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1 **New Perspectives in Shake Flask pH Control using a 3D-printed Control Unit**
2 **based on pH online Measurement**

3

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19

20 **Abstract**

21 Online pH control during microbial shake flask cultivation has not been established due to the
22 lack of a practical combination of an online sensor system and an appropriate control unit. The
23 objective of this investigation was to develop a minimum scale dosage apparatus, namely shake
24 flask controller (“SFC”), which can control the pH during a complete cultivation and serves as
25 technical example for the application of small liquid dispensing lab devices. A well evaluated
26 optical, chemosensor based, noninvasive, multisensory platform prototype for online DO
27 (dissolved oxygen)-, pH- and biomass measurement served as sensor. The SFC was designed as
28 cap-integrated, semi-autarkical control unit. Minimum scale working parts like the commercial
29 mp6 piezoelectric micropumps and miniature solenoid valves were combined with a selective
30 laser sintering (SLS) printed backbone. In general it is intended to extend its application range
31 on the control of enzymatic assays, polymerization processes, cell disruption methods or the
32 precise dispense of special chemicals like inducers or inhibitors. It could be proved that pH
33 control within a range of 0.1 pH units could be maintained at different cultivation conditions. A
34 proportional-integral-derivative- (PID) controller and an adaptive proportional controller were
35 successfully applied to calculate the balancing solution volume. SLS based 3D printing using

1 polyamide combined with state-of-the-art micro pumps proved to be perfectly adaptable for
2 minimum size, autoclavable lab devices.

3 **Keywords:** 3D-printing, pH-control, pH-monitoring, piezo pump, shake flask

5 **1 Introduction**

7 **1.1 pH control in shake flasks**

8 Automated process control in shake flask was little considered in the design of bioprocesses so
9 far. The reason for this status lies in the absence of available, appropriate pumping systems and
10 in a sensor system which is suitable for shake flasks. The pH changes which often occur during
11 shake flask cultivations are (despite the use of buffer systems) sometimes measured and
12 documented by sampling, but rarely controlled until today. There is clearly a great need for a
13 fully automatic pH control in shake flasks since they are still employed in screening processes
14 and also used in pre-culture preparation for larger scale cultivations, e.g. in bioreactors. In batch
15 processes a missing pH control can, depending on substrates and cultivation temperature, result
16 in a big deviation from the optimum condition by accumulation of metabolic by-products,
17 which inhibit growth at acidic conditions [1,2]. Depending on the growth phase (exponential or
18 stationary) of the pre-culture, the pH shift after transfer into fresh medium (inoculation) can be
19 serious. Moreover pH dependent activation of certain genes which is related to a change in
20 metabolism can negatively interfere with protein or compound production processes [3–5].
21 Another concern is the correct folding and stability of heterologously produced protein,
22 especially if the protein is secreted into the medium [6]. Alternative solutions for the
23 stabilization of pH in shake flasks are the application of more concentrated buffer solutions or
24 buffer loaded polymer slices [7]. However, a higher buffer concentration may hinder cell
25 growth, reduces cell viability in the early growth phase and influences metabolism [8,9].
26 Automatic pH control has been obligatory for stirred bioreactors since control units were
27 available. In contrast, a passive pH control in shake flasks is only established in mammalian cell
28 culture via diffusion of CO₂ through a membrane located in the cap. For microbial cultivations
29 online pH measurement and control is not typically applied at this scale. Weuster-Botz *et al.*
30 showed in 2001 that continuous feeding combined with pH control in shake flask can increase
31 biomass yield of *E. coli* BL21 by 104 % compared to an uncontrolled batch. The system was
32 composed of a syringe pump as well as pinch valves, tubing and pH probes for each flask [2].
33 Unfortunately, large, complex atline pumping systems did not proved to be adequate for an easy
34 and fast controller setup. There has been also concepts to control pH by passive release of
35 sodium carbonate from silicone rubber disks in microbial systems [10] or hydrogel in
36 mammalian systems [11]. It was possible to keep pH values within a range of ± 0.3 pH units

1 around the pH optimum during growth of *E. coli* BL21 in glucose, glycerol rich synthetic
2 medium; in this way the media buffer content could be reduced from 0.2 M to 0.1 M [10].
3 Concerning mammalian culture the pH could be kept ± 0.2 pH units around the optimum for 7
4 days. However buffer loaded solids cannot precisely maintain a specific pH or adjust user
5 defined pH gradients. A complete omission of additional buffer substances is not achieved. Up
6 to now there is no commercial available product to perform online pH control in shake flask.
7 Cultivations using shake flask are still far away from serving as a template or scale-down model
8 for bigger bioreactor in terms of transferability. Therefore an active controller is still required.

10 **1.2 Micropump micro-actuators for small lab devices**

11 The first idea to apply conventional pumping systems like benchtop peristaltic- or syringe
12 pumps to several shake flasks connected by tubing and a multiport valve is complicated in
13 different ways and has a considerable space demand. Also important to consider is the way the
14 correction solutions (base and/or acid solutions) reach the culture. Drops usually tend to be
15 centrifuged against the flask wall and reach the culture delayed in time. Excessive use of pipes
16 towards the liquid is not an option in terms of weight reduction and miniaturization. So
17 solutions have to be dispensed as a jet. Focusing on dosage or injection purpose for volumes
18 $< 20 \mu\text{L}$, pumps are needed which can pump at relatively high flowrates at a fraction of the size
19 in comparison to their bigger counterparts. Minimum size peristaltic pumps which are based on
20 tubing do not achieve these high flowrates as required to perform a jet injection. Micropumps
21 like piezoelectric actuation pumps (more precisely “reciprocating displacement” pumps) cover
22 all these properties and represent promising candidates [12,13]. They comprise even more
23 advantages like less metal parts and lower energy consumption. The most successful design by
24 Van Lintel *et al.* in 1988 is based on an electrical deformable piezoelectric disk attached to a
25 thin diaphragm which seals a pumping chamber [14]. Since 2003 micropumps are available as
26 commercial standard with different manufacturers launching products on the market. Today
27 coin size micropumps (profile $< 2.5 \text{ cm}^2$) are available up to 40 mL/min [15] and provide a net
28 flow up to a backpressure maximum of 45 kPa [16].

