Whole blood glucose analysis based on smartphone camera module

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Abstract. Complementary metal oxide semiconductor (CMOS) image sensors have received great attention for their high efficiency in biological applications. The present work describes a CMOS image sensor-based whole blood glucose monitoring system through a point-of-care (POC) approach. A simple poly-ethylene terephthalate (PET) chip was developed to carry out the enzyme kinetic reaction at various concentrations (110–586 mg/dL) of mouse blood glucose. In this technique, assay reagent is immobilized onto amine functionalized silica (AFSiO2) nanoparticles as an electrostatic attraction in order to achieve glucose oxidation on the chip. The assay reagent immobilized AFSiO2 nanoparticles develop a semi-transparent reaction platform, which is technically a suitable chip to analyze by a camera module. The oxidized glucose then produces a green color according to the glucose concentration and is analyzed by the camera module as a photon detection technique; the photon number decreases when the glucose concentration increases. The combination of these components, the CMOS image sensor and enzyme immobilized PET film chip, constitute a compact, accurate, inexpensive, precise, digital, highly sensitive, specific, and optical glucose-sensing approach for POC diagnosis. © 2015 Society of Photo-Optical Instrumentation Engineers (SPIE)

Keywords: AFSiO2 nanoparticles; blood glucose sensing; CMOS image sensor; enzyme kinetic reaction; poly-ethylene terephthalate film chip; photon detection.

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1 Introduction

Diabetes mellitus is a common health issue in most developed and developing countries. As monitoring of glucose is the most effective solution for standard diabetes care, frequent monitoring can reduce disease severities, secondary complications, related mortalities, and aid in maintaining the body’s insulin level. Clinical analysis is the best way to accurately determine the level of blood glucose. However, as multiple glucose analyses and rapid monitoring are required, self-monitoring of glucose levels is preferred. In this respect, many glucose monitors have been developed using various approaches, such as enzymatic analysis, electrochemical measurement, and continuous glucose measurement through both invasive and noninvasive methods in order to satisfy the demand. Enzymatic analysis is one of the most valuable analytical assay due to its high specificity; it does not respond to any other physiological fluids. Moreover, optical glucose sensors of porous gel sensor, optical strip sensor, and nanoparticle optical sensor have been reported as effective sensors with enzymatic analysis. However, their complication is that the readout of the results is analog. Hence, electrochemical-based amperometric glucose sensors are the most appealing type of sensors due to their user-friendly and digital output. However, interferences with nonspecific electroactive particles combined with complications related to signal conversion between the enzyme and mediator are two disadvantages of the sensors. Importantly, accurate and user-friendly glucose monitoring is essential to control diabetic complications. Accordingly, we were motivated to develop an enzymatic glucose sensor with a digital readout signal. The present research group found that CMOS image sensor-based whole blood glucose analysis is one of the most efficient methods due to its digital output, real-time monitoring and high availability in mobile phone cameras, which is a huge added advantage. Usually, the CMOS image sensors use as a digital camera, microprocessors, and sensor elements nowadays, the CMOS sensors participate in the generation of the protein/peptide array and DNA array. Also, we have successfully accomplished CMOS image sensor-based antigen–antibody interactions. In addition, CMOS image sensors employing various glucose monitoring methods, including continuous glucose monitoring method enzymatic glucose monitoring method and thermal-based glucose monitoring operate at the in vitro and in vivo levels. In addition, smartphones have proved efficient for calorimetric analysis. Therein, Oncescu et al. demonstrated smartphone-based biomarker monitoring for hydration, electrolyte loss, and enamel decalcification using sweat and saliva. A light-emitting diode (LED) array integrated smartphone camera has been utilized as a hand-held microplate reader for enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA). Moreover, a smartphone camera analyzed the color intensity of a 3-D reaction platform to quantify the glucose level; the analysis takes 7 min to read out the data. Also, our previous study performed smartphone camera-based mouse plasma glucose monitoring as a photon–detection technique. Such positive outcomes have motivated us to continue the study with whole blood glucose analysis. According to the research report, nanoparticles and microparticles play major roles in electrochemical and
enzymatic glucose sensors. Similarly, we have utilized silica nanoparticles for enzymatic glucose measurement due to their chemical inertness, optical transparency, low temperature encapsulation, thermal stability, and biocompatibility. Particularly, glucose oxidase (GOX) enzyme and chromogen could be immobilized on amine-functionalized silica nanoparticles (AFSiO2) through electrostatic attraction.

