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# A Multimodal and Multifunctional CMOS Cellular Interfacing Array for Digital Physiology and Pathology Featuring an Ultra Dense Pixel Array and Reconfigurable Sampling Rate

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Abstract— The article presents a fully integrated multimodal and multifunctional CMOS biosensing/actuating array chip and system for multi-dimensional cellular/tissue characterization. The CMOS chip supports up to 1,568 simultaneous parallel readout channels across 21,952 individually addressable multimodal pixels with 13  $\mu$ m  $\times$  13  $\mu$ m 2-D pixel pitch along with 1,568 Pt reference electrodes. These features allow the CMOS array chip to perform multimodal physiological measurements on living cell/tissue samples with both high throughput and single-cell resolution. Each pixel supports three sensing and one actuating modalities, each reconfigurable for different functionalities, in the form of full array (FA) or fast scan (FS) voltage recording schemes, bright/dim optical detection, 2-/4-point impedance sensing (ZS), and biphasic current stimulation (BCS) with adjustable stimulation area for single-cell or tissue-level stimulation. Each multi-modal pixel contains an 8.84 µm × 11 µm Pt electrode, 4.16 µm × 7.2 µm photodiode (PD), and in-pixel circuits for PD measurements and pixel selection. The chip is fabricated in a standard 130nm BiCMOS process as a proof of concept. The on-chip electrodes are constructed by unique design and in-house post-CMOS fabrication processes, including a critical Al shorting of all pixels during fabrication and Al etching after fabrication that ensures a high-yield planar electrode array on CMOS with high biocompatibility and long-term measurement reliability. For demonstration, extensive biological testing is performed with human and mouse progenitor cells, in which multidimensional biophysiological data are acquired for comprehensive cellular characterization.

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H. Wang was with the School of Electrical and Computer Engineering, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA 30332 USA. He is now with the Department of Information Technology and Electrical Engineering, ETH Zurich, 8092 Zurich, Switzerland (e-mail: huawang@ethz.ch). *Index Terms*— Biosensor, cell-based assay, cellular recording, COVID-19, digital pathology, digital physiology, high resolution, high throughput, impedance sensing, microelectrode array (MEA), multifunctionality, multimodality, optical detection, pandemic, parallel recording, stimulation, switch matrix (SM).

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#### I. INTRODUCTION

With pandemic monitoring and control becoming of paramount importance in public health, the technology need for digital physiology and pathology, which is a collection of high-resolution cellular/tissue-level images uploaded to the cloud for remote analytics and diagnostics [1-3], has rapidly increased to overcome the limitations of in-person lab services, such as processing throughputs and increased exposure risks to patients/medical professionals [4-6]. Currently, cellular physiology diagnoses rely on high-resolution medical imaging [7], and when translated to the cellular or tissue level, these images, even with distinct biomarkers, may not holistically define the prognosis of specific pathogen infections due to the cell's complicated multi-physiological responses [8, 9]. New pathogen or virus varieties, in particular, frequently demonstrate unknown adverse impacts on cellular physiological functions. Recently, various biological, biomedical, healthcare, and pathology applications such as physiological parameterization, drug discovery, COVID-19 detection, and pathophysiological analysis have resorted to CMOS-integrated biosensor arrays over traditional

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Fig. 1. Concept of the multimodal/multifunctional CMOS cellular interface array for digital pathology/physiology.

microelectrode arrays (MEAs) for massive parallelism and enhanced throughput in diagnostics [10-31]. In particular, the virtual acquisition, management, interpretation, and diagnosis from digital physiology and pathology can be significantly facilitated using CMOS-integrated biosensor arrays, providing a paradigm shift in these disciplines. Although current CMOS cell-based biosensors provide a wide range of sensing capabilities, most of them each specialize in a single modality such as CMOS-based MEAs, where only electrophysiological data can be recorded [24, 32-38]. As a result, such platforms are only capable of monitoring one sort of biophysiological response and are incapable of capturing the cell's highly complicated and frequently unknown physiological responses [39, 40]. Though some sensor/actuator designs claim to be multi-functional, some of their modalities still rely on the same signal transduction mechanisms, such as wideband or narrowband biopotential monitoring or stimulation in electrical voltages/currents, and they are hence single-modality in nature [41-44].

CMOS-based biosensor arrays with in-pixel multimodal sensing for holistic cellular/tissue characterization were proposed and demonstrated in 2015 [8]. The monitoring of various parameters such as cellular potential, impedance, and optical responses in real time was achieved in each individually configured and controlled pixel, enabling a sensor array to monitor multiple cellular physiological properties at the single pixel level, radically extending our abilities to study digital physiology and pathology of cells and tissues. However, despite various previously reported multimodal CMOS biosensor arrays [8, 9, 14, 16, 17, 43-52] and considering their higher complexity compared to single-modal biosensors, there is still a great need to significantly advance multimodal CMOS biosensors arrays with higher pixel density, higher sampling rate, improved area efficiency, higher yield during post-CMOS processing, optimized electrodes for biological interfacing, and new reconfigurable sensing/actuation modalities. These desired features will enable next-generation digital physiology/pathology cellular characterization platforms to

extract a vast assortment of different physiological information from various cells under various settings, including those with fast physiological characteristics, such as neuron/cardiac cells.

