
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN
ELECTRONICS AND TELECOMMUNICATIONS

DOCTORATE SCHOOL IN
INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION
TECHNOLOGIES

XXV CYCLE

UNIVERSITY OF MODENA AND REGGIO EMILIA
DEPARTMENT OF ENGINEERING “ENZO FERRARI”

Ph.D. DISSERTATION

**SENSORS FOR BIOMEDICAL
AND AGRI-FOOD INDUSTRY:
THEORETICAL AND
EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES**

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DOTTORATO DI RICERCA IN
ELECTRONICS AND TELECOMMUNICATIONS

SCUOLA DI DOTTORATO IN
INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION
TECHNOLOGIES

XXV CICLO

UNIVERSITA' DI MODENA E REGGIO EMILIA
DIPARTIMENTO DI INGEGNERIA "ENZO FERRARI"

TESI PER IL CONSEGUIMENTO DEL TITOLO DI DOTTORE DI RICERCA

**SENSORI PER L'INDUSTRIA
BIOMEDICALE E
AGROALIMENTARE:
STUDI TEORICI E SPERIMENTALI**

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Contents

Abstract	1
Introduction	3
I Biomedical sensing	7
1 Multi analyte fluorescence-based sensor platform	9
1.1 Introduction	9
1.2 Materials and Methods	12
1.2.1 Polymer sensing element	12
1.2.2 Optical reading head	14
1.2.3 Front-end and signal elaboration electronics	15
1.3 Haematic fluorescence-based pH sensor	16
1.3.1 Theoretical background	16
1.3.2 Fabrication of the polymer matrix	19
1.3.3 Characterization of the pH sensor	21
1.3.3.1 Characterization of the sensor pK_a	21
1.3.3.2 Evaluation of the non-linearity error	23
1.3.3.3 Short term stability	25
1.3.3.4 Response time	26
1.3.3.5 Reproducibility	29
1.3.4 Experimental protocol for in-vitro test	30
1.3.5 Experimental protocol for ex-vivo test	30
1.3.6 Results	33
1.3.6.1 In-vitro experimental results	33
1.3.6.2 Ex-vivo experimental results	37
1.3.7 Conclusions	38
1.4 Haematic fluorescence-based pCO ₂ sensor	40
1.4.1 Theoretical background	40
1.4.2 Fabrication of the polymer matrix	42

1.4.3	Experimental protocol	44
1.4.4	Experimental results	44
1.4.4.1	Test in air	44
1.4.4.2	Test in-vitro on cow blood	45
1.4.5	Conclusions	48
1.5	Comparison with the state of the art	48
2	Electrochemical SPR sensor	49
2.1	Introduction	49
2.2	Materials and Methods	50
2.2.1	Theoretical background	51
2.2.1.1	Surface Plasmon Resonance sensors	51
2.2.1.2	Electrochemical techniques	53
2.2.2	Electrodes realization	57
2.2.3	Electronics	60
2.2.3.1	Front-ent electronics	61
2.2.3.2	Digital electronics	61
2.2.4	Software interface	62
2.3	Experimental results	64
2.3.1	Cyclic voltammetry	64
2.3.2	DNA regeneration	67
2.3.2.1	1° test	67
2.3.2.2	2° test	68
2.3.2.3	3° test	68
2.3.2.4	4° test	72
2.3.3	Study on the electrical induced desorption threshold	75
2.4	Conclusions	77
II	Agri-food sensing	79
3	Sensor to determine the glycerol concentration in grape juice	81
3.1	Introduction	81
3.2	Materials and Methods	83
3.2.1	Theoretical background	83
3.2.2	Electrode realization	84
3.2.3	Fluidic system	84
3.2.4	Electronics	86
3.2.5	Software interface	88
3.3	Experimental protocol	90

3.4	Experimental results	91
3.4.1	Feasibility study	91
3.4.2	Matrix effect study	92
3.4.3	Standard additions method test	93
3.4.4	Experimental tests with the developed system	94
3.4.4.1	Reproducibility of the sensor response	95
3.4.4.2	Tests on grape juice samples	96
3.5	Conclusions	97
3.6	Comparison with the state of the art	98
4	Sensor to estimate the concentration of antibiotics in milk	99
4.1	Introduction	99
4.2	Materials and Methods	102
4.2.1	Theoretical background	102
4.2.1.1	Graphical determination of K_m and V_{max}	107
4.2.2	Instrument optical design	109
4.2.3	Electronics	109
4.2.4	Software interface	112
4.3	Experimental protocol	113
4.4	Experimental results	114
4.4.1	Preliminary spectroscopic analysis	115
4.4.2	Functional tests of the developed system	119
4.4.2.1	Test 1	120
4.4.2.2	Test 2	121
4.4.2.3	Test 3	122
4.5	Conclusions	123
4.6	Comparison with the state of the art	124
	Conclusions	125
	Appendix A	131
A.1	Glycerol concentration sensor	131
A.2	Electrochemical SPR system	132
A.3	Antibiotic concentration sensor	133
A.3.1	Main	133
A.3.2	Measure()	134

Appendix B	135
B.1 Electrochemical SPR system	135
B.2 Glycerol concentration sensor	154
B.3 Antibiotic concentration sensor	167
Bibliography	173

Abstract

Nowadays, sensors are becoming more and more important in life sciences. Both in biomedical fields where the need of a continuous monitoring of body parameters is a desired characteristic and in food industry, where checking the quality of the rough materials is now a fundamental requirement. Nevertheless, different environments require specific sensing techniques. The present thesis focuses on the study, design and realization of different kinds of sensors for the measurement of important parameters in life sciences.

Firstly, this work deals with the realization of an optochemical sensor for biomedical applications, in particular to measure the pH and pCO_2 of blood during extracorporeal circulation. The developed sensor consists of a disposable low-cost polymer sensing element, the interrogation optical head and the front-end and control electronics. The pH-sensitive dye is a new kind of fluorescent monomer, the fluorescein *O*-methacrylate, which is able to covalently link to the polymer matrix, in order to minimize the dye leaching. Several tests have been performed; the sensor has been firstly tested on water, then in-vitro on cow blood and finally ex-vivo on a sheep and a pig. The sensor showed a linear behavior in the physiological range, making it suitable for biomedical applications.

Secondly, a combination of optics and electrochemistry will be presented, with the integration of the SPR (Surface Plasmon Resonance) and electrochemical techniques on the same sensing chip. The system is based on a four-channel SPR sensor system developed at the Institute of Photonics and Electronics AS CR, Prague. Since the SPR system provides four independent channels, an in-situ electrochemical cell has been realized in each channel, allowing four simultaneous electrochemical measurements. The gold substrate used for SPR measurement was used as the working electrode and two further planar gold electrodes (the reference and the counter electrodes) were inserted in the same flow cell. Together with the realization of the electrochemical cells, a custom electronics has been designed and realized. The electronics is able to set an arbitrary potential between the reference and working electrodes and to measure the current flowing between the counter and the working electrodes. The electrochemical SPR biosensor was used to study DNA desorption

and regeneration. It has been shown that desired probe density can be achieved by optimizing the potential and that potential can be used for regeneration of the SPR chip.

Finally, two sensors for the food industry will be presented, deploying both the electrochemical and optical techniques. An electrochemical sensor has been designed to estimate the concentration of glycerol in the grape juice during the grape harvest, in order to check the grapes quality. Together with the sensing element, an automatic fluidic system has been developed, using membrane micropumps. Finally, the sensor has been tested during the grape harvest, on different kinds of grapes. An optical sensor, instead, has been developed to estimate the concentration of antibiotics in milk. The sensor deploys the absorbance changes of an organic molecule in the presence of the antibiotics. Thus, the system consists of an optical head to interrogate the solution under test and a front-end and processing electronics to acquire the information of interest. The system has been tested both with buffer solutions and milk samples.

Introduction

Sensors in biomedical and agri-food industry play a fundamental role in modern life.

Biomedical sensors are routinely used in clinical medicine and biological research for measuring a wide range of physiological variables [1, 2, 3]. Moreover, system designs have been researched and developed to view real-time physiological data with remote access for clinical review in instances such as telemedicine, home-care, patient transport, as well as in hospital observation [4, 5, 6, 7, 8]. Among biomedical sensors, bioanalytic sensors incorporate biologic recognition reactions such as enzyme-substrate, antigen-antibody, or ligand-receptor to identify complex biochemical molecules. The use of biologic reactions gives bioanalytic sensors high sensitivity and specificity in identifying and quantifying biochemical substances [9].

At the same time, agri-food sensors are requested to control and certify food safety, quality and convenience. Thus, it has been necessary to characterize the biological and environmental processes in agri-food industry, relying on sensor technology. For examples, sensors are used to optimize the irrigation [10] and pest control programs [11], to measure the yield per unit area [12], to control the environmental parameters during storage and finally for on-line monitoring of processing parameters. Nevertheless, surrounding environment as well as processed agricultural materials are inherently complex. Presence of multiple microorganisms and other biological agents further makes the sensing of parameters in agri-food industry very challenging. As the agri-food processes are highly variable, the sensors require the capability to handle this variability.

Similar sensing techniques can be adopted to solve the sensing issue both in biomedical and agri-food industry. Both fields, in fact, are characterized by a great variety and a complex environment which usually makes the disposability of the sensing element a fundamental requirement. Risk of contamination between different samples and sterilization of the sensing element are typical characteristics of biomedical and agri-food sensors. For this reason, a non-contact measurement is usually a preferred approach in these application fields.

Moreover, in order to perform a real-time monitoring of important biological parameters, both in biomedical exams and in quality control tests, a fast response

sensor is a desired requirement.

Different environments can be faced with various sensing techniques; electrochemical and optical techniques are the most common ones.

Electrochemical methods are based on monitoring the changes of different parameters (e.g. potential or current), caused by oxidization or reduction of electroactive species on the working electrode surface as a function of the type or concentration of the target analyte. Electrochemical sensors usually belong to four main categories: potentiometric, amperometric, conductometric and impedimetric devices. With respect to optical sensors, electrochemical sensors do not require dark environments for measurements, there is no photobleaching of indicator molecules and they have a bigger dynamic range. Electrochemical sensors have been used in food analyses (e.g. measuring the freshness of food [13], the presence of genetically modified organisms [14] and analyzing food and beverages [15]) and in medical applications (e.g. drug response measurement [16], detection of pathogens [17, 18] and cancer diagnoses [19]).

Absorbance, reflectance, scattering and different types of luminescence are used in different kinds of optical sensors [20]. Optical sensors are a very powerful detection and analysis tool used in many different fields (e.g., healthcare [21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27], pharmaceuticals [28, 29] and environmental monitoring [30, 31]). With respect to electrochemical sensors, optical sensors may be much more easily miniaturized and used in in-vivo applications [32]. Moreover, they are not affected by electro-magnetic interferences [33] and they are able to monitor more than one analyte simultaneously [34].

In addition, both electrochemical and optical methods allow real-time, sensitive and sometimes label-free detection of target analytes.

Since electrochemical and optical methods demonstrate advantages in different, yet sometimes overlapping applications, a combination of these two methodologies will permit a richer set of data in addition to the benefit of increased control over the sensing environment [35]. They both have different dynamic ranges that facilitate a more accurate measurement of the concentration of the target. Furthermore, these methods could provide a built-in control to each other.

The present thesis deals with the study and development of different sensors for biomedical and agri-food industry. The variety of the applications environment together with the specific requirements of each sensor, has led to the use of different sensing approaches (optical, electrochemical). In particular, in Chapter 1 a fluorescence based multi-analyte sensor platform is described, together with two experimental applications: the measurement of pH and pCO₂ in extracorporeal circulation. In Chapter 2, a bioanalytical sensor is reported, combining the SPR and electrochemical techniques, to study DNA desorption and regeneration. Then,

in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 two different sensors for agri-food industry will be presented, deploying an electrochemical and optical approach respectively. Finally conclusions are drawn.

Part I

Biomedical sensing

Chapter 1

Multi analyte fluorescence-based sensor platform

1.1 Introduction

Nowadays fluorescence phenomenon is widely exploited to realize optical sensors, due to the higher sensitivity and versatility with respect to other detection schemes. In particular, fluorescein is widely used for its high molar absorptivity at the wavelength of the argon laser ($\lambda = 488 \text{ nm}$), large fluorescence quantum yield and pH-dependent emission spectra [36].

Several optical fluorescence-based sensors consist of a solid matrix, including the sensitive dye, which can be reached by the analyte. Chemical bonding between the dye and the matrix is necessary to avoid undesirable leaching effects. Measurements are performed revealing reversible variations in the intensity or lifetime of the fluorescent indicator in the presence of the analyte; polymers are widely used as immobilization matrices for fluorescent dyes, thanks to the possibility of molecular tailoring to control and tune protons absorption [37, 38, 39, 40, 41]

Thanks to this approach, it is possible to design a multi-analyte sensor platform, by using the same electronics and optical interrogation head, changing the polymer sensing element including the sensitive dye.

pH (Latin: pondus hydrogenii) and CO_2 are commonly measured parameters of great interest in several application fields, such as environmental monitoring [42, 43, 44, 45], bioprocessing [46] and biomedical diagnostics [47, 48].

In particular, haematic pH and pCO_2 are ones of the most important blood parameters. In fact, they are strongly related to the functioning of important organs, such as lung, heart, liver and kidney. The haematic pH, in healthy human beings, is always between 7.30 and 7.45, while pCO_2 is always between 20 and 50 mmHg, thanks to the bicarbonate buffering system. Nevertheless, a little variation of pH or

pCO₂ can produce great damages for the body. Several efforts have been spent on the development of pH and pCO₂ sensors to be applied in Extracorporeal Circulation (ECC).

ECC is mainly applied in cardiopulmonary bypass, extracorporeal membrane oxygenation, and hemodialysis. Usually, during ECC, blood samples are drawn intermittently and analyzed by a blood gas analyzer. Major problems associated with this intermittent sampling are: (i) high cost of the blood gas analyzer and required reagents thus analyses are often performed only after adverse events, (ii) there is a risk of blood loss and infection, and (iii) therapeutic response can only be made after a delay. Considerable spontaneous variability in blood gases and other quickly-changing analytes that occurs during ECC require clinical decisions made on the basis of trends observed with continuous monitoring. Usually, the information of interest includes hemoglobin saturation, hematocrit, blood gases (O_2 , CO_2), pH , electrolytes (Na^+ , K^+ , Ca^{2+} , Cl_2), certain metabolites (glucose, lactate, urea, creatinine) and physical measurands (temperature, pressure, flow). Several sensors capable of continuously monitoring these parameters have been so far proposed [49, 50]. Nevertheless, despite tremendous technological efforts, the proposed technologies are not yet sufficiently reliable and economic to be used routinely in ECC and frequent intermittent measurements made by a blood gas analyzer near the bedside are still the standard practice. Since ECC through flow cuvettes offers a perfect optical access to circulating blood, several optical approaches have been considered [21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27] and few commercial optical continuous intravascular blood gas monitoring devices are nowadays available: Paratrend 7+ (PT7+) for adults and Neotrend (NT) for newborns, both based on optical absorption and reflectance methods [51]. However, they have been rarely used due to their instability and inaccuracies [52, 53].

The measurement of pH is routinely performed using the glass electrode, nevertheless the electrochemical approach suffers from many drawbacks, such as electromagnetic interference, difficulty in miniaturisation and limitations when measuring aqueous suspensions of organic matter or low-ionic-strength solutions. Also continuous blood pH measurements can be made potentiometrically via ion-selective electrodes or transistors, but these devices are based on ionophores that may leach out of the ion-selective membranes, thus resulting lower stability and shorter lifetime [54]. This stability issue limits the use of ion-selective electrodes or transistors in ECC. Attempts to use electrochemical sensors were hampered by protein deposition on the active or reference electrodes that prevents their use unless regular recalibration [50]. While promising, none of these methods are suited to continuous monitoring in ECC. With respect to electrochemical sensors, optical pH sensors allow for a higher sensitivity and selectivity, due to the luminescence phenomena.

Moreover, they are insensitive to electromagnetic interference, they do not need any reference electrode and they are suitable for remote and disposable sensing, which is typical of in-situ applications [55, 56].

The most common devices for CO₂ determination are the Severinghaus electrode [57] and the infrared detector [58]. Although infrared absorption detectors are characterized by fast response times (0-90% in < 0.1 s), they are bulky, expensive and only applicable to gaseous CO₂. The Severinghaus type CO₂ electrode, instead, consists of a pH electrode in contact with a thin layer of bicarbonate buffer solution and the whole system is encapsulated by a thin, gas-permeable membrane. The working principle is based on the diffusion of the CO₂ in the sample under test through the gas permeable membrane, which determines a variation in the pH of the internal aqueous solution. Thus, the pH variation is monitored by the pH electrode. Nevertheless, the Severinghaus type electrode suffers from a long response time (5-15 minutes) and from the same drawbacks of the pH electrode [59].

In the last years, there has been considerable interest in optical methods of determining both pH and pCO₂. In literature, proposed pH sensors are mainly based on the immobilization of pH-sensitive absorbing dyes [60, 61, 62] or fluorophores [63, 64] on a solid substrate. One of the major limitation of such a sensor is still the dye leaching into blood [65], that, besides problems related to signal stability, can represent a risk for the patient, if the dye is toxic. A further disadvantage of the sensors based on fluorophores is their propensity for photobleaching [65]. For all these reasons, while many pH optical sensors have been proposed for continuous pH monitoring, in-vivo results have not been reported so far.

As far as pCO₂ sensors are concerned two types of optical sensors have been proposed to overcome the Severinghaus type electrode. The first type replaces the pH electrode with a pH-sensitive dye [66]; this kind of sensor is based on the reaction of CO₂ with a bicarbonate buffer solution placed behind a hydrophobic polymer. The pH change caused by the CO₂ is transduced in a variation of absorbance or fluorescence intensity of the dye. However, this kind of sensor has a long response time, due to the hydrophobic membrane. In addition, the membrane is impermeable to ions and liquid water, but not to water vapors. In this way, there could be a gradual drift due to the establishment of an osmotic equilibrium between the internal buffer and the sample solution. The second type of optical sensor uses a phase transfer agent (a quaternary ammonium hydroxide) [67] to replace the previously required sodium bicarbonate buffer solution. In fact, the quaternary ammonium hydroxide provides in the hydrophobic membrane the initial basic environment that is essential for a CO₂-sensing film to work. Since the hydrophobic membrane acts as a barrier for ions, no further gas-permeable membrane is required, thus this kind of sensors is called "naked sensors".

Nevertheless, although lots of pH and pCO₂ optical sensors are commercially available at present, only few of them are suitable for the fabrication of disposable sensing elements [62]. In fact, the key aspect of a disposable sensor is a cheap and simple transduction mechanism, which converts the information of interest into a readable signal, so that it is possible to use the same optical and electronic instrumentation for different measurements changing only the cheap and disposable sensing element. Disposability is becoming a fundamental characteristic in life science sensors, where exams performed on different patients require always new and sterilized sensing elements in contact with biological tissues.

In this chapter a multi-analyte fluorescence-based sensor platform will be presented. In the next Section a description of the optical transducer, flow cuvette and the electronic circuitry is given. Then, two applications will be described. In particular, in Section 1.3 a polymer pH-sensitive membrane for measuring haematic pH will be presented, together with its characterization both in-vitro and ex-vivo. Then, a polymer pCO₂-sensitive membrane for measuring haematic pCO₂ will be described in Section 1.4.

1.2 Materials and Methods

In the next sections the developed multi-analyte fluorescence-based measurement system is presented. It basically consists of four parts: (i) polymer sensing element in contact with the solution (including the dye sensitive to the analyte of interest), (ii) optical reading head and (iii) front-end and signal elaboration electronics. As schematically shown in Figure 1.1, the optical transduction of the quantity of interest is based on the fluorescence intensity emitted by a polymer film directly in contact with the solution flowing inside the cuvette.

1.2.1 Polymer sensing element

The polymer sensing element, in contact with the solution, transduces the quantity of interest into an optical information; it consists of a polymer matrix and a fluorescent sensitive dye bonded to the polymer chains. The polymer matrix plays an important role because it is in direct contact with the solution and it contains the sensitive dye inside its molecular structure, so it has to be: (i) robust towards the flow, (ii) able to guarantee a fast penetration of the analyte of interest, (iii) fast in response time, (iv) well adherent to the substrate of the measuring cell, (v) characterized by absent or reduced dye leaching.

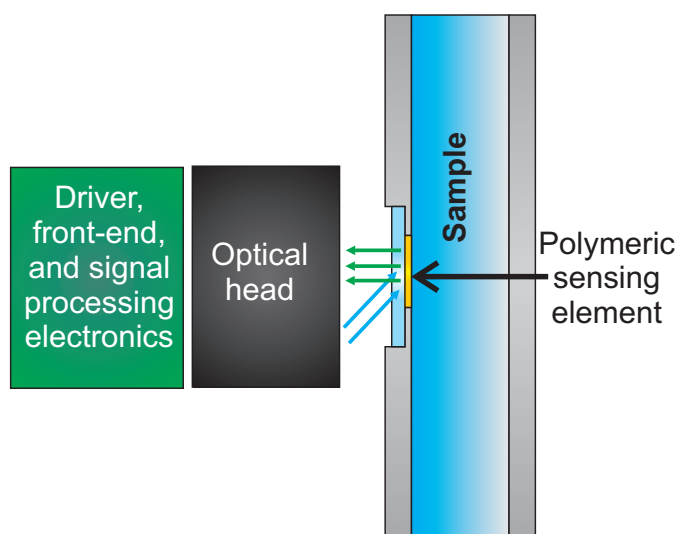


Figure 1.1: Schematic representation of the measurement principle. A polymer sensing matrix, placed in the flow cuvette directly in contact with the solution under test, is interrogated by the optical head properly driven by the electronic circuitry.

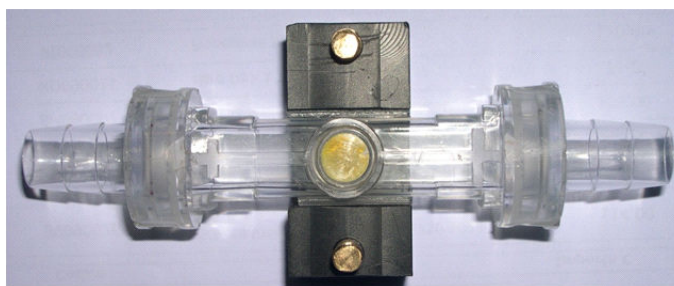


Figure 1.2: Picture of a polymer sensing element placed in a flow cuvette.

1.2.2 Optical reading head

A schematic representation of the realized optical setup is reported in Figure 1.3. To perform fluorescence intensity variation measurements, it is necessary to excite the fluorescent dye; in the present work, where the dye was fluorescein, excitation was induced by a blue LED ($\lambda_{peak} \cong 480 \text{ nm}$), and the emitted fluorescence signal was collected. Since the optical power emitted by the LED is much higher than the emitted fluorescence, two filters inside the optical head have been positioned; in particular an excitation filter on the light emitted by the LED ($\lambda_{cutoff} = 485 \text{ nm}$, ODL S.r.l., BG12) and an emission filter ($\Delta\lambda = 515 - 535 \text{ nm}$, Thorlabs, MF525-39) on the optical path of the fluorescence light towards the photodiode. The unwanted excitation light collected by the fluorescence channel produces an offset in the signal of interest comparable with the offsets introduced by the electronics. Thus, it can be compensated by a proper calibration of the sensor. Finally, two photodiodes have been used, one to collect the fluorescence signal and one to monitor the optical power emitted by the LED. The monitor photodiode is used to detect possible variations of the excitation optical power. The system is suitable to be used also with different fluorescent dyes; if their excitation and emission spectra are shifted compared to the fluorescein's ones, it will be sufficient to change the light source and the optical filters.

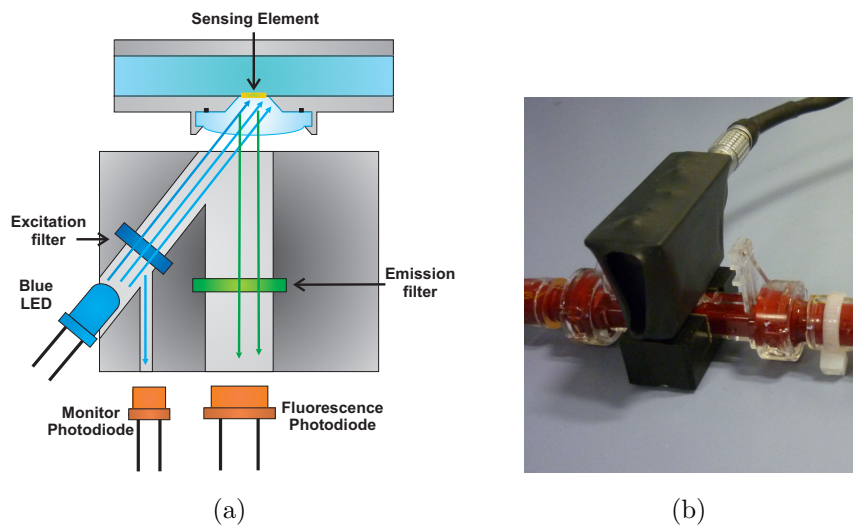


Figure 1.3: Schematic representation (a) and a picture (b) of the optical head. It consists of a blue LED, two photodiodes, to monitor the power emitted by the LED and to collect the fluorescence signal, and finally two optical filters: an excitation filter on the light path of the excitation beam and an emission filter on the light path of the fluorescence emission beam.

1.2.3 Front-end and signal elaboration electronics

The operation of the measuring device is based on the electronic circuitry for exciting the blue LED and conditioning the signals provided at the photodiode detectors output. In order to reduce the effect of photobleaching, typical of fluorescent indicators, the blue LED was excited by current pulses (duration 800 ms) at a frequency of 0.125 Hz [68]. Moreover, to increase the robustness against the interferences and because of the low signal-to-noise ratio, the lock-in technique has been used, modulating sinusoidally the LED driving current during the pulse and demodulating the collected signal with the same signal (frequency=6.06 kHz), as shown in Figure 1.4.

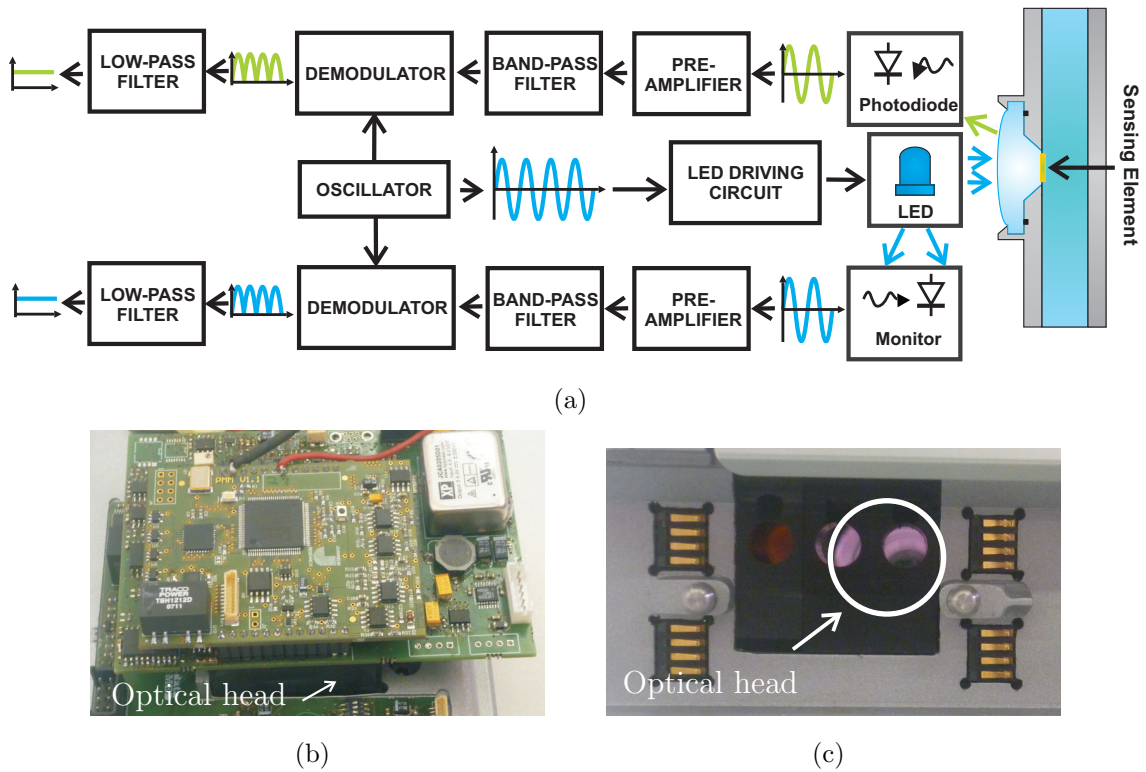


Figure 1.4: Block diagram of the electronics (a) and pictures of the measuring system including the optical head, back view (b) and front view (c).

In this way, only the signal of interest presents a non-zero average value, which is representative of the excitation and fluorescence intensities. Thus, the front-end electronics consists of two channels devoted to the processing of the monitor and fluorescence photogenerated current signals. Each channel includes: (i) a low-noise transimpedance preamplifier (OPA380, Texas Instruments), (ii) a high-Q bandpass filter with center frequency at 6.06 kHz (OPA228, Texas Instruments) (iii) a lock-in amplifier (AD630, Analog Devices), (iv) a lowpass filter with a 70 Hz pass-band cutoff (OPA2227, Texas Instruments). Finally, an analog-to-digital converter

(ADC128S102, Texas Instruments) and a microcontroller (C8051F305, Silicon Labs) are used to acquire and process the information of interest. Figure 1.4 shows the block diagram of the electronics and two pictures of the measuring system including the optical head. For the performed measurements, the fluorescence-to-monitor ratio was considered, thus avoiding that variations in the optical power emitted by the LED could influence the fluorescence measurements. In fact, the fluorescence intensity I_s is a fraction of the absorbed light [69], as reported in Eq. 1.1:

$$I_s = kI_0\phi\epsilon_\lambda lC, \quad (1.1)$$

where I_0 is the intensity of the exciting beam, ϕ is the quantum yield of the fluorophore, ϵ_λ is the molar absorptivity at λ_{ex} , l is the optical path length in the sample, C is the concentration of the fluorophore and k is an instrumental factor. Considering the fluorescence-to-monitor ratio, it yields:

$$I_{Ratio} = \frac{I_s}{I_0} = k\phi\epsilon_\lambda lC. \quad (1.2)$$

As shown in Eq. 1.2, the ratio signal is independent from the optical power emitted by the LED. The fluorescence-to-monitor ratio, I_{Ratio} , has been estimated by the voltage ratio, V_{Ratio} , between the signals generated by the front-end electronics, i.e. V_{Fluo} and V_{Mon} . In the next sections, it will be referred to the fluorescence-to-monitor ratio as I_{Ratio} and to the fluorescence to monitor ratio normalized to the greatest value as I_{Norm} .

1.3 Haematic fluorescence-based pH sensor

A fluorescence pH sensor for measuring blood pH during ECC has been developed using the multi-analyte fluorescence-based sensor platform previously described [70, 71]. In the next Section, a brief description of the theoretical background is given, while in Section 1.3.3 the characterization of the sensor is reported. In Section 1.3.4 and Section 1.3.5 the experimental protocols for in-vitro and ex-vivo tests are described and finally, in Section 1.3.6, the experimental results of both in-vitro and ex-vivo tests are reported and discussed.

1.3.1 Theoretical background

The development of the present sensor is based on the fluorimetric determination of pH [69]. Following the absorption of a photon, the excited molecules can lose energy through non radiative relaxation, emission of a photon or energy transfer to an acceptor. The reemitted photons usually possess less energy, so they are shifted

to the red part of the spectrum. This property represents a great advantage, compared to the absorption spectroscopy, since it decreases the level of the shot noise, which is proportional to the square root of the light intensity. In fact, when the emission light is only observed, the signal-to-noise ratio is greatly improved. The sensor presented in this work makes use of a polymerable fluorescein, namely fluorescein *O*-methacrylate to detect pH changes in the measured fluorescence intensity. Fluorescein *O*-methacrylate is a new kind of pH-sensitive fluorescent monomer characterized by an excitation spectrum centered at $\lambda=490$ nm and an emission spectrum centered at $\lambda=520$ nm. Fluorescein exhibits multiple, pH dependent ionic equilibria [36]. Both the phenol and carboxylic acid functional groups of fluorescein are almost completely ionized in aqueous solutions above pH 9.0 (Figure 1.5). Acidification of the fluorescein dianion first protonates the phenol ($pK_a \approx 6.4$) to yield the fluorescein monoanion, then the carboxylic acid ($pK_a < 5.0$) to produce the neutral species of fluorescein. Further acidification generates a fluorescein cation ($pK_a \approx 2.1$). Only the monoanion and dianion of fluorescein are fluorescent, with quantum yields of 0.37 and 0.93, respectively. A further equilibrium involves formation of a colorless, nonfluorescent lactone (Figure 1.5). Nevertheless, the fluorescence emission spectrum of fluorescein, even in acidic solution, is dominated by the dianion, with only small contributions from the monoanion. Consequently, the wavelength and shape of the emission spectra resulting from excitation close to the dianion absorption peak at 490 nm are relatively independent on pH, but the fluorescence intensity is dramatically reduced under acidic conditions. The mass-action law relationships

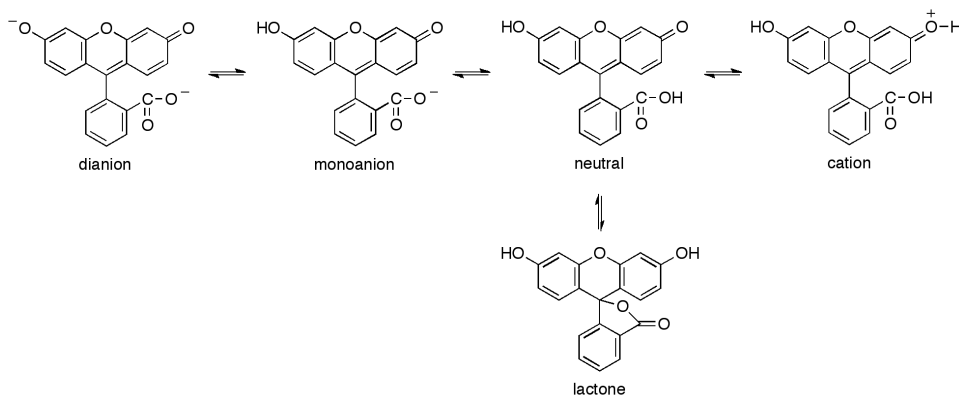


Figure 1.5: Ionization equilibria of fluorescein.

between pH and fluorescence intensity determines the response curve of this sensing approach [72]. Considering a dye covalently linked to a polymer matrix, defining I_{max} and I_{min} as the fluorescence contribution of the fully deprotonated and the fully protonated form of the fluorescent indicator, respectively, the relation between the fluorescence emission intensity I_s and pH, in the presence of the sample under

test, becomes [73, 74, 75]:

$$pH = pK_a - b \cdot \log \left(\frac{I_{max} - I_s}{I_s - I_{min}} \right), \quad (1.3)$$

where pK_a is the acid-base constant of the indicator and b is a numerical coefficient, introduced to determine the slope of the function between I_{max} and I_{min} . In fact, the chemical and physical properties of the matrix including the dye (e.g. polarity and viscosity) could affect its sensitivity near the pK_a , thus having different slopes for the same indicator in different matrices. Rewriting Eq. 1.3 in terms of I_s , gives the well-known sigmoidal function [74]:

$$I_s = \frac{I_{max} + I_{min} \cdot 10^{-\left(\frac{pH-pK_a}{b}\right)}}{1 + 10^{-\left(\frac{pH-pK_a}{b}\right)}} = I_{min} + \frac{I_{max} - I_{min}}{1 + 10^{-\left(\frac{pH-pK_a}{b}\right)}}. \quad (1.4)$$

This equation results in a non-linear relationship between the fluorescence intensity versus pH, which has been used for the calculation of the pK_a of the dye included in the polymer matrix.

The pH of blood is related to the constituents of the bicarbonate buffer system by the modified Henderson-Hasselbalch equation [76]:

$$pH_{blood} = pK_{aH_2CO_3} + \log \left(\frac{[HCO_3^-]}{[H_2CO_3]} \right), \quad (1.5)$$

where $pK_{aH_2CO_3}$ is the acid dissociation constant of the carbonic acid, which is equal to 6.1, $[HCO_3^-]$ is the concentration of bicarbonate in the blood and $[H_2CO_3]$ is the concentration of carbonic acid in the blood. Considering the partial pressure of carbon dioxide, pCO_2 , rather than $[H_2CO_3]$, Eq. 1.5 can be written as:

$$pH_{blood} = 6.1 + \log \left(\frac{[HCO_3^-]}{0.03 \times pCO_2} \right). \quad (1.6)$$

Equation 1.6 provides a pH value for healthy human beings between 7.30 and 7.45. This pH values are very close to the pK_a of our sensing membrane, i.e. $I_s = (I_{max} + I_{min})/2$, thus the argument of the logarithmic function in Eq. 1.3 is close to 1. According to the first-order Taylor polynomial of the logarithmic function, the approximation of Eq. 1.3 is:

$$pH = pK_a - 2 \cdot b \cdot \log(e) \cdot \left(\frac{\frac{I_{max}+I_{min}}{2} - I_s}{I_s - I_{min}} \right). \quad (1.7)$$

Since pH values are very close to the pK_a of our sensing membrane, i.e. $I_s = (I_{max} + I_{min})/2$, the term

$$\frac{\frac{I_{max}+I_{min}}{2} - I_s}{I_s - I_{min}}, \quad (1.8)$$

is close to zero. According to the first-order Taylor polynomial of the rational function, Eq. 1.7 can be rewritten as:

$$pH = pK_a + 2 \cdot b \cdot \log(e) \cdot \frac{2}{I_{max} - I_{min}} \cdot \left(I_s - \frac{I_{max} + I_{min}}{2} \right). \quad (1.9)$$

Rewriting Eq. 1.9 in terms of I_s , yields:

$$I_s = (pH - pK_a) \cdot \frac{I_{max} - I_{min}}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2 \cdot b \cdot \log(e)} + \frac{I_{max} + I_{min}}{2} = A \cdot pH + B, \quad (1.10)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \frac{I_{max} - I_{min}}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2 \cdot b \cdot \log(e)}, \\ B &= -pK_a \cdot \frac{I_{max} - I_{min}}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2 \cdot b \cdot \log(e)} + \frac{I_{max} + I_{min}}{2}. \end{aligned} \quad (1.11)$$

1.3.2 Fabrication of the polymer matrix

All chemicals needed for the realization of a hydrophilic, highly swellable, polymer matrix containing an optical sensing element were of analytical grade, purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used without further purification. All aqueous solutions were prepared using distilled water. The matrix was prepared by the free-radical polymerization of 2-hydroxyethyl methacrylate (HEMA), whose thermodynamic affinity for water is well known [77], catalysed by the radical photoinitiator 4-(2-hydroxyethoxy)phenyl-(2-hydroxy-2-propyl)ketone (Irgacure[®] 2959, BASF), used at 1.0% wt. The polymerization was run in the presence of a tetrafunctional monomer, namely 1,6-hexanediol diacrylate (HDDA) added at 5.0% wt with respect to HEMA, acting as crosslinker to avoid an excessive swelling degree of the acrylate matrix in contact with water, that could result in a poor mechanical resistance. Fluorescein *O*-methacrylate 97% (Figure 1.6a) was added to the acrylates mixture at 1.0% wt with respect to HEMA monomer; its methacrylate moiety allows for a covalent inclusion of the fluorescein comonomer within the swellable polymer matrix, thus suppressing the severe drawback of indicator leaching. The covalent bonding between the HEMA matrix and the fluorescent dye is depicted in Figure 1.6b. The overall swelling ratio of the polymer matrix in aqueous solutions was finely tuned by adding different amounts (up to 6.0% wt) of a flexible macromer, namely poly(ethylene glycol) diacrylate (PEGDA, Ebecryl[®]13, Cytec Industries), to further improve the polymer chain flexibility, and in turn ion mobility within the polymer matrix [78]. The mixture of chemicals was accurately mixed using a magnetic stirrer before being deposited by spin coating (500 rpm, 30 s) onto a transparent PVC substrate

(Figure 1.7a), and cured by UV-irradiation with a medium pressure mercury lamp under nitrogen with a light intensity on the surface of the sample of $30 \text{ mW}/\text{cm}^2$ for different time up to 70 s.

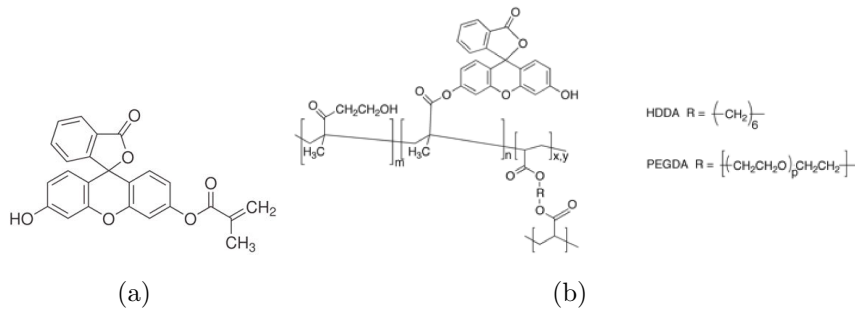


Figure 1.6: Molecular structure of fluorescein *O*-methacrylate (a). Molecular structure of poly(HEMA) covalently bonded to fluorescein *O*-methacrylate units (b).

Figure 1.7b reports a SEM micrograph of a cross-section of the sensing polymer film (thickness about $25 \mu\text{m}$) deposited onto the PVC substrate (thickness $150 \mu\text{m}$). Because of the manual realization of the sensing elements, it was difficult to firmly control the thickness of the polymer sensing layer; this disuniformity between different sensing elements may cause some variability in terms of response time and sensitivity. The polymer film uniformity could be improved through the application of instrumental deposition techniques, like the one reported by Tian et al. [79, 80].

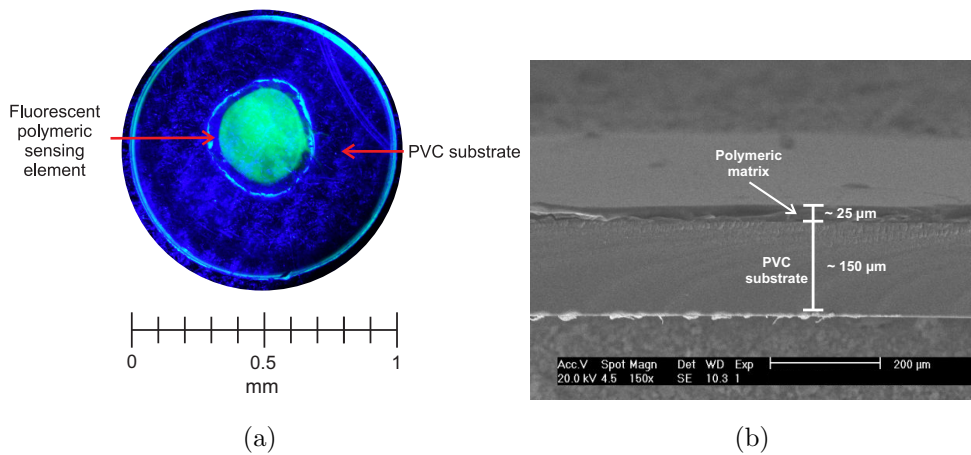


Figure 1.7: Top-view picture of the hydrophilic polymer matrix including the fluorescent indicator, used as the sensing element, excited by a blue LED (a). SEM cross-section picture of the hydrophilic polymer matrix including the fluorescent indicator, used as the sensing element (b).

1.3.3 Characterization of the pH sensor

In order to test the sensor, a fluidic system has been realized. As shown in the schematic representation in Figure 1.8a and in the picture in Figure 1.8b, it consists of (i) a closed loop circulator, (ii) the optical head with the sensing element inside, (iii) a beaker with a reference glass electrode pH-meter (Eutech Instruments, XS pH 700, Netherlands) to measure the pH of the solution and a thermocouple to measure the temperature of the solution and correct the pH value.

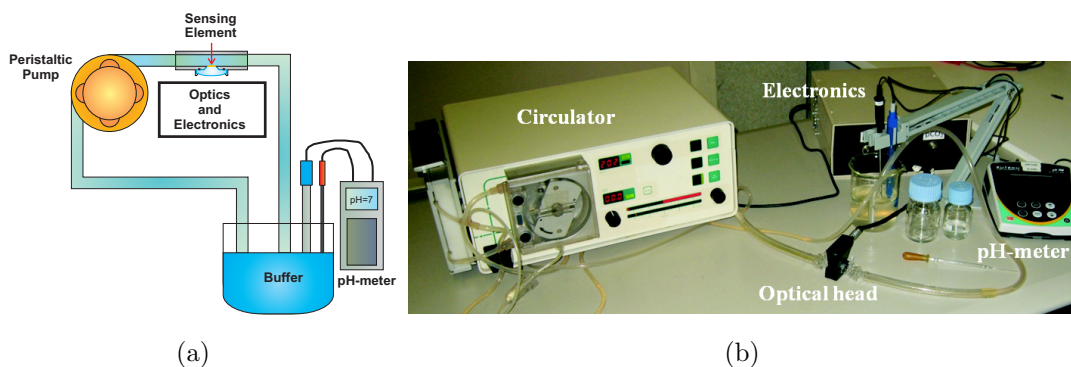


Figure 1.8: Schematic representation of the fluidic system used to test the pH sensor (a). It consists of (i) a closed loop circulator, (ii) the optical head with the sensing element inside, (iii) a beaker with a reference glass electrode pH-meter to measure the pH of the solution and a thermocouple to measure the temperature of the solution and correct the pH value. Picture of the fluidic system used to test the pH sensor (b).

All the measurements were performed at room temperature, with a flow rate of 200 ml/min. The pH of the solution was changed by adding acetic acid or ammonium hydroxide to the solution.

1.3.3.1 Characterization of the sensor pK_a

A fluorimetric titration has been performed to investigate the pK_a of the indicator inside the polymer matrix in aqueous solutions. In Figure 1.9, I_{Ratio} versus time acquired at different pH values is shown. The steady state pH values of the solution as measured by the reference instrument are reported close to the curve. In Figure 1.10, the average of the I_{Ratio} signal over a time interval of 60 seconds for every reference pH value is shown.

I_{Ratio} values have been fitted to a sigmoidal function, represented in Figure 1.10 and described by Eq. 1.4, where $I_{max} = 0.93$, $I_{min} = 0.48$ and $b = 1.10$. The pK_a of the indicator was thus estimated to be 7.9. This value is bigger than the

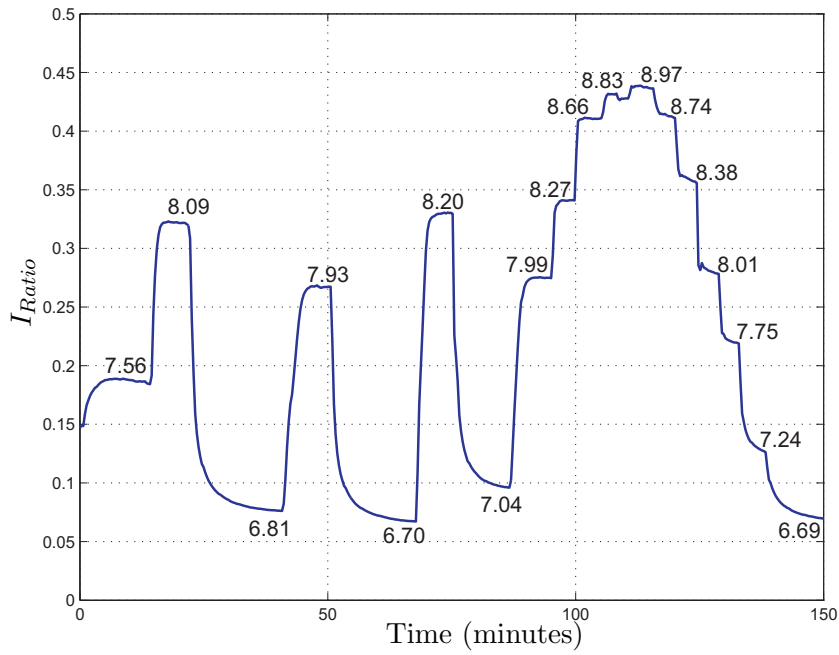


Figure 1.9: I_{Ratio} versus time of a measurement performed in an aqueous solution, changing the pH value of the solution. The steady state pH values of the solution as measured by the reference instrument are reported close to the curve.

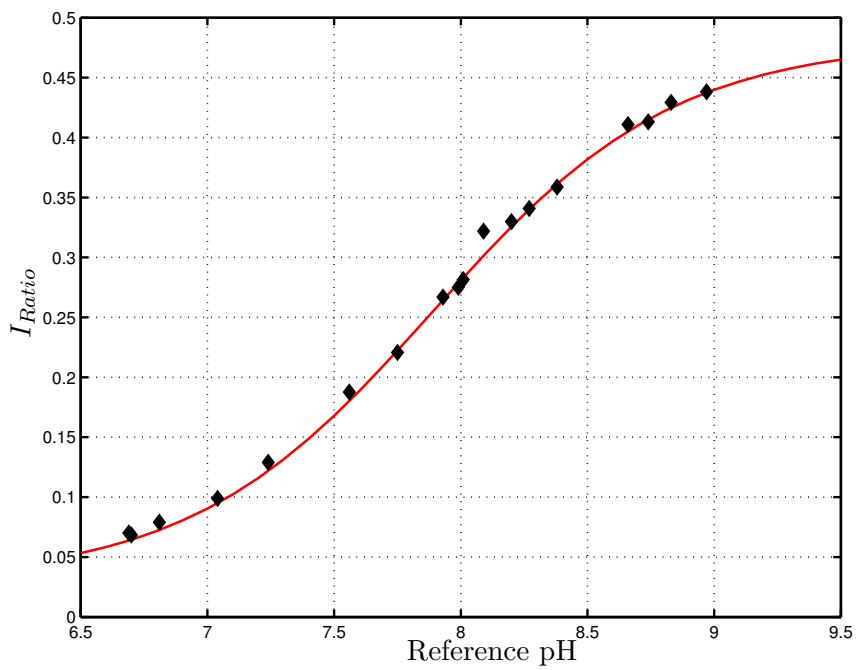


Figure 1.10: I_{Ratio} versus reference pH and sigmoidal interpolation curve.

one reported in literature for the fluorescein in aqueous solutions, i.e. 6.4 [81]. According to Vasylevska et al. [74], an increase in pK_a is observed upon covalent immobilization of the indicator and is attributed to the decrease in the polarity of the microenvironment.