30 **1.3 3D printing technology for lab devices**

31 3D printing has advanced to a common applied method in rapid prototyping in the last 10 years.
32 Additive manufacturing exhibits major advantages compared to subtractive computerized
33 numerical control (CNC) machining or injection molding. The main advantage is a very fast,
34 tool free, implementation of complex components from a virtual model to the finished device. A
35 fast reproduction and an easy modification of an existing device by reprinting accelerates the
36 prototyping progress [17]. For the development of the SFC it was important to have the option

1 to replace tubing by material integrated channels, because functional parts like valves cannot
 2 always be connected with tubing by standard, but have to be mounted. Another preference is the
 3 operators' safety. This implies that the tanks filled with acid or base have to be made as one
 4 piece (no gluing) which is possible with SLS in contrast to CNC machining [18,19]. Among
 5 different printing methods SLS reveals to be most suitable due to the good thermal, mechanical
 6 and chemical stability of compatible polymers like polyamide 12 (PA12) [20–22]. So far there
 7 is only little use of 3D printing for “macroscale” labware and devices in chemical and
 8 biotechnological laboratories. In 2013 Abe *et al.* showed that PA12, printed via SLS, has an
 9 excellent biocompatibility on fibroblast cells [23]. In 2014 Scheper and Beutel *et al.* proved its
 10 biocompatibility and autoclavability for labware in use. Well plates and shake flask caps were
 11 printed and tested successfully with yeast cells and mammalian cells [24,25].

12

13 2 Materials and Methods

14

15 2.1 Cultivation Methods and chemicals

16 The used microorganisms, cell lines, applied media and cultivation parameters are listed in
 17 Table 1. All media were prepared with deionized water produced by Arium® 661 Ultrapure
 18 water system (Sartorius Stedim Biotech AG, Göttingen, Germany).

19 2.1.1 Media preparation

20 Lysogeny broth (LB) unbuffered for *E. coli* K12: 5.0 g·L⁻¹ yeast extract (AppliChem),
 21 10.0 g·L⁻¹ trypton/peptone from casein (Carl-Roth), 6.0 g·L⁻¹ NaCl (Sigma-Aldrich),
 22 10.0/20.0 g·L⁻¹ glucose (Sigma-Aldrich). LB buffered for *E. coli* K12: 5.0 g·L⁻¹ yeast extract
 23 (AppliChem), 10.0 g·L⁻¹ trypton/peptone from casein (Carl-Roth), 5.0 g·L⁻¹ K₂HPO₄ (Fluka),
 24 3.0 g·L⁻¹ KH₂PO₄ (Fluka), 1.0 g·L⁻¹ NaCl (Sigma-Aldrich), 10.0/20.0 g·L⁻¹ glucose (Sigma-
 25 Aldrich). ZYP-31 (F.W. Studier *et al.*, modified) for *E. coli* K12: 6.8 g·L⁻¹ KH₂PO₄ (Fluka),
 26 17.9 g·L⁻¹ Na₂HPO₄·12·H₂O (Riedel de Haën), 3.3 g·L⁻¹ (NH₄)₂SO₄ (Carl-Roth), 2.0 g·L⁻¹ yeast
 27 nitrogen base (YNB) salts with amino acids (Y1250 Sigma), 0.06 g·L⁻¹ protocatechuic acid
 28 (Fluka), 10 g·L⁻¹ Glycerol (Rotipuran®, Carl-Roth). De Man, Rogosa, Sharpe (MRS) medium
 29 was prepared according to Ude *et al.* 2014 [26]. 200 µl·L⁻¹ of TEGO® Antifoam KS 911 were
 30 added to each medium.

31

32 **Table 1.** Cultivation parameters used for the SFC evaluation.

Species	T. [°C]	Agitation [rpm]	Flask Type [mL]	Medium	Volume [mL]	Preculture [h]
<i>E.coli</i> K12	37	170	500 WB	LB, ZYP-31	100	15

33

1 2.1.2 Equipment and pH measurement

2 The multisensory platform hardware specifications are according to Ude, Schmidt-Hager *et al.*
3 [26,27]. X-ray sterilized, disposable shake flask (Corning[®] Inc., Corning, USA) equipped with
4 DO- and pH sensor spots (PreSens GmbH, Regensburg, Germany) were used. The flasks were
5 baffled (WB) or non-baffled (NB). The batch numbers are as follows:

6 1) SFS-HP5-PSt3-500-WB-VEC-v3 ID 13-06-01. (cultivations)

7 2) SFS-HP5-PSt3-500-NB-VEC-v3 ID 12-22-01. (controller performance tests)

8 The default sensor spot calibrations were:

9 1) Phase 0% air sat [°] 57.42, Phase 100% air sat [°] 24.18, Temp 0 [°C] 36.9, Temp 100 [°C]
10 36.9, P [mbar] 975.00, pH_{max} 26.85, pH_{min} 55.11, pH_{Temp} 36.90, dpH 0.6, pH₀ 6.71.

11 2) Phase 0% air sat [°] 58.09, Phase 100% air sat [°] 24.65, Temp 0 [°C] 36.5, Temp 100 [°C]
12 36.5, P [mbar] 967.00, pH_{max} 21.43, pH_{min} 55.69, pH_{Temp} 36.5, dpH 0.59, pH₀ 6.93.

13 Shaking was performed on an orbital shaker with 25 mm shaking diameter (Certomat[®] SII,
14 Sartorius Stedim Biotech AG, Göttingen, Germany).

15

16 2.1.3 Correction solutions

17 Sodium hydroxide (Riedel de Haën) was dissolved in deionized water to produce 2 M or 3 M
18 solutions. 37 % hydrochloric acid (Merck) was diluted with deionized water to receive 2 M or
19 3 M solutions. 200 μL⁻¹ TEGO[®] Antifoam KS 911 were added to each solution. The solutions
20 were filtered with 0.45 μm sterile filters (Wicom GmbH, Heppenheim, Germany).

21

22 2.2 Cell density measurement

23 The OD₆₀₀ was calculated corresponding to Equation 1 [28]. A detailed description of the
24 biomass sensor calibration process is given in a previous report [26]. The OD₆₀₀ was measured
25 in comparable cultivations beforehand with Libra S11 visible spectrophotometer (Biochrom
26 Ltd., Cambridge, UK). The growth rate of microorganisms was calculated with Equation 2 and
27 is described by a logarithmic gradient triangle [29]. The parameter *t* refers to the time span in
28 which exponential growth takes place. The manual, offline OD₆₀₀ measurement was replaced by
29 the calculation of OD₆₀₀ from the online biomass sensor amplitude since during application of
30 the SFC no offline samples were taken. The parameters for different media are given in Table 2.

$$OD_{600}(amplitude, \alpha, \beta, c) = (\alpha + \beta \cdot amplitude)^{\frac{1}{c}} \quad (1)$$

31

32

33

1 **Table 2.** Biomass sensor calibration parameters.

