

Electrochemical Sensors for Oxidative Stress Monitoring

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Abstract

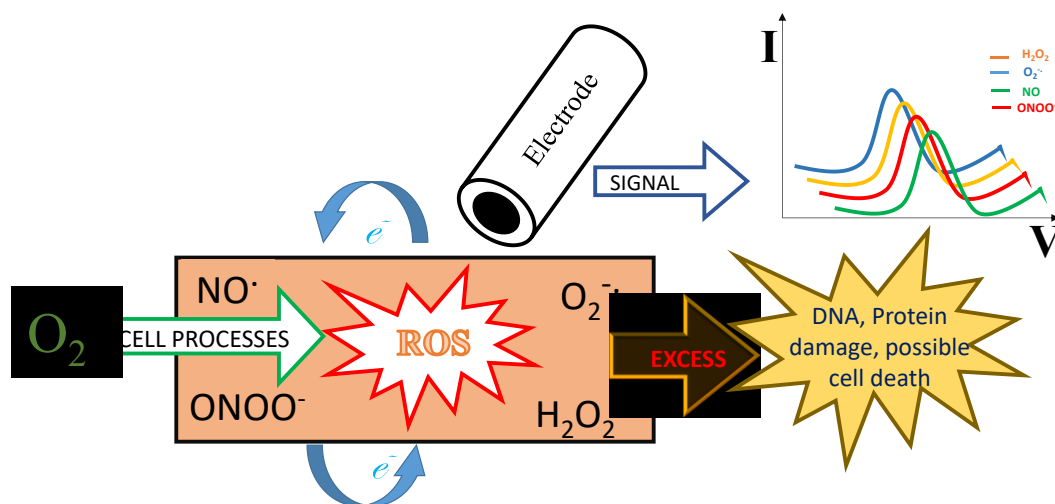
Electrochemical sensors are ideally suited for the detection of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species (ROS and RNS) generated during biological processes. This review discusses the latest work in the development of electrochemical microsensors for ROS/RNS and their possible applications for monitoring oxidative stress in biological systems. The performance of recent designs of microelectrodes and electrode materials are discussed along with their functionality in preclinical models of drug efficacy, mitochondrial distress, and endothelial dysfunction. Challenges and opportunities in translating this methodology to study the pathophysiology associated with various diseases are discussed.

Keywords: Oxidative stress, ROS/RNS, Nitric Oxide, Hydrogen Peroxide, Superoxide

Highlights

- Recent developments in electrochemical sensors for detection of ROS/RNS in biological systems
- Recent designs and performance of materials and electrodes for *in vivo/in vitro* monitoring of oxidative stress
- Discussion of the remaining challenges for measurements in biological systems
- Highlights of biological applications and translational aspects

Graphical Abstract



1. Introduction

Reactive oxygen and nitrogen species (ROS and RNS) are formed by redox reactions of molecules that contain oxygen or nitrogen. ROS include superoxide ($O_2^{\cdot-}$), hydroxyl ($HO^{\cdot}$), peroxy radical ($ROO^{\cdot}$), hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), hypochlorous acid/hypochlorite ($HOCl/OCl^-$) and singlet oxygen (1O_2) [1,2]. RNS include nitric oxide ($^{\cdot}NO$), nitrogen dioxide ($^{\cdot}NO_2$), and peroxynitrite ($ONOO^{\cdot}$). ROS/RNS are continuously produced during normal cell processes like oxidative phosphorylation, catabolism of fatty acids, phagocytosis, breakdown of macromolecular compounds, and protein folding. Classified as radical (e.g., $O_2^{\cdot-}$, $NO^{\cdot}$, and $OH^{\cdot}$) or non-radical (e.g., $HOCl$ and H_2O_2), each type of ROS has a different reactivity rate, biological activity, and role within the cell [3,4]. Collectively, both radical and non-radical ROS contribute to the overall oxidative burden of the cell [2,4], and when in excess, the highly reactive nature of ROS/RNS can damage cell components, leading to oxidative stress [5]. While the significance of ROS is in general well recognized, some aspects of ROS in distinguishing the physiological and pathological processes are still debated.

