



Ensuring pain medication dosage: A real-time intravenous opioid monitoring system

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Opioid Tampering Puts Patients at Risk!



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How can this Tampering Happen?

Current hospital procedures for opioid administration:

- Pharmacists dilute drug samples
- Doctors calculate the required concentration
- Monitoring vital signs

Medication errors put patients at risk of respiratory depression, increased pain, dependency, and overdosing!



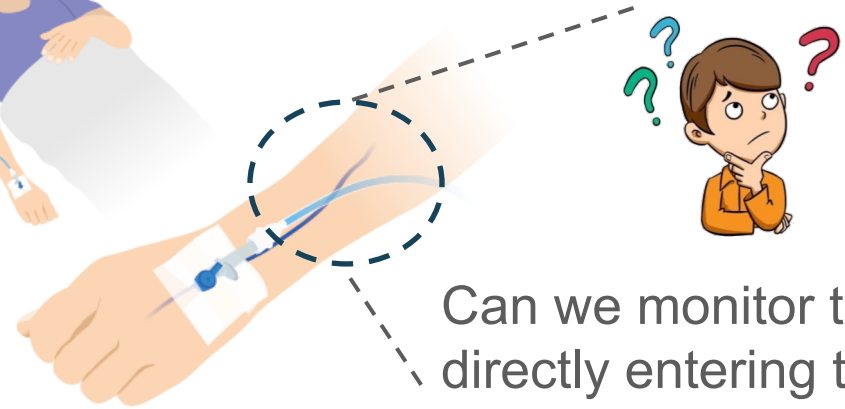
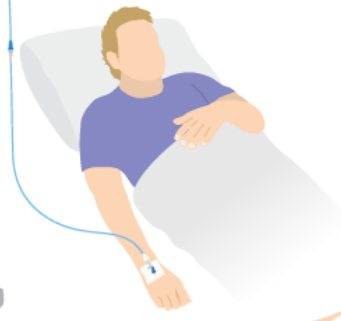
Pharmacy



Distribution



FENTANYL



Can we monitor the opioid directly entering the patient?

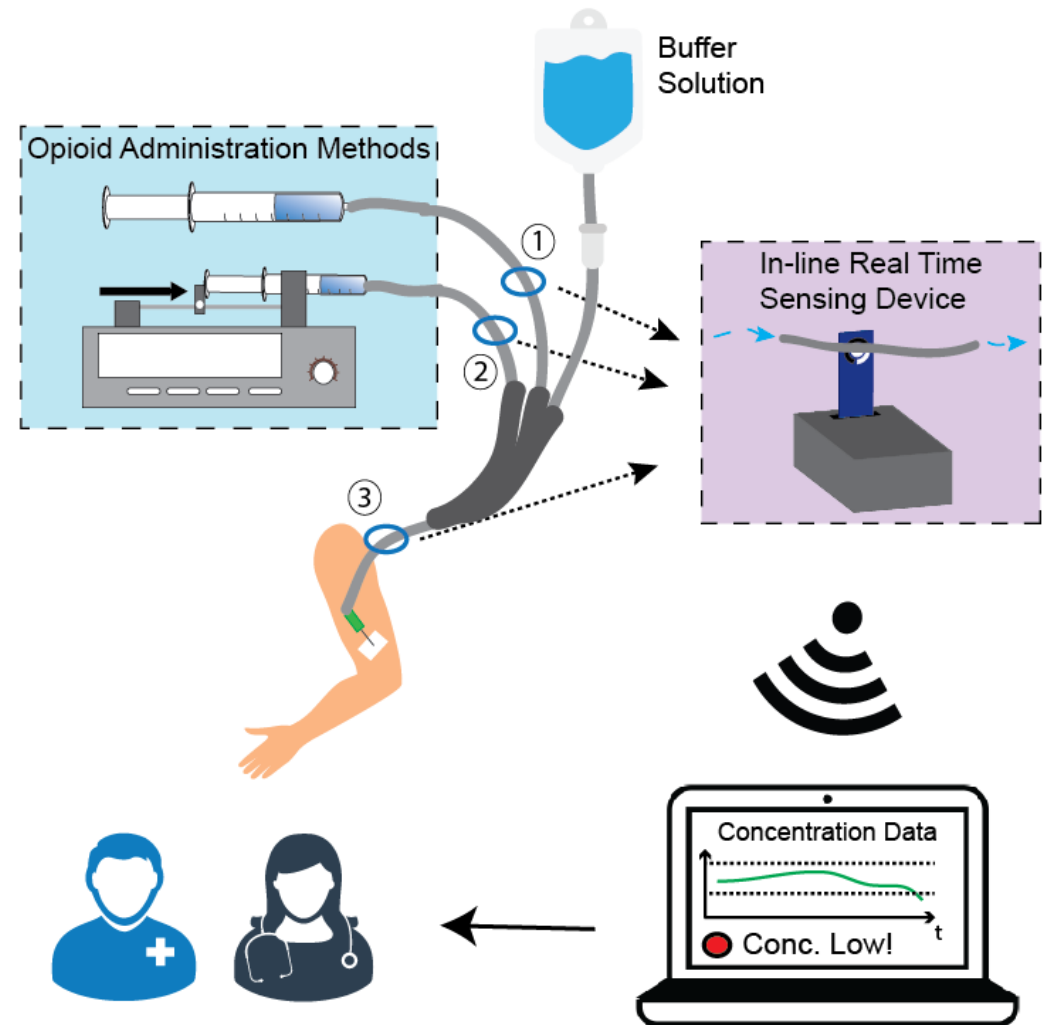
Current opioid administration procedures rely on trust and lack quantification!