Species	LB	ZYP-31	2
	α / β / c	α / β / c	3
<i>E. coli</i> K12	-7.518 / 0.000398 / -1.896	-4,241 / 0.000275 / -1,693	4
			5

6

$$\mu_{t_1-t_2} = \frac{\ln(\text{Amplitude}_{t_2}) - \ln(\text{Amplitude}_{t_1})}{t_2 - t_1} \quad (2)$$

7 **2.3 3D modeling and printing**

8 The SFC was modeled as 4 different parts using the software “Autodesk Inventor Professional
9 2013” (Autodesk, Inc., San Rafael, USA). The prototype parts were printed by Blue Production
10 GmbH (Friedrich-List-Straße 49, Paderborn, Germany). PA12 (Eosint PA2200) (EOS GmbH,
11 München, Germany) was used as polymer for SLS. All parts were printed in one powder bed
12 (same batch). More information on the printing parameters is given as follows: Grain size of
13 the powder (MEAN: 60 μm), layer width (100 μm), powder bed temperature (173°C), laser
14 energy input (40 mJ/mm^2), printing speed (laser speed) (2000 mm/s). Channels inside printed
15 parts were cleaned with pressurized air and smooth steel wire to remove all residual powder.
16 The docking faces of the valve-mounts were abraded with 400 grit silicon carbide sandpaper to
17 sustain a good sealing with the valves.

18

19 **2.4 Controller algorithms**

20 For the calculation of acid and base volumes 2 different types of controller were tested:
21 1. Adaptive proportional controller (Equation 3), 2. PID controller which is explained in
22 supplementary section 1.3 and Equation S1. A specific software was written in C-sharp .NET
23 4.5 which made parameterization and online calculation of the dosage-volumes possible. For
24 both controllers 2 basic parameters were defined: Set point [pH units] and waiting time [s]. The
25 waiting time corresponds to the minimum time needed for the chemical equilibrium between pH
26 sensor and the medium. Controller 1 is described by a linear correlation between the pH shift
27 (ΔpH) after addition of pH correction solution and the added volume (Equation 3). Parameter a
28 serves as gradient and parameter b as intercept. The equation was integrated into an adaptive
29 controller algorithm by continuous recalibration of the parameter a while b remains constant by
30 definition. During process a decrease of a leads to a bigger dosage at the same ΔpH . For further
31 tuning 4 additional parameters were introduced: 1. Hysteresis [pH units], 2. Waiting time for the
32 correlation between dosage and pH shift, 3. Minimum number of data points for the calibration,

1 4. Maximum “age” of the calibration points. Especially parameter 4 provides the controller with
 2 a kind of big or small memory. Nonsensical correlations (e.g. base dosage is followed by a pH
 3 decrease) can be excluded from the calibration. Optional minimum and maximum values can be
 4 assigned for a, b and the dosage. A function for setting programmable pH gradients was
 5 integrated in the software.

$$\text{dosage volume}_i [\mu\text{L}] = \frac{\Delta\text{pH}_i - b}{a_i} \quad (3)$$

6

7 **2.5 Controller design**

8

9 **2.5.1 Working principle**

10

11 The SFC working principle is based on a tank (11.5 mL) connected to a valve and a
 12 piezoelectric micropump (mp6, Bartels Mikrotechnik GmbH, Dortmund, Germany), which is
 13 pumping the liquid through a nozzle into the shake flask (Figure 1A). A 2-way normally closed
 14 solenoid valve (LFNA 1250, LEE Hydraulische Miniaturkomponenten GmbH, Sulzbach,
 15 Germany) connecting pump and tank prevents any leakage of the pump in standby mode. The
 16 unit is divided in an autoclavable and non-autoclavable part (electronics and actuators) which is
 17 sterilized by sterilization in place (SIP) (section 2.7). They are separated by a flange/docking
 18 connection. In total the SFC comprises 2 working units (1x acid, 1x base) in which the valves
 19 have specific gaskets.

20

21 **2.5.2 Hardware implementation**

22 A detailed technical view of the SFC is illustrated in Figure 2A. The SFC is composed of 3
 23 stages. Stage 1 is a modified screwable cap with a 0.2 μm fiber-reinforced
 24 polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) gas permeable membrane (Sartorius Stedim Biotech AG,
 25 Göttingen, Germany). Gas inlets sustain a constant gas exchange. Next to the membrane, 2
 26 concave flanged 1/8” PTFE capillaries (VWR International, Radnor, USA) are inserted into
 27 pipes and end with nozzles (not shown). Micro PTFE capillaries (0.82 mm outside, 0.35 mm
 28 inside, 6 mm long, Reichelt Chemie Technik, Heidelberg, Germany) served as nozzles to
 29 produce a thin jet, which enables a direct dosage into the culture (Figure 1B). Stage 2 contains
 30 two pumps located between two reservoirs. The reservoirs are equipped with a collection cone
 31 connected to the pumps inlets by tygon[®] tubing (3.0 mm outside, 1.0 mm inside, Saint-Gobain
 32 S.A., Courbevoie, France). The pumps outlets lead to docking connectors equipped with convex
 33 flanged 1/8” PTFE capillaries. Stage 3 physically forms one part with stage 2 (Figure 2B). It
 34 contains refill ports for the tanks, pressure balances featuring polyethylene frits (25 μm,

1 Omnifit, Diba Industries, Cambridge, UK) and one valve for each correction solution. The
2 valves are mounted to blocks with integrated channels connecting pumps and tanks. The top
3 part is composed of two circuit boards. It contains a processor (Propeller P8X32A-M44,
4 Parallax Inc., Rocklin, USA), two mp6-OEM controller units and relays. The SFC is connected
5 via RS-485-USB converter to a PC by cable which also contains a 12 V power supply. The
6 different stages are kept together by a cap nut. Luer connectors were added to enable refill using
7 disposable syringes and enabling manual pump flushing. The tare weight of the whole SFC is
8 111.33 g, while the loaded weight is about 132 g.

9 10 **2.6 Controller calibration procedure**

11 The controller was simply calibrated by precision scale with hydrochloric acid and NaOH
12 solution. During service the controller is converting a volume command [μl] into the pulse
13 count of the mp6 piezo elements. The calibration of the dosage volume against the pulse count
14 was determined linear (supplementary section 1.5).

