



UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA CATARINA
CENTRO DE CIÊNCIAS AGRÁRIAS
DEPARTAMENTO DE CIÊNCIA E TECNOLOGIA DE ALIMENTOS
PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM CIÊNCIA DOS ALIMENTOS

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Quantificação e identificação de *Escherichia coli* por
Multi Cell Differential Scanning Calorimetry (MCDSC)

Florianópolis
2023

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Tese submetida ao Programa de Pós-Graduação
em Ciência dos Alimentos da Universidade
Federal de Santa Catarina, como requisito para
a obtenção do título de Doutora em Ciência dos
Alimentos.

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Florianópolis
2023

Ficha de identificação da obra elaborada pelo autor,
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Machado, Michelle Heck
Quantificação e identificação de Escherichia coli por
Multi Cell Differential Scanning Calorimetry (MCDSC) /
Michelle Heck Machado ; orientador, Pedro Luiz Manique
Barreto, 2023.
81 p.

Tese (doutorado) - Universidade Federal de Santa
Catarina, Centro de Ciências Agrárias, Programa de Pós
Graduação em Ciência dos Alimentos, Florianópolis, 2023.

Inclui referências.

1. Ciência dos Alimentos. 2. Crescimento calorimétrico.
3. Métodos alternativos. 4. Modelo de Baranyi e Roberts.
5. Microbiologia preditiva. I. Barreto, Pedro Luiz
Manique. II. Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina.
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Ciência dos Alimentos. III.
Título.

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O presente trabalho de Doutorado foi avaliado e aprovado por banca examinadora composta pelos seguintes membros:

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Florianópolis, 2023.

RESUMO

A microcalorimetria isotérmica (IMC) é uma técnica sensível que realiza medições de pequenas quantidades, em torno de $0,2 \mu\text{W}$, de calor produzido. É uma análise térmica capaz de monitorar em tempo real, sob condições de temperatura constante, os processos metabólicos envolvidos no crescimento microbiano. Uma vez que, todo organismo vivo produz calor como resultado das reações metabólicas. Em IMC, os resultados gerados são os dados termocinéticos (watts por tempo) do crescimento de um microrganismo em uma condição específica. Atualmente, a IMC está difundida em análises clínicas e na identificação de patógenos, e tem potencial aplicação em diversas áreas como no controle de qualidade de alimentos. Contudo, alguns desafios circundam a ampliação do uso. Dentre eles, destacam-se o alto custo de aquisição de microcalorímetros, a não padronização de termos e nomenclaturas, bem como a dificuldade de transcrição dos dados calorimétricos para informações de importância biológica. Assim, a referida tese tem como objetivo avaliar a capacidade do *MultiCell Differential Scanning Calorimetry* (MCDSC), um calorímetro de varredura (DSC), capaz de operar em modo isotérmico, para a detecção de microrganismos. Primeiramente, foi realizada busca em literatura pertinente a fim de apanhar as informações disponíveis sobre o atual uso da técnica e referente à possibilidade de uso do MCDSC como alternativa aos instrumentos de IMC. Os estudos coletados indicaram necessidade de aprofundamento das metodologias utilizadas, tanto em relação à calorimetria quanto na microbiologia clássica. Ainda, observou-se o apelo para a padronização das informações e nomenclaturas pertinentes às curvas de fluxo de calor da extração dos parâmetros de crescimento calorimétrico, uma vez que não existe consenso. Toda a busca literária garantiu a elaboração de protocolo de ensaio seguro para avaliação do MCDSC na detecção de microrganismos. Para tanto, *Escherichia coli* ATCC 25922 (*E. coli*) foi utilizada como microrganismo teste, uma vez que seu metabolismo é conhecido por diversos métodos microbiológicos, facilitando a comparação entre os dados. Os resultados calorimétricos obtidos foram comparados com os dados encontrados na literatura, com referência aos calorímetros mais sensíveis de IMC. Para, assim, verificar a sensibilidade do equipamento MCDSC na detecção de *E. coli* em diferentes concentrações, confrontando os dados calorimétricos com os dados obtidos por metodologias de cultivo tradicionais envolvendo a contagem em placas. Os dados de multiplicação celular, em todos os métodos de cultivo e mensura, foram comparados entre si com auxílio de modelo matemático de Baranyi e Roberts (BAR). O modelo sigmoide BAR é amplamente reconhecido em aplicações da microbiologia preditiva por ser capaz de descrever todas as fases que envolvem o crescimento microbiano. A partir do ajuste – avaliado pelos parâmetros R^2 (coeficiente de determinação) e RMSE (raiz quadrada do erro médio) – adequado ao modelo, foram extraídos os parâmetros velocidade máxima específica de crescimento (μ_{max}) e duração da fase lag (λ) para *E. coli* no MCDSC e contagem em placas nas diferentes condições de cultivo. Os resultados para a μ_{max} entre 0,799 e 1,143 (1/h) são semelhantes entre os cultivos estudados, bem como para o tipo de dado aos quais o modelo foi ajustado, porém, há distinção entre λ para os cultivos. O que pode ser explicado pela sensibilidade do calorímetro utilizado. Contudo, os resultados apontam que o MCDSC foi capaz de identificar diferenças na concentração do inóculo. Ainda, o equipamento foi adequado para obtenção do *fingerprint* para *E. coli*, de acordo com dados encontrados na literatura. Caracterizando o MCDSC e o protocolo de ensaio desenvolvido como potencial para detecção de *E. coli*, contribuído para promover o uso da calorimetria para medições microbiológicas.

Palavras-chave: Crescimento calorimétrico; Métodos alternativos; Modelo de Baranyi e Roberts, Microbiologia preditiva; Contagem em placas

RESUMO EXPANDIDO

Introdução

A microcalorimetria isotérmica (IMC) é uma ferramenta analítica que mede o calor produzido, ou consumido no tempo, através de reações químicas ou mudanças físicas em uma amostra. Pode ser utilizada para medições microbiológicas, uma vez que toda atividade metabólica gera calor nas reações bioquímicas envolvidas. Atualmente, a IMC possui aplicações em diversas áreas que compreendem as ciências da vida e biotecnologia, sendo difundida em análises clínicas. Dentre as vantagens da utilização da técnica, em comparação às metodologias tradicionais em microbiologia, destaca-se a precisão da temperatura de ensaio, a diminuição do tempo necessário para obtenção de resultados, além da execução e instrumentação simplificadas. Ainda, a IMC é reconhecida por apresentar sensibilidade, precisão, repetibilidade e reprodutibilidade para avaliação e detecção do crescimento microbiano. Sabe-se que cada microrganismo é capaz de produzir um padrão de curva específico, uma espécie de impressão digital térmica (*fingerprint*), de acordo com o seu metabolismo e o meio em que se encontra. Embora a abordagem de utilização seja simplificada, a interpretação dos dados calorimétricos com significado microbiológico ainda é um desafio. Por isso, sugere-se uma verificação dos dados calorimétricos quanto à informação microbiológica estudada. A utilização de modelagem matemática pode auxiliar nesse processo, tendo em vista que modelos preditivos podem explicar o crescimento microbiano em condições específicas e fornecer informações sobre os processos envolvidos. Alguns modelos matemáticos, como o de Baranyi e Roberts (BAR), são reconhecidos por explicar integralmente as fases do crescimento microbiano. O uso da microcalorimetria isotérmica se dá pela utilização de equipamentos altamente sensíveis e, conseqüentemente, de elevado custo de aquisição. Impedindo que a IMC seja difundida e limitando seu uso. Ainda, se faz necessário simplificar e unificar as informações biológicas extraídas a partir dos dados calorimétricos, contribuindo para promover a expansão da aplicação da calorimetria no campo da microbiologia.

Objetivos

O estudo teve como objetivo avaliar a capacidade do MCDSC, um calorímetro de varredura capaz de operar em modo isotérmico, para a detecção de microrganismos. Para isso, *Escherichia coli* foi utilizada, sendo um microrganismo de metabolismo conhecido, permitindo a avaliação de dados entre os métodos e a literatura disponível. Assim, verificar a sensibilidade do equipamento MCDSC para a detecção de *E. coli* em diferentes concentrações, em comparação à metodologia de contagem em placas. Além disso, este estudo também teve como objetivo, propor a utilização de modelo matemático para explicação dos dados calorimétricos de maneira integral, e a possibilidade de obtenção de parâmetros de crescimento microbiano por calorimetria. Paralelamente, investigar o avanço da técnica nas medições biológicas e promover discussão referente à padronização dos termos. Para assim, promover e difundir o uso da calorimetria para medições microbiológicas, conduzindo a uma padronização dos termos e protocolos utilizados na extração dos dados termocinéticos.

Material e Métodos

Foi realizada busca em literatura pertinente para elaboração de protocolo de ensaios no MCDSC, juntamente à investigação na base de dados Springer <link.springer.com>, com as palavras-chave *microcalorimetry*, *microbial growth* e *bacteria*. Após seleção, foram coletados 83 artigos entre trabalhos experimentais e de revisão, descrevendo o atual uso da técnica e promovendo avanços futuros. Para verificação do desempenho do MCDSC em medições

calorimétricas, foram conduzidos ensaios a 37 °C, isotérmico, em caldo nutriente (CN), utilizando microrganismo modelo, *Escherichia coli* ATCC 25922. A fim de investigar a sensibilidade do equipamento na detecção de pequenas quantidades de calor, foram utilizados inóculos de *E. coli* em diferentes concentrações ($2,00 \pm 0,18$ log; $2,70 \pm 0,13$ log; e $2,80 \pm 0,03$ log UFC/mL). Paralelamente, o perfil de multiplicação para *E. coli* foi avaliado em cultivos sob agitação e estático por meio da contagem em placas. Os ensaios foram realizados em triplicata e os resultados obtidos para a contagem em placas, nos diferentes métodos de cultivo, e nos dados calorimétricos obtidos pelo MCDSC foram avaliados integralmente quanto à capacidade de adequação ao modelo matemático BAR aos dados experimentais. O ajuste foi avaliado quanto aos índices estatísticos R^2 e RSME, e ainda, foram estimados os parâmetros de velocidade máxima específica de crescimento (μ_{max}) e duração da fase lag (λ) permitindo comparação entre os valores dos parâmetros calorimétricos e a contagem em placas.

Resultados e Discussão

A busca na literatura permitiu observar a aplicação da IMC e os desafios que compreendem o uso da técnica. A compilação de dados oriundos da literatura foi realizada em nos indexadores ScienceDirect, PubMed e Springer, utilizados para a realização do presente estudo. Contudo, o material disponibilizado na editora Springer sugeriu maior diversificação das informações coletadas do que em outras bases. Inicialmente, os resultados dos estudos selecionados levantaram pontos importantes para o uso da IMC como a dificuldade de fornecer significado biológico às curvas calorimétricas de crescimento microbiano. E, afirma especificidade do *fingerprint* na IMC para determinação de espécies bacterianas. Os estudos sugerem caracterização e divisão das curvas de calor semelhantemente às fases do crescimento microbiano, o que é de interesse na promoção da técnica, unificando conceitos e facilitando o uso. Ainda, os dados coletados nos artigos afirmam promover a simplificação na execução dos ensaios por IMC, bem como durante a avaliação das curvas calorimétricas e, ainda, entre os métodos estatísticos ou de validação matemática empregados. Contudo, não avaliam os dados calorimétricos por meio de métodos microbiológicos, ou sequer correlacionam com referências reconhecidas sobre o uso da IMC em microbiologia. A busca, então, representa uma série de estudos em que o significado biológico das medições de calor para o crescimento microbiano não é explorado. Não é destacado o caráter simplista na interpretação dos dados, dificultando o avanço da técnica. Além disso, há pouca ou nenhuma comparação por qualquer outra quantificação microbiológica ou validação de dados. Também, são apresentados os equipamentos utilizados em IMC desde o uso da técnica até o presente momento, sustentando a teoria de que o MCDSC nunca foi utilizado. Dadas as informações obtidas na literatura, o perfil de crescimento calorimétrico de *E. coli* no MCDSC foi determinado a partir das curvas de fluxo de calor (mW) por tempo (min). Tais curvas fornecem informações úteis para descrever o perfil de crescimento calorimétrico de *E. coli* ATCC 25922 em MCDSC. Assim, o perfil de detecção de fluxo de calor de *E. coli* no MCDSC mostrou dois picos de altura semelhante (entre $\approx 0,100$ e $0,120$ mW) seguidos por uma cauda. De modo geral, os dados obtidos sugerem que o equipamento foi capaz de identificar *E. coli* em diferentes concentrações de inóculo, como pode ser observado no parâmetro t_{2peak} – tempo de detecção necessário para atingir 0,02 mW – distinto (5,3, 7,9 e 9,4 horas) para cada inóculo de *E. coli*. Assim, os parâmetros 1_{peak} , 2_{peak} e seus respectivos tempos de detecção, extraídos das curvas de fluxo de calor sugerem que os sinais calorimétricos registrados no MCDSC se referem ao crescimento de *E. coli*. Além das curvas de fluxo de calor (mW/s), o calor total liberado (Qt) indica semelhança ao padrão calorimétrico observado para *E. coli* em outros equipamentos como os da série TAM (Thermometric AB, Suécia). Da mesma forma, produção de calor semelhante – aproximadamente 3 e 4 J – foi encontrada em *E. coli* crescendo em outros meios de cultura em diferentes densidades (10^1 a 10^5 CFU/mL). O MCDSC se demonstrou capaz de medir o fluxo

de calor liberado (mW/s) e a produção total de calor (Qt) de acordo com dados da literatura, mesmo com redução no volume da amostra, quando comparado à microcalorímetros usuais. Os resultados permitem observar a importância da avaliação global de dados calorimétricos para caracterização de um microrganismo. Assim, embora as curvas de fluxo de calor forneçam parâmetros importantes para a caracterização do microrganismo, as curvas de $\log Q$ promovem visualização global dos dados, o que pode ser importante para distinção entre tratamentos em determinados pontos do crescimento microbiano. Dessa forma, em concentrações de inóculo intermediárias e baixas, as curvas $\log Q$ representaram perfil equivalente às fases de crescimento microbiano, podendo ser divididas entre fase de adaptação, crescimento exponencial e fase estacionária. O que permite concluir que inóculos menos concentrados promovem maior detalhamento e aumentam a resolução das curvas calorimétricas do crescimento microbiano. Ademais, a produção de calor é uma estimativa indireta do crescimento microbiano. Portanto, o calor produzido não se traduz em número de células, mas sim na atividade metabólica global da população microbiana em estudo. O modelo BAR foi utilizado para descrever os dados calorimétricos. O modelo BAR utilizado descreveu a maioria dos dados microcalorimétricos obtidos, e permitiu estimar os parâmetros de crescimento microbiano velocidade máxima específica de crescimento (μ_{max}) por calorimetria 0,799 1/h e na contagem de colônias em placas, de 1,143 e 1,096 1/h e para cultivo referência e estático, respectivamente. Assim como a duração da fase lag (λ) de 2,70 horas na calorimetria e aproximadamente 3 horas para os cultivos de contagem em placas. A habilidade do modelo BAR em descrever os dados calorimétricos e de UFC foi verificada através da robustez para os índices estatísticos R^2 (acima de $0,997 \pm 0,002$) e $RSME$ (menor que $0,068 \pm 0,039$) para todos os métodos de cultivo. Foi observada diferença para a duração da fase lag (λ) entre os métodos de cultivo estático, sob agitação e no MCDSC. Da mesma forma, o tempo para atingir o limite de detecção $t_{0,02}$, aproximadamente 3,8 h, é superior a λ nos métodos de cultivo convencionais com resultados por contagem em placas, o que pode ser explicado pela baixa sensibilidade do equipamento em detectar pequenas quantidades de calor produzido. Contudo, nas fases subsequentes do crescimento, *E. coli* apresentou características semelhantes em todos os métodos de cultivo, com crescimento exponencial, atingindo densidade máxima 9 log UFC/mL em aproximadamente 8,45 horas. A partir da comparação entre métodos de cultivo e com literatura existente para medições calorimétricas do crescimento microbiano, os resultados obtidos no presente estudo demonstram potencial aplicação do MCDSC para tal finalidade. Assim, a impressão digital térmica, o *fingerprint*, para *E. coli* no MCDSC foi estabelecida, sendo caracterizada por dois picos de produção de calor seguidos por um retorno abrupto à linha de base, de baixa produção de calor, conforme tempos e unidades apresentadas para tal microrganismo.

Considerações Finais

O presente estudo avaliou a capacidade de utilização do MCDSC para medições microbiológicas. A busca geral para todas as bases de dados sugere início na discussão para padronização na extração de dados termocinéticos extraídos das curvas de fluxo de calor. Já a investigação em base de dados pouco citada sobre o tema, garantiu elaboração de protocolo de análises adequado aos objetivos de medição. O calorímetro, MCDSC, que não faz parte dos calorímetros utilizados em microcalorimetria isotérmica, demonstrou habilidade de operar em modo isotérmico e sensibilidade ao distinguir o crescimento de *E. coli* em diferentes concentrações, com detecção do crescimento microbiano em 3 horas. Os dados experimentais obtidos conferem semelhança à literatura para o perfil calorimétrico – *fingerprint* – de *E. coli*, mesmo em calorímetros de maior sensibilidade, caracterizando o MCDSC como um instrumento alternativo aos calorímetros de IMC na detecção de *E. coli*.

