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Supplementary Materials for

Battery-free and AI-enabled multiplexed sensor patches for wound monitoring

Xin Ting Zheng et al.

Corresponding author: Benjamin C.K. Tee, benjamin.tee@nus.edu.sg; Xiaodi Su, xd-su@imre.a-star.edu.sg

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Supplementary Text

Colorimetric uric acid (UA) sensor optimization

Substantial design considerations and sensor optimizations have been carried out for the UA sensor to achieve desired color stability, well-maintained enzyme activity, good retention of colorimetric sensing reagents, similar calibration performance in PBS buffer vs simulated wound fluid (SWF) and negligible false positive signals.

Firstly, the color stability of the paper based colorimetric UA sensor is fine-tuned by choosing the right pH of the sensing matrix made of 1wt% chitosan during sensor fabrication stage. We have observed that intense background color is developed at lower UA concentration for UA sensors fabricated with a chitosan matrix of pH 5.5, whereas at a matrix pH 7.5, the sensor color quickly fades after 5 min. Color change is well maintained when the UA sensor is fabricated with a chitosan matrix of pH 6.5 for at least 40 min (**fig. S9a**).

Secondly, enzymatic activity is one of the major concerns in designing our UA sensor. We have sought to maintain the uricase activity by dissolving the enzymes in a stabilizer medium. As shown in **fig. S9b**, the color change is well maintained for enzymes dissolved in stabilizer solution (StabilCoat® Immunoassay Stabilizer) as compared to enzymes dissolved in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) after 1-day storage at 4°C fridge. And stabilizer enhanced UA sensor strips can be stored at room temperature for at least one weeks without substantial decay in enzyme activity.

Thirdly, to achieve a distinct color gradient according to analyte concentration on wax printed cellulose paper, we tested three different filter papers from Whatman, namely filter paper Grade 1, 2 and 3 of different thickness and particle retention. It is obvious from **fig. S9c** that only UA sensor in wax wells printed on Grade 3 filter paper with a smaller particle retention of 6 μ m and a thickness of 390 μ m can retain the colorimetric sensor reagents well, giving distinct color gradient upon addition of increasing concentrations of UA.

Fourthly, we have also compared the calibration of the uric acid sensors in PBS buffer versus the SWF to ascertain that the color response is of similar quality (**fig. S9d**).

Lastly, we investigated the false positive color change for UA sensors, involving different enzyme substrates. In the previous experiments, 3,3',5,5'-Tetramethylbenzidine (TMB) has been used as the enzymatic substrate which will develop blue color upon UA addition. We observe that TMB substrates are not stable, and they gradually self-oxidize to develop light blue color, which will

give rise to false positive signals. To minimize this effect, we have tested a few other substrates, including 4-aminoantipyrine (4-AAP) and o-Phenylenediamine (oPD). We found that 4-AAP is able to give a similarly distinct color gradient within minutes, and it does not show any false positive color even after hours (**fig. S9e**).

With all four aspects carefully considered and optimized for UA sensor, a well-correlated linear calibration is obtained for UA concentration of up to 1 mM, which well covers the clinically relevant UA concentration range in wounds.

Simultaneous detections of the five markers on wax-printed sensor panel

We first tested the sensor panel by adding the target analytes dissolved in phosphate buffer saline (PBS) directly to individual detection zones and observed their respective color change (**fig. S10**). As we increase the temperature from 31 °C to 32 °C and 33 °C, the color of zone 1 (CLC temperature sensor) changes from red/orange to green to dark blue. For trimethylamine (TMA), the original grey color of TMA sensor is gradually bleached to light grey and off-white as the TMA concentration increases to 300 ppm and 3000 ppm, respectively. As the pH increases from 6.45 to 7.45 and 8.41, the color of zone 3 changes from yellow to light orange then dark orange. The moisture sensor is capable of reversible sensing, so its color remains blue if we maintain it dry on top of a hotplate. For the Uric acid (UA) sensor, a light pink color develops with the addition of 40 μ M of UA. As the UA concentration further increases to 200 μ M and even further to 800 μ M, the pink color intensity is increased.

Demonstration of sensor panel response to healthy and unhealthy status of simulated wound fluid under flow conditions

To further demonstrate the usefulness of our sensor patch in real-life, we have composed two simulated wound fluids, one representing the healthy wound and the other one representing the unhealthy wound. The simulated wound fluids were added to the front center port of the sensor panel and then the fluid flow as well as the color change were recorded at specific time intervals. The sensor panels are fully wet after 8 min and stable color changes are observed at individual detection zones at 15 min (**fig. S11**).

Explainability in Machine Learning Algorithm Development

Convolutional neural networks may learn features that are not relevant to the region of interest, which could potentially affect the overall accuracy and its reliability to real-world application. To avoid including non-relevant features, we employed image locally interpretable model-agnostic explanation (*65*) (imageLIME) to visually check and explain the classification decisions made by our own model. Results shown in **fig. S18** indicates the correct network focuses on the pH region as well as uric acid region.



