

1 **Bioelectronic Recordings of Cardiomyocytes with Accumulation Mode Electrolyte**  
2 **Gated Organic Field Effect Transistors**

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35  
36 **Abstract**

37  
38 Organic Electronic Materials offer an untapped potential for novel tools for low-invasive  
39 electrophysiological recording and stimulation devices. Such materials combine  
40 semiconducting properties with tailored surface chemistry, elastic mechanical properties and  
41 chemical stability in water. In this work, we investigated solution processed Electrolyte Gated  
42 Organic Field Effect Transistors (EGOFETs) based on a small molecule semiconductor. We  
43 demonstrate that EGOFETs based on a blend of soluble organic semiconductor 2,8-Difluoro-  
44 5,11-bis(triethylsilylethynyl)anthradithiophene (diF-TES-ADT) combined with an insulating  
45 polymer show excellent sensitivity and long-term recording under electrophysiological  
46 applications. Our devices can stably record the extracellular potential of human pluripotent

1 stem cell derived cardiomyocyte cells (hPSCs-CMs) for several weeks. In addition,  
2 cytotoxicity tests of pharmaceutical drugs, such as Norepinephrine and Verapamil was  
3 achieved with excellent sensitivity. This work demonstrates that organic transistors based on  
4 organic blends are excellent bioelectronics transducer for extracellular electrical recording of  
5 excitable cells and tissues thus providing a valid alternative to electrochemical transistors.

## 6 **Keywords**

7 Bioelectronics, Organic field effect transistors, Organic electronics, Cardiac cells, Organic  
8 semiconducting blend

## 9 **1. Introduction**

10 Measuring the extracellular potential of electrically active cells and tissues in a non-invasive  
11 manner is of great interest for developing implantable devices, neuroprosthesis (Maya-  
12 Vetencourt et al., 2017), brain-computer interfaces (Van De Burgt et al., 2018), artificial  
13 synapstors (Desbief et al., 2016, 2015) and *in vitro* drug screening or cytotoxicity tests. The  
14 electrical activity of an organ, tissue or cell gives relevant information about its functionality  
15 or dysfunctionality, and it can also be used to monitor its functional response to pharmaceutical  
16 drugs. Non-invasive recording can be achieved by placing an electrode or a device such as a  
17 transistor at the vicinity of the organ/tissue or a cell. When using electrodes, such as the  
18 traditional Microelectrode Array Systems (MEAs), the quality of the electrical measurement  
19 depends on the interface of the electrode with the tissue or cell. Low impedance electrodes are  
20 desirable for high quality recording with MEAs and this can be achieved by increasing the area  
21 of the recording electrode thus having the expense of spatial resolution. Alternatively the  
22 impedance can be minimized in MEAs by coating the microelectrodes with organic conducting  
23 polymers (Inacio et al., 2017; Khodagholy et al., 2011; Sessolo et al., 2013) or nanostructured  
24 metallic coatings. **Currently available methods in the market also include patch clamp that  
25 employs a pipette tip sealed to the cell membrane that can measure the potential between the  
26 membrane and the electrode which is then amplified externally. Although this technique is  
27 useful to get information at the single cell level, it is labour intensive and invasive as it often  
28 leads to cell death due to the rupture of the cell membrane. Another method to measure  
29 extracellular potential variations is the light-addressable potentiometric sensor (LAPS) whose  
30 detection is based on the coupling of photocurrents to ionic current fluctuations produced by  
31 bioelectric activity of cells (Liu et al., 2007). Field Effect Transistor-based platforms, on the  
32 other hand, represent an excellent alternative due to their intrinsic signal amplification and  
33 scaling down possibilities (Ingebrandt et al., 2001; Khodagholy et al., 2013). Apart from the  
34 device layout, the nature of the interface between the material and the biological system seems**

1 to be pivotal for the conversion of biological signals, characterized by an ionic nature, into  
2 electronic ones, which rules the mechanism of transduction. There have been many reports in  
3 the field of bioelectronics where biosensors, including transistors are based on different types  
4 of materials such as inorganic or organic materials, 2D material such as graphene or nanowire  
5 transistors (Hess et al., 2011; Zhang and Lieber, 2016). **While on the one hand inorganic-based**  
6 **transistors offer advanced signal amplification due to their superior electrical performance as**  
7 **compared to organic transistors, and nanowire FETs offer better sensitivity and the possibility**  
8 **to scale down the device, on the other hand, their mechanical properties, instability when**  
9 **operated in direct contact with water electrochemical environments and the difficulty in**  
10 **chemical modification and fabrication of inorganic devices constitute serious drawbacks.**

11  
12 To address these issues, organic bioelectronic devices have come into the picture. The **main**  
13 **advantage of using organic transistors is the** mechanical property, surface chemistry and  
14 morphology of organic materials can be tuned *ad hoc* in order to reduce invasiveness on the  
15 biological tissues (Rivnay et al., 2014; Simon et al., 2016). In addition, organic devices can  
16 easily be processed using solution processing techniques avoiding complex fabrication  
17 processes and offering the possibility to work on a variety of substrates, such as flexible or  
18 resorbable substrates (Campana et al., 2014). Organic based transistors have been employed  
19 for extracellular recording by exploiting the electrolyte as a gate of the transistor. Amongst  
20 them, Organic Electrochemical Transistor OECTs (Rivnay et al., 2018) and Electrolyte Gated  
21 Organic Field Effect Transistors EGOFETs (T. Cramer et al., 2013; Tobias Cramer et al., 2013)  
22 are the most documented devices. These devices differ among them basically on the nature of  
23 the active material employed. Commonly used material for OECTs is the conducting polymer  
24 poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene) doped with poly(styrene sulfonate) (PEDOT:PSS) which  
25 works in depletion mode. The functionality of OECTs is governed by injection of cations  
26 (depletion mode) or anions (accumulation mode) from the electrolyte that results in the change  
27 of the doping state of the material thus modulating the bulk conductivity of the organic  
28 semiconductor channel. Due to the coupling between ionic and electronic charges within the  
29 entire volume of the channel, OECTs normally have a higher transconductance compared to  
30 EGOFETs, but at the expense of higher current densities and power consumption during  
31 operation. OECTs have a response time which are relatively slow due to ion diffusion in the  
32 bulk material. EGOFETs on the other hand, are considered to be impermeable to ions and their  
33 functionality is governed by the formation of the electrical double layer at the interface between  
34 the electrolyte and the semiconductor (Fahlman et al., 2019). Although at amorphous regions

1 of the organic semiconductor ion penetration cannot be completely excluded, (Giridharagopal  
2 et al., 2017) a high crystalline film normally ensures the electrostatic accumulation of charge  
3 carriers due to the formation of electrical double layer at the electrolyte/semiconductor  
4 interface.