The sigmoidal interpolation curve can be approximated with a linear curve for a range of values of pH close to the pK_a of the indicator. In particular, a linearity range between 7 and 8 has been considered. In the next section, the linearity characteristics of the sensor within this range are presented.

1.3.3.2 Evaluation of the non-linearity error

Since the proportionality coefficient between I_{Ratio} and parameters A and B in Eq. 1.10 are unknown, the relationship between pH and I_{Ratio} was determined using a linear regression model. Starting from Eq. 1.10, two regression coefficients \tilde{A} and \tilde{B} were introduced, calculated through a least square method relating the values of I_{Ratio} and the actual pH values measured by the blood gas analyzer according to the regression model:

$$I_{Ratio} = \tilde{A} \cdot pH + \tilde{B}. \quad (1.12)$$

This linear approximation is considered to be valid in the pH range of interest (RoI) (7 - 8). In Figure 1.11, I_{Ratio} versus time acquired at different pH values in the range 7.0-8.0 is shown. For every reference pH value, the average of I_{Ratio} has been calculated over an interval of 60 seconds. Afterward, these values were fitted to a linear function as:

$$\bar{I}_{Ratio} = 1.6834 \cdot pH_{Reference} - 10.1342, \quad (1.13)$$

where \bar{I}_{Ratio} is the average value of I_{Ratio} and $pH_{Reference}$ is the pH measured by the reference pH electrode. Hence, the estimated pH values were calculated as:

$$pH_{Estimated} = \frac{\bar{I}_{Ratio} - q}{m} = \frac{\bar{I}_{Ratio} + 10.1342}{1.6834}. \quad (1.14)$$

In Figure 1.12a the estimated values versus reference pH are shown, together with the fitting line (R=0.9958), whereas Figure 1.12b shows the difference between the estimated and reference pH values, for every reference pH value. Thus, the Integral Non-linearity error, which is a parameter representing the maximum deviation between the sigmoidal interpolation curve of Eq. 1.4 and the linear interpolation curve of Eq. 1.13, was calculated to be 0.02 units of pH, which represents the 2% in the range 7.0-8.0. Finally, the Integral Non-linearity error was calculated also for the measurement reported in Figure 1.9 and was determined to be 0.05 units of pH,



Figure 1.11: I_{Ratio} versus time acquired at different pH values in the range 7.0-8.0. The steady state pH values of the solution as measured by the reference instrument are reported close to the curve.

which represents the 5% in the range 7.0-8.0. These small variations between the Integral Non-linearity errors are probably due to different sensing elements used to perform these tests.

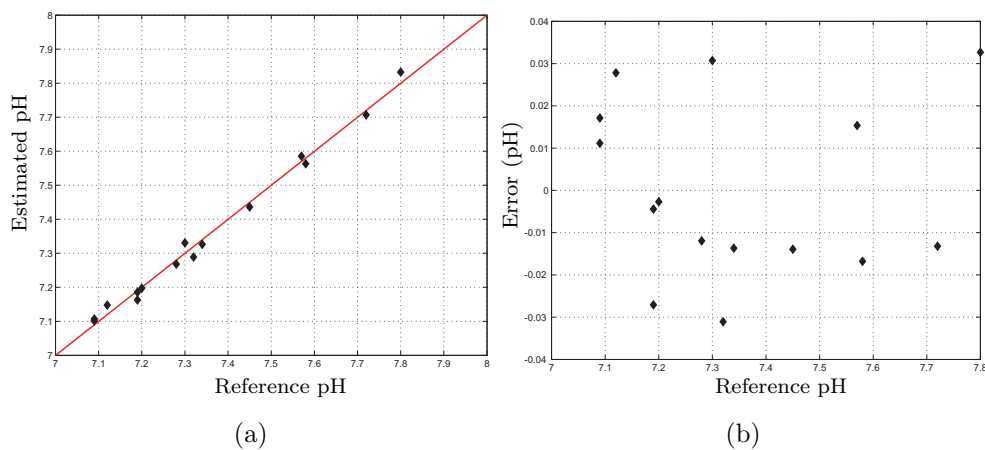


Figure 1.12: Estimated versus reference pH and fitting line (a). Difference between estimated and reference pH versus reference pH (b).

1.3.3.3 Short term stability

Figure 1.13a shows the estimated pH values, determined through Equation 1.14, versus time acquired firstly changing the pH of the solution and then keeping it constant.

Assuming that the pH of the solution is completely stabilized at $t = 60$ min, the short term stability can be determined by evaluating the deviations of the estimated pH respect to its mean value in the time interval 60-100 min. As shown in Figure 1.13b, no significant drifts have been observed in this time interval; all deviations are included in a range of values of 0.15% of the mean value of the estimated pH.

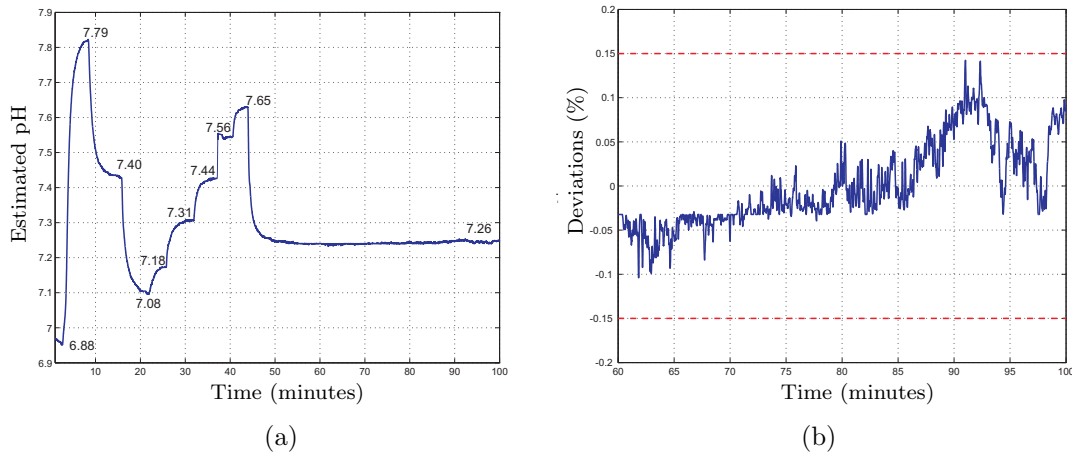


Figure 1.13: Estimated pH versus time of a measurement performed changing the pH value of the solution and then keeping it constant (a). The steady state pH values of the solution as measured by the reference instrument are reported close to the curve. Deviations of the estimated pH respect to its mean value in the time interval 60-100 min (b). All deviations are included in a range of values of 0.15% of the mean value of the estimated pH (dashed lines).

1.3.3.4 Response time

The sensor response time, the so called τ_{90} , is defined as the *time required for the sensor output to reach 90% of the change from its previous value to the final settled value*. To measure the response time of the developed sensor, the fluidic system reported in Figure 1.14 has been realized. The setup shown in Figure 1.8a has been

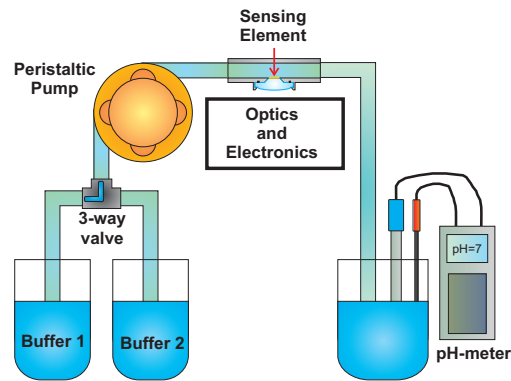


Figure 1.14: Schematic representation of the fluidic system used to measure the pH sensor response time. It consists of (i) a closed loop circulator, (ii) the optical head with the sensing element inside, (iii) a beaker with a glass electrode pH-meter to measure the pH of the solution and a thermocouple to measure the temperature of the solution and correct the pH value. A 3-way valve has been added to switch between two different buffer solutions.

integrated by a 3-way valve, thus allowing switching between two different buffer solutions (Fisher Scientific, Sigma-Aldrich). The measurement was performed by pumping the first buffer solution till the sensor stabilized, then switching to the second buffer solution and waiting for the stabilization of the sensor and finally switching back to the first one. The measurements were performed with the same sensing element ($50 \mu\text{m}$ thick), at room temperature at a flow rate of 200 ml/min. The whole circuit volume was about 200 ml. In Figures 1.15a, 1.15b and 1.15c I_{Ratio} versus time is reported for three different test conditions.

In Table 1.1, the calculated rise and fall times (τ_{90}) of the performed measurements are reported.

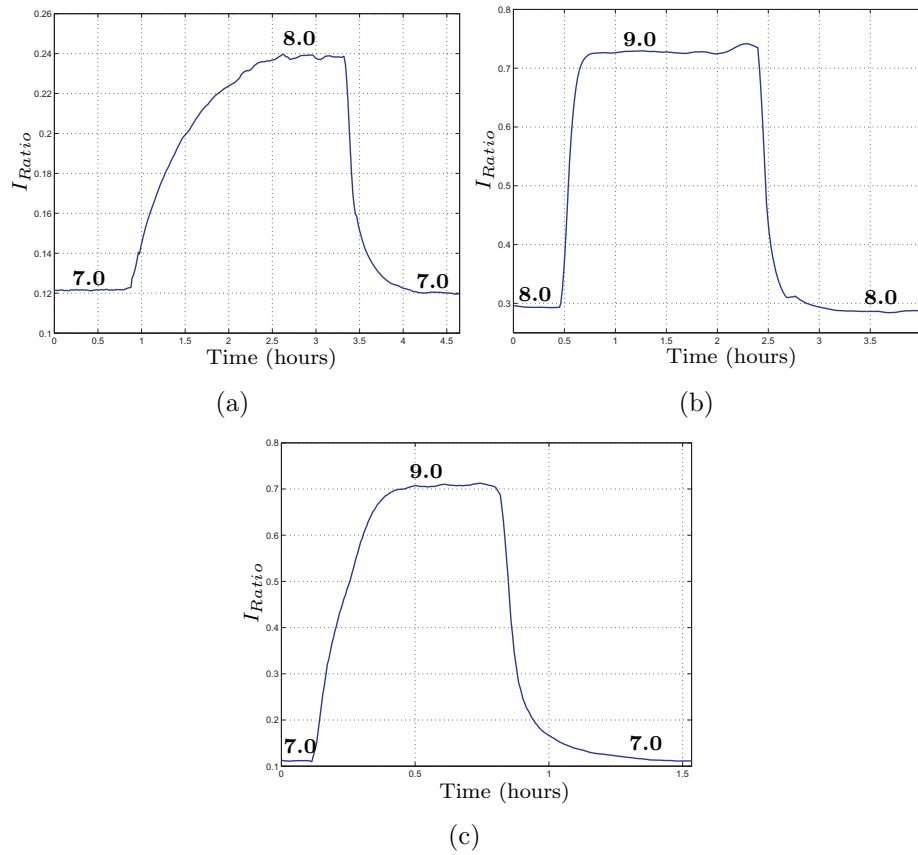


Figure 1.15: I_{Ratio} versus time acquired during the three tests performed to evaluate the response time of the sensor and its dependency on the pH value. Sensor response to a change in pH from 7 to 8 and back (a); sensor response to a change in pH from 8 to 9 and back (b); sensor response to a change in pH from 7 to 9 and back (c).

Table 1.1: Rise and fall times estimated during the three performed tests.

	Rise time τ_{90} (min)	Fall time τ_{90} (min)
$pH = 7.0 \rightarrow 8.0$	54.0	23.0
$pH = 8.0 \rightarrow 9.0$	9.5	17.0
$pH = 7.0 \rightarrow 9.0$	14.0	26.0

The response time of the sensor depends on several factors, such as the flow-rate and the thickness of the film. Response times reported in Figure 1.15 are substantially different compared to those of Figures 1.9, 1.11 and 1.13a. This large difference can be ascribed to the thickness of the sensing film. It has been observed that even small differences in thickness can result in large changes in the dynamic response of the sensor. Moreover, the response time depends on the initial and final pH value. In fact, from the data reported in Table 1.1, it can be noticed that the response time is highly dependent on the pH values with respect to the pK_a of the fluorescent dye. In fact, the response time is longer for the first variation of pH, ($pH = 7.0 \rightarrow 8.0$, Figure 1.15a), which has been done between pH values below or equal to the pK_a ($pK_a \approx 7.9$). If the final pH value is much higher than the pK_a , the response time is significantly reduced; in fact, considering the second variation ($pH = 8.0 \rightarrow 9.0$, Figure 1.15b), the response time is improved. Nevertheless, it can be noticed that, if the variation is done between two pH values chosen so that they are on either side of the pK_a value, ($pH = 7.0 \rightarrow 9.0$, Figure 1.15c), the rise and fall times are further improved (7 minutes per unit of pH and 13 minutes per unit of pH, respectively). Finally, it can be noticed that, if the final pH value is higher than the pK_a , the rise time is lower than the fall time, whereas, if the final pH value is lower than the pK_a , the fall time is lower than the rise time.

Nevertheless, this dynamic behavior can be improved by using thinner polymer sensing element. The thickness of the sensing element depends on a trade-off between the response time and the signal-to-noise ratio. As far as the signal-to-noise ratio of the developed sensor is high enough, it is possible to use thinner polymer films and thus achieve shorter response time.

1.3.3.5 Reproducibility

The reproducibility of the pH sensor has been evaluated using the fluidic system represented in Figure 1.14, by changing the pH between the same two buffer solutions, i.e. 8.0 and 9.0 (Fisher, Sigma-Aldrich). In Figure 1.16a, I_{Norm} versus time is reported. The first test (blue) was performed the day before with respect to the second one (red), using the same polymer sensing element. In Figure 1.16b the mean values of the I_{Norm} signal, measured at $pH = 8.0$ and $pH = 9.0$, are reported, together with the error bars.

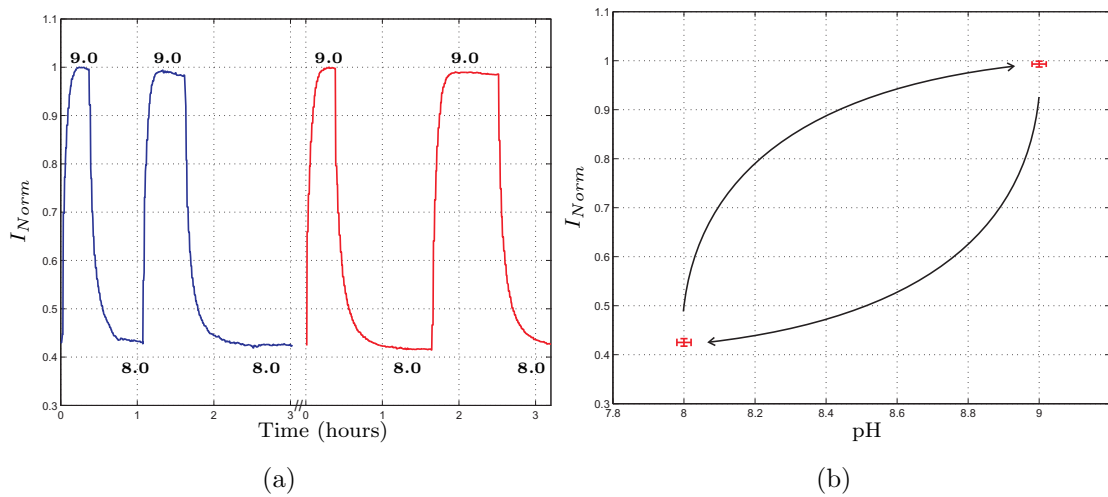


Figure 1.16: Acquired I_{Norm} versus time changing the pH value between 8.0 and 9.0 to evaluate the reproducibility of the pH sensor (a). Two tests were performed (blue line and red line) on two consecutive days. Mean values and error bars of the I_{Norm} signal, measured at $pH = 8.0$ and $pH = 9.0$ (b).

The mean values were calculated considering the average values of I_{Norm} in the steady-states at $pH = 8.0$ and $pH = 9.0$ respectively. The error bars represent the standard deviations; for the reference pH values they were determined through the uncertainty reported on the datasheet of the buffer solutions, i.e. $pH = 8.0 \pm 0.02$ and $pH = 9.0 \pm 0.02$ respectively, whereas for the I_{Norm} signal they were determined by the sample standard deviation (s). Finally, the mean values (\bar{I}_{Norm}) and the relative standard deviations ($\sigma = s/\bar{I}_{Norm}$) of I_{Norm} were determined to be $0.425 \pm 1.80\%$ at $pH=8.0$ and $0.993 \pm 0.60\%$ at $pH=9.0$.

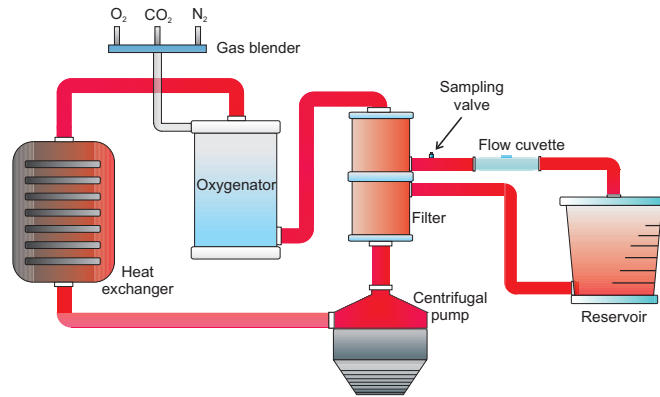
1.3.4 Experimental protocol for in-vitro test

Figure 1.17 shows the mock system assembled to simulate the blood condition during ECC. It consists of: (i) a centrifugal pump, capable of guaranteeing a flux up to 6 L/min; (ii) a heat exchanger based on the Peltier effect (temperature power ranging 15-39°C); (iii) an oxygenator and (iv) an arterial/venous bubble filter. The whole circuit volume, including the centrifugal pump, the heat exchanger, the oxygenator, the arterial-venous bubble filter and the tubing set is 760 ml. The flow cuvette was positioned in the tubing connecting the filter and the reservoir, on the arterial line. The optical probe was fixed to the flow cuvette according to the setup shown in Figure 1.3 and the fluorescence and monitor signals were collected and analyzed by the front-end electronics that generates V_{ratio} . A constant blood flow (2 L/min) was maintained throughout the experiments. Blood samples were obtained from the extracorporeal line close to the flow cuvette (sampling valve). The protocol described above was repeated for two different blood temperatures, 37°C and 32°C, since frequently in cardiac surgery a moderate ipothermia condition is induced. The dependence of the sensor on the blood saturation was not investigate since it is correlated with the variation of pH.

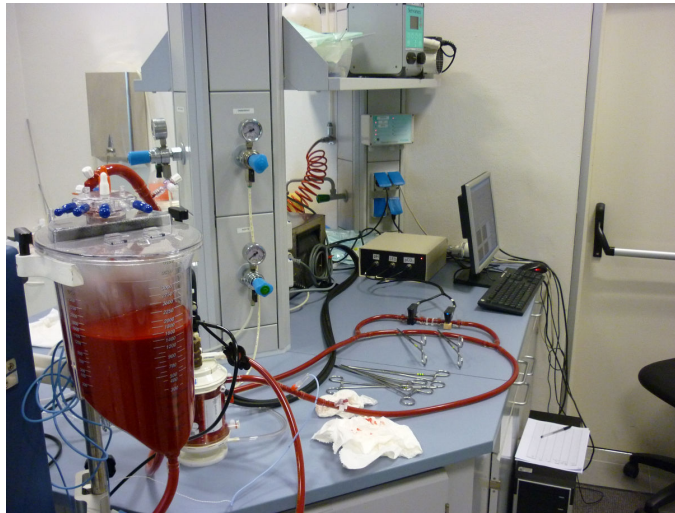
The cow was exsanguinated at local slaughterhouse one hour before the experiment. The collected blood was stored in heparinized container at 4°C during the transportation. Whole blood is an intrinsically complex fluid and difficult to manipulate, thus great care was devoted to not alterate natural condition of the sample. Before the experiment, the blood was diluted with saline solution and used to fill the reservoir with 3 L of fluid. The hemodilution was adjusted to provide sample with a hematocrit of 33-34%. The values of partial pressure of oxygen (pO_2), carbon dioxide (pCO_2) and pH were adjusted to normal physiological range previous the measurement session. All blood gas analyses were performed with a commercial blood gas analyzer (ABL, Radiometer A/S, Copenhagen, Denmark).

1.3.5 Experimental protocol for ex-vivo test

The study was approved by the the Animal Care Ethical Committee of the University of Modena and Reggio Emilia. The experiments followed the recommendations described in the Italian law (D.L. 27-1-1992 n. 116). A veterinary doctor was constantly involved in the activities to control animals wellness and health. First experiment was performed on an adult female pig (see note Table 1.2). To confirm the results obtained during this experiment a second sensor has been tested on an adult female sheep (see note Table 1.3).



(a)



(b)

Figure 1.17: Block diagram (a) and picture (b) of the mock system realized to simulate the blood condition during ECC. It consists of: a centrifugal pump, an oxygenator, a heat exchanger, an arterial/venous bubble filter, a sampling valve, a flow cuvette and tubings.

Table 1.2: Details of the pig involved in the ex-vivo experiment.

Race	Large White (Female)	Weight	80 kg
Sedation	Zolazepam (Zoletil®) 5 mg/kg + Atropine 1 ml		
Induction	Propofol		
Maintenance	Isoflurane + O_2		
Analgesia	Morphine + 0.3 mg/kg		

Table 1.3: Details of the sheep involved in the ex-vivo experiment.

Sheep (Female)	Weight	55 kg
Sedation	Tiletamine and Zolazepam (Zoletil [®]) + Atropine 0.66 mg/kg	
Induction	Propofol	
Maintenance	Fentanyl 0.1 mg/kg + Propofol 22.5 mg/kg + 2% isoflurane in 50% N ₂ O/ 50% O ₂	

During each surgery the sensor (different sensing elements have been used in the two experiments) was attached to the arterial line of the ECC circuit. A total of 20 samples were analyzed by a blood gas analyzer (ABL, Radiometer A/S, Copenhagen, Denmark) during the 2 surgeries with pH varying in the range 7.2 and 7.5. The experimental setup for ex-vivo evaluation of the measuring system is shown in Figure 1.18. It consists of the standard ECC setup including the flow cuvette placed between the animal and the arterial filter.

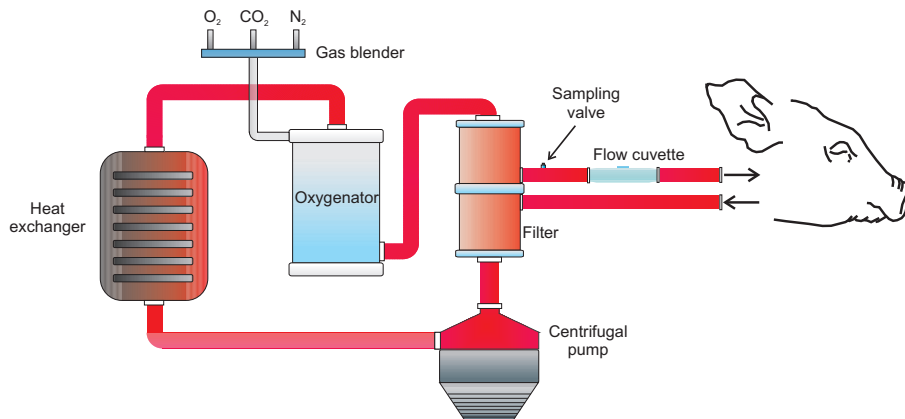


Figure 1.18: Block diagram of the experimental setup for ex-vivo evaluation of the measuring system.

The following blood parameters were monitored during the experiment: blood flow rate by flow probes (H9XL Flow Probe, Transonic System Inc., Artisan Sci. Co., Champaign, IL, USA), blood pressures by digital sensors (DPI 705, Druck Ltd, Leicester, England), blood temperatures by thermistor probes (Exacon[®] Medical Temperature Probe, Exacon Scientific A/S, Roskilde, Denmark) and digital thermometer (Omega HH41, Engineering Inc., Stamford, CT, USA), blood gases (p_aO_2 : oxygen partial pressure in the arterial blood; p_vO_2 : oxygen partial pressure in the venous blood; p_aCO_2 : carbon dioxide partial pressure in the arterial

blood; S_aO_2 : hemoglobin oxygen saturation in the arterial blood) by a blood gas analyzer (ABL, Radiometer A/S, Copenhagen, Denmark); hematocrit by a HCT minicentrifuge (Hematocrit Centrifugette 4203, ALC International S.r.L., Cologno Monzese, MI, Italy), blood electrolytes and activated clotting time (ACT) (ACT PlusTM, Medtronic Perfusion Systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA). Heparin was continuously infused during the experiment in order to keep the ACT between 300 s and 450 s. The pig was perfused for 9 hours in venous-arterial mode (iliac artery and vein were cannulated by two bypass cannulas), in normothermic condition (37.5-38° C). The sheep was perfused for 11 hours in venous-arterial mode (right carotid artery and jugular vein were cannulated by two bypass cannulas), under controlled hypothermia (33.2°C and 34.5°C). The pH of blood was sampled with a time interval of one hour in each ex-vivo experiment, obtaining 9 samples in the ex-vivo experiment on the pig and 11 on the sheep. Pictures of the environment test during the two ex-vivo experiments are shown in Figure 1.19.

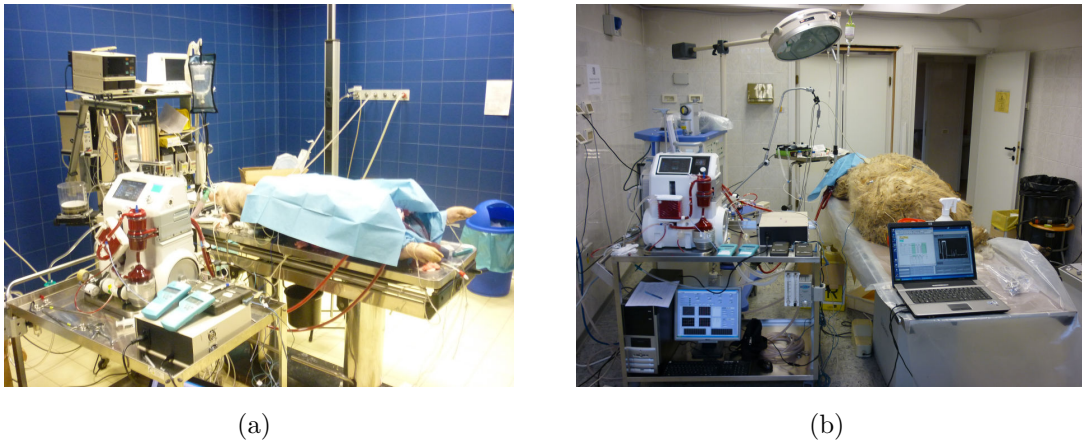


Figure 1.19: Pictures of the environment test during the experiment performed on the pig (a) and sheep (b).

1.3.6 Results

1.3.6.1 In-vitro experimental results

In Figure 1.20, I_{Ratio} versus time is shown, for a measurement performed on cow blood, changing the pH of the blood. The red dots are the average values of the I_{Ratio} signal recorded at each reference pH (green dots), measured by the blood gas analyzer. During this test, both the flow rate and the temperature of blood were kept constant, respectively at a value of 2 L/min and 37°C. The pH of the blood was changed using gases, in particular carbon dioxide and nitrogen. The oxygen was

kept quite constant, thus the saturation was always above 90%. The hematocrit of the blood was always kept at a value of 33-34%.

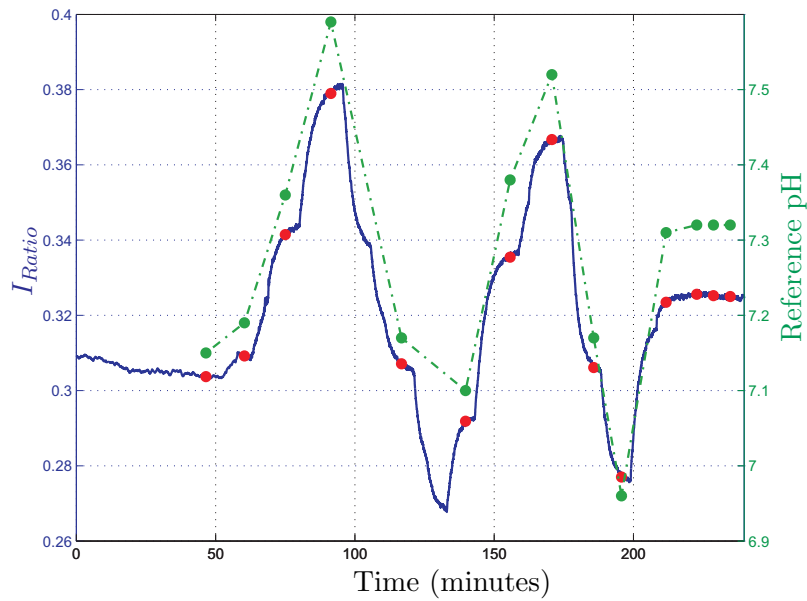


Figure 1.20: I_{Ratio} versus time measured in-vitro, changing the pH of the blood. The red dots are the average values of the I_{Ratio} signal recorded at each reference pH (green dots) measured by the blood gas analyzer.

The data interpolation was obtained by applying the regression model on the mean values of I_{Ratio} , calculated over a time interval of 60 s, at each reference pH value. The coefficients \tilde{A} , \tilde{B} and the correlation index determined by the regression model are reported in Table 1.4.

Table 1.4: Coefficients \tilde{A} and \tilde{B} of the regression model and correlation index, determined considering the mean values of I_{ratio} (averaged over a time interval of 60 s).

\tilde{A}	0.1628
\tilde{B}	-0.8615
R	0.9887

The linearity and the difference between the pH measured by the developed system and the pH determined by the blood gas analyzer are shown in Figure 1.21.

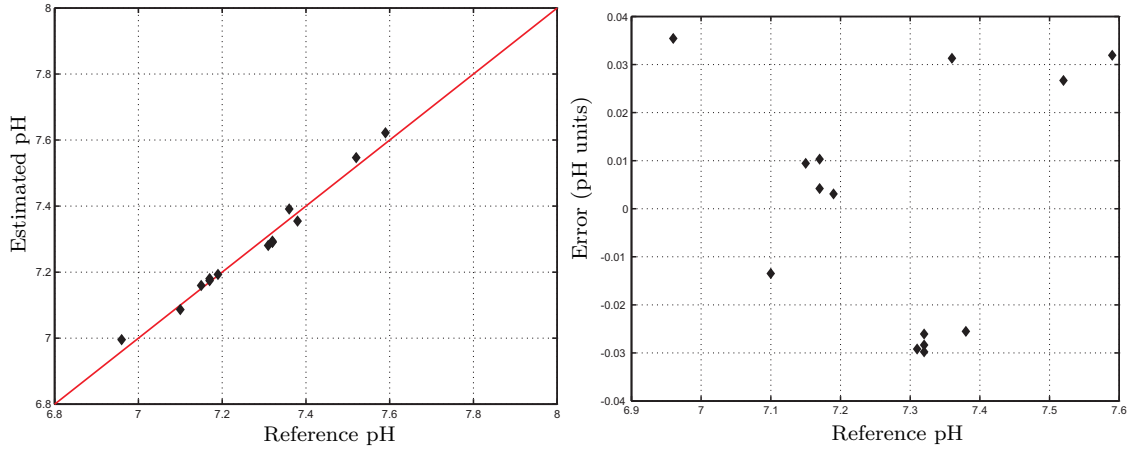


Figure 1.21: Estimated pH versus reference pH and the interpolation line (a). The interpolation line was obtained by applying the regression model on the mean values of I_{Ratio} , calculated over an interval of 60 s, at every reference pH value. Difference between the estimated pH and the reference pH, versus the reference pH (b).

The mean square error value, calculated as:

$$\epsilon = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_i (pH_{Reference_i} - pH_{Estimated_i})^2}{N}}, \quad (1.15)$$

was determined to be 0.0243 units of pH (2.2% of the RoI).

Frequently in cardiac surgery a moderate ipothermia condition is induced. To investigate the potential influence of this procedure on the recorded signal, measurements were performed varying the temperature from 37°C to 32°C. During this test, the temperature was initially kept at a value of 37°C, then was brought to 32°C, and finally changed back to 37°C. In Figure 1.22, I_{Ratio} versus time is shown; during the time period included between the two black vertical dashed lines the temperature was brought to 32°C. The red dots are the average values of the I_{Ratio} signal measured at each reference pH (green dots).

Results of the regression method, calculated considering only the pH measured at 37°C, applied to the mean values of I_{Ratio} (averaged over a time interval of 60 s) are shown in Figure 1.23. The diamonds are the reference pH measured at 37°C, whereas the triangles were measured at 32°C.

The coefficients \tilde{A} , \tilde{B} and the correlation index determined by the regression model are reported in Table 1.5.

The mean square errors, calculated according to (1.15), were 0.0150 units of pH for the acquisition at 37°C (1.3% of the RoI) and 0.0280 for the acquisition at 32°C (2.5% of the RoI).

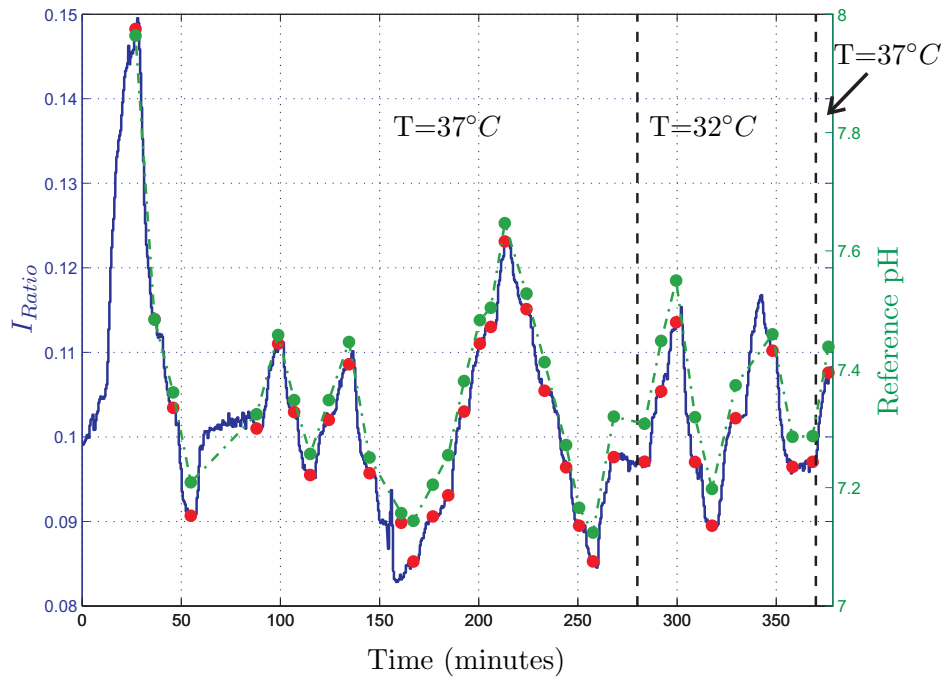


Figure 1.22: I_{Ratio} versus time measured during an in-vitro experiment. The red dots are the average values of the I_{Ratio} signal measured at each reference pH (green dots). To investigate the potential influence of a moderate ipothermia condition on the recorded signal, the temperature was initially kept at a value of 37°C , then was brought to 32°C (between the two black vertical dashed lines), and finally changed back to 37°C .

Table 1.5: Coefficients \tilde{A} and \tilde{B} of the regression model and correlation index, determined considering the mean values of I_{Ratio} (averaged over a time interval of 60 s) of the pH recorded at 37°C .

\tilde{A}	0.0743
\tilde{B}	-0.4440
R	0.9936

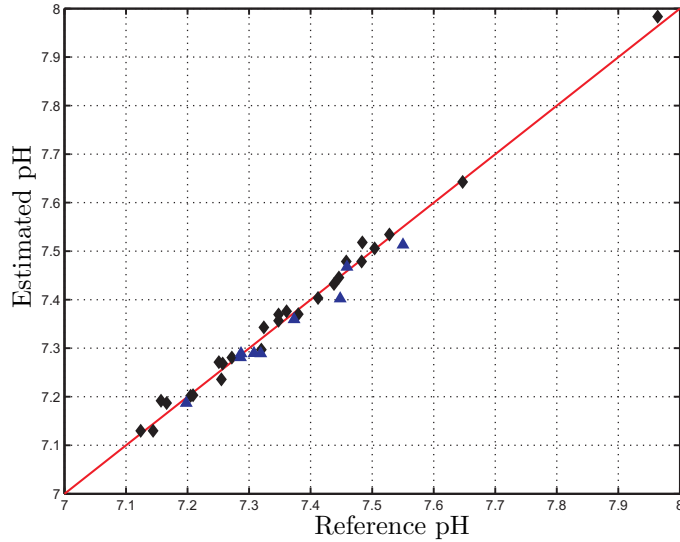


Figure 1.23: Estimated pH versus reference pH and the interpolation line, obtained by applying the regression model on the mean values of the I_{Ratio} recorded at 37°C. The diamonds are the data acquired at 37°C, whereas the triangles were measured at 32°C.

1.3.6.2 Ex-vivo experimental results

In ex-vivo experiments, the pH was changed only with little variations, thus avoiding to compromise the physiological functions of the animals. The linearity between the pH measured by the developed system and the pH determined by the commercial blood gas analyzer is shown in Figure 1.24. The coefficients \tilde{A} , \tilde{B} and the correlation index determined by the regression model are reported in Table 1.6.

Table 1.6: Coefficients \tilde{A} and \tilde{B} of the regression model and correlation index, determined considering the mean values of the I_{Ratio} (averaged over a time interval of 60 s) in the ex-vivo experiments on a pig and on a sheep.

	Pig	Sheep
\tilde{A}	0.1213	0.4889
\tilde{B}	-0.6541	-3.516
R	0.9431	0.9901

The mean error was determined to be 0.0038 units of pH (0.3% of the RoI) for the experiment performed on the sheep and 0.0208 units of pH (1.9% of the RoI) for the one performed on the pig.

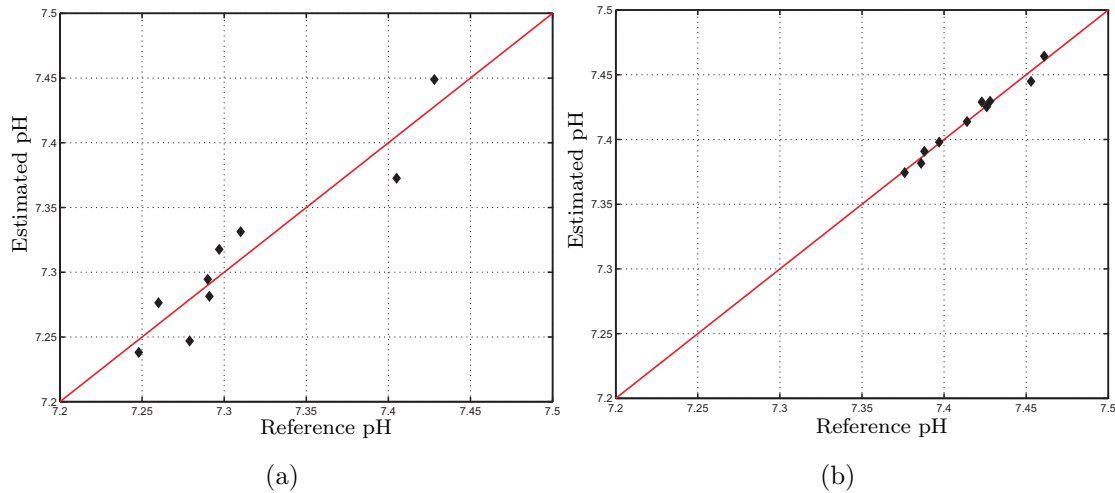


Figure 1.24: Estimated pH measured by the developed system versus reference pH determined by the commercial blood gas analyzer and the interpolation line, measured in the ex-vivo tests performed on the pig (a) and on the sheep (b).

1.3.7 Conclusions

A fluorescence pH sensor for measuring blood pH during ECC has been developed using the multi-analyte fluorescence-based sensor platform previously described. The sensor is based on the pH-dependent fluorescence of a purposely developed polymer matrix including a fluorescent monomer (fluorescein *O*-methacrylate 97%). Since the pK_a of the sensing element has been calculated to be 7.9, the sensor is suitable for measurement of near neutral solutions. Good performance in terms of linearity (in the range 7.0-8.0), stability and reproducibility were observed. It has to be noticed that the response time strongly depends on the measuring conditions, i.e. amplitude of the pH range and its limit values. Obviously, this parameter also depends on the physico-chemical characteristics of the sensing element. In fact, it has been observed that the response time could change considerably for different sensing elements. This variation is mainly due to different thicknesses and cross-linking degrees of the sensing elements, caused by the manual realization. For a thickness of the sensing film of 50 μm , a response time between ten minutes and one hour was measured. For many applications, this dynamic response may be sufficient; nevertheless it is always possible to reduce the thickness of the polymer film to improve the response time.

In the tests performed on blood, the sensor has shown a very high correlation (R of 0.9887 and 0.9936 in-vitro and R of 0.9431 and 0.9901 ex-vivo) between pH value determined by the developed device and pH measured by a commercial blood gas analyzer during in-vitro and ex-vivo experiments. After calibration, a mean

square error lower than the 3% of the RoI was determined both for in-vivo and ex-vivo measurements. Considering an isothermic treatment at 32°C, the mean square error, calculated with the calibration curve obtained considering only the pH values recorded at 37°C, was lower than 3% of the measuring range. This means that this sensor is suitable for isothermic treatment without the need of a new calibration curve.

However a different set of calibration coefficients was obtained for each sensing element. This variation is mainly associated to the reproducibility of the deposition of the fluorescence film on the substrate. Therefore a calibration procedure before each EEC treatment is required. This might be problematic, since at least two points of calibration are required. This procedure leads to two main disadvantages: (i) a commercial blood gas analyzer is always required in order to calibrate the sensor (limiting its field of application); (ii) calibrating the sensor on a human being may be difficult since, in normal conditions, pH has little variations. This means that the sensor is likely to be calibrated with two near points, with a high probability of committing a great error for pH values out of the range of calibration. These problems could be overcome calibrating the sensor with two buffer physiological solutions with an already-known pH. Nevertheless, this approach could be problematic for perfusionists who are accustomed to use only one priming physiological solution.

1.4 Haematic fluorescence-based pCO₂ sensor

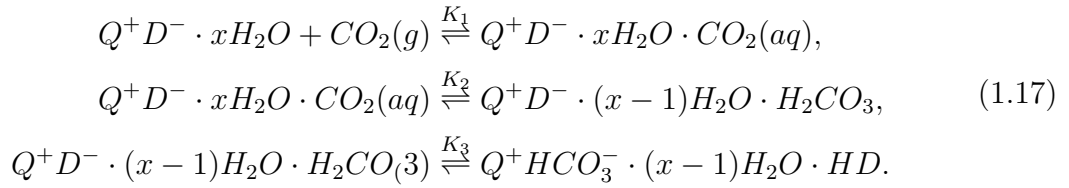
A fluorescence-based sensor for measuring blood pCO₂ during ECC has been developed using the multi-analyte fluorescence-based sensor platform previously described. In particular, the developed sensor platform allows to use the same light source, photodetectors, optics and electronics of the pH sensor, by simply changing the polymer sensing element. In the next Section, a brief description of the theoretical background is given, while in Section 1.4.2 the polymer sensing matrix fabrication will be reported. Finally, in Section 1.4.3 and Section 1.4.4 the experimental protocol is described and the results are reported and discussed.

1.4.1 Theoretical background

Carbon dioxide is usually sensed via an acid-base chemistry occurring inside a sensor membrane, e.g using a bicarbonate buffer of pH 8-9 contained in a gas-permeable polymer, impermeable to protons in order to prevent interference by pH. The following reversible reaction occurs in the buffer [82]:



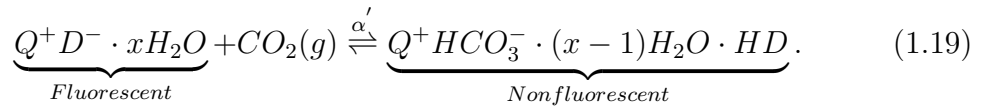
The change in pH can be detected by a pH indicator contained in the sensor layer. Nevertheless, this detection scheme suffers from several drawbacks, which include the control of the osmolarity and ionic strength of the water-buffer system. To overcome this problem, Mills et al. [83] proposed the plastic type CO₂ sensors, also called “naked sensors”, where the dye and a lipophilic base (rather than an aqueous solution) were contained in a plastic material. In this way, there is no more need of a buffer solution in the hydrophilic polymer. On the contrary, this sensing material consists of an indicator dye along with a quaternary ammonium hydroxide (phase transfer agent) in a polymer solution. This kind of sensor is faster and more reliable even though it suffers from high cross-sensitivity to foreign acid gases. Considering an acid-base indicator (HD), and a phase transfer agent (Q^+OH^-), the preparation of the polymer sensing matrix is based on the extraction, as the ion pair Q^+D^- , of the deprotonated form of the indicator, D^- , from a high polar protic medium (i.e. methanol/ethanol) into the less polar medium of the polymer. Nevertheless, when a phase transfer agent is used to extract an anion from an aqueous solution into an organic medium, in several cases a small number of molecules of water of solvation are found to be associated with the ion pair, thus it is more correct to represent the ion pair of D^- as $Q^+D^- \cdot xH_2O$ rather than Q^+D^- [83]. The working principle of the CO₂-sensing film can be summarized by the following equilibrium reactions:



If it is assumed that K_1 and K_2 are very small and K_3 is very large, the relationship between pCO_2 and the concentrations of the two main species present, $Q^+D^- \cdot xH_2O$ and $Q^+HCO_3^- \cdot (x-1)H_2O \cdot HD$, which are likely to correspond to different fluorescence intensities, will be given by the expression:

$$\alpha' pCO_2 = R = \frac{Q^+HCO_3^- \cdot (x-1)H_2O \cdot HD}{Q^+D^- \cdot xH_2O}, \tag{1.18}$$

where $\alpha' = K_1 \cdot K_2 \cdot K_3$. Thus, the overall process can be summarized as follow:



Calibrating the sensor by plotting R versus pCO_2 yields a linear graph. The variable R in Eq. 1.18 can be calculated from experimental fluorescence measurements using the following expression [84]:

$$R = \frac{I_{max} - I_s}{I_s - I_{min}}, \tag{1.20}$$

where I_{max} and I_{min} are the fluorescence intensities in the absence and 100% of CO_2 , respectively, and I_s is the observed fluorescence intensity. Combining Eq. 1.18 and 1.20, yields:

$$\alpha' pCO_2 = \frac{I_{max} - I_s}{I_s - I_{min}}, \tag{1.21}$$

and rewriting Eq. 1.21 in function of pCO_2 , I_s can be expressed as:

$$I_s = \frac{I_{max} + I_{min} \cdot \alpha' pCO_2}{1 + \alpha' pCO_2} = I_{min} + \frac{I_{max} - I_{min}}{1 + \alpha' pCO_2}. \tag{1.22}$$

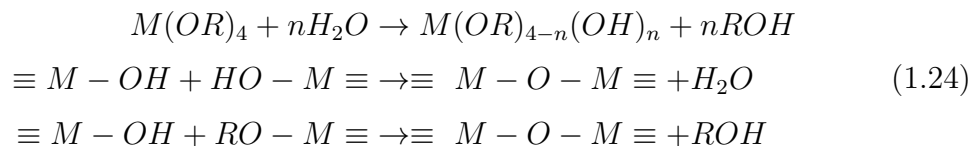
This expression can be used to make a calibration curve from which the pCO_2 concentration can be inversely extracted based on experimental measurements of fluorescence intensity [85, 86]. Finally, combining Eq. 1.22 and Eq. 1.4, the following equation is obtained:

$$pH = pK_a + b \log \left(\frac{1}{\alpha' pCO_2} \right), \tag{1.23}$$

which represents the modified Henderson-Hasselbalch equation (Eq. 1.6), where α' is equal to $0.03/[HCO_3^-]$.

1.4.2 Fabrication of the polymer matrix

Organic-inorganic nanocomposites represent a class of innovative materials which can be defined as heterogeneous materials in which organic and inorganic components are intimately mixed, and at least one of the phase domains has a dimension lower than 100 nm. These nanocomposites are increasingly important materials due to their peculiar properties resulting from the synergism between the characteristics of each individual phase. It is important to point out that the combination of inorganic and organic phases at the nanometer scale into a single material opens a vast new area of materials science that has extraordinary implications in the development of multifunctional materials. Organic-inorganic hybrids can be classified according to the nature of their interface: the material can be defined as a class I hybrid if the organic and inorganic phases are simply mixed and only weak bonds (van der Waals, ionic and/or hydrogen bonds) are present at their interface; on the opposite, class II hybrids are materials in which the organic and inorganic components are bonded together by strong covalent or ionic-covalent linkages. Organic-inorganic hybrid materials have gained a lot of interest due to the remarkable change in mechanical, thermal, barrier, electrical and magnetic properties compared to pure organic polymers. These hybrid materials already found commercial applications for different uses in particular in the field of protective and functional coatings for plastic, glass, ceramic and metal substrates. Different strategies can be formulated to prepare these materials referring to the following two main approaches: (a) assembling or self-assembling or dispersion of well-defined nanobuilding blocks consisting of perfectly calibrated pre-formed objects that keep their integrity in the final material; (b) synthesis based on very convenient soft chemistry including conventional sol-gel chemistry, the use of specific bridged and polyfunctional precursors and hydrothermal synthesis. Thanks to its very mild operative conditions, the most commonly applied preparation methods are based on the sol-gel process. The classical sol-gel process consists in a two-step hydrolysis-condensation reaction occurring in a solution of metal alkoxides $M(OR)_x$ (most commonly a silicon alkoxide $Si(OR)_4$) under acidic or basic conditions, according to the following reaction scheme:



The presence in the reactive system of an organic oligomer or polymer bearing suitable functional groups which are reactive towards the other reactants of the sol-gel process (typically alkoxy silane groups) leads to the formation of covalent

bonds between organic and inorganic moieties, which remain phase separated on a nanometric scale (class II hybrids), but give rise to a resulting material which is macroscopically uniform. It is well known that the final morphology of these hybrid materials, as their physical properties, is strictly dependent on the characteristics of the organic polymer, such as its molecular weight and its solubility in the sol-gel solution, as well as the presence of reactive functionalities and associated chemical reaction rate.