In the present study, a CMOS image sensor was used as a bioanalytical device for the measurement of blood glucose levels. For the analysis, 28 mouse whole blood samples were applied to the poly-ethyleneterephthalate (PET) chip, and filtered plasma was flowed over the reaction area. The oxidized glucose produced the green color based on the glucose concentration. The CMOS image sensor that measures the glucose level based on the color intensity is an original point that differentiates this work from others. In addition, the study demonstrated fabrication of a PET chip that is technically suitable for a CMOS sensor-based monitoring system, synthesis of AFSiO2 nanoparticles, immobilization of assay reagent on PET film, enzyme stability and activity, blood plasma separation that is reproducible and user friendly. As a result, a CMOS image sensor-based real-time whole blood glucose monitoring system reached the clinical standard. A wide range of photophysical techniques such as UV-spectral absorbance, dynamic light scattering (DLS), Fourier transform-infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), x-ray diffraction (XRD), and field emission scanning electron microscopic (FE-SEM) imagery were used to characterize various aspects, including nanoparticle size and distribution, enzyme immobilized AFSiO2 nanoparticles, absorbance of assay reagent immobilized AFSiO2 nanoparticles, and differences between bare and enzyme-immobilized chips. Positive outcomes motivated the fabrication of a PET chip for enzyme kinetic blood glucose analysis using a CMOS image sensor. This study provides a simple and precise approach for a blood glucose monitoring system by point-of-care (POC) approach.

2 Materials and Methods

2.1 CMOS Image Sensor and Instrumentation

A CMOS image sensor (Sponsored from Silicon File Technologies) is an electronic device that converts electrons into digital numbers. In the present experiment, a NOO0N0PC30L, 110,000 active single chip CMOS image sensor was used. The sensor contains 367 × 314 multi pixel photon arrays and is connected to a 10-bit analog-to-digital converter (ADC). The photodiode absorbs photons from living room lights and they are converted as electrons into a digital number by the ADC. Moreover, FE-SEM (JEOL-ISM-7500F; JEOL, Tokyo, Japan) images and the DLS method (Malvern Instruments Korea, Seoul, Republic of Korea) were used to confirm the average particle size of AFSiO2 nanoparticles and their distribution. Electrophoretic light scattering spectrophotometer (ELS-800; Japan) was used to measure the zeta potential or overall surface charge of the AFSiO2 nanoparticles. Furthermore, a UV-spectral study (Carry Win Spectrophotometer) determined the absorbance of the AFSiO2 nanoparticles before and after assay reagent immobilization and oxidation. Three individual samples were used for each spectral analysis at 25°C. XRD analysis (Model D/Max-2200; Rigaku, Woodlands, Texas) was used to identify the crystallites of the synthesized AFSiO2 nanoparticles and the reacted sample. Functional groups were recorded by an FTIR spectroscopy (TENSOR 27 instrument, Bruker Optics, Alexandria, NSW, Australia) for AFSiO2 nanoparticles before and after enzyme immobilization and oxidation.

2.2 Synthesis of AFSiO2 Nanoparticles

For AFSiO2 nanoparticle synthesis, 6.16 ml of ammonia (NH3), 500 μl of 3-aminopropyl triethoxysilane (APTES), and 4.48 ml of distilled water (DI) were added to 6.95 ml of ethanol and then stirred for 1 h using a magnetic stirrer. Then, 2.5 ml of TEOS was applied to the mixture drop wise using an injection pump (flow rate: 830 μl/min) and it was stirred for 24 h. The silica colloids were recovered by high speed centrifugation. Then the solutions were dialyzed with ethanol and deionized (DI) water to remove unreactive materials. The collected nanoparticles were mixed with assay reagent before being applied to the hydrophilic PET film.

