrane. Briefly, complementary DNA of aptamers and control probes were previously biotinylated. For the control zone, control probe (6.27 nmol) was added into 62.7 μ L of streptavidin (1 mg/mL). For the test zone, 34.2 μ L, 28.8 μ L, 66.7 μ L of streptavidin (1 mg/mL) were added into bacteria, molecule and ions capture probe, respectively (dry powder, 3.42 nmol, 2.88 nmol, 6.67 nmol). The obtained probes were incubated at 25 $^{\circ}$ C for 40 min. The final concentration of each probe was 100 μ M. Finally, the control and capture probes (0.3 μ L) were added onto the NC membrane and dried in an oven at 37 $^{\circ}$ C for 2 h.

2.5. Sample preparation

For bacteria targets, bacteria strains used in this research were *Salmonella* (ATCC 50761), *E. coli* (ATCC 8739), *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC 25923) and *Bacillus subtilis* (ATCC 6633). *Salmonella* (SE) was selected as analyte for bacteria detection while other bacteria were selected as control groups. For a small molecule, ochratoxin A (OTA) was selected as a target while Aflatoxin B1, kanamycin and melamine were selected as control groups. For ion target, mercury ion was selected as target for ion detection while lead ion, cupric ion and ferrous ion were selected as control groups.

2.6. Detection of targets

Running buffer was prepared by adding SSC (2 \times), Tween 20 (0.5% v/v), BSA (4% w/v) into Tris-HCl (10 mM, pH 7.4) buffer. Then three UCNPs probes were added into running buffer as a ratio of R-probe: G-probe: B-probe: running buffer = 2 μ L:0.2 μ L:1.2 μ L:20 μ L. Subsequently, the as-prepared probe (20 μ L) was pipetted separately into sample solution (60 μ L). Immobilizing probes in immersion pad requires a large number of optimization processes (e.g. concentration and composition of buffer, concentration of probe, drying time) [32,33]. We therefore mixed probes in buffer solution rather than immobilizing probes in the immersion pad, which could make the experiment process more convenient and stable. The LFAAs were submerged into the mixture for 30 min and then removed. We used the 980 nm laser to hit the assay at a 45- $^{\circ}$ position to excite the test zone. The camera (Nikon D90) was fixed to a tripod to upright against the assay and the exposure time was set to 4 s to obtain the strongest signal while avoiding overexposure. The quantitative detection of fluorescence intensities was performed by image processing with ImageJ to quantify the fluorescence intensities. We repeated 5 groups of detections to obtain the average values and standard deviation and evaluated the detection limit of the developed LFAA for each target. The quantitative results were also performed using a smartphone and a handheld device developed by our lab (see Fig. S7A for details).