Despite the importance of ROS/RNS, there is still a lack of suitable analytical tools to selectively monitor ROS/RNS evolution to address the cell's oxidative status in situ. Using custom designed microelectrodes, electrochemistry provides unique opportunities to detect reactive species in living tissues [6], thereby providing direct and real time evidence of ROS levels with high spatial resolution [7-9]. In this review, we discuss electrochemical detection methods and microsensors for ROS/RNS, with focus on H_2O_2 , NO and $ONOO^{\cdot}$ and $O_2^{\cdot-}$. Finally, we conclude with a perspective on future advances of this technology for the development of electrochemical probes for real time monitoring of these species in biological systems as well as translational aspects for medical applications.

2. Cell oxidative stress: relevance and significance

ROS play an essential role in redox signalling, allowing the cell to rapidly adapt to environmental or nutritional perturbations [3,10,11]. Under homeostatic conditions, both enzymatic (e.g., superoxide dismutase, catalase, glutathione peroxidase) and non-enzymatic (e.g., glutathione, thioredoxin, ascorbate) antioxidant mechanisms tightly regulate ROS levels and prevent excess accumulation [11,12]. Dysregulation of the balance between pro- and anti-oxidants is associated with physiological and developmental derangements. Insufficient H_2O_2 restricts neuron growth, induces stem cell quiescence and thwarts wound healing, while insufficient $\text{O}_2^\bullet$ impairs immune cell clearance of pathogens [13-15]. However, excessive ROS damages DNA, proteins, and lipids, and can lead to cell death, tissue damage, and if not corrected, organ failure [16-18]. Indeed, oxidative damage to lipid (8-isoprostaglandin $\text{F}_2\alpha$ and malondialdehyde), DNA (8-hydroxy-deoxyguanosine), and protein (3-nitrotyrosine) are often used as biomarkers of oxidative stress in clinical samples [19,20]. Oxidative stress is an imbalance of cellular redox where a pro-oxidant state is favoured and is implicated in a myriad of diseases [21,22]. Different types of ROS can impact cell physiology and oxidative stress in different ways, and it is important to measure individual species to understand the impact of a specific ROS within each (patho)physiologic setting [2]. Therefore, monitoring a specific ROS in different disease conditions and experimental treatments is necessary to investigate disease mechanisms and drug efficacy. However, ROS are highly reactive and extremely short lived in the body, making its direct measurement in live tissues and organisms difficult.

Biomarkers have the limitation that their accumulation or removal will alter the quantity of the measured analyte but may not correspond to nascent ROS evolution. Further, biomarker measurements do not provide insight into the type of ROS that is dysregulated, and it is difficult to deconvolute the consequence from the cause of oxidative stress. Methods to measure specific types of ROS in tissues were described for electron paramagnetic resonance and ultra-weak photon emission spectroscopy [23,24] but their application for in vivo ROS monitoring are hampered by high cost and low temporal resolution. Therefore, there is a need to develop tools that have an extremely rapid response time, are sensitive and selective to individual species, and capable of real time detection. The accurate measurement of these species is still a bottleneck in understanding their physiological functions and a universal technique that can detect the wide variety of radicals is not available [25].

3. Electrochemical sensors and biosensors for ROS/RNS detection

Monitoring ROS/RNS using electrochemistry provides a valuable approach to quantifying oxidative stress generated by these species in situ and can help elucidate their biological roles. Although a variety of electrochemical sensors have been reported, relatively few studies demonstrate their use in cells or biological systems. The use of glassy carbon electrodes is common in literature; however, its bulky size restricts use to proof-of-concept work to develop new chemistries, and it is not suitable for live tissues. Smaller size electrodes that can measure ROS in the proximity of cells are most suited to explore biological mechanisms in situ. Therefore, this review focusses primarily on microelectrodes that have been used to measure reactive species at the cellular or tissue level. These include carbon fibre microelectrodes (CFME) with sizes from 5 to 10 μm and gold or platinum wire microelectrodes with a diameter of $\sim 100 \mu\text{m}$.