2.3 Preparation of Assay Reagent

Glucose oxidase (GOD) (100,000 units/g), peroxidase (POD) (300 units/g), and 35 mM chromogen of 2,2'-azino-bis (3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid) (ABTS) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, and reagents were prepared at their respective concentrations using standard laboratory procedures. All solutions were prepared and stored in the refrigerator until use. The enzymes and chromogen were mixed at 2:2:1 volume ratios. The required amount (15 μl) of assay reagent was added onto AFSiO2 nanoparticles to induce the interaction between the assay reagent and AFSiO2 nanoparticles.

2.4 Blood Collection from Mouse

Eight-week-old male C57BL/6d mice were purchased from Charles River Laboratories, Japan. The mice were housed under controlled temperature (22 ± 2°C) and 12 h light/dark cycle with free access to water and a regular diet (PicoLab Rodent Diet 20, #5053, LabDiet). After 1 week acclimation period, mice were divided into two groups and fed either a regular diet or a 60% high fat diet (HFD) (D12492, Research Diet) for 4 weeks. At 13 weeks of age, to test various levels of blood glucose, glucose (2 g/kg body weight) was intraperitoneally administered in 16 h overnight-fasting mice and blood was collected from the tail vein at 0, 15, 30, 60, 90, 120, 140, and 160 min (n = 3). A lower concentration of glucose analysis was carried out with 20 h fasting mice and 5-h fasting mice. Glucose concentration was analyzed using 5 μl whole blood by a glucose oxidase method on a GM9 glucose analyzer II (Analox, London) and CMOS-based measurements. All the experiments were performed in compliance with the relevant laws and institutional guidelines and also in accordance with the institutional Center of Animal Care and Use Committee of Lee Gil Ya Cancer and Diabetes Institute, Gachon University. For the CMOS analysis mice having different glucose concentrations were used for glucose analysis. The whole blood collection schedule and concentrations of glucose are given in Table 1.

2.5 Chip Fabrication for Glucose Analysis

A simple disposable chip was fabricated by using hydrophilic PET film. Sample pad and plasma separation membranes were used to filter the plasma from whole blood, and the absorption pad was used to absorb excess plasma or an oxidized sample. The 10 mm × 4 mm size of the reaction area with a capacity
of 15 μl was developed in the bottom layer of the PET film (20 mm × 8 mm). Assay reagent immobilized on AFSiO2 nanoparticles was dispensed over the reaction area of the hydrophilic PET film, which was stored in the refrigerator until use. To fabricate the chip, a 10 mm × 8 mm size of a hydrophilic PET film was fixed over the bottom layer of the PET film, as shown in Fig. 1. Both lateral edges of the top layer were strongly fixed on the bottom layer of the PET film by a double-sided adhesive layer, which increases the capillary action. This was followed by a 4 mm × 8 mm absorption pad, which was fixed at the right end of the chip, and was made of cellulose fiber with a high absorption capacity. One edge of the plasma separation membrane (6 mm × 8 mm) was fixed on the left side of the bottom layer while the other end overlapped the top layer of the PET film. Four edges of the separation layer were pasted on the PET film. The plasma separation membrane gently touched the bottom layer for easy and rapid sample flow to the reaction area. The 6 mm × 8 mm sample pad was fixed and pasted at the edge of the bottom layer. A schematic illustration of the glucose chip is shown in Fig. 1 layer by layer. Previously, various types of glucose chips were prepared for whole blood glucose analysis that exhibited filtration defects, time consuming kinetic reaction, and less photon sensitivity. Finally, a chip was fabricated without any defects along with a high sensitivity to the respective analysis method.