5 Here, we show that the recently proposed solution processed EGOFETs consisting of an  
6 organic blend of the bench-mark soluble small molecule 2,8-difluoro-5,11-  
7 bis(triethylsilylethynyl)anthradithiophene (diF-TES-ADT) and an insulating polymer  
8 polystyrene (PS) enables to overcome previous limitations of EGOFETs and open the way to  
9 its application for bioelectric recordings (Zhang et al., 2016). The strategy of using the organic  
10 blend of an organic semiconductor with PS has been shown to promote material processability  
11 and also leads to thin films with an enhanced crystallinity and environmental stability (Del  
12 Pozo et al., 2016; Temiño et al., 2016). With the aim to employ these organic blend EGOFETs  
13 as bioelectronic recording platform, here we demonstrate the capability of EGOFETs based on  
14 a solution processed organic material diF-TES-ADT blended with polystyrene PS to record the  
15 extracellular action potentials of human Pluripotent Stem Cells derived cardiomyocyte cells  
16 (hPSCs CMs). hPSCs CMs represent a promising and powerful tool in cardiac biology for  
17 cardiac disease modelling. This cellular platform was recently exploited for the generation of  
18 hPSCs-derived cardiac grafts to screen the effect of drugs on human atrial and ventricular  
19 electrophysiology (Garreta et al., 2016). We demonstrate that the electrical activity of the  
20 cultured cells plated on an EGOFET array can be recorded for several days with extreme  
21 stability. Compared to the state of the art EGOFETs reported so far, our device shows a  
22 remarkable stability in physiological conditions with a charge carrier mobility decrease almost  
23 negligible (less than 1 order of magnitude) and with a shift in threshold voltage below 0.1V. In  
24 addition, we also show the possibility to perform cytotoxicity tests of different pharmaceutical  
25 drugs, such as norepinephrine and verapamil, on these devices. We note that the use of  
26 EGOFETs to monitor the electrical activity of hPSCs derived cardiomyocytes can offer an  
27 excellent *in vitro* platform to cardiac disease modelling, cardiac toxicology and regeneration.

## 28 **2. Materials and methods**

### 29 *2.1 Device fabrication*

30 A semi-transparent biocompatible Kapton foil (Kapton® HN from DuPont, 75 µm thick) was  
31 used as substrate for our devices; source and drain (S/D) electrodes were defined by maskless  
32 photolithography (MicroWriter ML™ Laser Lithography System) and a metal layer of Cr/Au  
33 (5 nm/40 nm) was subsequently evaporated (System Auto 360 from BOC Edwards). The

1 channel width (W) and length (L) were 19680  $\mu\text{m}$  and 30  $\mu\text{m}$  (namely having a geometrical  
2 ratio  $W/L = 656$ ), respectively. Prior to the deposition of the organic semiconductor, the  
3 substrates were cleaned in ultrasonic bath with acetone and isopropanol for 15 min respectively  
4 and afterward ozone-treated for 25 min. S/D electrodes were subsequently modified by  
5 immersing the device in a 15 mM pentafluorothiophenol (PFBT) solution in isopropanol for  
6 15 minutes. A blend composed of diF-TES ADT and polystyrene (PS) was chosen as  
7 semiconductor material. The two components were mixed in a 4:1 ratio, and then dissolved in  
8 chlorobenzene reaching a final concentration of 2 wt%. The blend solution was kept on a hot-  
9 plate at 105  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 1 h to ensure the complete dissolution of the starting materials. Thin film  
10 deposition was realized through Bar-Assisted Meniscus Shearing (BAMS) technique by means  
11 of a home-adapted bar coater working at fixed speed of 1  $\text{cm s}^{-1}$  and at a fixed plate temperature  
12 of 105  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  as reported earlier (Leonardi et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016). All the above-  
13 mentioned processes were realized under ambient conditions. Prior to cell seeding the devices  
14 were coated with a thin matrigel layer (BD Biosciences) by drop casting. We verified that the  
15 addition of the matrigel layer does not affects severely the device response and it greatly  
16 facilitates cell adhesion.

## 17 *2.2 Cell Culture*

18 Single cell suspension of human Pluripotent Stem Cells (hPSCs) were seeded onto matrigel  
19 (BD Biosciences) pre-coated cell culture dishes at a density of 125,000 cells per  $\text{cm}^2$  in mTeSR  
20 medium (StemCell Technologies), supplemented with 5  $\mu\text{M}$  ROCK inhibitor (Y-27632,  
21 Sigma-Aldrich). Cells were then maintained in mTeSR with ROCK inhibitor for 24 h and in  
22 mTeSR only, for one more day. Differentiation was initiated by treatment with 12  $\mu\text{M}$   
23 CHIR99021 (Selleck) in RPMI (Invitrogen) supplemented with B27 minus insulin (Life  
24 Technologies), 2 mM L-glutamine, 0.1 mM 2-mercaptoethanol, nonessential amino acids and  
25 penicillin-streptomycin (RPMI/B27-insulin medium) for 24 h (day 0 to day 1). On day 1, the  
26 inhibitor was removed by washing with RPMI medium and then maintained in RPMI/B27-  
27 insulin medium for two more days. On day 3, cells were treated with 5  $\mu\text{M}$  Wnt inhibitor IWP4  
28 (Stemgent) in RPMI/B27-insulin medium and cultured without medium change for 48 h. On  
29 day 5, cells were washed once with RPMI to eliminate the inhibitor and maintained in RPMI  
30 (Invitrogen) supplemented with B27 (Life Technologies), 2 mM L-glutamine, 0.1 mM 2-  
31 mercaptoethanol, nonessential amino acids and penicillin-streptomycin (RPMI/B27 medium).  
32 From day 5, cells were maintained in RPMI/B27 medium with medium change every 2 days.