ROS/RNS can be measured using microelectrodes functionalized with chemical or biological coatings. Chemical sensors provide a direct measure of the reactive species at their characteristic potentials. Common examples are those measuring the oxidation of NO at $\sim 0.8 \text{ V}$ vs Ag/AgCl, or, the oxygen/superoxide redox couple at $\sim -0.33 \text{ V}$ vs NHE [9]. Pioneering work done by the group of Christian Amatore and collaborators demonstrated the use of platinized carbon microelectrodes ($\sim 10 \mu\text{m}$ diameter) for monitoring ROS/RNS species produced by single cells [9,26-28] and their ability to measure reactive species inside single phagolysosomes of living macrophages using a four step chronoamperometric method [28]. Recent advances involve modification of microelectrodes with catalytic materials to enhance the detection sensitivity and tailor selectivity. In contrast, biological sensors are protein-functionalized electrodes that contain a redox protein immobilized at the electrode surface to selectively recognize the targeted species and convert the biorecognition into an electrochemical redox signal. A common example is the use of cytochrome c (Cyt C) as molecular recognition and electron transfer mediator for $\text{O}_2^{\cdot -}$ measurements [29]. In these sensors, the immobilized Cyt C reacts with $\text{O}_2^{\cdot -}$; the protein is then oxidized by direct electron transfer to/from the electrode, generating a biocatalytic current that is proportional to the $\text{O}_2^{\cdot -}$ concentration. Because biological sensors take advantage of the selectivity of biomolecules they tend to be more selective. However, they require immobilization of the biomolecule onto

the microelectrode surface and the long-term stability of these sensors might be an issue.

Table 1 provides an overview of microelectrode platforms for measuring superoxide $O_2^{\cdot-}$, H_2O_2 . The following sections discuss the most recent representative examples of microelectrochemical sensors for measurements of ROS/RNS in biological systems.

Table 1. Details of some electrochemical sensors and biosensors and electrode modifications for detection of ROS/RNS released from cells and tissues.

#	ROS/RNS	Electrochemical Technique	Electrode materials	Working electrode	LOD	Biological system	Ref
1	H_2O_2	Fast Scan Cyclic Voltammetry	1,3-phenylenediamine	CFME	20 μM^*	Rat brain	[30]
2	H_2O_2	Chronoamperometry	Pt-Pd bimetallic nanocoral	CFME	0.42 μM	A549 living cells, milk	[31]
3	H_2O_2	Amperometry, CV	Hemoglobin, SWCNT	CFME	0.23 μM	HePG2 cancer cells	[32]
4	H_2O_2	Amperometry	Au-Pd alloy NPs, Graphene Quantum Dots	CFME	500 nM	Clinical breast cancer tissue	[33]
5	H_2O_2	Amperometry	Pt NPs, Nafion, PPD	CFME	0.53 μM	<i>In vitro</i>	[34]
6	H_2O_2	Amperometry	Platinized silica nanoporous membranes	CFME Or ITO	0.01mM	Rat brain	[35]
7	H_2O_2	Chronoamperometry	Heat treatment to create nanopores to improve catalytic performance	Heat-treated CFME	1 μM	<i>In vitro</i>	[36]
8	H_2O_2	Chronoamperometry	Core-shell 2D VS_2 @VC@N-doped carbon sheets decorated by Pd NPs	CFME	50 nM	MCS-7 cancer cells, and breast cancer tissue	[37]
9	H_2O_2	Chronoamperometry	Pt-Pd NPs, graphene oxide	CFME	0.3 μM	Raw 264.7 cells secretion	[38]
10	H_2O_2	Chronoamperometry	Au-Ag bimetallic NPs / polydopamine	CFME	0.12 μM	HepG2 cells	[39]
11	$HClO/CIO^-$	DPV	Graphene Oxide, carbon nanotubes, MBS	CFME	0.5 μM	Body fluids	[40]
12	$O_2^{\cdot-}$	Chronoamperometry	MWCNTs, Ionic Liquid-Br, SOD, Prussian Blue NPs	CFME	0.42 μM	Alzheimer rat brains	[41]
13	$O_2^{\cdot-}$	DPV with ratiometric signal output	Diphenylphosphonate-2-naphthol ester, methylene blue SWCNTs	CFME	2 μM	Rat brain	[42]
14	NO	DPV	NiTSPc/nafion	CFME	0.34 μM	Zebrafish intestine	[8]