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To address these challenges, this paper presents an extension of our CMOS cellular sensing and actuating array [45], conceptually shown in Fig. 1, with 21,952 individually addressable multimodal pixels with a 13-µm center-to-center pixel pitch fully integrated into a 2.91 mm  $\times$  1.28 mm active sensing area, achieving both single-cell resolution and tissuelevel field-of-view (FoV). Each pixel supports four multifunctional modalities, including three multi-modal sensing modalities, (1) full array (FA) or fast scan (FS) voltage recording (VR) to investigate cellular electrical activity and ion concentration [17, 42, 43], (2) bright/dim optical detection (OD) to examine cell morphology and transparency [51, 53], and (3) 2-/4-point impedance sensing (ZS) imaging to track cell adhesion and contractility [14, 43, 47, 54-56], as well as a cellular actuating modality in the form of single-cell/tissuelevel biphasic current stimulation (BCS) to achieve cell electrical stimulation, controlled charge delivery, and membrane electroporation [17, 57]. Each modality can be reconfigured for different functionalities with adjustable scan rates versus FOV in VR to operate as FA, which analyzes the whole active area, or FS, which enables the recording of sharp electrophysiological changes, variable reset periods in OD to accommodate bright or dim lighting, programmable selection of pixels in ZS to permit 2- or 4-point ZS, and configurable stimulation area in BCS to excite selective single cells in a culture or collectively a tissue sample. To our knowledge, this reported architecture provides the most multifunctional modalities for cellular interfacing, highest pixel density, and smallest pixel pitch size for high-resolution recording and imaging among reported CMOS multi-modality cellular arrays with OD. The device can support up to 1,568 simultaneous parallel recording channels enabling high throughput recording. With the combination of the reconfigurable scan rate of up to an extremely fast 45.8 kS/s, state-of-the-art ultra-high density multifunctional multimodal pixel array of 5893 pixels/mm<sup>2</sup>, and an extremely biocompatible and chemically stable electrode array from our novel design and high-yield in-house post-CMOS fabrication process which achieves 100% electrode deposition coverage over the pixel array without peel off, our platform can readily extract different cellular physiological features with rapid features with minimal cell death for long periods (> 1 month) and uniquely advance holistic cellular and tissue characterizations. With the combination of an ultra-fast scan rate of up to 45.8 kS/s and small pixel size of  $13 \times 13 \,\mu\text{m}^2$ , our cellular interfacing array seeks to eventually accurately capture and sort neural spikes with high signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) to provide a high-resolution mapping of a neural network.

This article is organized as follows. Section II explains the architecture and main circuit blocks of the demonstrated multimodal and multifunctional CMOS cellular interfacing chip. Section III details the novel in-house post-CMOS processing, packaging, and experimental measurement setup of the chip. Section IV presents the measurement results through electrical and extensive *in vitro* biological experiments with human and mouse progenitor cell cultures. Finally, Section V concludes this article.

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Fig. 2. (a) High-level system architecture of the integrated multi-modal/-functional CMOS sensing/actuating array. (b) Example of pixel selection process using the in-pixel circuitry. The highlighted green, violet, yellow, and red shadings represent the selected bank group, bank, bank column, and pixel row, respectively.

#### II. CMOS MULTI-MODAL MULTI-FUNCTIONAL CELLULAR SENSING/ACTUATING ARRAY

The system architecture of the demonstrated CMOS multimodal cellular interfacing array is depicted in Fig. 2a. The chip contains 16 multi-modal/-functional array blocks divided into four quadrants, digital serial peripheral interface (SPI) circuits to program the various circuit modules and functionalities onchip, and a clock generation module which provides the voltage excitation for complex ZS. Each array block contains circuits for all modalities/functionalities, switch matrix (SM), SPI controls, and readout with two 10-bit successive approximation (SAR) analog-to-digital converters (ADCs), with one ADC streaming out VR or ZS while the other ADC outputs OD data. Each array block contains 98 Pt reference electrodes (Eref) for VR and features 1,372 pixels divided into 14 pixel banks (98 pixels/bank) split between two bank groups (7 banks/group). Hence, with 16 array blocks  $\times$  2 groups/array block  $\times$  7 banks/group and 98 pixels/bank, the chip achieves a total of

21,952 13  $\mu$ m  $\times$  13  $\mu$ m pixels, which were compactly laid out within a 2.91 mm  $\times$  1.28 mm area, realizing an electrode density of 5893 pixels/mm<sup>2</sup>, enabling both single-cell resolution and tissue-level field-of-view (FoV). The resulting 2.91 mm  $\times$  1.28 mm sensing area reserves enough area for the analog front-end (AFE) and readout circuitries within the 7 mm  $\times$  7 mm chip area. Each pixel is comprised of one 8.84  $\mu$ m × 11  $\mu$ m Pt electrode, one 4.16 µm × 7.2 µm reverse-biased p+/n-well/psub photodiode (PD), circuits for PD measurements, and switches for the pixel selection. The pixel is laid out in a compact 13  $\mu$ m  $\times$  13  $\mu$ m footprint, the smallest reported multimodal sensing pixel containing a PD, while also comparable to or smaller than the sizes of previously reported single-modal pixels [58-61]. Fig. 2b details the pixel selection controlled by the SM. For OD, the SPD Group switch selects the bank group within an array block while SPD Bank specifies the bank within the group. Similarly, for all other modalities, S<sub>Group</sub> and S<sub>Bank</sub> determine which group and specific bank, respectively. For ZS and current stimulation modalities, the

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Fig. 3. FA and FS VR modality. (a) Pixel layout in a pixel bank with blue pixels representing FS pixels. (b) FA (orange) and FS (blue) digital control schematics. (c) First stage amplifier schematic used in VR. (d) VR modality circuit module. Simulation of VR AFE (e) linearity, (f) input-referred voltage noise with measurement comparison, and (g) input impedance.

switch matrix selects a specific column in the bank determined by  $S_{Bank}$  and the switch  $S_{Row}$  configures the pixel within the column. Each of the 7 pixels within a column has a  $S_{Row}$ controlled by a unique control signal. During VR, the  $S_{Row}$  is closed for all pixels across the bank's 14 columns. Therefore, by programming the array block/in-pixel SM, all pixels can be configured for any modality/functionality. For each modality/functionality, the switches to select the pixel group, bank, and row are preconfigured before recording to prevent the introduction of folding noise.

#### A. Full Array (FA) and Fast Scan (FS) Voltage Recording

To properly record subtle feature changes in fast physiological inputs, such as neuron action potentials (APs), the VR modality detailed in Fig. 3 inside each array block is adjustable for multiple sampling speeds and scan functionalities. During the VR modality, the in-pixel switches  $(S_{Group}/S_{Bank}/S_{Row})$  are enabled to choose one bank in an array

block while the OD switches (SPD\_Group/SPD\_Bank) are disabled. In the VR modality, switches operated by the digitally controlled time-division multiplexing (TDM) signals, shown in Fig. 3b, operate in either a Full Array (FA) or Fast Scan (FS) functionality. The FA functionality scans through each full pixel bank at a high pixel array resolution with 1,568 concurrent pixel readouts across 16 parallel array blocks. In contrast, the FS functionality samples every fifth pixel, as depicted in the color-coded pixel array in Fig. 3a, to achieve an increased sampling rate of 4.76 times at a lower pixel array resolution with 304 concurrent pixel readouts. The timing diagrams for the digital control of the FA and FS VR are illustrated in Fig. 4. The VR module shown in Fig. 3b-d consists of a 3-stage programmable differential amplifier chain that amplifies the detected differential biopotential signals between a Pt sensing electrode and Pt Eref. Each VR module has its own unique Pt E<sub>ref</sub> to accommodate a corresponding pixel in a bank,