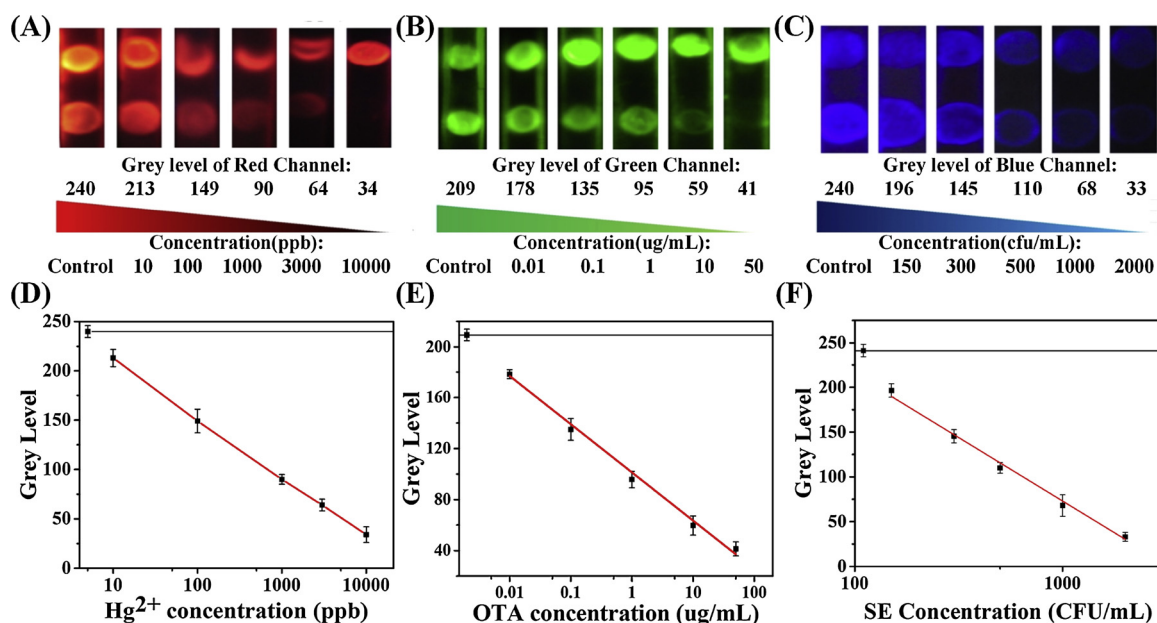


Fig. 3. Detection of a single target using the developed LFAA. (For interpretation of the references to colour in the text, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

The fluorescence images show the grey level decreases (A) with the increasing Hg^{2+} concentration, (B) with increasing OTA concentration, (C) with the increasing SE concentration. Standard curves of the relative grey level of (D) red channel versus Hg^{2+} concentration, (E) green channel versus OTA concentration and (F) blue channel versus *Salmonella* concentration show linear relationship. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Design of the LFAA for multiple targets detection

The principles of the multiplex detection of bacteria, small molecules and metal ions using multicolor LFAA are schematically described in Fig. 1. Three kinds of amino-modified ssDNA sequences (Table 1) are attached to the three carboxyl-functionalized UCNP with different emission colors, respectively, through a condensation reaction. Streptavidin is used as an intermediary to react with both biotin and the NC membrane. It will immobilize the complementary DNA of the aptamer and the control parts on the NC membrane. The operation of the developed LFAA is based on the competition between targets in the samples and the complementary DNA of the aptamer conjugates, which are immobilized on the NC membrane for binding to the multicolor UCNP-labeled aptamers. Hence, the fluorescence intensity of the corresponding test zones gradually decreases as the concentration of the targets in the samples increases. The detection results could be read using a smartphone and a portable device (Fig. 1D). The schematic of the developed device is shown in Fig. 1E.

3.2. Characterization of UCNP

Sensitive and stable target detection requires UCNP to have good surface characteristics and high fluorescence intensity. A series of characterizations were conducted to assess the morphology, size and surface characteristics of the UCNP. $NaYF_4$ was chosen as the host material for the UCNP due to its high chemical stability and low phonon energies ($\sim 350\text{ cm}^{-1}$). Various rare-earth chlorides were doped on the $NaYF_4$ to make three kinds of UCNP with different emission peaks. The dosages are shown in Table 2. XRD patterns show all the diffraction peaks can be ascribed to the hexagonal structure of $NaYF_4$ (JCPDS no. 16-0334), which indicate that $NaYF_4$ exhibits a pure hexagonal phase (Fig. S1). We also checked the morphology of three kinds of UCNP using transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and observed that rUCNP, gUCNP and bUCNP all have hexagonal