For the preparation of the pCO_2 sensor, an organic-inorganic hybrid matrix was prepared by using an organic component based on commercial perfluoropolyethers (PFPE). PFPE are polymer chains mainly composed by $-(CF_2O)-$ and $-(C_2F_4O)-$ repeating units alternating along the chain; PFPE are characterized by an extremely high chain mobility, hence very low glass transition temperatures, chemical inertia, solvent and high temperature resistance, barrier properties towards water and water vapor, and a very high permeability towards CO_2 gas. These features certainly make PFPE suitable candidates for the preparation of functional materials for CO_2 sensing because their properties are suitable for the preparation of high-reponse membranes. Commercial triethoxysilane-terminated PFPE [PFPE-Si(OEt)₃] were reacted with tetraethoxysilane [TEOS, Si(OEt)₄] for the preparation of a sol-gel hybrid containing 90% wt of organic fluorinated phase and 10% wt of inorganic silica phase. Diluted HCl (37 %) was used as catalyst to induce condensation reactions between the -Si(OEt) units, for getting a crosslinked structure able to rapidly sense CO_2 without risk of physical unstability. HPTS (8-hydroxypyrene 1,3,6, trisulfonic acid trisodium salt) was dissolved in small amounts in the solution of organic and inorganic precursors and embedded inside the hybrid matrix to act as optical indicator of CO_2 level. This fluorescent dye is characterized by excitation and emission spectra similar to those of fluorescein *O*-methacrylate, which has been used for the pH sensor. Thus, the same light source and optical filters were used for the pCO_2 sensor.

1.4.3 Experimental protocol

The sensor has been firstly tested in air, then on cow blood. For the test in air, the measurement setup shown in Figure 1.25 has been realized. It consists of the multi-analyte fluorescence-based sensor platform previously described with the flow cuvette filled with carbon dioxide and nitrogen respectively, in order to simulate the condition of absence and 100% of CO₂. In order to generate CO₂ and N₂, a CO₂ cylinder and a nitrogen generator have been used. Finally, a three-way valve has been used to commute from one gas to the other one. All the measurements were performed at room temperature.

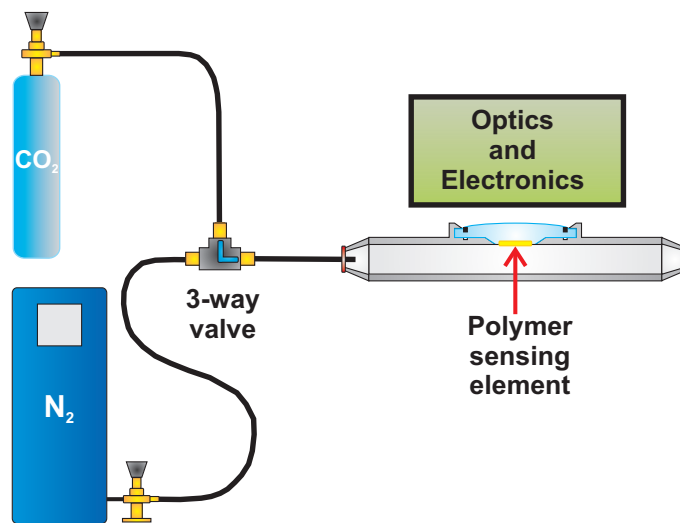


Figure 1.25: Schematic representation of the measurement setup used to test the pCO₂ sensor. It consists of the multi-analyte fluorescence-based sensor platform previously described, a CO₂ cylinder, a nitrogen generator and a three-way valve to commute between the two gases.

In the in-vitro test, the experimental protocol and the measurement setup were the same of the pH sensor, previously described in Section 1.3.4.

1.4.4 Experimental results

1.4.4.1 Test in air

In Figure 1.26, I_{Ratio} (defined in Eq. 1.2) versus time is shown, for a measurement performed in air, changing the concentration of CO₂ between 0% and 100%, using the measurement setup described in Figure 1.25. The valleys correspond to the maximum concentration of CO₂, whereas the peaks correspond to the minimum concentration of CO₂.

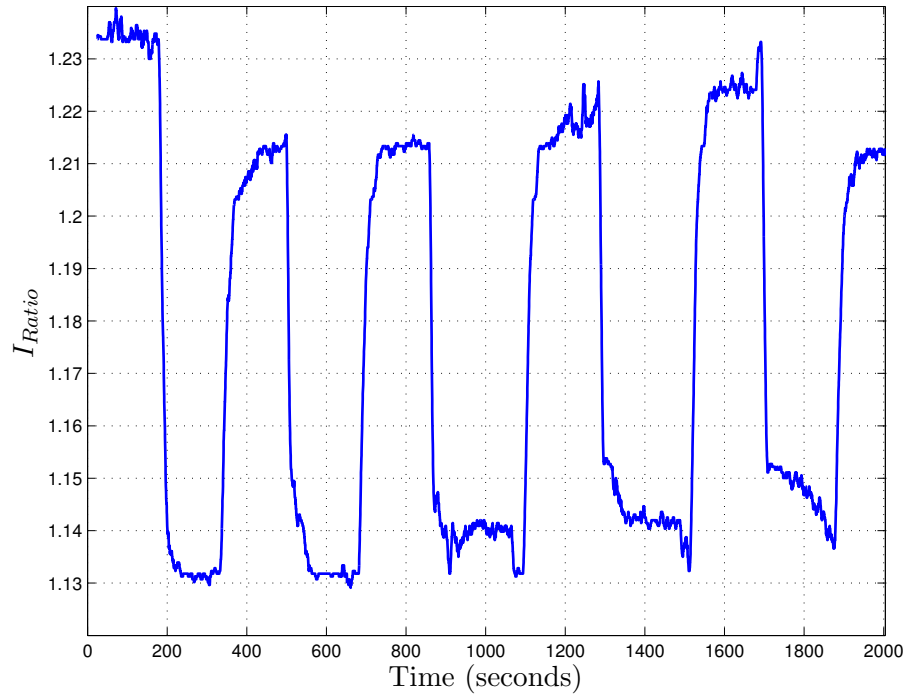


Figure 1.26: I_{Ratio} versus time acquired changing the concentration of CO_2 between 0% and 100%. The valleys correspond to the maximum concentration of CO_2 , whereas the peaks correspond to the minimum concentration of CO_2 .

1.4.4.2 Test in-vitro on cow blood

In Figure 1.27, I_{Ratio} versus time is shown, for a measurement performed on cow blood, changing the pCO_2 of the blood. The red dots are the average values of the I_{Ratio} signal, calculated over a time interval of 60 s, recorded at each reference pCO_2 , measured by the blood gas analyzer (green dots). During this test, both the flow rate and the temperature of blood were kept constant, at a value of 2 L/min and 37°C respectively. The pCO_2 of the blood was changed using gases, in particular carbon dioxide and nitrogen. The oxygen was kept quite constant, thus the saturation was always above 90%. The hematocrit of the blood was always kept at a value of 33-34%.

The mean values of the I_{Ratio} signal versus the pCO_2 values determined by the blood gas analyzer are shown in Figure 1.28, together with the interpolation curve expressed by Eq. 1.22. I_{max} , I_{min} and α' were determined to be 0.493, 0.299 and 0.012 respectively ($R=0.989$).

As previously described in Section 1.4.1, there exist a linear relation between parameter R (Eq. 1.20) and measured pCO_2 values. Thus, in Figure 1.29, R values versus measured pCO_2 values are shown, together with the interpolation line (slope=80.78, intercept=2.31, $R=0.9666$).

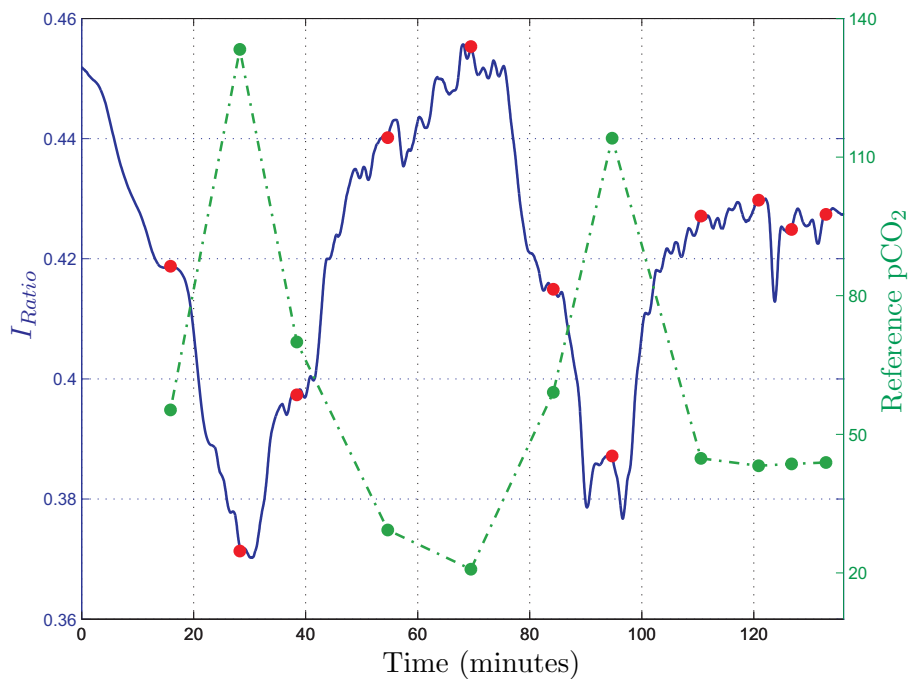


Figure 1.27: I_{Ratio} versus time acquired at different pCO_2 values during a test performed on cow blood. The red dots are the mean values of the I_{Ratio} signal, calculated over a time interval of 60 s, recorded at each reference pCO_2 , measured by the blood gas analyzer (green dots)

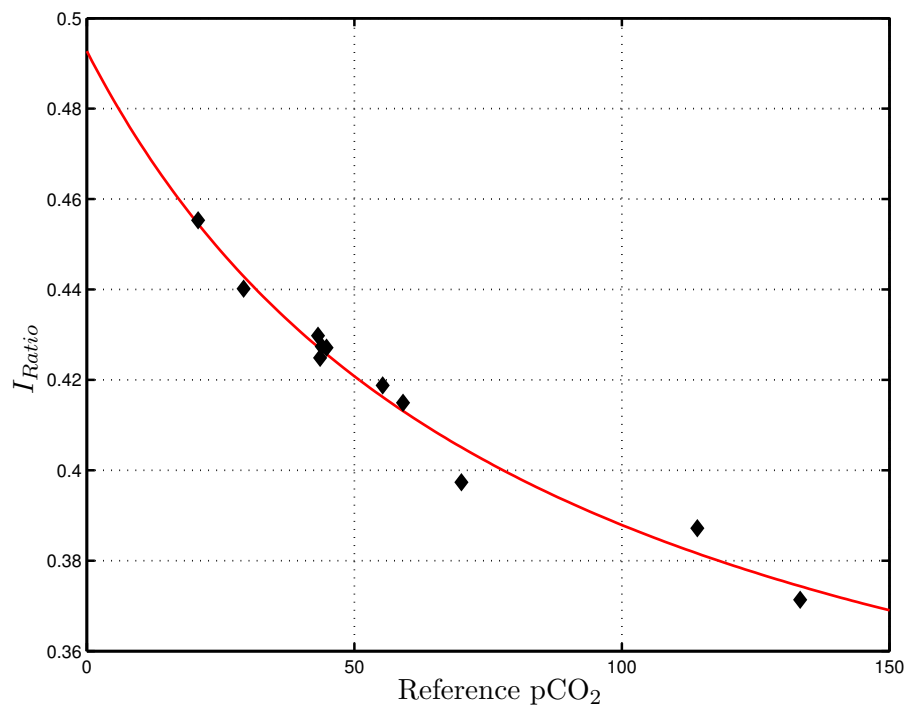


Figure 1.28: Mean values of the I_{Ratio} signal, calculated over a time interval of 60 s, versus reference pCO_2 , measured by the blood gas analyzer and interpolation curve.

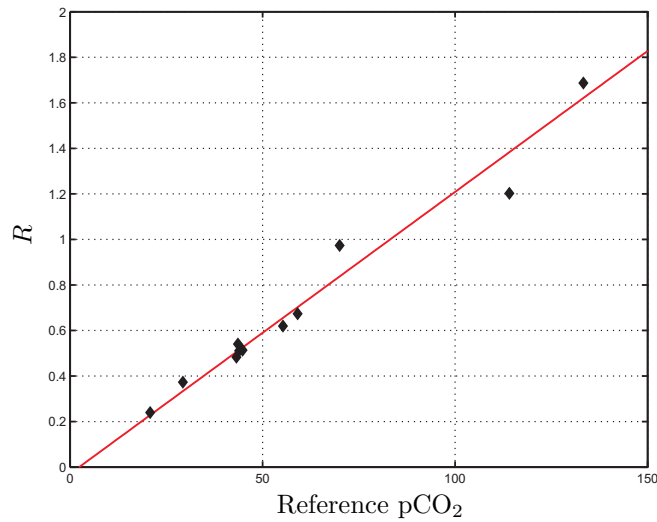


Figure 1.29: R values versus reference $p\text{CO}_2$, measured by the blood gas analyzer and interpolation line.

Finally, in Figure 1.30a, the estimated $p\text{CO}_2$ values versus the reference ones, are shown. They have been determined through the linear interpolation of the R values. The difference between the estimated and the reference $p\text{CO}_2$, is shown in Figure 1.30a. The mean error value, calculated through Eq. 1.15, was determined to be 6 mmHg.

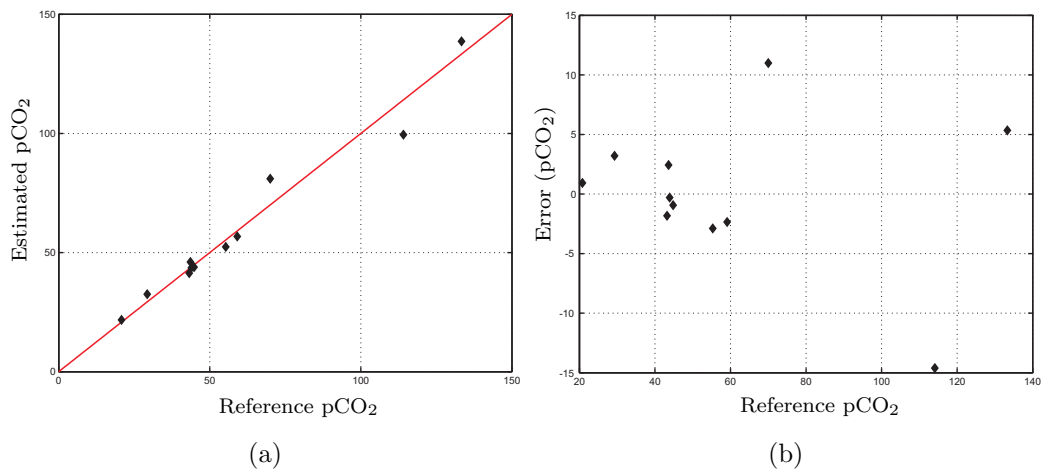


Figure 1.30: Estimated $p\text{CO}_2$ versus reference $p\text{CO}_2$ and interpolation line (a). Difference between the estimated $p\text{CO}_2$ and the reference $p\text{CO}_2$, versus the reference $p\text{CO}_2$ (b).

1.4.5 Conclusions

A fluorescence $p\text{CO}_2$ sensor for measuring blood $p\text{CO}_2$ during ECC has been developed using the multi-analyte fluorescence-based sensor platform previously described. The sensor is based on the pH-dependent fluorescence of a purposely developed polymer matrix including a fluorescent dye (HPTS).

Preliminary tests have been performed both in air and on cow blood. The sensor response has been coherent with the $p\text{CO}_2$ variations, showing a linear behavior for $p\text{CO}_2$ concentrations between 0 and ca. 70 mmHg.

The linear range depends both on the pK_a of the fluorescent indicator and on the concentration of the phase transfer agent. Thus, by properly tuning the phase transfer agent concentration, the linear range can be increased.

1.5 Comparison with the state of the art

Table 1.7: Characteristics comparison between the developed system and the main commercial systems.

pH					
Name	Description	Type of measurement	Measuring range ^a	Test range ^b	
Developed system	Optical fluorescence sensor for measuring haematic pH	Continuous non-contact measurement	6.50-9.00	7.00-8.00	
ABL 800 Flex	Blood gas analyzer	Non continuous measurement	6.30-8.00	6.85-7.55	
pCO ₂					
Name	Description	Type of measurement	Measuring range	Test range	
Developed system	Optical fluorescence sensor for measuring haematic pCO ₂	Continuous non-contact measurement	10-70 mmHg	10-130 mmHg	
ABL 800 Flex	Blood gas analyzer	Non continuous measurement	5-250 mmHg	17-160 mmHg	

^a The Measuring range for a parameter is the range within which the analyzer is physically capable of measuring. The measuring range corresponds to the 'range of indication' as defined in the 'International vocabulary of basic and general terms in the metrology' (VIM).

^b The Test range for a parameter is the range within which accuracy and precision of a measured parameter has been specified and intended to lie within specified limits. The test range corresponds to the 'measuring range' as defined in the 'International vocabulary of basic and general terms in the metrology' (VIM).

Chapter 2

Electrochemical SPR sensor

2.1 Introduction

With the advent of the “genomic era” nucleic acid testing technologies have become more important than ever. Nowadays, “DNA chips” are used in several research laboratories. A variety of detection schemes is currently under investigation, ranging from surface plasmon resonance sensors [87, 88], electrochemical methods [89, 90], mass sensors [91] and DNA conductivity [92], to electronic field effect sensors [93, 94].

Recently, it has been recognized that the molecular packing density within the DNA layer crucially determines the functionality of the nucleic acids. For instance, the ability of surface immobilized probe strands to capture complementary target sequences from solution is largely suppressed if the layer density is too high [95, 96]. Electrically induced desorption of DNA [97] is a common technique to control the DNA surface density. Starting from relatively densely packed monolayers, the surface density is gradually reduced by applying negative potentials to the substrate which leads to a release of nucleic acids from the surface. The basic principle relies on electrostatic interactions and electrochemical reduction. Since DNA is highly negative in solutions of $\text{pH} > 1$, it is repelled from the surface when a negative potential is applied to the substrate [98, 99]. In addition, also the sulfur-gold bond, which tethers the DNA to the surface, can be broken by electrochemical reduction through the application of negative potentials [100, 101, 102].

Surface Plasmon Resonance (SPR) is a powerful tool to monitor the changes in the refractive index at a solid-liquid interface. Thus, it has been widely used to characterize interactions between biomolecules [103, 104] and, in particular, to study DNA hybridization [105, 106, 107]. In addition, since SPR needs a metal film, it can be inherently combined with electrochemical (EC) methods, where a metal film on a glass slide is usually used as both the surface plasmon medium and the working electrode [108, 109, 110, 111].

In this chapter the design and the realization of a system which combines electrochemical and SPR techniques on the same sensing chip is presented. A comparison between the acquired electrochemical and SPR signals has been performed. Furthermore, the electrochemical SPR biosensor was used to study DNA desorption and regeneration. In the following Section, the system will be described. In particular, after a brief theoretical introduction, the design and realization of the electrochemical electrodes will be presented in Section 2.2.2, while in Section 2.2.3 the realized custom electronics will be described, together with the management software. Finally, in Section 2.3, the experimental results are reported and discussed.

2.2 Materials and Methods

The developed system is based on a four-channel SPR sensor system developed at the Institute of Photonics and Electronics AS CR (Prague) [112], shown in Figure 2.1.

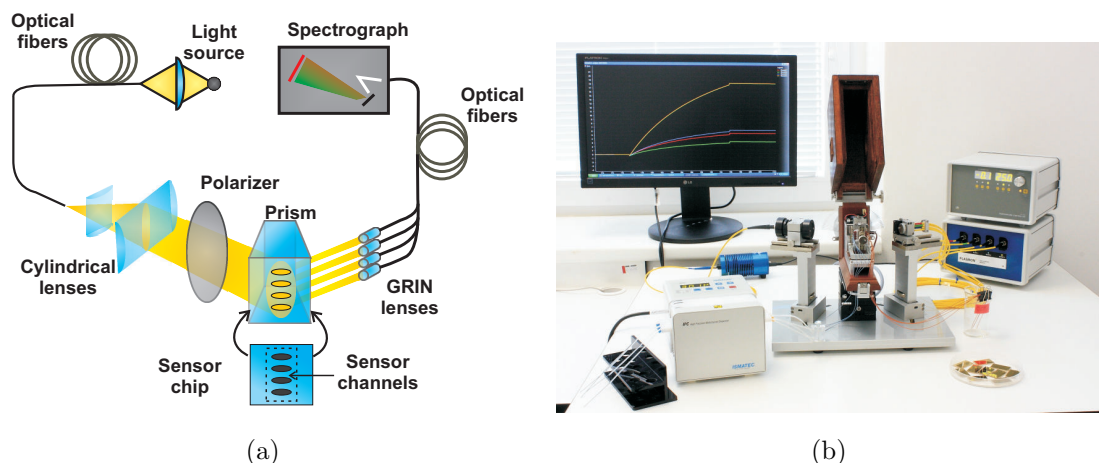


Figure 2.1: Schematic representation (a) and picture (b) of a four-channel SPR sensor system developed at the Institute of Photonics and Electronics AS CR, Prague.

The sensor consists of a halogen lamp, a SPR sensor platform and a spectrometer. White light from the halogen lamp is brought to the SPR sensor platform via a multimode optical fiber. The sensor platform comprises an input collimator producing a large diameter parallel beam, a glass prism with an attached SPR chip (coated with a 50 nm thick gold layer), polarizer and multichannel output collimator. The output collimator couples the light into optical fibers, which are connected to inputs of the spectrograph. Since the SPR system provides four independent channels, an in-situ electrochemical cell has been realized in each channel, allowing four simultaneous electrochemical measurements. In particular, the gold substrate

used for SPR measurement was used as the working electrode and two further planar gold electrodes (the reference and the counter electrodes) were inserted in each channel of the flow cell. Together with the realization of the electrochemical cells, a custom electronics has been designed and realized. The electronics is able to set an arbitrary potential between the reference and working electrodes and to measure the current flowing between the counter and the working electrodes.

2.2.1 Theoretical background

The developed system aims to combine SPR and electrochemical techniques on the same sensing chip. In the following paragraphs, a brief theoretical introduction on SPR sensors and on electrochemical techniques is given.

2.2.1.1 Surface Plasmon Resonance sensors

In principle, Surface Plasmon Resonance (SPR) sensors are thin-film refractometers that measure changes in the refractive index occurring at the surface of a metal film supporting a surface plasmon [113]. A surface plasmon excited by a light wave propagates along the metal film, and its evanescent field probes the medium (sample) in contact with the metal film. A change in the refractive index of the dielectric gives rise to a change in the propagation constant of the surface plasmon, which alters the characteristics of the light wave coupled to the surface plasmon (e.g., coupling angle, coupling wavelength, intensity, phase). Four different kinds of modulation can be exploited in SPR sensors, on the basis of which characteristic of the light wave modulated by a surface plasmon is measured:

angular modulation a monochromatic light wave is used to excite a surface plasmon. The strength of coupling between the incident wave and the surface plasmon is observed at multiple angles of incidence, typically by employing a convergent light beam. The excitation of surface plasmons is observed as a dip in the angular spectrum of reflected light. The angle of incidence yielding the strongest coupling is measured and used as a sensor output;

wavelength modulation a surface plasmon is excited by a collimated light wave containing multiple wavelengths, typically a beam of polychromatic light. The excitation of surface plasmons is observed as a dip in the wavelength spectrum of reflected light. The wavelength yielding the strongest coupling is measured and used as a sensor output;

intensity modulation a surface plasmon is excited by a light wave at a single angle of incidence and wavelength, and the intensity of light wave serves as a

sensor output;

phase modulation a surface plasmon is excited by a light wave at a single angle of incidence and wavelength, and the shift in phase of the light wave coupled to the surface plasmon is measured as the sensor output.

A light wave can couple to a surface plasmon at a metal-dielectric interface if the component of light's wavevector that is parallel to the interface matches the propagation constant of the surface plasmon. As the propagation constant of a surface plasmon at a metal-dielectric interface is larger than the wavenumber of the light wave in the dielectric, surface plasmons cannot be excited directly by light incident onto a smooth metal surface. The wavevector of light can be increased to match that of the surface plasmon by the attenuated total reflection or diffraction. This enhancement and subsequently the coupling between light and a surface plasmon are performed in a coupling device, such as a prism coupler. In the Kretschmann configuration of the attenuated total reflection (ATR) method (Figure 2.2)[114], a light wave passes through a high refractive index prism and is totally reflected at the base of the prism, generating an evanescent wave penetrating a thin metal film.

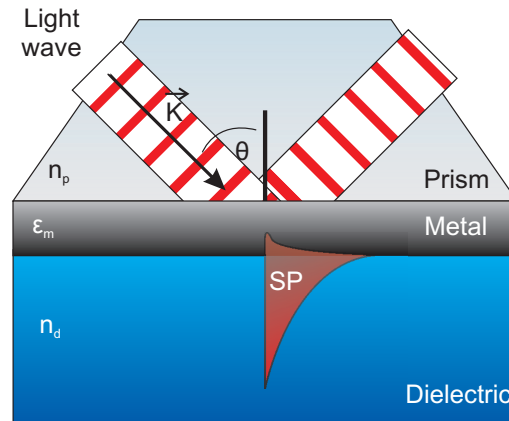


Figure 2.2: Coupling of light to a surface plasmon via a prism coupler.

The evanescent wave propagates along the interface with the propagation constant, which can be adjusted to match that of the surface plasmon by controlling the angle of incidence. Thus, the matching condition

$$\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} n_p \sin(\theta) = \text{Re}\beta_{SP} \quad (2.1)$$

can be fulfilled, allowing the evanescent wave to be coupled to the surface plasmon. θ denotes the angle of incidence, n_p denotes the refractive index of the prism ($n_p > n_d$), and β_{SP} denotes the propagation constant of the surface plasmon. Figure 2.3a shows a typical SPR spectrum, with the dip in correspondence to the

resonance wavelength. Through an ad-hoc algorithm, the dip is tracked and plotted versus time, obtaining the curve shown in Figure 2.3b.

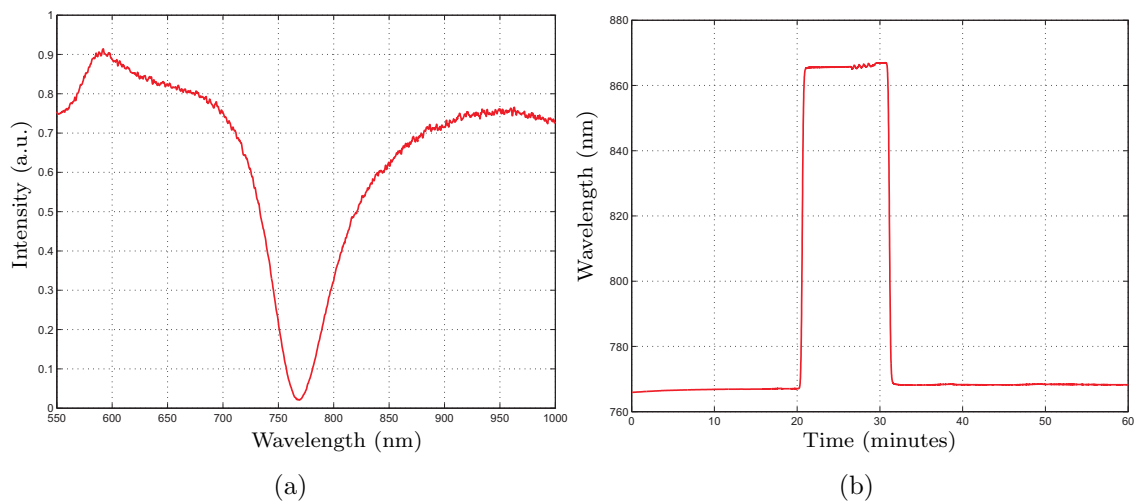


Figure 2.3: SPR spectrum, with a dip in correspondence to the resonance wavelength (a) and the tracked dip versus time (b).

2.2.1.2 Electrochemical techniques

The area of analytical chemistry which studies the movement of electrons in an oxidation-reduction reaction is called electrochemistry. In particular, electrochemical techniques deploy the measurement of potential, charge, or current to determine an analyte concentration or to characterize an analyte chemical reactivity [115, 116].

Although there are only three basic electrochemical signals, there are several possible experimental designs. The simplest division of electrochemical techniques is between bulk techniques, where a property of the solution in the electrochemical cell is measured, and interfacial techniques, where the potential, charge, or current depend on the species present at the interface between an electrode and the solution. The measurement of a solution conductivity, which is proportional to the total concentration of dissolved ions, is an example of a bulk electrochemical technique. A determination of pH using a pH electrode is an example of an interfacial electrochemical technique.

Electrochemical measurements are made in an electrochemical cell consisting of two or more electrodes and the electronic circuitry for controlling and measuring the current and the potential.

The simplest electrochemical cell uses two electrodes. The potential of one electrode is sensitive to the analyte concentration, and is called *working electrode*. The

second electrode, called *auxiliary electrode*, completes the electrical circuit and provides a reference potential to measure the working electrode potential.

Ideally the counter electrode potential remains constant. Nevertheless, since in several applications it is not constant, the auxiliary electrode is replaced with two electrodes: a *reference electrode*, whose potential remains constant, and a *counter electrode* that completes the electrical circuit.

Basically, there are three experimental designs: (i) measurement of potential with zero current, (ii) measurement of potential while controlling the current, and (iii) measurement of current while controlling the potential.

Each of these experimental designs uses a different type of instrument, in particular: potentiometer to measure the potential under zero current condition, galvanostat, to control the current flowing in the electrochemical cell and finally potentiostat, to control the potential of the working electrode. In particular, potentiostats are amplifiers used to control the potential between the working and the reference electrode, to a constant value, as schematically shown in Figure 2.4.

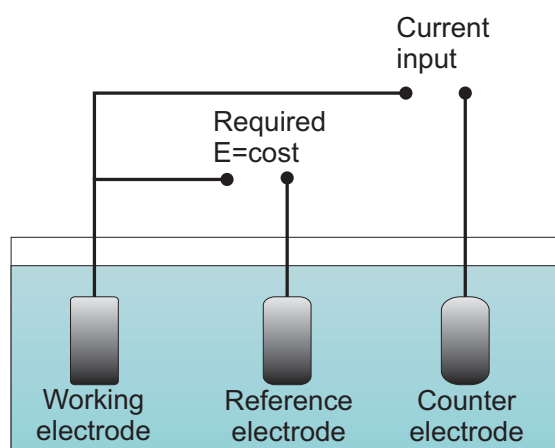


Figure 2.4: Schematic representation of the working principle of a potentiostat.

A current is forced to flow between the counter and the working electrodes in order to keep the potential of the working electrode to a fixed value with respect to the reference electrode. Thus, the potentiostat has to measure the potential difference between the working and the reference electrode, compare this value with a preset voltage and set a current between counter and working electrodes to counteract the difference between the preset voltage and the actual working electrode potential.

Interfacial electrochemical techniques are divided in two main categories: static and dynamic techniques. In the former a current is not allowed to pass through the analyte solution (e.g. potentiometry), whereas in the latter a current can flow in the analyte solution. In addition, dynamic techniques are divided in controlled-current

techniques (e.g. controlled-current coulometry) and controlled-potential techniques. Finally, the last ones are divided in variable and fixed potential techniques, such as cyclic voltammetry and chronoamperometry respectively. In the next Sections, a brief description of these two techniques is provided.

2.2.1.2.1 Cyclic voltammetry In a cyclic voltammetry, the potential applied to the working electrode is changed in order to complete a scan in both direction. In particular, a typical potential-excitation signal is shown in Figure 2.5a. In this example, the potential is initially scanned to more positive values, resulting in the following oxidation reaction for the species R :



When the potential reaches a predetermined switching potential, the direction of the scan is reversed towards more negative potentials. The species O , generated during the forward scan, is reduced back to R during the reverse scan.



The graph obtained by plotting the measured current versus the applied potential is called voltammogram. A typical voltammogram is shown in Figure 2.5b. It has separate peaks for the oxidation and the reduction reactions, each characterized by a peak potential and a peak current.

The peak current in cyclic voltammetry is given by the Randles-Sevcik equation:

$$i_P = (2.69 \cdot 10^5) n^{\frac{3}{2}} AD^{\frac{1}{2}} \nu^{\frac{1}{2}} C = KC, \quad (2.4)$$

where n is the number of electrons in the redox reaction, A is the area of the working electrode, D is the diffusion coefficient for the electroactive species, ν is the scan rate, and C is the concentration of the electroactive species at the electrode. For a well-behaved system, the anodic and cathodic peak currents are equal, and the ratio $i_{p,a}/i_{p,c}$ is 1.00. The half-wave potential, $E_{1/2}$, is midway between the anodic and cathodic peak potentials:

$$E_{1/2} = \frac{E_{p,a} + E_{p,c}}{2}. \quad (2.5)$$

Scanning the potential in both directions allows to explore the electrochemical behavior of species generated at the electrode.

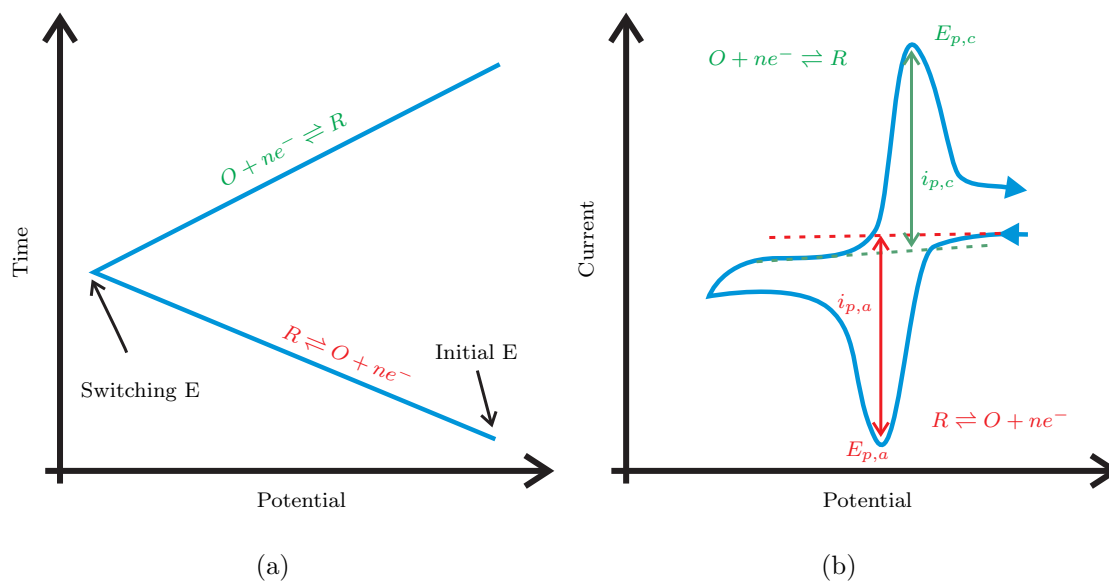


Figure 2.5: One cycle of the triangular potential-excitation signal showing the initial potential and the switching potential (a) and resulting cyclic voltammogram showing the measurement of the peak currents and peak potentials (b).

2.2.1.2.2 Chronoamperometry In chronoamperometry technique, a constant potential is applied to the working electrode and the current is measured as a function of time.

2.2.2 Electrodes realization

Three electrodes had to be placed inside each channel of the flow cell, in order to combine the SPR and electrochemical techniques. The gold substrate used for SPR measurement was used as the working electrode and two further planar gold electrodes (the reference and the counter electrodes) were deposited on a PCB and inserted in the same channel, as schematically shown in Figure 2.6.

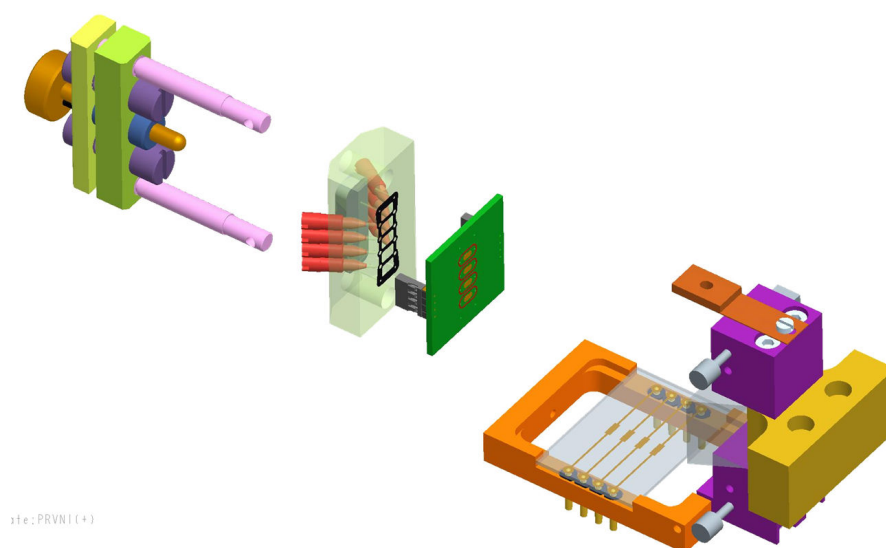


Figure 2.6: Schematic representation of an open flow cell. The gold substrate of the SPR chip was used as the working electrode and two further planar gold electrodes were deposited on a PCB and inserted in the same flow cell.

Two different geometries have been proposed; in the first one the working and the reference electrodes are realized on the gold substrate used for the SPR measurement while the counter electrode is realized on the upper part of the flow cell (PCB); in the second one only the working electrode is realized on the gold substrate and the reference and counter electrodes are realized in the upper part of the flow cell (PCB). The electrodes on the glass substrate used for SPR measurement were realized through gold evaporation. Two different masks were designed and realized for the two different geometries. The gold layer was 50 nm thick and before depositing the gold, a 5 nm thick Ti layer has been deposited. In Figure 2.7, the masks and two SPR chips (with different geometries) are shown.

The electrodes on PCB, shown in Figure 2.8, were realized in chemical gold.

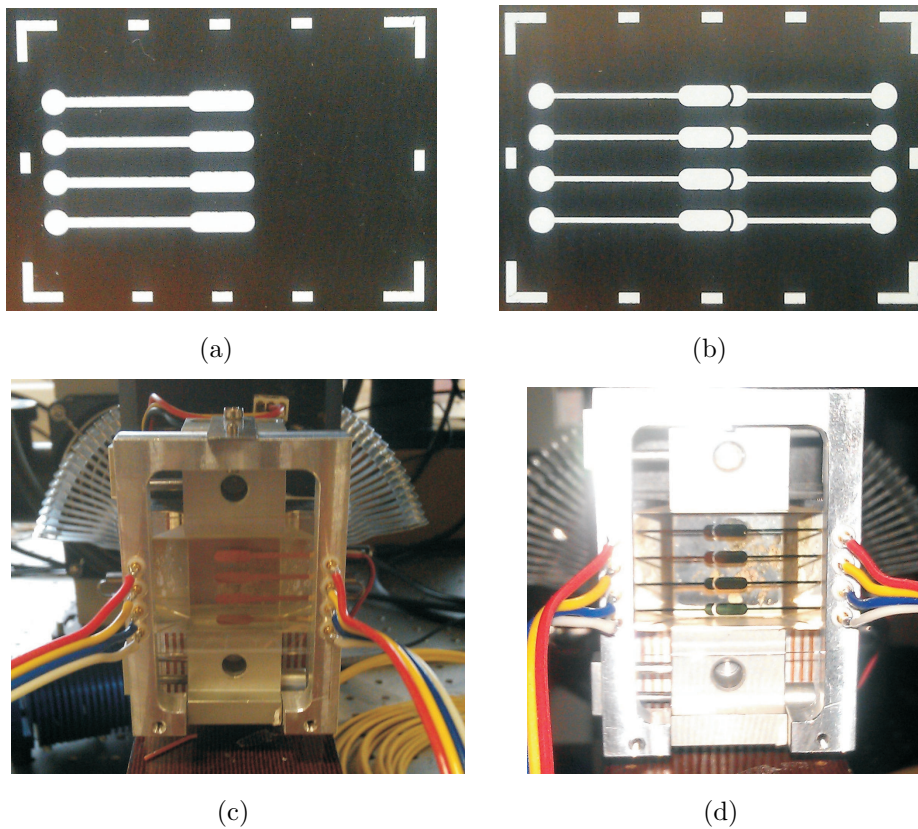


Figure 2.7: Pictures of the realized masks and SPR chips, with only the working electrode on the SPR chip (a),(c), and with both the working and the reference electrodes on the SPR chip (b),(d).

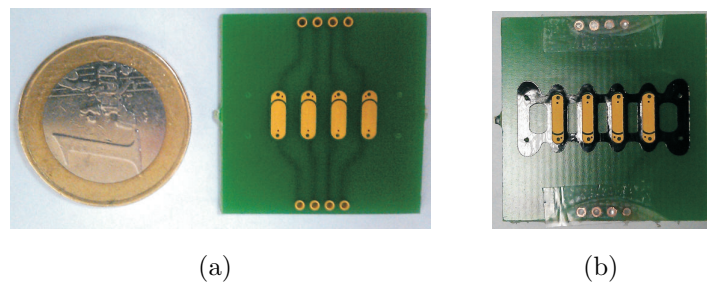


Figure 2.8: Pictures of the electrodes realized in chemical gold on a PCB. It can be noticed the presence of two electrodes, the reference and the counter ones. In addition, around the electrodes, a vinyl gasket mask has been placed to form the boundaries of the flow cell. (b)

The flow cell was built using the SPR glass chip and the electrodes PCB as the lower and upper surface respectively, while using a vinyl gasket (60 μm thick) to form its boundaries. Finally, the electrical contacts were realized through wire connectors for PCB electrodes whereas using spring loaded contacts, directly inserted in the mechanical cage, for the electrodes realized on the SPR glass chip. A scheme of a section of the whole flow cell is shown in Figure 2.9.

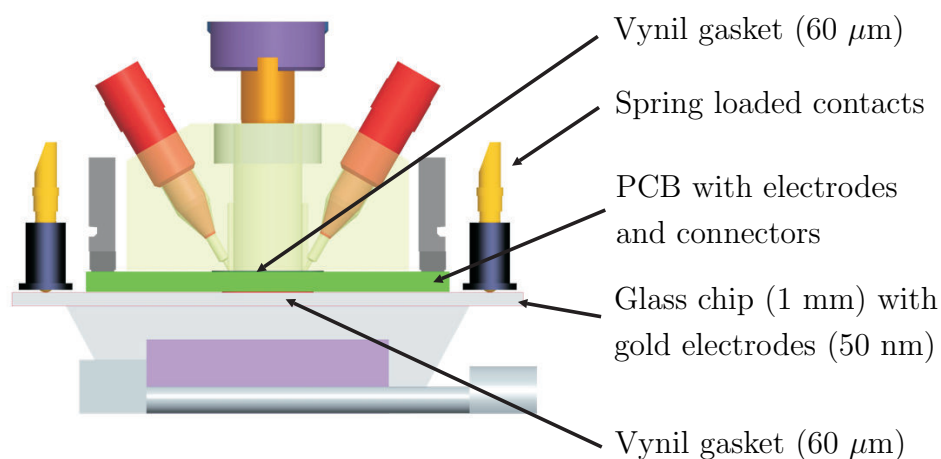


Figure 2.9: Schematic representation of a section of the flow cell. It can be noticed: the glass chip with gold electrodes, the vinyl gasket and the PCB with the other gold electrodes and connectors.

2.2.3 Electronics

The realized electronics is able to set an arbitrary potential between the working and reference electrodes, to force and measure a current flowing between the counter and the working electrodes and to communicate with a PC. A scheme and a picture of the developed electronics is shown in Figure 2.10.

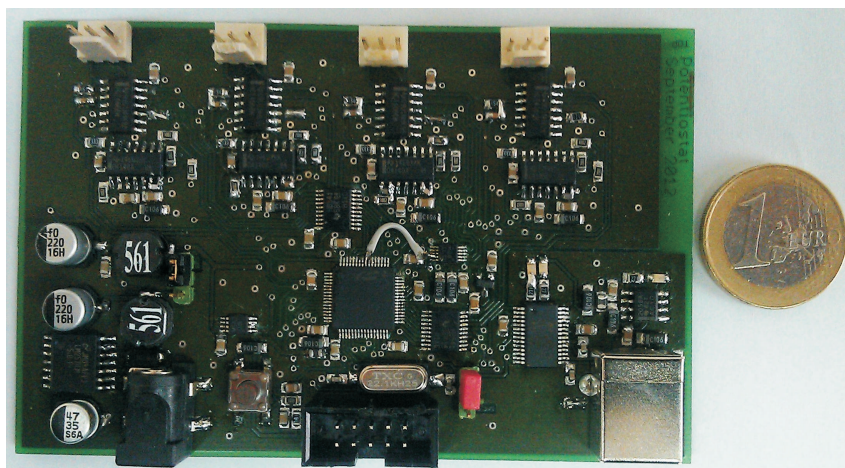
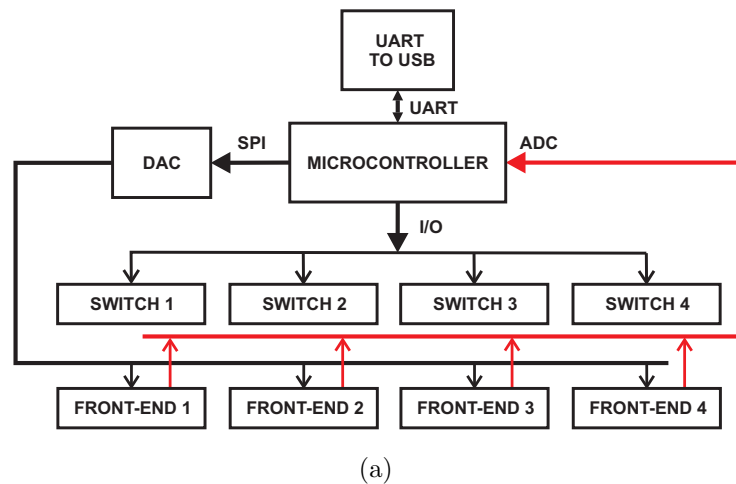


Figure 2.10: Schematic representation (a) and picture (b) of the developed electronics. It basically consists of two parts, a digital and an analog one. The former controls the board and communicates with the PC, while the latter represents the front-end electronics, which has to measure a potential between the working and the reference electrodes and force a current between the working and the counter electrodes.

Basically, it consists of a digital and an analog part. The former controls the board and communicate with the PC, the latter represents the front-end part, which measures the potential between the reference and the working electrodes and force

a current between the working and the counter electrodes. A brief description of both parts will be provided in the next paragraphs.

2.2.3.1 Front-ent electronics

The front-end electronics is based on the Wenking potentiostat scheme [117]. This architecture has been integrated with analog switches, thus allowing to activate each channel separately and to change the gain of the transimpedance amplifier (Figure 2.11).

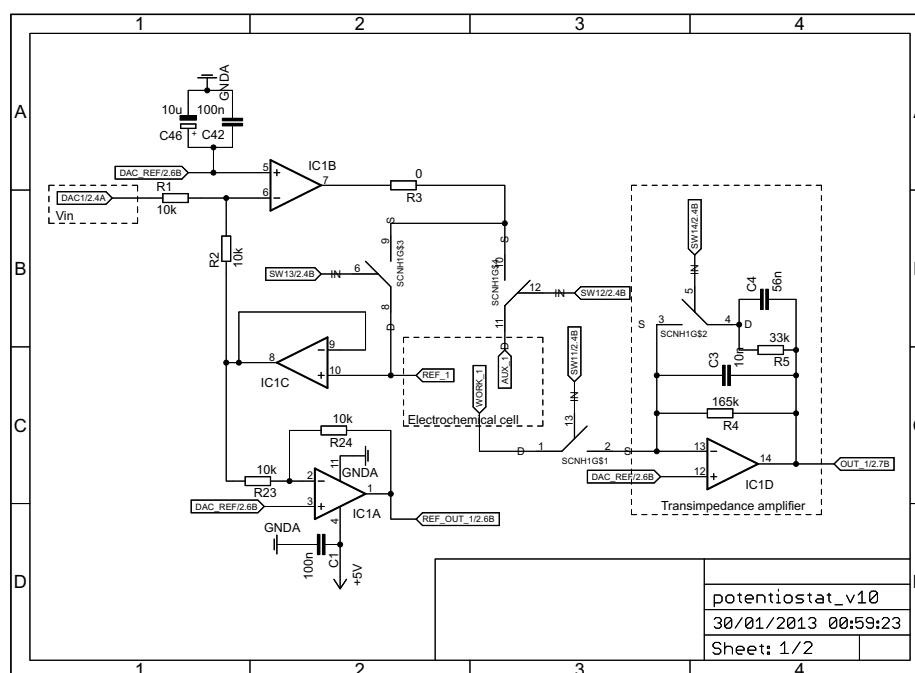


Figure 2.11: Schematic representation of the front-end electronics. It consists of a Wenking potentiostat circuit and a transimpedance amplifier to measure the current flowing between the working and the counter electrodes. Analog switches are used to select the active channels and to change the gain of the transimpedance amplifier.

2.2.3.2 Digital electronics

The digital part consists of a microcontroller (C8051F005, Silicon Labs), an UART-to-USB converter (FT232R, FTDI Chip) and a four channel DAC (DAC7554, Texas Instrument). The DAC generates the input voltages for each channel independently.

2.2.4 Software interface

A software interface has been realized in LabVIEW to manage all the system. In particular, it allows to set the active channels and to use already implemented electrochemical techniques, such as cyclic voltammetry and chronoamperometry. In addition, it allows to set a square wave with tunable amplitude and frequency (range -2 V to 2 V, frequency: 0.2-2000 Hz). In Figure 2.12, the main interface is shown, whereas the VI hierarchy is reported in Figure 2.13.