1 On day 14, beating monolayers were obtained. For video recording, hPSC-derived  
2 cardiomyocyte monolayers were imaged at 37°C in RPMI/B27 medium using a Leica  
3 MC170HD camera connected to a DM IL LED microscope (Leica). Starting from day 20,  
4 clusters of 300-500 beating cells (seeding density is determined based on the surface area to be  
5 occupied by the beating cell) were detached from the plate, seeded on the top of device  
6 transistors, previously coated with matrigel, and further maintained in RPMI/B27 medium  
7 during the course of the recording experiment. The medium was changed every two days during  
8 the course of the experiment.

### 9 *2.3 Immunocytochemistry*

10 hPSC-derived cardiomyocyte monolayers were fixed with 2% paraformaldehyde (Aname) for  
11 20 min at room temperature. Next, samples were washed twice with PBS and further blocked  
12 and permeabilized for 1 h at room temperature with Tris-buffered saline (TBS) containing  
13 0.5% Triton X100 (Sigma) and 6% donkey serum (Millipore). Samples were then incubated  
14 overnight at 4 °C with primary antibodies. The following primary antibodies were used:  
15 Myosin Heavy Chain (MYH6, GTX20015, 1:100, GeneTex); GATA 4 binding 4 (GATA4,  
16 sc9053, 1:25, Santa Cruz Biotechnology); NKX2.5 (sc8697, 1:25, Santa Cruz Biotechnology);  
17 Troponin T (TNN, MS-295-P1ABX, 1:500, Thermo Scientific). After the incubation with  
18 primary antibodies, samples were washed three times with TBS containing 0.1% Triton X100  
19 (Sigma) and 6% donkey serum (Millipore) and further incubated for 2 h at room temperature  
20 with fluorescent-conjugated secondary antibodies (Alexa Fluor (A) 488-, Cy3- or A647-;  
21 1:200). After three rinses with PBS, samples were counterstained with 4,6-diamidino-2-  
22 phenylindole (DAPI; Life Technologies, 1:5000) for 30 min for the detection of nuclei.  
23 Samples were then mounted using Fluoromount-G (Southern Biotech). Image acquisition was  
24 carried out using a SP5 (Leica) confocal microscope.

### 25 *2.4 Drugs tested*

26 Norepinephrine Bitartrate salt ( $C_8H_{11}NO_3 \cdot C_4H_6O_6$ ) and Verapamil hydrochloride 5-[N-(3,4-  
27 Dimethoxyphenylethyl)methylamino]-2-(3,4-dimethoxyphenyl)-2-isopropylvaleronitrile  
28 hydrochloride were both purchased from Sigma Aldrich. Norepinephrine was dissolved in cell  
29 medium while Verapamil was dissolved in Ethanol.

### 30 *2.5 EGOFET characterization*

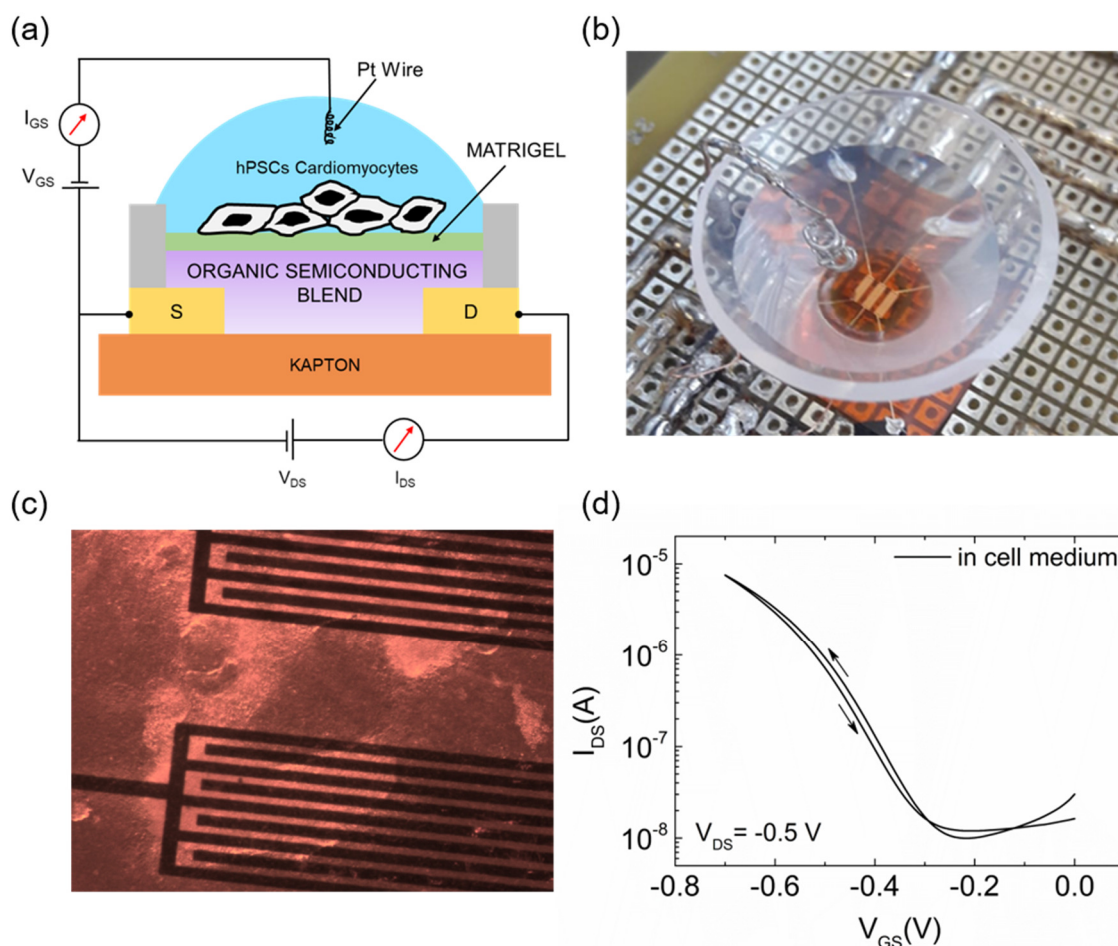
1 All electrical device characterizations were performed by employing a cell culture media  
2 mTeSR, which is the cell culture medium commonly used for human embryonic stem cells, as  
3 working electrolyte and a Pt wire ( $\varnothing = 0.5$  mm) as the gate electrode. The measurements were  
4 all carried out inside the incubator under the standard conditions of 37°C temperature, 80%  
5 humidity and 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Agilent B2912A was used as a source measuring unit for the electrical  
6 recording of the transistor. Prior to the recording experiment, typical transistor characterization  
7 of Source-Drain current ( $I_{SD}$ ) versus Source-Gate voltage ( $V_{GS}$ ) was carried out. For recording  
8 the extracellular potentials of cardiac cells, the transistor was operated at  $V_{GS} = -0.7$  V and  
9  $V_{DS} = -0.5$  V, and the current  $I_{SD}$  was monitored over time. **The signals were recorded**  
10 **continuously for a time span of 1000 seconds. Recordings were repeated for at least 3 times a**  
11 **day.** The frequency response of the transistor was measured by using a function generator  
12 33220A Function Waveform Generator (Keysight) coupled to the Agilent B2912A. A  
13 sinusoidal wave oscillation of 10mV was applied to  $V_{GS}$ , with the device set at  $V_{GS} = -0.7$  V  
14 and  $V_{DS} = -0.5$  V.