15 16 **2.7 Controller sterilization procedure**

17 Stage 1 was autoclaved at 121 °C and 200 kPa for 30 min mounted on the flask. The tubing of
18 Stage 2 and 3 are self-sterilizing by filling the tanks and tubing with 2 or 3 M hydrochloric acid
19 or sodium hydroxide solution. The underside of stage 2 (docking connectors) was sterilized in
20 place using a UV-C station (supplementary section 1.6). The irradiation was carried out for
21 30 min. The sterility of the SFC was tested through a simple dosage routine with a LB medium
22 filled 500 WB shake flask (supplementary section 1.7).

23 24 **2.8 Controller performance tests**

25 In order to test the performance of the SFC using an adaptive P controller or a PID controller
26 algorithm, defined volumes of acid and base were dispensed into medium by the SFC (pulse
27 perturbation). The time and the amount of correction solution required to balance the
28 perturbation, hence readjusting the setpoint, was investigated. Two different complex media
29 were used: LB (pH 7.0, unbuffered), MRS (pH 6.2, moderate buffered). The LB dosage
30 program was: 2x 25 μL acid, 2x 50 μL acid, 2x 25 μL base, 2x 50 μL base. The MRS dosage
31 program was: 2x 200 μL acid, 2x 400 μL acid, 2x 200 μL base, 2x 400 μL base. 500 WB shake
32 flasks with 100 mL vol. were shaken at 150 rpm during dosage. The start parameters are listed
33 in Table 3. The start parameters a , b of the adaptive P controller depend on the used medium
34 and could be easily determined by prior titration experiments in LB and MRS. For this purpose
35 variable amounts of acid and base (25-70 μL , 5 μL step) were added to 100 mL of medium and
36 the pH shift was measured via pH sensor. The parameter a and b were determined by the linear

1 regression of pH shift against volume. K_R , T_N , T_V of the PID controller were optimized
2 empirical in LB medium step by step.

3

4 **Table 3:** Adaptive P controller parameters implemented for the performance test in typical
5 microbial media.

parameter	LB medium	MRS medium
set point pH	7.0	6.2
hysteresis \pm pH	0.05	0.05
waiting time [s]	90	90
actuation range [μ L]	5-300	5-500
calib. intercept y (b)	0	0
calib. gradient (a)	0.0030	0.00040
waiting time correlation [s]	85	85
minimum data points	1	1
maximum age [s]	3600	3600
minimum gradient (a)	0,000050	0,000010
exclude nonsensical correlations	true	true

6

7 **Table 4:** PID controller parameters implemented for the performance test.

parameter	LB medium	MRS medium
set point pH	7.0	6.2
hysteresis \pm pH	0	0
waiting time [s]	90	90
actuation range [μ L]	5-300	5-500
K_R	120	120
T_N	300	300
T_V	40	40

8

9 **2.9 pH control during microbial cultivation**

10 The SFC was evaluated under realistic conditions by pH control during growth of *E. coli* K12 in
11 LB medium with $10 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ / $20 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ glucose as carbon source and ZYP-31 medium with
12 $10 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ glycerol. The first type of cultivation (LB) is a typical scenario at which *E. coli* K12 is
13 excessive acidifying the low buffered medium resulting in a pH decrease of 1 pH unit or more,
14 depending on the glucose concentration. In the second scenario it was tested whether the control
15 in highly buffered medium is effective enough. Cultivation parameters can be found in

1 section 2.1. The adaptive P controller start parameters are listed in Table 5. The PID controller
2 parameters are listed in supplementary section 1.8, Table S1.

3

4 **Table 5:** Adaptive controller- and medium parameters implemented for the microbial
5 cultivation.

parameter	LB medium	ZYP-31 medium
glucose [$\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$]	10, 20	-
glycerol [$\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$]	-	10
set point pH	7.5	7.5
hysteresis \pm pH	0.05	0.05
waiting time [s]	90	90
actuation range [μL]	10-300	5-300
calib. intercept y (b)	0.02	0
calib. gradient (a)	0.0020	0.00015
waiting time correlation [s]	70	85
minimum datapoints	5	5
maximum age [s]	3600	3600
minimum gradient (a)	0	0,00005
exclude nonsensical correlations	true	true

6

7

8 **3 Results and Discussion**

9

10 **3.1 Polymer material tests**

11 SLS and stereolithography (SL) polymer materials intended to use for the SFC backbone were
12 tested concerning their ability to withstand autoclaving process and exposure to strong mineral
13 acid and base (supplementary section 1.2). PA12 (PA 2000i, PA 1800) proved to be appropriate
14 for heat sterilization and inert towards 5 M NaOH solution as well as 10 M hydrochloric acid
15 (supplementary Figure S1 and S2). The tested SL resins were not suitable in terms of both
16 criteria. Regarding the mechanical integrity of the lower part of the SFC (Figure 2A) no changes
17 were observed after 30 autoclaving cycles.

18

19 **3.2 Construction and prototyping progress**

20 Before the SLS printed prototype shown in this manuscript was used a CNC machined pre-
21 prototype made of polyvinylchloride (PVC) and polyether ether ketone (PEEK) was used to

1 evaluate the actuators. During the early experiments it was found out that the mp6 pumps were
2 not completely sealing during standby. The leakage was approx. $1 \text{ ml} \cdot 14 \text{ h}^{-1}$ using water.
3 Different custom made passive valves were tested to enable flow in presence of a sufficient
4 liquid pressure (pumping) and close at low liquid pressure (standby). The working principle of
5 these valves is shown in supplementary Figure S11. Unfortunately the force of the micropumps
6 was not sufficient to compress the spring just by the produced flow and provide sealing at the
7 same time. In the next step active solenoid valves were tested successfully and integrated into
8 the final system (section 2.5). Since it was not possible to produce hose nozzles for small tubing
9 (1 mm diameter inside) by SLS, 5 mm pieces of PEEK capillary were attached to these parts.
10 Tygon[®] tubing stubs were put into the holes (1.5 mm deep) and the capillary stubs were plunged
11 in. Other methods like gluing resulted in leakage after a certain time. This method was applied
12 to the valve mounts and the tanks. The electrical parts on the circuit board showed to suffer
13 from HCl fumes which were caused by the aforementioned leakage. The circuit board was
14 preventively coated by a thin layer of solder lacquer. Concerning flow performance there was
15 no loss observed after shifting from the CNC machined pre-prototype to the SLS printed
16 prototype.

