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EUROPEAN ACHIEVEMENTS IN SENSOR RESEARCH DEDICATED TO IN VIVO MONITORING (a) GLUCOSE

j.C. Pickup and D.R. Thévenot

OUTLINE

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202 J. C. PICKUPand D. R. THÉVENOT

1. METHODS

Members of the EC Concerted Action on Chemical Sensors for In Vivo Monitoring, and invited workshop participants, were sent ^a questionnaire which sought to record details of in vivo and ex vivo glucose sensors under development in Europe. One workshop participant working in the United States was also included.

The questionnaire was designed to elicit information about sensors for any analyte, but only the responses for glucose are presented here. Questions were asked about the clinical problem for which the sensor was being developed, the sensor operating principle and construction, the *in vitro* and *in vivo* operating characteristics, the retesting of the sensor after explantation and any ex vivo evaluation in flow-through cells.

Almost all sensors were amperometric enzyme electrodes, except for one enzyme thermistor (No. 12). The most popular base electrodes were made from platinum (74% of all devices) or carbon (30%), with ^a wire configuration usually employed for those sensors already tested in vivo. Chip-based sensors, which have perhaps greater potential for miniaturization and mass production, were, with one exception, confined to sensors at the *in vitro* stage of development. Table 2

2. SUMMARY OF RESULTS

2.1 Intended Use and General Operating Principles

Twenty-three designs of glucose sensor were described (Tables 1-5). Of these, about half had already been tested in vivo at the time of reporting, five designs had been evaluated ex vivo (which was their intended eventual use) and seven sensors had yet to reach to stage of either in vivo or ex vivo testing (and were therefore tested in vitro only). The vast majority of devices were being developed for use in patients with diabetes mellitus, though vital function monitoring in the intensive-care setting (which may include glucose and other metabolites, as well as oxygen, carbon dioxide and pH) and the research application of glucose sensors in neuroscience to monitor brain-glucose levels were also mentioned (Table 1).

European Achievements in Sensor Research 203

shows that 8 of the 11 glucose sensors tested in vivo were hydrogen peroxide-detecting electrodes with catalysis by immobilized glucose oxidase and recording of current at an applied potential of +600-700 mV. Two in vivo devices were mediator-based, one using a ferrocene derivative and a set potential of $+160 \,\mathrm{mV}$ (No. 7) and the other using TTF+TCNQ" at ^a potential of +250 mV (No. 1). Only one sensor (No. 3) was based on monitoring oxygen consumption by the glucose oxidase-catalysed oxidation of glucose. Here, the set potential was - 600 mV. Ferrocene-mediated sensors were also being tested ex vivo and in vitro.

Inner membranes between the base electrode and the enzyme are commonly used for exclusion of co-reactants. It is interesting that 14 of the ²³ sensors employed no such membrane (Table 2); but when used, cellulose acetate was the commonest inner membrane (4 devices). Outer membranes have multiple functions, including exerting a diffusion barrier to the analyte and thus extending linearity, preventing leakage of enzyme/mediator and determining the biocompatibility. Polyurethane and polycarbonate were amongst the polymer membranes often used for this purpose, but 9 sensors had no outer membrane.

Table 3 shows that in vivo sensors generally had good linearity when calibrated in vitro (range 15-35 mM maximum glucose). Response times were variable but the upper limit was not unacceptable (2–300s) and the reported loss of sensitivity when operated in buffer (drift) was low at 1%/h or less. Most sensors were insensitive to lowered oxygen tension to ^a value of 37.5 mm Hg (5 kPa) or less. These are characteristics which are generally regarded as desirable for application as an implantable glucose sensor for use in diabetes.

In vitro sensitivity varied nearly 700-fold for in vivo sensors

Most in vivo sensors had Ag/AgCl as ^a reference electrode (Table 2) and when implanted this was either integrated with the working electrode (i.e. actually implanted) or applied to the skin surface of the animal or volunteer human subject (Table 4). One sensor employed ^a steel reference electrode (No. 11).

2.2 Operating Characteristics In Vitro

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No.	max (mM)	Glucose Response Io (nA) time (s)		Sensitivity (nA/mM)	Relative sensitivity $(5.5/I_0)$	Lowest $O2$ Drift (mm Hg)	$(\frac{9}{6})$
Glucose sensors used in vivo							
	35			25	125.0		0.2
	20	180	1.2	1.3	5.4	15	
		300	2	5	12.5		0
	16.5	24	0.7		7.1	25	10
5	18	30		2	10.0	37	
6	20	60	0.05	0.1	10.0		
	20	266	25	11	2.2	94	
8	30	35	30	70	11.7	37.5	0.5
9	15	210	1.3	2	7.7	8	0
10	30	60	100		0.2		0.1
	30	120	0.3	0.15	2.5	30	O
Mean 23		117	15	11	18	35	1.4
SD		100	29	20	34	26	2.9
No.	10						10
Min	15		0.05	0.1	0.2	8	0
Max	35	300	100	70	125	94	10.0
Glucose sensors used ex vivo							
12	3	45	1 mV	100 mV/mM 500			0.1
13	10	2	0	200			0
14	2	20	0.5		10		
15	16.7	420	0.5	1.2	12	40	0.2
16	20	30		8.5	42.5		
Mean	10	103	0.4	42	141		0.5
SD		159	0.4	79	207		0.4
No.	5	5	5				5
Min	2	2	0.0		10		
Max	20	420	1.0	200	500		1.0
Glucose sensors used in vitro							
17	12	60	50		0.1		
18	100	20	300	50	0.8		0.5
19	24	10		5	25.0		5
20	10	10	5	20	20.0		0.07
21	8	12	100	650	32.5		
22	15	30		0.8			0.15
23	40	30	0.5	5	50.0		
Mean	30	25	76	105	21		1.4
SD	30	17	106	223	17		2.1
No.			6		6		4
Min	8	10			0.1		0.1
Max 100		60	100	650	50		5.0

Table 3. In vitro operating characteristics of glucose sensors.