### 15 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 16 *3.1 Electrical characterisation of the EGOFET in electrophysiological condition*

17 The schematic diagram of the EGOFET with a cluster of cells plated on the channel of the  
18 transistor is depicted in **Figure 1(a)**, while figure 1(b) shows a picture of the actual device and  
19 figure 1(c) a zoom in image with hPSC derived cardiomyocytes plated on top of the transistors  
20 area. The substrate of the device consists of a flexible biocompatible kapton foil onto which  
21 interdigitated gold electrodes 30 nm thick were deposited. The organic semiconductor diF-  
22 TES-ADT blended with polystyrene PS was coated onto the substrate using the Bar-Assisted  
23 Meniscus Shearing technique (BAMS) as reported earlier (Leonardi et al., 2016; Zhang et al.,  
24 2016). In addition, the device used here was coated with matrigel to favour the adhesion of the  
25 cells to the semiconductor layer. We verified that the presence of the matrigel layer does not  
26 degrade appreciably the performance of the device (**Figure S1**). The electrical characteristics  
27 of this EGOFET, before cell plating, is depicted in figure 1d. In this case, cell medium mTeSR  
28 was used as working electrolyte. A Source-Gate Voltage  $V_{GS}$  is applied between the gate  
29 electrode (Pt wire) immersed in the liquid (see figure 1(b)) and the source electrode, at fixed  
30 source-drain voltage,  $V_{DS}$ . The application of a gate potential promotes the formation of a  
31 double layer at the interface between the electrolyte and the organic semiconductor. Since our  
32 active organic material forming the channel of the transistor is a p-type semiconductor, the

1 application of a negative potential results in the accumulation of positive charges (holes) on  
 2 the semiconductor. When a potential is applied across the Source and Drain electrodes  $V_{DS}$ ,  
 3 charges move across the channel giving rise to the source drain current  $I_{DS}$ , whose intensity  
 4 depends on the source gate voltage,  $V_{GS}$  as shown in figure 1(d).



5

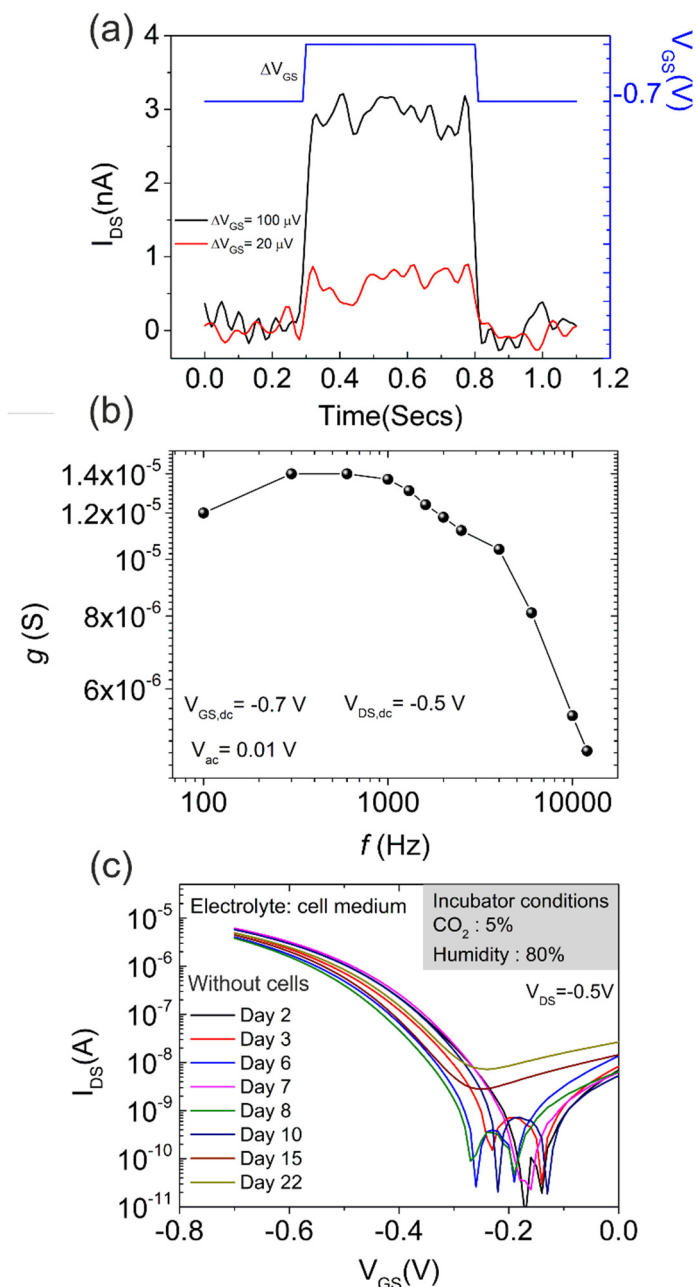
6 **Figure 1.** (a) Schematic diagram of the EGOFET coupled to hPSCs-CMs grown as a cluster  
 7 of cells. (b) Photograph of the experimental setup for extracellular recording. (c) Optical  
 8 microscopy image of hPSCs-CMs on the EGOFET (d) Typical Source-Drain current  $I_{DS}$   
 9 characteristics versus Gate-Source Voltage  $V_{GS}$  of the transistor operated in cell medium, for  
 10  $V_{DS}=-0.5V$ . **Arrows indicate the forward and reverse scan of the IV curve.**