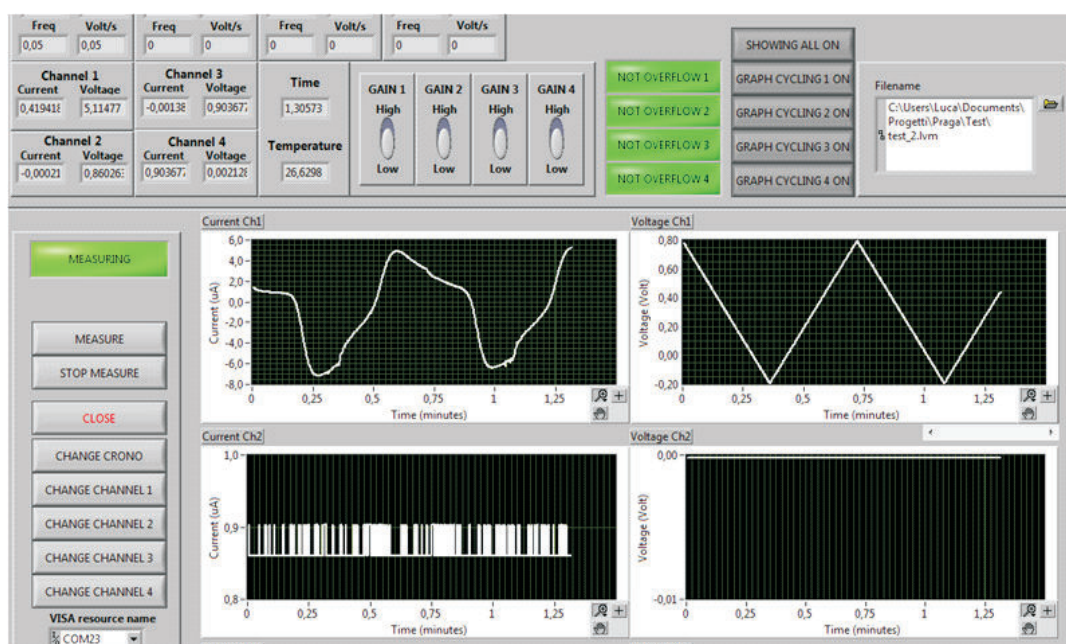


Figure 2.12: Developed software interface to manage all the system. In particular, it allows to select the active channels and the electrochemical techniques.

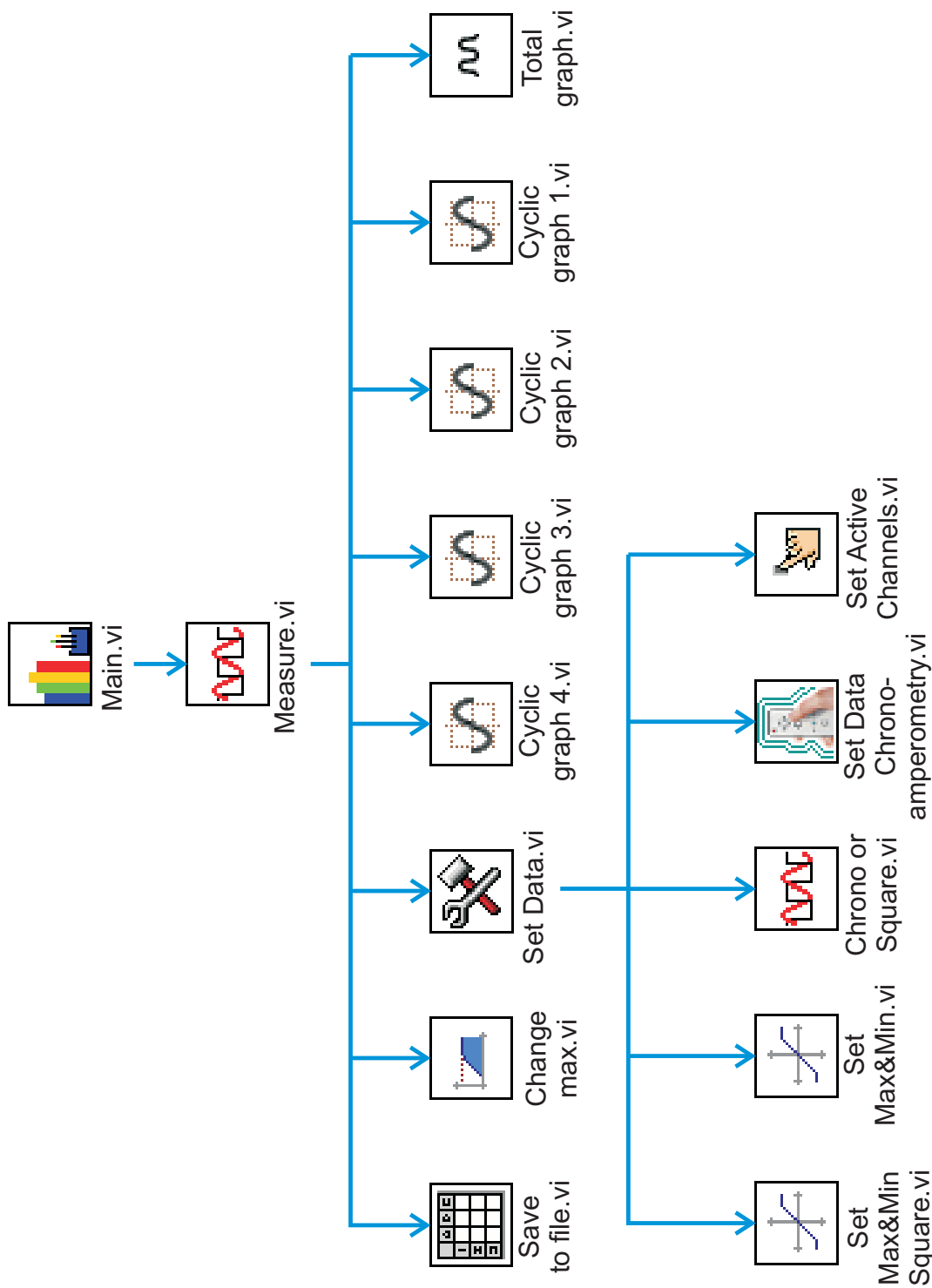


Figure 2.13: VI hierarchy of the software interface, developed in LabVIEW, to manage all the system.

2.3 Experimental results

The system has been assembled following the scheme shown in Figure 2.6. Pictures of the flow cell are shown in Figure 2.14 representing the front and the back view respectively.

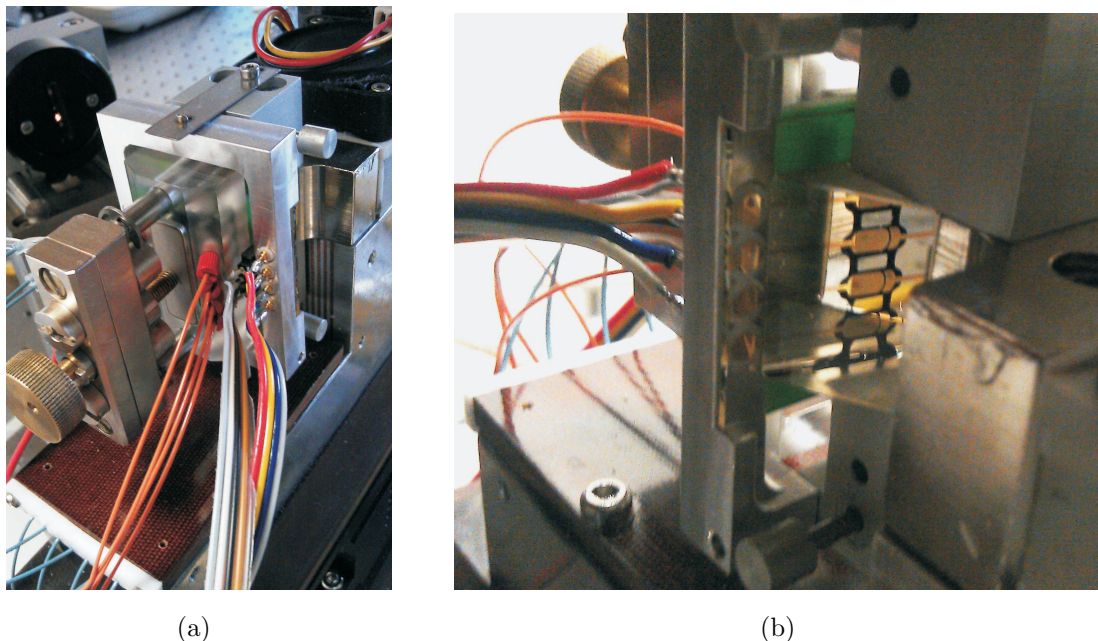


Figure 2.14: Pictures of the flow cell. Front (a) and back view (b). It can be noticed the gold electrodes from the back view (seen through the prism coupler).

During the experimental tests, the signals from the potentiostat and from the SPR system were recorded simultaneously, in order to compare the acquired data. Firstly, a cyclic voltammetry in buffer solution (PBS 100 mM, pH 7.15) with ferricyanide (1 mM) has been performed, in order to characterize the electrochemical cell, using both the geometries. Then, several tests have been done to study the influence of the electrical potential on DNA desorption and regeneration.

2.3.1 Cyclic voltammetry

In Figure 2.15 and Figure 2.16, the cyclic voltammeteries performed in PBS with ferricyanide ($Fe(CN)_6^{3-}$) with the two electrochemical cells are shown.

The cyclic voltammetry is useful to determine the pseudo-reference potential. In particular, this corresponds to the middle potential between the reduction and oxidation peaks of $[FeCN_6]^{3-}$ and $[FeCN_6]^{4-}$ respectively. Thus, it was calculated to be 0.45 V and 0.16 V for the first and the second kind of geometry respectively.

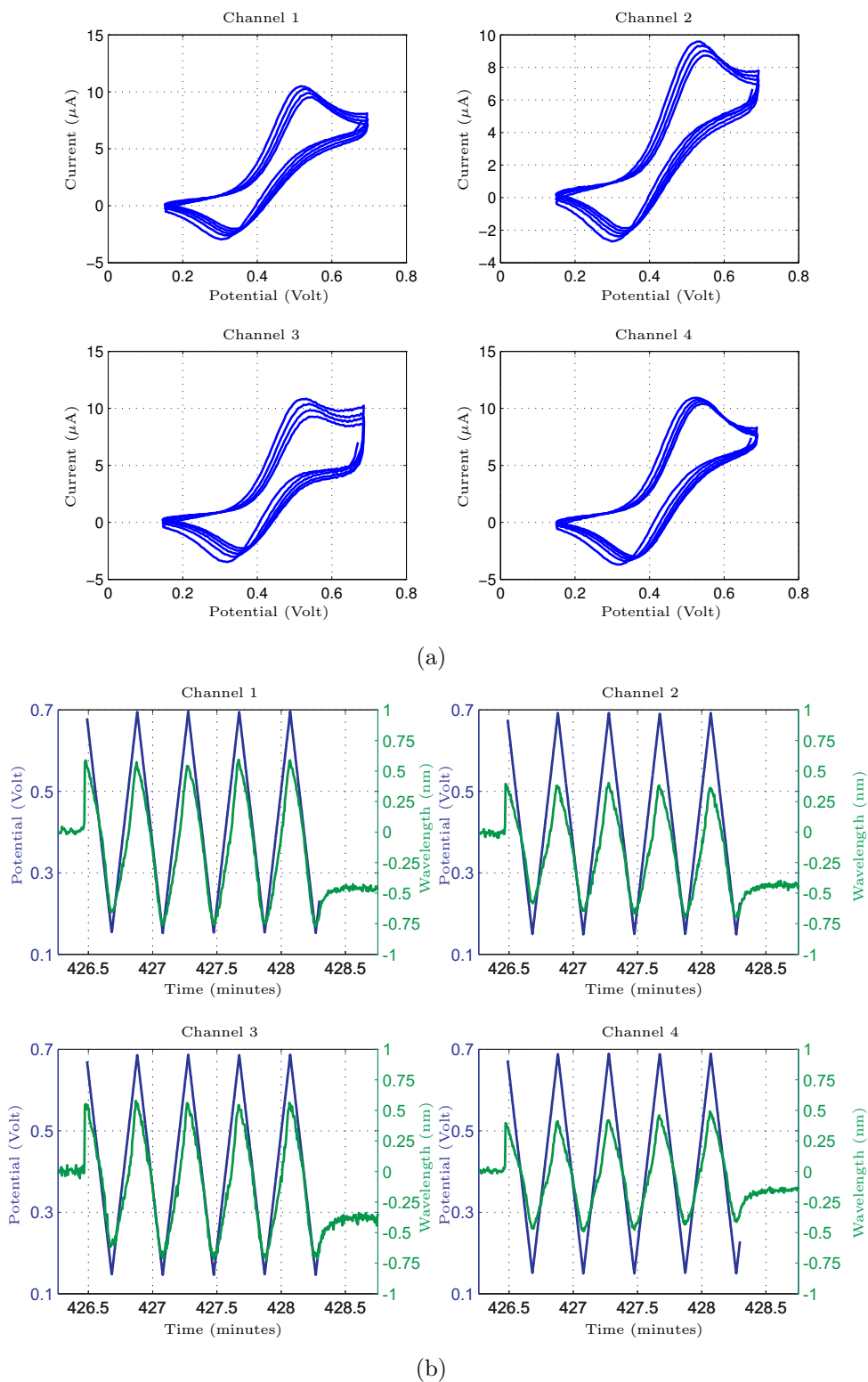


Figure 2.15: Cyclic voltammetry performed in PBS (100 mM) with ferricyanide (1 mM) in all the four channels using the first geometry (only working electrode on the SPR chip) (a). Applied potential (blue) and recorded SPR signal (green) versus time (b).

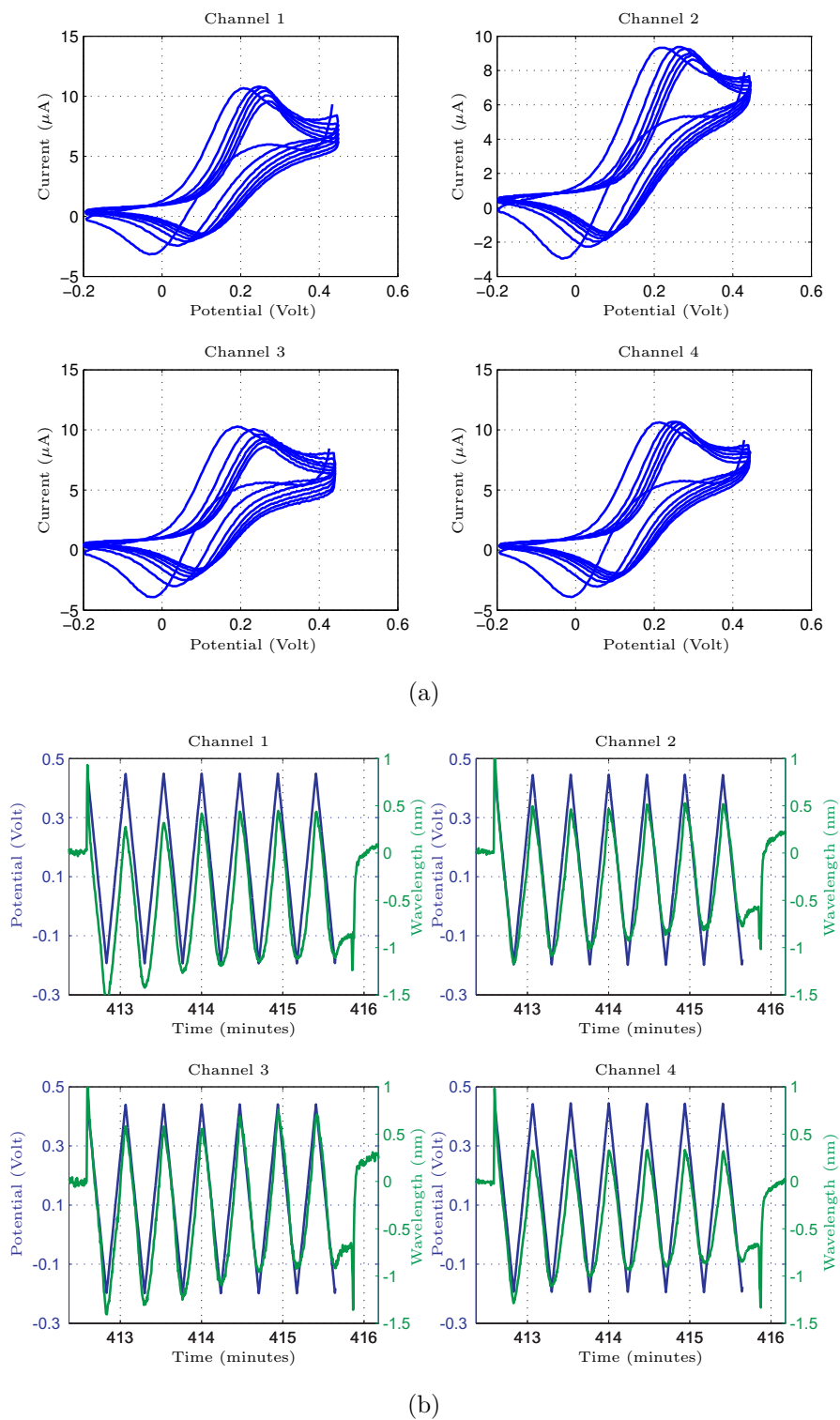


Figure 2.16: Cyclic voltammetry performed in PBS (100 mM) with ferricyanide (1 mM) in all the four channels using the second geometry (both working and reference electrodes on the SPR chip) (a). Applied potential (blue) and recorded SPR signal (green) versus time (b).

2.3.2 DNA regeneration

The following experimental tests were performed to study the influence of the applied potential on DNA desorption and regeneration. The chip was functionalized with single stranded DNA probes (ssDNA) (Sd273BATT - 16-mer) by exposing the surface to buffered aqueous DNA solution. Then, the chip was exposed to mercaptohexanol (MCH), which has been used as the blocking layer. The complementary DNA (cDNA) was used for the preparation of double stranded DNA. When the complementary DNA tethers with the DNA probes, a shift in the SPR wavelength is recorded. In the first test, the experimental protocol reported in Table 2.1 has been followed.

Table 2.1: Experimental protocol for the preparation of the SPR chip.

Component	Time (minutes)	Flow ($\mu\text{l}/\text{min}$)
DNA probes (ssDNA)	15	6.69
Blocking Layer (MCH)	20	6.69
PBS (100 mM pH=7.15)	3	30
NaOH	5	30
PBS (100 mM pH=7.15)	5	30
Complementary DNA (cDNA)	10	30
PBS (100 mM pH=7.15)	5	30
NaOH	3	30
PBS (100 mM pH=7.15)	10	30

At the end of each protocol, a negative potential was applied to the SPR chip, in order to completely remove both the DNA probes and the blocking layer, i.e. regenerate the chip. In Figure 2.21a, the SPR signals of the first response to the cDNA is shown, without having applied any potential. After this test, different negative potentials were applied to the four channels, for 30 seconds, to study their effect on DNA regeneration. All the tests were performed at a temperature of 15°C .

2.3.2.1 1° test

In the first test, the following negative potentials were applied to the SPR chip:

- Channel 1: -0.4 V;
- Channel 2: -0.5 V;

- Channel 3: -0.6 V;
- Channel 4: -0.7 V.

In Figure 2.17a, SPR signals and applied potentials are shown, whereas Figure 2.17b shows SPR signals and measured currents.

After the application of the negative potentials, the protocol described in Table 2.1 was applied. Finally, in Figure 2.21b the response to cDNA is shown.

2.3.2.2 2° test

In the second test, the following negative potentials were applied to the SPR chip:

- Channel 1: -0.7 V;
- Channel 2: -0.6 V;
- Channel 3: -0.5 V;
- Channel 4: -0.4 V.

In Figure 2.18a, SPR signals and applied potentials are shown, whereas Figure 2.18b shows SPR signals and measured currents.

After the application of the negative potentials, the protocol described in Table 2.1 was applied. Finally, in Figure 2.21c the response to cDNA is shown.

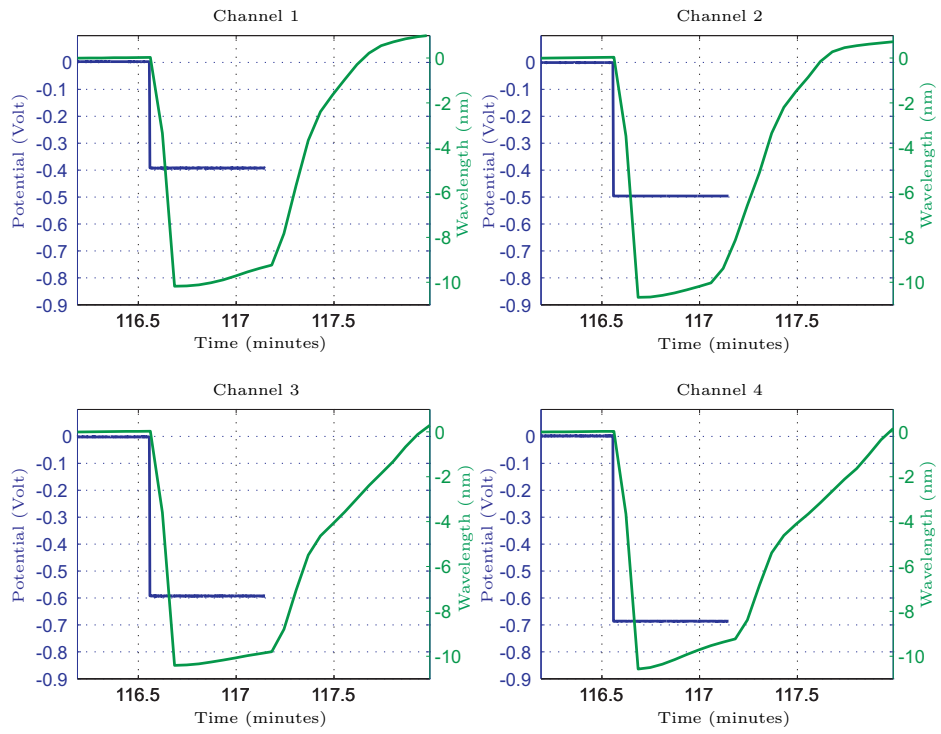
2.3.2.3 3° test

In the third test, the following negative potentials were applied to the SPR chip:

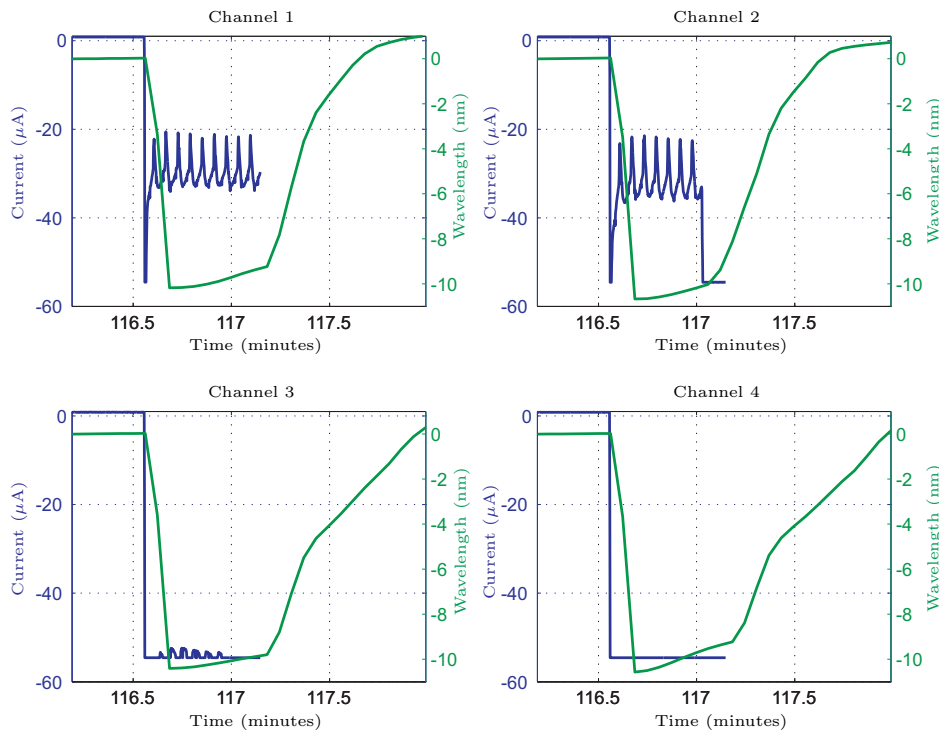
- Channel 1: -0.5 V;
- Channel 2: -0.5 V;
- Channel 3: -0.5 V;
- Channel 4: -0.5 V.

In Figure 2.19a, SPR signals and applied potentials are shown, whereas Figure 2.19b shows SPR signals and measured currents.

After the application of the negative potentials, the protocol described in Table 2.1 was applied. Finally, in Figure 2.21d the response to cDNA is shown.

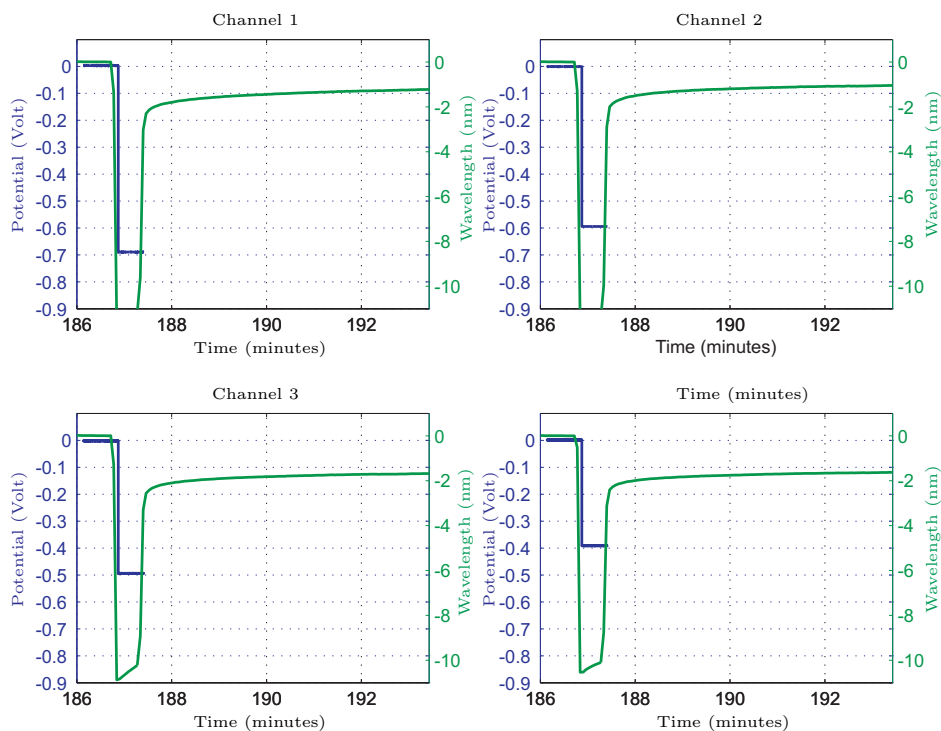


(a)

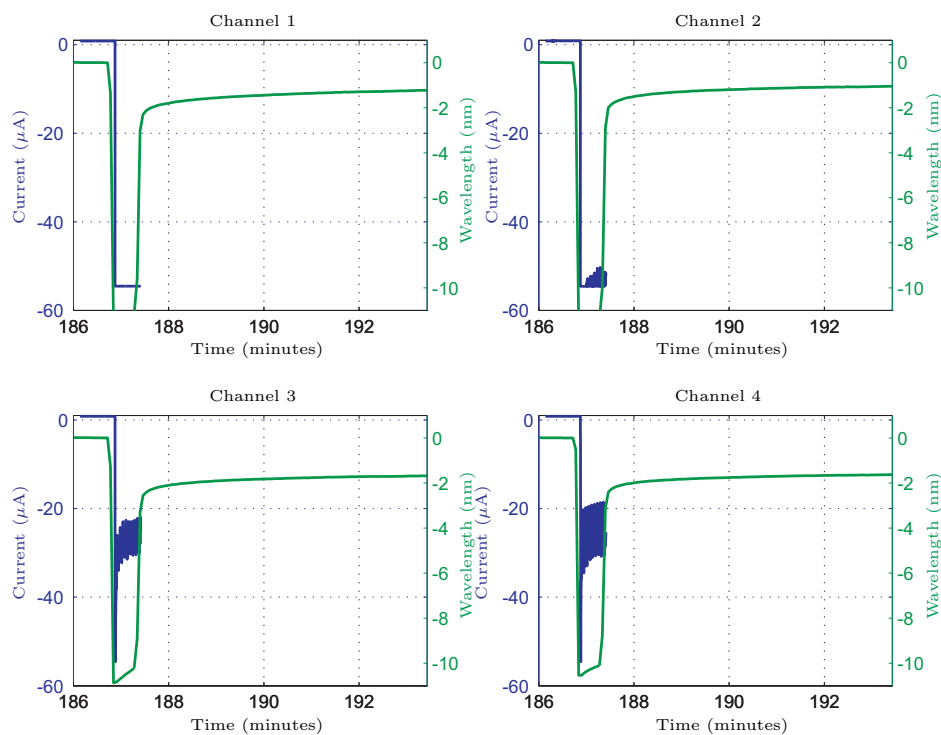


(b)

Figure 2.17: SPR signals (green) and applied potentials (blue) (a), SPR signals (green) and measured currents (blue) (b), 1^o test.

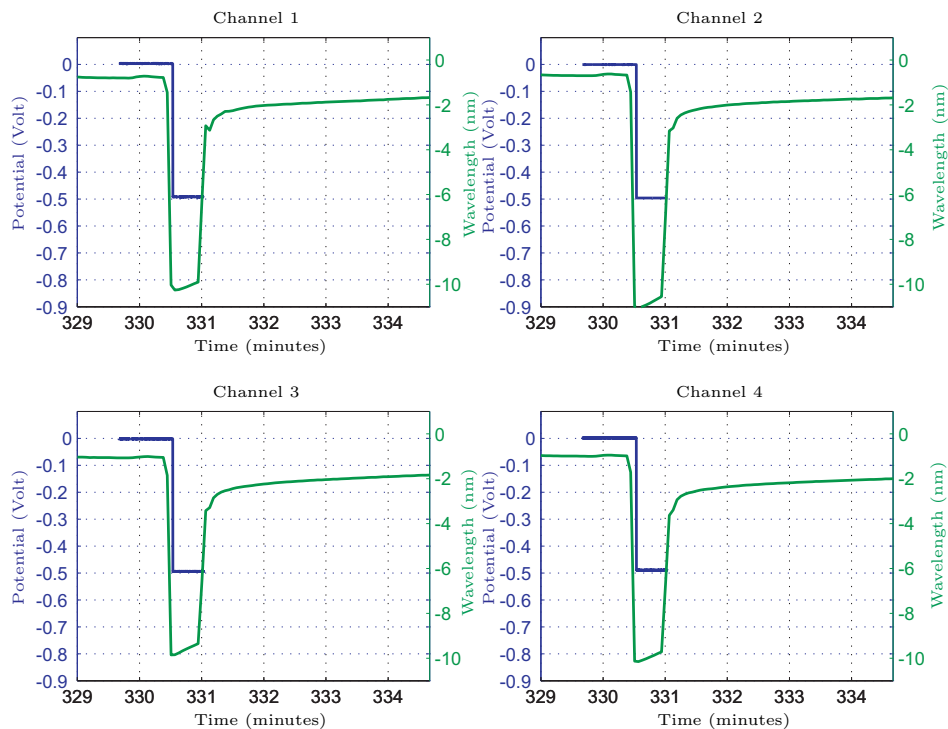


(a)

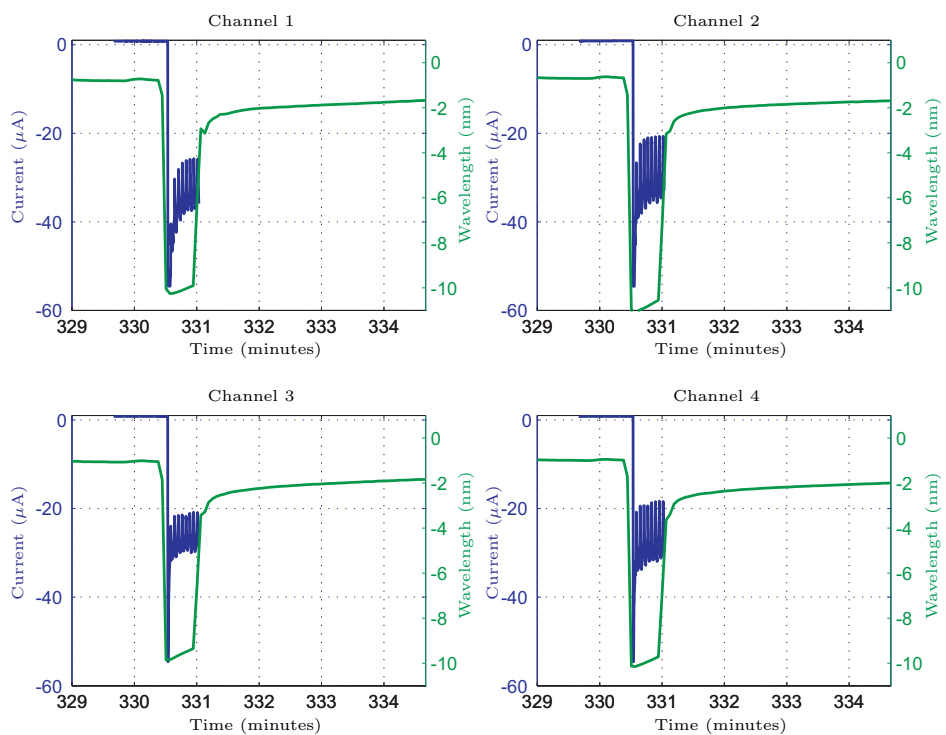


(b)

Figure 2.18: SPR signals (green) and applied potentials (blue) (a), SPR signals (green) and measured currents (blue) (b), 2^o test.



(a)



(b)

Figure 2.19: SPR signals (green) and applied potentials (blue) (a), SPR signals (green) and measured currents (blue) (b), 3^o test.

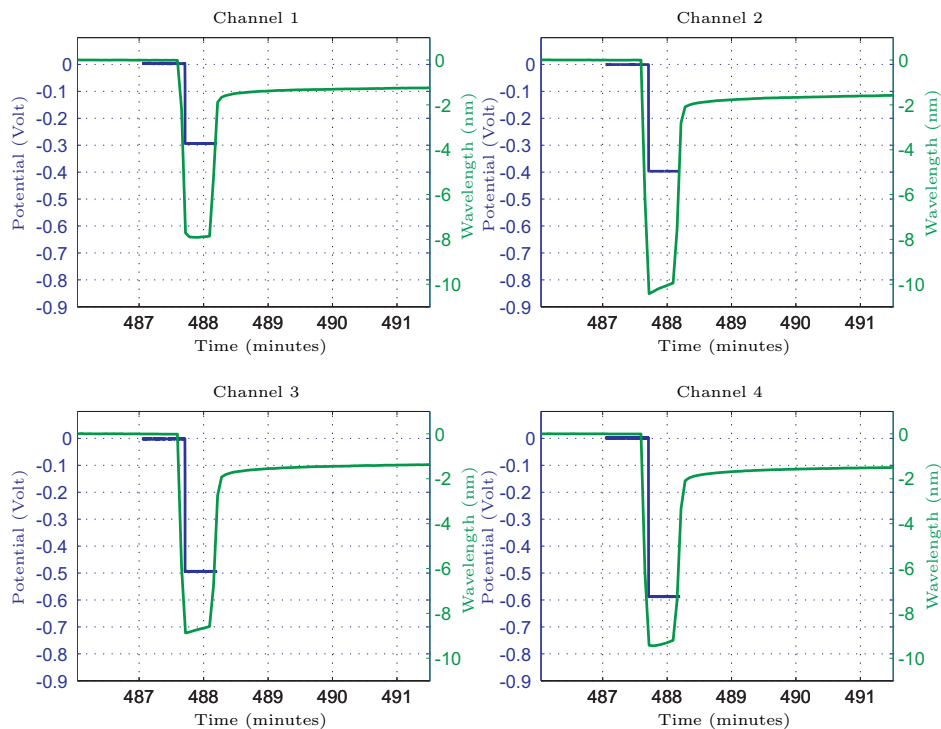
2.3.2.4 4° test

In the fourth test, the following negative potentials were applied to the SPR chip:

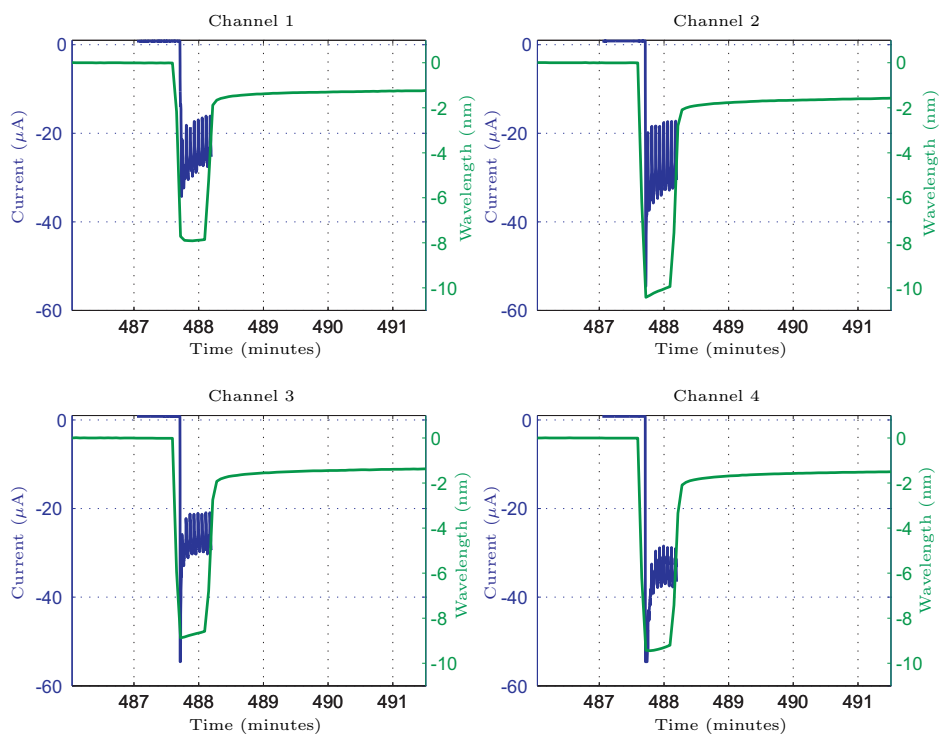
- Channel 1: -0.3 V;
- Channel 2: -0.4 V;
- Channel 3: -0.5 V;
- Channel 4: -0.6 V.

In Figure 2.20a, SPR signals and applied potentials are shown, whereas Figure 2.20b shows SPR signals and measured currents.

After the application of the negative potentials, the protocol described in Table 2.1 was applied. Finally, in Figure 2.21e the response to cDNA is shown.



(a)



(b)

Figure 2.20: SPR signals (green) and applied potentials (blue) (a), SPR signals (green) and measured currents (blue) (b), 4^o test.

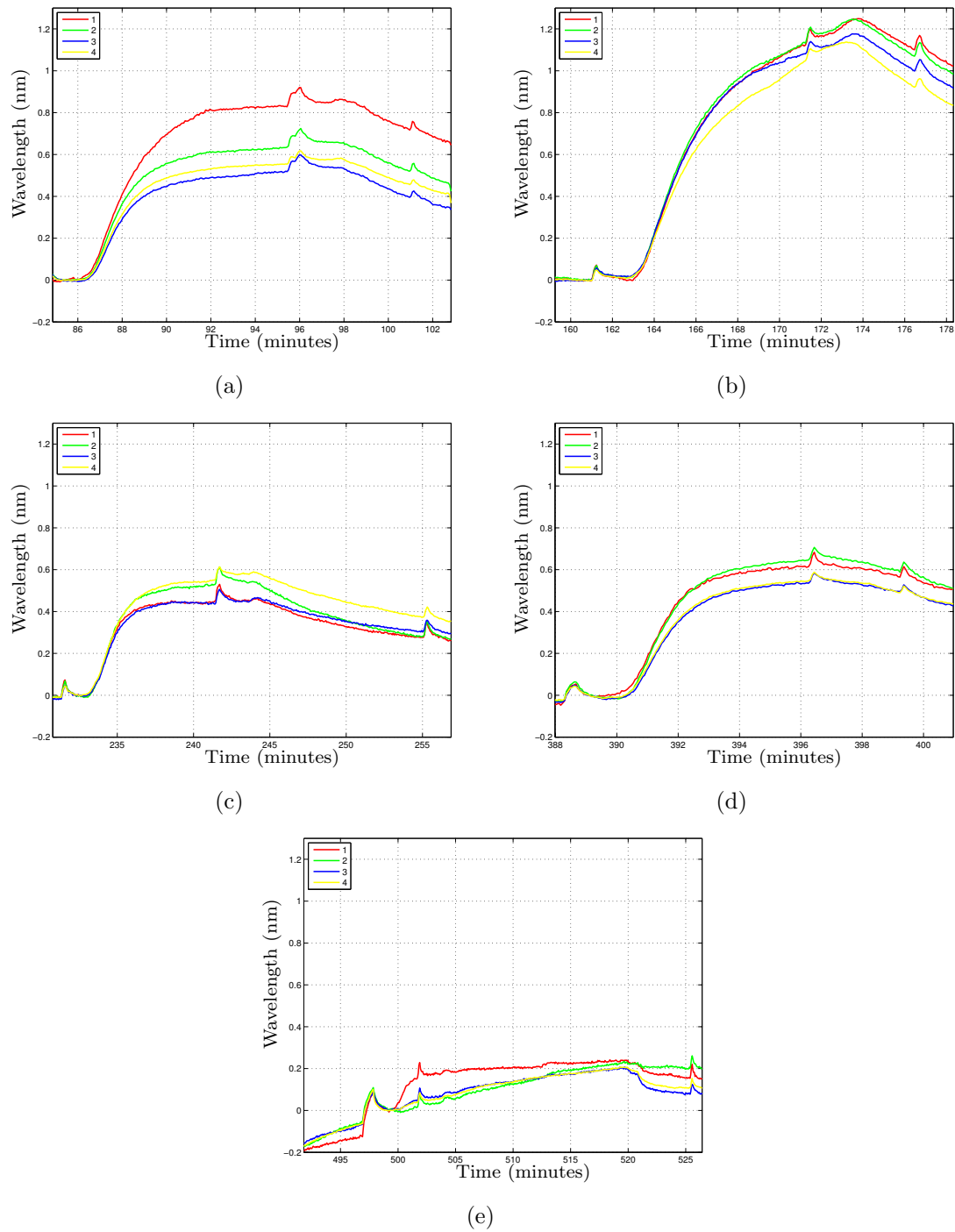


Figure 2.21: Response of the SPR system to the cDNA, after the application of negative potentials and the regeneration of the chip. Initial response (a), after 1^o test (b), after 2^o test (c), after 3^o test (d), after 4^o test (e).

2.3.3 Study on the electrical induced desorption threshold

Further experimental tests have been performed in order to study the dependence of the electrical induced desorption threshold on the lengths of the DNA probe chains. The test has been performed with DNA probes with different lengths, i.e. they have the same final sequence but with different spacers. In particular:

- channel 1: Sd273B (10-mer);
- channel 2: Sd273BATT (16-mer);
- channel 3: Sd273BATT2 (24-mer);
- channel 4: Sd273BATT3 (34-mer).

Increasing negative potentials were applied to the SPR chip to find the desorption potential threshold. The beginning of the desorption process is identified by a sudden decrease of the SPR signal. In Figure 2.22, the applied potentials (blue) and the SPR signals (green) are shown.

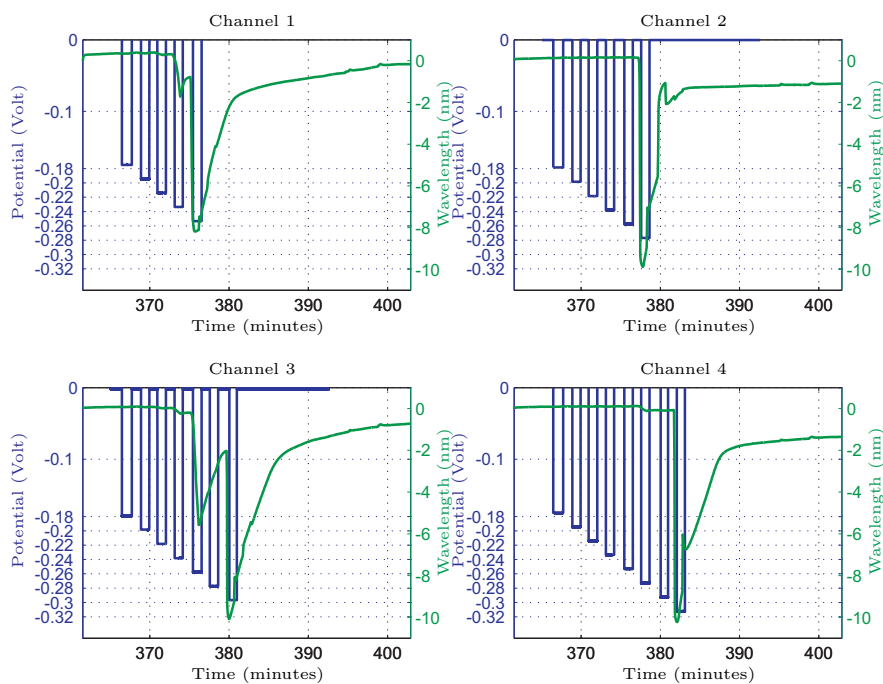


Figure 2.22: Increasing negative potentials (blue) applied to the SPR chip and SPR signals (green). The desorption potential depends on the length of the DNA probes.

Finally, in Figure 2.23, the four SPR signals versus time are shown. It can be noticed that the desorption potential depends on the length of the DNA probes. In particular, the longer the probes the more negative potential is required. In Table 2.2 the desorption threshold potentials for each channel are reported.

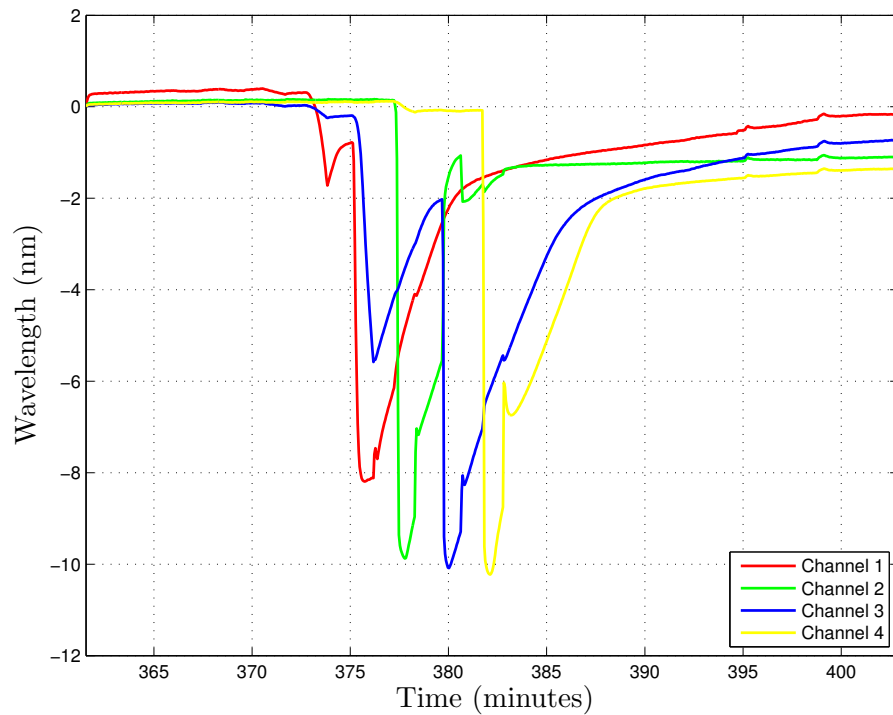


Figure 2.23: Increasing negative potentials applied to the SPR chip and SPR signals. The desorption threshold potential depends on the length of the DNA probes.

Table 2.2: Desorption threshold potentials of the four different DNA probes.

Channel	DNA probe	Desorption threshold potential (Volt)
1	Sd273B (10-mer)	-0.25
2	Sd273BATT (16-mer)	-0.28
3	Sd273BATT2 (24-mer)	-0.30
4	Sd273BATT3 (34-mer)	-0.31

2.4 Conclusions

A system combining electrochemical and SPR techniques has been developed. The system is based on a four-channel SPR system developed at the Institute of Photonics and Electronics AS CR, Prague. An in-situ electrochemical cell has been realized in each channel of the flow cell. Two different geometries have been proposed for the electrodes realization. Experimental tests have been performed with the whole system, comparing the electrochemical and SPR signals. Cyclic voltammeteries performed in PBS and ferricyanide have been used to determine the pseudo-reference potential of the electrochemical cells. Preliminary tests have been performed to study the DNA probes desorption and regeneration. In particular, different negative potentials and different DNA probes have been used. In general, it has been noticed that it is possible to regenerate the DNA sensing chip through an electrical induced desorption. The desorption threshold potential and the desorption efficiency depend both on the applied negative potentials and on the DNA probes. It has been noticed that the longer DNA probes, the more negative potential is required to induce the desorption. Nevertheless, further experimental tests are required in order to better characterize the system and study the electrical induced desorption process.

Part II

Agri-food sensing

Chapter 3

Sensor to determine the glycerol concentration in grape juice

3.1 Introduction

Every year, consumption of unsafe or contaminated food causes serious health problems to millions of people [118]. In addition, billions of dollars are lost annually due to inspection processes, inefficient production and insect damage.

Traditional food-inspection techniques rely on sample collection and subsequent off-line analysis in a laboratory through periodic chemical and microbiological tests. These procedures conventionally use techniques as chromatography, spectrophotometry, electrophoresis, titration and others. These methods do not allow an easily continuous monitoring, because they are expensive, slow, need well trained operators and in some cases require steps of extraction or sample pre-treatment, increasing the time of analysis. Thus there is an increasing interest in newer non-destructive approaches to measure the analytes of interest [119, 120, 121]. These new methods aim to realize new sensors which should be fast, selective, multi-analyte in order to test several samples in real time.

Among these, biosensors are now playing a fundamental role. Biosensors are a sub group of chemical sensors; they consist of a biological recognition element (such as enzyme, antibody, receptor or microorganisms) coupled to a chemical or physical transducer (electrochemical, mass, optical and thermal). These devices represent a promising tool for food analysis due to the possibility to fulfil some demand that the classic methods of analysis are not able to satisfy. In fact, they are characterized by a high selectivity, relative low cost of construction and storage, potential for miniaturization, facility of automation and simple and portable equipment construction for a fast analysis and monitoring in platforms of raw material reception, quality control laboratories or some stage during the food processing [122, 123].

