

1 Non-contact monitoring of glucose concentration 2 and pH by integration of wearable and 3 implantable hydrogel sensors with optical 4 coherence tomography

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12 **Abstract:** Optical coherence tomography (OCT) is a noninvasive imaging technique with large
13 penetration depth into the tissue, but limited chemical specificity. By incorporating functional
14 co-monomers, hydrogels can be designed to respond to specific molecules and undergo reversible
15 volume changes. In this study, we present implantable and wearable biocompatible hydrogel
16 sensors combined with OCT to monitor their thickness change as a tool for continuous and
17 real-time monitoring of glucose concentration and pH. The results demonstrate the potential
18 of combining hydrogel biosensors with OCT for non-contact continuous in-vivo monitoring of
19 physiological parameters.

20 1. Introduction

21 Hydrogels are loosely cross-linked water insoluble hydrophilic polymers that have the ability
22 to absorb and retain water while maintaining their structure. The hydrogels investigated herein
23 utilise a low crosslinking density which permits reversible changes to the swelling of polymer
24 dependent on external stimuli [1]. By incorporating functional co-monomers into the polymer
25 matrix, hydrogels can be designed to be sensitive to specific parameters in the environment.
26 Functional co-monomers can bind biomarkers through their chemical functionality, leading to the
27 production of a bound ionic charge within the hydrogel matrix. This bound ionic charge induces
28 the movement of counter ions across the polymer membrane via Donnan osmotic pressure,
29 resulting in swelling of the hydrogel. The relationship between biomarker and hydrogel expansion
30 can be correlated and applied to numerous applications including tissue engineering and drug
31 delivery [2]. There are several ways to detect the analyte of interest using swellable hydrogels such
32 as photonic sensing of glucose [3], electrochemical identification of cholesterol [4] and visual
33 quantification of Cu²⁺ ion concentration [5]. By implanting the biocompatible hydrogels [6]
34 into the tissue they open the possibility of monitoring different physiological parameters, such
35 as glucose or pH, depending on the hydrogel functionalization. However, the existing methods
36 cannot be used subcutaneously, due to an inability to transduce biomarker detection through
37 non-transparent tissue, requiring a different readout approach, and sensor biofouling [7].

38 Monitoring glucose levels is paramount for patients with diabetes. There are two types of
39 devices intended for personal use and self-assessment of the glucose levels: non-continuous
40 or self-monitoring blood glucose devices that monitor the glucose levels at specific points of
41 the day and continuous glucose monitoring devices that automatically monitor glucose levels
42 every few minutes making possible to record trends and observe rapid changes [8]. Currently,
43 the most reliable devices on the market for continuous glucose monitoring measure glucose
44 concentration in the interstitial fluid (ISF) [9], since ISF is the most prevalent fluid in the body
45 that contains biomarkers that can provide information about cellular and tissue physiology [10].

46 Furthermore, they are not compatible with MRI and certain chemicals can interfere with the
47 accuracy of readings such as paracetamol which can falsely elevate the glucose readings [11]. In
48 such cases finger-prick tests are necessary to obtain accurate readings of glucose concentration.
49 The invasive nature of these technologies is a key factor in poor adherence to testing regimes [12].
50 The development of a minimally invasive or non-invasive devices for glucose measurement would
51 represent a life-changing factor for millions of patients around the world. There are several current
52 and emerging technologies for glucose measurement [13] such as Raman spectroscopy [14], [15],
53 mid-infrared [16], [17], photoacoustic spectroscopy [18], optical polarimetry [19], fluorescence
54 glucose-sensing [20–22], nanomaterial-enhanced surface plasmon resonance [23] and several
55 others which are at the beginning of their development [8].

56 Another physiological parameter monitored in healthcare is pH, which is important in many
57 physiological processes like enzyme and tissue activities, blood gas saturation, angiogenesis
58 during wound healing [24], collagen formation etc. [25]. Wound pH can be credible indicator of
59 the state of the wound, since the patient's defense mechanisms change the local pH of a wound
60 to affect microorganism invasion [25], [26]. Healthy skin pH varies from around 5 to 6 [27].
61 Upon injury pH rises to a more neutral value of the ISF (around 7.4) which is a result of the
62 exposure of the underlying tissue to the environment. Variation can depend on wound severity
63 with chronic wounds and infected wounds having neutral to alkaline pH (7.5 - 8.9) values [24].
64 Wounds with fungi or necrotic tissue have an acidic pH [28]. Monitoring pH of the wound may
65 enable overview of the treatment response by providing information about bacterial or fungal
66 contamination and improve the control over the healing process.