2.6 Glucose Assay in Disposable Poly-Ethylene Terephthalate Chip

For the glucose assay, assay reagent immobilized AFSiO2 nanoparticles (15 μl) were dispensed over the reaction area before fixing the top layer of the PET film. A hydrophilic PET film ensured uniform immobilization over the entire reaction area. SiO2 absorbed the water content of the assay reagent, and the amine group kept the enzymes from leaching. The enzyme immobilized nanoparticles helped to develop the chip as a semi-transparent substrate, which eradicates the scattering effect and produces consistent photon transmission. The fully fabricated chip was kept in a refrigerator until use. Twenty-eight whole blood samples were collected from normal and HFD mice and applied to individual glucose chips. Cell debris and blood cells were captured by the sample pad and plasma separation membrane, respectively. The plasma separation membrane could filter about 90% of the plasma, which was more pure

### Table 1

Whole blood collection schedule from RC and high fat diet (HFD) mice before and after being fed IpGTT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample collection time</th>
<th>Concentration of glucose from animal models 1 and 2 (mouse) (mg/dL)</th>
<th>20-h FBG</th>
<th>5-h FBG</th>
<th>FeBG-0 min</th>
<th>FeBG-15 min</th>
<th>FeBG-30 min</th>
<th>FeBG-60 min</th>
<th>FeBG-90 min</th>
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<td>448</td>
<td>163 —</td>
<td>319</td>
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Note: Blood was not collected from HFD mice at 5 h fasting and after feeding –140 min (fasting blood glucose: FBG; feeding blood glucose: FeBG)
than that obtained by centrifugation. Filtered plasma flowed onto the bottom layer of the chip as well as over the reaction area due to capillary action. Plasma glucose reacted well with the assay reagent for 1 to 2 min. An excess amount of sample flowed over the chip and was absorbed by the absorption pad. Each concentration of glucose produced a different intensity of green color that could be observed by the naked eye. Each chip was quantitatively analyzed by the CMOS image sensor.

2.7 Biochemical Analysis for Enzyme Activity and Stability to the Chip

The enzyme activity and stability of the chip was analyzed by a CMOS image sensor. To determine the specificity and sensitivity, different aqueous sugars were analyzed in the chip including galactose, sucrose, and lactose. Analyses were independently performed on the chip three times. To determine the thermal stability of the immobilized assay reagent, five different concentrations of the whole blood glucose such as 110, 163, 262, 416, and 494 mg/dL were used. The assay reagent immobilized chip was kept in a hot air oven at 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, and 70°C for 1 h and then the glucose oxidation was carried out and analyzed by the CMOS image sensor. To determine the pH stability of the chip, assay reagent was dissolved in the phosphate buffer with pHs of 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 7.0, 8.0, and 9.0. For the analysis, five different concentrations of whole blood glucose samples were used as previously mentioned. Moreover, the glucose chip’s storage stability was analyzed with a 6 months incubated chip. Five chips were used to analyze the glucose oxidation with various concentrations of blood glucose, such as 178, 249, 308, 388, and 472 mg/dL. The CMOS image sensor measured the color intensity changes and proved the photon number variation.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Surface Charge and Surface Morphological Analysis

Assay reagents immobilized on AFSiO2 nanoparticles as electrostatic interactions and were spread over the hydrophilic PET film easily and uniformly. The interactions between AFSiO2 nanoparticles and assay reagents were confirmed by the zeta potential. The zeta potential has shown around +27 mV for AFSiO2 nanoparticles since the presence of a positively charged amine group was found on the surface and the potential decreased to −20 mV for negatively charged assay reagent. FE-SEM analysis was carried out to find the fundamental characterization of surface morphology of the chip. Thereby, AFSiO2 nanoparticles, enzyme-immobilized nanoparticles, and oxidized nanoparticles were observed by SEM, as shown in Fig. 4. Figures 4(A) and 4(C) show the uniform distribution of AFSiO2 nanoparticles that adsorbed as two layers on PET film. The particle size was around 150 nm in each film. The reaction area of the chip images is presented in Figs. 4(G) and 4(I), which proves the differences between AFSiO2 nanoparticles and assay reagent immobilized nanoparticles. The enzyme immobilized film had a thin layer formation on AFSiO2 nanoparticles as well as a thick layer formation after glucose oxidation. The FE-SEM images confirmed the interactions between assay reagent-AFSiO2 nanoparticles and proved their adhesion over the film. Moreover, Figs. 4(D) and 4(H) show the DLS analysis at 633 nm and a scattering angle of 90°C. The data confirm a particle size of 140 ± 21 nm for AFSiO2 nanoparticles, and the size increased to 180 ± 32 nm after enzyme immobilization on AFSiO2 nanoparticles. The DLS data proved the assay reagent immobilization on AFSiO2 nanoparticles by particle size increment.