“Closing the Loop” in Opioid Administration

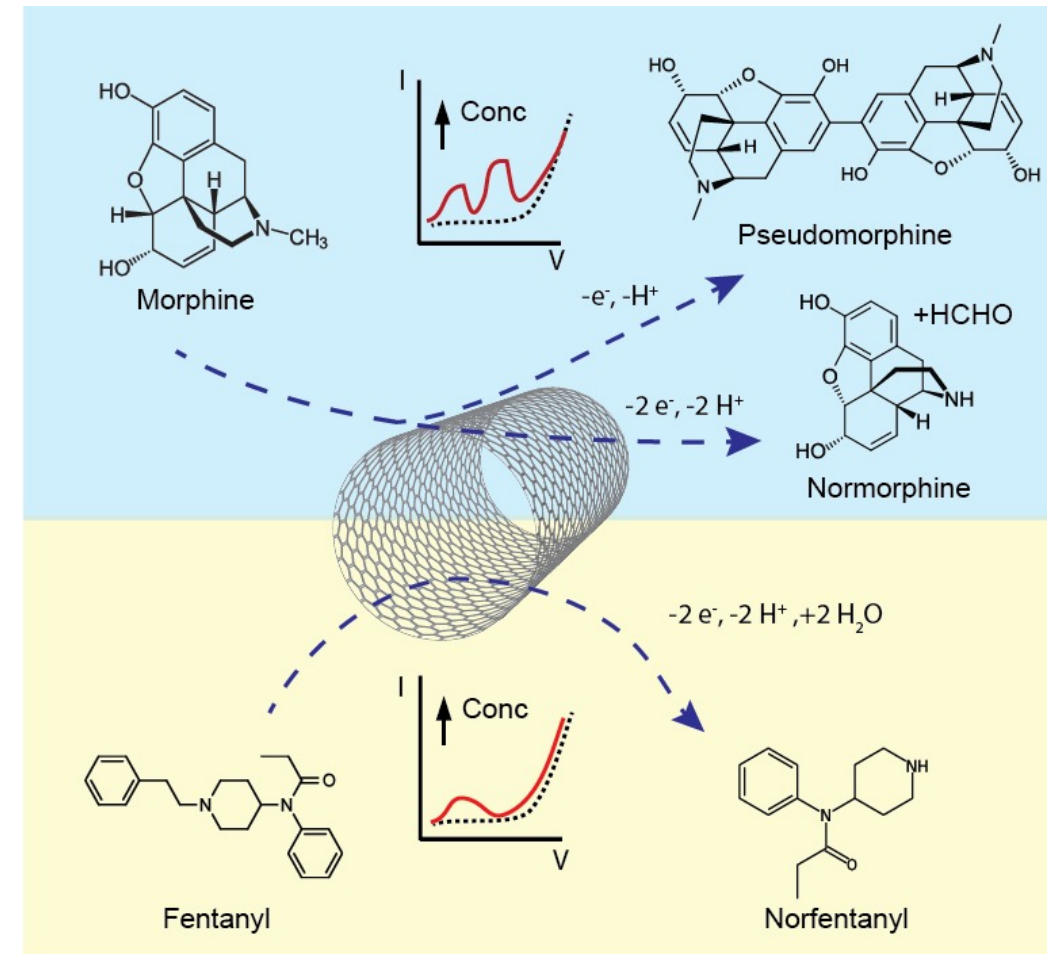
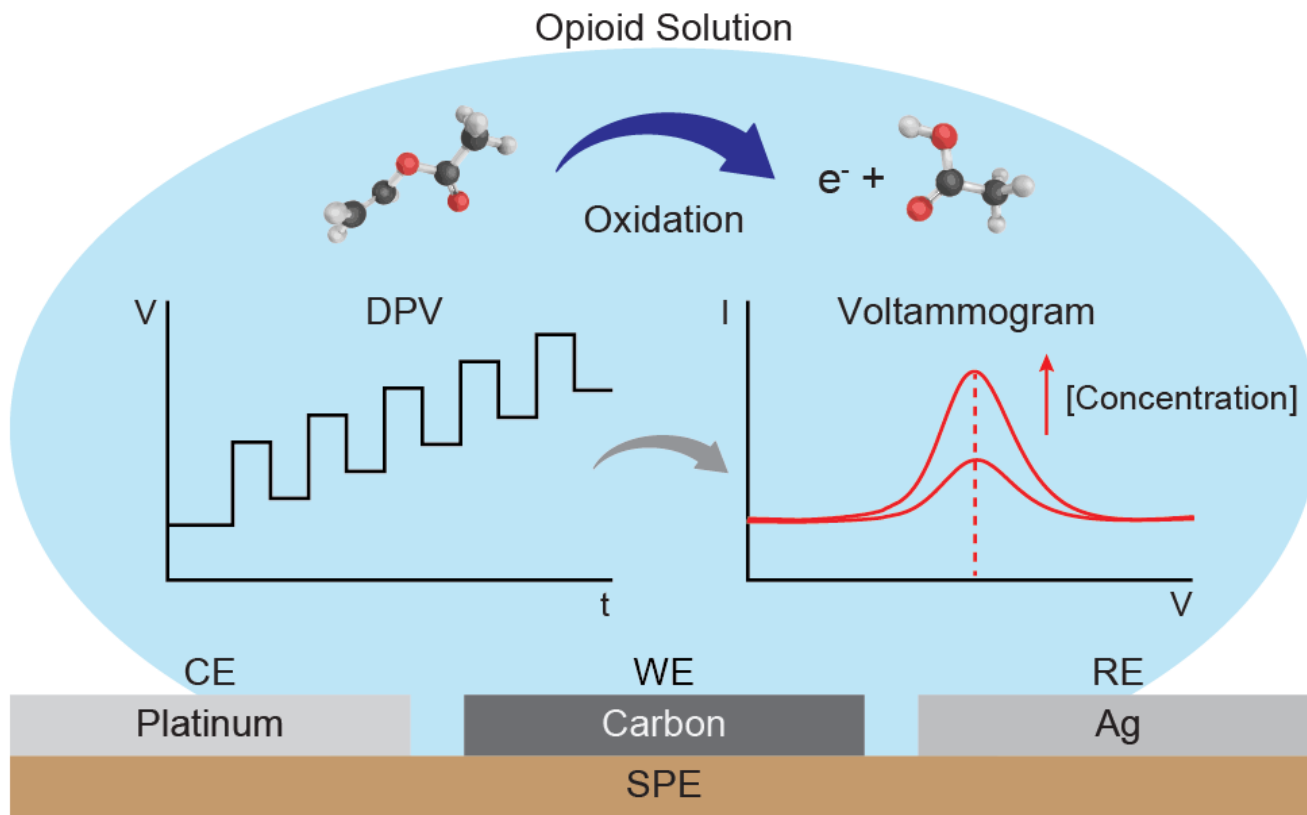
Possible Sensing Locations:

- 1 After bolus dosage
- 2 After continuous IV dosage
- 3 After dilution with buffer solution