ABSTRACT

Isothermal microcalorimetry (IMC) is a sensitive technique that measures small amounts, around 0.2 μW , of produced heat. It is a thermal analysis capable of monitoring in real time, under conditions of constant temperature, the metabolic processes involved in microbial growth since every living organism produces heat because of metabolic reactions. In IMC, the results generated are the thermokinetic data (watts per time) of the growth of a microorganism in a specific condition. Currently, IMC is widespread in clinical analysis and identification of pathogens and has potential application in several areas such as food quality control. However, some challenges surround the expansion of use. Among them, we highlight the high cost of acquiring microcalorimeters, the non-standardization of terms and nomenclatures, as well as the difficulty in transcribing calorimetric data for the information of biological importance. Thus, the present study aims to evaluate the capacity of the MCDSC, a scanning calorimeter, capable of operating in isothermal mode, for detecting the presence of microorganisms. First, a search was carried out in the relevant literature to gather available information about the current use of the technique and regarding the possibility of using the MCDSC as an alternative to IMC instruments. The collected studies indicated the need to deepen the methodologies used, both in relation to calorimetry and classical microbiology. Still, there was a call for the standardization of information and nomenclatures related to the heat flow curves for the extraction of calorimetric growth parameters since there is no consensus. The entire literature search ensured the elaboration of a safe test protocol for evaluating the MCDSC in the detection of microorganisms. For this purpose, *E. coli* was used as a test microorganism, since its metabolism is well known by several microbiological methods, facilitating the comparison between data. The calorimetric results obtained were compared with existing data in the literature, with reference to the most sensitive calorimeters – IMC. To verify the sensitivity of the MCDSC equipment in the detection of *E. coli* in different concentrations, comparing the calorimetric data with the data obtained by traditional cultivation methodologies that involve counting in plates. The growth data, in all cultivation and measurement methods, were compared with the aid of a mathematical model by Baranyi and Roberts (BAR). The BAR sigmoid model is widely recognized in predictive microbiology applications. Being able to describe all stages involving microbial growth. The BAR sigmoid model is widely recognized in predictive microbiology applications for being able to describe all phases involving microbial growth. From the adjustment - evaluated by the parameters R^2 and $RSME$ - adequate to the model, the parameters maximum growth velocity (μ_{max}) and duration of the lag phase (λ) were extracted for *E. coli* in the MCDSC and plate count in the different cultivation conditions. The results for μ_{max} between 0.799 and 1.143 (1/h) are similar between the cultures studied, as well as for the type of data adjusted to the model, however, there is a distinction between λ for the cultures. This can be explained by the sensitivity of the calorimeter used in the present study. However, the results indicate that the MCDSC was able to identify differences in inoculum concentration. Furthermore, the equipment proved to be suitable for obtaining the fingerprint of *E. coli*, according to data found in the literature. Characterizing the MCDSC and the test protocol developed as potential for the detection of *E. coli*, promoting the use of calorimetry for microbiological measurements.

Keywords: Calorimetric growth; Alternative methods Baranyi and Roberts model; Predictive microbiology; Plate count.

LISTA DE FIGURAS

Figura 1 – Métodos calorimétricos e diferenças de medição entre a técnica de microcalorimetria isotérmica e calorimetria exploratória diferencial	22
Figura 2 – Número de publicações por ano com utilização da microcalorimetria para medições microbiológicas no período de 1976 a 2019 na plataforma PubMed	31
Figure 3 – Schematic representation of Springer literature data collection on microcalorimetry for microbial detection	34
Figure 4 – First terms used for heat flux curves found in the Springer database	40
Figure 5 – Named heat flow power-time curves for microbial detection at Springer database	41
Figure 6 – Typical heat flow curve over the time of <i>E. coli</i> growth at 37 °C (YING et al., 2017)	43
Figure 7 – Representation of linear fit to heat curves, adapted from Braissant et al. (2015)	45
Figure 8 – <i>E. coli</i> microcalorimetric growth profile obtained using different initial inoculums (range 2 – 2.8 log) on MCDSC technique	56
Figure 9 – Logarithm of the total heat (Q_t – mJ/g) produced by <i>E. coli</i> in different inoculum densities. <i>E. coli</i> inoculum at 2.8 log CFU.mL ⁻¹ in blue, 2.7 log CFU.mL ⁻¹ in red, and 2.0 log CFU.mL ⁻¹ in black lines	60
Figure 10 – Fitting of the Baranyi and Roberts model (continuous lines) and static cultivation (microplate) (□) in a shaking bath (standard) (○) into the microcalorimetric data (Q_t) (x)	62
Figure 11 – <i>E. coli</i> growth curve at 37°C along 24 h of incubation in static cultivation (microplate) (□), in a shaking bath (standard) (○), and the MCDSC (■)	63
Figure 12 – Heat flow curves of <i>E. coli</i> growth from 2.7 log UFC/mL in MCDSC used for establishing the thermal fingerprint	67
Figure 13 – Isothermal microcalorimetric fingerprint of <i>E. coli</i> ATCC 25922 in an MCDSC	68

LISTA DE TABELAS

Tabela 1 – Comparação entre as diferentes técnicas de detecção ou quantificação de bactérias	27
Table 2 – Microcalorimetric start inoculum variations	47
Table 3 – Technical specifications of commonly used commercial calorimeters from Springer database research	50
Table 4 – <i>E. coli</i> lag phase duration, growth rate, heat flow, time of metabolic heat release peaks and total heat released on MCDSC analysis, considering different initial inoculum	57
Table 5 – Growth parameters of <i>E. coli</i> in a Multicell DSC (MCDSC), static cultivation (microplate), and cultivation in a shaking water bath (standard)	65

LISTA DE SIMBOLOS E ABREVIATURAS

IMC	Microcalorimetria isotérmica - <i>Isothermal microcalorimetry</i>
DSC	Calorimetria exploratória diferencial - <i>Diferencial Scanning Calorimetry</i>
MCDSC	<i>Multi Cell Diferencial Scanning Calorimeter</i>
BAR	modelo de Baranyi e Roberts
°C	graus Celsius
pW	picowatt
μW	microwatt
mW	miliwatt
W	watt
mJ	milijoule
J	joule
s	segundos
m	minutos
h	horas
μ_{max}	velocidade máxima específica de crescimento
λ	fase Lag
CFU	Colony-forming unit
UFC	Unidades formadoras de colônias
<i>E. coli</i>	<i>Escherichia coli</i>
t_{1peak}	primeiro pico
t_{2peak}	segundo pico
Q_t	calor total
$\log Q_t$	logarítimo do calor total
R ²	coeficiente de determinação
RMSE	raiz quadrada do erro médio
$t_{0,02}$	tempo necessário para atingir <i>threshold</i> 0,002 mW
$t_{0,05}$	tempo necessário para atingir <i>threshold</i> 0,005 mW
t_{1peak}	tempo necessário para atingir primeiro pico
t_{2peak}	tempo necessário para atingir segundo pico
USPTO	<i>United States Patent and Trademark Office</i>
PCT	<i>Patent Cooperation Treaty</i>

SUMÁRIO

1 INTRODUÇÃO	16
2 OBJETIVOS	19
2.1 OBJETIVO GERAL.....	19
2.2 OBJETIVOS ESPECÍFICOS	19
3 REVISÃO DA LITERATURA:	21
3.1 MICROCALORIMETRIA ISOTÉRMICA	21
3.2 MICROCALORIMETRIA PARA ESTUDOS MICROBIOLÓGICOS.....	24
3.3 UMA PROSPECÇÃO CIENTÍFICA E TECNOLÓGICA	30
4 MATERIAL E MÉTODOS	34
4.1 THE USE OF ISOTHERMAL MICROCALORIMETRY AND METHODOLOGY SPECIFICATIONS FOR MONITORING MICROBIAL GROWTH: AN OVERVIEW	34
4.2 MICROCALORIMETRIC GROWTH BEHAVIOR OF <i>E. coli</i> ATCC 25922 IN AN MCDSC	35
4.2.1 <i>E. coli</i> strain	35
4.2.2 Microcalorimetric instrumentation	36
4.2.3 <i>E. coli</i> growth in the MCDSC	37
4.2.4 Data corrections and fitting model	37
4.2.5 Statistics	38
5 RESULTADOS E DISCUSSÃO	39
5.1 THE USE OF ISOTHERMAL MICROCALORIMETRY AND METHODOLOGY SPECIFICATIONS FOR MONITORING MICROBIAL GROWTH: AN OVERVIEW	39
5.1.1 Heat flow curves	39
5.1.1.1 Naming the heat flow power-time curves.....	39
5.1.1.2 Bringing meaning to the heat flow power-time curves	42
5.1.2 The resolution of curves	46
5.1.2.1 Inoculum size.....	46
5.1.2.2 Growing medium.....	47
5.1.2.3 Microcalorimetric instrumentation	49
5.1.3 Technical progress and future perspectives	53
5.2 MICROCALORIMETRIC GROWTH BEHAVIOR OF <i>E. COLI</i> ATCC 25922 IN AN MCDSC	55
5.2.1 Sensibility of MCDSC at different <i>E. coli</i> ATCC 25922 inoculum sizes	55
5.2.2 Data fitting model	61
5.2.3 Growth characteristics of <i>E. coli</i> ATCC 25922	62
5.2.4 Microcalorimetric fingerprint of <i>E. coli</i> in the MCDSC	66
6 CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS	69
REFERÊNCIAS	70

1 INTRODUÇÃO

A microcalorimetria isotérmica (IMC) é uma técnica que mede o fluxo de calor de processos químicos, físicos e biológicos a partir do calor metabólico gerado por microrganismos vivos. Realiza medições contínuas em tempo real, fornecendo informações qualitativas e quantitativas importantes sobre o crescimento microbiano (AVELEDO et al., 2018; DING et al., 2010; FRICKE; HARMS; MASKOW, 2020; HU et al., 2020; LI et al., 2012a; NYKYRI; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2019). Tem aplicações na detecção e identificação microbiana (BONKAT et al., 2012; BRAISSANT et al., 2010b) em diversas áreas como no monitoramento de processos fermentativos (GARCIA; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2017), detecção de patógenos na água (MASKOW et al., 2012), distinção entre espécies resistentes aos antimicrobianos (BONKAT et al., 2012, 2013; VON AH; WIRZ; DANIELS, 2008).

A IMC apresenta vantagens em relação às medições tradicionais de contagem em placas, como a redução no tempo para obtenção de resultados (MASKOW et al., 2012), simplicidade na execução dos ensaios além de apresentar alta sensibilidade e precisão (SCHIRALDI, 1995; VON STOCKAR et al., 2006; WADSÖ, 2002). Com sensibilidade da ordem de $0,2 \mu\text{W}$, a IMC pode detectar o calor produzido por um pequeno número de microrganismos (BONKAT et al., 2012; BRAISSANT et al., 2010b). Por se tratar de um tipo de análise térmica, as amostras em IMC podem ser líquidas, viscosas, sólidas, apresentarem coloração ou serem opacas. A técnica baseia-se em um método não destrutivo, permitindo com que as amostras sejam complementarmente analisadas por qualquer outro método, necessitando de pouca ou nenhuma preparação anterior às medições calorimétricas (BONKAT et al., 2012; BRAISSANT et al., 2010b, 2013; BRAISSANT; BACHMANN; BONKAT, 2015; KABANOVA; STULOVA; VILU, 2012; STULOVA et al., 2013).

Os resultados obtidos por IMC baseiam-se na expressão de perfil de liberação de calor sob temperatura constante com o passar do tempo, chamadas curvas de fluxo de calor – watts por minutos ou horas. Assim, as curvas de fluxo de calor expressam perfil térmico exclusivo para cada metabolismo microbiano, de acordo com os tempos e magnitude dos picos de produção e consumo de calor (GARCIA; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2017).

Recentemente, observa-se um crescente aumento na utilização da IMC como alternativa às medições clássicas em microbiologia uma vez que a quantidade de estudos

de IMC publicados aumentou significativamente. A produção massiva e abundante de literatura técnica específica faz necessária a realização de revisões acerca do que foi produzido e os avanços encontrados, promovendo maior engajamento nas discussões e aplicação da técnica (BONKAT et al., 2012). Embora muito explorada, o desafio na aplicação da IMC é, ainda, dar significado biológico às curvas calorimétricas, para que assim, permita avaliar a efetividade dos tratamentos estudados, bem como dos processos favorecidos, simplificando e promovendo o uso da técnica (BRAISSANT et al., 2010b, 2013).

Além da promoção das discussões acerca dos usos da técnica, termos e nomenclaturas, outra estratégia para interpretação das informações calorimétricas é a utilização de modelos matemáticos capazes de descrever os dados obtidos e fornecer parâmetros de crescimento microbiano como a velocidade máxima específica de crescimento (μ_{max}), que pode ser útil na comparação entre tratamentos ou cultivos microbianos.

Alguns estudos propõem a utilização de modelos matemáticos aplicados aos dados calorimétricos. Usualmente, são modelos exponenciais simples ou modelos lineares, obtidos a partir do logaritmo dos dados, e podem ser aplicados nos dados brutos (fluxo de calor) ou através das curvas do logaritmo de calor (Q) *versus* tempo (t), para obtenção dos parâmetros na fase exponencial do crescimento microbiano (BRAISSANT et al., 2013; MASKOW et al., 2010). Além dos modelos lineares, os modelos matemáticos podem fornecer ajuste integral à curva de crescimento, compreendendo todas as fases do crescimento estudado (GARCIA; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2017).

Dentre os microrganismos mais amplamente conhecidos, *E. coli* é o mais investigado e uma importante espécie em áreas como a biotecnologia e microbiologia, e por isso é frequentemente selecionada para estudos preliminares na proposta de métodos alternativos. Descoberta em 1885 por Theodor Escherich, *Escherichia coli* é um bacilo Gram-negativo, não esporulado, anaeróbio facultativo e apresenta flagelos peritríqueos. Pertence à família *Enterobacteriaceae*, sendo normalmente encontrada no trato gastrointestinal inferior de humanos, onde constitui cerca de 0,1% da microbiota intestinal (FRANCO; LANDGRAF, 2003; MADIGAN; et al., 2008). Quatro cepas (K-12, B, C e W) são consideradas organismos modelo classificados no Grupo de Risco 1 em diretrizes de biossegurança. *E. coli* ATCC 25922 é uma cepa de referência geralmente recomendada para testes de sensibilidade a antibióticos. É considerada importante para o controle de qualidade de alimentos, uma vez que sua presença é indicativa de condições

higiênico sanitárias precárias nos processos de produção e manipulação de alimentos (FRANCO; LANDGRAF, 2003). Contudo, poucas linhagens são potenciais patógenos transmitidos por alimentos (FRANCO; LANDGRAF, 2003; MADIGAN; et al., 2008), sendo que todas as linhagens patogênicas são patógenos intestinais, e vários sorotipos são caracterizados pela produção de enterotoxinas, causando doenças diarreicas de risco a vida e infecções do trato urinário (MADIGAN; et al., 2008).

2 OBJETIVOS

2.1 OBJETIVO GERAL

Utilizar um microcalorímetro MCDSC para avaliar e quantificar o crescimento de um micro-organismo modelo (*E. coli*), bem como para modelar matematicamente a curva completa do crescimento microbiano e para estabelecer relações entre medidas de MCDSC e métodos tradicionais de quantificação.

2.2 OBJETIVOS ESPECÍFICOS

- a) Elaborar revisão bibliográfica sobre o uso da microcalorimetria isotérmica, equipamentos utilizados e fundamentos da técnica;
- b) Buscar na literatura pertinente embasamento para utilização do MCDSC para quantificação do crescimento microbiano;
- c) Desenvolver protocolo inédito no MCDSC para detecção calorimétrica do crescimento de *E. coli*;
- d) Verificar capacidade de detecção do sinal calorimétrico referente ao crescimento de *E. coli*;
- e) Estabelecer dados de fluxo de calor representativos para o monitoramento do crescimento microbiano de *E. coli*;
- f) Obter perfil calorimétrico – *fingerprint* - para crescimento de *E. coli* no MCDSC;
- g) Estimar parâmetros termocinéticos das curvas de fluxo de calor;
- h) Verificar sensibilidade do método na detecção do microrganismo em diferentes concentrações;
- i) Comparar os resultados calorimétricos com métodos de cultivo estático e sob agitação, por meio da contagem em placas;
- j) Ajustar o modelo matemático de Baranyi e Roberts aos dados calorimétricos e aos dados de contagem de células viáveis em placas;
- k) Estimar os parâmetros de crescimento a partir das curvas de calor;
- l) Avaliar o desempenho do MCDSC na detecção de *E. coli* em comparação com a metodologia convencional.