67 Optical coherence tomography is a non-invasive imaging technique based on low-coherence
68 interferometry that uses infrared light and provides depth-resolved cross-sectional images of
69 tissue [29]. In the past, there were attempts for using OCT alone for real time monitoring of glucose
70 levels, due to its large penetration depth in tissue which can be up to 1 mm. However, OCT lacks
71 sufficient chemical specificity. It was observed that temperature and several bodily osmolytes can
72 change the refractive index of the tissue and significantly alter the measurements [17, 30]. There
73 are several studies in the direction of enhancing OCT chemical specificity using glucose-sensing
74 units [31–33]. In a recent study [33] hydrogel microparticles were used in which the submicron
75 changes due to glucose were estimated from the OCT spectrum by modeling the microparticle
76 as an optical cavity. In another study by R. Ballerstadt et al. [31] OCT was used to assess
77 the turbidity of an implantable glucose sensor, but the specificity and accuracy of the sensor
78 significantly decreased below the tissue due to the large attenuation of the OCT signal. S. Wang
79 et al. [32] presented a glucose-sensing unit which contained a golden mirror. However, there
80 were challenges with the precise placement of the sensor perpendicular to the laser beam and
81 with maintaining the same scanning region on the sensor during multiple measurements.

82 Here we present the results of an investigation of the properties of tissue-implantable hydrogel-
83 based biosensors for non-contact subcutaneous monitoring of glucose and pH-levels measured
84 by using OCT. When combined with the implantable hydrogel biosensors, OCT can have high
85 potential for continuous in-vivo monitoring of different physiological parameters.

86 **2. Methods**

87 Glucose sensitive hydrogel monomer solutions were prepared by photo cross-linking of acry-
88 lamide (AM, 73 mol%) and glucose-specific 3-acrylamido phenyl boronic acid (3-AAPB, 20
89 mol%) with 0.5 mol% methylene-bis-acrylamide (MBA) as a cross-linker and 2-hydroxy-2-
90 methylpropiophenone (HMPP, 1 mol%), dissolved in a DMSO:H₂O (1:1, v/v) at a concentration
91 of 0.5 g/mL as a photoinitiator [3]. The boronic acid group in 3-AAPB permits reversible
92 covalent binding to glucose and functionalizes the hydrogel. Boronic acid can exist in trigonal
93 or tetrahedral form depending on the external conditions such as pH or temperature (see Fig.
94 1) [3].

95 The pH sensitive hydrogel was prepared by a free-radical polymerization of a hydrophilic
96 monomer (hydroxyethyl)methacrylate (HEMA, 72 mol%) and a functional co-monomer dimethy-
97 laminoethyl acrylate (DMAEA, 25 mol%) and a crosslinker ethylene glycol dimethacrylate
98 (EGDMA, 2 mol%) initiated by a photoinitiator 2-hydroxy-2-methylpropiophenone (HMPP,
99 1 mol%), diluted in propan-2-ol at a ratio of 1:1 [24]. The low crosslinking density of the
100 pH responsive matrix allows for large volume variations depending upon the protonation and
101 deprotonation of the functional co-monomer DMAEA which bears a tertiary amine and is capable
102 of being protonated and deprotonated at different pH values. The reference hydrogel did not
103 contain the boronic acid functional group. Most of the chemicals were obtained from Sigma
104 Aldrich.

105 Both glucose and pH sensitive monomer solutions were prepared immediately prior to each
106 hydrogel preparation to ensure reproducibility. The hydrogel films were prepared by pipetting
107 of monomer solution on to the polyester side of aluminised film with glass microscope slides
108 placed on top. It is imperative in the placing of the glass slide that no bubbles are within the
109 liquid matrix prior to polymerisation. Samples were then polymerised via exposure to UV-A
110 light for 30 min. Once fully polymerized the glass slide was soaked in warm water at 37°C to
111 detach the film. A small piece 1 mm² was cut off and put on a fresh glass slide. To measure the
112 initial thickness the glucose-sensitive hydrogel sample was immersed into phosphate-buffered
113 saline (PBS) at a constant pH 7.4. Solutions with different glucose concentrations were prepared
114 by dissolving glucose in the PBS solution. The pH sensitive hydrogel film was equilibrated in a
115 solution with pH 7. Solutions with different pH were prepared by dissolving appropriate amounts
116 of HCl into 0.1 M TRIS buffer. To assess the response of the glucose or pH hydrogel sensors
117 500µL of fluid was used to cover the hydrogel placed on the glass slide. After waiting for about
118 20 min after immersion the hydrogel thickness was estimated. All measurements were conducted
119 at room temperature.

120 OCT was used for hydrogel film thickness estimation. Wasatch Photonics Spectral-domain [29]
121 OCT system (SPARK-HR800) was used in this study. It has an axial resolution of 3 µm in tissue,
122 lateral resolution of 6 µm, imaging depth of 1.915 mm in air, A-scan line-rate of 70 kHz and a
123 central wavelength of 846.2 nm. The thickness of the hydrogel was determined by hand using the
124 Wasatch Photonics OCT software, SPARK OCT (version 2.1.5 9). The thickness was taken as the
125 distance between the brightest pixels between the interfacial surfaces that represent the top and
126 bottom surfaces of the hydrogel. To account for the subjectivity the reported thickness changes
127 are the result of averaging. The hydrogel thickness was determined as an average of at least 4
128 points on the surface (B-scan). The error bars plotted on the graphs represent the statistical error.