18 **3.3 Adaptive P controller performance test**

19 In LB medium the adaptive P controller algorithm was able to restore the setpoint (7.00
20 \pm pH 0.02) after a pulse perturbation (by manual dosage of the SFC) of 0.20 pH units within a
21 short time span of approx. 360 s (
22

23 Figure 3). In total a release of 256 μL 3 M HCl and 290 μL 3 M NaOH solution was recorded
24 by the software for balancing. The observed difference of 34 μL could be caused by small
25 amount of droplets which stucked to the nozzle after each dosage. In the case of MRS medium a
26 higher buffer concentration led to a much higher dosage volume but not to a lower response
27 time (200 s for a deviation of ΔpH 0.2 or 0.3).
28

29 **3.4 PID controller performance test**

30 The PID controller showed a significant slower response behavior (900 s vs. 360 s for
31 balancing) compared to the adaptive P controller (
32

33 Figure 4). One explanation could be given by a non-optimal parametrization of the PID
34 controller. Another more obvious explanation lies in the algorithm structure; Different from P
35 controllers the PID controller could not be equipped with a pH hysteresis, i.e. the PID must
36 reach the exact setpoint. While the pH can be measured by electrodes within seconds a pH
37 sensor spots needs approx. 60 s for a stable value. Under these conditions a P controller is more
38 advantageous due to its ambition to balance deviation with one actuation instead of approaching

1 to the setpoint. By using the same controller parameters for MRS medium it was not possible to
2 balance the perturbations in a realistic period of time. The biggest differences between both
3 algorithms persisted in the approx. 2.5 times higher response time of the PID controller. It also
4 tended to need more time for bigger deviations while the dosage time was independent from the
5 dosage volume when using the adaptive P controller. It could also be confirmed that an adaptive
6 controller is more robust against changes concerning the medium or the operation point as
7 shown previously [30]. A disadvantage using P controller can exist in overshooting which might
8 occur using poor start parameters for the calibration. Since hysteresis and adaptive recalibration
9 was provided for the P controller this effect could be minimized.

10

11 **3.5 Controller algorithm implementation progress**

12 Apart from the controller algorithms described in section 2.4 a simple 3 point controller and a P
13 controller without adaptive behavior was tested beforehand. The 3 point controller using a
14 constant dosage showed to be able to control the pH during cultivation according to the given
15 setpoint (supplementary Figure S9). However, the dosage had to be adjusted very specifically.
16 High dosages (50 μL) led to overshooting at the beginning of the cultivation, while small
17 dosages were not able to control the pH during the exponential growth phase. So the 3 point
18 controller was replaced by a P controller. This controller was able to manage big and small
19 deviations from the setpoint just as well but could not control the pH during the exponential
20 growth phase (supplementary Figure S10), since the buffering properties of the liquid were
21 changing over time. This led to the continuous recalibration of parameter a by the control
22 software which will be described in section 3.7. Using this adaptive P controller it was possible
23 to manage the changing conditions during cultivation which is presented in the following
24 section.

25

26 **3.6 pH control during microbial cultivation**

27 The SFC was evaluated with *E. coli* K12 which is the most frequently used microorganism
28 among biotechnical cultivations. It was cultivated in buffered LB medium without active pH
29 control (Figure 5) and unbuffered LB Medium controlled by the SFC in combination with an
30 adaptive P controller (Figure 6). In low buffered LB medium with 10 $\text{g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ glucose the pH
31 decreased by 1.2 pH units within 8 h cultivation resulting in a pH 6.2. This behavior was
32 reported before [7,31]. The monitoring of DO gives evidence when the exponential growth
33 phase started and stopped. While the observed growth rate (μ) of 0,468 h^{-1} within the first hour
34 of oxygen limitation is common for shake flask cultivations, the continuous decrease towards
35 0.09 h^{-1} and less indicates the crucial influence of pH for optimal growth. 8 hours after
36 inoculation at an OD_{600} of 3.55 the increase of DO clearly marked the stationary phase of the

1 cultivation. In contrast, the pH could be kept in a range of at least 0.15 pH units around the
2 setpoint using the SFC (Figure 6) which is even more precise compared to 0.2 reported in the
3 literatures [2] (stationary control system) and [32] (BioLector[®], microtiterplate). A growth rate
4 of at least 0.2 h⁻¹ was maintained over the whole cultivation time. A significant higher optical
5 density of OD₆₀₀ 4.95 was reached 8 hours after inoculation (+ 39 %) which was also reported in
6 [7]. The end of the glucose based growth phase could be detected by the stop of the highly
7 frequent base dispensing and a stopped increase of OD₆₀₀ signal. After an adaption phase the
8 culture switched to basification of the medium due to amino acid degradation [33]. This could
9 be prevented by the control as well. Nevertheless the usage of 2 M base in this experiment was
10 predominant and all available NaOH solution was depleted. That gave a hint of the requirement
11 of even more concentrated correction solution. In another experiment a glucose concentration of
12 20 g·L⁻¹ was used in combination with 3 M correction solution. Substrate inhibition occurred
13 which led to a lower growth rate. Though, a higher final OD₆₀₀ of 5.56 was reached. Like
14 demonstrated before, the pH could be kept in a range of 0.1-0.15 pH units (Figure 7) while the
15 NaOH solution was depleted up to 40%(v/v) of the total filling. The real capacity of the control
16 system strongly depends on the organism, medium, substrate, setpoint and the molarity of the
17 correction solution (with can be set from 0 up to 3 M). Concentrations > 3 M led to a significant
18 performance loss of the micropumps and were not used subsequently. The experiments so far
19 demonstrated that a tank capacity of 11.5 mL in combination with 3 M correction solutions and
20 a culture volume of 100 mL is sufficient to control cultivations for at least 24 h. Nevertheless a
21 refill during the process is possible. For the usage of bigger flask and culture volumes an
22 upscaling of the tanks is possible as well. Concerning the mechanical stability no fluctuating of
23 the flask with the SFC mounted on top was observed during shaking at 170 rpm.