Key:

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Glucose max, maximum glucose concentration at which response is linear; I_o, background current (current at zero glucose); relative sensitivity, response at 5 mM glucose/l_o; Lowest O_{2} , lowest p_{O_2} at which sensor response unaffected; drift, drift in buffered glucose solution.

European Achievements in Sensor Research 209

(0.1-70nA/mM), depending on such factors as working electrode type and area, but values ranging between 0.1 and 5nA/mM were found with eight sensors used in vivo.

In order to gain more information about the responses of such sensors, we have calculated the ratio between their response to a 5 mM glucose increase, i.e. $5 \times S$, and the corresponding background current I_0 (Table 3). This 5 x S/I_0 ratio in vitro, ranged between 2.2 and 12.5 for the nine sensors tested in vivo; such values, although not high, are probably sufficient for glucose determinations under at least physiological conditions.

2.3 In Vivo Studies

Glucose sensors have been tested in ^a number of animal species (rat, dog, rabbit, sheep) but there was relatively little experience of studies in man (only four sensors) (Table 4). With the exception of the sensor used for neuroscience research (No.l), all devices had been sited in subcutaneous tissue, with two also used in a vein and one intraperitoneally. There was no general agreement about sterilization procedures, with glutaraldehyde, ethylene oxide, γ -irradiation, ethyl or isopropyl alcohol and no method, all being employed. After a run-in time averaging 1.2h, the implanted sensors were operated for periods of up to 108 d (Table 5). The latter sensor (No. 3) based on an O_2 -consumption-detecting electrode used intravenously in the dog is exceptional. The nine glucose sensors implanted in the subcutaneous tissue of man or animals functioned from 0.2 to lOd. It is interesting to note in particular that the average sensitivity of ⁸ of ¹¹ in vivo sensors was apparently reduced compared to initial calibration in vitro (20–93% of the in vitro value), thus necessitating in vivo calibration of sensors. In fact only three groups used ^a 2-point in vivo calibration procedure for their sensors, all others were satisfied with *in vitro* calibration or calibration in blood or plasma samples. Sometimes, when sensors were recalibrated in vitro after explantation, the sensitivity was improved (three cases), but in most cases it was virtually the same as that in vitro prior to implementation.

This may indicate tissue factors which impair responses, rather than irreversible damage to the sensor caused by, for example, insertion

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210

J. C. PICKUPand D. R. THÉVENOT

210

Key:
GA, glutaraldehyde; EtO, ethylene oxide; EtOH, ethanol; IPA, isopropyl alcohol; s.c, subcutaneous; i.v., intravenous; i.p., intraperitoneal; capil,
capillaries; port, portable recorder; tel, telemetry; gen, general an

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key:
Sin vivo/Sin vitro=in vivo sensitivity as percentage of *in vitro* sensitivity; S/S*in vitro=in vitro* sensitivity after explantation/*in vitro=in vitro*=in vitro=in vitro=in vitro=in vitro=in vitro=in vitro=in vitr implantation; T/T*in vitro=in vitro* response time after explantation
explantation/in *vitro* response time prior to implantation
*mV/mM.

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procedures. Some devices had unchanged or worsened sensitivity after explantation, and here damage to the sensor during insertion, operation or removal cannot be excluded.

2.4 Ex Vivo Studies

Only five sensors were reported to have been tested extensively exvivo in ^a flow-cell configuration (Tables 4 and 5). Three of these had been evaluated in man. The fluid sensed was blood, or brain or subcutaneous interstitial tissue fluid dialysate. The run-in time appeared to be shorter for these $ex vivo$ devices $(0-0.5 h)$ compared to the above implanted sensors. One sensor had been operated for up to 150d (No. 14).

In contrast to implanted glucose sensors, the sensitivity of sensors operated ex vivo was generally the same as that in vitro.

3. CONCLUSIONS

This questionnaire demonstrates that ^a comparatively large number of implantable glucose sensors are under development in Europe. Although amperometric enzyme electrodes are the main focus of research, several different configurations such as chip, wire, paste and flow-through cell, are being investigated. The in vitro performance of these sensors is generally excellent, with good stability and linearity. However, less than half of the devices have been tested as in vivo sensors and, of these, only four have been evaluated in man.

Although first trials of implanted glucose sensors are very encouraging, a number of difficulties have emerged, such as ^a usually lowered sensitivity in vivo and hence the need for in vivo calibration procedures. Sensors have generally not been operated for more than a few days in vivo and much needs to be learnt about short- and longterm biocompatibility and bioperformance.

European Achievements in Sensor Research 215

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222 J. C. PICKUPand D. R. THÉVENOT

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