129 The refractive index of the glucose-sensitive film for different glucose concentrations was
130 measured with Abbe refractometer by using visible light.

131 For tissue measurements mouse skin was removed from the flank of the mouse. The glucose-
132 sensitive film was placed on a glass slide between the mouse skin and a reference hydrogel film.
133 As in the previous case all the test solutions were prepared using PBS.

134 To demonstrate the OCT visibility of the pH sensitive hydrogel below different coverings that
135 are used to protect wounds we placed a small piece of pH-sensitive hydrogel film (25 mm²) on
136 a person's hand and finger and then covered the skin with an adhesive patch or with bandages.
137 Afterwards an OCT B-scan was taken. The pH sensitive hydrogel film was equilibrated in a
138 solution with pH 7 prior to measurements.

139 **3. Results and Discussion**

140 *3.1. Subcutaneous glucose sensor*

141 To test the glucose-sensitive hydrogels they were first placed on a glass slide, without any tissue
142 and immersed into PBS. The hydrogel thickness varied between samples and it was between
143 100 and 150 µm. The films were transparent under optical microscope (Fig. 2a). A B-scan was

144 captured with the OCT (Fig. 2b). Top and bottom surfaces of the hydrogel film were nicely
 145 visible and enabled reliable determination of its thickness. The thickness was determined by
 146 measuring the film on at least 4 positions and the resulting error is displayed as error bars in all the
 147 plots. The OCT actually does not give the physical thickness, but rather the optical path length,
 148 which is the product of the geometric thickness and the refractive index. The refractive index
 149 of the hydrogel was measured for several different glucose concentrations. OCT measurements
 150 were done with near infrared light, while the refractive index was measured in visible light.
 151 Therefore, the dispersion curve of water, which is the main component of the hydrogel, was
 152 used to extrapolate the refractive index into the infrared range. The refractive index was also
 153 calculated from OCT B-scans. However due to the thickness error the resulting uncertainty of the
 154 refractive index was around 4% and was larger than the one obtained by the refractometer and
 155 extrapolation which was around 0.4% (Fig. 2c). The refractive index decreased with increasing
 156 glucose concentration (Fig. 2c) which is consistent with the fact that the hydrogel swells with
 157 increasing glucose concentration. The refractive index of the glucose solution is larger than pure
 158 water, and since this solution penetrates into the hydrogel it should have an opposite effect, that
 159 is an increase in the refractive index. However, the refractive index of 20 mM glucose at 550
 160 nm is 1.334 only slightly higher compared to 1.333 of water. Therefore, this does not have a
 161 measurable effect.