11

12 For extracellular recordings, the main EGOFETs parameters that must be taken into account  
 13 are the potentiometric sensitivity, the time response and, most importantly, the stability during  
 14 the course of the recording experiment. In order to determine the potentiometric sensitivity, we  
 15 applied a constant gate and drain voltage ( $V_{GS} = -0.7V$  and  $V_{DS}=-0.5V$ ) and monitored the  
 16 changes in source drain current  $\Delta I_{SD}$  in response to the application of voltage pulses to the gate  
 17 of amplitude  $\Delta V_{GS}$ , as shown in **Figure 2a**. We have verified that the transistor is sensitive to



1 gate voltages changes down to  $20\mu\text{V}$ . This implies that the device can transduce extracellular  
2 potentials at least down to  $20\ \mu\text{V}$ . To gain further insight into the performance of the  
3 EGOFETs, a frequency response characterization of the device was carried out by measuring  
4 the transconductance of the transistor. Fixing  $V_{\text{DS}}$  at  $-0.5\ \text{V}$  and  $V_{\text{GS}}$  at  $-0.7\ \text{V}$ , a  $10\text{mV}$  peak-  
5 to-peak sine wave oscillation was applied on the  $V_{\text{GS}}$ . A cut-off frequency of  $\approx 3\ \text{KHz}$  is  
6 obtained for our EGOFETs (Figure 2b). Finally, the stability of the devices in physiological  
7 condition was investigated by monitoring the characteristics of the EGOFET with cell medium  
8 as an electrolyte inside a cell incubator periodically. **Figure 2 (c) is a control experiment without**  
9 **cells where we study the stability of our EGOFETs as a function of time in physiological**  
10 **condition. The devices were operated using the cell medium as an electrolyte and were placed**  
11 **inside the incubator under the conditions of temperature of  $37\ ^\circ\text{C}$ , humidity 90%, 5%  $\text{CO}_2$ . This**  
12 **study represents a key point of our work because organic electronic devices are in general**  
13 **considered very sensitive to environmental factors. Factors such as temperature, humidity and**  
14 **a poor electrical instability in “complex” electrolyte such as the cell medium can hinder their**  
15 **application in bioelectronics. However, one of the main points of this work relies on the**  
16 **demonstration of the superior robustness of our EGOFETs that is proved with the control**  
17 **experiment reported in Figure 2 (c) where no electrical failures are observed after 3 weeks in**  
18 **electrophysiological condition. In order to further demonstrate the robustness of our device,**  
19 **two important figures of merit, i.e. transconductance  $g_m$  and threshold voltage  $V_{\text{th}}$ , has been**  
20 **plotted (see supplementary figure S5).**