	Full Array Voltage Recording Timing Diagram 1 Frame = 2600 CLK cycles Next Frame									Fast Scan Voltage Recording Timing Diagram 1 Frame = 546 CLK cycles Next Fra								me		
Pixel₁	20 CLK Time-Division Multiplexing CLK							Pixel₄	ixel4 20 CLK Time-Division Multiplexing CLK											
Pixel <sub>2</sub>		<b>_</b> *							Pixel₀		<b>↓</b>		<b>-</b>							
:	6 CLK	← Sv	vitching	:	Flag = High				:	_	6 CLK	-	Switching	:	Flag = Hig	τh				
Pixel <sub>98</sub>	Cycles		Bits						Pixel <sub>94</sub>		Cycles		Bits			,				
	(Flag1)	Pixel <sub>2</sub>	••• <b>M</b> Pi	ixel <sub>98</sub>	∭ Flag₂ ∭	Flag1	W Pixel <sub>2</sub>	•••		Flag <sub>2</sub>	(Pixel₄)	Pixel	<b>x x</b>	Pixel <sub>94</sub>	∭ Flag <sub>1</sub>	∭ Flag₂	( <mark>Pixel</mark> ₄)		' <mark>ixel</mark> 9	•••

Fig. 4. TDM timing diagram for FA and FS VR modality.



Fig. 5. Circuit module OD with its digital control schematics for bright (green) and dim (purple) functionalities.

preventing crosstalk over the 98 VR modules in an array block. In addition, only one bank per array block is active during VR, so the 98 reference electrodes are shared amongst the 14 banks within an array block. At the input of each amplifier stage, DCbiasing pseudo-resistors and AC coupling capacitors serve as a high-pass filter (HPF) with a 0.2 Hz cutoff. The second stage amplifier shares the same topology as the first stage amplifier in Fig. 3c. Although using one of the differential outputs of the second stage reduces the maximum realized gain by 6 dB, the loss of a 6 dB of gain is not significant since the 3-stage amplifier chain generated a gain of up to 70 dB, which is sufficient for cellular electrophysiology recording. At the output of the second amplifier, a low pass filter (LPF) with a cutoff of 22.5 kHz is implemented to eliminate high-frequency noise. The recording 0.7 Hz - 22.5 kHz bandwidth is adequate to collect the local field potential (LFP) and AP from neurons. Furthermore, each amplifier can be optionally employed with source degeneration, using the switch  $S_{DG}$  controlled by the SPI, to desensitize photo-resistive DC offsets brought on by leakage current and mismatches between input transistors and 3-bit tunable load resistors R<sub>L</sub>. Each array block contains 98 VR modules with each module corresponding to one of the 98 pixels from a pixel bank. The corresponding pixels from each of the 14 pixel banks share the same VR module. As the third amplifier stage, a voltage buffer is implemented to drive the subsequent programmable gain amplifier (PGA) input, which is shared by 98 VR modules through TDM, allowing quick tracking of the amplified signals. The AFE has a simulated 1 dB compression point at an input voltage amplitude of 195 mV, measured integrated noise of 10.5  $\mu V_{rms}$  and 4.35  $\mu V_{rms}$  in LFP and AP bands, respectively, and high input-impedance as demonstrated in Fig. 3e-f, which is more than sufficient to faithfully amplify and capture biological signals such as neural action potentials. In addition, the simulated CMRR and PSRR of the AFE are 65.4 and 51.3 dB, respectively. In the FS functionality, 19 of the 98 FA VR modules are chosen by the TDM to be selected as the 19 FS pixels that the ADC will read out. The VR module is linked to TDM switches and two data



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Fig. 6. TDM timing diagram for bright/dim OD.

reference flags, followed by a PGA sampled at 961.5 kHz by a 10-bit SAR ADC, yielding sampling speeds in the FA and FS functionalities of 9.62 kHz/pixel over 98 pixels in a bank, totaling 1,568 parallel pixel readouts over 16 array blocks and 45.8 kHz/pixel for 19 pixels/bank, resulting in 304 concurrent pixels across the 16 array blocks, respectively. The sampling rate provided by the FS functionality is essential for precisely capturing, sorting, and reconstructing acute neuronal APs and local field potentials [62, 63]. The ultra-fast scan rate from the FS functionality enables high SNR recording while the small pixel size of  $13 \times 13 \ \mu\text{m}^2$  provides high-resolution cellular electrical network mapping when utilizing the FA functionality. The gain of the whole VR modality can be tuned from 15 – 70 dB, allowing the VR dynamic range to be adjusted to accommodate varying cell positioning and activity levels.

## B. Bright or Dim Light Optical Detection

The OD modality captures the optical shadow imaging of cells to observe cell positioning, morphology, and transparency variations, which eliminates the need for large and costly conventional optical setups in cell imaging [51, 53]. During the OD modality, the in-pixel switches ( $S_{PD\_Group}/S_{PD\_Bank}$ ) are switched on to choose one bank in an array block while the other modality switches ( $S_{Group}/S_{Bank}/S_{Row}$ ) are turned off. The TDM signals and switching can be programmed, as shown in Fig. 5 with its timing diagram drawn in Fig. 6, to operate in either a bright or dim functionality, which resets the PD<sub>rst</sub> signal with TDM every 4 or 8 frames, respectively, with each frame



Fig. 7. (a) Circuit module for the 2-/4-point ZS modality and its digital control. (b) TDM timing diagram for ZS. (c) Measured electrochemical impedance spectroscopy overlayed with fitted values using extracted electrode-electrolyte impedance model of the pixel's microelectrode.

representing 2,600 clock cycles. The OD module in Fig. 5 consists of a reverse-biased p+/n-well/p-substrate PD with a PD reset nMOS transistor switch with the drain and source connected to VDD<sub>PD</sub> and a source-follower amplifier, respectively, cascaded pMOS transistors with switches to enable (EN<sub>PD</sub> high) or disable ( $\overline{EN_{PD}}$  high) OD, and TDM signals/switches. The nMOS transistor switch is activated during the reset period where the PD<sub>rst</sub> node becomes high, charging the cathode of the PD to VDD<sub>PD</sub> (1.2 V) during 20 clock cycles. The nMOS switches are disabled after the reset time, and the parasitic device capacitors at the gate of the pMOS source follower are discharged by the photocurrent produced in the PD over 10380 or 20780 clock cycles under the bright or dim functionality, respectively. Each array block contains 98 OD modules with each module corresponding to one of the 98 pixels from a pixel bank. The corresponding pixels from each of the 14 pixel banks share the same OD module. The 98 OD modules are connected to TDM switches to a buffer sampled at 384 kHz by a 10-bit SAR ADC, vielding sampling speeds of 3.84 kHz/pixel for 1,568 parallel OD pixel outputs across 16 array blocks. With the bright functionality, the chip is exposed to a higher intensity light source in which a better contrast for cellular transparency/morphology can be detected without the PD discharging too fast and saturating because the discharging voltage slope is proportional to optical intensity. With the dim functionality, the chip is exposed to a low intensity light source to prevent phototoxicity and accidental photo-stimulation of cells [64, 65].