162 The hydrogel swelling is a result of glucose association and dissociation with the boronic acid

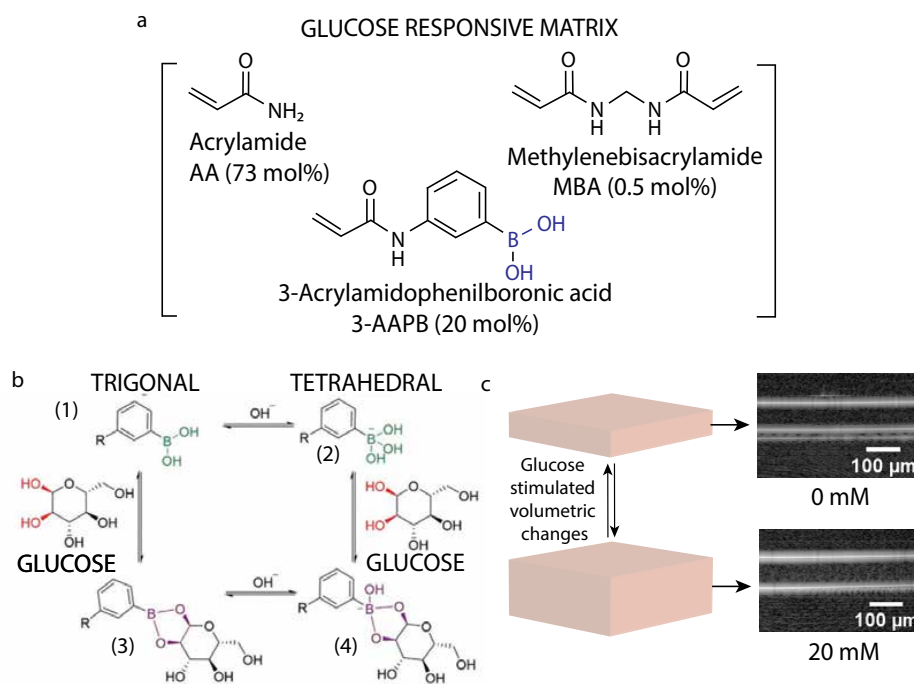


Fig. 1. a) Chemical structure of the glucose-sensitive hydrogel co-monomers. b) Reaction pathways for boronic acid binding of glucose in the trigonal and tetrahedral forms. Boronic acids can bind to glucose reversibly. At low pH, the boronic acid is trigonal planar form (1). This form does not readily complex with glucose, however it can form a strained complex (3). The strained form has a negative charge and it can be easily hydrolysed. At higher pH the boronic acid is in a tetrahedral state (2) and it can bind to glucose more readily. c) Illustration (left) and OCT B-scan (right) of the glucose-induced volumetric changes on the hydrogel film.

163 in 3-AAPB forming a polymerized ionic charge (see Fig. 1). Boronic acid in 3-AAPB functions
164 as a Lewis acid. 3-AAPB is trigonal and can react with water to form an anionic tetrahedral
165 boronate. 1,2 or 1,3 cis-diols of carbohydrates act as Lewis bases which can bind with boronic
166 acid to form 5 or 6- membered cyclic boronate ester. This reaction depends on several factors
167 such as pH, temperature and concentration [3].

168 The swelling was measured for concentrations of glucose in the interval from 0 to 20 mM
169 with an increment of 2.5 mM. In all measurements the physical thickness of the hydrogel was
170 calculated by taking into account the previously measured refractive index at each glucose
171 concentration. In real life applications where an unknown concentration of glucose is measured,
172 one cannot measure the physical thickness due to unknown refractive index. In that case the
173 optical path length as measured by the OCT would be calibrated to the glucose concentration.

174 The initial thickness of the hydrogel film at zero glucose concentration (Fig. 2b) was $142 \pm$
175 $0.2 \mu\text{m}$. When immersed in a glucose solution it was observed that the hydrogel film thickness
176 increased with the increasing glucose concentration until saturation (Fig. 2d). The subtle
177 variations of the thickness as small as a few μm were clearly detectable with OCT. The largest
178 response was in the range from 0 to 5 mM where the sensitivity was estimated to be 1.9%/mM
179 and the detection limit was 0.7 mM. The detection limit was calculated as the product between
180 the largest measured uncertainty in the thickness of the film and the slope of the line describing
181 the thickness change in the glucose concentration interval from 0 to 5 mM. At larger intervals up
182 to 10 mM the response was smaller, but still large enough for measuring concentration changes

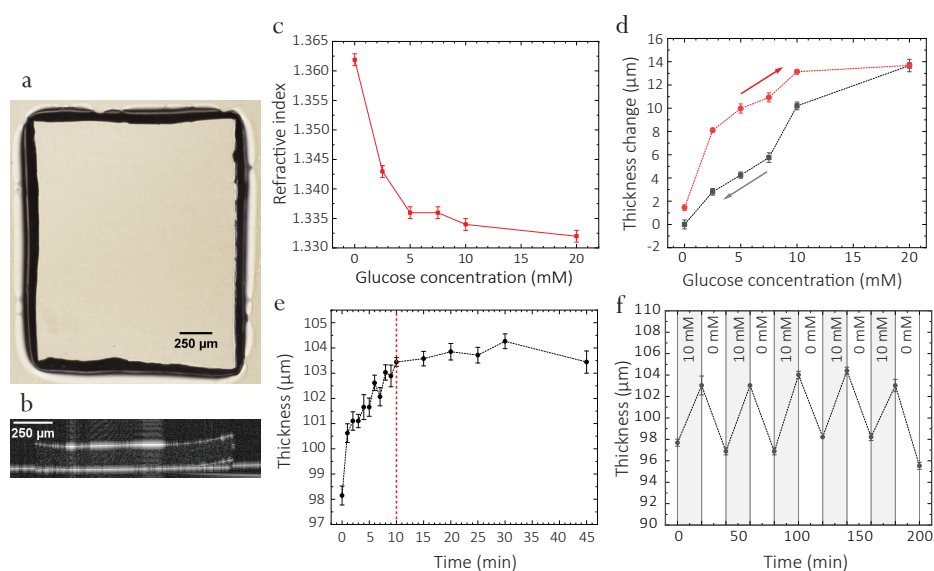


Fig. 2. Glucose-sensitive hydrogel film characteristics. a) Optical microscopy image in transmission of a hydrogel film sample placed on a glass slide. b) OCT B-scan revealing a cross-section image of the film. c) Increasing the glucose concentration resulted in decreasing the refractive index of the film. d) Hydrogel film thickness change as a response to increasing and decreasing glucose concentration. e) Time response of the hydrogel film. The curve was acquired by applying 10 mM glucose at time zero and measuring the thickness in time. The response time, marked with red dashed line, was defined as the time required for the thickness to reach 90% of the equilibrium swelling. f) Reversibility of the film thickness as a result of alternating glucose concentration with steps of 10 mM.