MWCNTs-Multi Walled Carbon Nanotubes, CV- Cyclic Voltammetry, BBY- Bismarck Brown Y, rGO- Reduced Graphene Oxide, FTO- Fluorine doped Tin Oxide, AgNPs- Silver Nanoparticles, CNT- Carbon Nano Tubes, DNA- Deoxyribose Nucleic Acid, APTES- (3-aminopropyl) triethoxysilane, Cyt C – Cytochrome C, Poly(5A1N)- Electropolymerized 5-amino-1-naphthol, XG- Xero Gel, PSS-Polystyrene Sulfonic Acid, BA- 5-(1,2-dithiolan-3-yl)-N-(4-(4,4,5,5-tetramethyl-1,3,2-dioxaborolan-2-yl)phenyl)pent-anamide, CFME- Carbon Fiber Micro Electrode, AuNP- Gold Nanoparticles, PDDA- Poly(Diallyl Dimethyl Ammonium Chloride), D-cell - Plastic

disposable Carbon based Electrochemical Cell, a-NSGF- Taurine-functionalized Graphene foam, ITO-PET- Indium Tin Oxide supported on Poly-Ethylene-Terephthalate foil, CTS-Chitosan, MPNS-Microporous Polymeric Nanospheres, HTCMP-Hollow Tubular Conjugated Organic Microporous Polymer

3.1. Electrochemical sensors for H_2O_2 and superoxide radicals

The electroactive H_2O_2 can be detected electrochemically using a chemically modified electrode [6]. Xu and co-workers modified a CFME with Au nanocones and a synthetic molecular receptor having affinity towards H_2O_2 . The small size of the CFME coupled with the selectivity of the synthetic receptor enabled measurements of H_2O_2 in a single drop of blood. Measurements were performed by differential pulse voltammetry (DPV) in the range -0.5 - 0.6 V vs Ag/AgCl electrode and the sensor was able to measure H_2O_2 in the 0.5 -400 μM range [43]. André Afonso and co-workers used a disposable plastic carbon-based electrochemical cell with a chemically modified electrode coated with Ag nanoparticles and $\delta\text{-FeOOH}$. The reduction of H_2O_2 catalyzed by Ag nanoparticles (NPs) lead to increased sensitivity for H_2O_2 detection in fetal bovine serum [44]. Non-enzymatic detection of H_2O_2 is achieved with electrodes functionalized with chemical mediators such as Prussian blue (PB), used alone or in composite forms with Au nanoparticles or graphene oxide. A PB-AuNPs-graphene oxide deposited on a GCE enabled detection of H_2O_2 down to 1.3 μM [45]. Similar strategies can be used to increase selectivity of CFMEs (Table 1). Most sensors use Pt-based structures that take advantage of the catalytic activity of PtNPs for H_2O_2 ; these are often combined with Au, Ag, carbon nanotubes or graphene oxide for enhanced performance. In some cases, the growth and self-assembly of a multidimensional structure on the surface of CFMEs reduces the oxidation potential minimizing interferences. A CFME functionalized with VS_2 ,@VC@N-doped carbon sheets decorated by PdNPs enabled detection of H_2O_2 at -0.05 V with no interferences from dopamine, uric acid, ascorbic acid and nitrite [37].

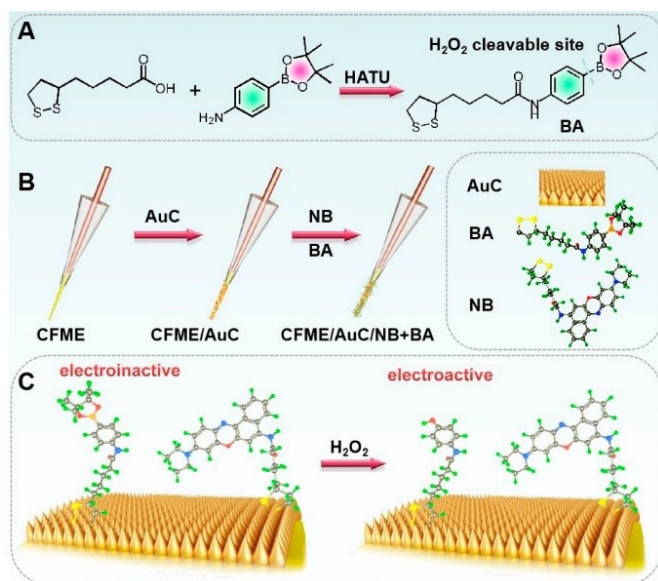


Figure 1 – Example of electrochemical H_2O_2 sensors used using a chemically modified CFME. Reproduced with permissions (ref [43] with permission).