#### C. Two-Point and Four-Point Complex Impedance Sensing

The circuit module involved in 2- and 4-point, or -electrode, complex impedance detection is described in Fig. 7a with the timing diagram for the digital control shown in Fig. 7b. The standard 2-point approach detects the electrodeelectrolyte/medium interfacial impedance modeled in Fig. 7c from both electrodes in series with the load impedance, in this case, the cell impedance, by dividing the excitation voltage supplied to an excitation pixel over a measured current from a terminal pixel [16, 51]. The 2-point cellular impedance sensing is widely used in CMOS cellular sensor arrays due to their circuit simplicity, low overhead, and high spatial resolution.

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However, the 2-point impedance measurements will become problematic when electrodes are scaled down because the electrode-electrolyte interfacial impedance starts to dominate sample impedance, especially at lower frequencies [66-68]. With 4-point impedance, the double layer capacitance  $(C_{dl})$  and charge transfer resistance (R<sub>ct</sub>) from the electrode-electrolyte impedance presented in Fig. 7c are eliminated since the differential voltage between two adjacent pixels is detected and divided by the measured current. Eliminating the electrodemedium impedance enables accurate surveillance of cell adhesion, proliferation, and membrane impedance over the CMOS cellular interfacing array [14, 47]. The 4-point ZS consists of four pixels: ZEX for in-phase voltage excitation, ZVR1 and Z<sub>VR2</sub> for differential voltage sensing, and Z<sub>TERM</sub> for current sensing, which can be configured in any orientation within a pixel bank column through a switch matrix. The 2-point ZS omits the two differential voltage sensing pixels  $VR_1$  and  $VR_2$ .

To begin the impedance detection, four neighboring pixels in a bank column are picked via in-pixel switches and the switch matrix. During the ZS modality, the in-pixel switches (SGroup/SBank) are enabled to choose one bank in an array block while the OD switches (SPD\_Group/SPD\_Bank) are disabled. The switch S<sub>Row</sub> determines the role of a pixel within a 7-pixel column ( $Z_{EX}/Z_{VR1}/Z_{VR2}/Z_{TERM}$ /unused). The first electrode  $Z_{EX}$ provides a programmable 11.6 - 500 mV amplitude, 15 - 500 kHz voltage excitation signal,  $V_{ex} = A \sin(\omega t)$ , sourced from an externally provided clock signal, Z-CLK. Z-CLK is delivered into a digital divide-by-2 logic circuit, which creates two clock signals that are 90° phase-shifted with respect to one another. These signals are routed via a 6-bit programmable 4<sup>th</sup>order LPF to generate in-phase and quadrature-phase (I/Q) sinusoidal signals which are also fed to the mixers in the signal processing circuits. For voltage excitation, the in-phase

sinusoidal signal passes through a 5-bit attenuator (0 - 42 dB)decrease its amplitude to avert any undesirable to electrochemical reactions through the Pt microelectrode and culture medium. The attenuated signal is utilized for voltage excitation and is transmitted to a voltage buffer, which drives the excitation electrode, Z<sub>EX</sub>. The current generated by the voltage stimulation flows through the cells and into the fourth electrode, Z<sub>TERM</sub>, which is connected to a resistive transimpedance amplifier (TIA) with a transimpedance gain tunable from 20 k $\Omega$  to 200 k $\Omega$ . The TIA detects the complex current signal, performs current-to-voltage conversion, and is amplified by a PGA with a gain from 0.2 to 23 dB. For signal processing, the output is delivered to a differential mixer with a conversion gain of 12 dB, which demodulates the measured signal and extracts its real and imaginary components, followed by a programmable LPF, resulting in the down-converted current sensing signals I<sub>I</sub> and I<sub>O</sub>. To calibrate the offsets, the impedance sensing modality is first operated in the absence of an excitation signal to obtain the reference down-converted current sensing signals  $I_{Iref}$  and  $I_{Qref}$ . Therefore, with  $Z_{EX}$  and Z<sub>TERM</sub> electrodes, the magnitude and phase of the 2-point impedance can be calculated as shown in (1) and (2), respectively.

$$\left| Z_{2-pt} \right| = \frac{A}{\sqrt{\left( I_l - I_{Iref} \right)^2 + \left( I_Q - I_{Qref} \right)^2}} \tag{1}$$

$$\angle Z_{2-pt} = -\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{I_l - I_{lref}}{I_Q - I_{Qref}}\right) \tag{2}$$

To obtain the 4-point impedance, a differential voltage sensing amplifier with a gain of 0.2 - 23 dB detects the voltage difference between the second and third electrodes (Z<sub>VR1</sub> and Z<sub>VR2</sub>), which is then transformed to complex voltage signals via signal processing through mixers (12 dB) and LPFs. The down-converted signals V<sub>I</sub> and V<sub>Q</sub> are obtained with the presence of the excitation signal while the reference signals V<sub>Iref</sub> and V<sub>Qref</sub> are recorded in the absence of an excitation signal. With all four pixels, the derived magnitude and phase components of the complex 4-point impedance are presented in (3) and (4), respectively.

$$\left|Z_{4-pt}\right| = \frac{\sqrt{\left(V_{l}-V_{lref}\right)^{2} + \left(V_{Q}-V_{Qref}\right)^{2}}}{\sqrt{\left(I_{l}-I_{lref}\right)^{2} + \left(I_{Q}-I_{Qref}\right)^{2}}}$$
(3)

$$\angle Z_{4-pt} = \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{V_l - V_{lref}}{V_Q - V_{Qref}} \right) - \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{I_l - I_{lref}}{I_Q - I_{Qref}} \right)$$
(4)

With 2-point impedance sensing,  $Z_{EX}$  and  $Z_{TERM}$  can be arranged adjacently so the impedance between two adjacent pixels can be obtained for higher resolution impedance mapping. On the other hand, 4-point impedance removes the high impedance of the C<sub>dl</sub> and R<sub>ct</sub> of the subcellular Pt microelectrode, leaving two solution resistances ( $2R_s = ~65 \text{ k}\Omega$ ), a relatively low value, in series with the cell impedance.