183 of the order of around 1.6 mM. When the glucose concentration was systematically decreasing
 184 from the maximal value a small hysteresis was observed (Fig. 2d) which appears because the
 185 decoupling of the glucose molecules from the boronic acid derivative is slower than the binding
 186 process [34].

187 The hydrogel film response time was defined as the time it takes for the swelling to reach 90%
 188 of the maximum value at a certain glucose concentration increment (in this case 10 mM) and it
 189 was estimated to be around 10 min. The measured response over almost one hour is shown in Fig.
 190 2e. Due to rapid thickness changes within the first 10 min measurements were performed every
 191 minute. After around 15 min the thickness changes were negligible. The maximal swelling of

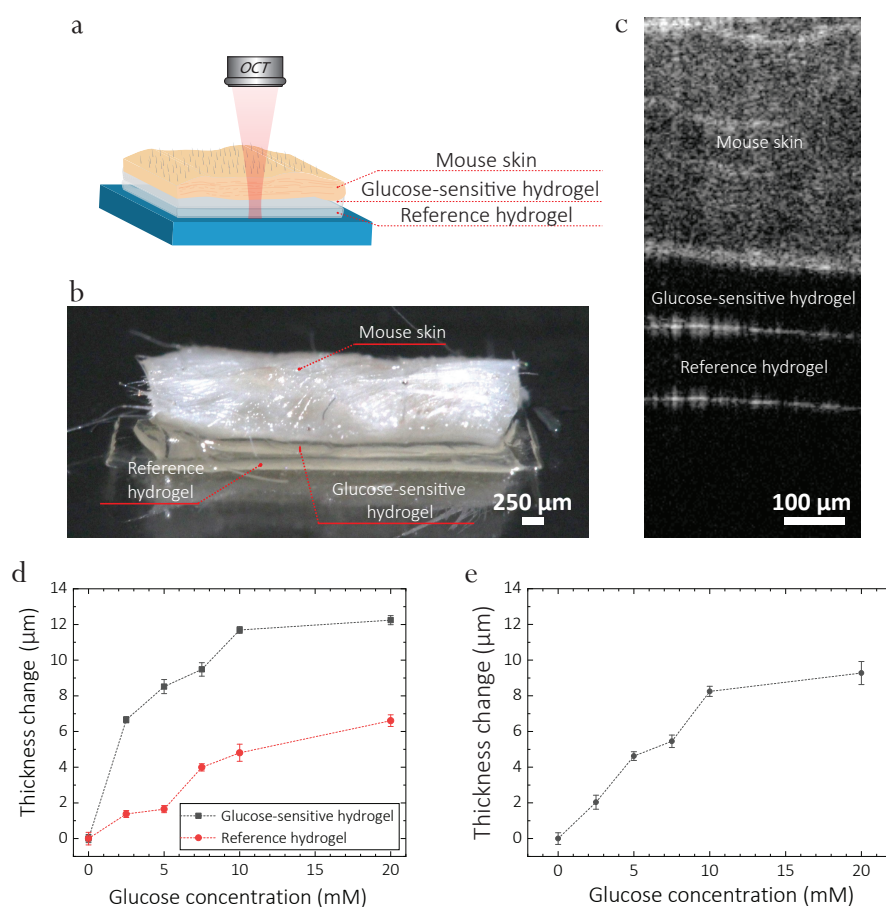


Fig. 3. Characterization of subcutaneous glucose sensor. a) Schematic illustration of the experimental setup. Glucose-sensitive hydrogel is placed between a mouse skin and a reference hydrogel which is significantly less sensitive to glucose. b) Photo of the measured sample. c) OCT B-scan which reveals a cross-section view. The 107 μm thick glucose-sensitive layer can be seen sandwiched between the mouse skin and the reference layer. d) A comparison between the response of the glucose-sensitive hydrogel film and the reference film measured separately by varying the glucose concentration. e) The hydrogel film was placed between the mouse skin and the reference hydrogel. Thickness change of the glucose-sensitive hydrogel film as a response to increasing glucose concentration.

192 the glucose-sensitive hydrogel film with thickness of 85 μm was measured to be around 12% in a
 193 glucose solution of 20 mM. For comparison, glucose concentration in the ISF can lag behind
 194 blood glucose concentration between 2 and 45 min [11]. Studies have suggested that the mean
 195 lag time is 6 to 7 min [35]. The measured response time was slightly shorter than reported for
 196 glucose-sensitive hydrogels in [33] and [36] which is in the range between 15 and 40 min.