24

25 A PID controller was applied in addition showing a very precise pH control in a range of at least
26 0.14 pH units (supplementary Figure S8) which is comparable to the P controller, as well as
27 similar growth rates observed. The metabolic shift (glucose depletion) was determined after 8 h
28 at an OD₆₀₀ of 4.34 which further increased up to 5.49 after 19 h. In general the controller could
29 balance the pH at range of 0.05 pH units (5x maximal pH measurement resolution). The
30 uncontrolled cultivation performed in strong buffered ZYP-31 medium using 10 g·L⁻¹ glycerol
31 as substrate generally results in a pH decrease from pH 7.5 to pH 6.6-6.5. In this case pH
32 control within a range of 0.1 pH units could be achieved with a very low dosage count (8 times)
33 during acidification (Figure 8). In total only 2.29 mL base were used for acidification balance
34 and 3.30 mL acid within 23 h showing that the SFC is also compatible for strong buffered
35 defined media.

36

1 3.7 Controller behavior and controlling parameter trend during cultivation

2 During the cultivation shown in Figure 6 the adaptive P controller dispensed 146 times 2 M
3 base (MEAN 82 μL) at a concentration of $10 \text{ g}\cdot\text{L}^{-1}$ glucose in LB medium within 8 h. The
4 correlation between dosage volume and pH shift was assumed to be linear (Equation 3, section
5 2.4). The adaptive part is given by the gradient a , which adapted within the first 4 dosages to a
6 value of 0.0007 during the lag phase (Figure 9). In the following growth phases it could be
7 observed that the parameter was adapting continuously, especially during the exponential
8 growth phase (maximum glucose metabolization) between 1.5 and 7.5 h after inoculation.
9 Dosages ranged between 50 and 130 μL at which they were increasing towards the end of the
10 exponential growth phase just as the dosage frequency. The explanation of the slight increase of
11 dosage can be found in the increasing culture volume (caused by the addition of correction
12 solutions) and the release of acetate into the medium. The higher gradient a in the stationary
13 growth phase might be due to an asymmetric, direction depended pH shift caused by dosage,
14 since the controller currently uses the same function and parameters for acid and base.
15 In comparison with a PID controller (supplementary section 1.8) it was found that both
16 controller algorithms worked similar in view of pH control in a definable range around the
17 setpoint. The main differences were found in the actuation frequency during process. In the case
18 of the cultivation type shown in Figure 6 the PID controller dispensed 266 times 3 M base
19 (MEAN 16 μL) in within 8 h. Under consideration of the higher molarity the PID controller
20 acted more economical in terms of correction solution usage, but accepts a higher mechanical
21 load. A less frequent actuation could be achieved by changing the actuation range from 4-300 μl
22 to 10-300 μl . In the presented case this method was not applied to the PID in order to prevent
23 strong oscillation effects as reported in [30].

24

25 4 Conclusions

26

27 In these investigations it was shown that precise, online pH control in shake flask by a cap
28 integrated 3D printed control unit is possible avoiding the use of high buffer concentrations or
29 buffer loaded polymers. Material tests showed a fully long term autoclavability of printed PA12
30 and compatibility against concentrated hydrochloric acid and NaOH solution. Also commercial
31 available micropumps and valves proved to be resistant against these liquids. For fast response
32 control an adaptive and simple adjustable P controller proved to be more adequate compared to
33 a PID controller. During cultivation of *E. coli* K12 in 500 mL shake flasks the pH could be
34 controlled in a very narrow range independent of the buffer capacity. Controlled cultivations
35 exhibit a significant higher growth rate when the substrate dependent pH shift led to growth
36 inhibition. The process using the PID controller was proved to work most economical in terms

1 of correction solution usage. Some limitations of the used technologies are apparent in the
2 rough material surface which may cause cleaning and biosafety issues.
3 As an outlook, the autoclavability of all fluidic actuators would simplify sterilization process.
4 Another goal is to replace up to 100 % of the tubing by material integrated channels. Regarding
5 different applications the control unit enables the setup of individual pH gradients which are
6 necessary for certain production processes or pH dependent induction of protein production
7 [34]. The autoclavability of all fluidic actuators would also enable the dosage of non-self-
8 sterilizing solutions (feeds, inducer, dyes, growth factors, inhibitors, trace elements etc.). The
9 roughness of the SLS printed parts can be reduced to a certain degree by optimization of the
10 printing parameters (laser power, scan spacing, hatch length, bed temperature, layer thickness)
11 [35,36]. Especially the first two parameters are crucial. Optionally exterior surfaces could be
12 completely sealed with coatings based on epoxy adhesives [37]. Material alternatives to be
13 evaluated are given by new heat stable SLA polymers which are commercially available on the
14 market (e.g. Accura[®] PEAK[™], VisiJet[®] SL HiTemp). Further non cell based applications
15 consist in the regulation of enzymatic reactions by titration or dispensing inhibitors at a certain
16 pH. Finally, the successful miniaturization supports the concept of light-weight, functional
17 labware. It is very likely that intelligent, compact, portable, flexible and easy adaptable control
18 units like the SFC will be established for bioprocess engineering encouraged by advances in
19 rapid prototyping, MEMS and disposable sensor technology in this decade.

20

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24

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10

11

12

13 **6 Figure captions**

14

15 **Figure 1:** Functional diagram of one dosage working unit (A). Two working units are
16 integrated for acid and base respectively. The nozzles are autoclavable while the rest was treated
17 by sterilization in place (SIP). A jet of correction solution is dispensed by the SFC (B).

18

19 **Figure 2:** Exploded drawing of the SFC shown as CAD model. No capillaries, tubing or
20 electrical connections are shown (A). The SFC is compatible with 500 mL standard corning
21 shake flasks (B). Assembled SFC is mounted on a disposable 500 ml WB shake flask with
22 sensor spots. The flask is placed on the multisensory platform.

23

24 **Figure 3:** Adaptive P controller performance in LB medium.

25

26 **Figure 4:** PID controller performance in LB medium.

27

28 **Figure 5:** Monitoring of pH, DO and OD₆₀₀ during growth of *E. coli* K12 in LB medium with
29 10 g·L⁻¹ glucose.

30 **Figure 6:** Application of the SFC on cultivation of *E. coli* K12 in LB medium with 10 g·L⁻¹
31 glucose using an adaptive P controller.

32 **Figure 7:** Application of the SFC on cultivation of *E. coli* K12 in LB medium with 20 g·L⁻¹
33 glucose using an adaptive P controller.

34 **Figure 8:** Application of the SFC on cultivation of *E. coli* K12 in ZYP-31 medium with
35 10 g·L⁻¹ glycerol using an adaptive P controller.

36 **Figure 9:** Continuous recalibration of the adaptive P controller of an *E. coli* K12 cultivation in
37 LB medium with 20 g·L⁻¹ glucose.