3.2 Ultraviolet-Spectral Analysis

Figure 5(A) shows the UV-visible absorbance spectrum of AFSiO2 nanoparticles, assay reagent immobilized nanoparticles, and oxidized glucose. The analysis was carried out to find the level of interaction between the assay reagent, AFSiO2 nanoparticles, and oxidized glucose which displayed an absorbance in the region from 200 to 800 nm. The absorption curve for AFSiO2 nanoparticles showed a hump at 210 nm due to the localized surface plasmon of nanosized SiO2 particles. The assay reagent showed two peaks at 350 and 400 nm; also, the assay reagent immobilized AFSiO2 nanoparticles showed broader peaks at 400 nm and the absence of peaks at 350 nm. There was a peak shift to 405 nm, and additional peaks developed at 560 nm after glucose oxidation. This result confirms the effective interaction between the assay reagent and AFSiO2 nanoparticles; it also proves that the interactions of the assay reagent immobilized AFSiO2 nanoparticles were not influenced by the quality of glucose oxidation on the chip. Moreover, AFSiO2 nanoparticles have various biological applications such as optical sensing, bio adsorption, and biocompatibility.

3.3 Fourier Transform-Infrared Spectroscopy Structural Analysis

Structural information and interactions were studied for bare hydrophilic PET film, an AFSiO2 nanoparticle coated film, the assay reagent immobilized AFSiO2 film, and oxidized glucose films by FTIR, which are shown in Fig. 6(A). Generally, hydrophilic PET film peak absorption energy considerably increased at ~500–1750 cm−1, including a benzene ring (721), primary alcohol (1085 and 1013), and hybrid sp2 C–O [1233 and C≡O (1707)]. Absorbance signals at 1546 cm−1 were assigned to the asymmetrical stretching vibration of COO−. The 2-Methacryloxyethyl phosphorylcholine unit featured one phosphor atom, an organic acid −COOH, and an inorganic acid P–O on both sides of the molecules structures, directly improving the hydrophilicity. The spectrum of the hydrophilic PET film showed almost the same characteristic bands as the present study. The peak at 1060 cm−1 indicates Si–O–Si asymmetric stretching vibrations, whereas 795 cm−1 was assigned to Si–O–Si symmetric stretching vibrations. The peak at 937 cm−1 was assigned to ν (≡Si–OH) of a free silanol group. Moreover, a new sharp peak was identified at 2965 cm−1, which indicates the presence of AFSiO2 nanoparticles. Figure 6(A) almost shows the same peak as the AFSiO2 nanoparticles, and new peaks at 1563 and 1613 cm−1 indicate assay reagent immobilized successfully on AFSiO2. New sharp and moderate peaks appeared at 1556 and 1654 cm−1, which seem to indicate oxidized plasma glucose and other substances in the plasma. The assay reagent immobilized chip was analyzed after 20 days to confirm the stability of the assay reagent. There was no alteration of the characteristic peaks in the respective image of Fig. 6(A), which supports chip stability. The structural information and interactions on bare hydrophilic PET film, AFSiO2 nanoparticle coated film, enzyme immobilized chip, oxidized glucose chip, and chip stability results prove that there was no alteration in their characteristic peak after interactions on the PET film, which does not affect
the glucose oxidation. All these characterization studies have proven the AFSiO_{2} nanoparticle chip suitable for CMOS image-based whole blood glucose sensing. The intensive characteristic absorption peaks were observed in the liquid stage, while a new sharp peak appeared in the liquid stage of the sample at 2985 cm^{-1}, indicating the amine groups in the SiO_{2} nanoparticle suspension. Moreover, sharp peaks appeared at 2960 and 2893 cm^{-1}, which indicate assay reagent immobilized on AFSiO_{2} nanoparticles in molecular water (data not shown). Based on these functional groups, we were able to understand the structural vibrations of AFSiO_{2} nanoparticles, enzyme immobilized AFSiO_{2}, and oxidized glucose; their functional groups were not affected when bonded on the chip.