197 To assess the robustness of the film, reversibility measurements were performed with alternating
 198 glucose concentrations of 0 and 10 mM (Fig. 1f). The hydrogel was observed to reversibly
 199 undergo swelling and deswelling over a number of cycles.

200 In table 1 we compare of the performance of the existing implantable glucose sensor studies
 for monitoring glucose using OCT. The range of glucose concentrations from 0 to 10 mM

Study	Modality	Compartment	Tests	Sens.	React. time	Detect. limit
S. Shah et al. [33]	OCT	ISF	in-vitro	2.4 $\%/\text{mM}$	42 min	1.05 mM
R. Ballerstadt et al. [31]	OCT	ISF	in-vitro	0.74 $\%/\text{mM}$	23 min	/
Our study	OCT	ISF	in-vitro	1.9 $\%/\text{mM}$	10 min	0.7 mM

Table 1. Performance of tissue implantable glucose sensors for monitoring glucose using OCT.

201
 202 corresponds to physiological levels from hypo- to normal to hyperglycaemic levels which means
 203 that the glucose-sensitive hydrogel can be used as a glucose-sensor for continuous subcutaneous
 204 monitoring of glucose levels in the whole physiological range. It is well known that there is a lag
 205 between glucose level changes in the ISF relative to the ones in the blood [35] and their values
 206 can differ within 10% [11]. In cases of hyperglycaemia peak glucose concentrations in the ISF
 207 lag behind blood glucose values. In this case the hydrogel reaction time and ISF lag time add up
 208 relative to the blood glucose values. However, in cases of hypoglycemia the ISF values fall before
 209 blood glucose values and in this case there can be no lag so the glucose value in the ISF can serve
 210 as a warning to prevent hypoglycemia [35]. The large sensitivity of the film in the hypoglycemic
 211 range can be advantageous and can be potentially used to warn the patient and prevent side-effects
 212 that can be very dangerous and in some specific situations even life-threatening.

213 The hydrogel biosensor can potentially be implanted in the dermis and imaged with an OCT in
 214 a non-contact mode. There are studies where ISF from the upper dermis was extracted and used
 215 for biomarker characterization [37], [10], [38]. In these studies small amounts of dermal ISF was
 216 extracted at depths between 250 μm and 700 μm and then analysed. By placing the sensor in the
 217 upper dermis in theory one can measure glucose concentration since it is estimated that there
 218 is 150 μL of ISF per cm^2 of human skin [39]. In theory this can be sufficient for our sensor to
 219 work properly (for a glucose film of around 1 mm^2 the minimal amount of glucose solution is
 220 around 150 μL). However, the amount of ISF is not equally distributed and there is larger amount
 221 in the lower dermis [10]. If one places the sensor at depths larger than 700 μm (lower dermis
 222 or hypodermis) one would need to use longer wavelengths for OCT imaging. At 1600 nm, for

223 example, it is estimated that the penetration depth in tissue can reach several mm, but scattering
224 and water content can be an important factor for scan quality.

225 As a proof of concept we tested the performance of the glucose sensor under a mouse
226 skin by measuring its response in different glucose concentrations. The skin had thickness of
227 approximately 300 μm as estimated from the OCT scans. The schematics and the results of
228 the experiment are shown in Fig. 3. The response of the reference film in comparison to the
229 glucose-sensitive hydrogel is shown in Fig. 3d. When placed between the reference layer and the
230 mouse skin the hydrogel film glucose sensitivity decreased and the maximal swelling measured
231 was around 7.4% in a glucose solution of 20 mM. In comparison, the swelling of the hydrogel not
232 embedded below a piece of skin (Fig 3d) was around 12 % in the same conditions. This suggests
233 that the layer of skin above the hydrogel sensor might cause a mechanical stress which can have
234 an influence on its sensing properties. In some situations this can be compensated for by the
235 reference film. The reference film did not have the glucose sensing capability and was located
236 below the glucose sensitive film (see Fig. 3c). Measurements show that the reference hydrogel
237 film had significantly smaller sensitivity to glucose in comparison to the glucose-sensitive
238 hydrogel (Fig. 2d). Any other environmental change such as mechanical stress and pH would
239 also influence the reference film. Since the two films are collocated, any such thickness change
240 can be then subtracted from the glucose sensitive film. In this way it would be possible to cancel
241 out the other influences, leaving only the contribution due to glucose.