3 REVISÃO DA LITERATURA

Nesta sessão, são abordados conceitos importantes para compreensão das técnicas calorimétricas utilizadas no presente estudo. Também, são apresentadas informações acerca da utilização da técnica para a finalidade proposta, fundamentando o estudo. O conteúdo aqui explorado foi utilizado de maneira integral para a obtenção dos resultados experimentais expostos.

3.1 CONCEITOS EM MICROCALORIMETRIA ISOTÉRMICA

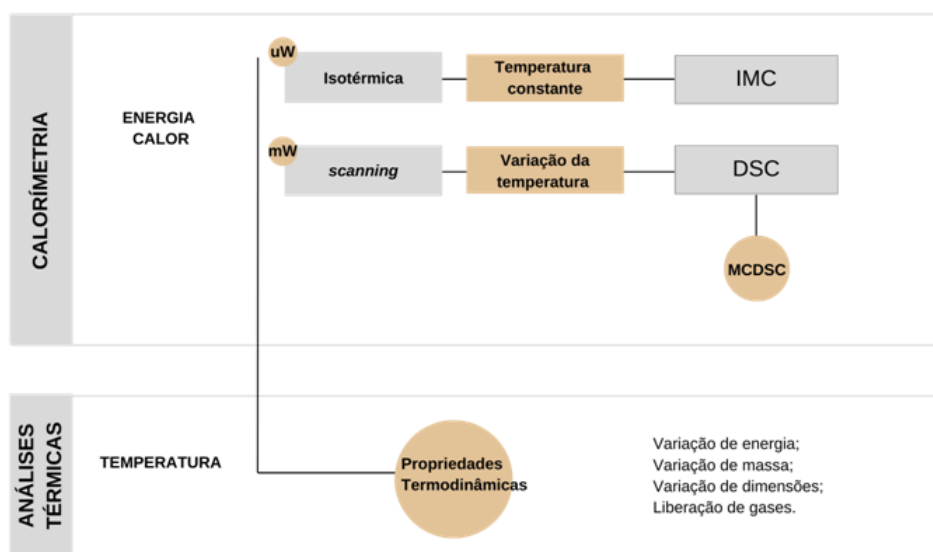
As análises térmicas compreendem uma variedade de métodos analíticos. Analisam as mudanças em propriedades de uma amostra submetida a variação na temperatura (BROWN; GALLAGHER, 2003). São métodos diretos e não destrutivos, que permitem medir todos os tipos de processos, sejam eles físicos, químicos ou biológicos (GABBOTT, 2008).

São observadas as propriedades termodinâmicas de uma amostra, como temperatura, calor, entropia, massa e volume, o que permite descrevê-las por meio dos eventos térmicos. Tais eventos, são processos que envolvem alterações nas propriedades de uma amostra, como por exemplo a composição química e cristalinidade da estrutura, sob temperatura variável ou constante, e estão relacionados com a geração e o consumo de calor. Assim, as análises térmicas são úteis na determinação de grandezas físicas como a temperatura, fluxo de calor, alterações de comprimento, massa, concentração, taxa de produção de calor, calor e capacidade de calor, em função da temperatura e do tempo (BROWN; GALLAGHER, 2003; GABBOTT, 2008).

Já a calorimetria compreende um grupo de análises térmicas, para medidas de calor. Calorimetria é o termo universal dado a qualquer técnica experimental que envolva a medição de calor – ou seja, potência (q), em watts (W) ao longo do tempo (t) ou sob uma temperatura (T). Geralmente, os métodos calorimétricos envolvem variações na temperatura da amostra em estudo (BROWN; GALLAGHER, 2003; GABBOTT, 2008; IONASHIRO, 2005).

A Figura 1 ilustra as principais diferenças entre algumas técnicas calorimétricas existentes.

Figura 1 – Métodos calorimétricos e diferenças de medição entre a técnica de microcalorimetria isotérmica e calorimetria exploratória diferencial



Fonte: Elaborada pela autora (2023).

A diferença entre os métodos calorimétricos se dá quanto aos instrumentos utilizados para tal medição. Portanto, existem diversos tipos de calorímetros. Os equipamentos distinguem-se quanto ao modo de operação e sensibilidade. Dentre eles, os microcalorímetros isotérmicos são calorímetros que medem a potência em função do tempo. São caracterizados por realizar medições sob temperatura constante ($\pm 0,0001 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) e pequenas quantidades de calor (BROWN; GALLAGHER, 2003; GABBOTT, 2008; IONASHIRO, 2005). Isso porque a microcalorimetria isotérmica, do inglês – *isothermal microcalorimetry* (IMC) mede, na faixa de *microwatt* (μW), o calor liberado ou consumido em processos físico-químicos e biológicos (WADSÖ, 2002), que geralmente são conduzidos isotermicamente à temperatura ambiente (BONKAT et al., 2013; BRAISSANT et al., 2010b, 2015).

A IMC existe há cerca de 30 anos, inicialmente utilizada nas ciências de materiais (BONKAT et al., 2012; BRAISSANT et al., 2010a; VON AH; WIRZ; DANIELS, 2008). Vem sendo aprimorada no que diz respeito à sensibilidade, velocidade e facilidade de medição, e tratamento dos dados termodinâmicos, possibilitando, assim, sua utilização nas mais diversas áreas. Tem importância prática, por exemplo, na caracterização de estabilidades físicas e químicas de materiais sólidos, além das medições microbiológicas (ROSELIN et al., 2010; WADSÖ, 1995, 2002). Entre suas vantagens, está a alta sensibilidade na manutenção da temperatura, permitindo medições fidedelias do fluxo de calor

produzido por uma amostra, juntamente com uma grande capacidade volumétrica, o que pode ser útil para acomodar amostras biológicas, por exemplo. E principalmente, o fato de que a técnica de IMC é adequada para medições em sistemas cuja liberação de calor é muito pequena (GABBOTT, 2008).

Outro tipo de instrumento para medição de calor são os calorímetros de varredura DSC – *scanning calorimeters*, que medem a potência em função da temperatura. Nesse tipo de calorímetro, é possível induzir algumas transições de fase irreversíveis – como a cristalização, fusão ou degradação – em amostras submetidas a temperaturas elevadas (BROWN; GALLAGHER, 2003; GABBOTT, 2008; IONASHIRO, 2005).

Para ambas as abordagens, o benefício principal é que as técnicas de IMC ou DSC não dependem da natureza física da amostra em estudo, podendo assim, serem utilizados para medições de amostras em estado sólido, líquido ou gás, até mesmo em combinações. Isso permite a investigação direta de uma ampla gama de sistemas, sendo a única restrição o tamanho da amostra (GABBOTT, 2008).

3.2 MICROCALORIMETRIA PARA ESTUDOS MICROBIOLÓGICOS – ESTADO DA ARTE

A IMC vem sendo utilizada com o intuito de contornar as limitações existentes nos métodos microbiológicos convencionais para detecção e monitoramento da atividade ou viabilidade microbiana (BONKAT et al., 2012; BRAISSANT et al., 2013; BRAISSANT; BACHMANN; BONKAT, 2015; FRICKE; HARMS; MASKOW, 2020; WADSÖ; GALINDO, 2009; WADSÖ, 2002; ZHANG et al., 2012). Partindo do princípio de que toda atividade metabólica libera calor, por meio das reações bioquímicas que ocorrem em uma célula metabolicamente ativa, e o calor produzido é mensurado ao longo do tempo, sendo proporcional ao avanço da reação considerada (BRAISSANT et al., 2010b, 2013; BRAISSANT; BACHMANN; BONKAT, 2015).

Inicialmente, a IMC teve grande aplicação em estudos clínicos para monitoramento de processos gerais, fornecendo informações quanto à atividade biológica em termos da taxa de produção de calor (WADSÖ, 1995; WADSÖ et al., 2017). A partir da década de 2010, o uso da IMC no campo biológico, biomédico e ciência ambiental tem aumentado (BRAISSANT et al., 2013). Dentre as aplicações, destacam-se as áreas médicas, ciências ambientais e do solo (ALKLINT; WADSÖ; SJÖHOLM, 2004; BRAISSANT et al., 2010a, 2010b; KONG et al., 2015; LI et al., 2007; SCHULER et al., 2012; SCHUMACHER et al., 2018; SOLOKHINA et al., 2017; VON AH et al., 2018; WADSÖ, 1995; WADSÖ et al., 2017). Assim, a IMC vem sendo explorada para detecção do crescimento de microrganismos contaminantes em tempo reduzido com relação à contagem de colônias em placas (BONKAT et al., 2012; GAISFORD et al., 2009; O'NEILL et al., 2003; TRAMPUZ et al., 2007a; VON AH; WIRZ; DANIELS, 2008).

Com sensibilidade da ordem de $0,2 \mu\text{W}$, a IMC pode detectar o calor produzido por um pequeno número de microrganismos. Assumindo que uma célula bacteriana única típica produz aproximadamente 2 pW quando ativa, 100.000 células são necessárias para produzir um sinal detectável na maioria dos microcalorímetros isotérmicos comerciais (BONKAT et al., 2012; BRAISSANT et al., 2010b). Alguns autores sugerem que uma única célula é suficiente para a detecção do crescimento (BRAISSANT; BACHMANN; BONKAT, 2015), se levado em consideração o tempo necessário para seu crescimento, possibilitando alcançar o limite de detecção da maioria dos instrumentos (10^4 a 10^5 UFC) (BRAISSANT et al., 2010a, 2010b; BRAISSANT; BACHMANN; BONKAT, 2015; KEMP, 1991). Portanto, a IMC apresenta alta sensibilidade, precisão e simplicidade na

execução (SCHIRALDI, 1995; VON STOCKAR et al., 2006; WADSÖ, 2002), permitindo alta precisão para determinação de concentrações de microrganismos que não podem ser enumerados em técnicas clássicas por contagem em placas ou microscopia, por exemplo (BRAISSANT et al., 2010b).

A IMC compreende uma gama de instrumentos e tecnologias específicas cuja faixa de medição pode variar entre miliwatts (mW) e nanowatts (nW) (BROWN, 1998; TA INSTRUMENTS, 2022). Os instrumentos fornecem um sinal eletrônico contínuo em tempo real proporcional à quantidade de calor produzido por uma ampola contendo microrganismos e um meio de cultura (BONKAT et al., 2013; BRAISSANT et al., 2010b). O sinal de fluxo de calor é um sinal líquido global não específico relacionado à soma de todos os processos que ocorrem em uma ampola IMC. O fluxo de calor reflete as taxas de atividade metabólica e, também, o calor é uma indicação da quantidade de substrato consumido ou produto metabólico liberado (BRAISSANT et al., 2010b). O processo metabólico inclui o consumo de substratos como carboidratos e peptídeos. Além disso, o calor medido compreende a manutenção do metabolismo para multiplicação na presença de inibidores, e a produção de biomassa – bem como a produção de metabólitos secundários, como no caso do dióxido de carbono e água (BRAISSANT et al., 2013; FRICKE; HARMS; MASKOW, 2020; LI et al., 2012b; TAN et al., 2012).

As medições são passivas e externas permitindo que não haja contaminação entre equipamento e amostra, bem como formação de biofilmes, uma vez que a ampola é selada. Além disso, cabe ressaltar que os experimentos são, geralmente, conduzidos sem fornecimento de oxigênio, cabendo adaptações de acordo com a necessidade de cada microrganismo (GÓMEZ et al., 2004).

São coletadas informações sobre o fluxo de calor (μW) gerado em função do tempo (s), por meio das curvas de tempo e potência (*power-time curves*) (BRAISSANT et al., 2010b; BRAISSANT; BACHMANN; BONKAT, 2015; FREDUA-AGYEMAN; GAISFORD; BEEZER, 2018; GARCIA; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2017). Diversos parâmetros quantitativos podem ser extraídos das curvas, como por exemplo, a produção total de calor - que é a área total sob a curva de crescimento, a amplitude do primeiro pico, o tempo de registro do primeiro pico, o final metabólico - ou pico máximo, tempo de registro do pico metabólico - ou máximo final (FREDUA-AGYEMAN; GAISFORD; BEEZER, 2018), além do tempo para a detecção - tempo necessário para atingir um limiar predeterminado, e do tempo para regressar até a linha de base. Sendo que o perfil para cada microrganismo é único, uma espécie de impressão digital térmica

(*fingerprint*) pelo microrganismo, de acordo com as condições experimentais utilizadas (FREDUA-AGYEMAN; GAISFORD; BEEZER, 2018; GARCIA; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2017). Sendo que, o fluxo de calor produzido pelo microrganismo presente na amostra é comparado com uma referência inerte (BRAISSANT et al., 2010b), na maioria dos casos é utilizado um meio de cultura estéril (BONKAT et al., 2012; BRAISSANT et al., 2013; HOWELL et al., 2012; TELLAPRAGADA et al., 2020; VON AH et al., 2018).

Os sinais calorimétricos também vêm sendo usados para quantificar e identificar microrganismos de interesse em alimentos (MASKOW et al., 2012), como no caso do monitoramento de processos fermentativos (GARCIA; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2017). Em produtos lácteos, por exemplo, pode ser difícil monitorar a atividade microbiana na fermentação ou em processos de deterioração. Além de sua opacidade, a fermentação do leite geralmente leva a um produto consistente como queijos e iogurte (KRÍŠČIUNAITE et al., 2011; STULOVA et al., 2013). Além disso, a IMC vem sendo aplicada na determinação da vida útil em diferentes condições de armazenamento (ALKLINT; WADSÖ; SJÖHOLM, 2004, 2005; GÓMEZ et al., 2004; WADSÖ, 2009). E, até mesmo, detecção da presença de patógenos, em baixas concentrações, como na água potável, sob condições diversificadas de atmosferas aeróbica e anaeróbia (MASKOW et al., 2012).

Assim, a IMC pode tanto complementar quanto atuar como alternativa à utilização dos métodos microbiológicos clássicos (BRAISSANT; BACHMANN; BONKAT, 2015).

Um comparativo entre os métodos atualmente empregados em ensaios microbiológicos são apresentadas na Tabela 1, em contrapartida à algumas características da IMC aplicada à microbiologia.

Dentre as principais vantagens da IMC, pode-se destacar: a precisão na manutenção da temperatura, a ampola utilizada – quanto ao material e capacidade volumétrica – a diversidade de amostras que pode ser analisada, a sensibilidade do equipamento e o custo. Além disso, os experimentos de calorimetria com microrganismos são, na maioria dos casos, fáceis de serem executados (WADSÖ, 1995; WADSÖ et al., 2017), pois não requerem conhecimentos específicos para realização, tem baixo custo relativo, e curto tempo de detecção, possibilitando rápida tomada de decisões a fim de conter a contaminação bacteriana (BONKAT et al., 2012; BRAISSANT et al., 2010b; GARCIA; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2017; HU et al., 2020; MASKOW et al., 2012; SCHMITT et al., 2001; TAN et al., 2012; TRAMPUZ et al., 2007a; YUSUF et al., 2015).

Tabela 1 – Comparação entre as diferentes técnicas de detecção ou quantificação de bactérias

Método	Unidade de medida	Limite de detecção	Tempo	Volume	Amostra	
					Sólida	Opaca
Contagem em placas	1 UFC	10 ⁰	dias	μL - mL	Extração	Sim
Densidade ótica	0,01 abs	10 ⁷	min	μL - mL	Extração	Não
Microscopia	1 por HPF	10 ³	min - horas	μL - mL	Superfície	Não
DNA*	0,1 ng/μL	10 ⁷	min - horas	μL - mL	Extração	Não
Microdiluição	%	10 ⁸	horas	μL	Extração	Não
Microcalorimetria	2 μW	10 ⁴	horas	mL - L	Sim	Sim

Unidade de medida – Menor medição, em unidades originais; Limite de detecção (UFC) – Menor medição em UFC; Tempo – tempo para obter resultados; min - minutos.

UFC: unidade formadora de colônias

abs: absorbância

HPF: campo de alta potência

ng/ μL: nanogramas por microlitros

%; porcentagem

μW: microwatts

Fonte: Elaborado pela autora (2020).

Como na maioria das análises térmicas, as amostras podem apresentar qualquer estado físico, apresentarem coloração ou serem opacas (Tabela 1). Além disso, as amostras necessitam de pouca ou nenhuma preparação. É um método não destrutivo (BRAISSANT et al., 2010b, 2013; BRAISSANT; BACHMANN; BONKAT, 2015; KABANOVA; STULOVA; VILU, 2012; STULOVA et al., 2013; VON AH; WIRZ; DANIELS, 2008), permitindo com que as amostras possam ser avaliadas por qualquer outro método desejado sem sofrerem alterações após as medições por IMC (ASTASOV-FRAUENHOFFER et al., 2011; BONKAT et al., 2012; BRAISSANT et al., 2010b; DING et al., 2010; SARDARO et al., 2013). O que permite a utilização da técnica no monitoramento da atividade e crescimento bacteriano em vários tipos de amostras, em muitos campos da microbiologia, variando de culturas de solo a líquidos (BRAISSANT et al., 2013), mesmo em sistemas complexos ou em culturas mistas (BARJA; PROUPIN; NÚNEZ, 1997; FREDUA-AGYEMAN; GAISFORD; BEEZER, 2018; GARCIA; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2017; VON AH; WIRZ; DANIELS, 2009; ZAHARIA et al., 2013; ZHANG et al., 2019).