The standard redox potential of the O_2/O_2^- redox couple is between from 330 mV to 140 mV vs NHE and thus this can be determined by direct electrochemical oxidation using platinized microelectrodes, or electrodes modified with nitrogen-doped carbon AgNPs [46] or porous carbon networks [47]. To improve selectivity, a common approach is to immobilize Cyt C or superoxide dismutase onto AuNP-functionalized microelectrodes [6]. A recent trend is to use enzyme mimetic materials such as MnTiO_3 microdiscs, [48] manganese phosphate [49] or nanostructured Mxenes [50] and graphene/AgNP/ $\text{CeO}_2/\text{TiO}_2$ [51] as alternative to natural enzymes. However, specificity of measurements is not always demonstrated, raising questions about the accuracy of such configurations. Thick-films Cyt c-based nanoporous gold electrodes with a detection limit of 1.9 nM and a sensitivity of $1.9 \text{ nM} \cdot \text{nM}^{-1} \text{cm}^{-2}$ enabled the online detection of O_2^- in skeletal muscle tissue [52].

3.2 Electrochemical sensors for nitric oxide and peroxynitrite

NO is a highly diffusible short-lived species, which can interact with O_2^- to form peroxynitrite, a highly reactive and toxic species that can damage DNA, proteins and lipids. Because NO has reduced stability, NO sensors must have a short response time, be sensitive, and have a wide linearity range. The electrooxidation of NO takes place at a potential $>0.8\text{V}$ vs Ag/AgCl that overlaps with the oxidation potential of other electroactive species. To prevent interferences,

CFMEs are commonly functionalized with blocking membranes such as Nafion [8], o-phenylene diamine (o-PD) and chitosan [8,53]. Electrochemical NO sensors have been reviewed by Brown and Schoenfish [54].

Long term electrochemical measurement of NO released from cultured pro-inflammatory macrophages was demonstrated using an Pt disk electrode (6 mm diameter) modified with an electropolymerized 5-amino-1-naphtol (Poly(5A1N)) and fluorinated xerogel to prevent degradation (**Figure 2**) [55]. The xerogel provided permselective properties imparting selectivity and preventing biofouling. A detection limit of 1 nM and a dynamic range 0.01-10 μ M was reported. Detection of NO in human serum (detection limit of 52 nM and linear range of 0.25-40 μ M) was reported with an electrode coated with reduced graphene oxide and PtNPs [56]. A microsensor enabling detection of NO $\cdot$ in the presence of H₂O₂ in static or flow conditions was achieved with a dual-electrode set up. Poly(eugenol) coating enhanced the selectivity of the Pt electrode and was superior to bare Pt and Pt-Pt black [57].

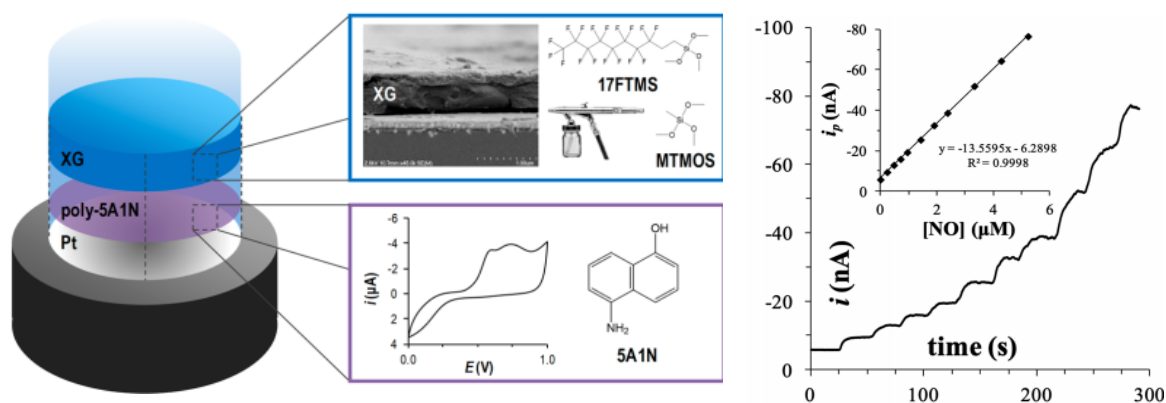


Figure 2 -NO sensor coated with gel to prevent degradation in biological medium (with permission from [55]).