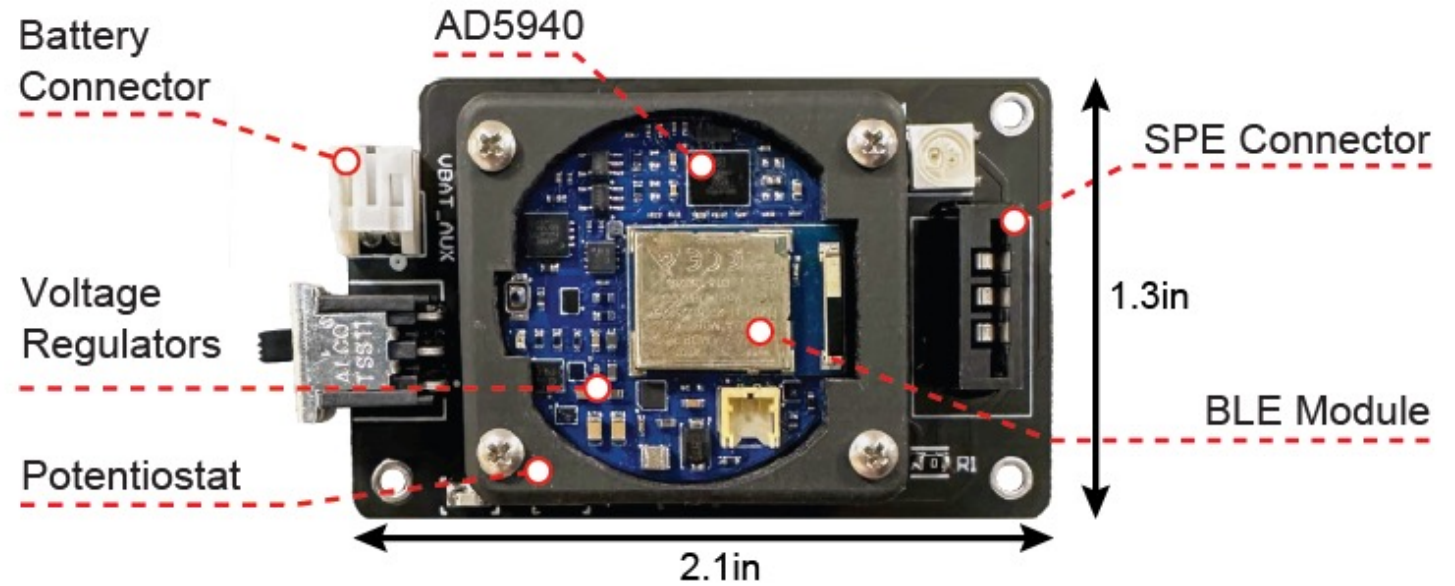
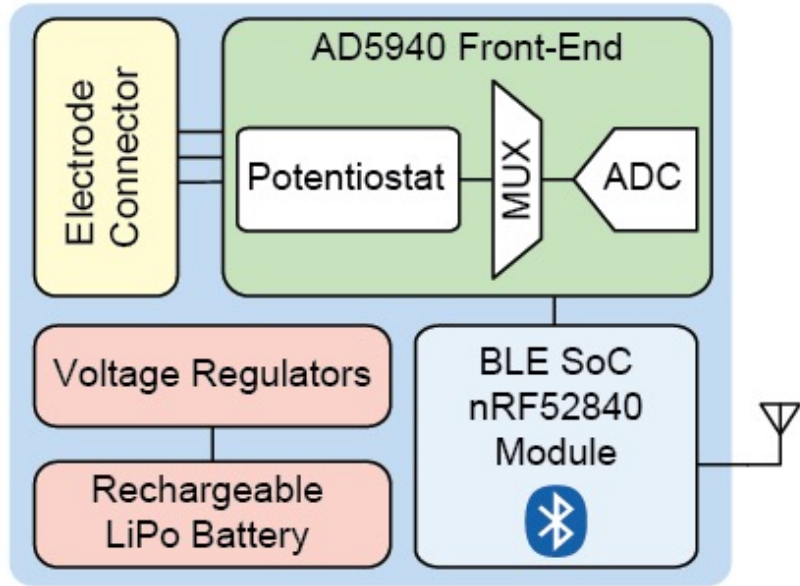
Goal: Enable real-time analytical verification of intravenous opioid concentrations

Direct Electrooxidation



- Direct electrooxidation allows opioids to be detected through their voltage peak positioning
- Differential Pulse Voltammetry (DPV) chosen for enhanced sensitivity

Implemented System

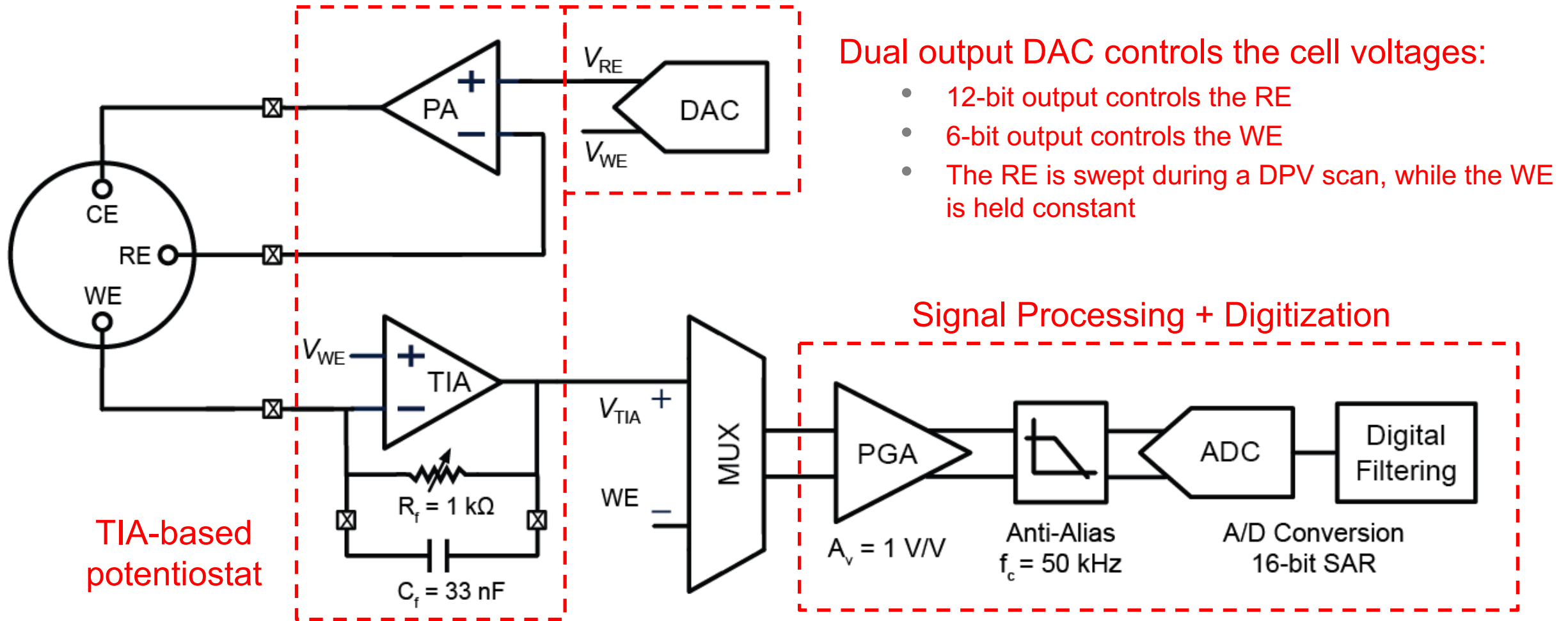


- Miniaturized electrochemical sensing system
- Battery-powered and wireless electronics
- Built around the fully integrated AD5940 potentiostat chip



Signal Path for DPV Scans

All blocks shown are integrated inside the AD5940:

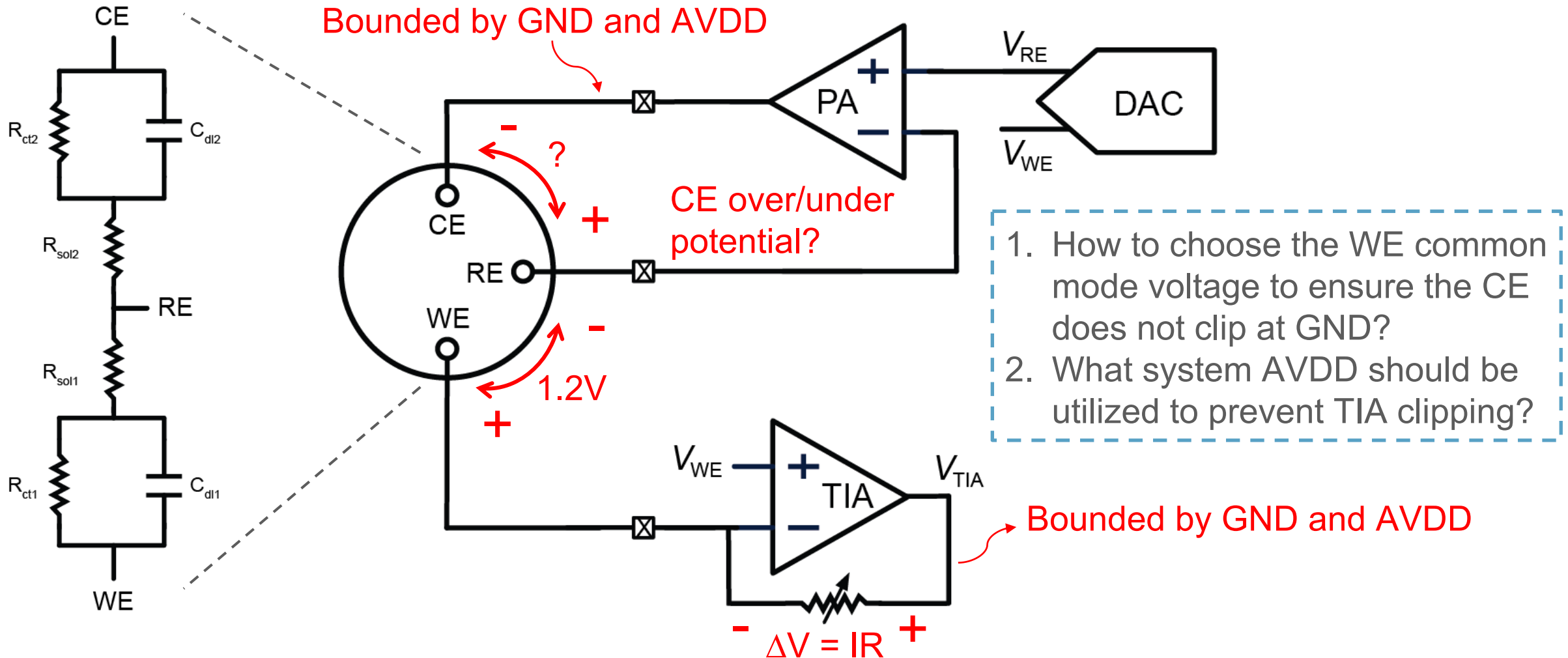


Reconfigurability of the front-end enables detection of other opioids beyond fentanyl/morphine



The Challenge of CE and TIA Clipping

Electro-oxidative detection of fentanyl and morphine requires DPV scans up to ~1.2V



Clipping at the amplifier outputs causes incomplete settling and measurement distortion

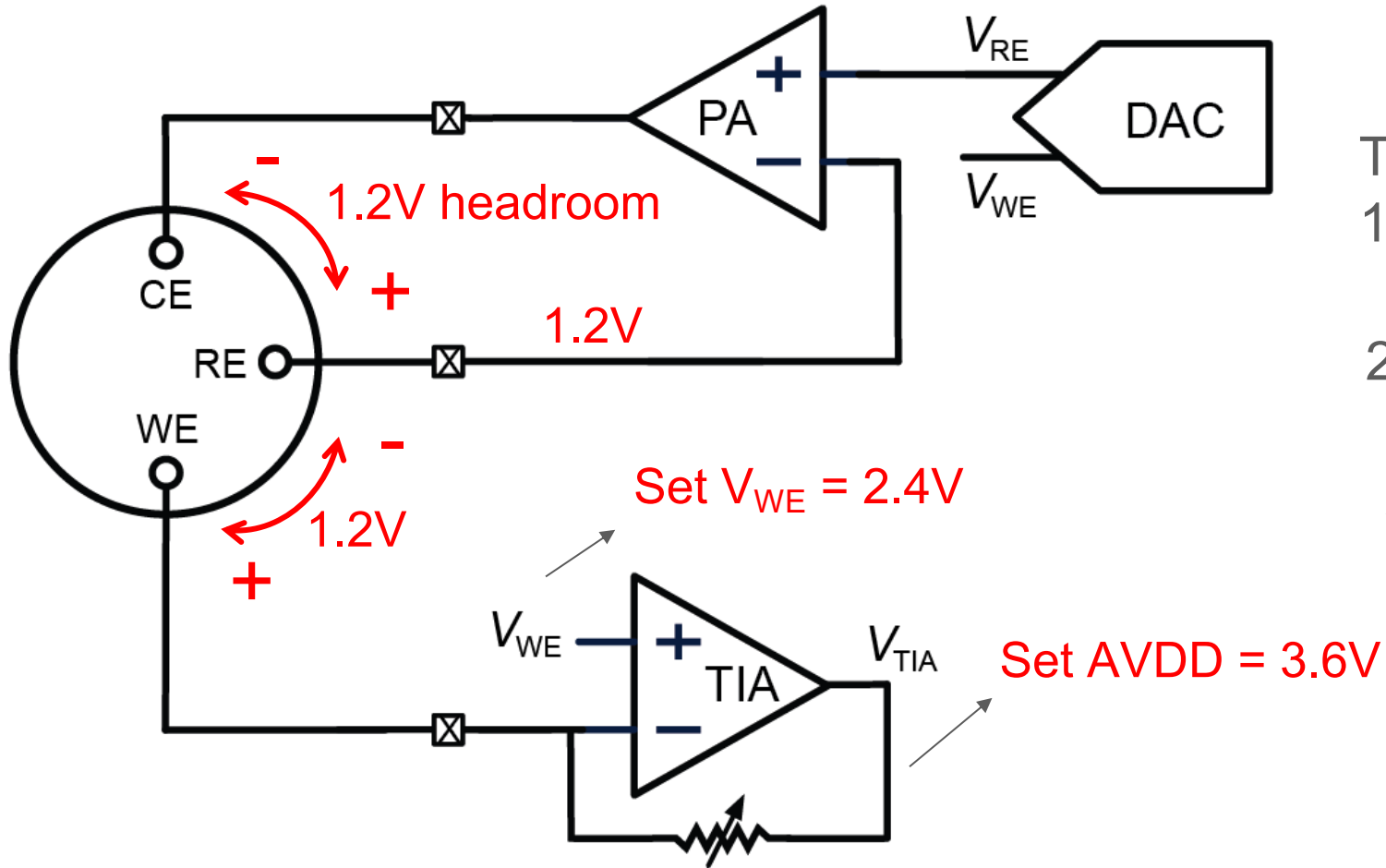


Mitigating Clipping Inside the Potentiostat

CE clipping can be mitigated by maximizing V_{WE} , however...

The AFE supports:

- $0.2V \leq V_{WE} \leq 2.4V$
- $2.8V \leq AVDD \leq 3.6V$



Two ways to avoid TIA clipping:

1. Reduce TIA gain
 - Loss in sensitivity (*unacceptable*)
2. Maximize supply voltage AVDD
 - Increased power consumption

★ Additionally, utilizing a lower resistance CE material (ie: Pt instead of Carbon) can greatly reduce the CE overpotential ★

Scanning up to a large potential requires maximizing the potentiostat compliance voltage