Os calorímetros para IMC mais utilizados são os TAM 48, TAM III e TAM Air (TA Instruments). As principais diferenças entre os equipamentos estão relacionadas à precisão e exatidão na coleta de dados, além da sensibilidade de registro do sinal no equipamento. A maioria dos microcalorímetros isotérmicos são equipamentos capazes de

manter a temperatura da amostra constante (variação de 0,02 até 0,1 °C) (BRAISSANT et al., 2010b), mesmo durante longos períodos, o que permite a realização de experimentos extensos, como no caso de detecção de microrganismos fastidiosos (HOWELL et al., 2012; KEMP, 1991; RODRÍGUEZ et al., 2011; SOLOKHINA et al., 2017).

Em geral, as ampolas utilizadas nas determinações calorimétricas são seladas e estáticas (BRAISSANT et al., 2010b), fabricadas em material inerte e resistente. Algumas ampolas podem ser de vidro, aço inoxidável ou *Hastelloy*, e tem capacidade volumétrica entre 1 e 4 mL. Tais materiais, permitem que as ampolas sejam submetidas a processos de esterilização, conferindo qualidade aos resultados. Alguns equipamentos são capazes de analisar até 48 amostras simultaneamente (WADSÖ, 1995; WADSÖ et al., 2017).

Alguns trabalhos vêm utilizando microcalorímetros para calorimetria exploratória diferencial (DSC - *Differential Scanning Calorimetry*) em estudos biológicos. Isso porque alguns equipamentos de DSC são capazes de operar em modo isotérmico (BRAISSANT et al., 2010b). Por exemplo, Neven, Lehrman e Hansen (2014), estudaram os efeitos da temperatura e de atmosferas modificadas no metabolismo da traça *Cydia pomonella* por calorimetria exploratória diferencial em equipamento *multicell* (MCDSC, TA Instruments, USA), equipado com sensor de oxigênio, operado em modo isotérmico. O estudo utilizou de vários ciclos com diferentes temperaturas em modo isotérmico, e demonstrou ausência de produção de calor metabólico ou consumo de oxigênio relacionada ao dano térmico às membranas celulares como mecanismo letal para controle de pragas no tratamento de nozes.

O Multi-Cell DSC (MCDSC, TA Instruments, USA), utilizado no presente trabalho, é conhecido por sua sensibilidade, com limite de detecção na faixa de 0,2 μ W e repetibilidade na linha de base de 2 μ W, tornando-o mais sensível a eventos térmicos de baixa entalpia. A sensibilidade é significativamente melhorada pela capacidade de analisar volumes de amostra maiores nas ampolas de amostra MCDSC em comparação com as ampolas DSC comuns. As ampolas, que são 3 além da ampola de referência, são fabricadas em material inerte, *Hastelloy*[®] C, com volume utilizável entre 0,2 e 1 mL, sendo hermeticamente seladas através de anel de borracha (*Viton O-ring standard*). O equipamento que mede fluxo de calor é capaz de realizar varredura (até 2 °C/ minuto) ou operar em modo isotérmico, podendo atuar em temperaturas entre -40 a 150 °C. É sugerida a utilização sem preparo da amostra, o que gera vantagem em relação a outros calorímetros de sensibilidade semelhante (TA INSTRUMENTS, 2022).

3.3 UMA PROSPECÇÃO CIENTÍFICA E TECNOLÓGICA NO USO DA IMC

Atualmente, as áreas de estudo com emprego da IMC para medições biológicas são ciências do solo, farmácia, biomedicina, biologia molecular, biologia, bioquímica e engenharias, sendo que poucos são os estudos em ciência de alimentos (ALKLINT; WADSÖ; SJÖHOLM, 2004; KONG et al., 2015; LI et al., 2007; SCHULER et al., 2012; SCHUMACHER et al., 2018; SOLOKHINA et al., 2017; VON AH et al., 2018; WADSÖ, 1995; WADSÖ et al., 2017).

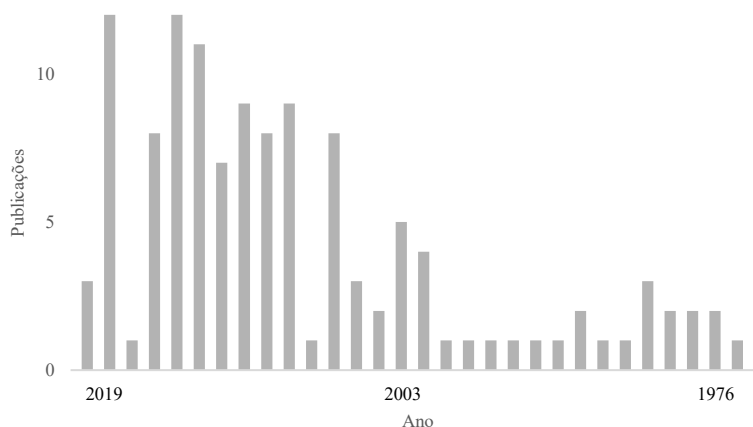
Em busca realizada na plataforma *Science Direct* no período de Julho de 2019, utilizando as palavras-chave “*microcalorimetry*”, and “*microbial*”, foram encontradas 984 publicações sem distinção do tipo de material encontrado. Atualmente, o número de publicações encontradas, sem a utilização dos filtros descritos a seguir, ultrapassa 1.000 resultados. Quando pesquisados somente por artigos de pesquisas, revisões e mini revisões, o número de publicações chega a 632 artigos publicados entre 1995 e 2019. No período entre 2016 a 2018, a média de publicações foi de 15 artigos por ano, sendo que em 2018 foram publicados 27 artigos. Já em 2019, existem 19 registros entre revisões e artigos de pesquisa na área. É importante ressaltar que, aqui não foram realizadas distinções entre as técnicas microcalorimétricas empregadas nos estudos, abrangendo material disponibilizado para além do objetivo da presente pesquisa.

Até o ano de 2019, o país com maior detenção dos resultados obtidos com microcalorimetria é a China com 72% das publicações, seguido da Rússia e Itália. Já o ano de 2018 teve publicações majoritárias em países como a China (44,4%), Alemanha (22,2%) e em quantidade menos expressiva de estudos publicados nessa plataforma, Suíça, França e Reino Unido com 11,1% dos registros.

A busca realizada na base de dados *PubMed* com as palavras-chave “*microcalorimetry*”, and “*microbial*”, levando em conta todos os tipos de revisões e trabalhos de pesquisa realizadas, sendo elas clínica ou não, encontrou 141 artigos entre os anos de 1976 até 2019. Para o período de 2018 a 2019, foram encontrados 14 registros. No ano de 2019 foram realizadas apenas 3 pesquisas que se assemelham ao escopo do presente estudo. Com base nos dados coletados, observa-se que após o início da sua utilização, a técnica ficou um período sem grandes estudos e recentemente tem tido maiores avanços e melhorias que implicam em maior utilização (Figura 2), sendo que os países detentores do conhecimento, de acordo com a plataforma, são China, Suécia e Reino Unido. Já em 2018, foram encontrados 11 trabalhos, sendo que 6 atendem a busca

pelas palavras-chave. Dentre estes, a Alemanha é o maior em número de publicações, sendo responsável por metade dos trabalhos realizados para o ano de 2018. Em seguida, Estônia e Dinamarca aparecem juntamente com a Suíça.

Figura 2 – Número de publicações por ano com utilização da microcalorimetria para medições microbiológicas no período de 1976 a 2019 na plataforma PubMed



Fonte: Elaborado pela autora (2020).

Padrão semelhante é observado para a busca de informação tecnológica com base no depósito de patentes. Até o período de abril de 2018, foram encontrados 10 registros de patentes que se distribuem entre os países EUA, China, Alemanha, Índia e Rússia na plataforma europeia *Espacenet*, utilizando palavras-chaves que pudessem descrever o uso da microcalorimetria em medições microbiológicas.

A plataforma abrange, atualmente, patentes depositadas e publicadas em mais de 90 países, incluindo documentos pertencentes ao *United States Patent and Trademark Office* (USPTO) e Patent Cooperation Treaty (PCT). Assim, as palavras-chave utilizadas foram “*micro?calorimetry OR calorimetry AND microb**”.

Além disso, os códigos que caracterizam a tecnologia na USPTO representam a utilização de instrumentos para medições físicas, sendo que alguns deles codificam propriedade intelectual para ensaios térmicos (G01N25/00, G01N25/20) e da utilização de materiais ou instrumentos para medições físico-químicas em processos envolvendo enzimas e microrganismos. Tal classificação tecnológica sugere uma explicação para a baixa popularidade da técnica entre os microbiologistas (BRAISSANT; BACHMANN; BONKAT, 2015).

Embora o objetivo da aplicação da IMC em microbiologia seja fornecer dados contínuos em tempo real, sem a necessidade de realizar nenhuma análise adicional, com

a finalidade de redução drástica da carga de trabalho e outros custos laboratoriais (BONKAT et al., 2012), alguns autores mencionam a importância de realizar paralelamente medições microbiológicas, tais como o monitoramento do pH (ALKLINT; WADSÖ; SJÖHOLM, 2005), a medição da densidade óptica (600 nm), contagem de colônias em placa (GARCIA; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2017), ensaios metabólicos (redução de sais de tetrazólio e resazurina) (BRAISSANT et al., 2013), a fim de verificar os dados calorimétricos coletados.

Por isso, o desafio na promoção da IMC é traduzir as informações referentes aos sinais calorimétricos gerados para dados com significado biológico (BRAISSANT et al., 2010b) – como a velocidade máxima específica de crescimento (μ), o tempo de geração (g), fase lag ou concentração máxima, parâmetros frequentemente usados para indicar a rapidez com que uma cultura realmente cresce (BRAISSANT et al., 2013) – e assim, permitam identificar a efetividade dos tratamentos estudados, bem como dos processos favorecidos, simplificando e promovendo o uso da técnica.

A modelagem matemática é uma importante ferramenta utilizada para avaliar o crescimento de microrganismos. O uso de modelos preditivos tem crescido devido à capacidade de prever o crescimento microbiano em condições específicas e à facilidade de uso de computadores e *softwares* de simulação. Assim, podem auxiliar na determinação do prazo de validade dos alimentos, por exemplo (MAFART, 2005; MCMEEKIN; MELLEFONT; ROSS, 2007). Modelos primários são usados para representar a curva de crescimento microbiano com o tempo para um único conjunto de condições ambientais constantes (LONGHI et al., 2017). A cinética de um processo deve ser descrita com o menor número possível de parâmetros, definindo com precisão as fases de crescimento. Eles são representados como o aumento ou diminuição da população com o tempo (PEREZ-RODRIGUEZ; VALERO, 2015). Um determinado modelo matemático pode ser mais adequado para descrever a curva de crescimento de um microrganismo específico (PEREZ-RODRIGUEZ; VALERO, 2015).

Os modelos sigmóides com uma função de ajuste são, frequentemente, mais capazes de descrever o crescimento microbiano. Sobretudo, nos casos em que a medição do crescimento microbiano fornece uma grande quantidade de dados, como as medições microcalorimétricas, ou em metabolismos em que são observadas longas fases de adaptação (BATY, F., DELIGNETTE-MULLER, 2004). O modelo de Baranyi e Roberts (BAR) é um dos modelos de crescimento com base biológica mais usados na literatura (PEREZ-RODRIGUEZ; VALERO, 2015).

Estudos de predição microbiológica por microcalorimetria são difíceis e ainda escassos na literatura, pois ainda não está estabelecida a relação entre a contagem de células viáveis e o calor produzido. Alguns estudos têm utilizado modelos lineares para descrever o crescimento microcalorimétrico de *E. coli* estimando a velocidade de crescimento constante na fase exponencial (ESARTE LÓPEZ et al., 2015; LIANG et al., 2003; TAN et al., 2012; VAZQUEZ et al., 2015, 2016; ZHANG et al., 2010), pelo modelo de Gompertz (ASTASOV-FRAUENHOFFER et al., 2011; GOMPERTZ, 1825; ZWIETERING, 1990) ou modelos logísticos (CHEN et al., 2008a).

Neste estudo, a microcalorimetria foi usada para estabelecer a impressão digital de *E. coli* em MCDSC. Para isso, foi investigada a sensibilidade do MCDSC para detectar diferentes densidades de inóculo. O calorímetro MCDSC pode coletar a taxa de calor liberada por três amostras simultaneamente além da amostra de referência. A relação dos parâmetros termocinéticos com o crescimento de *E. coli* foi discutida e comparada com o método clássico de contagem em placas. Até onde sabemos, os resultados atuais são a primeira investigação calorimétrica do padrão de crescimento de *E. coli* usando o calorímetro MCDSC como um novo instrumento na detecção de microrganismos seguido de modelagem matemática preditiva.

4 MATERIAL E MÉTODOS

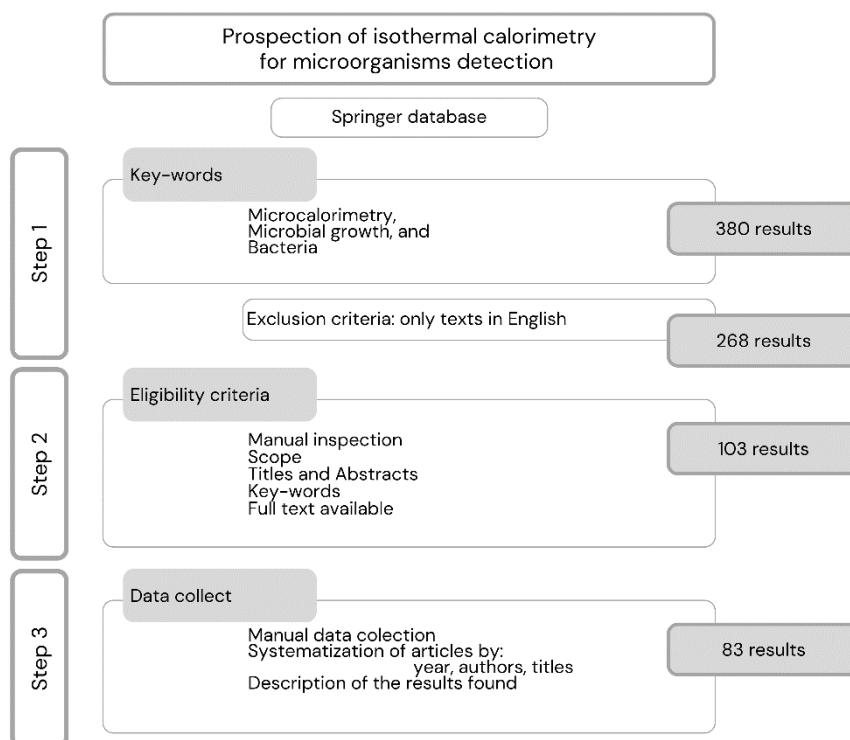
Esta sessão é dividida entre método utilizado para investigação da literatura (sessão 4.1) e método utilizado para obtenção dos dados experimentais inéditos é apresentada na sessão 4.2, de acordo com artigo publicado no periódico *Journal of Microbiological Methods*, vide Anexo I.

4.1 THE USE OF ISOTHERMAL MICROCALORIMETRY AND METHODOLOGY SPECIFICATIONS FOR MONITORING MICROBIAL GROWTH: AN OVERVIEW

- Coleta de dados Springer

A preliminary search was carried out to identify relevant articles, ensure the validity of the proposed idea, and avoid duplication. Then, for the literature review contained in the Springer database <link.springer.com>, were used the keywords *microcalorimetry*, *microbial growth*, and *bacteria*. The search, carried out in September 2020, resulted in a total of 380 documents, of which 272 were scientific papers, and 268 were available in English.

Figure 3 – Schematic representation of Springer literature data collection on microcalorimetry for microbial detection



Fonte: Elaborada pela autora (2023).

Eligibility criteria include the study design and year of publication. Thus, research articles with original experimental data and literature review articles were selected. According to the objectives of this research, the articles were evaluated in terms of titles and abstracts, to minimize the chance of including non-relevant articles. The exclusion criteria were unrelated, duplicated, unavailable full texts, or abstract-only papers.

The springer database search process is schematized as shown in Figure 3. For the manual selection of relevant articles on the subject, were evaluated titles and abstracts containing the keywords used in the search. Studies outside the scope of the research were also excluded, resulting in a total of 103 articles.

Then, for the data collection, articles with clinical or food applications were considered, and which use microcalorimetry to assess the growth or inactivation of microorganisms. Documents describing the equations used to analyze the calorimetric data were also selected. This meticulous manual selection resulted in a total of 83 articles containing original experimental data and review papers.