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Highlights

- We investigated the possibility to perform online pH control in shake flask
- A combination of a SLS printed case and micropumps was tested
- pH measurement was achieved by pH chemosensors “sensorspots”
- pH is controlled very precisely during cultivation for at least 24 hours
- The progressive miniaturization prevents a severe top-heaviness of the system

Christian Ude studied Life Science at the Leibniz University of Hannover, Germany. He graduated with a Master of Science in the working group of Thomas Scheper in 2012. From 2012 to 2015, he continued working in that working group in the context of his PhD thesis. During his thesis he is working on the development of a multisensory platform and an online pH control unit for shake flask cultivations. Additionally, he developed an enzyme based, ceramic capillary reactor system to produce bioactive peptides from various protein sources.

Thorleif Hentrop is an electronic engineer and head of the electronic workshop at the Institute of Technical Chemistry at the Leibniz University of Hannover, Germany since 2000. He is a trained radio technician and graduated with a diploma degree in electronics at the University of Frankfurt am Main, Germany in 1995. In the last years he accompanied many PhD students and postdocs during their projects in the area of sensors and automation. He is also working on projects at his own engineering office.

Patrick Lindner is a member of the scientific staff at the Institute of Technical Chemistry, Leibniz University of Hannover since 2007. He graduated with a diploma degree in chemistry in 2003 and received his PhD in 2006. His main topics of research activities include Bioanalytics, Microscopy, Bioinformatics, Statistics, Multivariate Data Analysis, Artificial Neural Networks and Software Development.

Tim Lücking studied Biotechnology at the University of Applied Science and University of Bielefeld, Germany. He did his master thesis at Bayer Technology Services, Leverkusen and graduated in 2011. From 2012 to 2015, during his PhD thesis, he worked in the group of Prof. Dr. T. Scheper at the Institute of Technical Chemistry in Hannover, Germany. During his thesis he developed an automation system and new PAT technologies for mammalian cell cultivations. Additionally, he worked on new 3D printing concepts for creating individual labware.

Thomas Scheper is a professor at the Institute of Technical Chemistry, Leibniz University of Hannover since 1995 and prior at the University of Münster since 1992. He graduated with the

1 diploma degree in chemistry in 1981 in Hannover and received his PhD in 1985. After a
2 postdoctoral stay at Caltech in 1986 he returned to the University of Hannover. His research
3 activities are in the area of bioprocess analysis, biosensors, fermentation process development
4 and downstream processing.

5

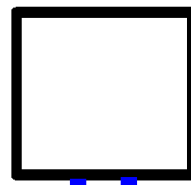
6 **Sascha Beutel** is a senior scientist and project manager in the research group of Prof. Thomas
7 Scheper at the Institute of Technical Chemistry, Leibniz University of Hannover since 2001. He
8 graduated with the diploma degree in chemistry in 1997 in Hannover and received his PhD in
9 2000. He led the center of excellence “functional food” from 2002 to 2006. He is lecturer in
10 bioprocess engineering at the chemical department and advanced technical college of Hannover
11 and was scholarship coordinator of the degree program “Life Science” (BSc) from 2004 to
12 2008. Since 2008 he is also leading the hazardous waste management.

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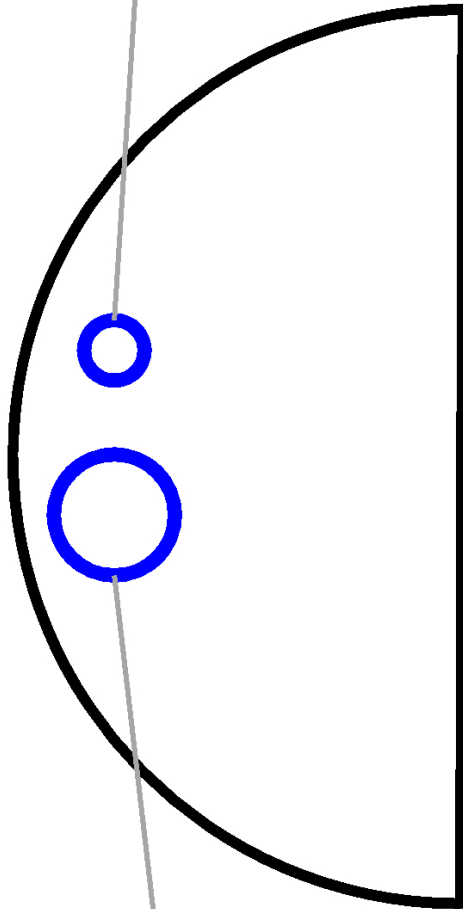
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pressure balance