#### D. Single-Cell/Tissue-Level Biphasic Current Stimulation

The biphasic current stimulation (BCS) modality with charge balancing is utilized to excite cellular samples, invoking an



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Fig. 8. (a) Circuit module and SM operations for the BCS modality configured for single-cell (cyan) and tissue-level (orange) functionalities. (b) Simulated current output across all codes using Monte Carlo method with 200 samples.

electrical response that is useful in applications such as neuromodulation, electroporation, cardiac pacemaker, and cellular network mapping [17, 42, 57, 69]. The BCS modality is equipped with two functionalities: single cell, where any of 1 -4 pixels per pixel bank is excited (16 - 64 pixels across 16 array blocks), or tissue-level, in which current is delivered to all 98 pixels per bank (1,568 pixels over 16 array blocks). The circuit module per array block and output current involved in BCS is depicted in Fig. 8. During the BCS modality, the inpixel switches (S<sub>Group</sub>/S<sub>Bank</sub>) are activated to choose one bank in an array block while the OD switches (SPD\_Group/SPD\_Bank) are disabled. When configured for single-cell stimulation, the SM (pathing highlighted cyan in Fig. 8a) determines which bank column will be utilized and the switch S<sub>Row</sub> determines which 1 - 4 pixels within a 7-pixel bank column will receive BCS. For tissue-level stimulation, the SM (pathing highlighted orange in Fig. 8a) shorts all the bank columns, and the switch  $S_{Row}$  is activated for all pixels in the bank column, thereby shorting all 98 pixels in a pixel bank.

The BCS is provided using 5-bit current digital-to-analog converters for up to 340 µA as shown in Fig. 8b with a reference current generated on-chip. The output current is dependent on the output voltage and is limited by the compliance voltage (3.3 V). To address this issue, when utilizing tissue-level stimulation, the shorting of the 98 pixels lowers the impedance load for stimulation, which prevents the output voltage from reaching compliance so the output current exhibits linearity over input codes as shown in Fig. 8b. For single-cell stimulation, which will have a higher impedance load, only a small amplitude of stimulation current is needed (<15  $\mu$ A), resulting in the use for only a few input codes, ensuring that the compliance voltage will not be reached by the output. To provide charge balancing, the anodic and cathodic pulses are activated sequentially with the signals  $\overline{S\uparrow}$  and  $S\downarrow$ , respectively. The pulse width and time between pulses can be arbitrarily chosen. After BCS, the excited pixel is connected to VBiasstim via the switch S<sub>dis</sub> to expel any residual charge, preventing electrode corrosion which can harm biological samples. Additionally, the BCS with adjustable stimulation area in each array block can be conjoined simultaneously with the VR modality to observe the electrical activity of the excited cellular samples. In addition, we can simultaneously stimulate the cells with BCS during the middle of running FA or FS VR because the circuit modules are separately controlled by SPI.

#### **III. SYSTEM INTEGRATION**

#### A. In-House Post-Processing for Multi-Modal CMOS Arrays

The multi-modal CMOS cellular interfacing array occupies 7 mm  $\times$  7 mm in a standard 130 nm BiCMOS process. Since the top metal option used in 130 nm BiCMOS and other standard CMOS processes is Al, the on-chip electrodes of the foundry-fabricated CMOS ICs will need to undergo high-quality surface modifications since exposed Al possesses a native surface oxide, a dielectric, increasing its impedance [70]. In addition, Al will react with the cell culture medium, causing irreversible damage to the electrode while also leaking Al compounds that are toxic to cell cultures [16, 71].

To address this issue, a noble biocompatible metal such as Au or Pt must replace the Al electrode surface native to CMOS processes. A common method previously used by other reported CMOS sensor arrays involves an electroless process called electroless nickel immersion Au which deposits a metal stack of Zn/Ni/Au on top of the Al layer [16, 46-48, 71-74]. However, since the thickness of the Au coating is dependent on the electrode size due to the chemical nature of this process, the processing recipe will need to be iteratively and empirically optimized to ensure full surface Au coverage, especially near the corner, edges, and sidewalls of the electrode. Any exposure of the underlying Al layer will render the chip unsuitable for cell culturing as demonstrated previously [16]. Other CMOS sensor arrays utilize processes that directly deposit and pattern photolithography biocompatible materials over the Al surface using sputtering or electron-beam physical vapor deposition (EBPVD) [41-43, 75]. However, this method will not eliminate the native Al oxide, resulting in a large increase in electrode impedance. In addition, if any deposited surface over the Al is peeled off during the lift-off step due to mechanical agitation, e.g., ultrasonication, the CMOS chip again will be rendered bioincompatible, thus lowering the overall yield.

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Since bioincompatibility in CMOS originates from the native Al top metal, we have developed an in-house fabrication process that eliminates all the Al top metal over the pixel array to completely obviate unwanted chemical reactions and toxic Al ion leakage. The chip images and conceptual cross sections throughout the fabrication process are presented in Fig. 9. In the designing of our multi-modal cellular interfacing array, we have connected all pixels and reference electrodes using Al top metal from the foundry. The CMOS chip from the foundry will undergo our CMOS-compatible in-house post-processing methods to enhance their biocompatibility. First, the chips are cleaned via spray rinsing in acetone followed by methanol, isopropanol, and DI water. Then, the wire-bond pads are covered in photoresist and the chip is immersed in Al etchant to completely etch away the Al over the pixel and reference electrode array, exposing the underlying tungsten vias. Afterward, the photoresist over the pads is stripped and a bilayer resist stack is spin-coated onto the chip, patterned, and then developed. Eventually, a Ti/Pt layer is sputter deposited over all the electrodes in the pixel array followed by a lift-off without the need for ultrasonication. Pt was chosen instead of Au due to Pt's lower electrode-electrolyte impedance while possessing similar inertness and stability [66-68]. Our in-house process possesses some key advantages over previously reported methods of eliminating Al and using EBPVD [14, 16].



Fig. 9. Conceptual cross sections, chip microphotographs, and scanning electron microscope images of Al shorting all pixels before processing, pixel isolation after Al wet etching, and uniform biocompatible electrode fabrication after Pt deposition.