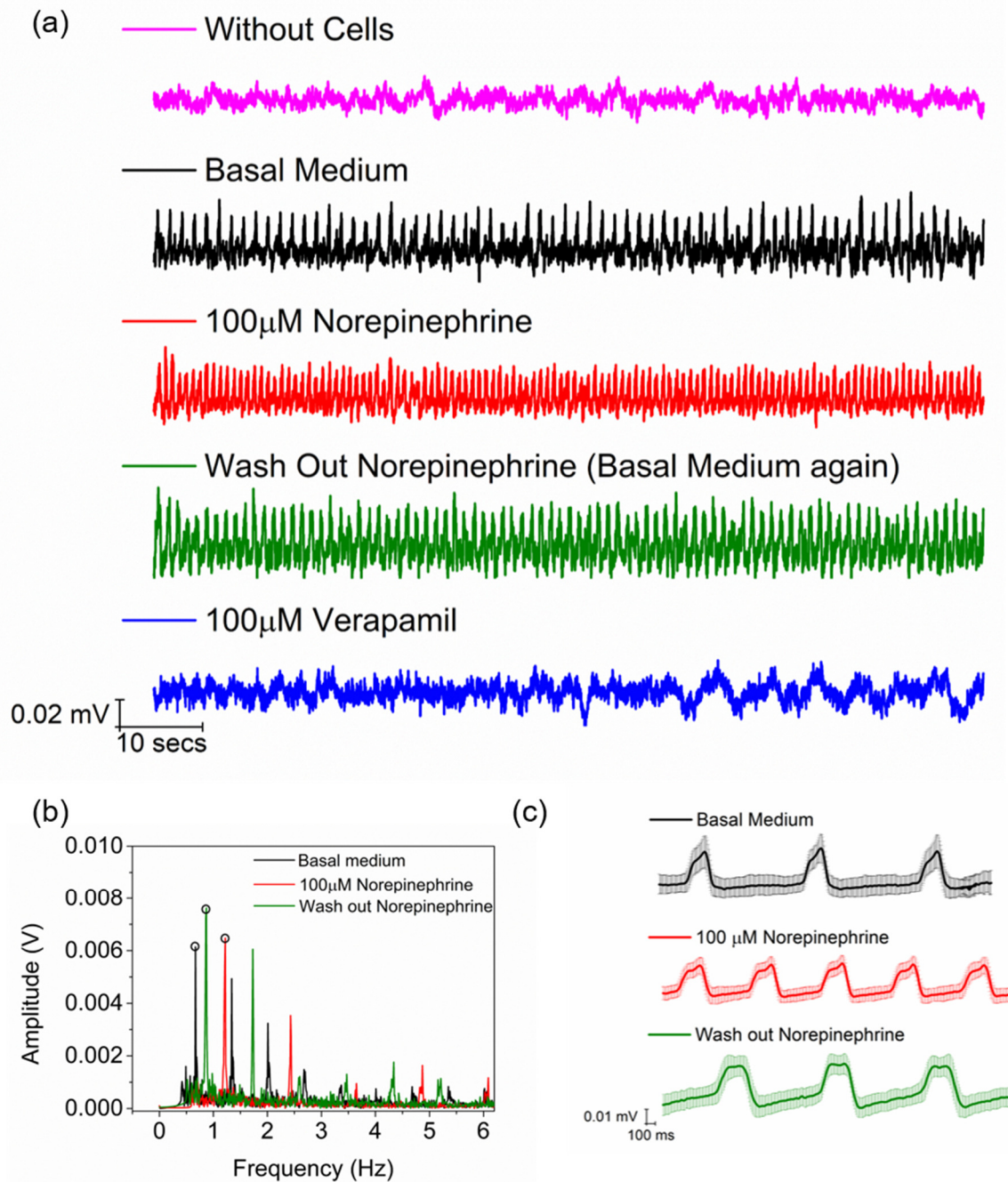
1  
 2 **Figure 2** (a) Potentiometric sensitivity of the EGOFETs used in this study. Black and red lines  
 3 correspond to the modulation of  $I_{DS}$  due to  $V_{GS}$  square pulses of amplitudes  $100 \mu V$  and  $20 \mu V$ ,  
 4 respectively. Measurements are recorded in cell medium at  $V_{DS} = -0.5$  V. (b) Frequency  
 5 response of the transconductance of the EGOFETs at  $V_{GS} = -0.7$  V and  $V_{DS} = -0.5$  V. (c)  
 6 Source-Drain current  $I_{DS}$  characteristics versus Gate-Source Voltage  $V_{GS}$  of the transistor  
 7 operated in cell medium taken for several days. The EGOFET was kept with the electrolyte in  
 8 the incubator for several weeks.

9

### 10 *3.2: Electrical recording of cardiomyocyte cells*

11 To demonstrate the capability of these devices to record extracellular bioelectronic signals,  
 12 hPSCs-CMs that exhibit spontaneous beating phenomena (**Supplementary information video**

1 **S1**) were plated on the EGOFETs (**Supplementary information video S2**). hPSCs-CMs were  
2 grown as monolayer cell cultures and further transferred on the device upon differentiation  
3 (from day 12 during the protocol of differentiation) (Garreta et al., 2016). hPSC-CMs  
4 monolayers showed the expression of major proteins associated with cardiac muscle  
5 contraction including Troponin T (TNN) and Myosin Heavy Chain (MYH6), as well as nuclear  
6 transcription factors related to cardiac fate such as NK2 Homeobox 5 (NKX2.5) and GATA  
7 binding protein 4 (GATA4) as determined by immunofluorescence analysis (**Supplementary**  
8 **Figure S2 (a) and S2 (b)**). For recording the cardiac action potential, EGOFETs were operated  
9 at  $V_{GS}=-0.7$  V and  $V_{DS}=-0.5$  V, and the Source Drain current  $I_{SD}$  was monitored as a function  
10 of time. It normally took 5-7 days for the cluster of cells to adequately couple to the EGOFET  
11 channel to generate high electrical signals as also observed in previous reports (Gu et al., 2019).  
12 After a good coupling was achieved and a regular beating of the plated cells was observed (see  
13 video in the supplementary information) spikes on the  $I_{SD}$  were easily detected (**figure 3(a)**,  
14 black trace). The recordings were taken continuously for at least 1000 seconds, with a signal  
15 to noise ratio of the recordings between 3-4 **which is comparable to the ones measured using**  
16 **OECTs (Liang et al., 2018; Susloparova et al., 2016; Yao et al., 2015)**. A fast Fourier transform  
17 of the time trace (figure 3(b)) showed that the frequency of the spikes was  $\sim 0.65$  Hz, which  
18 nicely agrees with the frequency of contractions observed with the optical microscope. Taking  
19 into account the transconductance of the EGOFET,  $g_m=20$  nA/mV, the gate voltage variation  
20 caused by the extracellular potential spike was calculated to be  $\Delta V_{GS}=\Delta I_{SD}/g_m= 40\mu$ V, well  
21 within the limit of detection of our device, as demonstrated earlier in figure 2(a). We remark  
22 that each device contains three transistors (see figures 1(c) and S3), and current spikes were  
23 only observed for transistors with cells positioned directly on top of the channel (**dark pink**  
24 **trace figure 3(a) and** supplementary information, **Figure S3**).