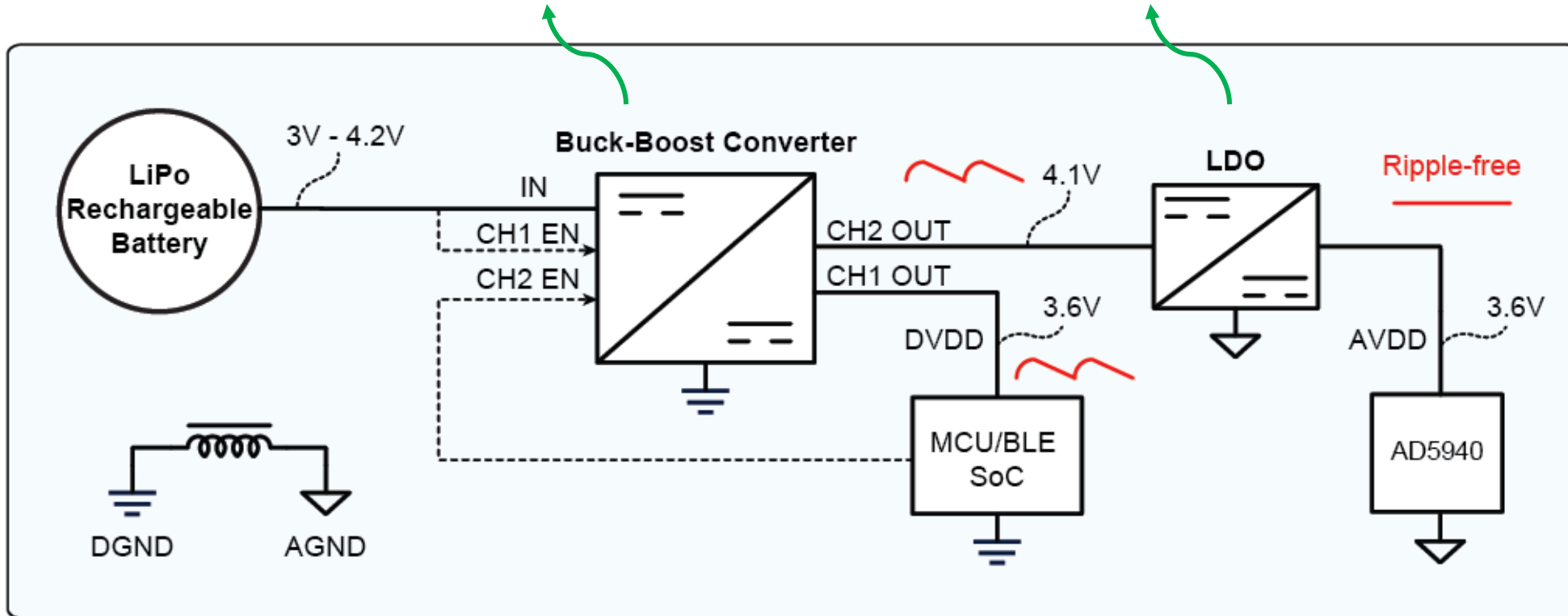
System Power Management

MAX17270:

- Triple output, single inductor, Buck-Boost
- $I_Q = 1.05\mu\text{A}$ (two channels)
- Allows for power gating the AFE in sleep mode

TPS7A2036:

- Low noise, high PSRR, LDO
- $I_Q = 6.5\mu\text{A}$
- Provides ripple-free supply at 3.6V for the AFE



Architecture leverages the entire battery range while consuming ultra-low quiescent power



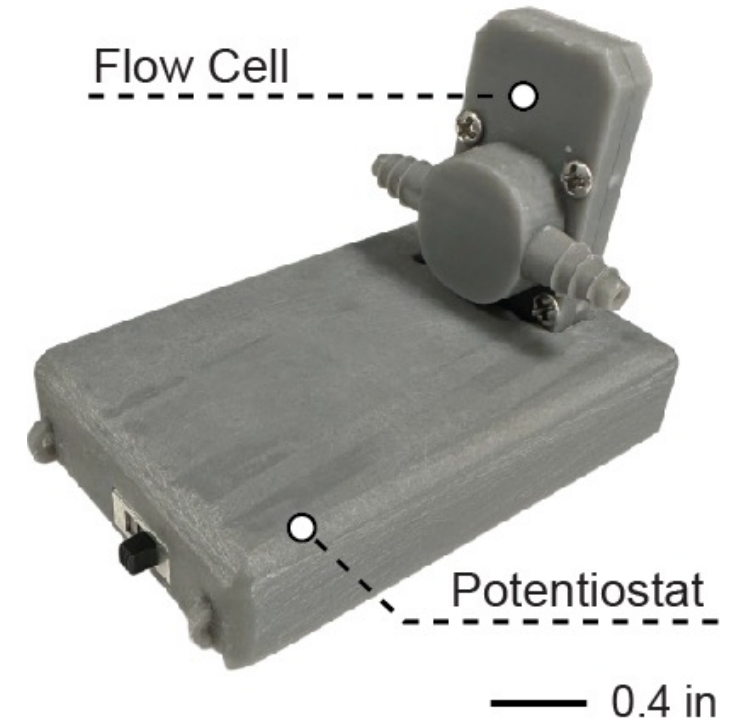
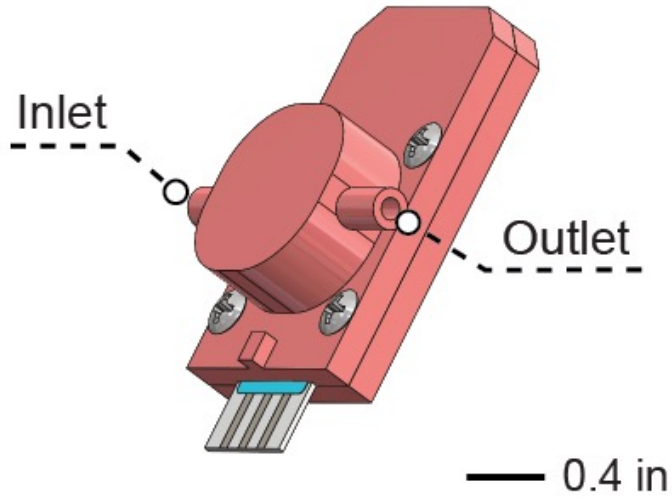
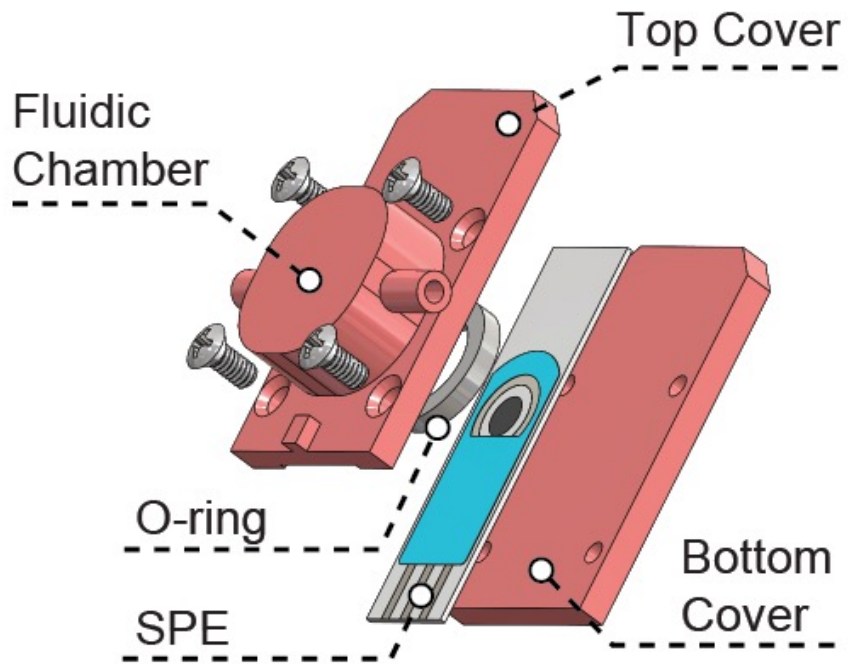
3D Printed Flow Cell and Mechanical Assembly