Recent developments in microelectrode design integrate microelectrodes and wireless monitoring. Using a flexible transient electrode, real time monitoring of NO over 5 days was recorded in the hearth and joint cavity of rabbits [58]. The implantable sensor consisted of a biocompatible electrode constructed from polylactic acid and poly(trimethylene carbonate), an ultrathin Au membrane, and a poly(eugenol) film. This sensor had a detection limit of 0.97 nm and a 0.01-100 μM linear range.

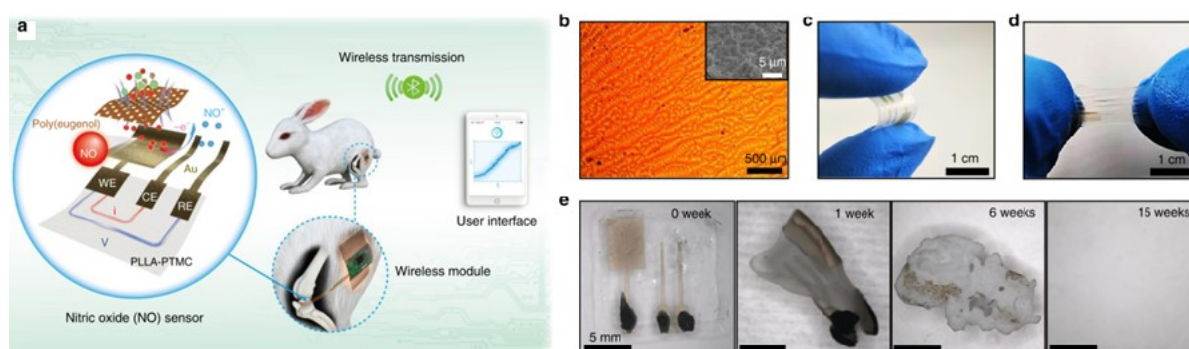


Figure 3 - a Transient NO sensor composed of a bioresorbable copolymer of poly(l-lactic acid) and poly(trimethylene carbonate (PLLA–PTMC) substrate, Au nanomembrane electrodes, and a poly(eugenol) thin film. NO concentration was measured through amperometry. The sensor can continuously detect NO concentrations in vivo and transmit the data to a user interface through a customized wireless module. **b** Optical image of the surface morphology of Au electrodes and SEM image of the surface morphology. **c** NO sensor under bending. **d** NO sensor in a stretched state. **e** Images at various stages (0, 1, 6, and 15 weeks) of accelerated degradation of a transient NO sensor in phosphate-buffered saline (with permission from refs [58]).

Peroxynitrite, the primary product formed in the fast reaction of superoxide radicals with NO, is an important but difficult to measure RNS [59]. The formal potential of $\text{ONOO}^-/\text{ONOO}\cdot$ is 0.27 V vs SSCE [60]. Electrochemical detection of transient concentrations of peroxynitrite was achieved with platinized, or nanostructured microelectrodes modified with conjugated Mn complexes (e.g., tetraaminophthalocyanine manganese (II)[61], MnO_2 -Hemin [62] and PEDOT-Hemin [63] layers, and microporous polymeric nanospheres [64]) acting as electrocatalytic sites. Recent efforts are dedicated to simultaneous detection of multiple ROS/RNS released by cells by custom-designed microfluidic devices [65] and ratiometric measurements [66]. Such measurements can be effective at determining multiple ROS/RNS

species simultaneously and take into account issues of cross-reactivity. This approach is highly suited for the high throughput monitoring of cells.