There are several methods for the immobilization of enzymes onto the electrodes surfaces and, among these ones, electrochemical methods are very effective and suitable [124]. In fact, immobilization of enzymes by using conducting polymer is an effective method for the preparation of the enzyme-modified electrodes [125, 126].

The quality control of wine, since the grape harvest, is becoming a problem of great importance. Nevertheless, defining a quality index for wine is not a simple procedure, thus both global and specific tests are needed, in order to give a general judgment of the sample characteristics and, on the other side, to determine the concentration of single analytes, considered to be representative of the future quality of wine, such as ethanol, lactic and malic acid, sulphites, polyphenol and sugars [127, 128, 129, 130, 131, 132].

Nowadays, due to the lack of portable instruments capable of making any quantitative estimation directly on the field and to the rather restrict times available during the reception of the grapes in the wine cellar, the evaluation is generally made by visual criteria that suffer from individual bias: the possibility of using more objective and even quantitative criteria appears definitely preferable.

Glycerol is a secondary fermentation product of alcoholic fermentation, with a favourable effect on the taste. The amount of glycerol formed during the fermentation process is about 1:10 of the alcohol formed, with final concentrations varying from 1 to 10 g/L. Deviations from this value might indicate technological alterations during the process or deterioration of the harvested grapes [133]. For example, *Botrytis* is a fungal disease that affects the integrity of the berries leading to undesired fermentation processes.

Glycerol concentration is routinely analysed either by a liquid chromatographic method or by spectrophotometric assessment of the effect of an enzymatic reaction (enzymatic kit). However, both these methods require the presence of qualified personnel carrying out the analysis in a proper laboratory, and they are not compatible with the times required for the analysis (not longer than 3 min).

In the present chapter, a fast portable sensor for the estimation of the glycerol concentration in grape juice is presented. It deploys an electrochemical reaction, using two enzymes, glycerol dehydrogenase (GDH) and diaphorase (DP). In particular, in the following Section a brief theoretical introduction is given together with the description of the realized system. In Section 3.3 the experimental protocol is described, whereas in Section 3.4 the experimental results are reported. Finally conclusion are drawn in Section 3.5.

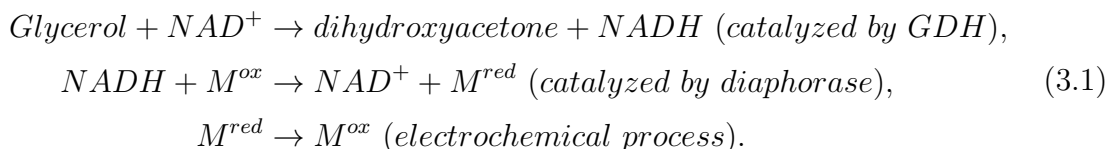
3.2 Materials and Methods

The developed system consists of: (i) an electrode functionalized to reveal glycerol concentration, (ii) a fluidic system to dose the reagents, (iii) control and processing electronics and (iv) software interface to manage the whole system.

In the next Section, the electrochemical principle of measurement is described, whereas in Section 3.2.2, 3.2.3, 3.2.4 and 3.2.5 the electrode functionalization, the fluidic system, the electronics and the software interface are presented respectively.

3.2.1 Theoretical background

The developed system is based on a disposable three electrodes cell, where the enzymes glycerol dehydrogenase (GDH) and diaphorase (DP) have been immobilized. The whole process requires the presence of an oxidizer, NAD^+ (β -Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide), called cofactor, and a redox mediator (M^{red}/M^{ox}), ferricyanide ($Fe(CN)_6^{3-}$), which represents the electroactive species. The following reactions take place at the working electrode:



The information of interest is represented by a current variation recorded at a fixed potential ($\approx 0.4 \text{ Volt}$), which determines the oxidation of the ferrocyanide. In the presence of the glycerol, the ferricyanide (M^{ox}) is reduced to ferrocyanide (M^{red}), thus determining an increase in the recorded current. In this way, there is a proportional relation between the concentration of glycerol and the measured current. A schematic representation of the electrochemical reactions that take place at the working electrode is shown in Figure 3.1.

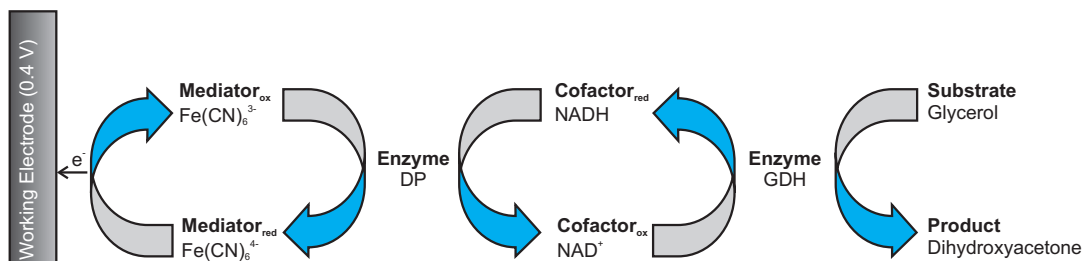


Figure 3.1: Schematic representation of the electrochemical reactions at the working electrode ($V \approx 0.4 \text{ Volt}$).

3.2.2 Electrode realization

A disposable electrochemical cell (Screen Printed Electrode - SPE) (EcoBioServices, Florence) has been used. It consists of a 3 mm diameter graphite working electrode, an Ag pseudo-reference electrode and a graphite auxiliary electrode. The working electrode was modified by deposition of a solution of glutaraldehyde, PBS, GDH, DP and Nafion. Enzymes *glycerol dehydrogenase* (GDH, E.C. 1.1.1.6, 90 U/mg) from *Cellulomonas* sp. and *diaphorase* (DP, E.C. 1.8.1.4, 59 U/mg) from *Clostridium* sp. were acquired from Sigma Aldrich and used without further purification. Enzymatic kits for the spectrophotometric quantification of glycerol in grapes were acquired from Boehringer Mannheim. All the other reactants were acquired from Sigma Aldrich and used as received.

3.2.3 Fluidic system

Nowadays, when the trucks with the grape arrive at the winery during the grape harvest, a core probe takes some grape samples, as shown in Figure 3.2a, and crushes them to prepare a must sample for preliminary analysis, such as pH, total acidity and alcoholic degree from sugar concentrations. Then, the grapes are dumped into a receiving hopper (Figure 3.2b) that conveys them to the destemmer/crusher. During this procedure, a visual judgment is given by an expert, from AA (best quality) to C (lowest quality), and the cost of the grape depends on this judgment.

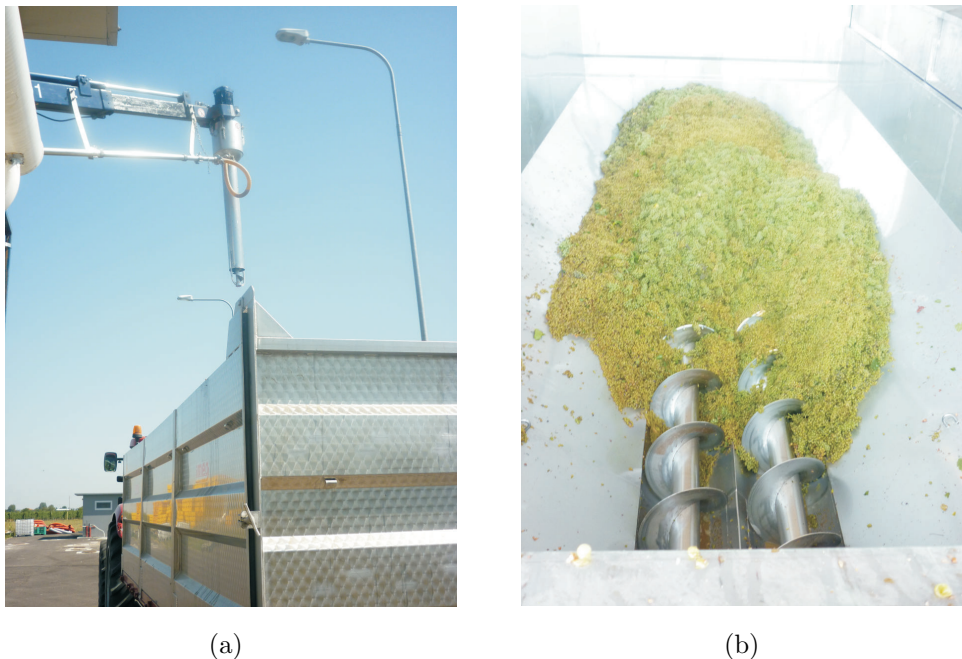


Figure 3.2: Pictures of the corer (a) and the receiving hopper (b).

Thus, an automated system has been developed in order to collect the sample directly after the corer, using suitable filters. The system is also capable of diluting the sample under test and adding the reactants. Basically, it consists of: (i) three MEMS membrane micropumps (mp6, Bartels Mikrotechnik), (ii) a thin layer flow cell (EcoBioServices, Florence) for flow injection analysis (FIA), where the electrode is placed, (iii) a one-way valve in the NAD channel and finally (iv) four reservoirs for grape juice, buffer, NAD and dumping respectively. A schematic representation of the developed fluidic system is shown in Figure 3.3, whereas pictures of the flow cell, micropumps and SPE electrode are shown in Figure 3.4.

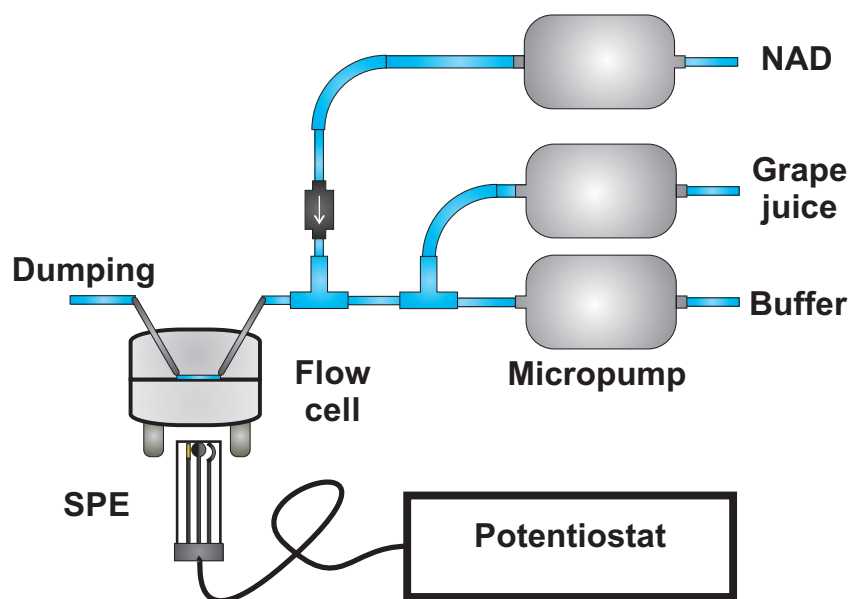


Figure 3.3: Schematic representation of the developed fluidic system. It consists of: (i) three micropumps, (ii) a flow cell, (iii) a one-way valve on NAD channel, (iv) four reservoirs for grape juice, buffer, NAD and dumping.

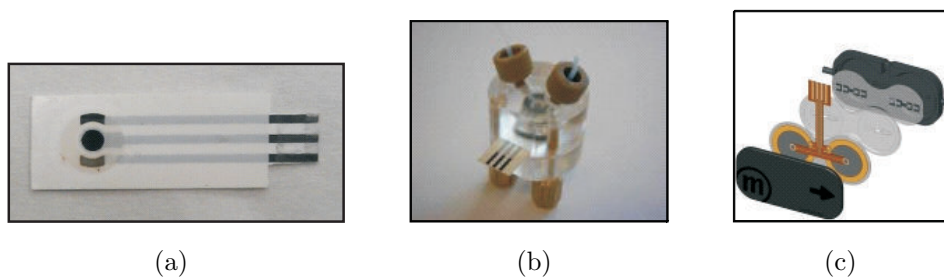


Figure 3.4: Pictures of: Screen printed electrode (SPE) (a), flow cell (b), membrane micropump (c).

3.2.4 Electronics

In order to collect the information of interest, i.e. the current, a commercial hand-held potentiostat/galvanostat has been used (PalmSens, PalmSens BV, The Netherlands). In addition, a control electronics has been realized, as schematically shown in Figure 3.5.

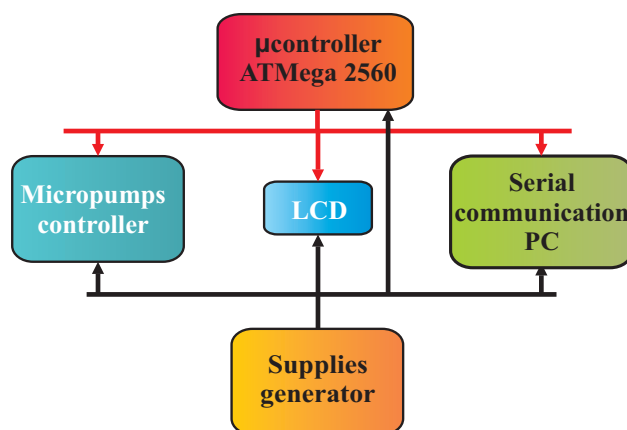


Figure 3.5: Schematic representation of the realized electronics. It consists of a power supplies generator, a micropumps controller, a LCD and a commercial microcontroller (ATMega 2560)

In particular, it generates all the power supplies, it drives the micropumps, it controls a LCD and finally it communicates with a PC. The micropumps control has been realized through the use of ad-hoc controller chips (mp6-oem, Bartels Mikrotechnik), whereas the communication with the PC has been performed using a commercial microcontroller (ATMega 2560).

Finally, a portable prototype instrument has been realized placing together the potentiostat, the developed electronics and the fluidic system. Pictures of the realized electronics and the developed portable prototype instrument are shown in Figure 3.6 and 3.7 respectively.

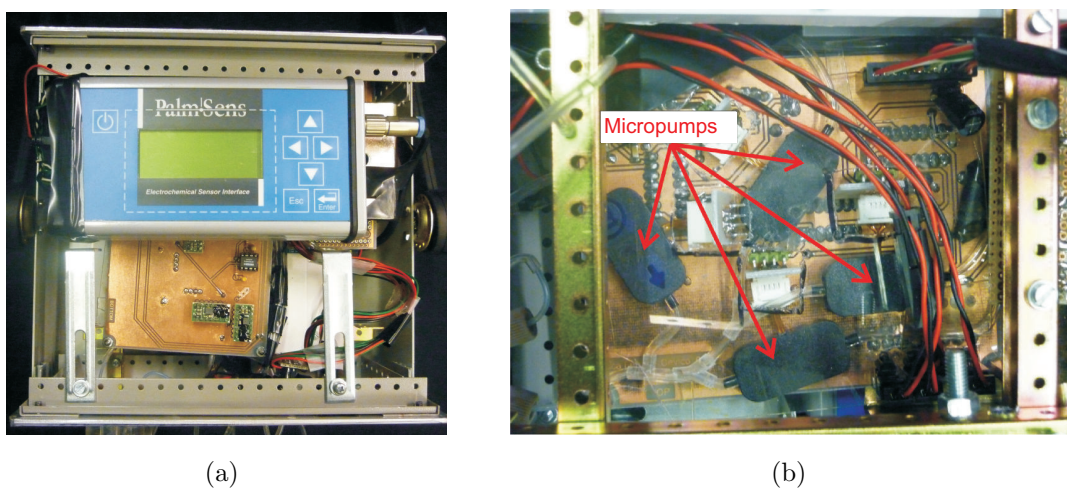


Figure 3.6: Pictures of the electronics: commercial potentiostat (a) and micropumps control circuitry (b).

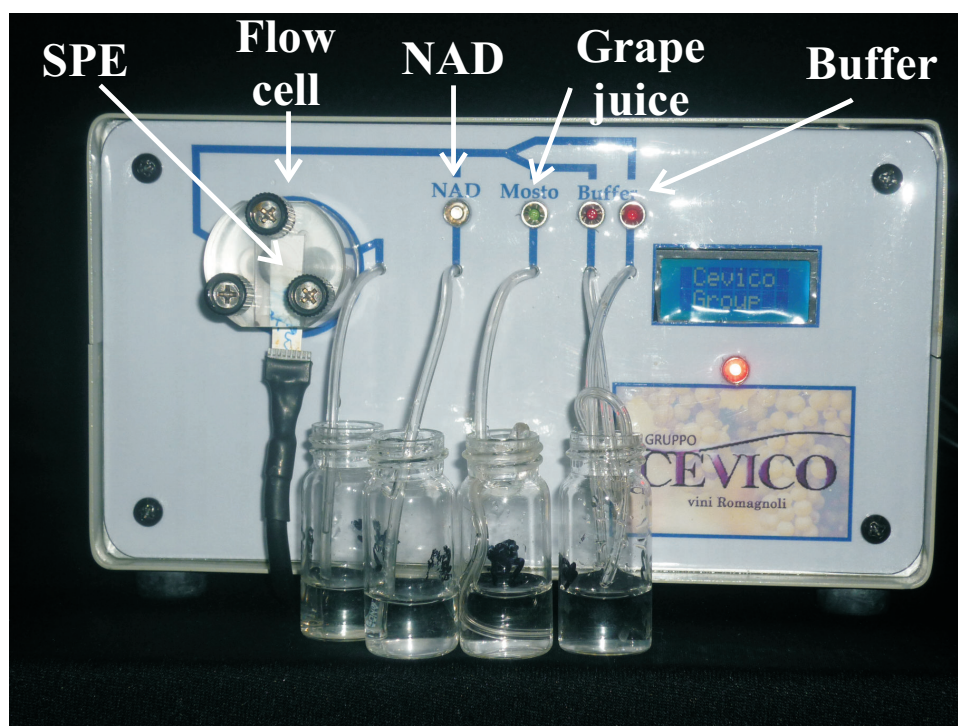
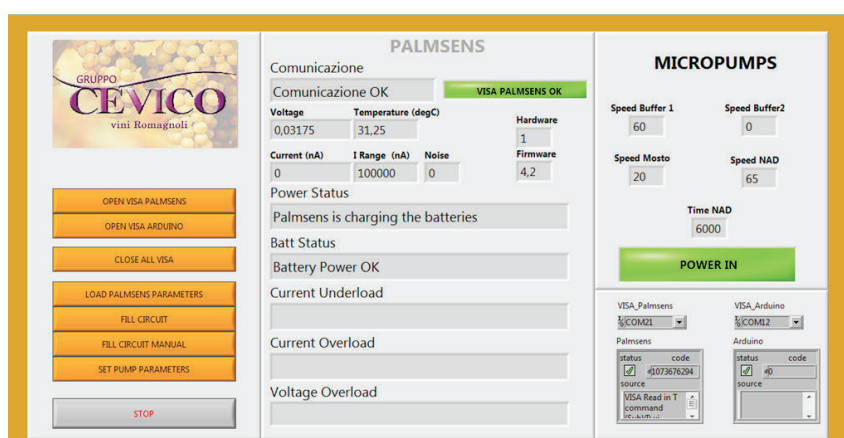


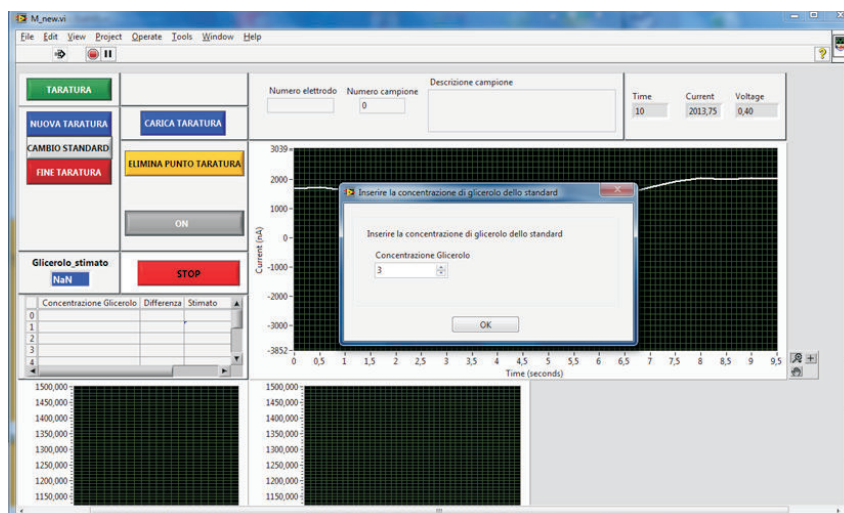
Figure 3.7: Picture of the developed prototype instrument, including the fluidic system and the electronics. It can be noticed the flow cell and the inlets for the sample and the reactants.

3.2.5 Software interface

A software interface has been developed in LabVIEW to control all the system. Several functions have been developed to initialize the instrument, allowing to make an automatic filling of tubings and to set the potentiostat parameters. In addition, functions to determine the calibration curve and to measure the glycerol concentration in unknown grape juice samples have been implemented, together with all the required calculations. The software interface is simple and user-friendly, allowing also an inexperienced user to easily manage the instrument. In Figure 3.8 the main and the measurement software interfaces are shown, whereas the VI hierarchy is reported in Figure 3.9.



(a)



(b)

Figure 3.8: Main interface (a) and measurement interface (b) of the management software developed in LabVIEW.

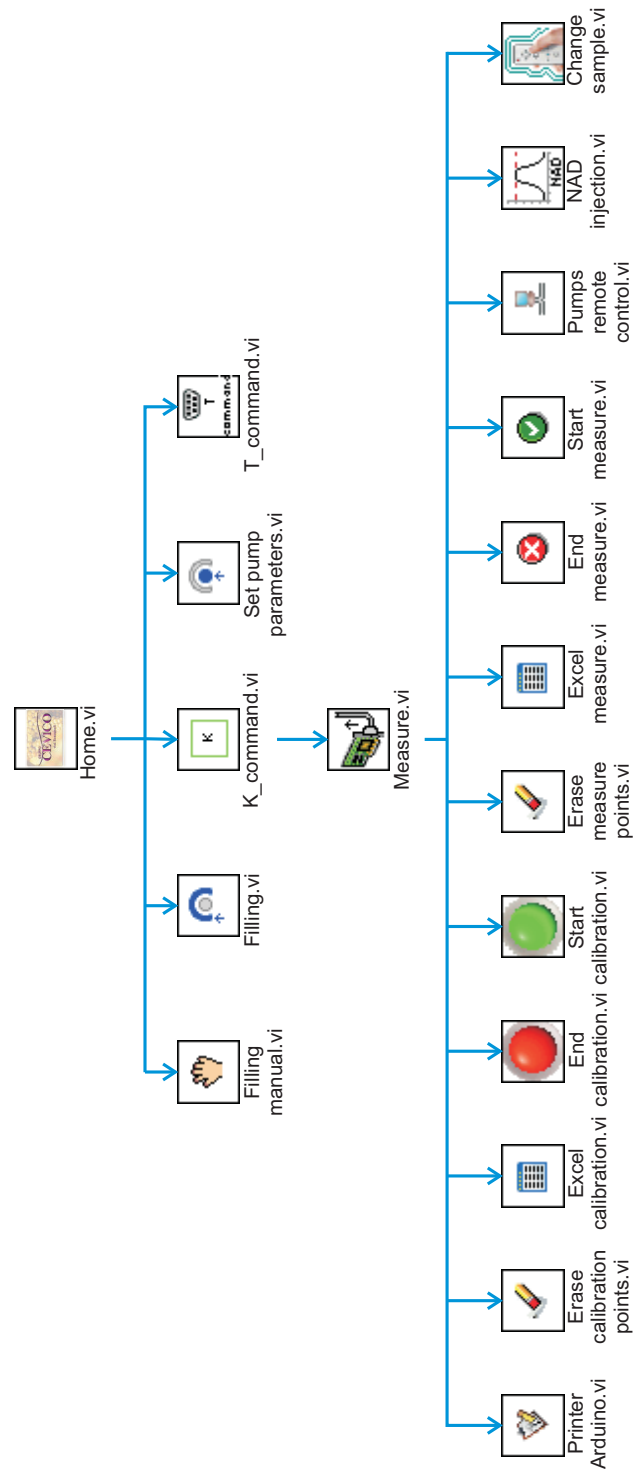


Figure 3.9: VI hierarchy of the software interface, developed in LabVIEW, to manage all the system.

3.3 Experimental protocol

As described in Section 3.2.1, the information of interest is represented by a current variation measured at a fixed potential of 0.4 Volt. In particular, the glycerol concentration is proportional to the measured current variation. The measurement can be performed in two different ways: (i) using an external calibration curve or (ii) applying the standard additions method in each sample.

In the first method, the calibration curve is previously determined in a healthy grape juice, with standard additions of glycerol, thus the same calibration curve is used for all the grape juice samples. In the second method, standard additions of glycerol are done in each sample and the measured current variations are interpolated through a line. The first method is faster, but it assumes that the same calibration curve can be used for different grapes (e.g red and white), while the second method is slower, but at the same time does not suffer from the matrix effect.

In the standard additions method, the point of interception of the abscissa is the endogenous concentration of the glycerol in the sample. Thus, it can be determined as:

$$\begin{aligned} I_{diff} &= m \cdot [Glycerol] + q, \\ [Glycerol] &= \frac{q}{m}, \end{aligned} \tag{3.2}$$

where $[Glycerol]$ represents the glycerol concentration, m and q are the slope and the intercept of the interpolation line and I_{diff} represents the current variation. In particular, considering a closed-loop fluidic circuit, I_{diff} represents the current variation between the current measured after the glycerol addition (I_{NAD}) and before the first glycerol addition (I_{FeCN}), as schematically shown in Figure 3.10a. In a closed-loop fluidic circuit, the NAD^+ injection is performed only at the beginning before the first glycerol addition. On the other side, considering an analysis performed under continuous flow, I_{diff} represents the current variation between the current measured just after (I_{NAD}) and before (I_{FeCN}) the injection of the cofactor NAD^+ , as schematically shown in Figure 3.10b. Under continuous flow, in fact, the cofactor is injected whenever the sample is changed, whereas in the closed-loop fluidic circuit it is injected only at the beginning.

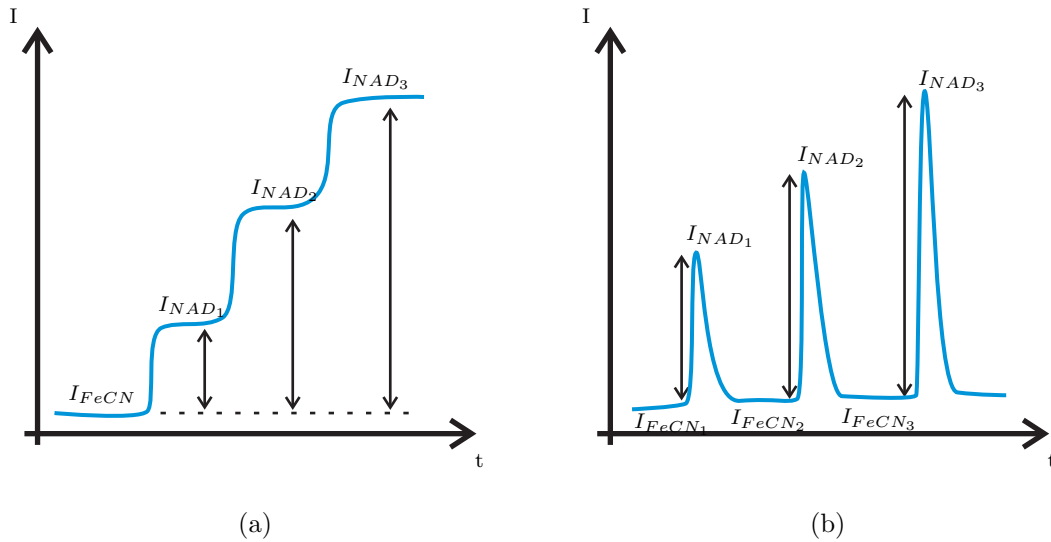


Figure 3.10: Schematic representation of the current variation I_{diff} in a closed loop circuit (a) and under continuous flow (b).

3.4 Experimental results

Several tests have been performed to study the feasibility of the sensing approach and to characterize the developed system. In particular, in the next Section, the correlation between the glycerol concentration and the healthy level of grape juices is investigated. In Section 3.4.2 the matrix effect is discussed, whereas in Section 3.4.3 a preliminary test with a closed-loop system is reported. Finally, in Section 3.4.4, experimental tests on grape juices with the developed system are presented.

3.4.1 Feasibility study

Firstly, a feasibility study has been performed to verify the efficiency of the glycerol concentration as a parameter to quantify the presence of *Botrytis* in the grape samples. Thus, seven different samples were prepared using the grape of the same vine, with different amounts of moldy bunches. In particular, the estimated glycerol concentrations, determined through the enzymatic kit, versus the percentage in weight of moldy grapes are shown in Figure 3.11.

We observed that the estimated glycerol concentrations are correlated with the amount of moldy grapes in the sample (interpolation line: $R=0.9760$), thus demonstrating that the glycerol concentration can be considered a suitable parameter for the sanitary level of the collected grapes.

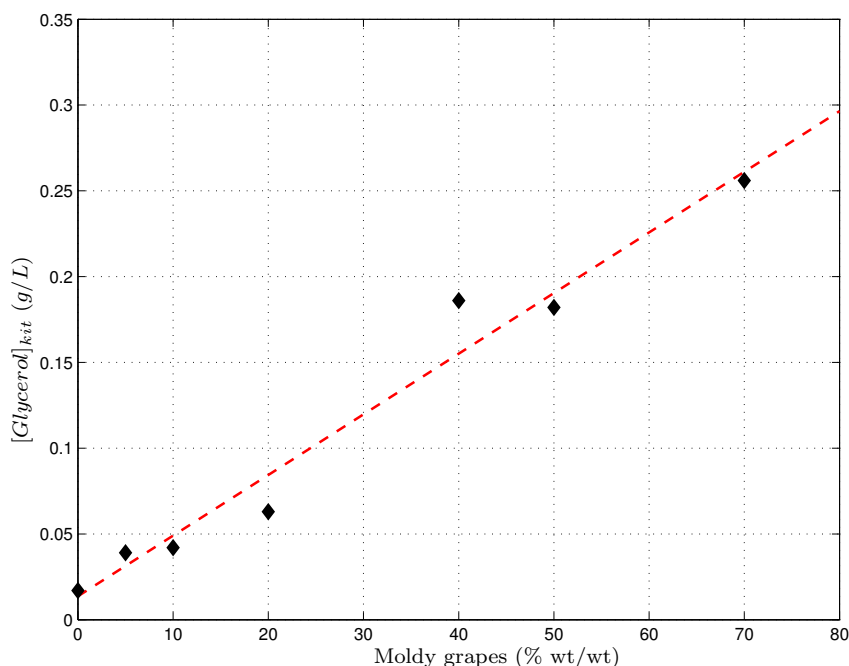


Figure 3.11: Glycerol concentration estimated with the enzymatic kit versus moldy grapes percentage.

3.4.2 Matrix effect study

A set of measurements have been carried out with grapes of good quality, i.e. not affected by *Botrytis*. Initially, a set of tests have been performed in solutions containing different amounts of grape juice. Nevertheless, by using the standard additions method, different interpolation lines have been determined. In particular, both the slope and the intercept of the interpolation line depend on the amount of grape juice in the test solution. In particular, the higher the grape juice concentration, the lower the slope and the higher the intercept. The decrease of the slope is due to the matrix effect, since the measured current depends on the diffusion speed of the species at the electrode surface which, in this experiment, depends on the amount of grape juice in the sample. For this reason, standard additions method is usually performed in each sample unless a high dilution ratio is used. The increase of the intercept, instead, is due to the presence of chemical species directly oxidised by the redox mediator.

For these reasons, an external calibration line, determined on a buffer solution, cannot be used and the difference between the current measured after (I_{NAD}) and just before the glycerol addition (I_{FeCN}) had to be considered representative of the glycerol concentration.

3.4.3 Preliminary test on grape juice with standard additions method

A preliminary test has been performed on grape juice (Trebiano) affected by *Botri-tis*, using the standard additions method, under reflux regime with a closed loop system. For this reason, only an initial NAD^+ injection has been performed. Then, after every glycerol addition, as soon as the current signal reached the stability, the mean current value was determined over a time period of 20 seconds. Thus, the mean current values represent the I_{NAD} signals defined in Section 3.3, whereas, for this measurement, the I_{FeCN} is represented by the mean current value before the first glycerol addition. In Figure 3.12 the amperometric signal obtained at 0.35 V, by subsequent addition of glycerol standard solution, versus time is reported. For this measurement, the grape juice was diluted eight times, with a 3 mM $Fe(CN)_6^{3-}$, 0.05 M phosphate buffer (pH = 8.5), 0.1 M KCl solution.

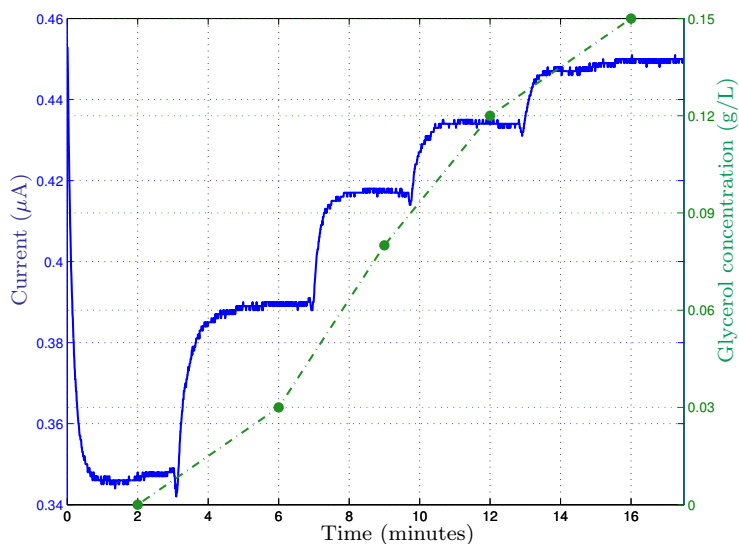


Figure 3.12: Amperometric signal obtained at +0.35 V, by subsequent addition of glycerol standard solution in a grape juice diluted eight times with a 3 mM $Fe(CN)_6^{3-}$, 0.05 M phosphate buffer (pH = 8.5), 0.1 M KCl solution.

Finally, in Figure 3.13, I_{diff} values versus glycerol concentration are shown, together with the interpolation lines ($R=0.9905$). The glycerol concentration of the sample under test was determined by applying Eq. 3.2 and calculated to be 0.1227 g/L.

Other several tests have been performed with the standard additions methods, using different grape juices. In general, we observed that calibration curves are reproducible on the same grape juice and that, considering three different grape juices, the calibration curves determined in each sample are not significantly differ-

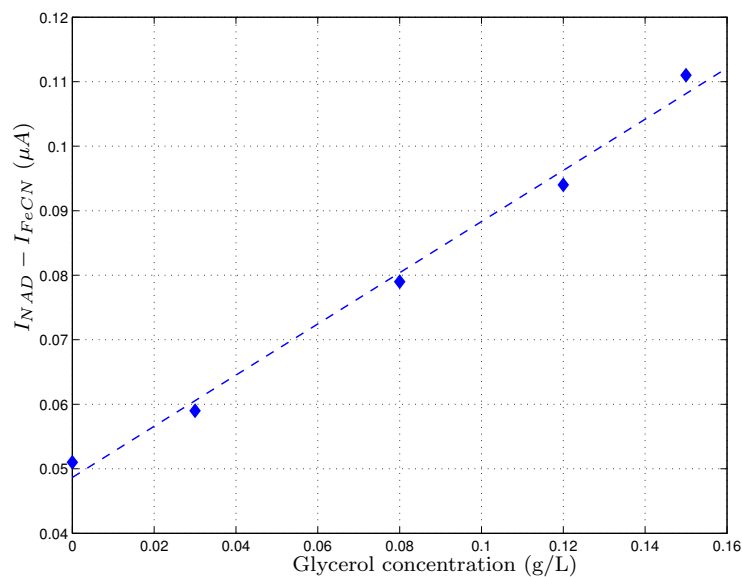


Figure 3.13: Mean values of the I_{diff} signal (diamonds) and interpolation line. Amperometric signal obtained at +0.35 V, by subsequent addition of glycerol standard solution in a grape juice diluted eight times with a 3 mM $Fe(CN)_6^{3-}$, 0.05 M phosphate buffer (pH = 8.5), 0.1 M KCl solution.

ent. Thus, an external calibration curve, previously determined on a healthy grape juice, can be used to estimate the glycerol concentration in different grape juices.

3.4.4 Experimental tests with the developed system

Finally, several tests have been performed to characterize the developed system and to make it suitable for the measurements during the grape harvest. In particular, due to the long time required for closed loop analysis (Figure 3.12), the tests have been performed under continuous flow, injecting the cofactor NAD^+ in the buffer/grape juice solution. Thus, the developed system collects the sample under test and dilutes it with buffer solution (different micropumps speeds allow for different dilution ratios); then, an injection of 3 seconds of NAD^+ is performed and the current variation between the measured current value after (I_{NAD}) and just before (I_{FeCN}) the NAD^+ injection is considered to be representative of the glycerol concentration. In particular, in the next Section a characterization of the reproducibility of the system is reported whereas in Section 3.4.4.2 tests performed during the grape harvest are described.

3.4.4.1 Characterization of the reproducibility of the sensor response

In order to test the reproducibility of the sensor response, two different tests have been performed. Firstly, the NAD^+ cofactor has been replaced by a redox mediator ($Fe(CN)_6^{3-}$) and the current variation, due to its reduction, after its injection into a solution containing only the supporting electrolyte, has been measured and shown in Figure 3.14a.

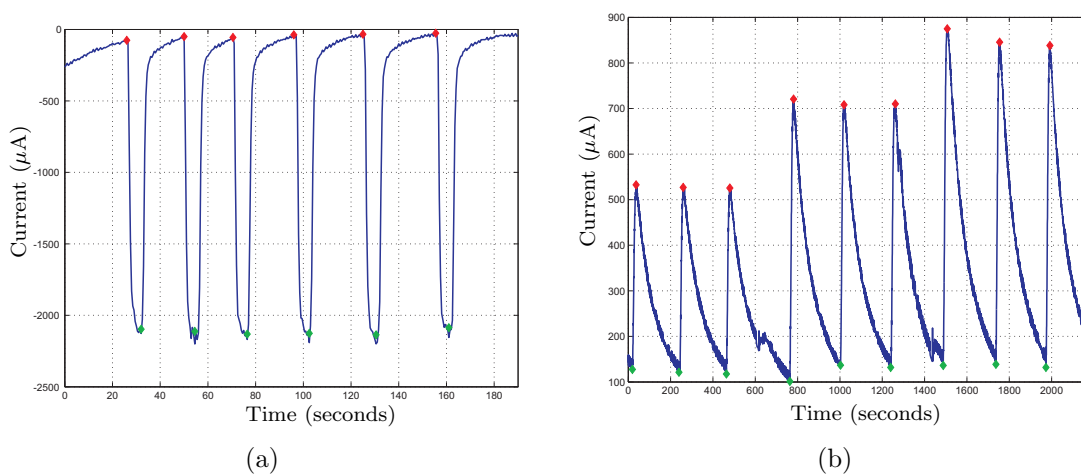


Figure 3.14: Amperometric measurements of six subsequent injection of $Fe(CN)_6^{3-}$ through the NAD^+ micropump in a flux of 0.05 M PBS and 0.1 M KCl ($E = -0.2$ V) (a). NAD^+ injections in flux containing glycerol (0.11, 0.19, 0.25 g/L - 3 replicates for each sample) mixed with the “buffer solution” accordingly with the dilution factor due to the micropumps (b). Red diamonds represent the I_{NAD} values whereas green diamonds represent the I_{FeCN} values.

Then, the system has been tested by adding the NAD^+ cofactor to three standard solutions of glycerol. The information of interest, as previously described (Section 3.3), is represented by the difference between the current peak after the injection of NAD^+ (I_{NAD}) and the steady state regime just before the injection of the cofactor (I_{FeCN}), averaged over a time period of 5 seconds. In Figure 3.14b the measured current versus time is shown, whereas in Table 3.1 the mean values (\bar{I}_{diff}), the standard deviations (σ) and the relative standard deviations (σ_r) are reported for the performed tests.

Table 3.1: Mean values, standard deviations and relative standard deviations for the tests performed to characterize the sensor reproducibility.

	Test with	Test with NAD^+ with different $[Glycerol]$ concentrations		
	$Fe(CN)_6^{4-}$	0.11 g/L	0.19 g/L	0.25 g/L
\bar{I}_{diff} (μA)	2127	406.25	589.58	717.30
σ (μA)	42.13	1.65	26.03	18.59
σ_r (%)	1.98	0.41	4.42	2.59

3.4.4.2 Tests on grape juice samples

A first test on grape juice was performed on the same samples prepared for the test described in Section 3.4.1. In particular, healthy grapes were mixed with moldy grapes in different weight percentages. For each sample, three measurements were performed. In Figure 3.15a, the I_{diff} signal versus the moldy grapes percentage is shown, together with the interpolation line ($R=0.9354$), whereas in Figure 3.15b glycerol concentrations estimated with the developed system ($[Glycerol]_{sys}$) versus the ones estimated with the enzymatic kit ($[Glycerol]_{kit}$) are shown, together with the interpolation line (slope=1, intercept= $-3.68e-17$, $R=0.9496$). Preliminary estimation has determined an uncertainty of 27 mg/L.

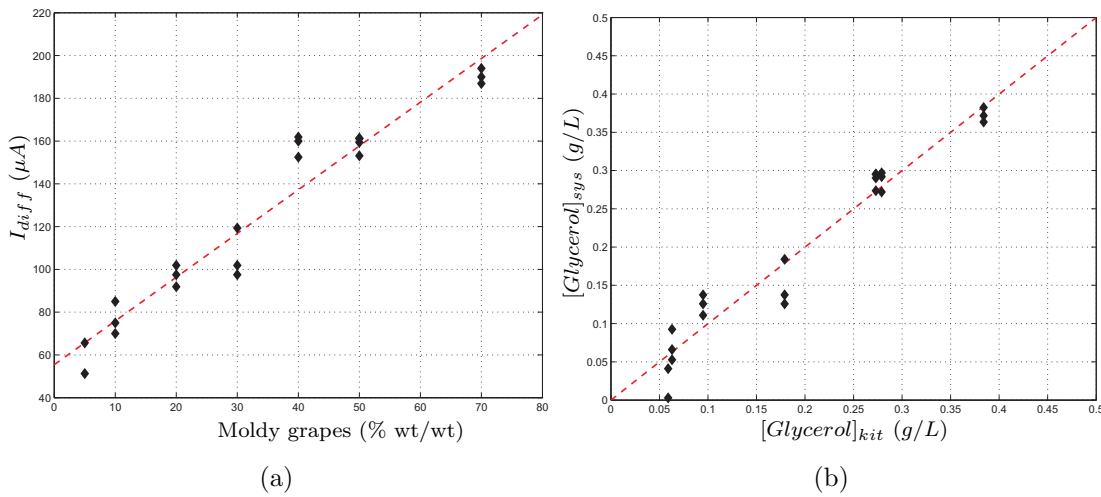


Figure 3.15: I_{diff} versus moldy grapes percentage (a). Glycerol concentration estimated with the developed system ($[Glycerol]_{sys}$) versus glycerol concentration estimated with the enzymatic kit ($[Glycerol]_{kit}$) (b).

Finally, the instrument was tested during the grape harvest. In Figure 3.16, $[Glycerol]_{sys}$ versus $[Glycerol]_{kit}$ is shown, together with the interpolation line (slope:

0.9245, intercept: 0.2096, R: 0.8514), for grape juice samples coming from different vines, considering both white and red grapes. Glycerol concentrations were estimated using the same calibration curve for all the samples, previously determined on a healthy grape juice.

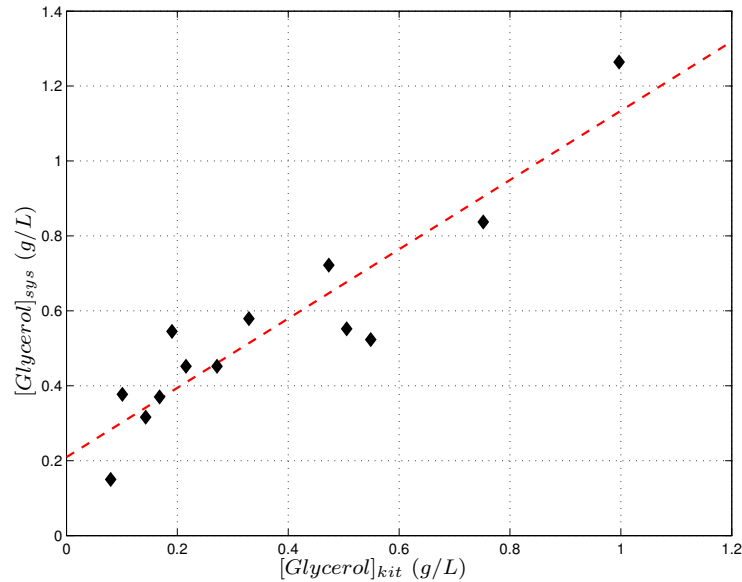


Figure 3.16: Glycerol concentration estimated with the developed system ($[Glycerol]_{sys}$) versus glycerol concentration estimated with the enzymatic kit ($[Glycerol]_{kit}$), during the grape harvest, considering both white and red grapes.

3.5 Conclusions

A portable system for the fast estimation of glycerol concentration in grape juice has been developed. Since the glycerol concentration has been proven to be correlated to the healthy level of the grapes, the system can be used during the grape harvest to control the grapes quality. Experimental tests have been performed both in laboratory and during the grape harvest. In order to perform the measurement in less than 3 minutes (time constraint defined by the winery), an external calibration curve has been used for all the grape kinds (white and red), previously determined in a mute grape juice, and only one replicate has been considered. Although this approach worsens the measurement accuracy, the instrument can correctly classifies grapes based on the content of glycerol, providing an important tool for an objective classification of the grapes, not biased by the visual judgment.

3.6 Comparison with the state of the art

Name	Description	Principle	Method	Reaction time	Detection limit	Price
Developed system	Electrochemical sensor for the determination of Glycerol in grape juices	$\begin{aligned} & \text{Glycerol} + \text{NAD}^+ \xrightarrow{\text{GDH}} \text{dihydroxyacetone} + \text{NADH} \\ & \text{NADH} + \text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6^{3-} \xrightarrow{\text{DP}} \text{NAD}^+ + \text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6^{4-} \\ & \text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6^{4-} \xrightarrow{0.4\text{V}} \text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6^{3-} \end{aligned}$	Current variation measured at $\approx 0.4\text{ V}$	<3 min	27 mg/L	2 €
Megazyme K-GCROL	UV-method for the determination of Glycerol in foodstuffs, beverages, and other materials	$\begin{aligned} & \text{Glycerol} + \text{ATP} \xrightarrow{\text{glycerokinase}} \text{L-glycerol-3-phosphate} + \text{ADP} \\ & \text{ADP} + \text{PEP} \xrightarrow{\text{pyruvatekinase}} \text{ATP} + \text{pyruvate} \\ & \text{Pyruvate} + \text{NADH} + \text{H}^+ \xrightarrow{\text{L-lactatedehydrogenase}} \text{L-lactacid} + \text{NAD}^+ \end{aligned}$	Spectro-photometric at 340 nm	≈ 5 min	0.34 mg/L	3.50 €
Megazyme K-GCROLGK	UV-method for the determination of Glycerol in foodstuffs, beverages, and other materials	$\begin{aligned} & \text{Glycerol} + \text{ATP} \xrightarrow{\text{glycerokinase}} \text{L-glycerol-3-phosphate} + \text{ADP} \\ & \text{ADP} + \text{D-glucose} \xrightarrow{\text{ADP-GK}} \text{G-6-P} + \text{AMP} \\ & \text{G-6-P} + \text{NAD}^+ \xrightarrow{\text{glucose-6-phosphatedehydrogenase}} \text{gluconate-6-phosphate} + \text{NADH} + \text{H}^+ \end{aligned}$	Spectro-photometric at 340 nm	≈ 7 min	0.37 mg/L	4 €

Table 3.2: Characteristics comparison between the developed system and the main commercial systems.

Chapter 4

Sensor to estimate the concentration of antibiotics in milk

4.1 Introduction

Nowadays, almost all food-production animals receive medication during their lives, representing a threat for the public health, with regard to the presence of drug residues in the food chain [134]. Lots of animals, in fact, are treated with antibacterial drugs to attend infectious diseases [135, 136]. These could lead to adverse health effects, such as toxicity and potential allergic response. In addition, they could determine a transfer of antibiotic resistance genes to human pathogens [135, 137]. Although it is hard to determine the consumer health risks of drug residuals, the presence of antibiotic residues in food has been regulated with maximal residue limits (MRLs) set by the European Commission (EC Regulation 2377/90) (Table 4.1).

Milk is one of the most important food, both as a beverage and to produce milk derivatives, such as cheese and butter. For this reason, milk is one of the most regulated product in food industry. As a consequence, there is an increasing request of a method capable of a fast and multi-antibiotic sensing.

Traditional methods include enzymatic colorimetric assays, receptor binding assays, chromatographic methods, microbial growth inhibition assays, microbial receptor assays and immunoassays [138, 139]. The milk samples are usually firstly analyzed with qualitative fast methods and only the suspected samples are subsequently quantified and confirmed with high pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC) and mass spectroscopy (MS).

Nowadays, several immunoassays have been developed which are faster and more specific, in order to create an alternative to unspecific and time-consuming microbial growth inhibition assays. These immunoassays are in ELISA format, which allows quantitative and highly specific measurements [140]. However, since milk

samples have to be screened for several antibiotics, they become laborious and time-consuming and they require modifications of the antibody used in the assay.

For this reason, there has been an increasing interest in the development of sensors for antibiotics that do not require extensive chemical modification or pre-treatment steps and that are rapid, quantitative and selective [141]. Basically, an immunosensor consists of three parts:

- a receptor species, capable of recognizing and binding the analyte of interest;
- a transducer, on which the receptor is immobilized and which is able to convert the binding event into a measurable physical change;
- a method to convert the change detected at the transducer into an useful information. The most common ones are electrochemical [142, 143] and optical methods [144, 145, 146].

Finally, there are two basic type of immunoassays: direct assays and competitive assays. In the former, the binding of the analyte of interest with a particular enzyme is measured, whereas, in the latter, a known amount of an another analyte, competitive with the analyte of interest, is mixed with the sample under test, containing the enzyme. If there is no analyte of interest in the sample, the second analyte just binds to the enzyme, whereas if there is the analyte of interest in the sample, there is a competition between the two analytes. This phenomenon leads to an inhibition of enzyme binding.