3.4 X-Ray Diffraction Analysis

Figure 4 shows the XRD patterns of the hydrophilic PET film before and after enzyme immobilized films. XRD patterns of the hydrophilic PET film show a broader peak in the range of 2\theta = 23 \text{ deg} and 25 \text{ deg}, which can be allotted to the semi-crystalline structure of the PET film or an extrusion process in the production of the PET film. A sharp peak occurs in the range of 2\theta = 23 \text{ deg} and 25 \text{ deg}, indicating the microcrystalline structure of the AFSiO_{2} nanoparticles, and the intensity decreased gradually after assay reagent immobilization. The broader peaks identified at 2\theta = 23 \text{ deg} and 25 \text{ deg} indicate semi-crystallites for enzyme-immobilized and oxidized glucose substrates, which show that the immobilized enzyme did not alter the structure of the AFSiO_{2} nanoparticles. The results corroborated other related studies on enzyme immobilized AFSiO_{2} nanoparticles adsorbed to PET film and oxidized glucose.

3.5 Photon Analysis by Smartphone Camera Module

Suitable chip fabrication is an important part to this study. The hydrophilic PET film surface was suitable for coupling with the AFSiO_{2} nanoparticle layer. Amine groups could bind the negatively charged enzymes via the electrostatic interactions that helped to develop the technically suitable chip for analysis by CMOS image sensor. Further, the characterization study proves the AFSiO_{2} nanoparticle-based PET chip is suitable for glucose analysis. The CMOS image sensor analyzed the chip before and after glucose oxidation. Each CMOS image sensor contains a single photodiode to absorb the photons and convert them into the electrical energy via the photoelectric effect. The electrical energy is converted into a digital number, which is directly proportional to the number of photon hits on sensor surface. Thereby, the photon number reduces any object exposed on the sensor. This simple concept creates the impacts on the POC glucose monitoring. Before measurement, the calibration value was fixed in the CMOS image sensor by adjusting the
exposure time and analog gain value instead of by maximizing the background light intensity. Then an assay reagent added chip was exposed on the sensor, and the value was fixed as a reference value (175 A.U). In the glucose reaction, plasma glucose reacted with GOX, producing gluconic acid and H$_2$O$_2$. Following this, H$_2$O$_2$ reacted with 2, 2'-azino-bis (3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulphonic acid) (ABTS) in the presence of POD. Oxidized ABTS produced a green color product based on the glucose concentration through the enzyme kinetic reaction, which is shown in Fig. 5. Previously, our group carried out the glucose analysis

![Fig. 3 UV-spectral absorbance and Fourier transform-infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) spectra analysis before and after glucose oxidation; (i) The ultraviolet (UV) spectrum shows the AFSiO$_2$ nanoparticles, assay reagent, assay reagent-immobilized nanoparticles, and oxidized glucose. Peak shift identified at 405 nm and additional peak developed at 560 nm after glucose oxidation. (ii) FTIR spectra analysis before and after the reaction: (a) hydrophilic PET film, (b) AFSiO$_2$ nanoparticles, (c) assay reagent immobilized on AFSiO$_2$ nanoparticles, (d) oxidized glucose, (e) chip stability after 20 days. The FTIR results prove the structural and functional properties of a glucose chip are stable after immobilization and oxidation.