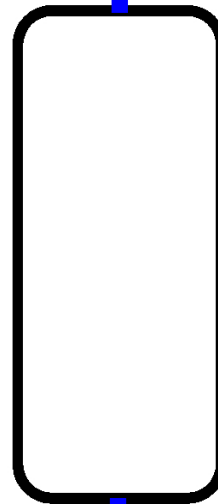


valve

tank



refill port

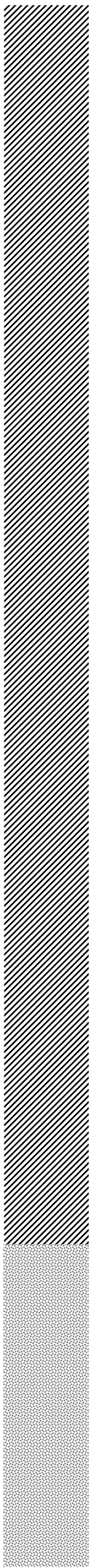


pump



flange

nozzle

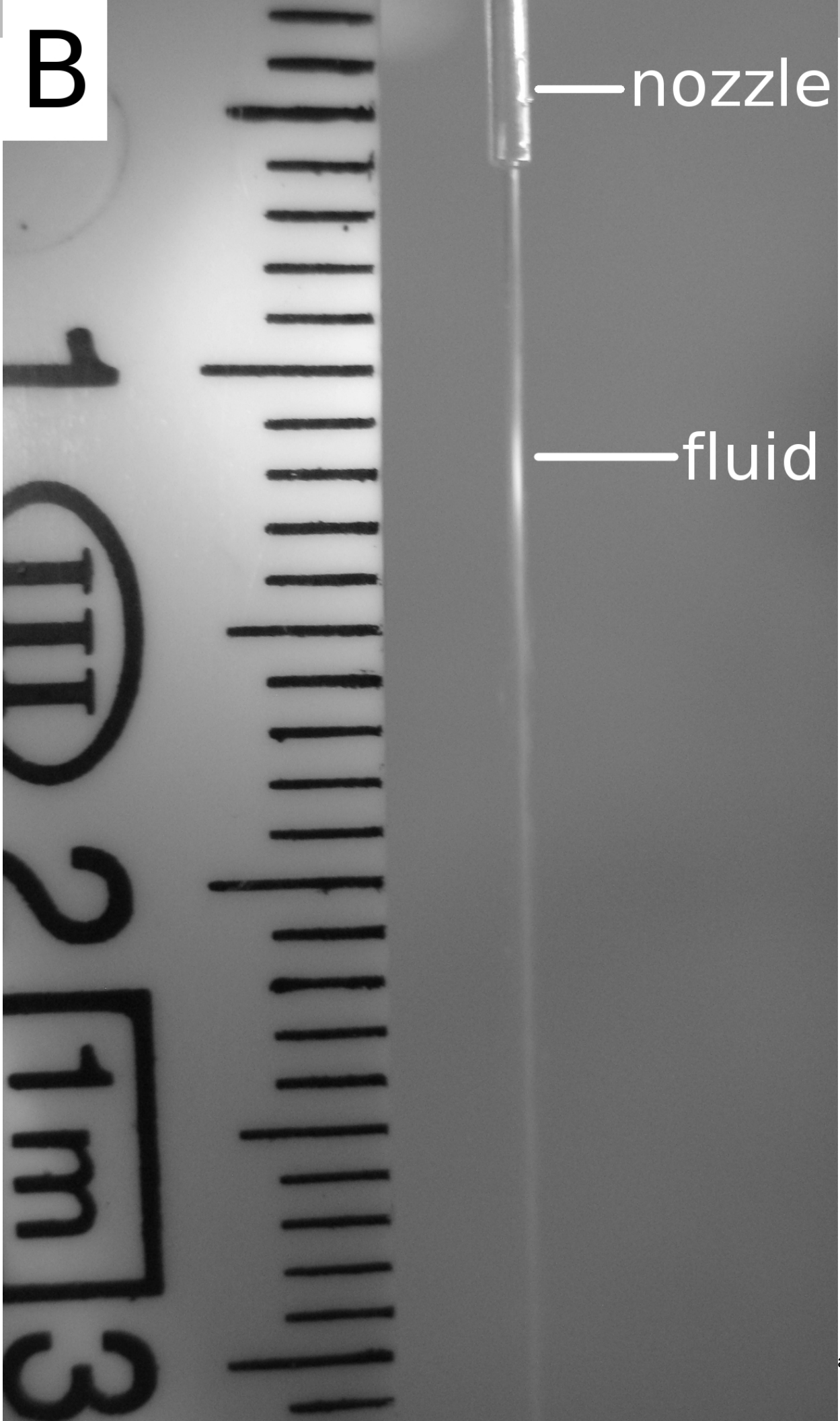


autoclavable



SIP

B



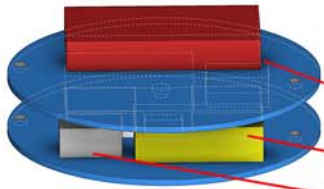
—nozzle

—fluid

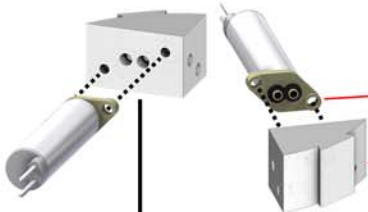
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stage 3:
valves and electronics:
(physically forms one part with stage 2)

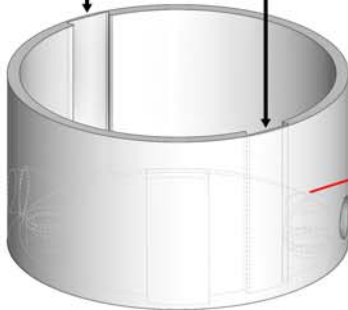


a) sandwich circuit board
- processor
- OEM controllers for pumps
- relays



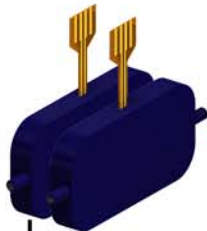
c) miniature valves
LFNA 1250

d) valve mount



e) refill port

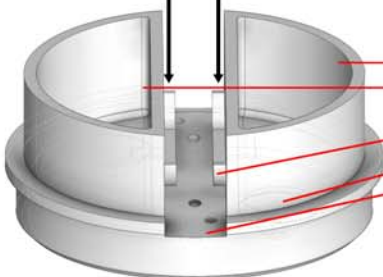
f) pressure balance



2x mp-6 micropumps

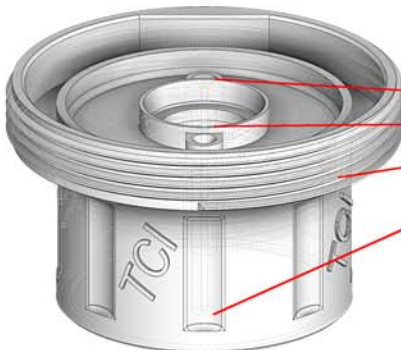
stage 2:
tank module with integrated:

a) tank 11.5 mL (acid)
b) tank 11.5 mL (base)
c) micropump mount
d) collection cone
e) docking connector

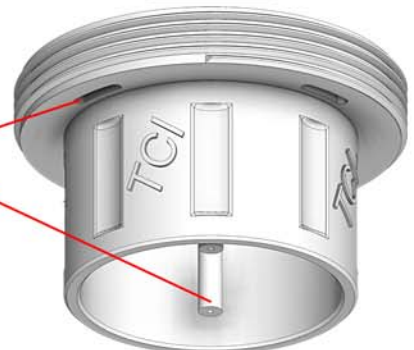
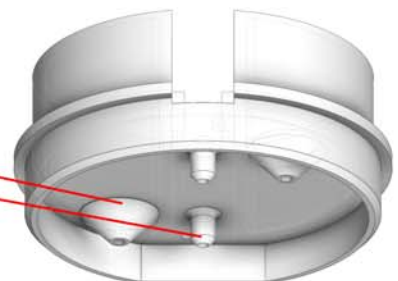


stage 1:
cap with integrated:

a) flanges for stage 2
b) fiber-reinforced PTFE membrane
c) gas inlets (under the thread)
d) pipe + nozzle (not printed)



B



10mm