structures (Fig. 2A–C). From the elemental analysis, we observed that rUCNP, gUCNP and bUCNP have an average diameter of 38 nm, 45 nm and 54 nm and the molarity of rUCNP, gUCNP and bUCNP are 39 nM, 24 nM and 14 nM, respectively (Fig. 2D–F, see Supporting Information for the calculation details). The successful modification of PAA on the UCNP was confirmed by FT-IR spectroscopy (Fig. S2A), which can be further confirmed by the clear polymer layer observed on the surface of UCNP from the HRTEM image (Fig. S2B). After re-dispersing the obtained UCNP-PAA in ultrapure water and under 980-nm excitation, we observed red, green and blue emissions at peaks of 650 nm, 540 nm and 450 nm from rUCNP, gUCNP and bUCNP, respectively (Fig. 2G–I). We also observed that, compared to gUCNP and bUCNP, rUCNP show a weaker emission intensity, which may affect the reading of fluorescence intensity from different colors when using multiple target detection. This may be because of the much larger 980 nm absorption of Yb^{3+} (${}^2F_{7/2} \rightarrow {}^2F_{5/2}$) than that of Er^{3+} (${}^4I_{11/2} \rightarrow {}^4I_{15/2}$) [32]. Therefore, core-shell structured rUCNP ($NaYF_4@NaYF_4:Er,Tm$) with a concentration of 39 nM were used instead to enhance red fluorescence (Fig. S3).

We prepared the three conjugates, *i.e.*, core-shell rUCNP-aptamer 1 (for Hg^{2+}), gUCNP-aptamer 2 (for OTA) and bUCNP-aptamer 3 (for SE), to detect the three different targets. The carboxyl groups on the surface of PAA-UCNP were activated using sulfo-NHS and EDC, and the activated carboxyl groups were then reacted with the amine groups on the aptamers. The successful connection of aptamers and UCNP was confirmed using UV–vis absorption spectroscopy. No absorption peak was observed via UV–vis spectroscopy in the UCNP-PAA before conjugating with aptamers. However, an absorption peak at approximately 260 nm of the aptamer was detected after the conjugation reaction. (Fig. S4).

3.3. Optimization of the multiple target LFAA

The operation of the multiple target LFAA is based on the competition between targets in the sample and the complementary DNA of aptamers conjugated on the surface of the working membrane for

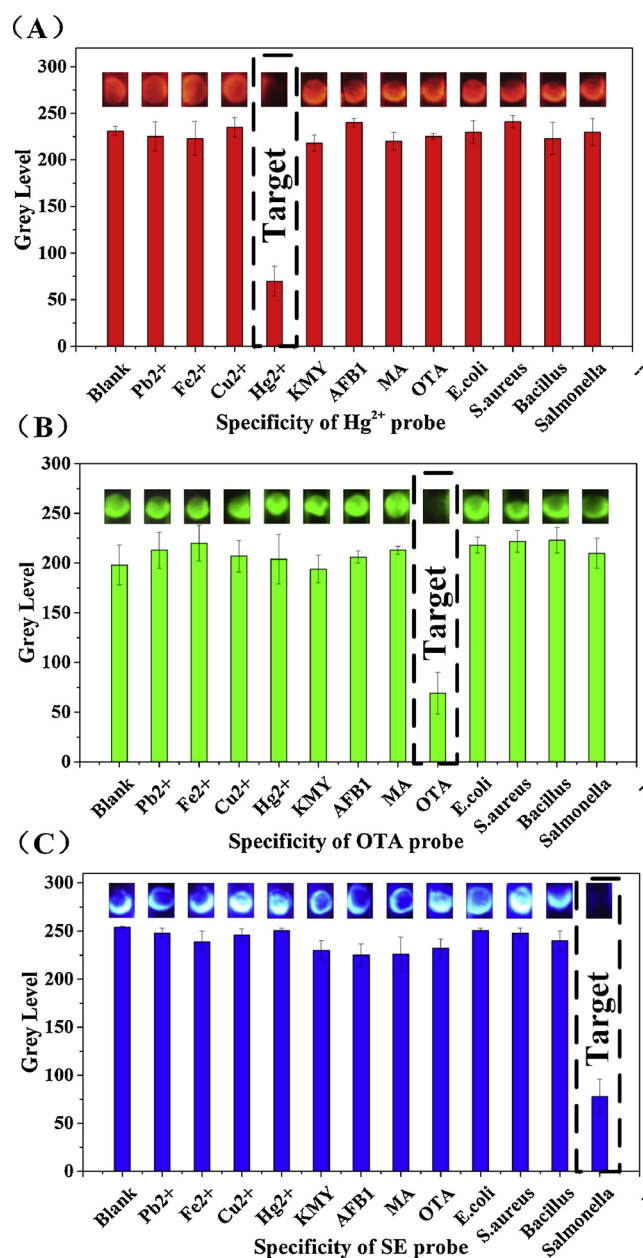


Fig. 4. Specificity evaluation of the developed LFAA. Change in grey level with various types of targets (A) using R-probe, (B) using G-probe and (C) using B-probe. (Concentration was 10^3 CFU/mL, $10 \mu\text{g/mL}$ and 10^3 ppb for each bacteria, molecules and ions, respectively.)