Flow Cell houses the electrochemical sensor:

- Serves as a fluidic chamber with O-ring sealing
- In/outlet allow for connection to IV bag tubing
- Volume of $\sim 80\mu\text{L}$

Potentiostat casing:

- Easy dis/assembly for one-time-use SPEs
- Battery placed inside casing





Device Firmware Operation

MCU enables interrupt-based tasks:

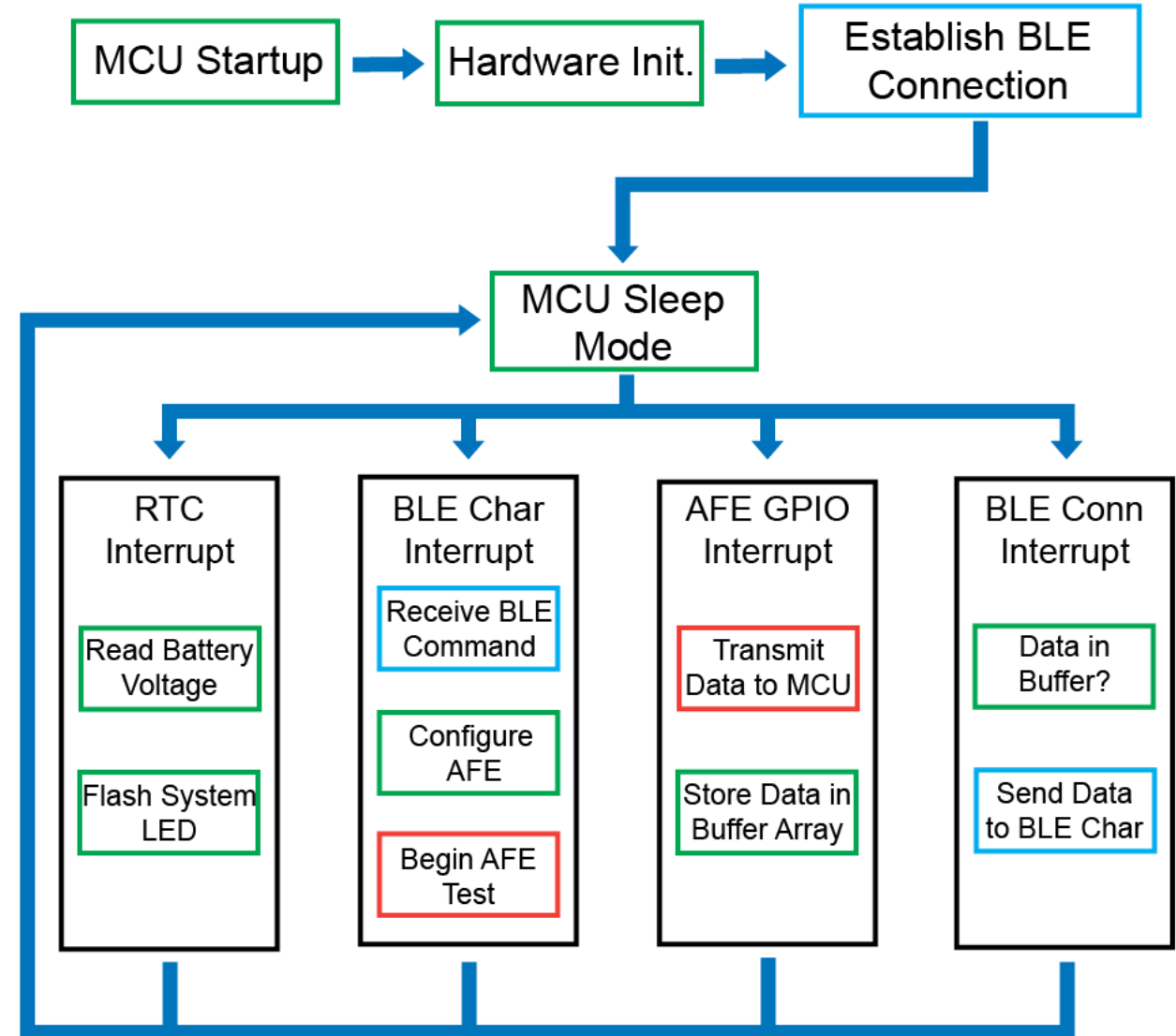
- Majority of time spent in sleep mode

System Power Consumption:

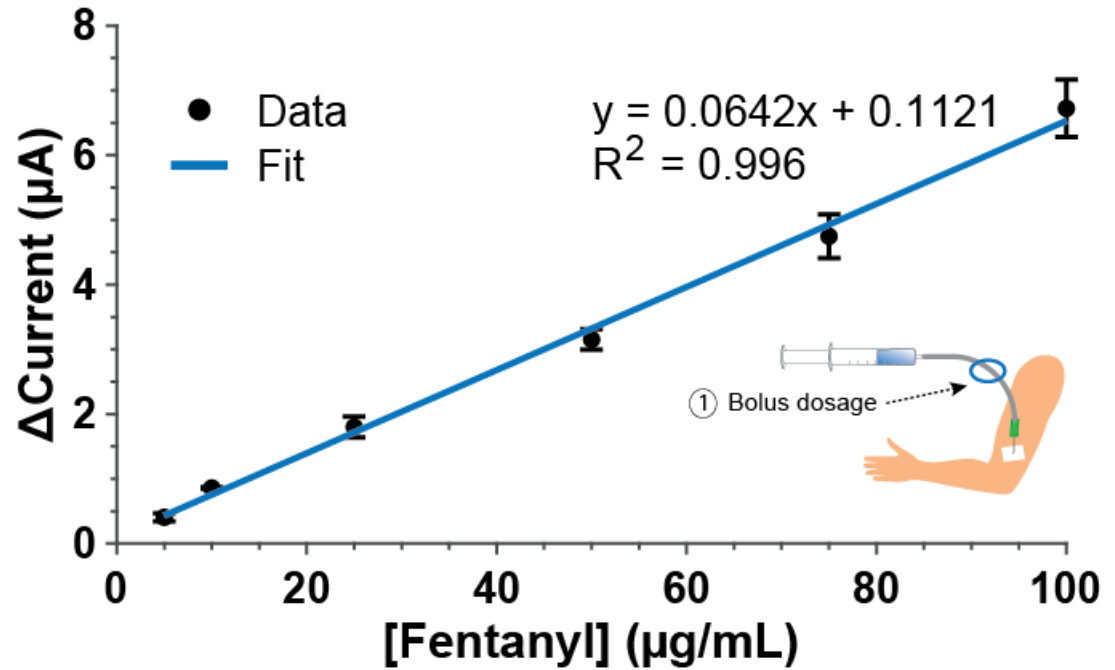
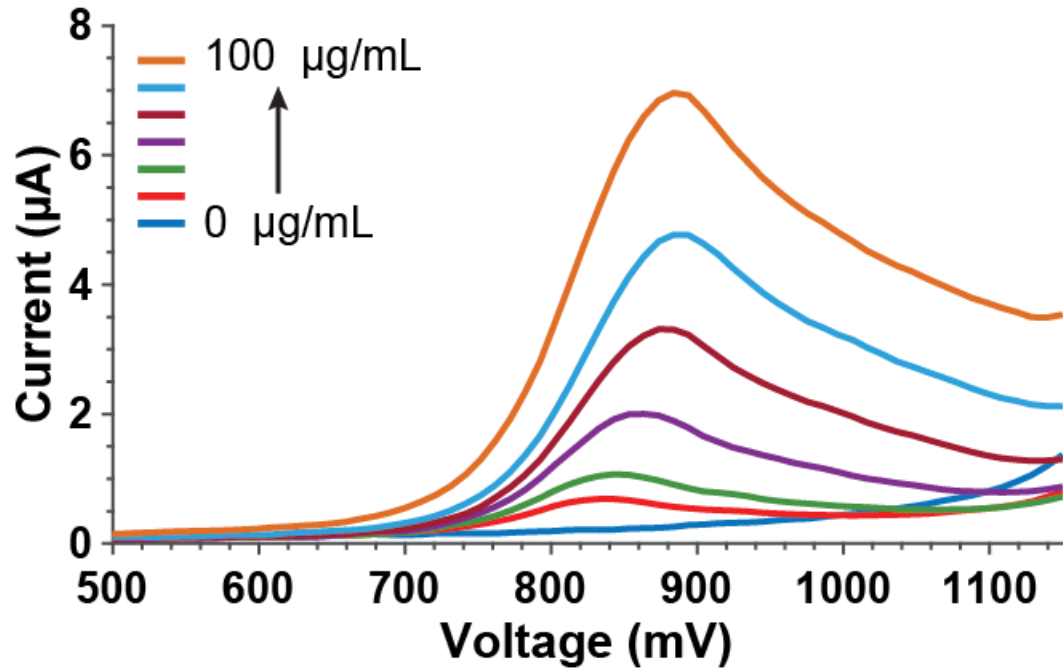
- Sleep Mode: **36 μ A** (including BLE)
- Active Mode: **12.3mA** (running DPV)