Fig. 10. Fully packaged biocompatible multi-modality sensor array on daughter PCB and die microphotograph with zoomed-in view of pixels with post-processed Pt microelectrodes.

The resulting Al-etched pixel array is completely planarized, enabling the use of a bilayer resist stack to perform sputter deposition without exposure to the high temperature in EBPVD. In addition, we can maximize the electrode size beyond the layout design rules of the CMOS process mandated by the foundry, reducing the overall electrode-electrolyte interfacial impedance and improving signal integrity [66-68].

Our in-house process achieves high yield with 100% successful Pt coating over all 21,952 pixels and 1,568 E<sub>ref</sub> with no peel-off as demonstrated in Fig. 9 and Fig. 10 and extreme biocompatibility with minimal cell death over a month of culturing as shown in Fig. 11a, enabling long-term cellular recording. The resulting Pt electrodes are shown to be highly chemically stable in the standard PBS buffer solution. Long-term electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) is performed by an off-the-shelf potentiostat (Biologic VMP-300). The EIS results remain stable over 32 days as shown in Fig. 11b with no observed signs of electrode degradation. Based on previous literature, the resulting electrode-electrolyte impedance of our Pt microelectrode is low enough to capture the electrophysiology of neurons with a signal attenuation of less than 25% [76, 77].

#### B. Chip Packaging for On-CMOS Cell Culturing

After completion of the CMOS post-processing and surface compatibility verification, the chip is wire-bonded to an FR-4 PCB board as the daughterboard. The wire bonds and chip pads are then encapsulated using medical epoxy to mechanically secure the wire bonds to the chip and PCB pads while isolating them from the culture medium, preventing undesired chemical reactions. For cell culturing, we attach a 35 mm diameter borosilicate culture dish via PDMS over the chip. To further improve biocompatibility and protection, a final layer of PDMS is coated over the region between the chip and the dish edge. Hence, with our in-house CMOS post-processing and packaging processes, the CMOS multi-modal cellular interface array achieves excellent biocompatibility that supports stable long-term on-chip cell culture and cellular measurements. The die microphotograph and the packaged daughterboard with only the active array region exposed are shown in Fig. 10.



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Fig. 11. Long-term biocompatibility and chemical stability of post-processed pixel array. (a) Live/dead analysis of on-chip cultured hydrogel encapsulating SNaPs over a month. Green indicated viable cells while red labels dead cells. (b) Long-term EIS measurements of on-chip  $8.84 \ \mu m \times 11 \ \mu m$  Pt electrode.

#### C. Measurement Setup for Biological Experimentation

During testing, the daughter PCB board containing the completely packed CMOS cellular interfacing array is linked to a PCB motherboard, which supplies the supply voltages and other reference voltages essential for the CMOS chip's operation. A custom-made LabVIEW interface programs the National Instruments (PXI-6541) 50 MHz waveform generator/analyzer which delivers the control signal to the on-chip SPI to control the chip's processes and obtains the digital output data. The arbitrary waveform generator (Keysight 81160A) provides the clock signal and ZS modality's Z-CLK.

For the biological measurements, we fabricate hydrogels encapsulating human stem cell-derived neurogenin 2accelerated progenitor cells (SNaPs) and attach them over the CMOS cellular interface array. The cells are differentiated for 4 weeks to build the *in vitro* on-chip brain model [78, 79]. The procedures for inducing SNaPs and printing mini-brains were previously reported [79, 80]. In short, the SNaPs ( $1 \times 107$  cells  $mL^{-1}$ ) were mixed with GelMA/HAMA (2.5%/1.5%) and 1mM/10-mM Ru/SPS as the bioink to bioprint the brain mimicking hydrogel constructs (cubes of  $4 \times 4 \times 2 \text{ mm}^3$ ). The printed construct is transferred to the active sensing area of the CMOS cellular interfacing array for long-term culturing. The bioprinted SNaPs are cultured on the cellular interfacing array for over 4 weeks with the maintenance medium [79] changed every day. The multidimensional physiological responses are recorded by our CMOS cellular interfacing array after 4 weeks with and without BCS actuation from our platform.

For digital pathology studies, pathogen infection experiments are conducted using COVID-19 pseudo particles transfecting the SNaPs in the mini-brains where massive electrophysiological data are recorded and digitized for future diagnosis and analysis. Moreover, a differentiated C2C12 mouse skeletal myoblast (CRL-1772, ATCC) monolayer is cultured over the active sensing area of the CMOS cellular interface array. The monolayer is sustained for 7 days in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM, ThermoFisher) supplemented with 10 v/v% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Gibco, USA) and 1 v/v% antibiotic-antimycotic (Gibco) for adherence analyses and to verify the culture biocompatibility of the CMOS cellular interfacing array.



Fig. 12. (a) VR gain range with measured gain overlapping simulated gain for nominal (black dash) and slower (red dot) devices at 50 dB gain settings. (b) FS and FA recording of a mock AP produced by a waveform generator. (c) Voltage mismatch before and after charge balancing during BCS.



Fig. 13. Programmable sampling rates utilized by (a) FS and (b) FA VR modality showing more information on the sharp changes in electrophysiology during an action potential from hydrogel encapsulating SNaPs. (c) Tissue-level BCS during FA VR of SNaPs. (d) Overlapped FA VR from multiple parallel pixels with and without tissue-level BCS of SNaPs transfected with COVID-19 pseudo particles showing inhibited potentials with live/dead analysis.



Fig. 14. (a) Comparison of PD voltage transient operating under dim (top) and bright (bottom) OD when exposed to stereo microscope LED at the brightest setting. (b) Comparison of PD voltage transient during dim OD between pixels overshadowed and not covered by C2C12 cells.