binding to the UCNPs. Hence, the fluorescence intensity of the corresponding test zones gradually decreases as the analyte concentration increases.

The optimal composition (e.g., running buffer and concentration of BSA, SSC and UCNPs) of the detection system should provide the minimum detection limit as well as precise and quantitative detection of the targets. Through optimization, we obtained the final running buffer which contains Tris-HCl (10 mM , pH 7.4), tween 20 ($0.5\% \text{ v/v}$), BSA ($4\% \text{ w/w}$) and $2 \times \text{SSC}$. In addition, probe concentration can affect sensitivity and signal intensity. Probe concentrations ($0.2 \mu\text{L}$ for G-probes (4.8 nM), $1.2 \mu\text{L}$ for B-probes (2.8 nM) and $2 \mu\text{L}$ for R-probes (8 nM)) were optimized to ensure both signal intensity and sensitivity. The detailed optimized process is shown in Figs. S5–S6.

3.4. Evaluation of the detection limit and specificity

We prepared single-target LFAAs using R-probes, G-probes and B-probes, and repeated 5 groups of experiment to evaluate the detection limit of the developed LFAA for different targets. (e.g., OTA, Hg^{2+} and SE) (Fig. 3). We observed that the grey level of the test zone gradually decreases as the corresponding target concentration increases by examining the detected gradient concentration of the targets (Fig. 3A–C). To quantitative analysis the results, we use ImageJ to select the test zone and estimate the average grey level. The selection of test zone was shown as Fig S7A, a circle tool was used to framing the test zone along the border. The target concentrations are proportional to the decrease in the grey level of test zone, implying a linear relationship in the detection range of $10\text{--}10^4$ ppb for Hg^{2+} , $0.01\text{--}50 \mu\text{g/mL}$ for OTA and $150\text{--}2000$ CFU/mL for SE (Fig. 3D–F). Statistical analysis reveals that the detection limit reaches 5 ppb, 3 ng/mL and 85 CFU/mL for Hg^{2+} , OTA and SE, respectively, which were calculated by the ratio of three times of the standard deviation of the blank signals. Target detection can be completed within 30 min using the developed LFAA without the need for enrichment using the developed LFAA, which is significantly faster than the traditional methods, such as PCR [33], ELISA [34], colony culture and counting [35] and the electrochemical method [36]. In addition, the auto-fluorescence of some targets (e.g., bacteria and biotoxin) can be avoided because UCNPs are excited by 980 nm NIR radiation. The detection sensitivity can be significantly improved as compared with gold nanoparticles or traditional fluorescence materials. For instance, the detection limit for OTA is 10 ng/mL [37], and for Salmonella is 10^4 CFU/mL [38] both using gold nanoparticle based lateral flow assay. The lateral flow assay using quantum dots for foodborne pathogen can improve the detection limit to 3000 CFU/mL [39], which highlights its potential use for sensitive POCT.

We added other targets (e.g., *E. coli*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, Aflatoxin B1, kanamycin, melamine, lead ions, cupric ions and ferrous ions) into the sample to test the specificity of the developed LFAA (Fig. 4). In the example shown in Fig. 4A, we analyzed the grey level of the test zone by adding all the targets to the above R-probe and observed that only Hg^{2+} induced a dramatic fluorescence decrease at the corresponding grey level channel. We further quantified the grey level for different targets and found that Pb^{2+} , Cu^{2+} , Fe^{2+} and other molecules and bacteria in this system had negligible effects on the test zone. These results demonstrate that the R-probe exhibits good specificity. In the same way, we also prove that these control targets have no significant effect on the G-probe and B-probe (Fig. 4B–C).