The developed sensor deploys an optical competitive method. As described in the following Section, it deploys the competition between the antibiotic of interest and a particular substrate. This competition leads to a variation in absorbance at a specific wavelength. In the next Section, together with the theoretical background, a brief description of the whole system is given. Finally, preliminary experimental tests are reported and discussed in Section 4.3 and 4.4.

Table 4.1: List of pharmacologically active substances for which maximum residue limits have been fixed. Council Regulation (EEC) no. 2377/90.

Pharmacologically active substance(s)	Marker residue	MRLs in milk $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$	MRLs in food producing species $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$
Penicillins			
Amoxicillin	Amoxicillin	4	50
Ampicillin	Ampicillin	4	50
Benzylopenicillin	Benzylopenicillin	4	50
Cloxacillin	Cloxacillin	30	300
Dicloxacillin	Dicloxacillin	30	300
Nafcillin	Nafcillin	30	300
Oxacillin	Oxacillin	30	300
Penethamate	Benzylopenicillin	4	50
Cephalosporins			
Cefacetrile	Cefacetrile	125	-
Cefalexin	Cefalexin	100	200 (muscle, fat, liver) 1000 (kidney)
Cefalonium	Cefalonium	20	-
Cefapirin	Sum of cephapirin and desacetylcephapirin	60	50 (muscle, fat) 100 (kidney)
Cefazolin	Cefazolin	50	-
Cefoperazone	Cefoperazone	50	-
Cefquinome	Cefquinome	20	50 (muscle, fat) 100 (liver) 200 (kidney)
Ceftiofur	Sum of all residues retaining the betalactam structure expressed as desfuroylceftiofur	100	1000 (muscle) 2000 (fat, liver) 6000 (kidney)

4.2 Materials and Methods

The developed system deploys the absorbance variation of a particular substrate in the presence of the antibiotic. Thus it consists of an optical system, a front-end and control electronics and a software interface. In the next sections the theoretical background is presented, and a brief description of the optics, electronics and software interface is given.

4.2.1 Theoretical background

The system aims to the detection of beta-lactam antibiotics in milk through the use of the beta-lactamase enzyme (AmpC). The enzyme is able to link to the antibiotic determining its inactivity. The idea is to synthesize a substrate, CHROMOTIN (CENTA), with different chemo-physical properties capable of linking to the same enzyme active site. The substrate changes its optical properties with respect to the interaction with the enzyme. In particular, this interaction determines a change in absorbance of the substrate from about 345 nm to 405 nm. Thus, in the presence of the antibiotic, the antibiotic and the substrate compete for the same enzyme active site (Figure 4.1). The substrate, which links to the enzyme, is inversely proportional to the concentration of antibiotic, thus the variation in absorbance at 405 nm is inversely proportional to the concentration of antibiotic.

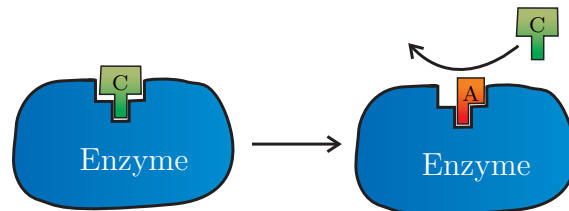


Figure 4.1: Schematic representation of the competition between CENTA (C) and antibiotic (A) for the enzyme active site.

In order to describe the enzyme kinetics, the Michaelis-Menten equation (Eq. 4.16) plays a fundamental role [147]. It is characterized by two constants: the Michaelis constant, K_m , and the indirectly obtained catalytic constant k_{cat} .

The simplest possible reaction is the irreversible conversion of substance S to product P .



The arrow is drawn from S to P to signify that the equilibrium lies far to the right, and the reverse reaction is infinitesimally small. The reaction rate or velocity

of the reaction (v) can be defined in terms of the time (t)-dependent production of product P . Since formation of P involves the loss of S , v can be defined in terms of the time-dependent consumption of substance S . Finally the operator $[\cdot]$ represents the concentration of the substance inside the square brackets.

$$v = \frac{\delta[P]}{\delta t} = -\frac{\delta[S]}{\delta t} = k_1 [S]. \quad (4.2)$$

Considering a simple conversion of substrate (S) into product (P) catalyzed by an enzyme (E), Eq. 4.1 can be rewritten as:



Assuming that the dissociation rate k_{cat} of the enzyme-substrate complex (ES) is slow compared to association k_1 and redissociation k_{-1} reactions and that the reverse reaction ($P \rightarrow S$) is negligible, following Eq. 4.2, the formation of the product can be expressed as:

$$v = k_{cat} [ES]. \quad (4.4)$$

At steady-state, the enzyme-substrate concentration is stable, thus

$$\frac{\delta[ES]}{\delta t} = 0, \quad (4.5)$$

which yields to:

$$k_1[E][S] = k_{-1}[ES] + k_{cat}[ES], \quad (4.6)$$

since the formation of the ES complex and the breakdown of the ES complex are equal. Equation 4.6 can be written as:

$$\frac{k_1[E][S]}{k_{-1} + k_{cat}} = [ES]. \quad (4.7)$$

The three rate constants can be combined in one term, K_m , known as the Michaelison-Menten constant:

$$K_m = \frac{k_{-1} + k_{cat}}{k_1}, \quad (4.8)$$

and Eq. 4.7 can be rewritten as:

$$\frac{[E][S]}{K_m} = [ES]. \quad (4.9)$$

The amount of free enzyme (E) and enzyme that is bound to the substrate (ES) varies over the course of a reaction, but the total amount of enzyme (E_t) is constant such that:

$$E = E_t - ES. \quad (4.10)$$

Substituting into Eq. 4.9 yields:

$$\frac{([E_t] - [ES])[S]}{K_m} = [ES], \quad (4.11)$$

which can be rearranged as:

$$\frac{[E_t][S]}{K_m + [S]} = [ES]. \quad (4.12)$$

Substituting into Eq. 4.4 yields:

$$v = \frac{k_{cat} [E_t] [S]}{K_m + [S]}. \quad (4.13)$$

The maximum possible reaction rate (V_{max}) would be achieved when all the available enzyme is bound to the substrate and involved in catalysis, i.e.,

$$[ES] = [E_t]. \quad (4.14)$$

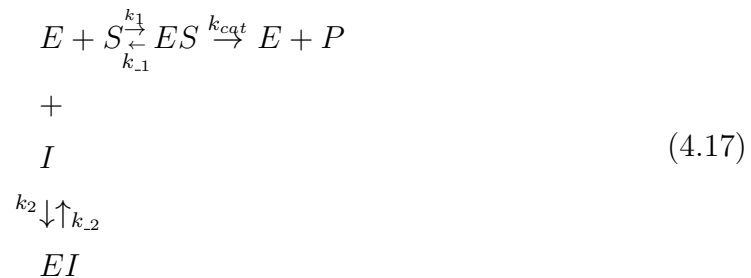
Substituting Eq. 4.14 into Eq. 4.4 under conditions of saturating substrate concentration, yields:

$$V_{max} = k_{cat} [E_t], \quad (4.15)$$

and substituting Eq. 4.15 into Eq. 4.13 yields the Michaelis-Menten equation:

$$v = \frac{V_{max} [S]}{K_m + [S]}. \quad (4.16)$$

In a competitive inhibition, the competitive inhibitor binds at the catalytic site, without undergoing catalysis. In this way, the presence of an inhibitor decreases the ability of the enzyme to bind with its substrate. The reaction scheme below details the mechanism. Here k_1 and k_{-1} are the rates for the association and redissociation reactions for the enzyme-substrate complex (Eq. 4.3), and k_2 and k_{-2} are the rates for the association and redissociation reactions between the enzyme and inhibitor (I).



At steady state, the enzyme-inhibitor concentration is stable; thus following Eqs 4.5-4.8, the association and redissociation rate constants for the enzyme-inhibitor complex can be combined in one term K_i , the dissociation constant for inhibitor, and following Eq. 4.9 can be expressed as:

$$K_i = \frac{[E][I]}{[EI]}. \quad (4.18)$$

Since some enzyme is bound to the inhibitor, the equation describing the total amount of enzyme has an extra term and Eq. 4.10 becomes:

$$E = E_t - ES - EI. \quad (4.19)$$

The resulting rate equation becomes:

$$v = \frac{k_{cat} [E_t] [S]}{K_m \left(1 + \frac{[I]}{K_i}\right) + [S]}, \quad (4.20)$$

and following Eq. 4.15:

$$v = \frac{V_{max} [S]}{K_m \left(1 + \frac{[I]}{K_i}\right) + [S]} = \frac{V_{max} [S]}{K_m^{app} + [S]}, \quad (4.21)$$

where:

$$K_m^{app} = K_m \left(1 + \frac{[I]}{K_i}\right). \quad (4.22)$$

As can be seen from Eq. 4.22, an increase in the concentration of a competitive inhibitor will increase the apparent K_m of the enzyme. However, since an infinite substrate concentration will exclude the competitive inhibitor, there is no effect on V_{max} .

Moreover, Eq. 4.21 can be expressed also as [148]:

$$\frac{\delta y}{\delta t} = \frac{V_{max} (s_0 - y)}{K_m^{app} + (s_0 - y)}, \quad (4.23)$$

where s_0 is the initial substrate concentration and the concentration at time t is $s_0 - y$.

Integrating Eq. 4.23 yields:

$$V_{max} t = \int_0^y \frac{s_0 - y + K_m}{s_0 - y} dy = y + K_m \log \left(\frac{s_0}{s_0 - y} \right). \quad (4.24)$$

Rearranging, it yields:

$$\frac{1}{t} \log \left(\frac{s_0}{s_0 - y} \right) = \frac{1}{K_m} \left(V_{max} - \frac{y}{t} \right). \quad (4.25)$$

According to Beer-Lambert law, in a non-scattering medium, the substrate concentration is related to the absorbance of an incident light by the following equation [149]:

$$A = \log \left(\frac{I_0}{I} \right) = \epsilon [S] l, \quad (4.26)$$

where A is light absorbance, I_0 is the incident light, I is the emergent light, ϵ is the specific extinction coefficient, $[S]$ is the substrate concentration and l is the light pathlength (distance between points where light enters and leaves the medium). Nevertheless, in a scattering medium, the Beer-Lambert law is modified and becomes [149]:

$$A = \log \left(\frac{I_0}{I} \right) = \epsilon [S] l \cdot DPF + G, \quad (4.27)$$

where the differential pathlength factor (DPF) is included to account for the extended pathlength due to scattering, and G represents the losses due to scattering. Consequently, quantitative measurements of $[S]$ cannot be made without knowledge of DPF and G .

Nevertheless, assuming that DPF and G are always constant, changes in $[S]$ from an arbitrary baseline are then calculated from changes in light attenuation. Thus, considering Eq. 4.25 and Eq. 4.27, s_0 and $s_0 - y$ can be expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} s_0 &= k A_\infty - G_\infty - (k A_0 - G_0) \\ y &= k A_t - G_t - (k A_0 - G_0), \end{aligned} \quad (4.28)$$

where A_0 , A_∞ and A_t represent the initial, final and at time t absorbance values respectively, G_0 , G_∞ and G_t represent the initial, final and at time t scattering losses respectively and finally k represents a numerical factor, defined as:

$$k = \frac{1}{\epsilon l DPF}. \quad (4.29)$$

Assuming that DPF and G are always constant ($G_0 = G_t = G_\infty$), s_0 and $s_0 - y$ can be expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} s_0 &= k (A_\infty - A_0) \\ y &= k (A_t - A_0), \end{aligned} \quad (4.30)$$

and Eq. 4.25 can be rewritten as:

$$\frac{1}{t} \log \left(\frac{A_\infty - A_0}{A_\infty - A_t} \right) = \frac{1}{K'_m} \left(V'_{max} - \frac{A_\infty - A_t}{t} \right), \quad (4.31)$$

where K'_m and V'_{max} are K_m and V_{max} expressed in absorbance and absorbance variation per unit time respectively. Eq. 4.31 represents the integrated Michaelis-Menten equation.

4.2.1.1 Graphical determination of K_m and V_{max}

In Figure 4.2, a schematic representation of the rate of product formation is shown.

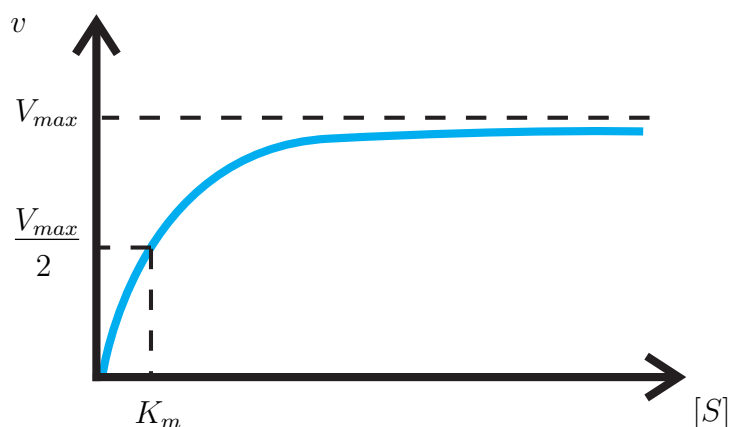


Figure 4.2: Initial rate (v) of an enzyme-catalyzed reaction versus substrate concentration ($[S]$) and graphical determination of V_{max} and K_m .

In principle, V_{max} and K_m can be determined from a graph as the one reported in Figure 4.2. Nevertheless, the plot of v versus $[S]$ is not very useful in determining V_{max} when high substrate concentrations are used. A better approach, suggested by the American chemists Lineweaver and Burk, is to use the double-reciprocal plot of $1/v$ and $1/[S]$. Thus, Eq. 4.16 can be rewritten as:

$$\frac{1}{v} = \frac{K_m}{V_{max} [S]} + \frac{1}{V_{max}}. \quad (4.32)$$

As shown in Figure 4.3a, V_{max} and K_m can be obtained from the slope and the intercept of the straight line. The disadvantage of the Lineweaver-Burk is that it compresses the points at high substrate concentrations whereas it emphasizes the less concentrations points which are the least accurate.

Another way of plotting the kinetic data is the Eadie-Hofstee method, whose describing equation can be obtained by Eq. 4.32 multiplying both sides for $v V_{max}$, thus obtaining:

$$V_{max} = v + \frac{v K_m}{[S]}. \quad (4.33)$$

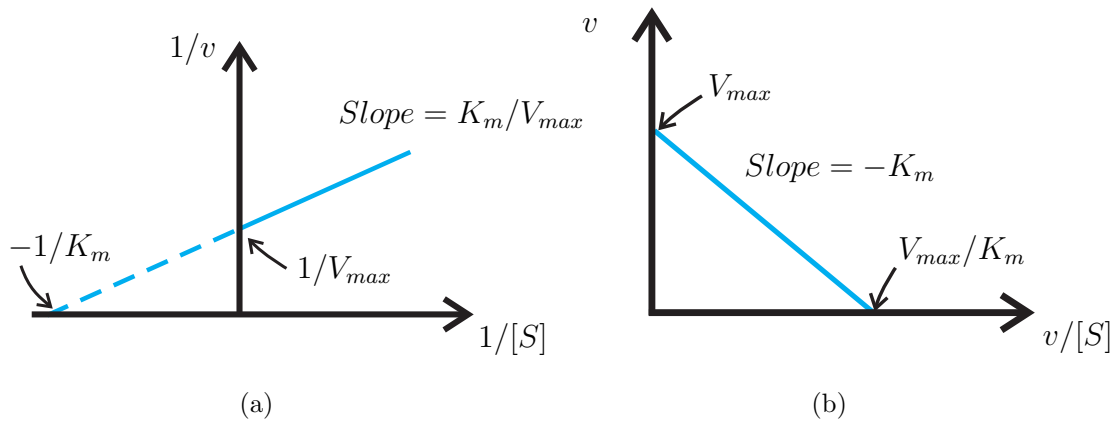


Figure 4.3: Lineweaver-Burk (a) and Eadie-Hofstee (b) plot for an enzyme-catalyzed reaction obeying Michaelis-Menten kinetics.

Rewriting Eq. 4.33 in terms of v , it gives:

$$v = V_{max} - \frac{v_0 K_m}{[S]}. \quad (4.34)$$

The Eadie-Hofstee plot, described by Eq. 4.34, gives a straight line with slope equal to K_m and intercepts V_{max} on the v_0 axis and V_{max}/K_m on the $v_0/[S]$ (Figure 4.3b).

Finally, considering Eq. 4.31 and applying the Eadie-Hofstee method, it gives a straight line with slope equal to $1/K'_m$ and intercepts V'_{max}/K'_m on the $1/t \log(A_\infty - A_0)/(A_\infty - A_t)$ axis and V'_{max} on the $|A_t - A_0|/t$ axis (Figure 4.4).

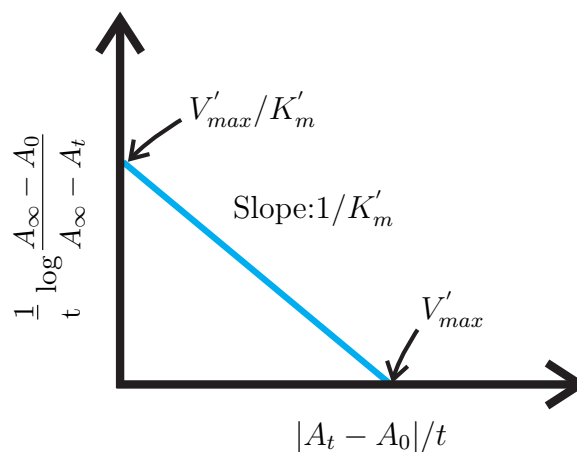


Figure 4.4: Eadie-Hofstee plot applied to the integrated Michaelis-Menten equation.

4.2.2 Instrument optical design

The optics consists of four light sources: two LEDs centered at a wavelength of $\lambda_{peak} = 365 \text{ nm}$ (XSL-365-3E, Roithner LaserTechnik) and two LEDs centered at a wavelength of $\lambda_{peak} = 405 \text{ nm}$ (LED-405-33V, Roithner LaserTechnik) respectively, and a photodiode (HFD 1100, EG&G), placed directly in contact with the walls of a cuvette holder. In order to realize a low cost device, no other optics were used. In addition, since only one photodiode has been used, the measurement at the two different wavelengths has been performed with a time division multiplexing (TDM) technique. In this way, the two LEDs are switched on at different times, for a time interval of 3 seconds each. After switching off each LED, no LED is switched on, for a time interval of 3 seconds, in order to measure the blank signal. Thus, the signal of interest is determined considering the difference between the mean value, determined with the LED on, and the baseline value, measured when all LEDs are off. Different cuvettes were used, in particular a glass cuvette with an optical path of 1 mm and disposable plastic cuvettes with an optical path of 10 mm. Finally, a schematic design of the optical setup is shown in Figure 4.5.

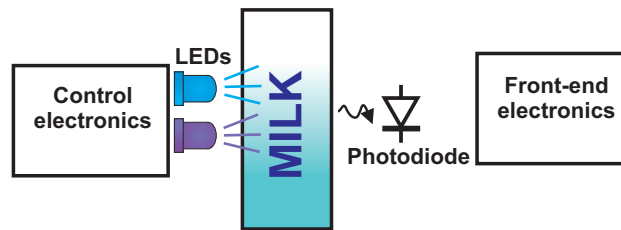
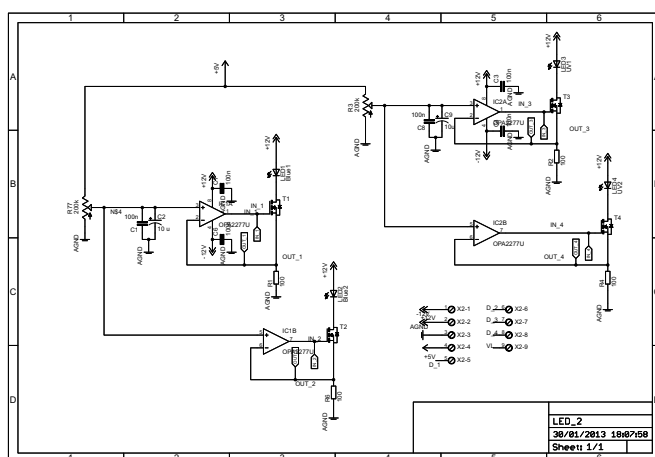


Figure 4.5: Schematic representation of the optical setup for the absorbance variation measurement. It consists of four LEDs (two centered at $\lambda_{peak} = 365 \text{ nm}$ and two centered at $\lambda_{peak} = 405 \text{ nm}$ respectively) and a photodiode.

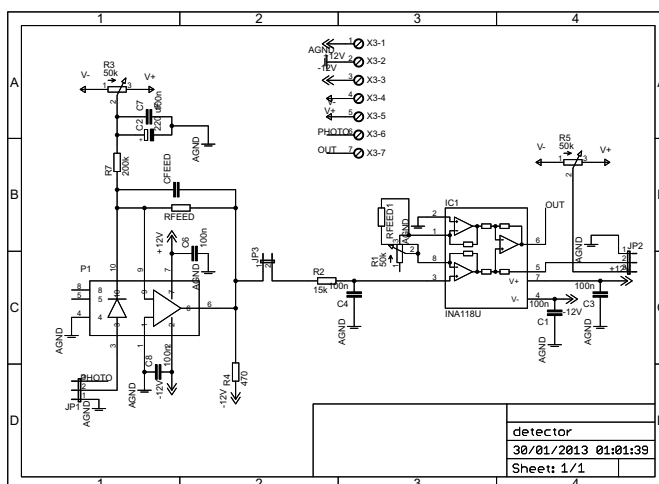
4.2.3 Electronics

A driver, front-end and control electronics has been designed and realized. The driver electronics (Figure 4.6a) consists of four current generators to drive the LEDs. Each current generator can be switched off through an analog switch (short-circuit between the gate and the source of the MOSFET of the current generator). The front-end electronics consists of a transimpedance amplifier to convert the current photogenerated by the incident light on the photodiode, together with an instrumentation amplifier to amplify the signal (Figure 4.6b). Finally, a commercial Arduino Uno board has been used to acquire the signals of interest, to control the system and to communicate with the PC through a USB port, as schematically shown in

Figure 4.7.



(a)



(b)

Figure 4.6: Electrical schematics of the driver (a) and front-end electronics (b). The first one consists of four current generators to drive the LEDs, whereas the second one consists of a transimpedance amplifier and an instrumentation amplifier.

Pictures of the realized system are shown in Figure 4.8; it can be noticed the cuvette holder, optics and electronics (4.8(a-b)) and the whole system (4.8(c-d)).

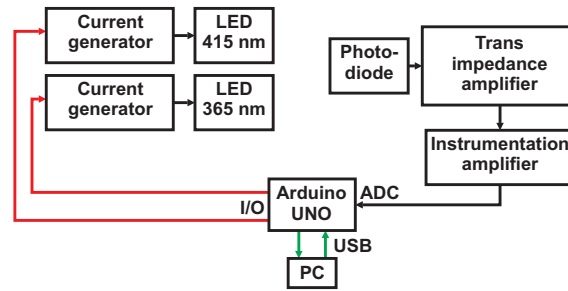
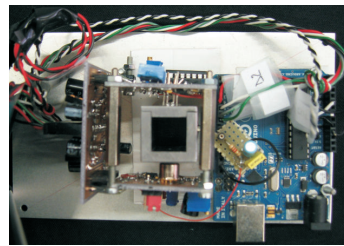
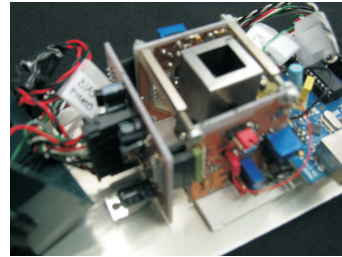


Figure 4.7: Schematic representation of the electronics. It consists of four current generators to drive the LEDs, a transimpedance amplifier and an instrumentation amplifier to convert and amplify the photogenerated current, and an Arduino Uno board to communicate with the PC and to control all the electronics.



(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Figure 4.8: Pictures of the realized system: cuvette holder, optics and electronics (a-b) and the whole system (c-d).

4.2.4 Software interface

A software interface has been developed in LabVIEW to manage all the system. In particular, it allows to record the signals of interest and calibrate the system. Moreover, it automatically determines the quantities of interest, representative of the antibiotic concentrations. A picture of the main interface is shown in Figure 4.9, whereas the VI hierarchy is reported in Figure 4.10.

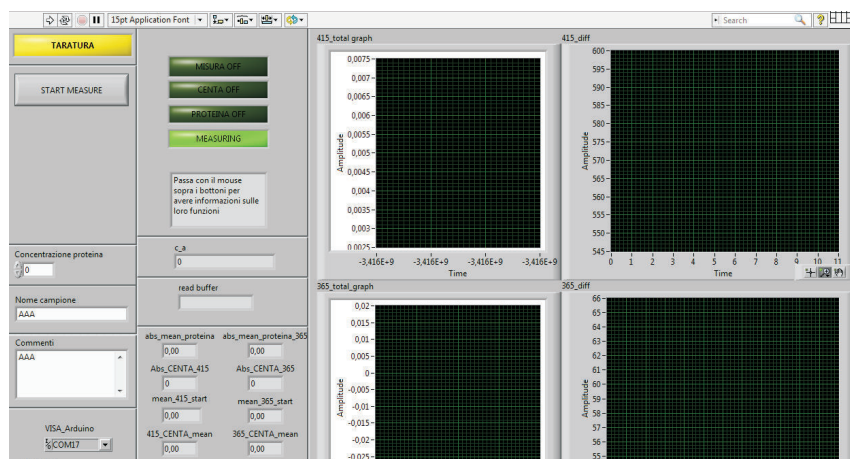


Figure 4.9: Software interface realized in LabVIEW.

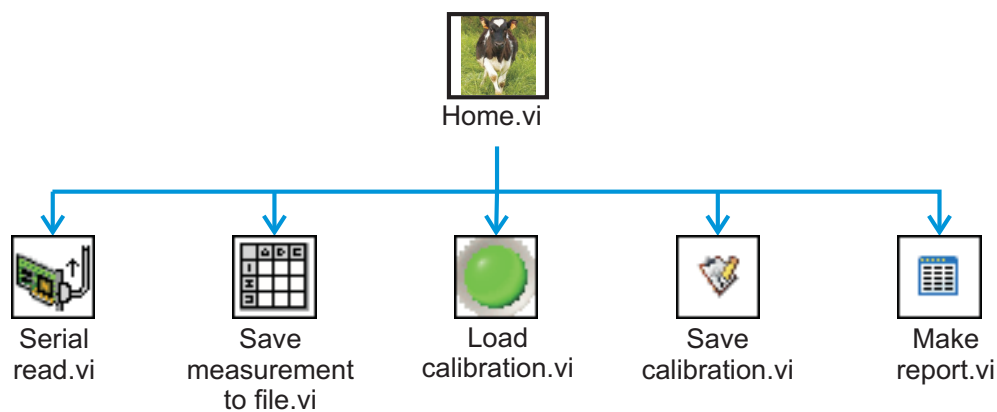


Figure 4.10: VI hierarchy of the software interface, developed in LabVIEW, to manage all the system.

4.3 Experimental protocol

The information of interest is represented by the absorbance variation at 405 nm and 365 nm in the presence of the antibiotic. In particular, the presence of the antibiotic determines a change both in the enzyme kinetic (K_m^{app}) and in the final settled absorbance value (A_∞) [150], as described in Section 4.2.1. Thus, combining these two information, it is possible to have a better estimation of the antibiotic concentration.

Two different experimental tests have been performed. The first one has been done using a spectrometer whereas the second one using the developed system. In the first one, since the spectrometer is able to determine the absorbance comparing the signal of interest with a reference channel, no further calculations have been performed. On the other side, in the developed system there is no reference path. For this reason, it is necessary to measure the output voltage of the developed system in the following conditions:

- Milk;
- Milk + CENTA;
- Milk + CENTA + Protein (Enzyme AmpC).

In this way, it is possible to define the following quantities:

$$A_{CENTA} = \frac{V_{CENTA}}{V_{Milk}}, \quad (4.35)$$

$$A_{Protein} = \frac{V_{Protein}}{V_{Milk}}, \quad (4.36)$$

where V_{Milk} is the output signal with only milk in the sample at 405 nm, V_{CENTA} the output signal with milk and CENTA at 405 nm and finally $V_{Protein}$ is the output signal with milk and protein after having added CENTA at 405 nm.

In general, the output voltage signal is proportional to the light incident on the photodiode. Thus, considering the modified Beer-Lambert law (Eq. 4.27), V_{CENTA} and $V_{Protein}$ can be expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} V_{CENTA} &= I_0 10^{-G}, \\ V_{Protein} &= I_0 10^{-(\epsilon_B [C_B] l \cdot DPF + G)}, \end{aligned} \quad (4.37)$$

where ϵ_B is the specific extinction coefficient of the binded substrate at $\lambda = 405 \text{ nm}$ and $[C_B]$ is the concentration of substrate (CENTA) binded with the protein.

When V_{CENTA} is measured, $[C_B]$ is equal to zero because no protein is present in the cuvette. Thus, the following quantity $Abs(t)$ can be defined as:

$$Abs(t) = \log\left(\frac{A_{CENTA}}{A_{Protein}}\right) = \log\left(\frac{V_{Milk}}{V_{Protein}} \cdot \frac{V_{CENTA}}{V_{Milk}}\right) = \log\left(\frac{V_{CENTA}}{V_{Protein}}\right). \quad (4.38)$$

Substituting Eq. 4.37 into Eq. 4.38 yields:

$$\begin{aligned} Abs(t) &= \log\left(\frac{I_0 10^{-G}}{I_0 10^{-(\epsilon_B [C_B] l \cdot DPF + G)}}\right), \\ &= \epsilon_B [C_B] l \cdot DPF. \end{aligned} \quad (4.39)$$

Thus, $[C_B]$, is proportional to:

$$[C_B] = k_B Abs(t), \quad (4.40)$$

$$(4.41)$$

where k_B is defined as:

$$k_B = \frac{1}{\epsilon_B l \cdot DPF}. \quad (4.42)$$

Since the antibiotic concentration is inversely proportional to $[C_B]$, the final settled absorbance value (A_∞) is inversely proportional to the antibiotic concentration (Eq. 4.40). The higher the antibiotic concentration, the lower the A_∞ value.

Finally, in order to determine the A_∞ values, the absorbance values ($Abs(t)$) have been interpolated with the following function:

$$Abs(t) = A_\infty - b e^{-at}, \quad (4.43)$$

where a and b are numerical values and A_∞ represents the final settled absorbance value.

Thus, for the measurements performed with the developed system, the following quantities have been determined: K'_m and A_∞ , as defined in Eq. 4.31 and Eq. 4.43 respectively.

4.4 Experimental results

The experimental tests have been performed firstly using a spectrometer to study the feasibility of the sensing approach and then with the developed system, in order to verify its functionality. In the next Sections, the obtained experimental results are presented.

4.4.1 Preliminary spectroscopic analysis

The first experimental tests have been performed in buffer solution with a glass cuvette with an optical path of 1 mm, using a spectrometer (Perkin Elmer). The volume of buffer solution, in each experiment, was 300 μl . The components concentrations are reported in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Component concentrations for the tests performed with the spectrometer.

Component	Stock concentration	Added volume	Cuvette concentration
Test on Buffer			
Buffer		300 μl	
CENTA	5 mM	15 μl	240 μM
Protein	13.85 μM	3 μl	130 nM
Test on Diluted Milk			
Buffer		150 μl	
Milk		150 μl	
CENTA	5 mM	15 μl	240 μM
Protein	13.85 μM	3 μl	130 nM
Test on Milk			
Milk		300 μl	
CENTA	5 mM	15 μl	240 μM
Protein	13.85 μM	3 μl	130 nM
Cloxacillina	0.5 μM	3 μl	5 nM ($\approx 2.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) ^a
		6 μl	10 nM ($\approx 4.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)

^a Cloxacillina molecular weight: 435.88 g/mol.

The scan-rate was 60 nm/min. In Figure 4.11 the measurements performed in buffer solution are shown. They have been performed following the protocol described in Section 4.3, firstly measuring the absorbance of buffer, then the absorbance of buffer and CENTA and finally measuring the absorbance of buffer, CENTA and protein, at consecutive time intervals (3 minutes).

It can be noticed that CENTA (green line) presents an absorption peak at 345 nm. In the presence of the protein, the CENTA reacts with the protein active site and the absorption peak is shifted to 405 nm.

These measurements have been performed also in milk and diluted milk, using the same protocol. In Figure 4.12, the measurements performed in milk (volume 300 μl), are shown, whereas, Figure 4.13 shows the measurements performed in diluted milk (milk 150 μl and buffer 150 μl).

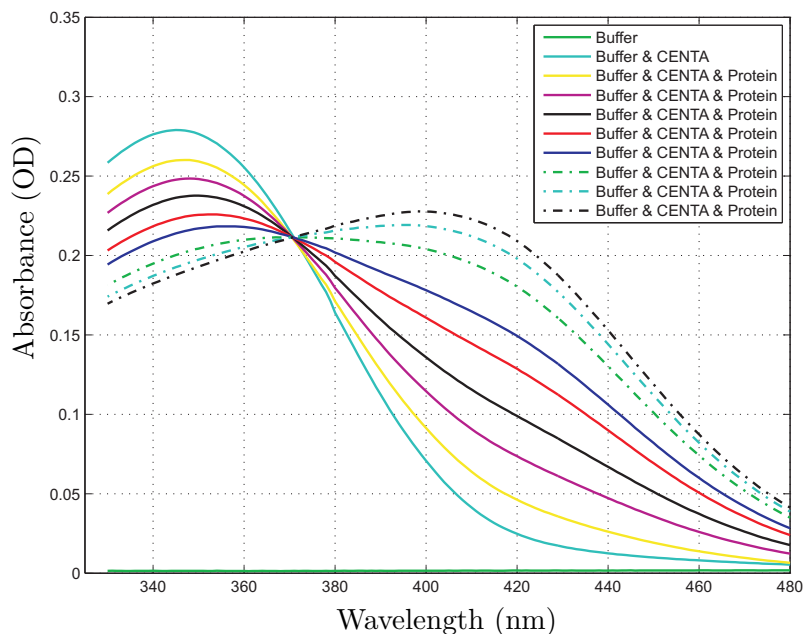


Figure 4.11: Absorbance curves of the buffer solution, buffer solution and CENTA, buffer solution and CENTA and protein, at consecutive time intervals (3 minutes). The measurements have been performed with a spectrometer (cuvette: 1 mm, scan-rate: 60 nm/min).

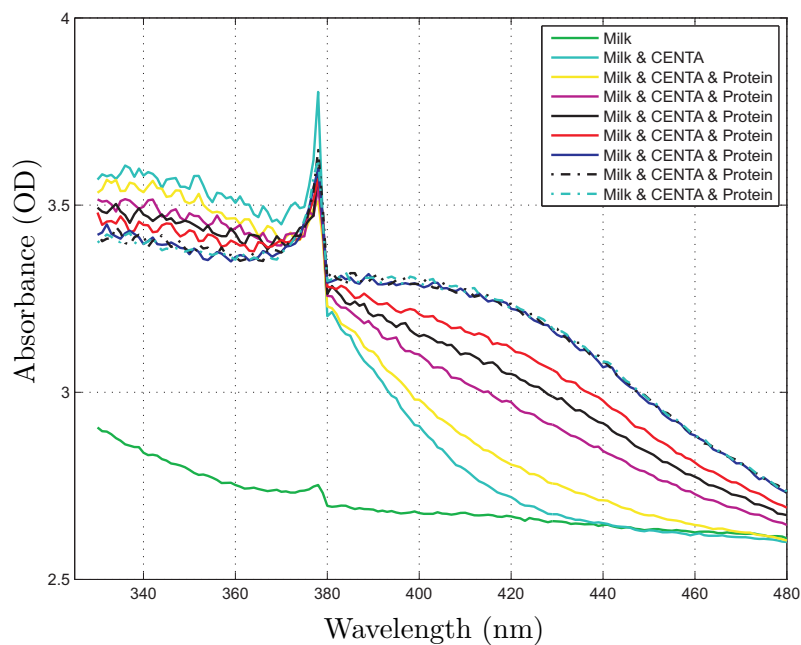


Figure 4.12: Absorbance curves of milk, milk and CENTA, milk and CENTA and protein, at consecutive time intervals (3 minutes). The measurements have been performed with a spectrometer (cuvette: 1 mm, scan-rate: 60 nm/min).

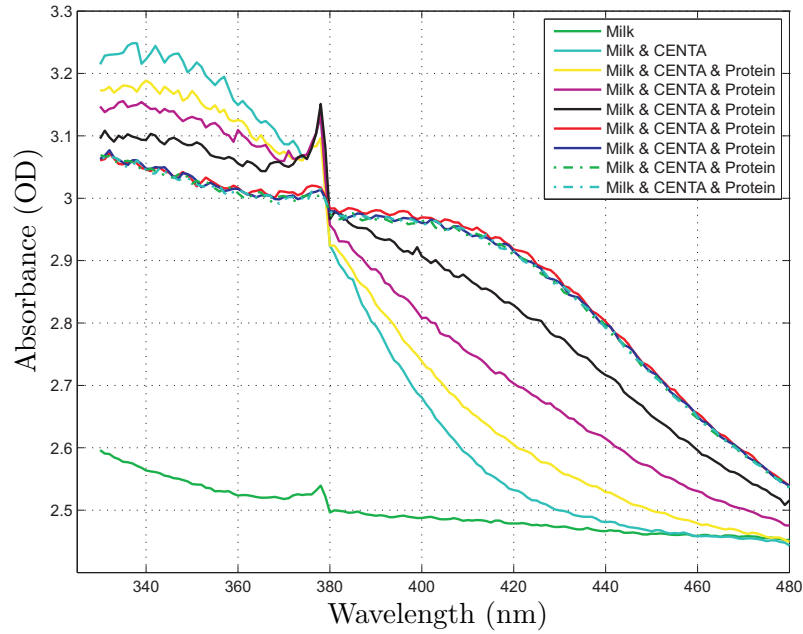


Figure 4.13: Absorbance curves of diluted milk, diluted milk and CENTA, diluted milk and CENTA and protein, at consecutive time intervals (3 minutes). The measurements have been performed with a spectrometer (cuvette: 1 mm, scan-rate: 60 nm/min).

Finally, these measurements were repeated in milk with a non zero concentration of antibiotic. In particular, the first test has been performed with no antibiotic, the second test with antibiotic (cloxacillina), concentration 5 nM, and finally the third test with antibiotic (cloxacillina), concentration 10 nM. In Figure 4.14, the final settled absorbance curves for the three different tests are shown, whereas, in Figure 4.15, the absorbance versus time, measured at 405 nm, is shown, for the three different samples.

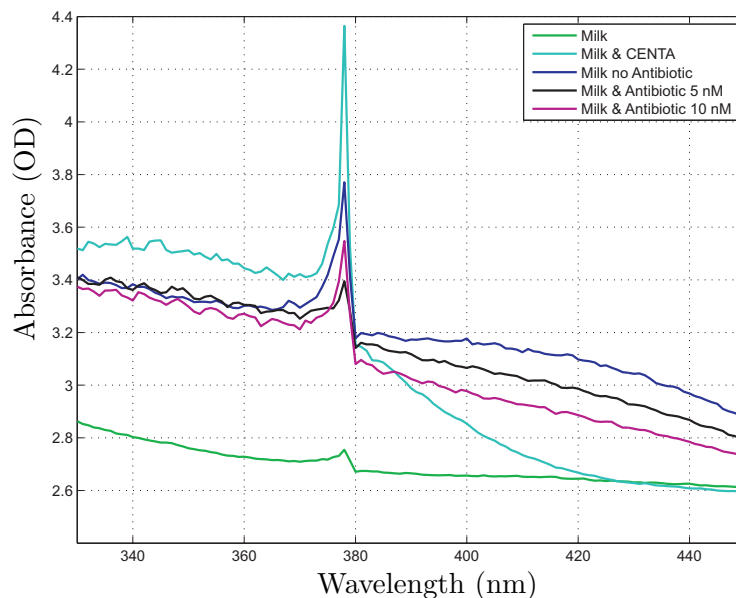


Figure 4.14: Absorbance settled curves of milk (green), milk and CENTA (cyan), milk and CENTA and protein (blue), milk and CENTA and protein and antibiotic (5 nM) (black), milk and CENTA and protein and antibiotic (10 nM) (purple). The measurements have been performed with a spectrometer (cuvette: 1 mm, scan-rate: 60 nm/min).

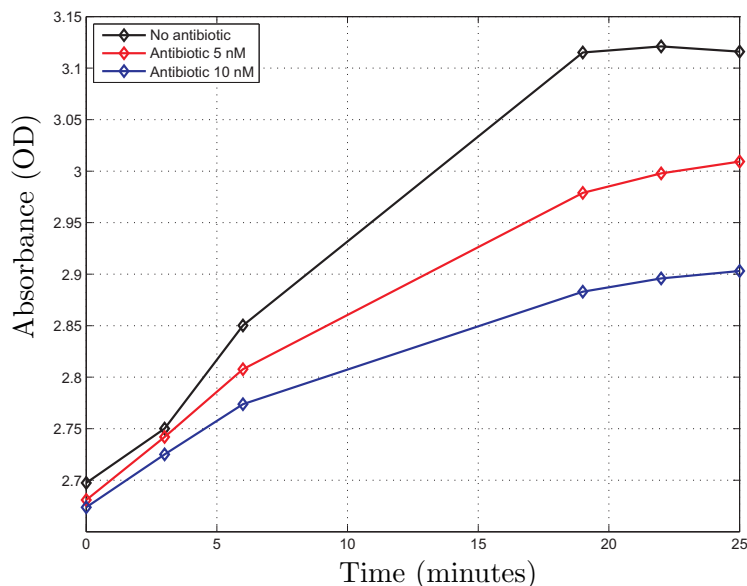


Figure 4.15: Absorbance recorded at 405 nm, without antibiotic (black), with antibiotic, concentration 5 nM, (red) and with antibiotic, concentration 10 nM (blue). The measurements have been performed with a spectrometer (cuvette: 1 mm, scan-rate: 60 nm/min).

4.4.2 Functional tests of the developed system

The measurements with the developed system have been performed following the protocol described in Section 4.3. A typical curve recorded with the developed system is shown in Figure 4.16, at the two different wavelength, 405 nm (Figure 4.16a) and 365 nm (Figure 4.16b) respectively. The first part represents the signal measured with only milk, the second one after having added CENTA and finally, the last one, after having added the protein.

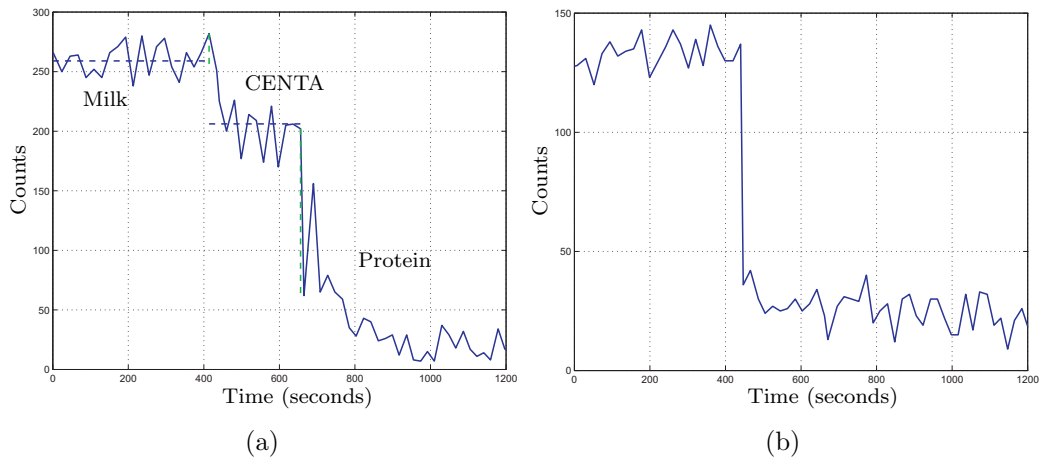


Figure 4.16: A typical curve recorded with the developed system at the two different wavelength, 405 nm and 365 nm respectively. The first part represents the signal measured with only milk, the second one after having added CENTA and finally, the last one, after having added the protein.

In the next sections, three different tests will be described. For each test, parameters A_∞ and K'_m were determined. In the presence of the antibiotic, A_∞ should decrease whereas K'_m should increase.

4.4.2.1 Test 1

The first test has been performed with a cuvette with an optical path of 10 mm, using the developed system. The component concentrations are reported in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Component concentrations for the 1° test.

Component	Stock concentration	Added volume	Cuvette concentration
Milk		80 μl	
Buffer		720 μl	
CENTA	8 mM	27 μl	261 μM
Protein	13.85 μM	10 μl	165 nM
Oxacillina	50 μM	0.6 μl	35 nM ($\approx 14 \mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) ^a
		1.2 μl	70 nM ($\approx 28 \mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)
		1.8 μl	105 nM ($\approx 42 \mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)
		2.4 μl	140 nM ($\approx 56 \mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)
		4.8 μl	280 nM ($\approx 112 \mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)
		7.2 μl	420 nM ($\approx 168 \mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)
		9.6 μl	560 nM ($\approx 224 \mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$)

^a Oxacillina molecular weight: 401.436 g/mol.

In Figure 4.17a, A_∞ values versus antibiotic concentration are shown, whereas in Figure 4.17b the K'_m values versus antibiotic concentration are shown.

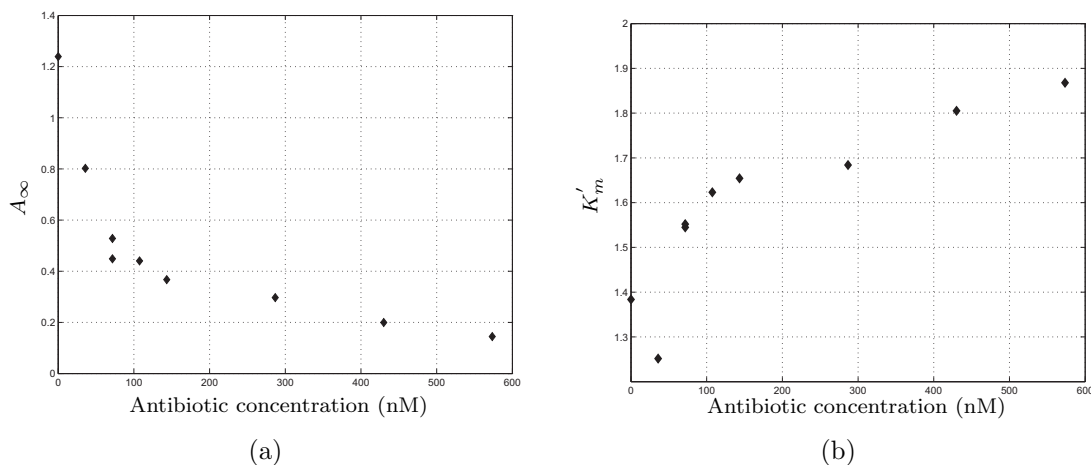


Figure 4.17: A_∞ (a) and K'_m (b) versus antibiotic concentration, measured using the developed system, 1° test. CENTA 261 μM , protein 165 nM, Antibiotic: Oxacillina.

4.4.2.2 Test 2

The second test has been performed with a cuvette with an optical path of 10 mm. The component concentrations are reported in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Component concentrations for the 2° test.

Component	Stock concentration	Added volume	Cuvette concentration
Milk		80 μl	
Buffer		720 μl	
CENTA	8 mM	27 μl	261 μM
Protein	13.85 μM	10 μl	165 nM
Oxacillina	50 μM	0.6 μl	35 nM ($\approx 28 \mu\text{g/kg}$) ^a
		1.2 μl	70 nM ($\approx 14 \mu\text{g/kg}$)
		2.4 μl	140 nM ($\approx 14 \mu\text{g/kg}$)
		4.8 μl	280 nM ($\approx 14 \mu\text{g/kg}$)

^a Oxacillina molecular weight: 401.436 g/mol.

In Figure 4.18a, A_∞ values versus antibiotic concentration are shown, whereas in Figure 4.18b the K'_m values versus antibiotic concentration are shown.

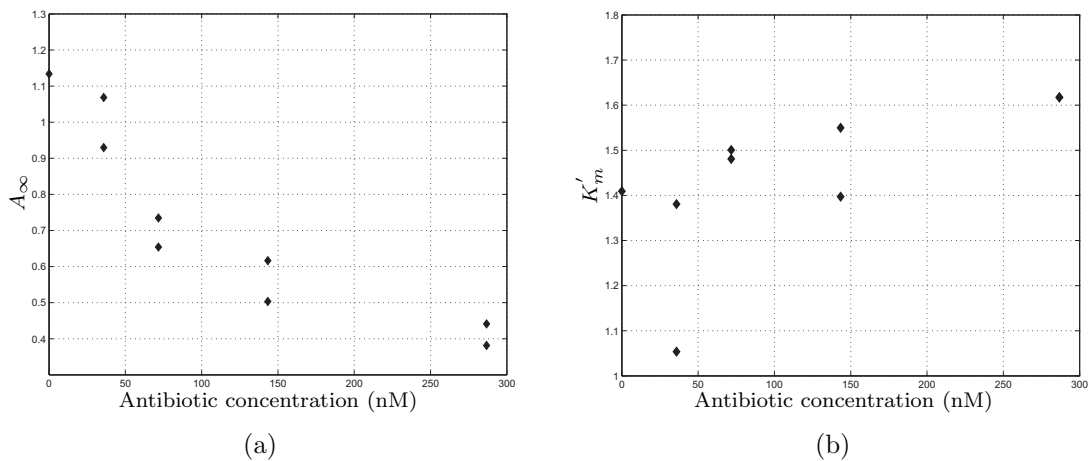


Figure 4.18: A_∞ (a) and K'_m (b) versus antibiotic concentration, measured using the developed system, 2° test. CENTA 261 μM , protein 165 nM, Antibiotic: Oxacillina.

4.4.2.3 Test 3

The third test has been performed with a cuvette with an optical path of 10 mm. The component concentrations are reported in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Component concentrations for the 3° test.

Component	Stock concentration	Added volume	Cuvette concentration
Milk		80 μ l	
Buffer		720 μ l	
CENTA	8 mM	27 μ l	261 μ M
Protein	13.85 μ M	10 μ l	165 nM
Oxacillina	50 μ M	0.6 μ l	35 nM (\approx 28 μ g/kg) ^a
		1.2 μ l	70 nM (\approx 14 μ g/kg)

^a Oxacillina molecular weight: 401.436 g/mol.