242 3.2. Wearable pH sensor

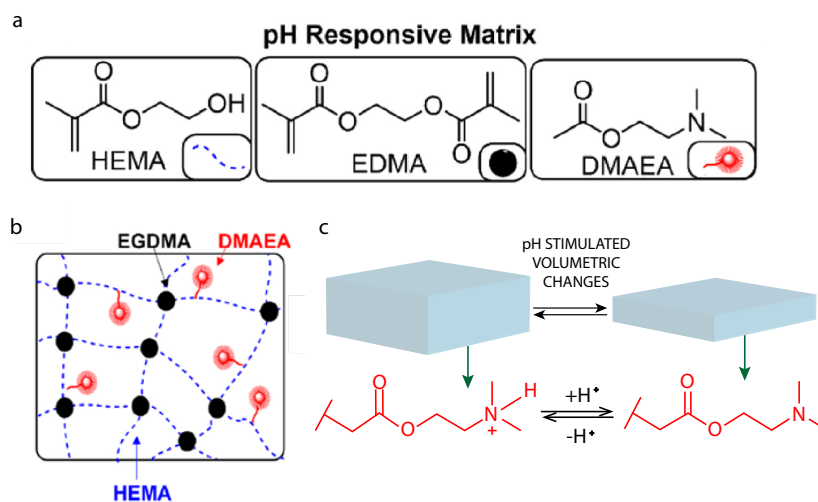


Fig. 4. pH-sensitive hydrogel chemistry. a) Schematic illustration of the co-monomer chemical structure and hydrogel framework b). The functional co-monomer DMAEA allows for volumetric changes of the hydrogel film upon changing the pH of the solution c).

243 The response of the pH-sensitive hydrogel film was measured in solutions with pH in the
244 interval from 7 to 9. The low crosslinking density of the pH responsive matrix allows for
245 large volume variations depending upon the protonation and deprotonation of the functional
246 co-monomer DMAEA which bears a tertiary amine and is capable of being protonated and
247 deprotonated at different pH values (Fig 4). The level of protonation is dependent on the acidic
248 dissociation constant (pK_a) of the amines lone pair of electrons and their ability to donate electron

249 density to protons within a solution. [24].

250 The hydrogel film thickness decreases with the increasing pH of the solution (Fig. 5). The
251 value of the film thickness was calculated from OCT cross-sections by taking a fixed refractive
252 index of 1.34 [24]. The maximal thickness change was 21% when changing the pH from 7 to
253 9. The pH-sensitive hydrogel has a large sensitivity in the interval from pH 7 to pH 9 which
254 are values that are important in healthcare. Upon injury wound pH is around 7.4 and variations
255 can differ depending upon wound severity in the range from neutral to alkaline (7.5 to 8.9)
values [24]. The pH-sensitive hydrogel can offer the possibility of non-contact monitoring of