3.5. Integration for multiple targets detection

After proving the sensitivity and specificity of the developed single-target LFAA was satisfactory, we proceeded to assess our LFAA for multiple target testing. To this end, we integrated three test zones into one assay and added analytes to prove that the developed LFAA could detect three targets simultaneously. It's noteworthy that we proved that the LFAA was working. Therefore, in the case of multiple detection, we removed the control zone. As shown in Fig. 5A, three test zones (red, green and blue) can be observed in the absence of three analytes (control experiment) and the corresponding test zone eventually disappears upon adding each analyte. We compared the detection results from multiple targets and single-target detection. And the result in Fig. 5B shows that there is no significant difference between the two, indicating that the developed LFAA is capable of multiple targets detection. It is known that the potential disadvantages of multiplexing include non-specific binding and crossover reaction, leading to false positive results. An increase in the number of analytes may cause serious crossover reaction. This difficulty in distinguishing between simultaneously detected analytes can be overcome by using multicolor signals on a single test strip [14]. The advantages of using multicolor probes over single-color probe modified with different aptamers lie in:

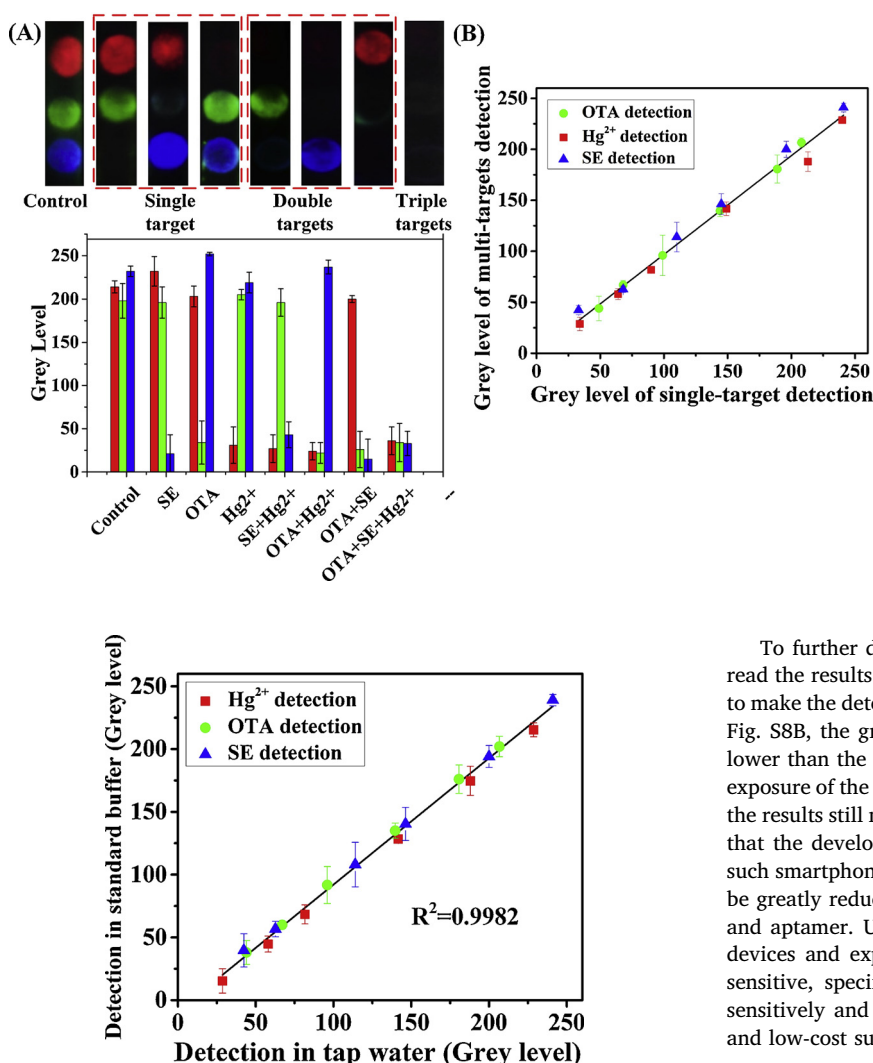


Fig. 5. Multiplex detection of three targets using multiple targets LFAA.