In Figure 4.19a, A_∞ values versus antibiotic concentration are shown, whereas in Figure 4.19b the K'_m values versus antibiotic concentration are shown.

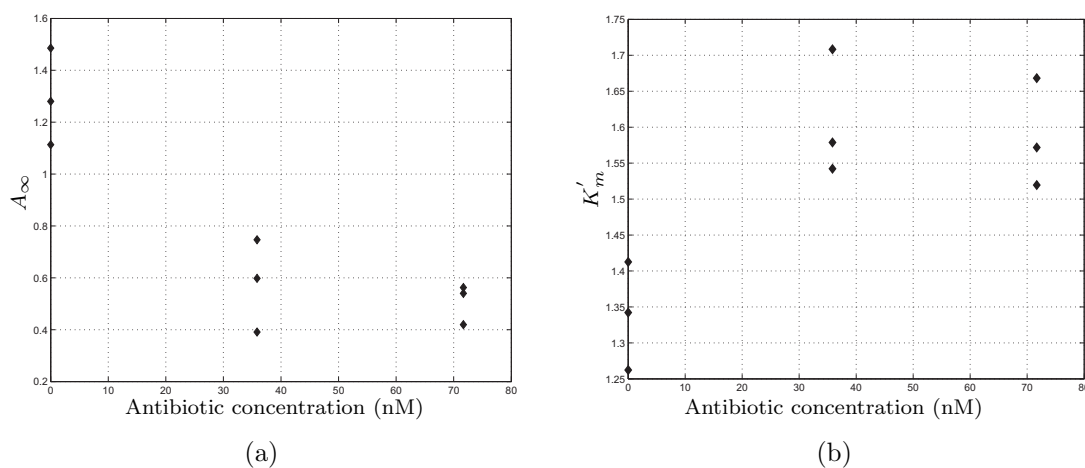


Figure 4.19: A_∞ (a) and K'_m (b) versus antibiotic concentration, measured using the developed system, 3° test. CENTA 261 μ M, protein 165 nM, Antibiotic: Oxacillina.

4.5 Conclusions

A system for the fast determination of antibiotic concentrations in milk samples has been developed and preliminary functional tests have been performed. The system is based on an optical competitive method, deploying the competition between a particular substrate (CENTA) and the antibiotic for the protein active site. The optics and electronics have been designed and realized, together with a software interface. Preliminary tests have been performed with a spectrometer and the developed system, both on buffer solutions and milk samples. The system is able to discriminate different antibiotic concentrations, in particular a relation between A_∞ and antibiotic concentration has been observed; nevertheless, further experimental tests have to be performed in order to better characterize the system. Moreover, the experimental protocol needs to be standardized in order to diminish the uncertainty due to the manual addition of the components (e.g. CENTA, protein) to the sample under test. This can be achieved by using an automated system or a ready-to-use test kit.

4.6 Comparison with the state of the art

Name	Description	Principle	Method	Reaction time	Detection limit
Developed system	Optical sensor for the determination of antibiotic concentration in milk samples	Competition between CENTA and antibiotic	Absorbance variation at 405 nm	<3 min	Below MRLs
TwinsensorBT	Receptor-based assay in a dipstick format allowing rapid and simultaneous detection of β -lactams and tetracyclines present in a milk sample	Competitive method	Colourimetric test	\approx 6 min at 50°C	Qualitative test (Above or below MRLS)
IDEXX SNAP Beta-Lactam ST Test	Optical sensor for the determination of antibiotic concentration in milk samples, without incubation or heat	Competitive method	Colourimetric test	\approx 6 min	Qualitative test (Above or below MRLS)

Table 4.6: Characteristics comparison between the developed system and the main commercial systems.

Conclusions

Biomedical and agri-food industry always requires new sensors to monitor biological parameters and to check the quality and health of food. Nevertheless, the variety and complexity of the sensing environments make the sensing issue very challenging. For these reasons, different sensing methods have to be investigated.

In particular, in the present thesis, the design and realization of four different sensors for biomedical and agri-food industry has been described. In order to face the complexity and variety of the application fields, both optical and electrochemical methods have been used. In particular, two sensors for biomedical industry and two sensors for agri-food industry have been developed: a multi-analyte fluorescence based sensor platform and a combination of electrochemical and SPR techniques, an electrochemical sensor to determine the glycerol concentration in grape juice and an optical sensor to estimate the presence of antibiotics in milk.

The multi-analyte fluorescence based sensor platform consists of a polymer sensing element, including a fluorescent dye, placed in contact with the sample under test, an optical head to excite the fluorescent dye and collect the fluorescence signal and electronics to drive the light source, to collect and process the information of interest. The developed system has been used for the measurement of blood pH and pCO₂ during extracorporeal circulation. These two sensors differ only for the polymer sensing element.

In particular, the pH sensor is based on the pH-dependent fluorescence of a new kind of fluorescent monomer (fluorescein *O*-methacrylate 97%). Since the pK_a of the sensing element has been calculated to be 7.9, the sensor is suitable for measurement of near neutral solutions. Good performance in terms of linearity (in the range 7.0-8.0), stability and reproducibility were observed.

In the tests performed on blood, the sensor has shown a very high correlation (R of 0.9887 and 0.9936 in-vitro and R of 0.9431 and 0.9901 ex-vivo) between pH value determined by our device and pH measured by a commercial blood gas analyzer during in-vitro and ex-vivo experiments. After calibration, a mean square error lower than the 3% of the RoI was determined both for in-vivo and ex-vivo measurements.

Considering an isothermic treatment at 32°C, the mean square error, calculated with the calibration curve obtained considering only the pH values recorded at 37°C, was lower than 3% of the measuring range. This means that this sensor is suitable for isothermic treatment without the need of a new calibration curve.

However a different set of calibration coefficients was obtained for each sensing element. This variation is mainly associated to the reproducibility of the deposition of the fluorescence film on the substrate. Therefore a calibration procedure before each ECC treatment is required. This might be problematic, since at least two points of calibration are required. This procedure leads to two main disadvantages: (i) a commercial blood gas analyzer is always required in order to calibrate the sensor (limiting its field of application); (ii) calibrating the sensor on a human being may be difficult since, in normal conditions, pH has little variations. This means that the sensor is likely to be calibrated with two near points, with a high probability of committing a great error for pH values out of the range of calibration. These problems could be overcome calibrating the sensor with two buffer physiological solutions with an already-known pH. Nevertheless, this approach could be problematic for perfusionists who are accustomed to use only one priming physiological solution.

The fluorescence pCO₂ sensor, instead, is based on the pH-dependent fluorescence of a purposely developed polymer matrix including a fluorescent dye (HPTS). Preliminary tests have been performed both in air and on cow blood. The sensor response has been coherent with the pCO₂ variations, showing a linear behavior for pCO₂ concentrations between 0 and ca. 70 mmHg. The linear range depends both on the pCO₂ of the fluorescent indicator and on the concentration of the phase transfer agent. Thus, by properly tuning the phase transfer agent concentration, the linear range can be increased.

Nowadays, with the advent of the genomic era, nucleic acid testing technologies are becoming very important. However, it has been recognized that the molecular packing density within the DNA layer crucially determines the functionality of the nucleic acids. For instance, the ability of surface immobilized probe strands to capture complementary target sequences from solution is largely suppressed if the layer density is too high. As a consequence, electrical induced desorption of DNA probes is becoming a common technique to control the DNA surface density. At the same time, surface plasmon resonance is a powerful tool to monitor the changes in the refractive index at a solid-liquid interface. Thus, it has been widely used to characterize interactions between biomolecules. For these reasons, a combination of SPR and electrochemical techniques can widely improve the system, allowing for a simultaneous electrical DNA probes desorption and monitoring of the solid-liquid interface. Thus, a system combining electrochemical and SPR techniques has been

developed. It is based on a four-channel SPR system developed at the Institute of Photonics and Electronics AS CR, Prague. An in-situ electrochemical cell has been realized in each channel of the flow cell. Two different geometries have been proposed for the electrodes realization. Experimental tests have been performed with the whole system, comparing the electrochemical and SPR signals. Cyclic voltammeteries performed in PBS and ferricyanide have been used to determine the pseudo-reference potential of the electrochemical cells. Preliminary tests have been performed to study the DNA probes desorption and regeneration. In particular, different negative potentials and different DNA probes have been used. In general, it has been noticed that it is possible to regenerate the DNA sensing chip through an electrical induced desorption. The desorption threshold potential and the desorption efficiency depend both on the applied negative potentials and on the DNA probes. It has been noticed that the longer DNA probes, the more negative potential is required to induce the desorption. Nevertheless, further experimental tests are required in order to better characterize the system and study the electrical induced desorption process.

The quality control of wine, since the grape harvest, is becoming a problem of great importance. Nevertheless, traditional food-inspection techniques rely on sample collection and subsequent off-line analysis in a laboratory through periodic chemical and microbiological tests. These methods do not allow an easily continuous monitoring, because they are expensive, slow, need well trained operators and in some cases require steps of extraction or sample pre-treatment. At the same time, glycerol concentration in grape juice has proven to be a reliable indicator for the future quality of wine. In particular, deviations from its normal value might indicate technological alterations during the process or deterioration of the harvested grapes.

In order to allow a quality control directly at the winery, during the grape harvest, a fast and reliable sensor is required. For all these reasons, a portable system for the fast estimation of glycerol concentration in grape juice has been developed.

Thus, an electrochemical sensor has been realized, together with an automated system through the use of micropumps. The system is able to automatically collect the samples from the corer, which takes some grape samples from the trucks, to dilute them with buffer solution and add all the reactants needed for the measurement.

Experimental tests have been performed both in laboratory and during the grape harvest. In order to perform the measurement in less than 3 minutes (time constraint defined by the winery), an external calibration curve has been used for all the grape kinds (white and red), previously determined in a mute grape juice, and only one replicate has been considered. Although this approach worsens the measurement accuracy, the instrument can correctly classifies grapes based on the content of glycerol.

erol, providing an important tool for an objective classification of the grapes, not biased by the visual judgment.

Finally, milk is one of the most important food, both as a beverage and to produce milk derivatives, such as cheese and butter. For this reason, milk is one of the most regulated product in food industry. As a consequence, there is an increasing request of a method capable of a fast and multi-antibiotic sensing. In fact, lots of present test methods are laborious and time-consuming and can be performed only off-line.

For these reasons, a new system for the fast determination of antibiotic concentrations in milk samples has been studied. The system is based on an optical competitive method, deploying the competition between a particular substrate (CENTA) and the antibiotic for the protein active site. The optics and electronics have been designed and realized, together with a software interface. Preliminary tests have been performed with a spectrometer and the developed system, both on buffer solutions and milk samples. The system is able to discriminate different antibiotic concentrations, nevertheless, further experimental tests have to be performed in order to better characterize the system. Moreover, the experimental protocol needs to be standardized in order to diminish the uncertainty due to the manual addition of the reactants to the sample under test. This can be achieved by using an automated system or a ready-to-use test kit.

Future works will look at improving all the sensors in order to make them suitable for a direct implementation in their proper application field.

In particular, in the multi-analyte fluorescence based sensor platform, great effort will be done to improve the reproducibility of the sensing membranes, so that it could be possible to calibrate some sample sensors of the same production lot before the use on ECC and then using the same calibration curve for all the sensors of the lot. Thus, it could be possible to use a generic sensor on ECC just taking a point of calibration, in order to adjust the calibration offset.

Further tests are needed for the electrochemical-SPR system, in order to better control the DNA density and better understand the relation between applied potential and DNA desorption. The combination of these two techniques could lead to a very powerful instrument, which deploys the advantages of both techniques.

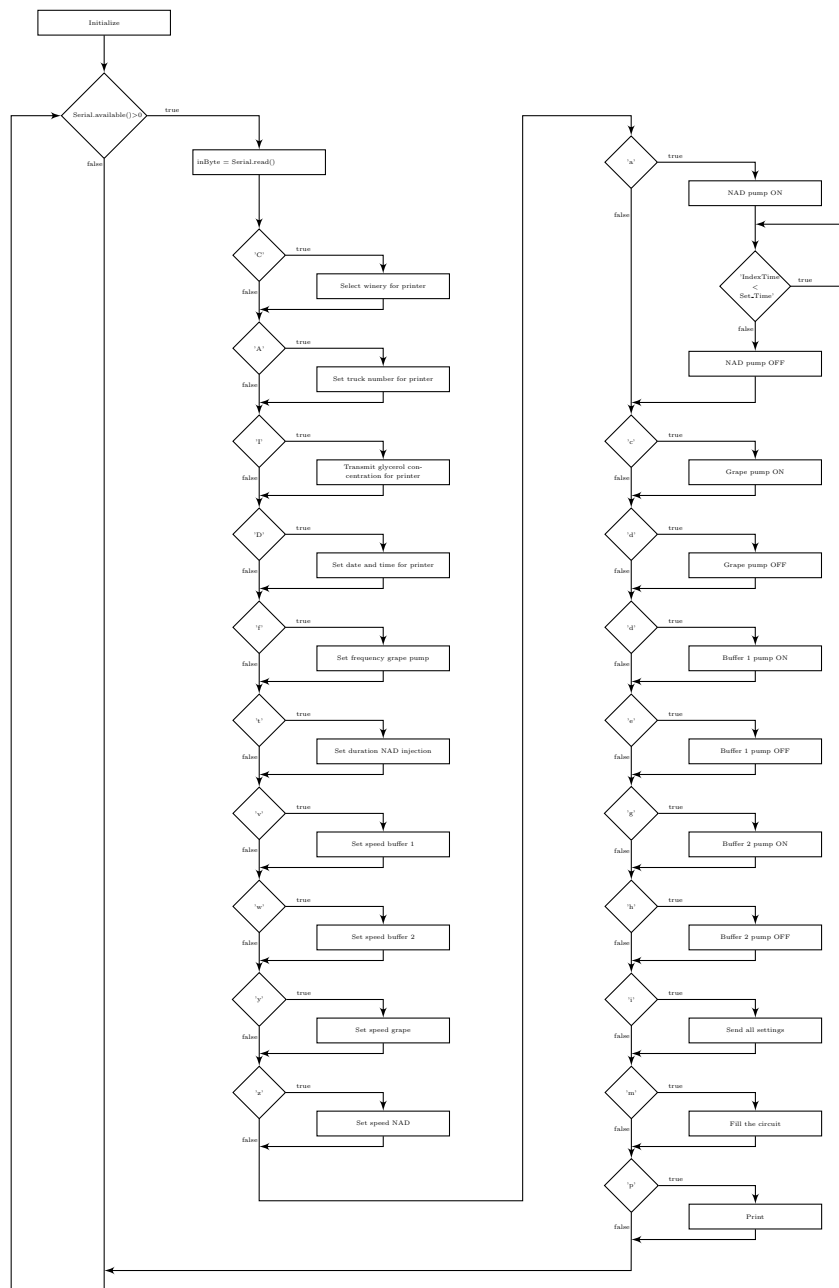
Finally, further field-tests are needed for the developed agri-food sensors. In fact, both grape juice and milk are very complex matrices and a great effort has to be done in order to take into account their great variety and to test the sensors reliability within a short test time (less than 3 minutes).

In conclusion, a great effort has been done to design and realize biomedical and agri-food sensors. The developed systems have placed the basis for future improvements in biomedical monitoring and in food quality control.

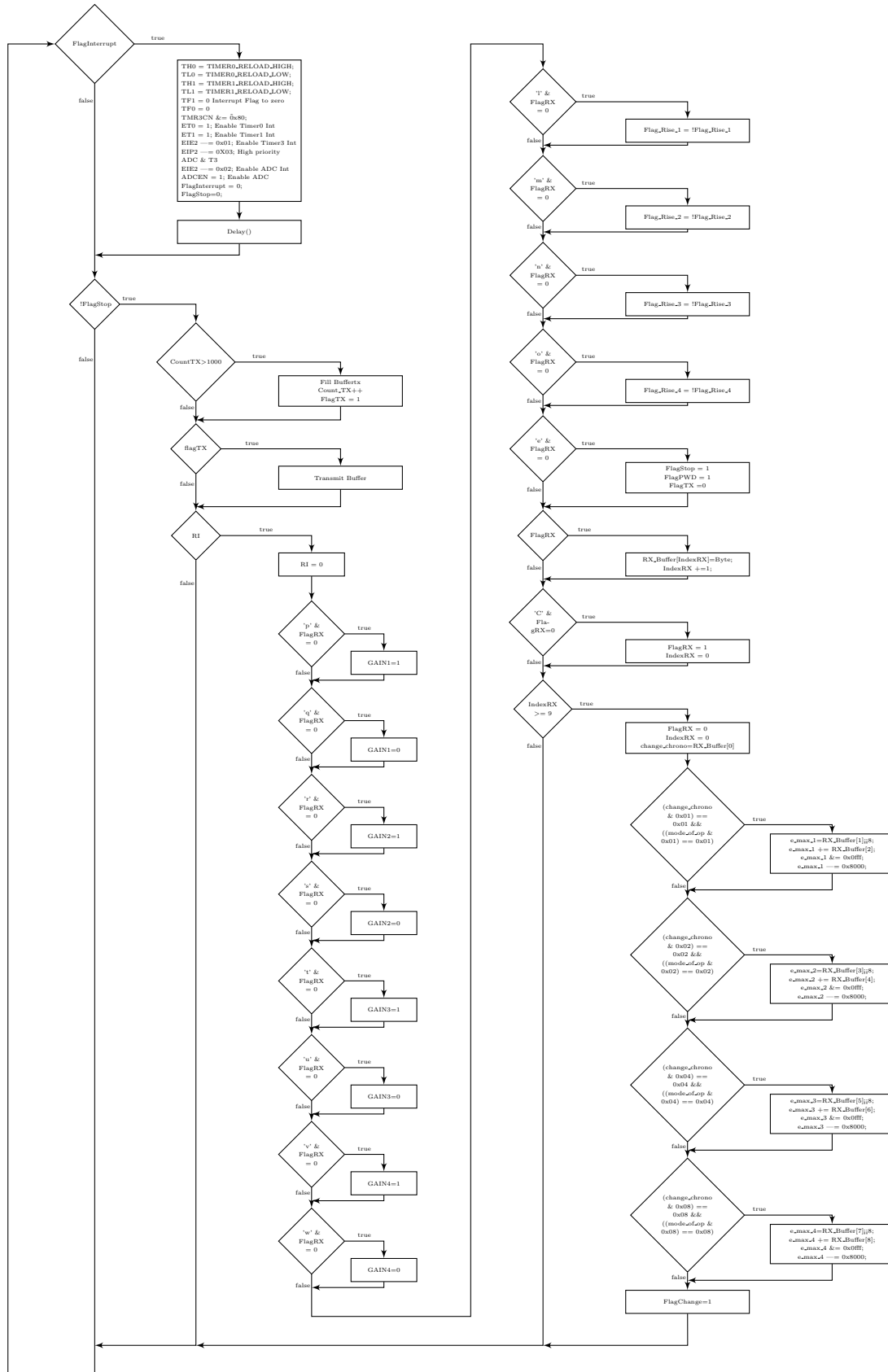
“You cannot manage what you do not measure”

Flow charts

A.1 Glycerol concentration sensor

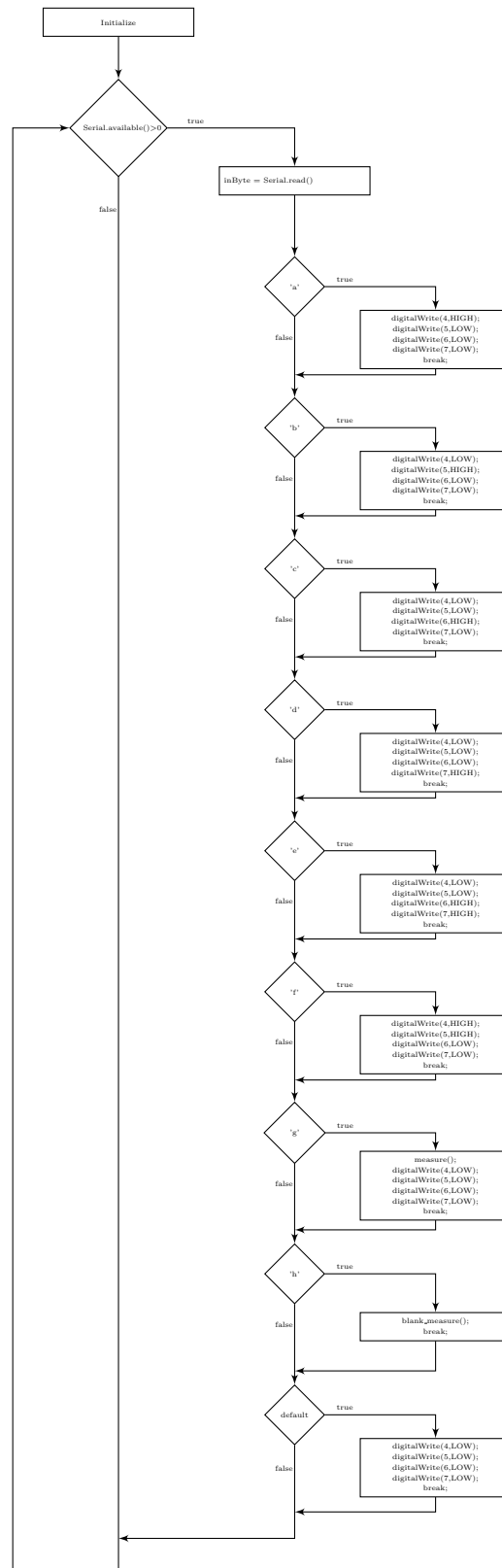


A.2 Electrochemical SPR system

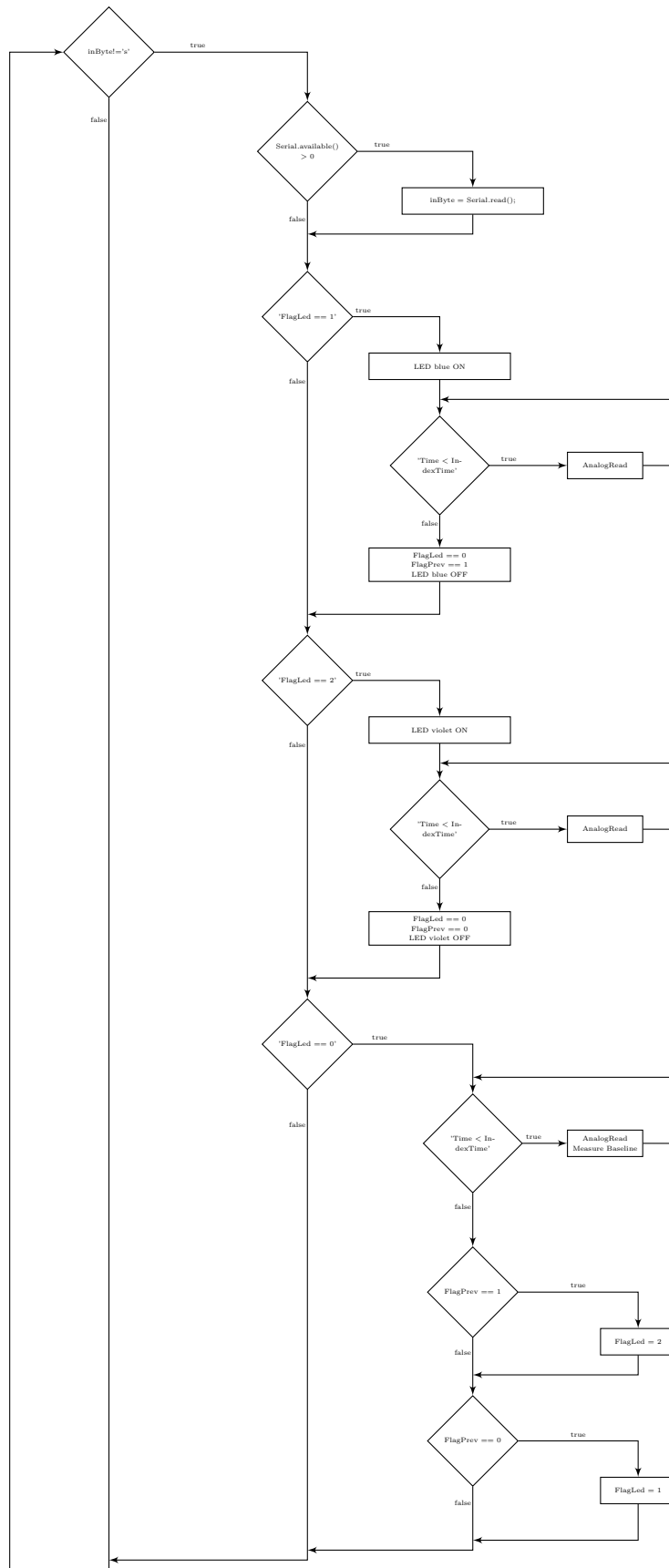


A.3 Antibiotic concentration sensor

A.3.1 Main



A.3.2 Measure()



Implemented code

B.1 Electrochemical SPR system

```
1 //-----
3 // Includes
//-----
5 #include <C8051F000.h> // SFR declarations
7 #include <stdio.h>
9 //-----
// User-defined types, structures, unions etc
11 //-----
#define BYTE unsigned char
13 #endif
15 //-----
17 // 16-bit SFR Definitions for 'F0xx
//-----
19 sfr16 RCAP2 = 0xCA; // Timer2 capture/reload
21 sfr16 TMR2 = 0xCC; // Timer2
sfr16 DAC0 = 0xD2; // DAC0 data
23 sfr16 ADC0 = 0xBE; // ADC0 data
sfr16 TMR3RL = 0x92; // Timer3 reload value
25 sfr16 TMR3 = 0x94; // Timer3 counter
27 sbit SLAVE_SEL = P0^7; //NSS
sbit GAIN1 = P1^3; // GAIN channel 1 (1 --> lower gain)
29 sbit GAIN2 = P1^7; // GAIN channel 2 (1 --> lower gain)
sbit GAIN3 = P2^3; // GAIN channel 3 (1 --> lower gain)
31 sbit GAIN4 = P2^7; // GAIN channel 4 (1 --> lower gain)
//-----
33 // Global Constants
//-----
35 #define BAUDRATE 115200 // Baud rate of UART in bps
37
39 // SYSCLK = System clock frequency in Hz
41 #define SYSCLK 22118400L // SYSCLK in Hz
#define SAMPLERATE 50000 // Sample frequency in Hz
43 #define INT_DEC 64 // Integrate and decimate ratio
#define SAR_CLK 2500000 // Desired SAR clock speed
45 #define ANALOG_INPUTS 9 // Number of AIN pins to measure
```

```

47                                     // (min=1, max=8)
48 // SPI
49 #define F_SCK_MAX          2400000    // Max SCK freq (Hz)
50 #define INCREMENT          1          // Increment signal SPI
51
52 //Timer 0
53 #define TIMER_PRESCALER    12        // Based on Timer CKCON settings
54
55 #define TIMER_RATE         8         // Interval time between interrupts (Timer0) in ms
56
57 #define TIMER_TICKS_PER_MS  SYSCLK/TIMER_PRESCALER/1000
58
59 // Note: TIMER_RATE*TIMER_TICKS_PER_MS should not exceed 65535 (0xFFFF)
60 // for the 16-bit timer
61
62 #define AUX1               TIMER_TICKS_PER_MS*TIMER_RATE
63 #define AUX2               -AUX1
64 #define AUX3               AUX2&0x00FF
65 #define AUX4               ((AUX2&0xFF00)>>8)
66
67 #define TIMER0_RELOAD_HIGH  AUX4     // Reload value for Timer0 high byte
68 #define TIMER0_RELOAD_LOW  AUX3     // Reload value for Timer0 low byte
69
70 // Timer1
71 #define TIMER1_RELOAD_HIGH ((0xfbae&0xFF00)>>8)
72 // Reload value for Timer1 high byte (50 us)
73 #define TIMER1_RELOAD_LOW  0xfbae&0x00FF
74 // Reload value for Timer1 low byte
75
76 //-----
77 // Function Prototypes
78 //-----
79
80 void OSCILLATOR_Init (void);
81 void DAC0_Init (void);
82 void PORT_Init (void);
83 void UART0_Init (void);
84 void SPI_Init (void);
85 void ADC0_Init (void);
86 void Timer0_Init (void);
87 void Timer1_Init (void);
88 void TIMER3_Init (void);
89 void ADC0_ISR (void);
90 void Fill_COUNTS_buffertx(unsigned Counts, unsigned short index);
91 void Start_Measure (void);
92 void End_Measure (void);
93
94 void SPI_crono (unsigned int total);
95
96 void SPLPWD (void);
97
98 void TX_data (void);
99
100 void Delay (void);
101 //-----
102 // Global Variables
103 //-----
104
105 static char Byte;
106
107 unsigned Result[ANALOG_INPUTS]; // ADC0 decimated value
108
109 unsigned char IndexRX = 0;
110 unsigned char k;
111
112 unsigned long count;
113
114 xdata unsigned int IndexTimer = 0x0000;
115 xdata unsigned int IndexTimer_bis = 0; //counts every IndexTimer overflow
116
117 static char Byte;
118
119 bit FlagRX = 0;
120 bit FlagTX = 0;
121 bit FlagStop = 1;
122 bit FlagInterrupt = 0;
123 bit FlagPWD = 0;
124 bit FlagChange = 0; //change chrono value

```



```

201     SPI_Init ();
203     EA = 1;           // Enable global interrupts
205
206     //ADCEN = 1;
207
208     while (1)
209     {
210         if (FlagInterrupt)
211         {
212             TH0 = TIMER0_RELOAD_HIGH;           // Reinit Timer0 register
213             TL0 = TIMER0_RELOAD_LOW;
214             TH1 = TIMER1_RELOAD_HIGH;           // Reinit Timer1 register
215             TL1 = TIMER1_RELOAD_LOW;
216
217             TF1 = 0;
218             TF0 = 0;
219
220             TMR3CN &= ~0x80;    // Flag Timer3 Interrupt =0
221
222             ET0 = 1;           // Enable Timer0 interrupt
223             ET1 = 1;           // Enable Timer1 interrupt
224
225             EIE2 |= 0x01;      // Enable Timer3 Interrupt
226             EIP2 |= 0x03;      // High priority ADC and Timer3
227
228             EIE2 |= 0x02;      // Enable ADC interrupt
229             ADCEN = 1;         // Enable ADC
230
231             FlagInterrupt = 0;
232             FlagStop=0;
233             Delay ();
234         }
235
236         if (!FlagStop)
237         {
238             TX_data ();
239         }
240     }
241
242 }
243
244 //-----
245 // Functions
246 //-----
247
248 //-----
249 // Start_Measure
250 //-----
251 // This function sets everything to start the measure
252 //-----
253
254 void Start_Measure(void)
255 {
256     count_tx=0;
257
258     dac1 = e_min_1; //Channel 1
259     dac2 = e_min_2; //Channel 2
260     dac3 = e_min_3; //Channel 3
261     dac4 = e_min_4; //Channel 4
262
263     if((mode_of_op & 0x01) != 0x01)
264     //if cyclic voltammetry, start at the positive value with ferricyanide
265     {
266         dac1 = e_max_1;
267     }
268
269     if((mode_of_op & 0x02) != 0x02)
270     {
271         dac2 = e_max_2;
272     }
273
274     if((mode_of_op & 0x04) != 0x04)

```

```

281         {
282             dac3 = e_max_3;
283         }
284
285         if ((mode_of_op & 0x08) != 0x08)
286         {
287             dac4 = e_max_4;
288         }
289
290         Flag_Rise_1 = 0; //start decreasing
291         Flag_Rise_2 = 0;
292         Flag_Rise_3 = 0;
293         Flag_Rise_4 = 0;
294
295         IndexTimer1 = 0;
296         IndexTimer2 = 0;
297         IndexTimer3 = 0;
298         IndexTimer4 = 0;
299
300         IndexTimer = 0;
301         IndexTimer_bis = 0;
302
303         ES = 0; //Disable UART interrupt
304         IP  &= 0xef; //low priority UART
305
306         amux_input = 0;
307
308         for (k=0; k<ANALOG_INPUTS; k++)
309         {
310             Result[k] = 0; //Reset Result
311         }
312
313         SPI_crono (dac1);
314
315         SPI_crono (dac2);
316
317         SPI_crono (dac3);
318
319         SPI_crono (dac4);
320
321         if ((mode_of_op & 0x10) == 0x10) //first channel ON
322         {
323             P1 = (P1 & 0xf0) | 0x0b; //open switch channel 1
324         }
325
326         if ((mode_of_op & 0x20) == 0x20) //second channel ON
327         {
328             P1 = (P1 & 0x0f) | 0xb0;
329         }
330
331         if ((mode_of_op & 0x40) == 0x40) //third channel ON
332         {
333             P2 = (P2 & 0xf0) | 0x0b;
334         }
335
336         if ((mode_of_op & 0x80) == 0x80) //fourth channel ON
337         {
338             P2 = (P2 & 0x0f) | 0xb0;
339         }
340
341         Delay ();
342
343         FlagInterrupt = 1;
344     }
345
346     //-----
347     // Delay
348     //-----
349     //
350     // Return Value : None
351     // Parameters   : None
352     //
353     // Delay before starting the measurement
354     //
355     //-----
356     void Delay (void)
357     {
358         for (count = 50000; count > 0; count--);

```

```

359 }

361 //-----
362 // End.Measure
363 //-----
364 //
365 // This function sets everything to start the measure
366 //
367 //-----

369 void End.Measure(void)
370 {
371     P1=0x44;           //Set the Switch
372     P2=0x44;           //Set the switch
373 }

375 //-----
376 // TX_data
377 //-----
378 //
379 // This function transmits data
380 //
381 //-----
382 void TX_data (void)
383 {
384     if (count_tx >= 25000)
385     {
386         count_tx = 0;
387         FlagTX=1;           //Flag TX adc
388         buffertx[0]=0x50; //P
389         buffertx[1]=0x51; //Q
390         buffertx[2]=0x52; //R
391         buffertx[3]=0x53; //S
392         for(k=0;k<ANALOG.INPUTS; k++)
393         {
394             Fill_COUNTS_buffertx(Result[k],k*2 + 4);
395             //Insert in the buffer TX the ADC value
396         }
397
398         Fill_COUNTS_buffertx(IndexTimer,22); //Timer
399         Fill_COUNTS_buffertx(IndexTimer_bis,24);
400
401         TI=1;
402     }
403     count_tx++;
404
405     if(FlagTX)
406     {
407         for(k=0;k<26;k++)
408         {
409             while ((SCON & 0x02) != 0x02) ;
410             // Check if transmit flag is set
411
412             SCON = (SCON & 0xFD);
413
414             SBUF=buffertx[k];
415         }
416         FlagTX = 0;
417     }
418
419
420     if(RI)
421     {
422         SCON = (SCON & 0xFE); //RI1 = 0;
423         Byte = SBUF;           // Read a character
424
425         //Change the gain
426
427         if(Byte==0x70 && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 'p'
428         {
429             GAIN1 =1;
430         }
431
432         if(Byte==0x71 && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 'q'
433         {
434             GAIN1 =0;
435         }
436     }
437

```

```

439     if (Byte==0x72 && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 'r'
440     {
441         GAIN2 =1;
442     }
443     if (Byte==0x73 && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 's'
444     {
445         GAIN2 =0;
446     }
447
448
449     if (Byte==0x74 && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 't'
450     {
451         GAIN3 =1;
452     }
453
454     if (Byte==0x75 && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 'u'
455     {
456         GAIN3 =0;
457     }
458
459     if (Byte==0x76 && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 'v'
460     {
461         GAIN4 =1;
462     }
463
464     if (Byte==0x77 && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 'w'
465     {
466         GAIN4 =0;
467     }
468
469     if (Byte==0x6c && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 'l'
470     {
471         Flag-Rise_1 = !Flag-Rise_1;
472     }
473
474     if (Byte==0x6d && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 'm'
475     {
476         Flag-Rise_2 = !Flag-Rise_2;
477     }
478
479     if (Byte==0x6e && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 'n'
480     {
481         Flag-Rise_3 = !Flag-Rise_3;
482     }
483
484     if (Byte==0x6f && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 'o'
485     {
486         Flag-Rise_4 = !Flag-Rise_4;
487     }
488
489     if (Byte==0x65 && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 'e'
490     {
491         FlagStop=1;
492         FlagTX = 0;
493         FlagPWD = 1; //DACs powerdownmode
494
495         //IP |= 0x10; //high priority UART interrupt
496     }
497
498     if (FlagRX)
499     {
500         RX_Buffer[IndexRX]=Byte;
501         IndexRX +=1;
502     }
503
504     if (Byte==0x43 && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 'C'
505     {
506         FlagRX=1;
507         IndexRX=0;
508     }
509
510     if (IndexRX >= 9) //if 9 bytes have been received
511     {
512         FlagRX=0;
513         IndexRX = 0;
514         change_chrono=RX_Buffer[0];
515     }

```

```

517         if ((change_chrono & 0x01) == 0x01 && ((mode_of_op & 0x01) == 0x01))
518             //if potential has been chengaged and crono mode is active
519             {
520                 e_max_1=RX_Buffer[1]<<8;
521                 e_max_1 += RX_Buffer[2];
522                 e_max_1 &= 0x0fff;
523                 e_max_1 |= 0x8000;
524             }
525
526         if ((change_chrono & 0x02) == 0x02 && ((mode_of_op & 0x02) == 0x02))
527         {
528             e_max_2=RX_Buffer[3]<<8;
529             e_max_2 += RX_Buffer[4];
530             e_max_2 &= 0x0fff;
531             e_max_2 |= 0x9000;
532         }
533
534         if ((change_chrono & 0x04) == 0x04 && ((mode_of_op & 0x04) == 0x04))
535         {
536             e_max_3=RX_Buffer[5]<<8;
537             e_max_3 += RX_Buffer[6];
538             e_max_3 &= 0x0fff;
539             e_max_3 |= 0xa000;
540         }
541
542         if ((change_chrono & 0x08) == 0x08 && ((mode_of_op & 0x08) == 0x08))
543         {
544             e_max_4=RX_Buffer[7]<<8;
545             e_max_4 += RX_Buffer[8];
546             e_max_4 &= 0x0fff;
547             e_max_4 |= 0xb000;
548         }
549
550         FlagChange = 1;
551     }
552 }
553
554 //-----
555 // SPI_crono
556 //-----
557 // This function write the SPI data for cronoamperometry (fixed potential)
558 //-----
559 void SPI_crono (unsigned int total)
560 {
561     SLAVE_SEL = 0; //NSS
562
563     SPI0DAT = (BYTE)((total >> 8) & 0x00FF);
564     while (!SPIF);
565     SPIF = 0;
566
567     SPI0DAT = (BYTE)(total & 0x00FF);
568     while (!SPIF);
569     SPIF = 0;
570     SLAVE_SEL = 1;
571 }
572
573 //-----
574 // SPLPWD
575 //-----
576 //
577 //
578 //-----
579 void SPLPWD (void)
580 {
581     SLAVE_SEL = 0;
582     SPI0DAT = 0xf9;
583     while (!SPIF);
584     SPIF = 0;
585     SPI0DAT = 0x80;
586     while (!SPIF);
587     SPIF = 0;
588     SLAVE_SEL = 1;
589 }
590
591
592

```

```

//-----
597 // Fill_COUNTS_buffertx(
//-----
599 //
// This function fill the buffer TX
601 //
//-----
603
void Fill_COUNTS_buffertx(unsigned Counts, unsigned short index)
605 {
607     buffertx[index] = (BYTE)((Counts >> 8) & 0x00FF); //MSB
        buffertx[index+1] = (BYTE)(Counts & 0x00FF); //LSB
609 }
611
//-----
613 // Initialization Subroutines
//-----
615
//-----
617 // OSCILLATOR_Init
//-----
619 //
// Return Value : None
621 // Parameters : None
//
623 // This function initializes the system clock to use an external 22.1184MHz
// crystal.
625 //
//-----
627 void OSCILLATOR_Init (void)
{
629     int i; // Software timer
631     OSCICN |= 0x80; // Enable the missing clock detector
633     // Initialize external crystal oscillator to use 22.1184 MHz crystal
635     OSCXCN = 0x67; // Enable external crystal osc.
637     for (i = 0; i < 256; i++); // Wait at least 1 ms
        while (!(OSCXCN & 0x80)); // Wait for crystal osc to settle
639     OSCICN |= 0x08; // Select external clock source
        OSCICN &= ~0x04; // Disable the internal osc.
641 }
643
//-----
645 // PORT_Init
//-----
647 //
// Return Value : None
649 // Parameters : None
//
651 // This function configures the crossbar and GPIO ports.
//
653 // Pinout:
//
655 // P0.0 digital push-pull UART TX
// P0.1 digital open-drain UART RX
657 //-----
void PORT_Init (void)
659 {
        XBR0 = 0x06; // Enable SPI and UART0
661     XBR2 = 0x40; // Enable crossbar and weak pull-up
663     PRT0CF |= 0x95; // Set SCK, MOSI, Slaveselct and TX pin to push-pull
        PRT1CF |= 0xFF; // enable P1 as a push-pull output
665     PRT2CF |= 0xFF; // enable P2 as a push-pull output
667     P1=0x44; //Set the Switch
        P2=0x44; //Set the switch
669 }
671
//-----
673 // DAC0_Init
//-----

```

```

675 //
676 // Return Value : None
677 // Parameters   : None
678 //
679 // Enable the DAC and the VREF buffer.
680 //
681 //-----
682
683 void DAC0_Init(void)
684 {
685     DAC0CN = 0x87;      // Enable DAC0 in left-justified mode
686
687     REF0CN |= 0x07;    // Enable the internal VREF (2.4v) and
688                       // the Bias Generator
689
690     DAC0 = 0xa000;     //1.5 volt   // Write to DAC0 (0xd550 = 1.9998 Volt)
691 }
692
693 //-----
694 // UART0_Init   Variable baud rate, Timer 2, 8-N-1
695 //-----
696 //
697 // Return Value : None
698 // Parameters   : None
699 //
700 // Configure UART0 for operation at <baudrate> 8-N-1 using Timer2 as
701 // baud rate source.
702 //
703 //-----
704 void UART0_Init (void)
705 {
706     CKCON |= 0x20;     // Timer2 uses the system clock
707     T2CON = 0x34;     // Timer2 used for TX and RX, enabled
708     RCAP2 = - ((long) (SYSCLK/BAUDRATE)/32);
709     TMR2 = RCAP2;
710     TR2 = 1;         // Start Timer2
711
712     SCON = 0x50;     // 8-bit variable baud rate;
713                       // 9th bit ignored; RX enabled
714                       // clear all flags
715     ES = 1;         //interrupt enable
716     //IP  |= 0x10; //high priority
717 }
718
719 //-----
720 // ADC0_Init
721 //-----
722 //
723 // Configure ADC0 to use Timer3 overflows as conversion source, to
724 // generate an interrupt on conversion complete, and to use left-justified
725 // output mode. Enables ADC end of conversion interrupt. Leaves ADC disabled.
726 //
727 //-----
728
729 void ADC0_Init (void)
730 {
731     ADC0CN = 0x04;   // ADC0 disabled; normal tracking
732                       // mode; ADC0 conversions are initiated
733                       // on overflow of Timer3; ADC0 data is
734                       // right-justified
735     REF0CN = 0x07;   // enable temp sensor, on-chip VREF,
736                       // and VREF output buffer
737     AMX0SL = 0x02;   // Select AIN0 as ADC mux output
738     ADC0CF = 0x86;   // ADC conversion clock = SYSCLK/16 && PGA gain = 0.5
739                       //ADC0CF &= ~0x07;
740
741     //EIE2 |= 0x02; // enable ADC interrupts
742 }
743
744 //-----
745 // SPI_Init
746 //-----
747 //
748 //
749 //-----
750 void SPI_Init(void)
751 {
752     SPI0CFG = 0x47; //clk idle high, phase 0, 8 bits data word

```

```

755     SPI0CN    = 0x03;    //Master mode
756
757     SPI0CKR   = (SYSCLK/(2*F_SCK_MAX))-1; //SPI frequency
758
759     SLAVE_SEL = 1;
760
761     EIE1      = 0x01;    //Enable SPI interrupt
762     //EIP1     = 0x01;    //High priority SPI interrupt
763 }
764 //-----
765 // Timer0_Init
766 //-----
767 //
768 // Return Value : None
769 // Parameters   : None
770 //
771 //
772 // Note: The Timer0 uses a 1:12 prescaler. If this setting changes, the
773 // TIMER_PRESCALER constant must also be changed.
774 //-----
775 void Timer0_Init(void)
776 {
777     TH0 = TIMER0_RELOAD_HIGH;    // Reinit Timer0 High register
778     ET0 = 0;                    // Timer0 interrupt disabled
779     TMOD |= 0x01;               // 16-bit Mode Timer0
780     TCON |= 0x10;               // Timer0 ON
781 }
782 //-----
783 // Timer1_Init
784 //-----
785 //
786 // Return Value : None
787 // Parameters   : None
788 //
789 //
790 // Note: The Timer1 uses a 1:12 prescaler. If this setting changes, the
791 // TIMER_PRESCALER constant must also be changed.
792 //-----
793 void Timer1_Init(void)
794 {
795     TH1 = TIMER1_RELOAD_HIGH;    // Reinit Timer1 High register
796     ET1 = 0;                    // Timer1 interrupt disabled
797     TMOD |= 0x10;               // 16-bit Mode Timer1
798     CKCON |= 0x10;              // SYSCLK
799     TCON |= 0x40;               // Timer1 ON
800 }
801 //-----
802 // TIMER3_Init
803 //-----
804 //
805 // Return Value : None
806 // Parameters   :
807 // 1) int counts - calculated Timer overflow rate
808 //                range is positive range of integer: 0 to 32767
809 //
810 // Configure Timer3 to auto-reload at interval specified by <counts> (no
811 // interrupt generated) using SYSCLK as its time base.
812 //-----
813 //
814 //-----
815 //
816 void Timer3_Init (void)
817 {
818     TMR3CN = 0x02;              // Stop Timer3; Clear TF3;
819     // use SYSCLK as timebase
820     TMR3RL = 65535 -(SYSCLK / 23255); // reload at 43 us
821     TMR3    = 0xffff;           // set to reload immediately
822     //EIE2   |= 0x01;           // enable Timer3 interrupts
823     TMR3CN |= 0x04;             // start Timer3
824 }
825 //-----
826 //
827 //-----
828 // Interrupt Service Routines
829 //-----
830 //
831 //-----

```

```

833 // Timer0_ISR
834 //-----
835 //
836 // Here we process the Timer0 interrupt
837 //
838 //-----
839 void Timer0_ISR (void) interrupt 1
840 {
841     TH0 = TIMER0_RELOAD_HIGH; // Reinit Timer0 register
842     TL0 = TIMER0_RELOAD_LOW;
843     IndexTimer++; // Increase the timer
844     if (IndexTimer > 65533)
845     {
846         IndexTimer_bis++;
847         IndexTimer = 0;
848     }
849 }
850
851 //-----
852 // Timer0_ISR
853 //-----
854 //
855 // Here we process the Timer1 interrupt
856 //
857 //-----
858 void Timer1_ISR (void) interrupt 3
859 {
860     TH1 = TIMER1_RELOAD_HIGH; // Reinit Timer1 register
861     TL1 = TIMER1_RELOAD_LOW;
862
863     if((type_of_wave & 0x01)==0x01) //if chrono or cyclic voltammetry
864     {
865         if((mode_of_op & 0x01) != 0x01) //Increase the counter only in cyclic
            voltammetry
866         {
867             IndexTimer1++; // Increase timer channel1
868         }
869         if((mode_of_op & 0x02) != 0x02)
870         {
871             IndexTimer2++; // Increase timer channel2
872         }
873         if((mode_of_op & 0x04) != 0x04)
874         {
875             IndexTimer3++; // Increase timer channel3
876         }
877         if((mode_of_op & 0x08) != 0x08)
878         {
879             IndexTimer4++; // Increase timer channel4
880         }
881
882         if(freq1 < IndexTimer1)
883         {
884             SLAVE_SEL = 0; //NSS
885
886             if (Flag_Rise_1 && ((dac1+INCREMENT) > e_max_1)) //
887             {
888                 Flag_Rise_1=0; //segnale cala
889             }
890
891             if (!Flag_Rise_1 && ((dac1-INCREMENT) < e_min_1)) //
892             {
893                 Flag_Rise_1=1;
894             }
895
896             if (Flag_Rise_1)
897             {
898                 dac1 += INCREMENT;
899             }
900
901             if (!Flag_Rise_1)
902             {
903                 dac1 -= INCREMENT;
904             }
905
906             IndexTimer1 = 0;
907
908             SPI0DAT = (BYTE)((dac1 >> 8) & 0x00FF);
909             while (!SPIF);
910             SPIF = 0;