Battery Lifetime (500mAh LiPo):

- 3.9 days (sampling every minute)
- 36.75 days (sampling every 10 minutes)



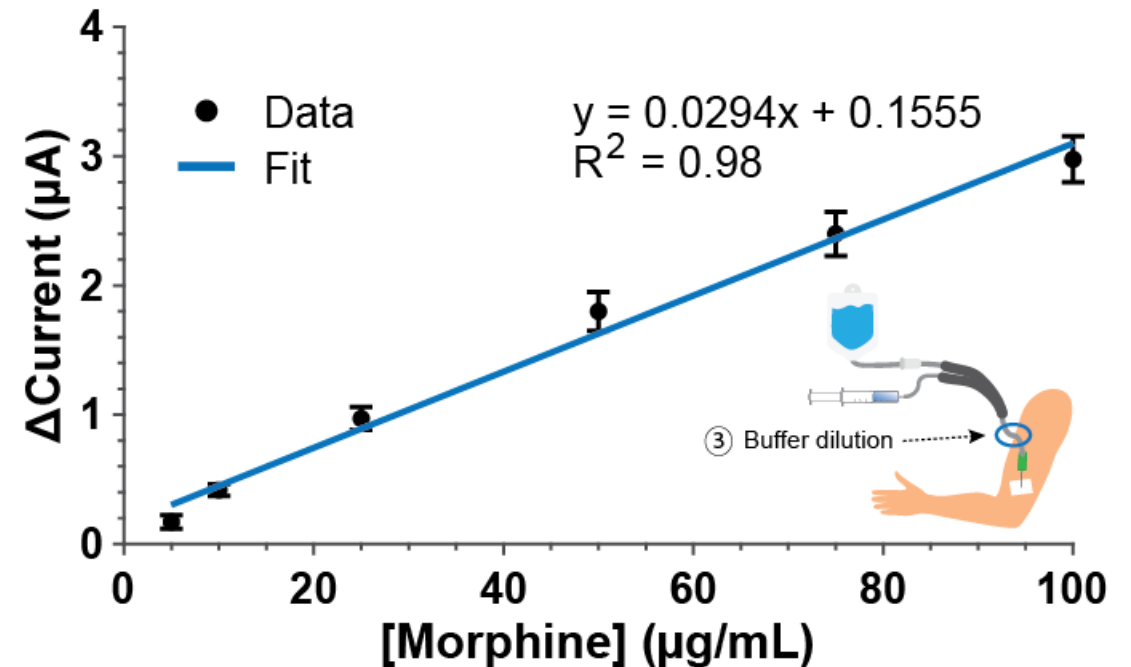
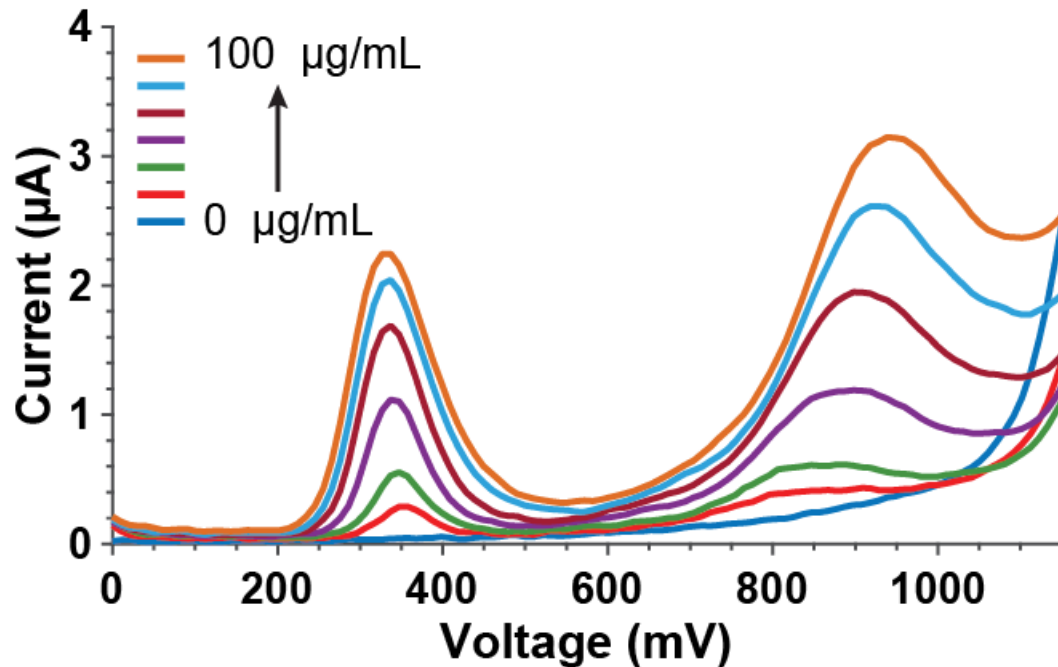
Fentanyl Measurements



- Fentanyl solution measured at 0, 5, 10, 25, 50, 75, and 100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$
- Measured using SPE-150: platinum CE, carbon WE, silver RE
- DPV parameters: $E_{\text{step}} = 10.2\text{mV}$, $E_{\text{pulse}} = 25\text{mV}$, $t_{\text{pulse}} = 50\text{ms}$, Scan rate = 51mV/s
- Sensitivity = $64.2\text{nA} / (\mu\text{g/mL})$