4.2 MICROCALORIMETRIC GROWTH BEHAVIOR OF *E. coli* ATCC 25922 IN AN MCDSC

- Verificação do desempenho

4.2.1 *E. coli* strain

The *Escherichia coli* ATCC 25922 strain was donated by the Collection of Cultures of Bacteria of Interest in Health (Oswaldo Cruz Foundation, Ministry of Health, RJ, Brazil). It was kept at -20 °C in cryotubes (TPP, Switzerland) containing 1 mL nutrient broth (NB, Accumedia, Brazil) and 10% (v/v) glycerol (Labsynth, Brazil).

The microorganism reactivation was carried out by transferring 100 µL of the stock culture to 5 mL NB and incubating for 24 hours at 37±2 °C. It was streaked on plate count agar (PCA, Kasvi, Brazil), followed by incubation under the same conditions. A single colony was selected to inoculate the liquid subculture of *E. coli*, which was incubated overnight at 37 °C. The identity of the species was regularly checked by streaking on eosin methyl blue agar (EMB, HiMedia, USA).

Working culture was prepared by dilution of an aliquot of subculture in 0.1% peptone water (Kasvi, Brazil) to obtain a concentration of 10⁸ CFU.mL⁻¹, with turbidity

equivalent on the 0.5 to McFarland scale. Serial dilution was performed until the density was reached. Inoculum verification was performed by EMB plating.

To better understand the *E. coli* growth behavior, it was carried out two growth curves in parallel at the MCDSC measurements:

A) Incubation in a heated shaking bath, as the standard of comparison;

B) Static cultivation, which simulated the growth conditions in an MCDSC for oxygen availability and agitation.

The standard experiment was conducted in a shaking water bath (Quimis M226 M, Brazil). For static cultivation, the 96-well flat bottom plate (Kasvi, Brazil) was incubated at 37 °C (EL 202/3, EletroLab, Brazil). For each growth curve, the initial inoculum ($\log 2.7 \pm 0.13 \text{ CFU.mL}^{-1}$) was taken as specified earlier. Over the 24 hours, aliquots of 100 μL were aseptically collected in specific periods were used for serial dilutions, as necessary, to explain the main growth phases.

The two growth curves were carried out in parallel to the MCDSC measurements using the same inoculum and incubation conditions. For each one, the inoculum and NB volumes add into the MCDSC ampoules, tubes, or wells, are in the same proportions in all experiments. Always, the *E. coli* culture was confirmed by EMB micro drop plating at the beginning and end of each experiment.

4.2.2 Microcalorimetric instrumentation

The MC-DSC (Multi-Cell - Differential Scanning Calorimetry, TA Instruments, USA) used is an instrument designed for parallel multisample experiments with 1 mL ampoules. It comprises a thermostat containing 3 separate channels and a reference. Each channel has a dynamic range of $\pm 50 \text{ mW}$, and the short-term noise is less than $\pm 100 \text{ nW}$. The baseline drift over 24 h was less than $\pm 200 \text{ nW}$. The instrument can operate with a heating rate of 0.1 until 2 °C min^{-1} , at the scanning temperature range may vary from -20 to 140 °C, or can be used in isothermal mode, which the thermostat maintains at a selected constant temperature, as in this study, at $37 \pm 0.01 \text{ °C}$ for 24 h under a dynamic nitrogen atmosphere (50 mL.min^{-1}).

The prepared Hastelloy ampoules were placed at the MCDSC, and the experiments started after the stabilization time (approximately 15 min) at 37 °C. After thermal equilibration in the measuring position, the heat flow was recorded for the next

24 hours by the MC-DSCrun (v.2.9.10, 2007, TA Instruments, USA). The calorimetric data were obtained using a TA2000 thermal analyzer (TA Instruments, USA).

4.2.3 *E. coli* growth in the MCDSC

The microcalorimetric experiments were divided into two sets:

I) The response of the MCDSC was investigated to different initial inoculum densities. For this, inoculums of 2.00 ± 0.18 log, 2.70 ± 0.13 log, and 2.80 ± 0.03 log CFU.mL⁻¹ were elaborated following the early description. The microcalorimetric ampoules were filled with 0.8 mL of growth media – NB – containing 0.1 mL of each different *E. coli* ATCC 25922 inoculum density and 0.1 mL of distilled water.

II) The microcalorimetric growth and the thermal fingerprint of *E. coli* ATCC 25922 in an MCDSC were quantified. Thus, the 1 mL ampoules were filled with 0.8 mL of growth media – NB – added to 0.1 mL of an *E. coli* 2.7 log CFU.mL⁻¹.

Each ampoule was sealed from the environment and put individually into one of the three channels, which were already warmed and maintained at 37 ± 0.01 °C by the thermostat control system. The reference was filled with a sterile growth medium. All reagents and materials used were autoclaved at 121 °C for 20 minutes. The ampoules and the media were warmed to room temperature to ensure thermal equilibration before the beginning of the experiments. The different inoculum experiments were conducted. For each experiment, a fresh *E. coli* culture was used. All the independent experiments are conducted three times.

4.2.4 Data corrections and fitting model

For microcalorimetric curves, baseline corrections Microsoft Office Excel (2019) (BONKAT et al., 2012; FRICKE; HARMS; MASKOW, 2020; GARCIA; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2017; ZAHARIA et al., 2013) precedes the description of the integrated heat-flow curve (ASTASOV-FRAUENHOFFER et al., 2011). After this, the *E. coli* growth microcalorimetric data at the MCDSC were analyzed. Curve fitting was performed using the *curve fitting toolbox* of Matlab (R2020a, MathWorks Inc.). All the final data representations and evaluations were carried out using OriginPro 8.6 (OriginLab).

The Baranyi and Roberts model (BAR) (1994), as given by Eqs. (1) to (3), was fitted to the curves of the heat per mass unit (Q , in J/g) versus time (t , in h) for microcalorimetric data (MASKOW et al., 2010) and to the logarithm of microbial count ($x = \log N$, in log CFU/mL) versus time (t , in h) in the standard experiments. In Eqs. (1) to (3), y is the dependent variable (x or Q) at time t (h), y_0 and y_{max} are the initial (x_0 or Q_0) or maximum (x_{max} or Q_{max}) values of the dependent variable, μ_{max} is the maximum specific rate (1/h), $F(t)$ is an adjustment function, λ is the lag phase duration (h), and h_0 is the parameter related to the physiological state of the cells. The lag time was calculated, and the maximum specific rate of the bacteria and the accumulated heat over 24 h were determined using Equation (3).

$$y(t) = y_0 + \mu_{max}F(t) - \ln \left[1 + \frac{\exp(\mu_{max}F(t))-1}{\exp(y_{max}-y_0)} \right] \quad (1)$$

$$F(t) = t + \left[\frac{1}{\mu_{max}} \right] \ln (\exp(-\mu_{max}t) + \exp(h_0) - \exp(-\mu_{max}t - h_0)) \quad (2)$$

$$\lambda = \frac{h_0}{\mu_{max}} \quad (3)$$

4.2.5 Statistics

The fitting of the model to the data was evaluated by statistical indexes, such as the coefficient of determination – R^2 (Eq. 4) and root mean squared error – $RSME$ (Eq. 5). These indices were calculated as outputs of the model fitting by the Matlab.

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{SS_{reg}}{SS_{total}} \quad (4)$$

$$RSME = \left[\frac{1}{num-var} \right] \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{num} (pd_i - ob_i)^2} \quad (5)$$

All data obtained in the experiment were analyzed by one-way variance analysis (ANOVA), and the difference between the averages was verified by Tukey's test ($p < 0.05$) using Statistica[®] software (StatSoft Inc., version 10.0, USA).

5 RESULTADOS E DISCUSSÃO

A seguir, os resultados são apresentados separadamente, divididos entre investigação da literatura (sessão 5.1, e os resultados experimentais (sessão 5.2), artigo publicado no periódico *Journal of Microbiological Methods*, vide Anexo I.

5.1 THE USE OF ISOTHERMAL MICROCALORIMETRY AND METHODOLOGY SPECIFICATIONS FOR MONITORING MICROBIAL GROWTH: AN OVERVIEW - Coleta de dados Springer

5.1.1 Heat flow curves

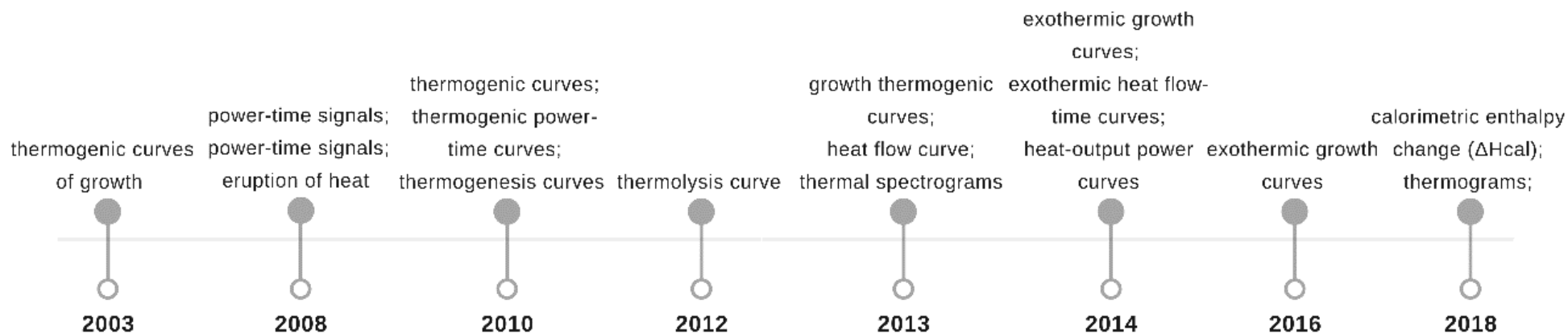
5.1.1.1 Naming the heat flow power-time curves

First, the nomenclature of microcalorimetric curves in microbiology has no consensus yet. In this section, the terms most used to describe the heat curves by time will be presented.

Initially called fermentations thermograms (FARDEAU; PLASSE; BELAICH, 1980) and growth thermogenesis (HERMAN, ET AL., 1982), the power-time curves represent the metabolic profiles over the time of any microorganism growth measured by microcalorimetry (CHEN et al., 2016). Calorimetric terms, such as thermograms and enthalpy, have been utilized primarily in microbial calorimetry.

Figure 4 summarizes the usual terms for naming the heat-flow curves extracted by isothermal calorimetry. Some of these terms suggest an inappropriate interpretation of the heat-released curves. Like in the exothermic growth curves, it can understand if the growth of the microorganism could only provide an exothermic profile of heat, which ends up not considering the use of heat necessary in some metabolic processes. This shows how the knowledge and technology that led to the determination of the most appropriate term were built.

Figure 4 – First terms used for heat flux curves found in the Springer database

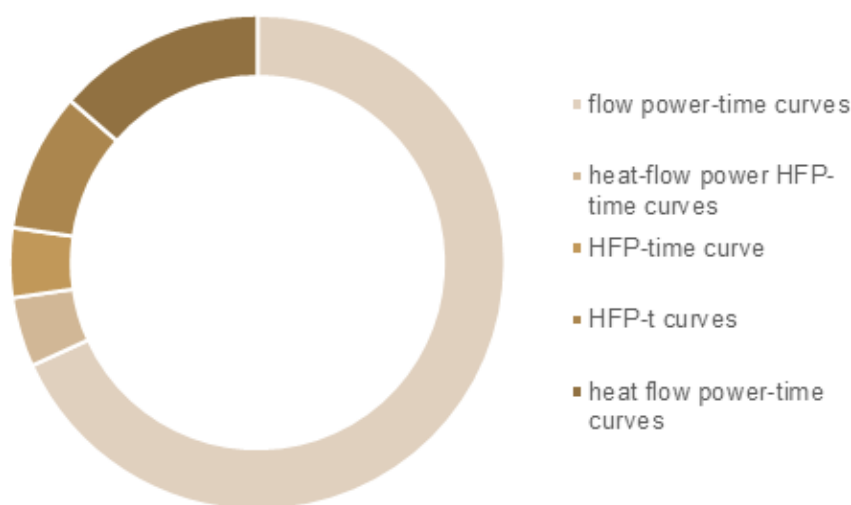


Thermogenic curves of growth (RUMING et al., 2003); eruption of heat (LIU et al., 2008); power-time signals (YANG et al., 2008a) thermogenic curves (YAN et al., 2009a, 2009b, 2010; ZHANG et al., 2010); thermogenesis curves (DING et al., 2010; YI et al., 1996); thermogenic power-time curves (WANG et al., 2010); thermal spectrograms (CHEN et al., 2013); thermolysis curve (LI et al., 2012a); (LI et al., 2012b); heat flow curves (VAZQUEZ et al., 2013); exothermic growth curves (VAZQUEZ et al., 2013, 2014); exothermic heat flow-time curves (VAZQUEZ et al., 2014, 2015); growth thermogenic curves (CHEN et al., 2013; LUO; YANG, 2014); heat-output power curves (KONG et al., 2009; LUO; YANG, 2014; WANG et al., 2014); exothermic growth curves (VAZQUEZ et al., 2016); calorimetric enthalpy change (ΔH_{cal}) (DANDÉ et al., 2018); thermograms (AVELEDO et al., 2018).

Fonte: Elaborada pela autora (2023).

Also, most recent studies (Figure 5) suggest the use of the heat flow curves expression that can be more representative of the microbial growth heat expression. Although the calorimetric character of the curves without mentioning the biological aspect can be explained by the fact that microcalorimetry is a technique explored in several areas of knowledge in addition to microbiology.

Figure 5 – Named heat flow power-time curves for microbial detection at Springer database



Flow power-time curves (CHANG-YING et al., 2008; CHEN et al., 2008a, 2008b; LI et al., 2000; LIANG et al., 2003; LIN; LIU; SHAO, 2011; LIU et al., 2014; MA et al., 2018; NAN et al., 2001; PU; MA; WANG, 2019; XU et al., 2009; YAN et al., 2007; YANG et al., 2008b, 2008a; YING et al., 2017; ZENG et al., 2006); heat-flow power HFP-time curves (LUO; YANG, 2014); HFP-time curve (MA et al., 2018); HFP-t curves (LUO; YANG, 2014; XU et al., 2014); heat flow power-time curves (CHEN et al., 2016; KONG et al., 2015; XU et al., 2014).

Fonte: Elaborada pela autora (2023).

In any living system, all the metabolic events that occur within the cells all involves heat-producing reactions (YAO et al., 2003a). The term metabolic curves (PU; MA; WANG, 2019) means the metabolic heat (XIAO et al., 2014) produced by the metabolic activities of living organisms (RUSSEL et al., 2009). Thus, metabolic power-time curves (CHEN et al., 2013; LIU et al., 2015; SHI et al., 2015), metabolic thermogenic power-time curve (ZHAO et al., 2014), real-time metabolic P-t curves (MA et al., 2018), metabolic heat flow power-time curves (LI et al., 2012a) and microbial growth thermal power-time curves (TAN et al., 2012), thermal activity fingerprint (TAN et al., 2012), or even growth metabolism (YI et al., 1996), give biological significance to

the calorimetric bacterial growth curves (AVELEDO et al., 2018; LI et al., 2012b; RIVERO et al., 2012).

However, the nomenclature that better expresses the recording of the difference in calorific potential over time (LAGO et al., 2011) are those that include the terms heat flow power-time curves. Figure 5 shows how the heat flow curves are named. In this study was adopted the term heat flow power-time (HFP-t) curves for all the following sections, as result from the studies collected.

Nykyri, Herrmann e Håkansson (2019), use the term viable thermal methods already as a proposed method for the microbial count by calorimetry, giving quantitative weight to the information.

Nevertheless, despite the nomenclature variations, the metabolic parameters (XU et al., 2019) should also be described mathematically for a better understanding. The mathematical modeling improves the biological meaning, as also validate microcalorimetric results. The next section addresses this topic.

Furthermore, the articles collected here not included important terms like “thermal power” and “heat flow curves” as recommended by Wadsö (2002). This lack of standard nomenclature makes the biocalorimetry even more difficult to interpret. We understand the need to name the thermokinetic parameters according to the objectives proposed in each study. However, the main data, as well as the heat curves, could have their unified nomenclature. Maybe, the diversity of multidisciplinary applications will help to promote this gain in the theme.

5.1.1.2 Bringing meaning to the heat flow power-time curves

To understand the processes that occur during microbial growth, the heat flow power-time curves must be observed from a qualitative point of view. For this, these curves can be divide in stages.