(A) The complementary DNA of each target aptamer were added on individual detection areas. A mixture of R-probe, G-probe, and B-probe was in the conjugate pad. When no targets are detected, the corresponding UCNPs probe forms three colored bands at the specific line. When the infectious targets are detected, the grey level of corresponding test zones decrease. The below is a quantitative analysis of grey level. (Concentration was 10^4 CFU/mL, $100 \mu\text{g/mL}$ and 10^4 ppb for each bacteria, molecules and ions, respectively). (B) Linear correlation between the multiple targets detection and single-target detection. (For interpretation of the references to colour in the text, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Fig. 6. Correlation between the detection results in the real sample (tap water) and running buffer.

The crossover reaction could be obviously observed by using of multi-color probes, in which case single-color probe is not working; (ii) We measured the results by splitting color area to RGB channels, which are exactly correspond to the colors of three UCNPs probes. Thus by using multicolor probes, we can still analyze the results when crossover reaction occurred (Fig. S7B). Thus, the developed LFAA addresses the issue of crossover reaction from different analytes as involved in the traditional methods. On the other hand, unlike traditional multiplex LFAs, which can only detect the same type of target, the developed LFAA is able to detect different kinds of targets owing to the use of aptamers.

The accuracy and practical application of the developed LFAA was evaluated using tap water as a real sample because the targets hereinbefore may all appear in water. The samples were spiked with OTA, Hg²⁺ and SE at different concentrations without pretreatment. The entire detection process was completed in about 30 min, and the results are shown in Fig. 6. We observed that the analyzed results using tap water were generally less than results in the running buffer, which is probably because the concentration of BSA, SSC were lower in the system. However, the analyzed trend still maintains a good linear relationship. Thus, we can still obtain accurate results using a correction factor. The performance in this application clearly demonstrates that the developed LFAA can efficiently detect and quantify multiple targets in real samples.

To further demonstrate the application of our LFAA for POCT, we read the results using a smartphone-based reader developed by our lab to make the detection process more portable (Fig. S8A) [4]. As shown in Fig. S8B, the grey level of the results from our developed platform is lower than the results from the CCD camera. This may be because the exposure of the smartphone is not as good as the CCD camera. However, the results still maintain a good linear relationship. This result indicates that the developed LFAA can be used in resource-limited settings via such smartphone-based reader. In addition, the manufacturing cost can be greatly reduced due to the application of the paper-based structure and aptamer. Unlike traditional detection methods that require large devices and expensive supplies to meet detection requirements (e.g., sensitive, specific, multiple targets), our developed LFAA is able to sensitively and rapidly detect multiple targets with a portable device and low-cost supplies.

4. Conclusions

In this study, we developed a lateral flow aptamer assay integrated smartphone-based portable device to achieve specific and sensitive detection of multiple targets with different analyte-recognition reactions (e.g., ochratoxin A, mercury ions and *Salmonella*) simultaneously. The detection limits for mercury ions, ochratoxin A and *Salmonella* are 5 ppb, 3 ng/mL and 85 CFU/mL, respectively. The use of upconversion nanoparticles with different emission bands as the core of the detection probes avoids the problem of crossover reactions from different analytes enabling an efficient method for multiple target detection. We also demonstrate that the aptamer-based recognition method provides unprecedented advantages for the detection of multiple targets with different analyte-recognition reactions in a single lateral flow strip. The detection platform was tested successfully in the detection of ochratoxin A, mercury ions and *Salmonella* in real water samples (i.e., tap water) within 30 min. Therefore, the developed detection platform offers a novel approach for sensitive, specific, convenient detections, which holds enormous potential for detecting a wide range of targets in water and food samples.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.snb.2018.08.074>.

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