![Fig. 4 X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis for AFSiO$_2$ nanoparticles in hydrophilic PET film before and after immobilization.

![Fig. 5 CMOS image sensor-based glucose analysis. (a) Glucose assay by enzyme kinetic method. (b) Schematic representation shows the blood sample reacted with the immobilized assay reagent and developed color, followed by the glucose oxidized chip being monitored by the CMOS image sensor as a photon-detection technique with a digital output value displayed on the smartphone. (c) Various concentrations of oxidized glucose (110, 163, 262, 291, 416, and 494 mg/dL; from left to right) the hydrophilic PET film chip shows different color intensities based on glucose concentration.
from 3 mg/dL to 1000 mg/dL successfully using the aforementioned reaction that proved the lower and upper limits of glucose detection. Figure 5(b) shows the schematic of glucose oxidation on the PET chip and monitoring by the CMOS image sensor as a photon-detection technique. For the analysis, 28 PET film chips were analyzed, and each chip produced a different color intensity based on the glucose concentration. Variations in color intensity at different glucose concentrations are shown in Fig. 5(c). The lower the concentration of glucose, the paler the color after oxidation with ABTS, and the color intensity increased with a higher concentration of glucose. Similarly, different concentrations of glucose produce different photon numbers based on the color intensity. A lower color intensity allowed the passing of more photons, and a higher color intensity allowed the passing of fewer photons. Thereby, the photon value decreased when the glucose concentration increased. In other words, the photon number decreased when the color intensity increased. The measured digital output of the photon value is shown in Fig. 6(a) for each

![Image](https://example.com/image.png)

**Fig. 6** CMOS image sensor digital output for different concentrations of glucose and comparative analysis with other glucose sensor: (a) CMOS image sensor-based photon number variation shows the reduction of photon number with increasing glucose concentration. (b) Relative oxidation level shows the digital value for each glucose concentration and dotted lines represent the linearity. (c) Linearity analysis for glucose concentration between GM9 glucose analyzer and Accu-Chek sensor. (d) CMOS image sensor digital output linearity; the linearity data confirm that the CMOS image sensor is almost equivalent to a commercial sensor.
individual glucose concentration. The experiment was performed thrice, and the average value is given. The photon value was 161 A.U at a low glucose concentration of 110 mg/dL, and the value linearly decreased to 31 A.U. at the highest concentration of 586 mg/dL. The change of photon value was linearly correlated to the glucose concentration, and the value was standard and consistent for each experiment. Even small differences of glucose concentrations could change the photon number. The relative oxidation level shown in Fig. 6(b) displays the cumulative value for each concentration of glucose. The relative oxidation level was calculated by subtracting the oxidized glucose value from the chip value. In addition, the CMOS image sensor could measure the glucose levels in mouse whole blood with an accuracy comparable to that of an Accu-Chek sensor, a glucose monitor that is commonly used in diabetes testing. The linearity graph as shown as Fig. 6(c) demonstrates the concentration linearity of the GM9 glucose analyzer and Accu-Chek sensor, whereas Fig. 6(d) shows the linearity of the CMOS image sensor-based photon value to quantify the accuracy. Moreover, the correlation coefficient ($R^2$) value was 0.9675 as a CMOS-based digital output value and 0.9712 for the glucose concentration. The comparison study with other glucose sensors proved the CMOS image sensor-based glucose monitoring system could be applicable for clinical diagnoses to determine blood glucose levels.