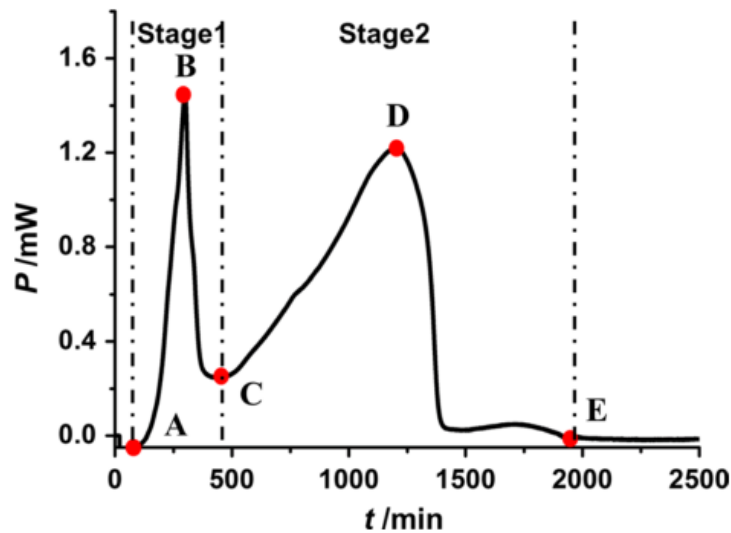
The heat flow curves can be divided into stages, which reflect the stages of microorganism growth, nutrient consumption, and metabolite production. Each microorganism has a characteristic behavior of its metabolism that reflects the production and, consequently, detection of a calorimetric signal and heat flow profile (FRICKE; HARMS; MASKOW, 2020). Note that each microcalorimetric fingerprint is unique for each species under a given growth condition (ZHANG et al., 2016).

According to the principles of microorganism growth, the calorimetric *E. coli* growth curve has two peaks, that represent the two-maximum heat-output powers for the two metabolic phases (KONG et al., 2015), the first and second exponential growth phases (KONG et al., 2012). The phases can be described by an increase in energy signal, with a shorter duration, followed by a period of latency that preceded the second period of lower energy that is prolonged over time (SHI et al., 2015; VAZQUEZ et al., 2016).

These metabolic phases can be divided into the following phases: the first growth, the first decrease in metabolic activity, the second growth, and second decrease in metabolic activity stages (CHEN et al., 2013; KONG et al., 2015; LIU et al., 2015; SHI et al., 2015). For some authors, these stages can be expressed by four (SHI et al., 2015; YING et al., 2017) or five stages (CHEN et al., 2016; KONG et al., 2012) due to the experimental design.

Figure 6 exhibits the normal metabolic thermogenic curve of *E. coli* growth in the LB culture medium at 37 °C in the absence of any substances, which presented two stages and four representative phases: the first exponential growth phase (A–B), a stationary phase (B–C), the second exponential growth phase (C–D), and a decline phase (D–E) (CHEN et al., 2013; KONG et al., 2011; YAN et al., 2010; YING et al., 2017).

Figure 6 – Typical heat flow curve over the time of *E. coli* growth at 37 °C



Source: Ying et al. (2017).

Succinctly, in the exponential phase bacteria are in a good environment with sufficient nutrient matter and fewer metabolic sub-products. This consolidates one of the calorimetric growth phases as metabolic growth continues, the nutrient and oxygen

consumed by bacteria are limited implies less detection of the calorimetric signal - peaks with less intensity - because of less cellular duplication and production of metabolites that can have deleterious effects for the culture (CHEN et al., 2016; LIU; SHAO; LIN, 2012). For some microorganisms, as in the case of *E. coli*, a momentary decrease in heat release may occur, which may represent an excessive consumption of nutrients provided. This usually starts sometime after chromosomal replication and ends before cell division (CHEN et al., 2016, 2013; LI et al., 2012b; LIU; SHAO; LIN, 2012).

Initially, growth is characterized by a rather slow rate. This is because when added to a new culture medium, a microbial population may require additional time to adapt.

Furthermore, it is at this stage that the preparation for the biosynthesis of metabolites and enzymes essential for cell division and multiplication takes place. This lag time depends on the bacterial concentration of the sample. Now, in the stationary phase, both the cell numbers in the population and the heat effect reach the maximum. The heat effect gradually decreases in pace with the death of cells because of the depletion of nutrition in the culture medium (ASTASOV-FRAUENHOFFER et al., 2011; CHEN et al., 2013; LI et al., 2012b).

For Chen et al., (2013), these microbial growth phases can be directly related to thermal power-time curves. Despite the species similarities, the heat-flow curves can present differences between species, as shown below. For *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, as an example, the characteristic shape of the heat flow curves had a single phase (AVELEDO et al., 2018; LAGO et al., 2011), composed by two main leaps, with the exponential phase extended over time (ESARTE LÓPEZ et al., 2015), is described as four phases (MA et al., 2018). As for *Pseudomonas putida*, whose heat flux curves can be divided into 5 steps and had two peaks, a small initial one with a magnitude of about 25 μW followed by a large one about of 500 μW . For the *P. putida*, the first peak can be explained by the consumption of oxygen dissolved in the liquid medium, with a heat production of approx. 0.1 J. And the second peak might reflect the dynamics of substrate or oxygen depletion (FRICKE; HARMS; MASKOW, 2020).

From these thermokinetic parameters of heat flow curves ($W = \text{J/s}$), the cumulative amount of heat (J vs. time) is obtained, which is proportional to the biomass formed (ASTASOV-FRAUENHOFFER et al., 2011).

So far, the search has been able to interpret and name the calorimetric curves. This study also extract important thermokinetic parameters and can evaluate the time and heat

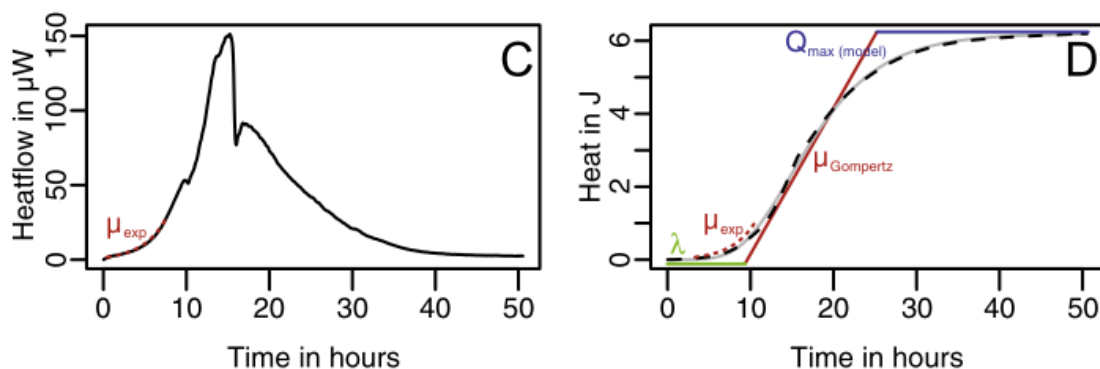
production relationships, as mentioned earlier. The biological significance of these curves and what exactly they represent could be further explored.

Thus, it is important to pay attention to the importance of microbiologically validating calorimetric measurements, whether this process is carried out by classical methods, such as plate counting (FREDUA-AGYEMAN; GAISFORD, 2019) and optical density (LIU et al., 2015), or by mathematical methods (BRAISSANT et al., 2013; KRELL, 2008; LIU et al., 2014; SCHIRALDI, 1995).

The mathematical validation of calorimetric data can run through the application of mathematical models capable of explaining heat flow data, or even heat, through fit models. Some studies applied models such as the Gompertz model (KONG et al., 2009; LIU et al., 2008), which is a sigmoidal model extensively exposed by Braissant et al (2013; 2015) at microcalorimetric biologic measurements. Using the mathematical modelling applications also allow to calculate the growth rate ($\mu_{Gompertz}$) but further allows calculating the lag phase duration and the total heat (Q_{max}) (BRAISSANT; BACHMANN; BONKAT, 2015).

Figure 7 shows a schematic representation of the μ_{max} determination by the Gompertz modeling. It is observed the divergence between the value obtained for μ_{max} from the experimental data (μ_{exp}) and with the data fitting ($\mu_{Gompertz}$). Which, again, suggests caution in choosing the model that best describes the data. Such confusion is common, despite it is not acceptable. This implies the production of unreliable results or data that do not comply with the hypothesis often suggested.

Figure 7 – Representation of linear fit to heat curves



Source: Adapted from Braissant et al. (2015)

One way to avoid misconceptions is to keep in mind that the similarity often displayed between heat curves and microbial growth curve does not imply that similar processes are involved (BRAISSANT et al., 2013). For example, a decline in the heat flow does not always mean a decrease in the cell number. When microorganisms are confronted with different carbon sources, they might consume these substrates sequentially resulting in diauxic growth (BRAISSANT et al., 2013; MONOD, 1949). Also, data treatments can provide more easily interpretation of these curves. As the representation of exponential models can be easy at the exponential part of the curve might be easier to find on the raw data (BRAISSANT et al., 2013).

5.1.2 The resolution of curves

Some factors can affect the resolution of heat flow power-time curves. Next, the experimental parameters will be presented, and how they affect the microcalorimetric results.

5.1.2.1 Inoculum size

Initially, it is observed that some authors represent the inoculum concentration in different units as CFU/mL (MA et al., 2018), cells/mL (HUANG et al., 2003; XIAO et al., 2014; YAN et al., 2009b, 2009a; YAO et al., 2003a, 2003b) or bacteria/mL (LIANG et al., 2003; XU et al., 2003; YAO et al., 2003c), emphasizing even more that researchers conduct studies other than the microbiology area.

As Table 2 shows, most of the initial inoculum is around 10^6 CFU.mL⁻¹, whose variations go through 1×10^6 CFU.mL⁻¹, 1.5×10^6 CFU.mL⁻¹, or 2×10^6 CFU.mL⁻¹ or 6.3×10^6 CFU.mL⁻¹, and even 4.98×10^5 CFU.mL⁻¹, which allows observing the antimicrobial action of compounds and how they affect the kinetics of microbial growth over time (PEREZ-RODRIGUEZ; VALERO, 2015).

Lower concentrations like 1×10^4 CFU.mL⁻¹ (YAO et al., 2003c) or 1×10^3 CFU.mL⁻¹ are also used (DANDÉ et al., 2018), above all in the investigation of the calorimetric profile of mixed cultures. In this case, concentrations are about 10^5 , 10^3 , 10^1 , and 1 CFU.mL⁻¹ (BONKAT et al., 2013). The proportion between the different microorganisms can be 50/50; 20/80 e 80/20 (VAZQUEZ et al., 2014). Inoculum in lower

concentration is used in studies that require knowledge of all stages of growth (PEREZ-RODRIGUEZ; VALERO, 2015).

Table 2 – Microcalorimetric start inoculum concentrations

Inoculum	Reference
10^6	(CHEN et al., 2016; KONG et al., 2012; LI et al., 2012a; LIU et al., 2014; LUO; YANG, 2014; MA et al., 2018; TAN et al., 2012; VAZQUEZ et al., 2016; XIAO et al., 2014; YAO et al., 2002; YING et al., 2017; ZHAO et al., 2014)
1.5×10^6	(XU et al., 2003; YAN et al., 2009a)
2×10^6	(LI et al., 2000, 2012b; LIANG et al., 2003; YAO et al., 2003b)
6.3×10^6	(HUANG et al., 2003)
4.98×10^5	(NAN et al., 2001)
1×10^4	(YAO et al., 2003c)
1×10^3	(DANDÉ et al., 2018)
1×10^1	(BONKAT et al., 2013; KONG et al., 2012; VAZQUEZ et al., 2013, 2014, 2015)

Inoculum: CFU.mL⁻¹

Fonte: Elaborada pela autora (2023).

It is known that the microcalorimetric data, or even the resolution of the HFP-t curves, depend on the test conditions and strains (NYKYRI; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2019). Thus, the initial inoculum may vary in terms of cell density, as shown early, and about the inoculated volume. The culture in large cell densities, will reach the stationary phase earlier (NYKYRI; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2019).

Likewise, studies conducted with concentrated inoculum translate heat-producing metabolic events less significantly. That is, metabolic peaks can be expressed at a lower intensity or overlap each other, making their interpretation difficult (FURUSTRAND TAFIN et al., 2015). Also, it is worth highlighting the need to use equipment with high sensibility capable of detecting minimal amounts of heat production. The differences between the calorimeters used in the next sections are presented.

5.1.2.2 Growing medium

As presented, microcalorimetric can perform measurements in a wide variety of samples, as in the case of clinical samples (MORGENSTERN et al., 2020) and the most diverse culture media (DANDÉ et al., 2018; NYKYRI; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2019; YAN et al., 2009b; YI LIU, HUA-GUANG YU, YU-PING HUANG, 2003). This is because the turbidity of the medium or sample does not influence the calorimetric measurements, as in the case of optical density measurements (LIU et al., 2015; VON AH et al., 2018).

The grown media plays a key role in the shape of the heat curves obtained. Due to a certain cultivated condition, the metabolism of a microorganism will present different behavior profiles. Firstly, it is important to note that the calorimetric measurements are generally conducted in closed ampoule systems, which means that the carbonate equilibrium will tend to be displaced toward a higher dissolution of CO₂ and formation of carbonate and bicarbonate, finally leading to an acidification of the medium (FRICKE; HARMS; MASKOW, 2020). In this sense, the headspace must be considered. Some equipment provides a certain volume to hold samples and already considers the volume needed to maintain a minimum headspace. The MCDSC is an example of a calorimeter that provides a sample volume of 1 mL but ensures that a headspace remains. Again, there are no studies available that evaluate the use of different atmospheres and headspace-safe volumes. Such as the headspace air volume, and the volume of the culture medium used can also affect the resolution of curves by the interplay between substrate and oxygen limitation changing the metabolic response of the bacteria (FRICKE; HARMS; MASKOW, 2020).

Likewise, the composition of the media can also vary the signals recorded by the calorimeter, such as the presence of growth-inhibiting compounds can also affect heat production, changing the order of metabolic events and promoting a different heat production profile (MA et al., 2018; VON AH et al., 2018; YANG et al., 2010; ZHANG et al., 2016).

As well, the physical properties of the growth medium can change the profile of the heat flow curves. Solid and liquid culture media have different diffusion capacities of substrates in the medium. In the liquid culture media, the bacteria are surrounded by dissolved substrate and oxygen, even though provision with oxygen may be limited by diffusion from the headspace (FRICKE; HARMS; MASKOW, 2020; NYKYRI; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2019).

Also, liquid media have better, and more uniform heat transfer compared to solid agar cultures even under static growing conditions, which may promote more linear calorimetric data by reducing background noise due to the heat transfer. It may affect the amplitude of the heat signals in the curves, which is of great importance for detection in cultures with low cell density (FRICKE; HARMS; MASKOW, 2020; NYKYRI; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2019).

Up to now, most studies were conducted in liquid culture medium, due to nondestructive measurements allowing the sample testing for other classical microbial

methods (PEREZ-RODRIGUEZ; VALERO, 2015). But the solid medium cultivation has some advantages over liquid cultivation. These advantages were more pronounced in the biofilms and antimicrobial investigations. An example is a microcalorimetric determination for planktonic cells in biofilms over solid cultivation (SOLOKHINA et al., 2017). Also, the decline phase can be more pronounced in the solid media, which may allow antimicrobial evaluation (KABANOVA; STULOVA; VILU, 2012). Or even for the determination of antimicrobial activity at the surface of solid substrates as implant materials (Braissant et al. 2015). However, unfortunately, there are not many studies focused on optimizing experimental design and how the culture medium affects calorimetric measurements.

5.1.2.3 Microcalorimetric instrumentation

This section presents a compilation of the most used calorimeters by the researchers. Table 3 shows the instrument's specifications from manufacturers also the research groups that use it. The TAM Air isothermal microcalorimeter (Thermometric AB, Sweden) is the instrument mostly employed in microbiologic detections. The first calorimeter was introduced to the market in 1966. It started with the partnership between researchers Stig Sunner and Ingemar Wadso at the University of Lund in Sweden. Only in 1982, the BioActivity Monitor was utilized as a Micro calorimeter starting a new era for Thermal Activity Monitors (TAM) (BROWN, 1998). Also, these microcalorimeters receive multiple nomenclatures, depending on the period of publication, therefore LKB Thermometric can also be called the Bioactivity monitor (CHANG-LI et al., 1988; LIU et al., 2014).

The LKB calorimeter line was taken over by Thermometric AB (Sweden) when LKB in 1986 became part of the Pharmacia group (BROWN, 1998). All microcalorimeters marketed by LKB Thermometric are based on the heat conduction principle – the heat evolved or absorbed in the reaction vessel is transferred to a surrounding heat sink through a thermopile (BROWN, 1998).