Fig. S1. Blood filtration membranes effectively reduce background color from blood. (a) Photos showing the effects of different blood filtration membranes (LF1 and MF1), filter paper (Whatman filter paper Grade 3) as compared to without filter after addition of sheep's whole blood. (b) The brightness values at the detection zones are in the order of LF1> MF1 >Grade 3 > without filter, indicating that LF1 is most effective in reducing background color from blood.



Fig. S2. Wax-printed panels with different sizes. (a) The design of the wax-printed panel. left: front view, right: back view; the wound exudate is expected to enter from the back center port, flows through the five channels and finally reaches the five detection zones; (b) cross-section view of the wax-printed panel at channel, detection zone and the center port. Black regions indicate wax impregnated paper that blocks fluid flow. The white regions indicate cellulose paper without wax, allowing fluid flow. (c) The dimensions of the wax-printed panel can be tailored to wound size, amount of wound exudate of low (~ 1 mPa's) and high viscosity with 0.5 wt% xanthan gum (~ 80 mPa's).



Fig. S3. The optimization of wax heating time. Wax heating time was optimized to fabricate channels with suitable channel depth for un-impeded flow of simulated wound fluid (SWF). The blue colored simulated wound fluid (SWF with CuSO₄ addition) were added to the center of each wax-printed panel to track the time taken for SWF to fully fill all five detection zones. An optimized heating time of 10 min at 90°C gives the shortest time (2-3 min) to fill all five detection zones.



Fig. S4. Cholesteric liquid crystal (CLC) composition determines temperature range. Fine adjustments of the percentages of the three CLC components lead to different detectable temperature ranges.



Fig. S5. The effect of ambient air temperature on CLC temperature sensor. When the CLC sensor was taped on skin with 32°C skin temperature (photos in blue box), it displayed the skin temperature (green color) but do not respond to the ambient temperature as it was increased from 31°C to 41°C. When the CLC sensor was put into an oven of 41°C without touching any object (photo in black dashed box), the CLC can sense the elevated temperature in the oven but eventually turned to black color because the temperature of 41°C was beyond its dynamic range of 31-36°C.



Fig. S6. Effect of perfluorooctyltrimethoxysilane treatment on TMA sensor outcome. The Reichardt's dye deposited on perfluorooctyltrimethoxysilane treated paper shows more distinct color response to TMA than that on non-treated paper.



Fig. S7. The molecular structure of phenol red and its color change in response to pH. This dye shows yellow color below pH 6.8 and changes to magenta color above pH 8.2, which is suitable for detecting wound pH change.

Uricase

Uric acid + O_2 + $H_2O \rightarrow$ 5-hydroxyisourate + H_2O_2 (1)

Horseradish Peroxidase

Chromogenic substrate + $H_2O_2 \rightarrow$ Colored product + H_2O (2)

Fig. S8. Colorimetric sensing of uric acid using uricase-peroxidase cascade reactions. Equation (1) shows the first step reaction whereby uricase catalyzes uric acid conversion and generates H_2O_2 as a by-product, and equation (2) shows the second step that horseradish peroxidase converts the chromogenic substrate (such as the 4-AAP) to a dark pink colored product in the presence of as-formed H_2O_2 .



Fig. S9. Optimization of uric acid sensor. (a) The tuning of the chitosan sensing matrix pH for achieving color stability; (b) Comparison of the enzymatic activity for enzymes dissolved in PBS vs. stabilizer solution; (c) Comparison of color gradient development for UA sensor loaded in wax printed wells on different Whatman filter papers; (d) Comparison of UA sensor response in PBS vs. SWF; (e) Comparison of the false positive signals for TMB vs. AAP based UA sensor.



TMA= 0ppm pH = 6.45 Moisture = 0% UA = 40µM T= 32°C TMA= 300ppm pH = 7.45 Moisture = 0% UA = 200µM

TMA= 3000ppm pH = 8.41 Moisture = 0% UA = 800μM

Fig. S10. Testing of potential crosstalk between different detection zones. When mixtures of the analytes (as specified in the list below the photos) were added to PETAL sensor patches, individual sensor shows specific color change to its intended target analyte indicating no interference between different sensors.



Fig. S11. Photos showing color development speed. The color development of the five sensors over time upon addition of two simulated wound fluids (SWF-A and SWF-B) to the center ports shows that all sensors are fully filled with SWF at 8 min and then fully reacted at 15 min.



Fig. S12. The activation of moisture sensor at the 4th position of PETAL patch. (a) Gradual color change of moisture sensor upon dropwise SWF addition (0.5 μ L/drop) up to 8 μ L; (b) The change of R/B ratio and moisture % with respect to the total volume of SWF added.



Fig. S13. The impact of corona-effect on colorimetric signal analysis. The plots show B/G ratios for pH sensor calibrations from the sensors with different extent of corona-effects. These two sets of pH sensors in wax-printed wells with different degrees of coffee ring effects were created by adjusting the liquid addition speeds.



Fig. S14. Fluid uptake capacity of the small PETAL patch and the impact on color retention. The PETAL patch (1.8 cm) can absorb ~ 20 μ L of SWF before it overflows, thereafter as 10 μ L more SWF was added, a drop of SWF formed at the bottom inlet. No color leaching or reagents backflow towards the channel was observed for all cases.