#### IV. ELECTRICAL AND BIOLOGICAL MEASUREMENTS

To demonstrate the multi-modal/-functional cellular sensing/actuating array, we have performed extensive electrical, cell-based assays, and organ-on-chip measurements. To characterize the VR modality, the voltage gain is simulated to show the gain ranges from 15 dB to 70 dB and a dynamic signal analyzer (Keysight 35670A) measures the gain setting at 50 dB, an appropriate gain for neuron LFP and APs, which is compared to the simulated value as illustrated in Fig. 12a. The

discrepancy in the roll-off around the high-pass corner for the measured 50 dB gain setting compared to the typical 50 dB simulated gain can be attributed to process variation with slower devices which can increase the resistance of the pseudoresistors, lowering the cut-off frequency. Additionally, the VR modality set at 15 dB gain can faithfully capture a mock intracellular AP constructed by Keysight 81160A which is fed into a test pixel as depicted in Fig. 12b. The measured charge balancing of the stimulator is shown in Fig. 12c, where the switch  $S_{dis}$  uses the voltage VBias<sub>stim</sub> to discharge residual

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Fig. 15. Biological demonstration using C2C12 monolayer culture. (a) Stereo microscope image over sensing area. (b) Dim OD imaging. (c) 4-point impedance magnitude mapping. (c) 4-point impedance phase mapping.



Fig. 16. Biological demonstration using brain mimicking hydrogel encapsulating SNaPs. (a) Stereo microscope image over sensing area. (b) Dim OD imaging. (c) 4-point impedance mapping for the amplitude of the cellular impedance. (c) 4-point impedance mapping for the phase of the cellular impedance.

charge on the electrodes after BCS from the slightly unbalanced anodic and cathodic currents. The average voltage mismatch after applying a charge-balancing discharge pulse across all stimulator codes was shown to be less than 1 mV. We have measured the APs and LFPs from the brain-mimicking hydrogels using both FA (9.62 kHz sampling) and FS (45.8 kHz sampling) VR at 54.3dB gain shown in Fig. 13a,b, demonstrating that the FS mode captures the sharp spikes of extracellular LFPs and APs more precisely. To demonstrate the simultaneous BCS and VR modalities, tissue-level BCS with 340uA with an anodic current, delay, and cathodic current, each for 200µs is applied during FA VR in which frequency alterations in LFPs are observed after excitation as shown in Fig. 13c. The current amplitude of 340  $\mu$ A was chosen here for tissue-level stimulation to ensure that the sample will be excited as the 98 pixels within a pixel bank will share the output current for ideally 3.47  $\mu$ A per channel. However, due to the nature of culturing, the sample cannot evenly adhere across the array, therefore the resulting current delivered to the sample will be lower than expected. With a higher current, the chances of exciting the cells within the hydrogel are maximized. We have also transfected the brain-mimicking hydrogel with COVID-19 pseudo particles and evaluated the potential response after 48 hours, where we find that neurons' APs/LFPs are diminished as

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Fig. 17. (a) Stereo microscope image over sensing area EBPVD Pt MEA. (b) EIS measurement of on-chip electrode. (c) 2-point impedance magnitude mapping (d) 2-point impedance phase mapping.



Fig. 18. Demonstration of ZS using cured PDMS droplets. (a) Stereo microscope image over sensing area. (b) 4-point impedance magnitude mapping. (c) 2-point impedance magnitude mapping.

indicated in Fig. 13d. Furthermore, we have performed VR while stimulating the COVID-19 infected samples with tissuelevel BCS and observed the same suppressed potentials which are supported by live/dead fluorescent staining (Fig. 13d), revealing that most of the SNaPs have perished.

To characterize the photodiode responses during OD modality under 4-frame (bright) and 8-frame (dim) settings, the chip is subjected to a microscope LED (Leica EZ4) using the brightest setting. A comparison of 4-/8-frame PD<sub>rst</sub> is presented in Fig. 14, demonstrating the steep transient voltage slope response of the PD for both bright/dim functionalities followed by saturation of the PD employing the 8-frame PD<sub>rst</sub> due to the bright lighting. For biological verification, chips culturing the differentiated C2C12 mouse myoblast monolayer in Fig. 15 and brain-mimicking hydrogels in Fig. 16 are subjected to the microscope LED (Leica EZ4) using the dimmest setting. Utilizing the dim OD, the resulting optical shadowing images of both the hydrogel and C2C12 monolayer closely correspond with the stereomicroscope images as illustrated in Fig. 15 and Fig. 16, revealing sample transparency, morphology, and location. Fig. 14b shows the differences in transient voltage slopes between a pixel overshadowed and not covered by the C2C12 culture. Particularly for the hydrogel sample, the more transparent areas are especially highlighted by the OD which is not easily distinguished utilizing a stereomicroscope.

To visualize the ZS modality, impedance magnitude and phase mappings at 25 kHz are constructed from the 21,952 pixels. The 2-point ZS is validated using a special test chip in a culture medium without any biological samples. Here, the specific CMOS chip consists of smaller electrodes (5.8  $\mu$ m  $\times$  8 µm) with Pt deposited via EBPVD. The smaller electrodes in this test chip can be attributed to the directional deposition nature of EBPVD whereas sputtering results in conformal coating. EVPVD, thus, will be unable to coat the undercut of the bilayer photolithography. As described earlier, EBPVD consists of high temperatures which will result in processing nonuniformities on-chip. We deliberately use EBPVD here to induce deposition inconsistencies which can be optically observed in Fig. 17a, causing slight fluctuations in impedance. The resulting pixel array will have slight surface variation which is highlighted in 2-point ZS in Fig. 17c,d. When utilizing 2-point ZS with an excitation signal of 25 kHz, the resulting magnitude and phase mappings well resemble the stereomicroscope image and closely match the two electrodemedium interfacial impedance in series at 25 kHz ( $\sim$ 700 k $\Omega$ ). Afterward, to further assess the ZS validity, we place a few drops of PDMS on the test chip to mimic as high impedance cellular clusters as shown in Fig. 18. Both the resulting 2-point and 4-point mappings accurately capture the high-impedance zones, as the mappings closely match the stereomicroscope image. As expected, the 4-point impedance mapping eliminates the C<sub>dl</sub> and R<sub>C</sub>, leaving behind  $2R_S$  (~65 k $\Omega$ ). For biological experimentation, brain-mimicking hydrogels in Fig. 16 and C2C12 mouse myoblast sample in Fig. 15 are 4-point ZS mapped to clearly show the sample adhesion. Impedance imaging is required because it can sometimes be challenging to monitor cells growing in a monolayer across a dense pixel array using standard optical imaging. The combination of OD and ZS