Table 3 – Technical specifications of commonly used commercial calorimeters from Springer database research

Equipment	Vessels		DL	sensitivity	Reference	
	channels	capacity				material
SETARAM Micro DSC-II	2	1 mL	-	0.2 μ W	-	(DANDÉ et al., 2018)
Calvet microcalorimeter	2	-	-	1 μ W	-	(AVELEDO et al., 2018; ESARTE LÓPEZ et al., 2015; LAGO et al., 2011; VAZQUEZ et al., 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016)
TAM 48	48	-	-	2 μ W	-	(ASTASOV-FRAUENHOFFER et al., 2011; VON AH; WIRZ; DANIELS, 2009)
TAM III	12 - 48	4 mL	stainless steel	10 nW	0.225 μ W	(FRICKE; HARMS; MASKOW, 2020; FURUSTRAND TAFIN et al., 2015; LIU et al., 2015; MORGENSTERN et al., 2020; RUSSEL et al., 2009; YUSUF et al., 2015; ZHANG et al., 2010, 2016)
TAM 2277	4 2	2.5 mL 5 mL	glass stainless steel		10 ⁻⁶ °C	(CHANG-YING et al., 2008; CHEN et al., 2013; FREDUA-AGYEMAN; GAISFORD, 2019; LIANG et al., 2003; RUMING et al., 2003; SARDARO et al., 2013; XI, 2003; XU et al., 2003, 2009; YAO et al., 2003a, 2003c, 2003b, 2005; YI LIU, HUA-GUANG YU, YU-PING HUANG, 2003)
TAM Air	3 - 8	4 - 24 mL	glass	4 mW	10 ⁶ UFC	(CHEN et al., 2016, 2008b; DING et al., 2010; HU et al., 2020; KONG et al., 2015; LIU; SHAO; LIN, 2012; LIU et al., 2014; LUO; YANG, 2014; NYKYRI; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2019; PU; MA; WANG, 2019; SHI et al., 2015; TAN et al., 2012; WANG et al., 2014, 2010; XIAO et al., 2014; XU et al., 2014, 2019; YAN et al., 2008, 2009b, 2010; YING et al., 2017; ZENG et al., 2006; ZHAO et al., 2014)

Note: Number of channels – number of simultaneous measurements; DL – detection limit by the microcalorimeter

Fonte: Elaborada pela autora (2023).

As the successor of the Thermal Activity Monitor (TAM), (Thermometric AB, Sweden), the LKB Bioactivity Monitor (BAM) (MUKHANOV et al., 2004) is a widely used instrument. It is a heat-conduction isothermal calorimeter (LIANG et al., 2003; XU et al., 2009) that measures the voltage signal (HERMAN, ET AL., 1982; SARDARO et al., 2013). There are three operating modes for the instrument: ampoule mode, flow-through mode, and flow-mixed mode (YI LIU, HUA-GUANG YU, YU-PING HUANG, 2003). The baseline stability is 0,2 μ W over 24 h (LIANG et al., 2003; XU et al., 2009; YAO et al., 2005).

It is a heat-conduction type of isothermal microcalorimeter for heat-flow measurements in isothermal conditions. The instrument differs from classical calorimeters in the sense that it directly records the thermal flux, also called the heat-flow power. An earlier study by Lowen et al. (1995) describes equipment anatomy.

This microcalorimeter is an eight-channel twin instrument (SHI et al., 2015). It is mean that consists of two parts: one for the sample and another as a static reference. The two parts within a channel allow a direct comparison of the heat-output power from the sample with that from the static reference (HU et al., 2020). The heat curves give the heat output value by integrating the heat-flow power curves at contrasting times, using the TAM Assistant software (Thermometric AB) (KONG et al., 2015; SHI et al., 2015). The TAM is composed of 20 mL glass ampoules in each of the eight calorimetric channels fixed together to form a single heat-sink block placed in a temperature-controlled air thermostat (HU et al., 2020).

The microcalorimetric measurements are in the scale of μ W, with a detection limit of 2 μ W (KONG et al., 2015; LIN; LIU; SHAO, 2011; PU; MA; WANG, 2019) and baseline stability of < 2 μ W over a period of 24 h (KONG et al., 2015; LIN; LIU; SHAO, 2011; SHI et al., 2015). It is an instrument that is electrically auto calibrated (KONG et al., 2015). The TAM series is still today the most sensitive, stable, and precise instrument for heat measurements according to the manufacturers (MARKOVIC; MILONJIC, 1992; TA INSTRUMENTS, 2022).

Reactions could be carried out in the temperature range of 5 to 90 °C (KONG et al., 2015; PU; MA; WANG, 2019). The temperature was controlled at 37 °C for most experiments that maintain the temperature within ± 0.02 °C (HU et al., 2020; MA et al., 2018; PU; MA; WANG, 2019; XU et al., 2019; ZHAO et al., 2014).

A schematic representation of the instrument was reported (KONG et al., 2015) and compares the evolution of the TAM air by the first utilization (WADSÖ, 2002) and most recent studies (ZHANG et al., 2012). It is important to state that variations between instruments affect the data obtained and this can influence the research objectives.

Specifications such as sensibility and accuracy are promoted in updated versions. For the TAM IV, the temperature range of 4 to 150 °C, also with the four calorimeters that operate simultaneously and independently. Briefly, the TAM IV-48 expands the TAM IV or TAM III for its capability to accommodate 48 individual measure channels (TA INSTRUMENTS, 2022).

So far, at the beginning of the calorimetric-biologic measurements the instruments were simpler, thus the information given by these measurements was more simplified too.

This can be observed in the specifications of the Calvet microcalorimeter (SETARAM), which consists of two channels calorimeter stabilized by the current source to perform an electrical calibration (AVELEDO et al., 2018; ESARTE LÓPEZ et al., 2015; VAZQUEZ et al., 2015, 2016). The precision in the calorimetric signal achieved was about 1 μ W; (AVELEDO et al., 2018; VAZQUEZ et al., 2016). The design of the equipment is unique, allowing the inoculum to only come into the contact with the culture medium when the syringe is activated to add the inoculum (SETARAM SOLUTIONS, 2020; VAZQUEZ et al., 2016; VERDES et al., 2014). One of the major advantages of the calorimetric vessels used is that they do not need to be removed for cleaning (usually by using with an organic solvent); this allows the system geometry to be preserved between measurements and calibrations to hold over long periods (CERDEIRINÄA et al., 2000), have a few studies that describe the precision and heat capacity (PARDO et al., 2001) for this equipment (CERDEIRINÄA et al., 2000; WIEGAND et al., 2019).

All instruments were designed as twin calorimeters using one main heat sink which is surrounded by thermocouple plates and a thermostatic air bath (BROWN, 1998). The instruments may vary by the number of channels and by the sensibility of the measurements. Also, the material and the capacity of the vessels can be important to the detection target and the representativity of biological experiments. For that, the specifications of calorimeters should be analyzed carefully for data comparison purposes. Data acquisition and their microcalorimetry responses, as the method, should be systematically checked.

Although the calorimeters shown here are widely used, the spread of use and progress of technology, which offers many advantages, can still be extensively explored.

Also, some recent technologies are gained space and show an important advance for microcalorimetric biologic research in the future. Some authors explore the applications of novel equipment, such as chip calorimeters (LERCHNER et al., 2008; MASKOW et al., 2006,

2010), even the scanning calorimeters able to operate in the isothermal mode as the MCDSC series (TA INSTRUMENTS, 2022).

5.1.3 Technical progress and future perspectives

As demonstrated, the IMC has shown to be a promising technique in all fields of application. Most studies, in this research review, already use mathematical tools that help in the explanation and bring greater biological meaning to the IMC measurements, as in the case of principal component analysis (HU et al., 2020; MA et al., 2018; PU; MA; WANG, 2019; XU et al., 2019) and microbial prediction modeling (SARDARO et al., 2013).

The results found are also broad for applications in the screening of antimicrobial compound activity. By the PCA analysis, have been found an inhibitory ratio or the half-inhibitory concentration (IC₅₀) that corresponds to the inhibiting concentration able to cause a 50% decrease in the growth rate constant (HU et al., 2020; KONG et al., 2009; LI et al., 2012a; LIU et al., 2014; PU; MA; WANG, 2019; XU et al., 2014).

Because of its high sensibility and accuracy, microcalorimetry is a versatile technique that can detect metabolic progress automatically and continuously (AVELEDO et al., 2018). The tool has advantages, such as, it possible to conduct measurements on viscous liquids and solid samples, or samples that show color, allowing it to be applied in clinical samples (RIPA et al., 1977; TRAMPUZ et al., 2007b; VON AH; WIRZ; DANIELS, 2008), and to describe the action of antimicrobial compounds (GAISFORD et al., 2009; O'NEILL et al., 2003).

Thus, it has been used to circumvent existing limitations in conventional microbiological methods for the detection and monitoring of microbial activity and viability (BONKAT et al., 2012) in many fields (BRAISSANT et al., 2010a). Calorimetric signals can also be used to quantify and identify microorganisms of interest in foods (MASKOW et al., 2012), as in the case of monitoring fermentation processes (GARCIA; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2017) and in determining shelf life under different storage conditions (ALKLINT; WADSÖ; SJÖHOLM, 2005), and detecting the presence of pathogens in low concentrations in drinking water, under aerobic and anaerobic conditions (MASKOW et al., 2012).

The main challenges are related to the standardization metrics units and applied techniques. Considering that the data presented here reflect the existing literature at Springer up to the time the research was carried out, the excellent coverage of studies applied to the determination of antimicrobial activity by calorimetry of different compounds and natural

extracts widely used in Chinese medicine, were highlight. Such studies also show, in most cases, the use of statistical tools, such as principal component analysis (PCA) to understand the effect of different concentrations of the studied actives on the inhibition of microbial growth. On the other hand, the studies are still superficial regarding the applications of the results obtained and without much focus on the challenges of applying calorimetry in microbial detection or inactivation. Some important references on the subject were not mentioned, such as (Bonkat et al., 2012; Braissant et al., 2010; Wadsö, 2002), which is also not found during the search in the database using the criteria described above.

In addition, some studies did not carry out any comparisons by any other microbiological quantification, like the standard plate counting method, for example. Even the comparison to the official methodologies for the evaluation of susceptibility to antimicrobial compounds, widely disseminated, such as microdilution and disco diffusion assays (CLSI, 2015; KONG et al., 2015; PU; MA; WANG, 2019) is also not presented in this search.

The presented review described the data provided in the Springer database chosen from the eligibility criteria exposed. Is a consistent and respected database in several areas of science. It was organized by themes such as the main nomenclatures used, types of research published in the aforementioned database, and the main advances in the technique that could be observed during data collection. It also highlight the current use of calorimetry in the detection of microorganisms. Important references on the subject were not suggested in the search presented here, further reducing the impact of the search. However, available studies are often heterogeneous in their objectives and applicability. The lack of standardization of terms and nomenclatures, or even the lack of studies that explore the capacity of each equipment in its particularities, ends up reducing the diffusion and use of the technique.

5.2 MICROCALORIMETRIC GROWTH BEHAVIOR OF *E. COLI* ATCC 25922 IN AN MCDSC

- Verificação do desempenho

5.2.1 Sensibility of MCDSC at different *E. coli* ATCC 25922 inoculum sizes

Figure 8 shows the microcalorimetric growth curves of *E. coli* at different initial inoculum densities in an MCDSC. Note that these curves are expressed by the average behavior for each replicate. The curves obtained suggest that the microcalorimetric instrument was able to identify *E. coli* at different initial densities, even at the lower one ($2 \log \text{CFU.mL}^{-1}$). Additionally, they are indicative of the growth pattern of *E. coli* metabolism (ZAHARIA et al., 2013). The *E. coli* in the MCDSC curves can be described qualitatively, which may identify some microorganisms and can be interpreted by quantitative growth parameters (ZAHARIA et al., 2013). From these data, much information can be extracted that describes the calorimetric growth profile of *E. coli* ATCC 25922 in MCDSC.

The two-peak profile is likely due to the metabolic profile of the microorganism and the production of metabolites (GARCIA; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2017). The *E. coli* heat flow pattern showed mostly two peaks of similar height followed by a short tail (BONKAT et al., 2012). The structure of the thermal fingerprint of *E. coli* can be explained by the consumption of the nutrient sources present in the NB medium and the amount of oxygen present in the closed ampoule (BRAISSANT et al., 2010b; FREDUA-AGYEMAN; GAISFORD; BEEZER, 2018; MONOD, 1949).

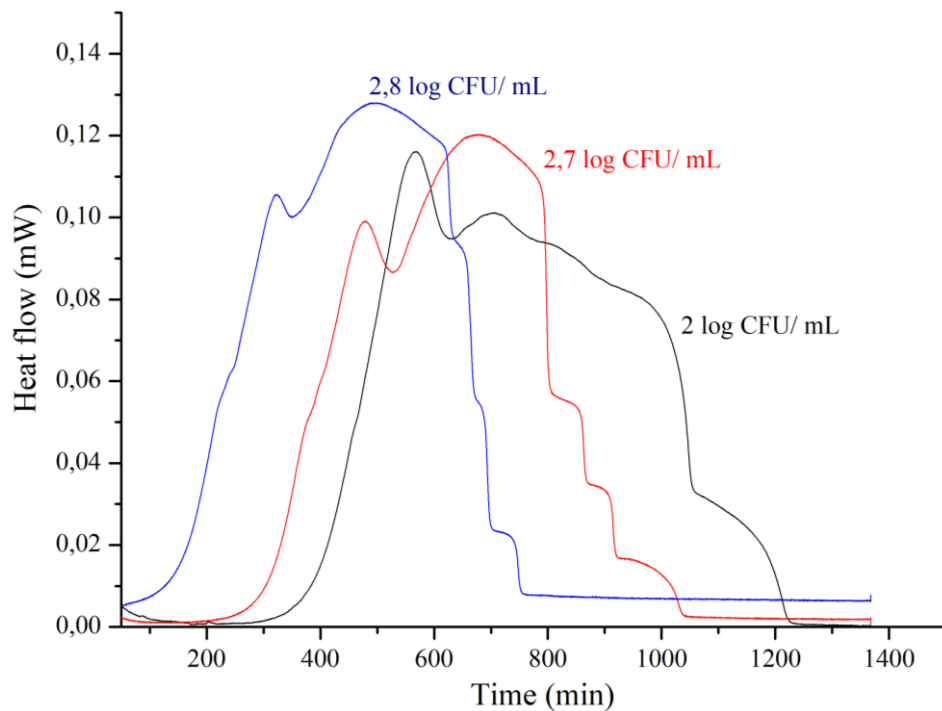
For *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, as an example, characteristic shape of the heat flow curves had a single phase (AVELEDO et al., 2018; LAGO et al., 2011), composed by two main leaps, with the exponentially phase extended over time (ESARTE LÓPEZ et al., 2015; MA et al., 2018), can be described and in four phases (Ma et al., 2018).

To express the data more quantitatively, some key points of the thermogram were extracted. Table 4 summarizes these parameters. Therefore, the thermal signal detection, the start of the exponential growth, the first and second maximum peaks, the return to baseline, and the time necessary to reach the signals will explain the calorimetric growth, as shown below. From these numbers, one can understand the microcalorimetric growth profile in the curves.

The threshold of 0.02 mW was set as the value for growth detection (*onset*). The same goes for the return to the baseline (*offset*). This value is much above the MCDSC sensibility (0.2 μW , i.e., 0.0002 mW), short-term noise level, and baseline repeatability (2 μW , i.e., 0.002

mW), according to the manufacturer's specifications, as recommended (ZAHARIA et al., 2013). From this, the detection time was defined as the time from the insertion of an ampoule into the microcalorimeter until exponential growth produced a rising heat flow signal higher than 20 μ W (BONKAT et al., 2012). Therefore, the time needed to reach 0.02 mW was different for each *E. coli* initial density. More, the threshold could not be detected at higher inoculum concentrations tested ($\log 2.80 \pm 0.03$ CFU.mL⁻¹), and it showed a variation between 3.8 and 5.2 hours for the less concentrated ($\log 2.00 \pm 0.18$ CFU.mL⁻¹) inoculum.

Figure 8 – *E. coli* microcalorimetric growth profile obtained using different initial inoculums (range 2 – 2.8 log) on MCDSC technique



Fonte: Elaborada pela autora (2023).

Bonkat et al. (2012) found detection times between 0.75 h and 1.16 h for *E. coli* microcalorimetric growth at different concentrations. The same group found a 0.63 h for 10^5 , 3.66 h for *E. coli* at 10^3 , and 9.38 h at 10^1 CFU.mL⁻¹ (BONKAT et al., 2013), which corroborates the data obtained.

The heat production of 0.05 mW was set as the value to start the observation of the exponential growth in the heat flow curves. The $t_{0,05}$ is the time needed to reach the signal twice above the *onset* threshold.