### 3.6 Enzyme Activity and Stability Measurements

Analysis of enzyme stability and activity was carried out on the PET chip with five different concentrations of mouse blood glucose. The CMOS image sensor monitored the glucose chip for nonspecific enzyme activity with other sugars. As a result, the assay reagent did not respond with other aqueous sugars and there was no change in color and photon count. The study of nonspecific enzyme activity proved that the glucose chip is very stable and there was no interaction with other nonspecific sugars (data not shown). Subsequently, the chip has been analyzed for thermal stability. The color was developed after 10 min of glucose oxidation due to less kinetic energy at a low temperature of 20°C. However, the assay reagent did not lose stability and the photon count was not influenced at 20°C. The kinetic energy increases when the chip is incubated at 30°C–50°C. Also, the enzyme responded until 70°C and the reaction rate decreased from 50°C because the chip lost the 50% of its stability at 60°C. The chip also decreased its reaction rate at 70°C and lost 90% of its activity. The enzyme denatured at high temperature which leads to a decrease in the reaction rate and an increase in the photon count for the respective concentration of glucose.

Figure 7(a) shows the thermal stability of the glucose chip when using different concentrations of blood glucose and proves the optimum temperature is 30°C–40°C. The kinetic energy was also increased and reached the reaction rate within a few seconds; the color was stable for 30 min. The data was compared with the standard value obtained from the CMOS image sensor and the results showed the consistent digital output value at 20°C–40°C. The enzyme was stable when the chip incubated at 20°C, and it took some time to reach the reaction rate. Small changes in temperature above or below the optimum have not affected the enzyme stability; also, SiO$_2$ nanoparticles do not uptake high temperature that provides enzyme stability for longer period. Additionally, the pH stability has been analyzed by the CMOS image sensor indicating the glucose oxidation was carried out with different pH ranges (pH 2.0 to 9.0). The reaction rate was increased between pH 4.0 and 6.0, and the enzyme

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**Fig. 7** Assay reagent stability and activity analysis by CMOS image sensor. (a) Thermal stability assay shows the optimum temperature is 30°C to 40°C and the digital value increases with higher temperatures due to a lower reaction rate. (b) pH stability assay shows the optimum pH is 4.0–6.0 and the digital value increases with an unfavourable pH. (c) Six-month incubated chip monitored by CMOS image sensor and shows the consistent photon value based on the glucose concentration.
activity was stable in the noted ranges, which produced a consistent photon count. Furthermore, 60% of the enzyme activity lost their function at pH 2.0–3.0 and above pH 8.0. Figure 7(D) shows the photon number increment when the pH was unfavorable for the glucose oxidation. pH stability analysis proved that the optimum pH range was between 4.0 and 6.0 for the glucose chip. The assay reagent started to lose its stability in the range of pH 2.0–3.0 and pH 7.0–9.0, which increased the digital output value. Small changes in pH did not affect the enzyme activity since the bonds can be reformed. In addition, the storage or shelf stability of the glucose chip has been analyzed after 6 months of incubation. Interestingly, the chip was stable until 6 months without any defects in enzyme activity, which was demonstrated the reproducibility in the photon number after a 6-month incubation. Figure 7(C) shows the photon values of different concentrations of whole blood glucose with the 6-month incubated chip. Normally, the enzymes have a possibility of denaturing during long-term storage due to the environmental conditions. However, the amine functionalized enzyme and the controlled storage conditions prevented enzyme denaturation.

4 Conclusions
A number of studies have been reported for CMOS image sensor-based biological sensing. However, the current study has demonstrated whole blood glucose analysis using a CMOS image sensor via a new approach. Assay reagent immobilized AFSiO2 nanoparticles were coated with a hydrophilic PET film chip and successfully applied to glucose oxidation. The CMOS image sensor measured the glucose level based on photon number variations. Characterization studies such as UV-spectral analysis, XRD, FTIR, and FE-SEM imagery have proven the accuracy of the sensing method. Moreover, CMOS image sensor-based glucose monitoring has been shown to be highly sensitive, specific, and stable for whole blood glucose sensing. Further study is underway on the CMOS image sensor-based analysis of human whole blood glucose to confirm the standard photon number for each glucose concentration with less blood. Finally, CMOS image sensor-based analysis of whole blood glucose can be successfully introduced into a smart phone for POC diagnosis.

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