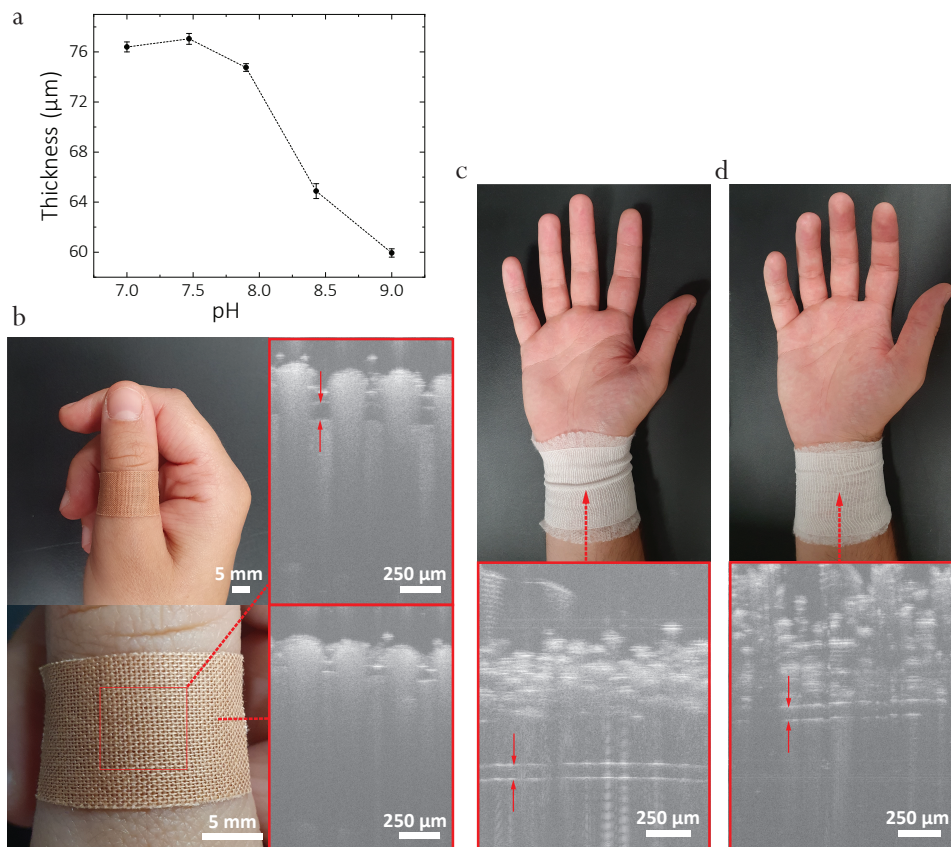


Fig. 5. pH-sensitive hydrogel film for wound monitoring. a) The graph shows the deswelling of the film as a response to increasing pH of the solution. b) OCT B-scan of the hydrogel film located below a finger patch (upper right) and of the surrounding area with no hydrogel film (lower right). The arrows on the top right image indicate the location of the hydrogel film. The upper left image shows the location of the patch and the rectangle on the lower left image indicates the location of the hydrogel film. c) OCT B-scan of the pH sensitive film located below one layer of gauze and one layer of bandage, shown on the photo. The arrows indicate the location of the hydrogel film which is clearly visible on the OCT scan. d) OCT B-scan of the pH sensitive film located below two layers of gauze and one layer of bandage. The arrows indicate the location of the hydrogel film. The increasing number of covering layers reduces the visibility of the hydrogel under OCT.

256

257 the wound pH. OCT images of the hydrogel placed below an adhesive patch and below two and

258 three layers of bandage (Fig. 5) clearly reveal its visibility that can be sufficient to estimate
259 its thickness and consequently obtain an information about the wound pH. Characterization of
260 the wound non-contactly would allow for continuous monitoring of the healing progression
261 without each time removing the bandages which can cause additional trauma. With the current
262 measurement range monitoring until healing is not possible since healing occurs in more acidic
263 environment where the sensitivity of the film is almost non-existent [24], however early detection
264 of pathological developments is possible and would enable prompt therapeutic intervention. In the
265 other cases one can use a hydrogel with a lower pH measurement range. pH-sensitive hydrogels
266 would also allow for a more objective approach in wound characterization since currently the
267 wound management relies mainly on visual evaluation and subjective assessment.

268 **4. Conclusions**

269 We have shown that OCT combined with bio-compatible glucose-sensitive hydrogel implanted
270 subcutaneously can have potential for minimally invasive continuous and real-time monitoring
271 of glucose levels. We have also shown that OCT has the possibility of non-contact wound
272 characterization when combined with pH-sensitive hydrogel film placed in contact with the
273 wound. The use of analyte-specific swellable hydrogels allows for chemical specificity in OCT
274 imaging.

275 The proof of concept for monitoring glucose concentration looks promising and with some
276 improvements in the hydrogel properties it can be used for practical applications. Additional
277 information about selectivity, specificity and LOD of the hydrogels can be found in [3], [24],
278 [40], [34] and [41]. For example, currently available glucose-monitors have response time in the
279 order of few minutes at most and the glucose-levels in the body can change on a timescale less
280 than a minute. This means that fast-acting hydrogels will be important improvement. In the case
281 of wound monitoring, hydrogels with larger pH sensitivity can enable non-contact observation
282 of wounds until healing. Future work directed into improving the materials that are currently
283 used for sensing [35] and on modifying the detection system can allow production of a wearable
284 devices that can be easily used by the patients.

285 Here, we choose planar geometry for the hydrogel sensors, however other geometries, such
286 as spheres [33] or fibers could also be employed. The planar geometry however offers some
287 advantages. Firstly, having a hydrogel layer allows measurements of the thickness change on
288 several different spots making the measurement more accurate and compensate for irregularities.

289 Secondly, having multiple layers allows the measurement of several parameters simultaneously.
290 Even though the measurements were done on stacked layers placing the layers side by side allows
291 for better visibility and more accurate measurements of the additional parameters, since both
292 layers will be in a similar mechanical and chemical environment.

293 Thirdly, by having a non-responsive reference hydrogel any thickness change due to mechanical
294 forces can be compensated for. In the case of spheres and fibers it would be possible to measure
295 both the diameter and the refractive index by measuring vertical and horizontal dimension,
296 however with a strong assumption that the cross section is perfectly spherical. But due to possible
297 mechanical deformation it is then impossible to distinguish the deformation from swelling and
298 refractive index change.

299 In future, the method developed here could be further extended to other biomarkers through
300 the utilisation of alternative co-monomers such as crown ligands for ionic species or through
301 molecular imprinting for drug and protein detection. By further developments in miniaturizing
302 OCT system, such as in multiple reference optical coherence tomography (MR-OCT) [42], which
303 is small, robust and low cost, one can bring the use of OCT closer to consumers and enable
304 the development of personalized medicine through wearable devices similar to smart watches
305 based on OCT technology. The greater collection of data in point of care settings through such
306 technology permits more regular testing to obtain real time information of patient wellbeing. This

307 not only benefits immediate treatment with tailoring of care to the current patient requirements,
308 but also expands the information available to medical researchers about potential early warning
309 signs of illness which are currently unknown and which could revolutionise medical systems
310 globally.

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315 **Competing interests**

316 The authors declare no competing interests.

317 **Data availability**

318 All data that support the plots within this paper and other findings of this study are available
319 from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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