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						BIODERBOIR		-		
Reference	This Work	[14]	[15]	[42]	[43]	[51]	[54]	[81]	[82]	[83]
Modalities	Voltage Recording, Optical Detection, Impedance Sensing, Biphasic Current Stimulation	VR, OD, ZS, I-Stim,	VR, I-/V-Stim	VR, I-/V-Stim	VR, ZS, I-/V-Stim	VR, I-Stim, OD, ZS	VR, ZS	VR, ZS, I-/V-Stim	VR, ZS, I-Stim	VR, V-Stim
Reconfigurable VR Scan Rate	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No
Dim/Bright OD	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No No		No	No
2-/4-pt Impedance Sensing	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Single-Cell/Tissue- Level Stimulation	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
VR Sampling Rate (kHz)	9.62 (Full Array) 45.8 (Fast Scan)	2 (Full Array) .8 (Fast Scan) 3.84		11.6 (Full Array) 24.4 (Switch Matrix)	20	15	20	10	10	14
VR Gain (dB)	15 - 70	<b>15 – 70</b> 33.3 – 52.5		38.9 - 76.4	6 - 69.5	52.3	58.54	-	40 - 62	54 - 73
Maximum Concurrent Stimulation Pixels	1568	64	4096	8	64	4	-	16	-	-
Number of Concurrent Recording Channels	1568 VR (Full Array) 304 VR (Fast Scan) 1568 OD 16 ZS	1568 VR 1568 OD 16 ZS	4096	19584 (Full Array) 246 (Switch Matrix)	1024	4	2048 VR 32 ZS	64 VR + ZS	16 VR 48 ZS	128
Total Number of Pixels	21952	21952	4096	19584	16384	1024	59760	64	-	-
Pixel Pitch (µm)	13	16	20	18	15	58	13.5	140**	-	-
Electrode Density (# pixels/mm <sup>2</sup> )*	5893 (Full Array) 1142 (Fast Scan)	<b>5893 (Full Array)</b> <b>1142 (Fast Scan)</b> 3811		3050 (Full Array) 38 (Limited Pixels)	4444	299	5489	38**	-	-
Active Area (mm <sup>2</sup> )	2.91 × 1.28	3.6 × 1.6	1.27 × 1.27	3.5  imes 1.8	$16 \times (0.48 \times 0.48)$	1.85 × 1.85	$4.5 \times 2.4$	1.3×1.3**	-	-
Electrode Material	Ti/Pt	Ti/Au	Al/Ti/Pt/PtB	Al/TiW/Pt/PtB	Al/Ti/TiN	Al/Zn/Ni/Au	Al/TiW/Pt/PtB	Au	External Electrodes	External Electrodes
Assay Type	SNaPs <sup>†</sup> , C2C12 <sup>‡</sup>	Cardiomyocytes, Fibroblast	Neurons, Cardiomyocytes	Primary Neurons, Hippocampal Slices, Cardiomyocytes	Cardiomyocytes	Rat Cardiomyocytes	Cardiac, Brain Slices	Rat Peripheral Nerves	Rat Spinal Cord	Neurons
Input-referred Noise for VR (µV <sub>ms</sub> )	10.5 (1 - 300 Hz) 4.35 (300 - 3.3k Hz)	$     \begin{array}{r}       10.3 \\       (1 - 400 \text{ Hz}) \\       3.65 \\       (401 - 2.3 \text{k Hz})     \end{array} $	23 (1 – 4.7k Hz) 5.6 (300 – 10k Hz )	3.0 (Switch Matrix) (300 – 5k Hz) 10.4 (Full Array) (300 – 5k Hz)	12 (0.5 – 10k Hz) 7.5 (300 – 10k Hz)	11.7 (1 – 300 Hz) 7.08 (300 – 6k Hz)	3.6 (1 - 300 Hz) 2.4 (300 - 10k Hz)	24.76 (1 – 10k Hz)	7.68 (5 – 10k Hz)	6.08 (10 – 5k Hz)
ADC Resolution (ENOB)	9.15	9.15	External ADC	8.4	8.16	External ADC	N/A	8	8.5	6.2
Power (mW)	1400 (VR) 168 (OD) 182 (Z)	690 (VR) 90 (OD) 60 (Z)	1250	125	95	N/A	86	0.81	18	2.4 (VR) 7 (V-Stim)
Tech. (nm)	130	130	180	180	130	130	180	130	180	350

 TABLE 1

 COMPARISON TABLE OF STATE-OF-THE-ART CMOS BIOSENSORS

\* Electrode Density = (Total Number of Pixels)/(Active Area)

\*\* Estimated

† SNaPs: human stem cell-derived neurogenin 2-accelerated progenitor cells, which were differentiated for 4 weeks

‡ C2C12: mouse skeletal myoblast differentiated into muscle cells

can distinguish between attached and floating cells in neartransparent cell monolayers, allowing the multi-modal cellular interfacing array to be employed in a variety of cell cultures. With all four dual functional modalities, the multi-modality array effectively displays cell-based assessments with an excellent resolution with rapid scan rates.

#### V. CONCLUSION

In summary, we present a multimodal and multifunctional CMOS cellular interfacing array with high-density pixels with single-cell resolution in a tissue-level FOV and adjustable sampling rate to achieve both high throughput and sensitivity for comprehensive cellular characterization in digital physiology and pathology applications. Our CMOS cellular interfacing array contains up to 1,568 parallel readout channels over 21,952 individually addressable pixels with a 13  $\mu$ m center-to-center pitch, the smallest reported multimodal sensing pixel containing a PD. Each modality is reconfigurable to

perform different functions e.g. FA/FS VR, dim/bright OD, 2-/4-point ZS mapping, and single-cell/tissue-level BCS as well as achieving an extraordinarily high VR sampling speed (45.8 kHz/pixel). Having all these different multi-functional modalities integrated on a single chip allows for greater flexibility in serving a wide range of applications with varying needs. We have devised and optimized a high-yield post-CMOS processing procedure to fabricate an extremely biocompatible and stable electrode array on-chip while minimizing the electrode-electrolyte interfacial impedance to support longterm biological measurements. Our electrical tests and biological measurements utilizing on-chip cultured brain modeling hydrogels encapsulating SNaPs and C2C12 mouse skeletal myoblast monolayers successfully demonstrate the different multifunctional modalities of our platform. Table 1 compares our platform with the various state-of-the-art CMOS cellular assays along with multi-channel recording systems that do not employ a switching matrix [81-83]. Our CMOS cellular interface array boasts a reconfigurable scan rate versus FOV of

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up to an extremely fast 45.8 kS/s, unprecedently high-density, and area-efficient multifunctional multimodal pixel array with 5893 pixels/mm<sup>2</sup>, where our platform can readily extract different cellular physiological features with sharp features for long periods for holistic cellular and tissue characterizations, paving a paradigm shift in the disciplines of digital physiology and pathology.

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