```

```
911         SPI0DAT = (BYTE)(dac1 & 0x00FF);
913         while (!SPIF);
915         SPIF = 0;
916         SLAVE_SEL = 1;
917     }
918     if(freq2<IndexTimer2)
919     {
920         SLAVE_SEL = 0; //NSS
921
922         if (Flag-Rise_2 && ((dac2+INCREMENT) > e_max_2)) //
923         {
924             Flag-Rise_2=0; //segnale cala
925         }
926
927         if (!Flag-Rise_2 && ((dac2-INCREMENT) < e_min_2)) //
928         {
929             Flag-Rise_2=1;
930         }
931
932         if (Flag-Rise_2)
933         {
934             dac2 += INCREMENT;
935         }
936
937         if (!Flag-Rise_2)
938         {
939             dac2 -= INCREMENT;
940         }
941
942         IndexTimer2 = 0;
943
944         SPI0DAT = (BYTE)((dac2 >> 8) & 0x00FF);
945         while (!SPIF);
946         SPIF = 0;
947
948         SPI0DAT = (BYTE)(dac2 & 0x00FF);
949         while (!SPIF);
950         SPIF = 0;
951         SLAVE_SEL = 1;
952     }
953     if(freq3<IndexTimer3)
954     {
955         SLAVE_SEL = 0; //NSS
956
957         if (Flag-Rise_3 && ((dac3+INCREMENT) > e_max_3)) //
958         {
959             Flag-Rise_3=0; //segnale cala
960         }
961
962         if (!Flag-Rise_3 && ((dac3-INCREMENT) < e_min_3)) //
963         {
964             Flag-Rise_3=1;
965         }
966
967         if (Flag-Rise_3)
968         {
969             dac3 += INCREMENT;
970         }
971
972         if (!Flag-Rise_3)
973         {
974             dac3 -= INCREMENT;
975         }
976
977         IndexTimer3 = 0;
978
979         SPI0DAT = (BYTE)((dac3 >> 8) & 0x00FF);
980         while (!SPIF);
981         SPIF = 0;
982
983         SPI0DAT = (BYTE)(dac3 & 0x00FF);
984         while (!SPIF);
985         SPIF = 0;
986         SLAVE_SEL = 1;
987     }
988 }
```

```

991         if (freq4<IndexTimer4)
992         {
993             SLAVE_SEL = 0; //NSS
994
995             if (Flag_Rise_4 && ((dac4+INCREMENT) > e_max_4)) //
996             {
997                 Flag_Rise_4=0; //segnale cala
998             }
999
1000            if (!Flag_Rise_4 && ((dac4-INCREMENT) < e_min_4)) //
1001            {
1002                Flag_Rise_4=1;
1003            }
1004
1005            if (Flag_Rise_4)
1006            {
1007                dac4 += INCREMENT;
1008            }
1009
1010            if (!Flag_Rise_4)
1011            {
1012                dac4 -= INCREMENT;
1013            }
1014
1015            IndexTimer4 = 0;
1016
1017            SPI0DAT = (BYTE)((dac4 >> 8) & 0x00FF);
1018            while (!SPIF);
1019            SPIF = 0;
1020
1021            SPI0DAT = (BYTE)(dac4 & 0x00FF);
1022            while (!SPIF);
1023            SPIF = 0;
1024            SLAVE_SEL = 1;
1025        }
1026
1027        if((type_of_wave & 0x02)==0x02) //if square
1028        {
1029            IndexTimer1++;
1030            IndexTimer2++;
1031            IndexTimer3++;
1032            IndexTimer4++;
1033
1034            if (freq1<IndexTimer1)
1035            {
1036                SLAVE_SEL = 0; //NSS
1037
1038                if (Flag_Rise_1) //
1039                {
1040                    dac1 = e_min_1;
1041                }
1042
1043                if (!Flag_Rise_1) //
1044                {
1045                    dac1 = e_max_1;
1046                }
1047                Flag_Rise_1=!Flag_Rise_1;
1048
1049                IndexTimer1 = 0;
1050
1051                SPI0DAT = (BYTE)((dac1 >> 8) & 0x00FF);
1052                while (!SPIF);
1053                SPIF = 0;
1054
1055                SPI0DAT = (BYTE)(dac1 & 0x00FF);
1056                while (!SPIF);
1057                SPIF = 0;
1058                SLAVE_SEL = 1;
1059            }
1060
1061            if (freq2<IndexTimer2)
1062            {
1063                SLAVE_SEL = 0; //NSS
1064
1065                if (Flag_Rise_2) //
1066                {
1067                    dac2 = e_min_2;

```

```

1069
1071         if (!Flag_Rise_2) //
1073         {
1075             dac2 = e_max_2;
1077         }
1079         Flag_Rise_2=!Flag_Rise_2;
1081
1083         IndexTimer2 = 0;
1085
1087         SPI0DAT = (BYTE)((dac2 >> 8) & 0x00FF);
1089         while (!SPIF);
1091         SPIF = 0;
1093
1095         SPI0DAT = (BYTE)(dac2 & 0x00FF);
1097         while (!SPIF);
1099         SPIF = 0;
1101         SLAVE_SEL = 1;
1103     }
1105
1107     if(freq3<IndexTimer3)
1109     {
1111         SLAVE_SEL = 0; //NSS
1113
1115         if (Flag_Rise_3) //
1117         {
1119             dac3 = e_min_3;
1121         }
1123
1125         if (!Flag_Rise_3) //
1127         {
1129             dac3 = e_max_3;
1131         }
1133         Flag_Rise_3=!Flag_Rise_3;
1135
1137         IndexTimer3 = 0;
1139
1141         SPI0DAT = (BYTE)((dac3 >> 8) & 0x00FF);
1143         while (!SPIF);
1145         SPIF = 0;
1147
1149         SPI0DAT = (BYTE)(dac3 & 0x00FF);
1151         while (!SPIF);
1153         SPIF = 0;
1155         SLAVE_SEL = 1;
1157     }
1159
1161     if(freq4<IndexTimer4)
1163     {
1165         SLAVE_SEL = 0; //NSS
1167
1169         if (Flag_Rise_4) //
1171         {
1173             dac4 = e_min_4;
1175         }
1177
1179         if (!Flag_Rise_4) //
1181         {
1183             dac4 = e_max_4;
1185         }
1187         Flag_Rise_4=!Flag_Rise_4;
1189
1191         IndexTimer4 = 0;
1193
1195         SPI0DAT = (BYTE)((dac4 >> 8) & 0x00FF);
1197         while (!SPIF);
1199         SPIF = 0;
1201
1203         SPI0DAT = (BYTE)(dac4 & 0x00FF);
1205         while (!SPIF);
1207         SPIF = 0;
1209         SLAVE_SEL = 1;
1211     }
1213 }
1215
1217 if (FlagChange)
1219 {
1221     FlagChange = 0;
1223 }
1225
1227
1229
1231
1233
1235
1237
1239
1241
1243
1245
1247

```

```

        if (((change_chrono & 0x01) == 0x01) && ((mode_of_op & 0x01) == 0x01)) //
            potential has been changed and crono mode
1149     {
1151         SPI_crono (e_max_1);
    }

1153     if (((change_chrono & 0x02) == 0x02) && ((mode_of_op & 0x02) == 0x02))
1155     {
1157         SPI_crono (e_max_2);
    }

1159     if (((change_chrono & 0x04) == 0x04) && ((mode_of_op & 0x04) == 0x04))
1161     {
1163         SPI_crono (e_max_3);
    }

1165     if (((change_chrono & 0x08) == 0x08) && ((mode_of_op & 0x08) == 0x08))
1167     {
1169         SPI_crono (e_max_4);
    }

1171     if (FlagPWD)
1173     {
1175         FlagPWD = 0;
1177         SPI.PWD ();

1179         ET0 = 0; // Disable Timer0 interrupt
1181         ET1 = 0; // Disable Timer1 interrupt

1183         ADCEN = 0; // disable ADC
1185         EIE2 &= 0xfd; // disable adc interrupt

1187         EIE2 &= 0xfe; // Disable Timer3 interrupt

1189         TI=0;
1191         ES = 1; // Enable UART interrupt

1193         End_Measure (); // Close all the switches
    }

1195 }

1197 //-----
1199 // ADC0_ISR
1201 //-----
1203 // This ISR is called when the ADC0 completes a conversion. Each value is
1205 // added to a running total <accumulator>, and the local decimation counter
1207 // <int_dec> decremented. When <int_dec> reaches zero, we post the decimated
1209 // result in the global variable <Result[]>.
1211 //
1213 // The analog input is sampled, held, and converted on a Timer3 overflow. To
1215 // maximize input settling time, the analog mux is also advanced to the next
1217 // input on the Timer3 overflow. Two different indices are held globally:
1219 // amux_convert: index of the analog input undergoing conversion
1221 // amux_input: index of the analog input selected in the analog
1223 // multiplexer
1225 //-----
1227 void ADC0_ISR (void) interrupt 15
1229 {
1231     static unsigned int_dec=INT_DEC; // Integrate/decimate counter
1233     // we post a new result when
1235     // int_dec = 0
1237     unsigned char k;
1239     static long accumulator[ANALOG_INPUTS] ={0L};
1241     // Here's where we integrate the
1243     // ADC samples from input AIN0.0
1245     ADCINT = 0; // clear ADC conversion complete
1247     // indicator
1249     accumulator[amux_convert] += ADC0; // Read ADC value and add to running
1251     // total
1253 }

```



```

1305         if (FlagRX)
1307         {
1309             RX_Buffer[IndexRX]=Byte;
1311             IndexRX +=1;
1313         }
1315
1317         if (Byte==0x63 && FlagRX==0)    //if TX starts with 'c'
1319         {
1321             FlagRX=1;
1323             IndexRX=0;
1325         }
1327
1329         if (Byte==0x65 && FlagRX==0)    //if TX starts with 'e' stop measure
1331         {
1333             FlagStop=1;
1335             FlagPWD = 1;    //DACs powerdownmode
1337         }
1339
1341         if (IndexRX >= 26)    //if 25 bytes have been received
1343         {
1345             FlagRX=0;
1347             IndexRX = 0;
1349             e_max_1=RX_Buffer[0]<<8;
1351             e_max_1 += RX_Buffer[1];
1353             e_max_1 &= 0x0fff;
1355
1357             e_max_1 |= 0x8000;
1359
1361             e_min_1=RX_Buffer[2]<<8;
1363             e_min_1 += RX_Buffer[3];
1365             e_min_1 &= 0x0fff;
1367
1369             e_min_1 |= 0x8000;
1371
1373             e_max_2=RX_Buffer[4]<<8;
1375             e_max_2 += RX_Buffer[5];
1377             e_max_2 &= 0x0fff;
1379
1381             e_max_2 |= 0x9000;
1383
1385             e_min_2=RX_Buffer[6]<<8;
1387             e_min_2 += RX_Buffer[7];
1389             e_min_2 &= 0x0fff;
1391
1393             e_min_2 |= 0x9000;
1395
1397             e_max_3=RX_Buffer[8]<<8;
1399             e_max_3 += RX_Buffer[9];
1401             e_max_3 &= 0x0fff;
1403
1405             e_max_3 |= 0xa000;
1407
1409             e_min_3=RX_Buffer[10]<<8;
1411             e_min_3 += RX_Buffer[11];
1413             e_min_3 &= 0x0fff;
1415
1417             e_min_3 |= 0xa000;
1419
1421             e_max_4=RX_Buffer[12]<<8;
1423             e_max_4 += RX_Buffer[13];
1425             e_max_4 &= 0x0fff;
1427
1429             e_max_4 |= 0xb000;
1431
1433             e_min_4=RX_Buffer[14]<<8;
1435             e_min_4 += RX_Buffer[15];
1437             e_min_4 &= 0x0fff;
1439
1441             e_min_4 |= 0xb000;
1443
1445             freq1=RX_Buffer[16]<<8;
1447             freq1 += RX_Buffer[17];
1449
1451             freq2=RX_Buffer[18]<<8;
1453             freq2 += RX_Buffer[19];
1455
1457
1459

```

```
1385     freq3=RX_Buffer[20]<<8;
1386     freq3 += RX_Buffer [21];
1387
1388     freq4=RX_Buffer[22]<<8;
1389     freq4 += RX_Buffer [23];
1390
1391     mode_of_op = RX_Buffer [24];
1392
1393     type_of_wave = RX_Buffer [25];
1394 }
1395
1396 if(Byte==0x64 && FlagRX==0) //if TX starts with 'd' start meature
1397 {
1398     Start_Measure ();
1399 }
1400 }
1401 }
1402 }
1403 }
1404 }
1405 }
1406 //-----
1407 // End Of File
1408 //-----
```

B.2 Glycerol concentration sensor

```

2  /*
LCD:
4  //8 bit: RS, RW, EN, D0, D1, D2, D3, D4, D5, D6, D7
//RS-->PC0
6  //RW-->PC1
//EN-->PC2
8
Micropump scheme
10 D1=4; PWM1=12; RED --> BUFFER 2
D2=5; PWM2=11; RED --> BUFFER 1
12 D3=6; PWM3=3; BLUE --> NAD
D4=7; PWM4=2; GREEN --> MOSTO
14 */

16 #include <LiquidCrystal.h>
#include <SoftwareSerial.h>
18 #include <Thermal.h>
#include <math.h>
20
int printer_RX_Pin = 22; //TX della stampante (verde)
22 int printer_TX_Pin = 24; //RX pin della stampante (giallo)

24 int freq_tone=100*4; //frequenza tone()

26 int day=1;
int month = 1;
28 int year = 20;
int year1 = 12;
30
int carro=0;
32 int carro_lb=0;
int carro_hb=0;
34
int hour = 0;
36 int minute = 10;
int seconds = 0;
38
int cantina=1;
40
int glic_int = 0;
42 int glic_dec1 = 0;
int glic_dec2 = 0;
44 int glic_dec3 = 0;

46 String shour = String(hour);
String sminute = String(minute);
48 String sseconds = String(seconds);
String sday = String(day);
50 String smonth = String(month);
String syear = String(year);
52 String syear1 = String(year1);
String scarro = String(carro);
54 String sglic_int = String(glic_int);
String sglic_dec1 = String(glic_dec1);
56 String sglic_dec2 = String(glic_dec2);
String sglic_dec3 = String(glic_dec3);
58
String string_ora;
60 char char_ora[34];

62 String string_numero;
char char_num[15];
64
String string_conc_glic;
66 char char_glic[21];

68 int time_set = 90; //dichiaro il tempo di accensione ,poi lo cambio tramite seriale
int v_1=0; //Buffer 2
70 int v_2=60; //Buffer 1
int v_3=60; //MOsto
72 int v_4=65; //NAD
int val; //analog read (sense sull'alimentazione)
74 int time_fill=13000;
int k=0; //sense per l'alimentazione
76 int l=0;

```

```

78     int inByte1;
79
80     Thermal printer(printer_RX_Pin, printer_TX_Pin);
81
82     LiquidCrystal lcd(54, 55, 56, 50, 26, 48, 28, 46, 30, 44, 32);
83     /*inizializzo LCD*/
84
85     void setup() {
86         // initialize serial communication:
87         Serial.begin(9600);
88         lcd.begin(8, 2);
89         //cambio i timer 1 (controlla pin 12,11) e 2 (controlla pin 10,9)
90         //http://arduino.cc/forum/index.php?topic=72092.0
91         int myEraser = 7; // this is 111 in binary and is used as an eraser
92
93         TCCR1B &= ~myEraser; // this operation (AND plus NOT), set the three bits in TCCR2B to 0
94         TCCR3B &= ~myEraser;
95
96         int myPrescaler = 1; // this could be a number in [1, 6].
97         TCCR1B |= myPrescaler; //this operation (OR), replaces the last three bits in TCCR2B with our
98         // new value 011
99         TCCR3B |= myPrescaler; //freq PWM diventa 31 kHz
100
101         // inizializzo i pin di controllo
102         pinMode(7, OUTPUT);
103         pinMode(6, OUTPUT);
104         pinMode(5, OUTPUT);
105         pinMode(4, OUTPUT);
106
107         //Inizializzo LCD
108         lcd.clear();
109         lcd.setCursor(0,0);
110         lcd.print(" Cevico ");
111         lcd.setCursor(0,1);
112         lcd.print(" Group ");
113
114         delay(500);
115
116         start_up();
117     }
118
119     void start_up(){
120         analogWrite(12,0);
121         analogWrite(11,0);
122         analogWrite(3,0);
123         analogWrite(2,0);
124         digitalWrite(7,HIGH);
125         lcd.clear();
126         lcd.setCursor(0,0);
127         lcd.print(" Mosto ");
128         delay(500);
129         digitalWrite(7,LOW);
130         digitalWrite(6,HIGH);
131         lcd.clear();
132         lcd.setCursor(0,0);
133         lcd.print(" NAD ");
134         delay(500);
135         digitalWrite(6,LOW);
136         digitalWrite(5,HIGH);
137         lcd.clear();
138         lcd.setCursor(0,0);
139         lcd.print(" Buffer 1");
140         delay(500);
141         digitalWrite(5,LOW);
142         digitalWrite(4,HIGH);
143         lcd.clear();
144         lcd.setCursor(0,0);
145         lcd.print(" Buffer 2");
146         delay(500);
147         digitalWrite(4,LOW);
148         lcd.clear();
149         lcd.setCursor(0,0);
150         lcd.print(" Cevico ");
151         lcd.setCursor(0,1);
152         lcd.print(" Group ");
153     }
154
155     void loop() {

```

```

156     int i;
        int inByte;

158     String stringOne;
        String stringTotal;
160     unsigned long time_pump;
        unsigned long time_total;
162     unsigned long time_remaining;

164     val=analogRead(4);
        // Serial.println(val);
166     // controllo che alimentazione sia collegata
    if (val>100 && k==0){
168         lcd.clear();
        lcd.setCursor(0,0);
170         lcd.print(" Cevico ");
        lcd.setCursor(0,1);
172         lcd.print(" Group ");
        k=1;
174         l=0;}
    if (val<101 && l==0){
176         lcd.clear();
        lcd.setCursor(0,0);
178         lcd.print(" Connect");
        lcd.setCursor(0,1);
180         lcd.print(" Power! ");
        k=0;
182         l=1;}

184
186     if (Serial.available() >0) {
        inByte = Serial.read();

188         //seleziono la cantina
        if (inByte == 'C'){
190             inByte1=Serial.read();
            while (inByte1<0){
192                 inByte1=Serial.read();
            }
194             cantina=inByte1;
        }

196
        //imposto numero carro HB
198         if (inByte == 'A'){
            inByte1=Serial.read();
200             while (inByte1<0){
                inByte1=Serial.read();
202             }
            carro_hb=inByte1;
204         }

206         //imposto numero carro LB
        if (inByte == 'B'){
208             inByte1=Serial.read();
            while (inByte1<0){
210                 inByte1=Serial.read();
            }
212             carro_lb=inByte1;
            carro=carro_lb+carro_hb*256;
214             scarro=String(carro);
        }
216     //trasmetto concentrazione glicerolo
        //numero intero
218         if (inByte == 'I'){
            inByte1=Serial.read();
220             while (inByte1<0){
                inByte1=Serial.read();
222             }
            glic_int=inByte1;
224             sglic_int=String(glic_int);
        }

226
        //1° cifra decimale
228         if (inByte == 'J'){
            inByte1=Serial.read();
230             while (inByte1<0){
                inByte1=Serial.read();
232             }
            glic_dec1=inByte1;

```

```
234     sglc_dec1=String(glic_dec1);
235     }
236
237     //2° cifra decimale
238     if (inByte == 'K'){
239         inByte1=Serial.read();
240         while (inByte1<0){
241             inByte1=Serial.read();
242         }
243         glic_dec2=inByte1;
244         sglc_dec2=String(glic_dec2);
245     }
246
247     //3° cifra decimale
248     if (inByte == 'L'){
249         inByte1=Serial.read();
250         while (inByte1<0){
251             inByte1=Serial.read();
252         }
253         glic_dec3=inByte1;
254         sglc_dec3=String(glic_dec3);
255     }
256
257     //imposto giorno
258     if (inByte == 'D'){
259         inByte1=Serial.read();
260         while (inByte1<0){
261             inByte1=Serial.read();
262         }
263         day=inByte1;
264         sday=String(day);
265     }
266
267     //imposto mese
268     if (inByte == 'M'){
269         inByte1=Serial.read();
270         while (inByte1<0){
271             inByte1=Serial.read();
272         }
273         month=inByte1;
274         smonth=String(month);
275     }
276
277     //imposto anno millennio e centenario
278     if (inByte == 'Y'){
279         inByte1=Serial.read();
280         while (inByte1<0){
281             inByte1=Serial.read();
282         }
283         year=inByte1;
284         syear=String(year);
285     }
286
287     //imposto anno decina e unità
288     if (inByte == 'W'){
289         inByte1=Serial.read();
290         while (inByte1<0){
291             inByte1=Serial.read();
292         }
293         year1=inByte1;
294         syear1=String(year1);
295     }
296
297     //imposto ora
298     if (inByte == 'H'){
299         inByte1=Serial.read();
300         while (inByte1<0){
301             inByte1=Serial.read();
302         }
303         hour=inByte1;
304         shour=String(hour);
305     }
306
307     //imposto minuti
308     if (inByte == 'N'){
309         inByte1=Serial.read();
310         while (inByte1<0){
311             inByte1=Serial.read();
312         }

```

```

314     minute=inByte1;
        sminute=String(minute);
    }
316
        //imposto secondi
318     if (inByte == 'S'){
        inByte1=Serial.read();
320     while (inByte1<0){
        inByte1=Serial.read();
322     }
        seconds=inByte1;
324     sseconds=String(seconds);
    }
326 //imposto freq mosto

328     if (inByte == 'q'){
        //Serial.println(inByte);
330         inByte1=Serial.read();
        while (inByte1<0){
332             inByte1=Serial.read();
        }
334         freq_tone=inByte1*4;
        lcd.clear();
336         lcd.setCursor(0,0);
        lcd.print(" Freq. ");
338         lcd.setCursor(0,1);
        lcd.print(freq_tone/4);
340         //lcd.setCursor(1,1);
        //lcd.write('i');
342         lcd.setCursor(4,1);
        lcd.write('H');
344         lcd.setCursor(5,1);
        lcd.write('z');
346         //lcd.setCursor(3,1);
        //lcd.write('e');
348
        digitalWrite(7, HIGH);
350         delay(300);
        digitalWrite(7, LOW);
352         delay(300);
        digitalWrite(7, HIGH);
354         delay(300);
        digitalWrite(7, LOW);
356         lcd.clear();
        digitalWrite(7, HIGH);
358         delay(300);
        digitalWrite(7, LOW);
360         lcd.clear();
        lcd.setCursor(0,0);
362         lcd.print(" Cevico ");
        lcd.setCursor(0,1);
364         lcd.print(" Group ");

366     }

368 //imposto time iniezione NAD

370     if (inByte == 't'){
        //Serial.println(inByte);
372         inByte1=Serial.read();
        while (inByte1<0){
374             inByte1=Serial.read();
        }
376         time_set=inByte1;
        lcd.clear();
378         lcd.setCursor(0,0);
        lcd.print(" NAD ");
380         lcd.setCursor(0,1);
        lcd.write('T');
382         //lcd.setCursor(1,1);
        //lcd.write('i');
384         lcd.setCursor(2,1);
        lcd.write('=');
386         //lcd.setCursor(3,1);
        //lcd.write('e');
388         lcd.setCursor(4,1);
        lcd.print(time_set*50);
390         digitalWrite(6, HIGH);
        delay(300);

```

```

392     digitalWrite(6, LOW);
393     delay(300);
394     digitalWrite(6, HIGH);
395     delay(300);
396     digitalWrite(6, LOW);
397     lcd.clear();
398     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
399     lcd.print(" Cevico ");
400     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
401     lcd.print(" Group ");
402
403 }
404
405 // memorizzo dati velocitÃ 1 Buffer
406
407 if (inByte == 'v'){ // velocitÃ 1
408     inByte1=Serial.read();
409     while (inByte1<0){
410         inByte1=Serial.read();
411     }
412     v_1=inByte1;
413     lcd.clear();
414     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
415     lcd.print(" Buffer 2");
416     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
417     lcd.write('V');
418     lcd.setCursor(1,1);
419     lcd.write('e');
420     lcd.setCursor(2,1);
421     lcd.write('l');
422     lcd.setCursor(3,1);
423     lcd.write('.');
424     lcd.setCursor(5,1);
425     lcd.print(v_1);
426     digitalWrite(4, HIGH);
427     delay(300);
428     digitalWrite(4, LOW);
429     delay(300);
430     digitalWrite(4, HIGH);
431     delay(300);
432     digitalWrite(4, LOW);
433     lcd.clear();
434     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
435     lcd.print(" Cevico ");
436     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
437     lcd.print(" Group ");
438
439 }
440
441 // memorizzo dati velocitÃ 2 Buffer
442
443 if (inByte == 'w'){ // velocitÃ 2
444     inByte1=Serial.read();
445     while (inByte1<0){
446         inByte1=Serial.read();
447     }
448     v_2=inByte1;
449     //Serial.println(v_2);
450     lcd.clear();
451     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
452     lcd.print(" Buffer 1");
453     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
454     lcd.write('V');
455     lcd.setCursor(1,1);
456     lcd.write('e');
457     lcd.setCursor(2,1);
458     lcd.write('l');
459     lcd.setCursor(3,1);
460     lcd.write('.');
461     lcd.setCursor(5,1);
462     lcd.print(v_2);
463     digitalWrite(5, HIGH);
464     delay(300);
465     digitalWrite(5, LOW);
466     delay(300);
467     digitalWrite(5, HIGH);
468     delay(300);
469     digitalWrite(5, LOW);
470     lcd.clear();

```

```

472     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
473     lcd.print(" Cevico ");
474     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
475     lcd.print(" Group ");
476 }
477
478 // memorizzo dati velocitÃ 3 mstoD
479
480 if (inByte == 'y'){ // velocitÃ 3
481     inByte1=Serial.read();
482     while (inByte1<0){
483         inByte1=Serial.read();
484     }
485     v_3=inByte1;
486     //Serial.println(v_3);
487     lcd.clear();
488     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
489     lcd.print(" Mosto");
490     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
491     lcd.write('V');
492     lcd.setCursor(1,1);
493     lcd.write('e');
494     lcd.setCursor(2,1);
495     lcd.write('l');
496     lcd.setCursor(3,1);
497     lcd.write('.');
498     lcd.setCursor(5,1);
499     lcd.print(v_3);
500     digitalWrite(7, HIGH);
501     delay(300);
502     digitalWrite(7, LOW);
503     delay(300);
504     digitalWrite(7, HIGH);
505     delay(300);
506     digitalWrite(7, LOW);
507     lcd.clear();
508     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
509     lcd.print(" Cevico ");
510     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
511     lcd.print(" Group ");
512 }
513
514 // memorizzo dati velocitÃ 4 NAD
515
516 if (inByte == 'z'){ // velocitÃ 4
517     inByte1=Serial.read();
518     while (inByte1<0){
519         inByte1=Serial.read();
520     }
521     v_4=inByte1;
522     //Serial.println(v_4);
523     lcd.clear();
524     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
525     lcd.print(" NAD");
526     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
527     lcd.write('V');
528     lcd.setCursor(1,1);
529     lcd.write('e');
530     lcd.setCursor(2,1);
531     lcd.write('l');
532     lcd.setCursor(3,1);
533     lcd.write('.');
534     lcd.setCursor(5,1);
535     lcd.print(v_4);
536     digitalWrite(6, HIGH);
537     delay(300);
538     digitalWrite(6, LOW);
539     delay(300);
540     digitalWrite(6, HIGH);
541     delay(300);
542     digitalWrite(6, LOW);
543     lcd.clear();
544     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
545     lcd.print(" Cevico ");
546     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
547     lcd.print(" Group ");
548 }

```

```

550     }

552     switch (inByte) {
553         case 'a': //NAD
554             time_pump=millis();
555             time_total=time_pump+time_set*50;
556             //Serial.println(time_total, 'DEC');
557             lcd.clear();
558             lcd.setCursor(0,0);
559             lcd.print("  NAD  ");
560             while (millis()<time_total){
561                 digitalWrite(6, HIGH);
562                 analogWrite(3,v_4);
563                 lcd.setCursor(0,1);
564                 lcd.write('T');
565                 lcd.setCursor(2,1);
566                 lcd.write('=');
567                 time_remaining = (time_total-millis());
568                 if (time_remaining<1000){ //sposto di una posizione a destra se va sotto il 100
569                     lcd.setCursor(4,1);
570                     lcd.write('0');
571                     lcd.setCursor(5,1);}
572                 else{
573                     lcd.setCursor(4,1);}
574                 lcd.print(time_remaining);
575             }
576             digitalWrite(6, LOW);
577             analogWrite(3,0);
578             lcd.clear();
579             lcd.setCursor(0,0);
580             lcd.print("  Cevico  ");
581             lcd.setCursor(0,1);
582             lcd.print("  Group  ");
583             break;
584
585         case 'b': //spengo NAD
586             digitalWrite(6, LOW);
587             analogWrite(3,0);
588             break;
589
590         case 'c': //mosto
591             digitalWrite(7, HIGH);
592             tone(9, freq_tone);
593             analogWrite(2,v_3);
594             break;
595
596         case 'd': //spengo mosto
597             digitalWrite(7, LOW);
598             noTone(9);
599             analogWrite(2,0);
600             break;
601
602         case 'e': //buffer 1
603             digitalWrite(5, HIGH);
604             analogWrite(11,v_2);
605             break;
606
607         case 'f': //spengo buffer 1
608             digitalWrite(5, LOW);
609             analogWrite(11,0);
610             break;
611
612         case 'g': //buffer 2
613             digitalWrite(4, HIGH);
614             analogWrite(12,v_1);
615             break;
616
617         case 'h': //spengo buffer 2
618             digitalWrite(4, LOW);
619             analogWrite(12,0);
620             break;
621
622         case 'i': //riepilogo
623             stringOne = "S" ;
624             stringTotal = stringOne + 'V' + v_1 + 'W' + v_2 + 'Y' + freq_tone/4 + 'Z' + v_4 + 'X' +
625                 time_set + 'T' + val + 'U';
626             //Serial.println(v_1);
627             Serial.println(stringTotal);
628             //buffer 1

```

```
628     lcd.clear();
629     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
630     lcd.print(" Buffer 1");
631     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
632     lcd.write('V');
633     lcd.setCursor(1,1);
634     lcd.write('e');
635     lcd.setCursor(2,1);
636     lcd.write('l');
637     lcd.setCursor(3,1);
638     lcd.write('.');
639     lcd.setCursor(5,1);
640     lcd.print(v_2);
641     digitalWrite(5, HIGH);
642     delay(500);
643     digitalWrite(5, LOW);
644     delay(500);
645     digitalWrite(5, HIGH);
646     delay(500);
647     digitalWrite(5, LOW);
648
649     //buffer 2
650     lcd.clear();
651     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
652     lcd.print(" Buffer 2");
653     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
654     lcd.write('V');
655     lcd.setCursor(1,1);
656     lcd.write('e');
657     lcd.setCursor(2,1);
658     lcd.write('l');
659     lcd.setCursor(3,1);
660     lcd.write('.');
661     lcd.setCursor(5,1);
662     lcd.print(v_1);
663     digitalWrite(4, HIGH);
664     delay(500);
665     digitalWrite(4, LOW);
666     delay(500);
667     digitalWrite(4, HIGH);
668     delay(500);
669     digitalWrite(4, LOW);
670
671     //mosto
672     lcd.clear();
673     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
674     lcd.print(" Mosto");
675     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
676     lcd.write('F');
677     lcd.setCursor(1,1);
678     lcd.write('r');
679     lcd.setCursor(2,1);
680     lcd.write('e');
681     lcd.setCursor(3,1);
682     lcd.write('q');
683     lcd.setCursor(5,1);
684     lcd.print(freq_tone/4);
685     digitalWrite(7, HIGH);
686     delay(500);
687     digitalWrite(7, LOW);
688     delay(500);
689     digitalWrite(7, HIGH);
690     delay(500);
691     digitalWrite(7, LOW);
692
693     //NAD
694     lcd.clear();
695     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
696     lcd.print(" NAD");
697     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
698     lcd.write('V');
699     lcd.setCursor(1,1);
700     lcd.write('e');
701     lcd.setCursor(2,1);
702     lcd.write('l');
703     lcd.setCursor(3,1);
704     lcd.write('.');
705     lcd.setCursor(5,1);
706     lcd.print(v_4);
```

```

708     digitalWrite(6, HIGH);
        delay(500);
        digitalWrite(6, LOW);
710     delay(500);
        digitalWrite(6, HIGH);
712     delay(500);
        digitalWrite(6, LOW);
714
        //NAD tempo
716     lcd.clear();
        lcd.setCursor(0,0);
718     lcd.print(" NAD ");
        lcd.setCursor(0,1);
720     lcd.write('T');
        lcd.setCursor(2,1);
722     lcd.write('=');
        lcd.setCursor(4,1);
724     lcd.print(time_set*50);
        digitalWrite(6, HIGH);
726     delay(500);
        digitalWrite(6, LOW);
728     delay(500);
        digitalWrite(6, HIGH);
730     delay(500);
        digitalWrite(6, LOW);
732     lcd.clear();
        lcd.setCursor(0,0);
734     lcd.print(" Cevico ");
        lcd.setCursor(0,1);
736     lcd.print(" Group ");

738     break;

740     case 'l':
        Serial.println(val);
742
        break;

744
        case 'm': //riempio il circuito
746
        //NAD
748
        time_pump=millis();
750     time_total=time_pump+time_fill +6000;
        //Serial.println(time_total, 'DEC');
752     lcd.clear();
        lcd.setCursor(0,0);
754     lcd.print(" NAD ");
        while (millis()<time_total){
756     digitalWrite(6, HIGH);
        analogWrite(3,60);
758     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
        lcd.write('T');
760     lcd.setCursor(2,1);
        lcd.write('=');
762     time_remaining = (time_total-millis())/1000;
        if (time_remaining<10){ //sposto di una posizione a destra se va sotto il 100
764         lcd.setCursor(4,1);
            lcd.write('0');
766         lcd.setCursor(5,1);}
        else{
768         lcd.setCursor(4,1);}
        lcd.print(time_remaining);
770     }
        digitalWrite(6, LOW);
772     analogWrite(3,0);

774
        //riempio buffer 1
776
        lcd.clear();
778     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
        lcd.print(" Buffer 1");
780
        time_pump=millis();
782     time_total=time_pump+time_fill;

784
        //buffer 1
        digitalWrite(5, HIGH);

```

```

786     analogWrite(11,60);

788     while (millis()<time_total){
789         lcd.setCursor(0,1);
790         lcd.write('T');
791         lcd.setCursor(2,1);
792         lcd.write('=');
793         time_remaining = (time_total-millis())/1000;
794         if (time_remaining<10){ //sposto di una posizione a destra se va sotto il 100
795             lcd.setCursor(4,1);
796             lcd.write('0');
797             lcd.setCursor(5,1);}
798         else{
799             lcd.setCursor(4,1);}
800         lcd.print(time_remaining);
801     }

802     //buffer 1
803     digitalWrite(5, LOW);
804     analogWrite(11,0);
805 /*
806     //riempio buffer 2
807     time_pump=millis();
808     time_total=time_pump+time_fill;
809
810     lcd.clear();
811     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
812     lcd.print(" Buffer 2");
813
814     //buffer 2
815     digitalWrite(4, HIGH);
816     analogWrite(12,60);
817
818     while (millis()<time_total){
819         lcd.setCursor(0,1);
820         lcd.write('T');
821         lcd.setCursor(2,1);
822         lcd.write('=');
823         time_remaining = (time_total-millis())/1000;
824         if (time_remaining<10){ //sposto di una posizione a destra se va sotto il 100
825             lcd.setCursor(4,1);
826             lcd.write('0');
827             lcd.setCursor(5,1);}
828         else{
829             lcd.setCursor(4,1);}
830         lcd.print(time_remaining);
831     }

832     //buffer 2
833     digitalWrite(4, LOW);
834     analogWrite(12,0);
835 */
836     //riempio mosto
837     time_pump=millis();
838     time_total=time_pump+time_fill;
839
840     lcd.clear();
841     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
842     lcd.print(" Mosto");
843
844     //mosto
845     digitalWrite(7, HIGH);
846     tone(9,freq_tone);
847     analogWrite(2,60);
848
849     while (millis()<time_total){
850         lcd.setCursor(0,1);
851         lcd.write('T');
852         lcd.setCursor(2,1);
853         lcd.write('=');
854         time_remaining = (time_total-millis())/1000;
855         if (time_remaining<10){ //sposto di una posizione a destra se va sotto il 100
856             lcd.setCursor(4,1);
857             lcd.write('0');
858             lcd.setCursor(5,1);}
859         else{
860             lcd.setCursor(4,1);}
861         lcd.print(time_remaining);
862     }

```

```

866     //mosto
      digitalWrite(7, LOW);
868     noTone(9);
      analogWrite(2,0);
870
      lcd.clear();
872     lcd.setCursor(0,0);
      lcd.print(" Cevico ");
874     lcd.setCursor(0,1);
      lcd.print(" Group ");
876
      break;
878
      case 'p':
880
      printer.setSize('S'); // set type size , accepts 'S', 'M', 'L'
882     printer.println("-----"); //print line
      printer.setSize('S'); // set type size , accepts 'S', 'M', 'L'
884     printer.justify('C');
      printer.println("Gruppo Cevico");
886     printer.println("Vini Romagnoli");
      //printer.printBitmap(243, 126, cevico5);
888     // printer.printBitmap(155, 155, cevicoqr);

890     printer.setSize('S'); // set type size , accepts 'S', 'M', 'L'
      printer.print("-----"); //print line
892
      printer.setSize('S'); // set type size , accepts 'S', 'M', 'L'
894     printer.justify('R');
      printer.boldOn(); // Turn bold on
896     printer.inverseOn(); //set to print white on black

898     string_ora=String("Ora & Data:"+shour+"."+sminute+"."+sseconds+" - "+sday+"/"+smmonth+"/"+
      syear+syear1);
      string_ora.toCharArray(char_ora,34);
900
      printer.println(char_ora); //print line
902     string_numero=String("Numero: "+scarro);
      string_numero.toCharArray(char_num,15);
904     printer.feed(); //advance one line
      printer.println(char_num); //print line
906     printer.feed(); //advance one line
      printer.inverseOff(); //set to print black on white (default)
908
      printer.setSize('M'); // set type size , accepts 'S', 'M', 'L'
910     printer.justify('C');

912     string_conc_glic=String(" Glicerolo: "+sglic_int+"."+sglic_dec1+sglic_dec2+sglic_dec3+" g/l")
      ;
      string_conc_glic.toCharArray(char_glic,21);
914
      //Serial.print(char_glic);
916
      printer.println(char_glic); //print line
918     printer.feed(); //advance one line
      //printer.setSize('L'); // set type size , accepts 'S', 'M', 'L'
      //printer.justify('C');
920     //printer.println("0.92 g/l"); //print line
922
      printer.setSize('S'); // set type size , accepts 'S', 'M', 'L'
924     printer.print("-----"); //print line

926     printer.justify('C');
      if(cantina){
928         printer.println("Cantina di Bagnacavallo"); //print line}
      }
930     else if(cantina==0){
      printer.println("Cantina di Imola");
932     }
      printer.print("-----"); //print line
934
      printer.boldOff(); //Rurn bold
936
      printer.feed(); //advance one line
938     printer.feed(); //advance one line
      printer.feed(); //advance one line
940     break;

```

```
942     default:
943         // turn all the LEDs off:
944         digitalWrite(4, LOW);
945         digitalWrite(5, LOW);
946         digitalWrite(6, LOW);
947         digitalWrite(7, LOW);
948         analogWrite(12,0);
949         analogWrite(11,0);
950         analogWrite(3,0);
951         analogWrite(2,0);
952         noTone(9);
953         break;
954     }
955 }
956 }
```

B.3 Antibiotic concentration sensor

```

1
2 // digital 6 = 365 nm XSL-365-e Roithner
3 // digital 7 = 365 nm XSL-365-e Roithner
4
5 #include<math.h>
6
7 int inByte;
8 unsigned long time_end;
9 unsigned long time_start;
10 // unsigned long time_remaining;
11
12 int mean_blu = 0;
13 int mean_violet = 0;
14 int mean_blank = 0;
15 int mean_blank_old = 0;
16 int mean_violet_blank = 0;
17 int mean_blu_blank = 0;
18 int mean_blank_tot;
19 unsigned long int baseline=0;
20 int mean_baseline = 0;
21
22 unsigned long int a_count = 1;
23 unsigned long int a_blu = 0;
24 unsigned long int a_violet = 0;
25 unsigned long int blank = 0;
26 unsigned long int count_blank = 1;
27 unsigned long int a_count_v = 1;
28 unsigned long int count_baseline;
29
30 int led_blu =0;
31 int flag_set=1;
32 int k=0;
33 int flag_wait=1;
34 int led_on_prev=0;
35 int flag_blank=0;
36
37 int soglia=2000;
38 int time_on=3000;
39
40 int base_max=150;
41 int base_min=100; //limiti baseline
42
43 int time_wait=1500;
44 unsigned long int time_wait_l=3000;
45 int val_pwm=150;
46
47 char char_string[4];
48 String String_total;
49 String String_mean_blu;
50 String String_mean_violet;
51 String String_tot_blank;
52 String String_blank;
53 String String_tot_blu_blank;
54 String String_blu_tot;
55 String String_tot_violet_blank;
56 String String_violet_tot;
57
58 void setup() {
59 // initialize serial communication:
60 Serial.begin(9600);
61
62 //cambio i timer 1 (controlla pin 12,11) e 2 (controlla pin 10,9)
63 int myEraser = 7; // this is 111 in binary and is used as an eraser
64
65 TCCR1B &= ~myEraser; // this operation (AND plus NOT), set the three bits in TCCR2B to 0
66 TCCR2B &= ~myEraser;
67
68 int myPrescaler = 1; // this could be a number in [1 , 6].
69 TCCR1B |= myPrescaler; //this operation (OR), replaces the last three bits in TCCR2B with our
70 new value 011
71 TCCR2B |= myPrescaler; //freq PWM diventa 31 kHz
72
73 // inizializzo i pin di controllo
74 pinMode(9, OUTPUT);
75 pinMode(7, OUTPUT);
76 pinMode(6, OUTPUT);

```

```

77     pinMode(5, OUTPUT);
       pinMode(4, OUTPUT);

79     digitalWrite(4,LOW);
       digitalWrite(5,LOW);
81     digitalWrite(6,LOW);
       digitalWrite(7,LOW);

83     analogWrite(9, val_pwm);
85
86     }
87
88     void measure(){
89         while (inByte!='s'){
90
91             if (Serial.available() > 0) {
92                 inByte = Serial.read();}
93
94             //Serial.println(flag_wait);
95
96             if(flag_wait==1){//aspetto time_wait prima di riaccendere i LED
97
98                 time_start=millis();
99                 time_end=time_start+time_wait_1;
100                // Serial.println(time_end);
101                // Serial.println(time_start);
102                while(millis()<time_end){}; //tengo tutto spento per time_wait_1
103
104                flag_wait=0;
105                flag_blank=1;
106                while(flag_blank==1){
107                    time_start=millis();
108                    time_end=time_start+time_wait;
109                    baseline=0;
110                    count_baseline=0;
111
112                    while(millis()<time_end){
113                        baseline=baseline+analogRead(1);
114                        count_baseline=count_baseline+1;}
115
116                    mean_baseline=baseline/count_baseline;
117
118                    //Serial.println(baseline);
119                    //Serial.print('A'); Serial.println(count_baseline);
120                    //Serial.println(mean_baseline);
121                    Serial.print('K');
122                    Serial.print(val_pwm);
123                    Serial.println('L');
124
125
126                    if (mean_baseline>base_max){val_pwm=val_pwm+1;
127                        if (val_pwm>255){val_pwm=255;}
128                        analogWrite(9, val_pwm);}
129
130                    else if (mean_baseline<base_min){val_pwm=val_pwm-1;
131                        if (val_pwm<0){val_pwm=0;flag_blank=0;}
132                        analogWrite(9, val_pwm);}
133
134                    else if (mean_baseline>=50 && mean_baseline<160){flag_blank=0;}
135                }
136
137                time_start=millis();
138                time_end=time_start+time_wait;
139                while(millis()<time_end){}; //aspetto che si stabilizzi il sistema
140
141            }
142
143        }
144
145        //Serial.println(led_blu);
146
147        //cambio i LED accesi
148
149        if(led_blu==1){
150            led_blu=0;
151            flag_set=1;
152            led_on_prev=1;} //era acceso quello blu
153        else if(led_blu==2){
154            led_blu=0;

```

```

155         flag_set=1;
156         led_on_prev=0;
157     flag_wait=1; // controllo la baseline
158     else if (led_blu==0&&led_on_prev==0){
159         led_blu=1;
160         flag_set=1;}
161     else if (led_blu==0&&led_on_prev==1){
162         led_blu=2;
163         flag_set=1;}
164
165
166     time_start=millis ();
167     time_end=time_start+time_on;
168
169     /* Serial.println(time_start);
170     Serial.println(time_end);*/
171
172     while(millis ()<time_end){
173         //accendo i LED di misura
174
175         if (led_blu==1 && flag_set==1){
176             digitalWrite (4 ,LOW);
177             digitalWrite (5 ,HIGH); //per accendere i led blu devo mettere high questo
178             digitalWrite (6 ,LOW);
179             digitalWrite (7 ,HIGH); //per accendere i led blu devo mettere high questo
180         else if (led_blu==2 && flag_set==1){
181             digitalWrite (4 ,HIGH); //per accendere i led uv devo mettere high questo
182             digitalWrite (5 ,LOW);
183             digitalWrite (6 ,LOW);
184             digitalWrite (7 ,LOW);}
185         else if (led_blu==0 && flag_set==1){
186             digitalWrite (4 ,LOW);
187             digitalWrite (5 ,LOW);
188             digitalWrite (6 ,LOW);
189             digitalWrite (7 ,LOW);
190         // flag_wait=1;
191     }
192
193     flag_set=0; //ho impostato i LED
194
195     //acquisisco le info di misura
196
197     if (led_blu==1){
198         if (millis ()>time_start+soglia){
199             a_blu=a_blu+analogRead (1);
200             a_count=a_count+1;
201         }
202         // Serial.println (led_blu);
203         //Serial.println (analogRead (1));
204     }
205
206     else if (led_blu==2){
207         if (millis ()>time_start+soglia){
208             a_violet=a_violet+analogRead (1);
209             a_count_v=a_count_v+1;
210         }
211         // Serial.println (led_blu);
212         //Serial.println (analogRead (1));
213     }
214
215     else if (led_blu==0){
216         if (millis ()>time_start+soglia){
217             blank=blank+analogRead (1);
218             count_blank=count_blank+1;
219         }
220         //Serial.println (led_blu);
221         // Serial.println (analogRead (1));
222     }
223 }
224
225 //calcolo i valori medi dei segnali acquisiti
226
227 if (led_blu==1){
228     mean_blu=a_blu/a_count;
229     Serial.print ('B');
230     Serial.print (mean_blu);
231     Serial.println ('C');
232     /*String.mean_blu=String (mean_blu);

```

```

String_total="B"+String_mean_blu+"C";
235 Serial.println(String_total);*/
a_blu=0;
237 a_count=0;
a_violet=0;
239 a_count_v=0;
blank=0;
241 count_blank=0;
k=1;}

243
else if(led_blu==2){
245 mean_violet=a_violet/a_count_v;
Serial.print('V');
247 Serial.print(mean_violet);
Serial.println('W');
249 //Serial.println(a_count_v);
//Serial.println(mean_violet);
251 /*String_mean_violet=String(mean_violet);
String_total="V"+String_mean_violet+"W";
253 Serial.println(String_total);*/
/*Serial.println(a_count_v);
255 Serial.println(a_violet);*/
a_blu=0;
257 a_count=0;
a_violet=0;
259 a_count_v=0;
blank=0;
261 count_blank=0;
k=1;}

263
else if(led_blu==0){//medio il bianco
265 mean_blank_old=mean_blank;
mean_blank=blank/count_blank;
267 mean_blank_tot=(mean_blank+mean_blank_old)/2;
//Serial.println(mean_blank_tot);
269 //Serial.println(mean_blank);
/*String_blank=String(mean_blank);
271 String_tot_blank="D"+String_blank+"E";
Serial.println(String_blank);
273 Serial.println(String_tot_blank);*/
Serial.print('D');
275 Serial.print(mean_blank);
Serial.println('E');

277
if(led_on_prev==1&&k==1){//era acceso il blu //metto il controllo ke non sia
il rpimo giro
279 mean_blu_blank=mean_blu-mean_blank_tot;
//Serial.println(mean_blu_blank);
281 //if(mean_blu_blank>0){
//String_blu_tot=String(mean_blu_blank,DEC);
283 //String_tot_blu_blank='P'+String_blu_tot+'Q';
//Serial.println(String_tot_blu_blank);}
285 Serial.print('P');
Serial.print(mean_blu_blank);
287 Serial.println('Q');
}

289
else if(led_on_prev==0&&k==1){//era acceso il viola
mean_violet_blank=mean_violet-mean_blank_tot;
291 //Serial.println(mean_violet_blank);
//if(mean_violet_blank>0){
293 //String_violet_tot=String(mean_violet_blank,DEC);
//String_tot_violet_blank='R'+String_violet_tot+'S';
295 //Serial.println(String_tot_violet_blank);}//
297 Serial.print('R');
Serial.print(mean_violet_blank);
299 Serial.println('S');
}

301 a_blu=0;
a_count=0;
303 a_violet=0;
a_count_v=0;
305 blank=0;
count_blank=0;
307 k=1;}

309
}
311 }

```

```
313 void blank_measure() {
    time_start=millis();
315 time_end=time_start+2000;
    blank=0;
317 count_blank=0;
    while(millis()<time_end){
319     blank=blank+analogRead(1);
        count_blank=count_blank+1;
321     }
    mean_blank=blank/count_blank;
323     String_blank=String(mean_blank,DEC);
    String_tot_blank='D'+String_blank+'E';
325     Serial.println(String_tot_blank);
}
327
void loop() {
329     int i;

331     if (Serial.available() > 0) {
        inByte = Serial.read();
333         // do something different depending on the character received.
        // The switch statement expects single number values for each case;
335         // in this exmample, though, you're using single quotes to tell
        // the controller to get the ASCII value for the character. For
337         // example 'a' = 97, 'b' = 98, and so forth:
        //Serial.println(inByte);
339

        switch (inByte) {
341             case 'a': //accendo LED D1
                digitalWrite(4,HIGH);
343                 digitalWrite(5,LOW);
                digitalWrite(6,LOW);
345                 digitalWrite(7,LOW);
                break;
347

            case 'b': //spengo NAD
349                 digitalWrite(4,LOW);
                digitalWrite(5,HIGH);
351                 digitalWrite(6,LOW);
                digitalWrite(7,LOW);
353                 break;

355             case 'c': //365 nm
                digitalWrite(4,LOW);
357                 digitalWrite(5,LOW);
                digitalWrite(6,HIGH);
359                 digitalWrite(7,LOW);
                break;
361

            case 'd': // 365 nm
363                 digitalWrite(4,LOW);
                digitalWrite(5,LOW);
365                 digitalWrite(6,LOW);
                digitalWrite(7,HIGH);
367                 break;

369             case 'e': // 365 nm
                digitalWrite(4,LOW);
371                 digitalWrite(5,LOW);
                digitalWrite(6,HIGH);
373                 digitalWrite(7,HIGH);
                break;
375

            case 'f': // 415 nm
377                 digitalWrite(4,HIGH);
                digitalWrite(5,HIGH);
379                 digitalWrite(6,LOW);
                digitalWrite(7,LOW);
381                 break;

383             case 'g':
                measure();
385

            //Serial.println('a');
387

            digitalWrite(4,LOW);
389             digitalWrite(5,LOW);
            digitalWrite(6,LOW);
```

```
391     digitalWrite(7,LOW);
393     break;
395     case 'h':
397         blank_measure();
399         break;
401     default:
402         // turn all the LEDs off:
403         digitalWrite(4,LOW);
404         digitalWrite(5,LOW);
405         digitalWrite(6,LOW);
406         digitalWrite(7,LOW);
407         break;
408     }
409 }
```

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