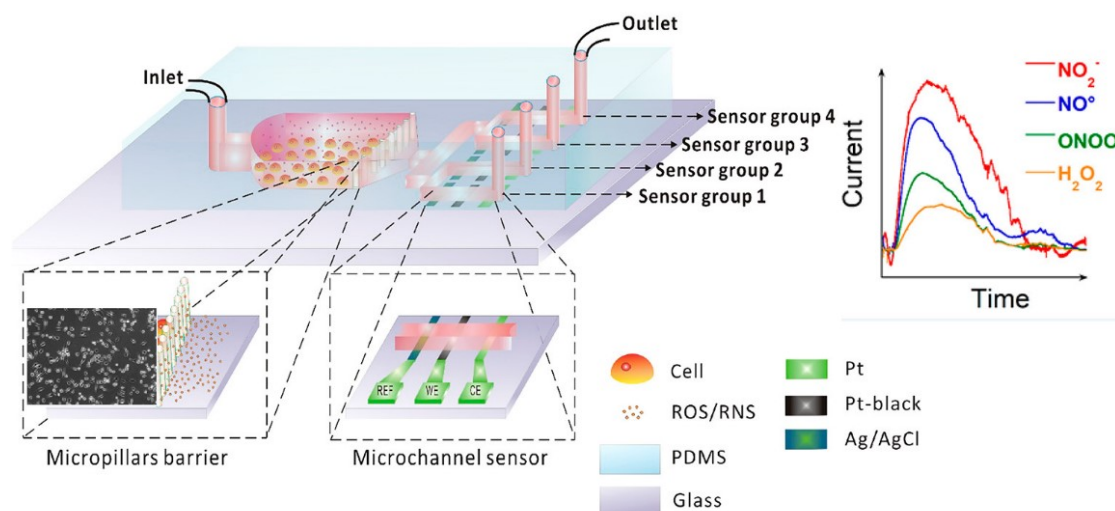


Figure 4 - Microfluidic platform integrating four parallel channels for H_2O_2 , ONOO^- , $\text{NO}^\bullet$, and NO_2^- measurements (with permission from Ref [65]).

4. Biological applications and translational aspects

Accurate ROS measurements are important to understand the relationship between oxidative stress and disease. Oxidative stress underlies cardiovascular diseases by impairing endothelial cell function, thereby influencing vascular tone and inflammation [67]⁴⁸. How the mechanical forces from blood flow and smooth muscle contraction alter ROS production was addressed using a flexible electrochemical sensor [68]. This sensor allowed for the attachment of cells onto a compliant surface. By simulating *in vivo* conditions of mechanical stress, it was shown that circumferential stretch at normotensive strain induces $\text{NO}^\bullet$ production, whereas hypertensive strain promotes H_2O_2 production, possibly through NADPH oxidase. This sensor revealed new insight to the redox response of endothelial cells under different mechanical stressors.

Because oxidative stress is implicated in the progression of many pathological conditions, considerable effort has been made to affect ROS levels under various disease settings for therapeutic benefit. Insight into the actions of established and novel therapeutics

were recently addressed by electrochemical methods. Jiang et al. created nanowire electrodes capable of quantifying, at the subcellular level, ROS production in fibroblast and cancer cell lines [67]. This electrode identified the mitochondria, specifically complex IV, as the principal site of ROS production in response to chemotherapeutic. Higher levels of paclitaxel-induced ROS were detected in cancer cells compared with normal cells, suggestive of a selective cytopathic mechanism. Vaneev et al. used platinized nanoelectrodes to demonstrate rapid H_2O_2 evolution in single cells after treatment with chemotherapeutics [69]. The translational utility of this sensor was demonstrated in tumour-bearing mice treated with doxorubicin. In this application, ROS levels increased with increasing tumour depth, highlighting possible spatial heterogeneity within the tumour. Lastly, Gubernatorova et.al. evaluated the in vivo ROS scavenging ability of Europium-doped ceria NPs using a Cyt C-based electrochemical biosensor [70]⁵². This study linked $\text{O}_2^{\cdot -}$ formation with the induction of inflammatory cytokines during intestinal ischemia-reperfusion injury. Ultimately, a greater understanding of the mechanism by which (chemo)therapeutics exert their effects may facilitate the screening of new drugs that are based on redox dependence, while avoiding interference of redox signalling in normal cells.