1

2 **Figure 3** (a). Representative electrical recordings performed with the EGOFET device on  
 3 hPSC derived cardiac cells under different conditions. The time traces are presented as  
 4 equivalent gate voltage variations obtained from source drain current variations as  
 5  $\Delta V_{GS} = \Delta I_{SD} / g_m$ . The dark pink curve depicts the electrical recording of an EGOFET in the  
 6 absence of cells. The black curve corresponds to basal medium; the red curve to basal medium  
 7 with the addition of a 100 $\mu$ M of Norepinephrine; the green curve to basal medium again after  
 8 the drug is wash out; and the blue curve to basal medium when 100 $\mu$ M of Verapamil drug is  
 9 added. (b) Fast Fourier transform of the time traces shown in (a) for the different conditions.  
 10 The circle shows the peak of the first harmonic used to identify the characteristic frequency of  
 11 the time traces. (c) Representative shape of the extracellular potentials corresponding to the  
 12 average of n = 40 spikes.

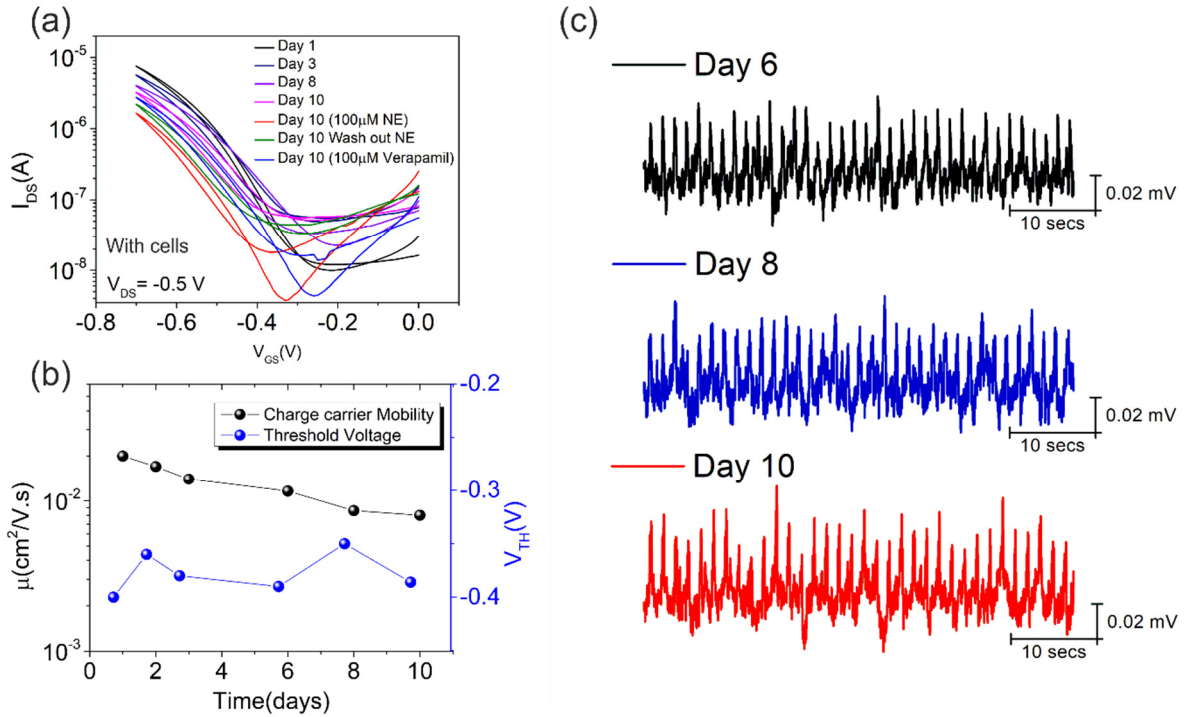
### 1 *3.3: Pharmacology test*

2 In order to take advantage of this platform we further assessed the effect of two well-known  
3 chronotropic agents, namely norepinephrine and verapamil. First, to modulate the frequency of  
4 the beating rate of the cardiac cells, 100  $\mu$ M of norepinephrine were added. Norepinephrine is  
5 a widely used cardio stimulant agent known to increase the beating rate of cardiac cells. The  
6 frequency of the spikes recorded after the addition of the drug indeed increased up to 1.3 Hz  
7 (figures 3(a) and 3(b), red lines), which is twice faster than the frequency observed in basal cell  
8 medium. This observation is in accordance with previous investigation on the effect of  
9 Norepinephrine on hPSC-CMs (Huang et al., 2017). After the electrical recording,  
10 norepinephrine drug was washed out. The cells were rinsed with PBS solution and the basal  
11 cell medium was added again. The frequency of the electrical signal recorded following the  
12 washing out of the drug recovered back to 0.8 Hz, which is closer to the pre-drug recording  
13 (figures 3(a) and 3(b) green lines). We also took advantage of verapamil, a drug acting as  
14 blocker of calcium channels. Towards this end, 100  $\mu$ M of Verapamil was added to the cell  
15 culture. Accordingly, no electrical spikes higher than the instrumental noise level were detected  
16 (figures 3(a) and 3(b), blue lines).

17 Importantly, we were able to show that the shape of the recorded spikes was quite reproducible.  
18 In this regard, Figure 3(c) shows the average shape of the spikes obtained from the average of  
19 40 spikes for the different conditions examined. The shapes do not display the expected shape  
20 of extracellular potentials corresponding to single cardiomyocytes. The reason can be due to  
21 the complex 3D nature of the cluster of cells and its coupling with the EGOFETs. Further work  
22 becomes necessary to clarify this point.

### 23 *3.4 : Stability of the EGOFETs in physiological condition*

24 One of the more relevant results obtained with these EGOFETs refers to its remarkable stability  
25 in physiological operation **as seen in figure 2 (c)**. It is well known that organic transistors  
26 generally show instabilities in the presence of humidity, temperature and water (Bobbert et al.,  
27 2012). However, the performance of the transistors used in the present study **the performance**  
28 **of the transistors used in the present study seem to be unaltered. Figure 4a shows the I-V**  
29 **(source-drain current versus source-gate voltage) curves which were recorded during the whole**  
30 **experimental duration (10 days) to check the lifetime of the device. I-V curves are figures of**  
31 **merit of a field effect transistor, which include information about the quality of the device.**  
32 **Such characterization is essential for the complete understanding of the electrical behaviour of**  
33 **the device in presence of cultured cells and it is a good indicator of its capability of**  
34 **transduction.**



1  
2 **Figure 4.** (a) Typical transistor IV curves recorded during the whole study. The legend  
3 describes the day when the IV curve is recorded, and which drug has been added to the cell  
4 medium. Day 1 corresponds to the first day when the cell is seeded on the device. (b) Charge  
5 carrier mobility  $\mu$  as a function of time in days on the left y axis (black square markers) and  
6 Threshold Voltage  $V_{TH}$  as a function of time in days on the right blue axis x (square blues  
7 markers). (c) Representative electrical recording taken on different days, showing the stability  
8 of the device over several days.