Fig. S15. Storage stability of five colorimetric sensors. Remained activity percentage of (a) temperature, TMA, pH, moisture sensors, and (b) uric acid sensor after a specified storage duration at room temperature.



Fig. S16. Training accuracy and loss of convolutional neural network for the perturbed wound model. Results show a high training accuracy of ~ 99% with very low training loss (difference between prediction and actual label).



Fig. S17. Training accuracy and loss of convolutional neural network for the burn wound model. Results show a high training accuracy of ~ 99% with very low training loss (difference between prediction and actual label).



Fig. S18. Image LIME output image from perturb convolutional neural network. (a) Model A: Region in red color shows network predominantly focuses on the UA node. (b) Model B: Region in red color shows predominantly focuses on the black wax region, indicating Model B is ineffective.



Fig. S19. PETAL sensor arrangement on each rat with four burn wounds. Photos showing the positions of burn wounds created and placements of PETAL sensor patches for (a) Rat 1, (b) Rat 2 and (c) Rat 3.



Fig. S20. The trend of temperature change after burn creation in rat model measured by Infrared camera. (a) Infra-red thermal images of rats taken on PBD 0 to PBD 3; (b) Temperature change for intact skin, partial burn and deep burn over the 4 days.



Fig. S21. Images with different processing methods. (a) With native function raw2rgb in Image processing toolbox. (b) with pipeline from Mathworks. (c) JPEG from smartphone. (d) radar plot of 3 format relative to JPEG. Results show that without carefully tuning pipeline parameter and use off-the-shelf raw2rgb function from MATLAB can lead to a deteriorated image quality compared to JPEG. After applying a complete processing pipeline, tuned RAW shows a similar color profile with JPEG. Therefore, JPEG is appropriate in our image analysis.



Fig. S22. The effect of ambient light intensity on pH sensor signal. (a) The images of the pH sensors under increasing light intensity. (b) B/G ratio of pH sensor under various light sources.



Fig. S23. Measured intensity or RGB ratio for each sensor node under wet and dry condition at ~ 15 min. Radar plot indicates negligible differences in feature values extracted from images taken under wet and dry conditions for all nodes except moisture.



Fig. S24. Feature values collected from two different mobile phones. Images of PETAL sensors were captured with Oneplus 11 (IMX890 image sensor from Sony) and SAMSUNG Galaxy Note 20 (IMX555 from Sony) under the same condition.



Fig. S25. Ablation study with different convolution layers. The graph shows high validation accuracy fluctuation for a 2-layer CNN, also the lowest accuracy level (for the normal wound). The accuracy of the 4-layer CNN is only slightly better than that of the 3 layers CNN (for both normal and perturbed wound classifications). Thus a 3-layer CNN is more robust in this scenario. Error bars refer to maximum and minimum deviation during training process (number of iterations, n = 100).

Fable S1. The clinical significance of the five selected biomarkers and wound indicator	's in
acute or chronic wounds.	

No.	Wound marker	Clinical significance	Acute wound	Chronic wound
1	Temperature	Wound infection and delayed healing.(<i>30, 31</i>)	31-35 °C(<i>30, 31</i>)	1 °C increase relative to normal baseline level (<i>30</i>)
2	Trimethylamine (TMA)	Trimethylamine is a metabolite produced by most bacteria in wound.(<i>36</i>)	Not detected.	30-300 ppm(<i>37</i>)
3	рН	Increased wound pH as an indicator of local wound infection or unhealed wound.(<i>33</i>)	pH 6-8 with a mean of pH 6.7(<i>33</i>)	pH 6-9.5 with a mean of pH 8.1(<i>33</i>)
4	Moisture	Wound moisture levels are critical to healing.(<i>4</i>)	Varies by wound dressing(<i>35</i>)	A reference to indicate that sufficient wound exudate
5	Uric acid	A generic indicator for bacterial colonization or prolonged wound inflammation.(<i>4, 10</i>)	221 μM-751 μM range with a 347 μM median value(<i>46</i>)	50-100% relative decrease with respect the baseline level for prolonged inflammation or bacterial infection(10)·(38)

Table S2. The clinical significance of the five selected biomarkers and wound indicators in burn wounds.

No.	Wound marker	Clinical significance	Less severe burn	More severe burn
1	Temperature	Body temperature increases to maintain hypermetabolic process after burn	36-39 °C	(hyperthermia) ~40 °C or (hypothermia) ~35 °C(<i>3</i> 2)
2	Trimethylamine	Wound infection	Not detected or low conc.	Elevated conc. 30-300 ppm(<i>37</i>)
3	рН	Burn wound healing	Alkaline but reduces to acidic from day 5	Alkaline and takes longer to reduces to acidic(<i>34</i>)
4	Moisture	Wound moisture levels are critical to healing.	Varies by wound dressing type	A reference to indicate sufficient wound exudate
5	Uric acid	Elevated serum uric acid after injury correlates with the early acute kidney injury (AKI) in severe burns.	Low level	Elevated level(39)

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