Despite the desirable characteristics of electrochemical sensors for in vivo ROS monitoring, several technical challenges remain before these sensors realize clinical utility. Biofouling, or adsorption of biomolecules onto the probe, can reduce the sensor's detection capability. This was observed with a carbon nanofiber sensor that initially showed sensitive detection of $\text{O}_2^{\cdot -}$ in the rat brain, but sensitivity was reduced by ~60% after implantation [71]. Antifouling strategies that mitigate signal reduction are necessary. Interference by electroactive compounds poses another challenge for in vivo use of electrochemical sensors. This was recently addressed by electrodeposition of 1,3-phenylenediamine onto an electrode surface to create a perm-selective barrier. This modification allowed for specific measurement of H_2O_2 flux in the brain [72]. Notwithstanding these challenges, there is an increasing need to accurately measure oxidative status in the clinical setting. The recent COVID-19 pandemic demonstrated the need for platforms that have rapid response time to test clinical specimens. An electrochemical sensor that detects H_2O_2 was developed to screen human sputum for lung inflammation [73]. ROS measurements showed good agreement with computed tomography

scan of lungs, and infection status could be inferred from the applied potential sweep data. These recent studies highlight electrochemical detection of ROS as a powerful tool for mechanistic and translational studies, but also revealed challenges that are currently being addressed.

5. Future challenges and trends

Although electrochemical sensors for ROS/RNS monitoring are well-established, most reported work measures concentrations of reactive species in standard solutions or synthetically generated radicals with few reports of implementation in live tissues. Advances in electrode design, featuring increased sensitivity and real time capabilities, provide a solid foundation for future implementation in biological systems. Since ROS/RNS is fundamental to many processes and diseases, electrochemical sensors have great potential to facilitate an understanding of their production and removal in cells and tissues, establish the relation between free radical production and disease progression, and evaluate oxidative stress mechanisms. The challenge is to design robust probes and surface modifications that can maintain performance in complex biological environments without passivation or biofouling. While electrochemical methods for ROS/RNS detection have improved in recent years, their implementation requires further refinement to address issues such as robustness, selectivity toward specific ROS/RNS, and cross-reactivity. Improving the selectivity toward individual radicals, or developing ratiometric or multi-array sensors for simultaneous quantification of a broader range of radicals through parallel measurements is of particular interest for future research. Manufacturing of more robust and stable microelectrodes and biosensors using methods that enable large-scale production is also needed.

Most measurements have been done to study released kinetics in isolated cultures or cells, with few examples of implementation in tissues and organs. Adoption of electrochemical probes to address relevant pathological events relies on interdisciplinary research and close collaboration between electrochemists, biologists, immunologists and medical doctors. Given the maturity of these probes, future research is expected to explore the use of this technology in relevant cellular and animal models through implantation. An immediate use of implantable microelectrodes is for monitoring ROS/RNS species in real time to better understand their

interplay in the biological environment. Innovations in electrode design to increase biocompatibility is also expected. To improve the capabilities of electrochemical measurements, the following potential directions for future research are expected: 1) increasing the sensitivity through improving the electrochemical interface and immobilization strategy by using 2D and 3D nanostructures materials like MXenes, metal organic frameworks, perovskites, or multi-layered polymer layers, 2) scalable manufacturing of microelectrodes to enable large scale adoption and improve reproducibility through the use of additive manufacturing techniques such as printing, 3) multiplexed detection of different ROS/RNS species simultaneously placed along with sentinel or self-reference electrodes to improve accuracy of measurements and minimize interfering effects from coexisting species, 4) electrode coatings to minimize the non-specific interaction and biofouling effects in biological environments, 5) integration of electrochemical measurements with chemometrics analysis, machine learning and artificial intelligence, as well as wireless connectivity to improve data processing and remote monitoring capabilities of electrochemical measurements. Finally, 6) *in vivo* studies with implanted microelectrodes should be validated with suitable biological manipulations to demonstrate usefulness and accuracy of measurements. Monitoring physiological and pathological events such as cancer, ischemia/reperfusion, traumatic brain injury, trauma, and hypovolemic shock, are all relevant models for future applications.

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