9 As can be seen, after 10 days with cells, the transconductance of the transistor does not  
10 decrease significantly. The superior performance of these EGOFETs is attributed to the high  
11 crystallinity of the active thin film which has been deposited through a solution shearing  
12 technique, i.e. BAMS, starting from a precursor ink of diF-TES-ADT and polystyrene (Del  
13 Pozo et al., 2016; Leonardi et al., 2016). **Furthermore, in the present case, the I-V characteristics**  
14 **are also good indicators of the status of the transistor in response to drugs such as**  
15 **norepinephrine and verapamil.** The EGOFETs stability is reflected in the fact that the charge  
16 carrier mobility decrease is almost negligible and the shift in threshold is below 0.1V during  
17 days of operation (see figure 4(b) that depicts the change in  $\mu$  and  $V_{th}$  as a function of days).  
18 The charge carrier mobility  $\mu$  and threshold voltage  $V_{th}$  is extracted using the formula

$$19 \quad I_{SD,sat} = \frac{W}{L} C_{DL} \mu (V_{GS} - V_{th})^2$$

20 where  $W$  and  $L$  are the width and length of the channel and  $C_{DL}$  is the capacitance of the double  
21 layer. We illustrate the stability of the devices by showing also recorded traces corresponding  
22 to days 6, 8 and 10. As can be seen, the signal to noise ratio did not decrease as a function

1 of days. The outstanding stability of these devices allow us not only to carry out extracellular  
2 recording for over 10 days but also to study the effect of drugs on the bioelectrical activity of  
3 the cardiac cells. We have further checked the electrical performance of an operating transistor  
4 in physiological conditions for a month's time and, as can be seen from Figure 2c, the EGOFET  
5 still shows excellent performance without any relevant drop in the current.

6 We have demonstrated that EGOFETs based on a blend of the organic semiconductor diF-TES-  
7 ADT with polystyrene can provide stable extracellular electric potential recordings on  
8 electrically excitable cells such as hPSC-CMs. As compared to previous works using  
9 EGOFETs, our device shows a much higher stability when operated in physiological  
10 conditions. The stability of our devices is attributed to the high crystallinity and smoothness of  
11 the films deposited by the shearing technique BAMS (Campos et al., 2018; Pérez-Rodríguez  
12 et al., 2018). The stability of these EGOFETs is reflected in the minimal change of the  
13 transconductance of the transistor during operation in physiological conditions over time. As  
14 an application of these EGOFETs we have considered the study of the electrical activity on  
15 cardiomyocyte-like cells derived from hPSCs under different experimental conditions. Our  
16 experimental setting resulted in further culture of hPSCs-CMs beating monolayers as cluster  
17 of cells forming stable interfaces with these organic devices. Thus, this study proves feasibility  
18 when envisioning the use of EGOFETs for the performance of long-time studies using  
19 electrically excitable cells. It is well accepted that the use of hPSCs and their differentiated cell  
20 types (as cardiomyocytes) offer an unprecedented platform for the study of human disease. In  
21 this regard the possibility to monitor the electrophysiological activity of hPSC-CMs represents  
22 a straightforward approach in further applications related to cardiac drug toxicity and cardiac  
23 disease modelling taking advantage for the combination of this cells together with EGOFETs.  
24 Of note, the long-term stability of the blend based EGOFET-hPSCs cardiac cell platform would  
25 offer a plethora of opportunities to further analyse all these questions and increase our  
26 armamentarium of technologies when envisioning hPSCs-CMs as major cell sources for  
27 understanding cardiac cell biology, cardiac development or disease.

#### 28 **4. Conclusions**

29 To conclude, this work proves unambiguously that small molecule based EGOFETs can be  
30 used as a recording platform to measure the bioelectrical response of excitable cells. Its  
31 operation in accumulation mode with relatively lower charge densities and power consumption  
32 makes it a valid alternative to the commonly used PEDOT PSS based OECTs. EGOFETs

1 employed in this work are based on an organic blend of diF-TES-ADT and Polystyrene which  
2 can be easily processing by a printing technique. The functionality of these devices remains  
3 unaltered when an extracellular matrix such as Matrigel commonly used for attaching cells is  
4 coated on top of the transistor, and when the devices is maintained in physiological conditions  
5 over weeks. Their ability to sense potential changes down to 20  $\mu\text{V}$  at timescales of few  
6 millivolt makes them promising candidate for sensing bioelectrical signals. In this work, we  
7 record the bioelectrical signal of spontaneously beating embryonic cardiomyocyte cells which  
8 couple to the transistor channel. Cardiac action potential of 40  $\mu\text{V}$  are recorded at a frequency  
9 of 0.65 Hz corresponding to the frequency of the beating / contraction of the cardiac cells. The  
10 effect of pharmaceutical drugs such as Norepinephrine and Verapamil on the electrical activity  
11 of the cardiac cells was also successfully demonstrated by using these devices. The stability of  
12 these EGOFETs when operated in physiological environment outstands the state of the art  
13 EGOFET. The stability, high sensitivity and simple architecture of these devices could be  
14 exploited in several directions, including the realization of *in vitro* fundamental studies on  
15 electrical active cell differentiation and maturation or the development of implantable devices  
16 to monitor bioelectric signals *in vivo*.

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