Sensor achieves a linear response with an LoD = $1.26\mu\text{g/mL}$

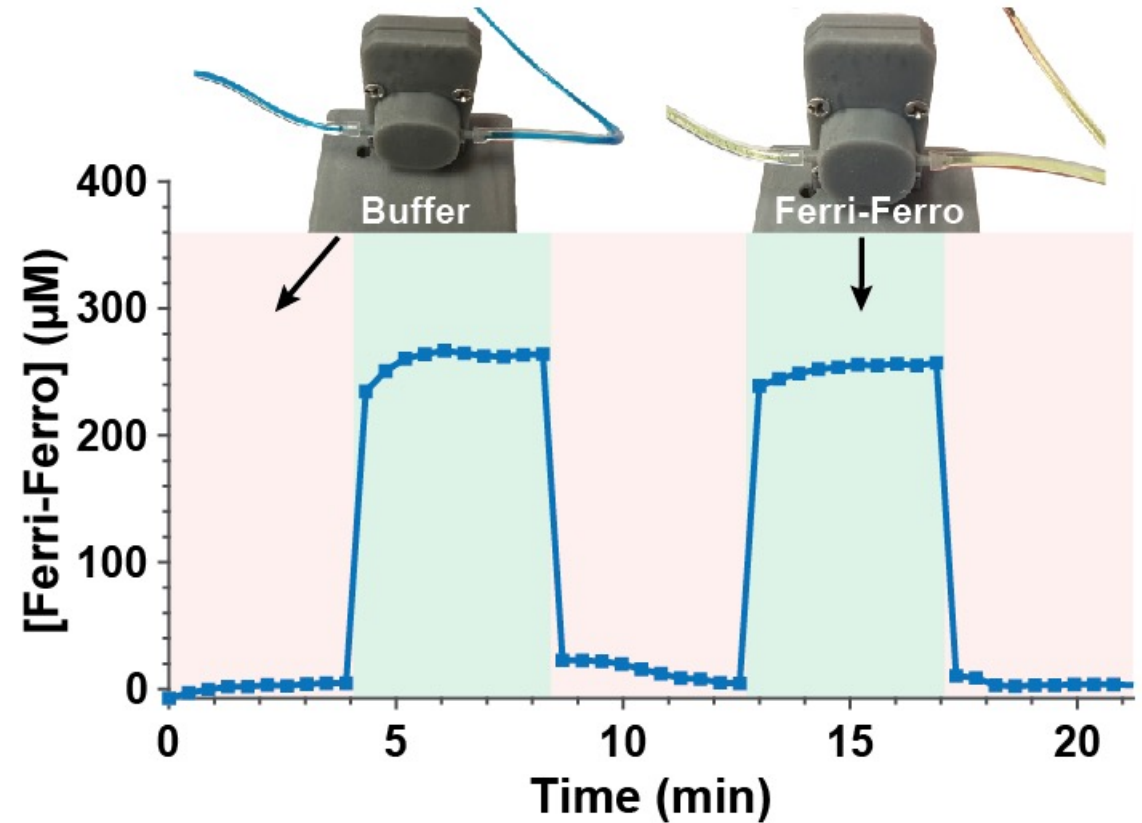
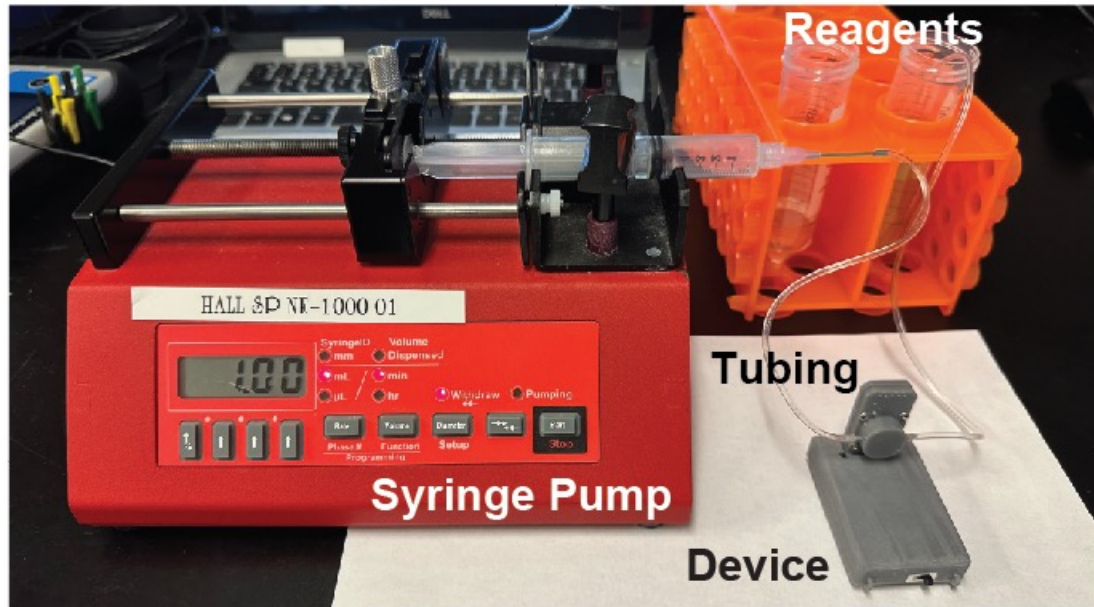
Morphine Measurements



- Morphine solution measured at 0, 5, 10, 25, 50, 75, and 100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$
- Measured using SPE-150: platinum CE, carbon WE, silver RE
- DPV parameters: $E_{\text{step}} = 10.2\text{mV}$, $E_{\text{pulse}} = 25\text{mV}$, $t_{\text{pulse}} = 50\text{ms}$, Scan rate = 51mV/s
- Sensitivity = $29.4\text{nA} / (\mu\text{g/mL})$

Sensor achieves a linear response with an LoD = $2.75\mu\text{g/mL}$

Real-time Flow Measurements



- The flow cell, SPE, and wireless device were installed onto a syringe pump
- Alternated 1x PBS and 250µM potassium ferri-/ferro-cyanide ($K_3[Fe(CN)_6]$) / ($K_4[Fe(CN)_6]$)
- Flow rate set to 1mL/min to mimic clinical opioid administration rates

Square wave data validates the reported system for accurate real-time fluidic measurements



Conclusions and Outlook

- A system for real-time intravenous opioid monitoring was presented to prevent solution tampering and ensure accurate pain medication dosage to patients
- Custom hardware and firmware was designed to enable battery-powered and wireless measurements:
 - System consumes **36 μ A** in sleep mode and **12.3mA** in active mode
 - Long lasting battery lifetime was achieved (> **1 month** sampling every 10 minutes)
- Fentanyl and Morphine concentration curve data were measured via direct electrooxidation and DPV using SPEs
 - LoDs of **1.26 μ g/mL** and **2.75 μ g/mL** were achieved for fentanyl and morphine, respectively
- Continuous flow rate measurements were taken to validate the system's utility in a clinical IV drip bag scenario
- But...many other drugs have an electrochemical signature! This platform could be extended to applications like personalized medicine and metabolite monitoring



Thanks and Questions

Q&A