Table 4 – *E. coli* lag phase duration, growth rate, heat flow, time of metabolic heat release peaks and total heat released on MCDSC analysis, considering different initial inoculum

CFU	λ (h)	onset		1_{peak}		2_{peak}		offset		final		Δt (h)	Q_t (mJ)	μ_{max} (h ⁻¹)	R^2	RSME
		$t_{0.02}$ (h)	$t_{0.05}$ (h)	$t_{1\text{peak}}$ (h)	mW	$t_{2\text{peak}}$ (h)	mW	t_{offset} (h)	mW	t_{final} (h)	mW					
2.00	9.63 ± 0.05 ^a	5.24 ^a	5.88 ^c	9.48 ^a	0.117 ^a	11.73 ^a	0.101 ^{abc}	20.70 ^a	0.001 ^a	24.00	0.004 ^a	12.09	3559.53	0.550 ± 0.061 ^a	0.997 ± 0.001	0.065 ± 0.011
2.70	8.09 ± 1.44 ^a	3.80 ^b	4.59 ^b	7.96 ^a	0.099 ^a	11.28 ^a	0.120 ^c	17.39 ^b	0.003 ^a	24.00	0.002 ^a	9.48	3103.93	0.758 ± 0.110 ^a	0.997 ± 0.003	0.082 ± 0.072
2.80	5.53 ± 0.36 ^b	-	0.77 ^a	5.37 ^b	0.105 ^a	8.20 ^b	0.128 ^{bc}	12.70 ^c	0.007 ^a	23.94	0.007 ^a	9.08	3474.24	0.707 ± 0.107 ^a	0.998 ± 0.001	0.057 ± 0.021

CFU: log CFU/mL

mW: Heat flow (mW/s)

Q_t : total heat released over the 24 h (mJ)

λ : lag phase (h)

μ_{max} : maximum growth rate (h⁻¹)

R^2 : coefficient of determination

RSME: root mean squared error

onset and $t_{0.02}$ (h): time to reach threshold 0.02 mW- signal above the baseline detection

$t_{0.05}$ (h): time to reach threshold 0.05 mW - signal twice above the baseline detection

$t_{1\text{peak}}$ (h): time to reach the 1_{peak}

$t_{2\text{peak}}$ (h): time to reach the 2_{peak}

offset and t_{offset} (h): time to return to the baseline

final and t_{final} (h): end of metabolic heat release

Δt (h): the period between the start of calorimetric recording and return to baseline

Fonte: Elaborada pela autora (2023).

The *E. coli* heat flow pattern showed mostly two peaks of similar height (between \approx 0.100 and 0.120 mW) followed by a short tail (BONKAT et al., 2012). The parameters first and the second peak (1_{peak} , 2_{peak}), and their respective times helped in the characterization of the microorganism.

The 1_{peak} was taken when the growth curves reached a heat flow signal of approximately 0.1 mW at a low or high inoculum density. The value ranged from close to 0.108 to 0.117 mW, and it showed a 4 h difference between the different inoculum concentrations used, reaching periods of 5.3 h, 7.9 h, and 9.4 h for high inoculum cultivation. The values obtained agree with the indication of the *E. coli* calorimetric pattern. For example, a heat flow of 0.13 mW was produced in 7.82 h of *E. coli* at the same inoculum that was used in this work (FREDUA-AGYEMAN; GAISFORD; BEEZER, 2018).

For the 2_{peak} , most studies suggest that it is not clear how it works. Due to the wide variation in this peak, it is not used often for describing the microbial calorimetric profiles. Despite this, the results obtained will present similar calorimetric signal records, differing only in terms of the detection time for the 2_{peak} .

Some studies show that the *E. coli* heat released approximately 0.33 mW (ZAHARIA et al., 2013), or 90 to 120 μW , i.e., 0.09 to 0.12 mW (BRAISSANT et al., 2013) in a different growing medium, as the simulated gastric fluid was approximately 0.750 to 1.495 mW (Yan et al., 2010). On the other hand, for growth in nutrient broth, *E. coli* had heat production of approximately 0.32 mW (XU et al., 2014), or even 131.54 to 200.51 μW , i.e., 0.131 to 0.200 mW (FREDUA-AGYEMAN; GAISFORD; BEEZER, 2018), which suggests agreement in the data presented here.

As the return to the baseline, the *offset* parameter characterizes the time when the microorganism is no longer metabolically active, and therefore, there is no more detection of a calorimetric signal, as there is no production of metabolic heat. Again, this parameter is directly related to the cell density added at the beginning of the assay. Higher concentrations initiate earlier energy metabolism and consequent production and detection of heat, causing this same metabolism to cease earlier.

The *final* point is the end of the incubation period (24 h) at the MCDSC. At the end of each ampoule experiment, the calorimetric signal recorded was approximately 0.002 until 0.007 mW for all inoculum densities. We give a $\Delta t_{0.02}$ – the difference between *offset* and *onset* – of approximately 10 hours for all densities studied here. The $\Delta t_{0.02}$ is important to distinguish different types of microorganisms (BONKAT et al., 2012).

The total heat production (Q_t) can be expressed as the absolute (J) or specific (J/g or mL) (MONOD, 1949; ZAHARIA et al., 2013). The absolute Q_t found was approximately 3300 mJ for all the inoculums, which agrees with the total heat output described by other authors for *E. coli*. Values of 3 to 4 J were considered characteristics of *E. coli* heat production (BONKAT et al., 2012; VAZQUEZ et al., 2013, 2016). Bonkat et al. (2012) found Q_t values ranging from 10 to 12 J for *P. mirabilis* and 1.3 to 1.5 J for *E. faecalis*.

Different microorganisms will exert a different calorimetric profile because of their metabolism. For example, the same heat output – approximately 3 and 4 J – was found in *E. coli* growing on sterile filtered urine at different densities (10^1 to 10^5 CFU/mL) (BONKAT et al., 2013). Vazquez et al. (2014) found 17.485 mJ for 10^3 CFU/mL *E. coli* growing in TSB media.

Even closer results for Q_t were obtained in NB culture, as shown by Fredua-Agyeman, Gaisford and Beezer (2018) and Xu et al. (2014), with 3.12 J and 5.22 J, respectively. Other Q_t results for the growth of *E. coli* were 6.19 J (LIU et al., 2015), 7.03 J (ZHAO et al., 2014), 7.77 to 8.95 J (KONG et al., 2015), 11.49 J (LUO; YANG, 2014), until 4.51 to 48.86 J (YAN et al., 2010) in LB medium.

The MCDSC was able to measure the heat flow released and total heat production as the literature data shows. Even though the ampoules have a smaller volume capacity, the heat generated by *E. coli* was similar.

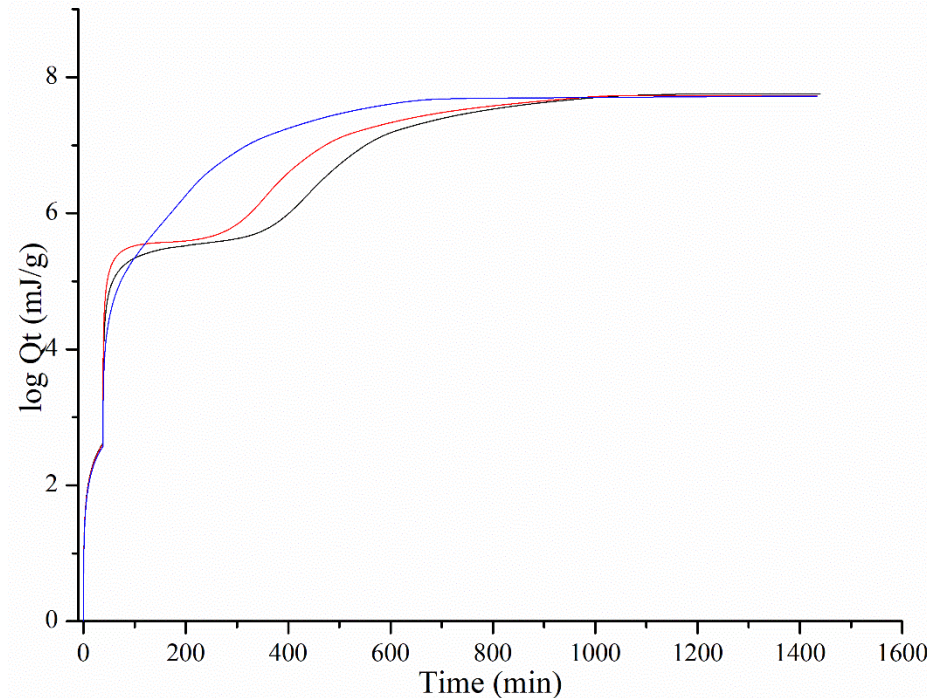
From Figure 9, one can observe more clearly the differences in the *E. coli* heat growth profile due to the linearization of the Q_t curves.

Microcalorimetric data show that interpreting curves with higher inoculum concentrations and consequently higher initial heat production is challenging. It is difficult to distinguish the stages of growth, such as the exponential phase. At intermediate and low concentrations, log Q curves present what would be equivalent to microbial growth phases, such as the adaptation phase (lag) and exponential growth, followed by a stationary phase (*plateau*). This allows one to state that smaller inoculums promote high details and increase the resolution of the curves, like occurs in several applications of calorimetric techniques.

It is clearer how much heat it is necessary to produce, that is, how many growth stages are developed so that the calorimeter starts to register a signal like the microbial growth curve. This finding may explain the differences obtained between the detection times and the methods studied here. As heat is an indirect measure of microbial growth, factors such as the sensibility of the equipment and the amount of heat produced itself can affect the beginning of the

calorimetric recording. This one does not occur in methods such as plate counting, as they visually reflect a given population present at an exact moment.

Figure 9 – Logarithm of the total heat (Q_t – mJ/g) produced by *E. coli* in different inoculum densities. *E. coli* inoculum at 2.8 log CFU.mL⁻¹ in blue, 2.7 log CFU.mL⁻¹ in red, and 2.0 log CFU.mL⁻¹ in black lines



Fonte: Elaborada pela autora (2023).

The time required to reach the threshold $t_{0.002}$ and $t_{0.005}$ were different for each inoculum curve, as Figure 1 shows. Then, observing the linearized log Q curves, the heat released at these points of the curves, like $t_{0.002}$ and $t_{0.005}$ almost overlap. The log Q values for these times were similar each other at each concentration studied, making it even more difficult to compare heat flow curves and log Q curves. Thus, while the log Q curves facilitate the visualization of global data for comparing between the heat released at different inoculum concentrations, the curve does not allow to observe the succinct difference between the heat flux released (mW/s) in the lag phase as shown in Table 4.

The results obtained thus far are characteristic of the microorganism studied, as mentioned, and reflect the sensitivity of the calorimeter yet already not used. It is worth remembering that the measure of heat production is an indirect estimate of microbial growth. Thus, the heat produced does not translate into the number of cells but the overall metabolic activity of the microbial population under study.

5.2.2 Data fitting model

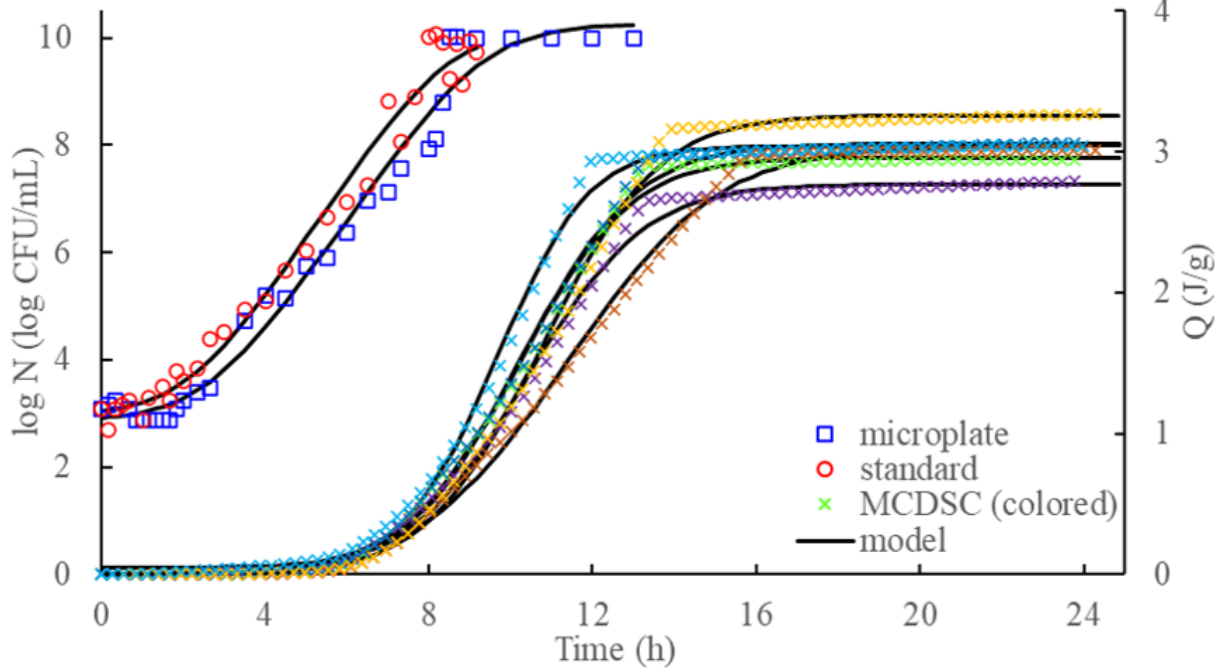
Mathematical modeling from a sigmoidal model applied to the heat flow data was proposed for biologically explaining the heat flow curves. The usual models for determining the growth rate by microcalorimetry are simple exponential or linear models obtained from the logarithm of the data (BRAISSANT et al., 2013), which can be applied to the raw data (heat flux) or through the logarithm curves of heat (Q) versus time (t) (MASKOW et al., 2010).

Simple linear models provide information about the exponential phase of microbial growth. It is assumed that, at this stage, all cells have the same duplication rate, resulting in a maximum growth value (BRAISSANT et al., 2013). In addition to linear models, some authors suggest applying mathematical models that consider all phases of the growth curve. Thus, all the growth parameters can be estimated for a microorganism in each condition (GARCIA; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2017).

Figure 10 shows the data obtained during the entire kinetic growth curve (24 h), allowing the observation of the microbial growth phases and the fitting of the BAR model to the experimental calorimetric data. Observe that the figure referred to shows a sample of the data collected (1 out of 10 data). The data collected were entirely used for the determinations presented here. The model describes most of the microcalorimetric data obtained. From the model fitting, the μ_{max} and λ parameters were estimated, as shown in Table 5. The ability of the BAR model to describe data could be verified through the high R^2 (above 0.997 ± 0.002) and low $RSME$ (below 0.068 ± 0.039) values obtained, as shown in Table 5.

In predictive microbiology, μ_{max} and λ are considered to have biological meanings. These parameters are often used to characterize the growth of different microorganisms under specific environmental conditions (BARANYI; ROBERTS, 1994; HUANG et al., 2003; ZWIETERING, 1990). One can observe λ increases at low cell densities, which corroborates the parameters of the raw calorimetric data. As mentioned, the good performance of this model applied to *E. coli* growth microcalorimetric data under isothermal conditions had not been used in the literature.

Figure 10 – Fitting of the Baranyi and Roberts model (continuous lines) and static cultivation (microplate) (\square) in a shaking bath (standard) (\circ) into the microcalorimetric data (Q_t) (\times)



Fonte: Elaborada pela autora (2023).

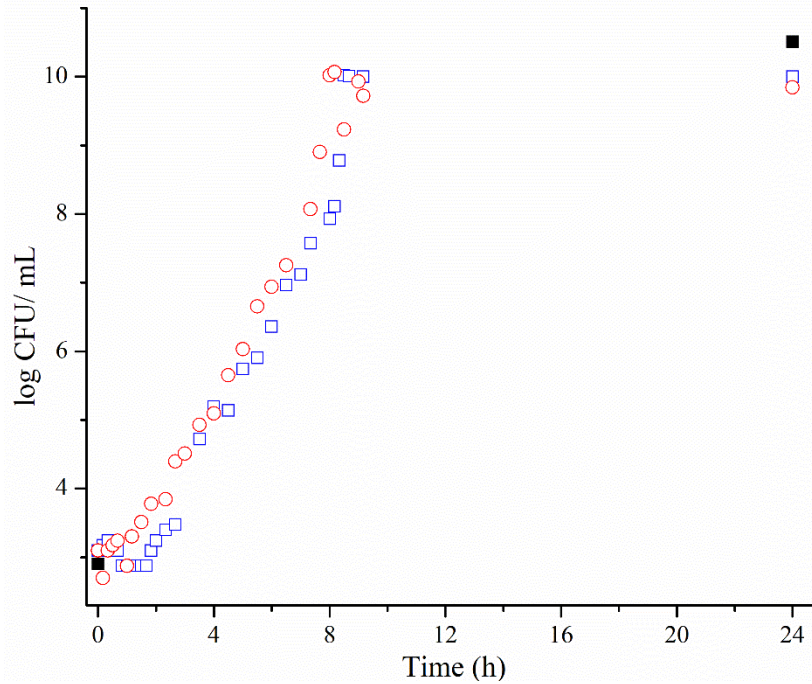
The estimated maximum growth rate was approximately 0.00543/min (XU et al., 2014), 2.9/h (LIU et al., 2015), 0.0325/min (ZHAO et al., 2014), 0.06628/min (KONG et al., 2015), 0.0145/min (LUO; YANG, 2014), and 0.75/h according to (BONKAT et al., 2013). Miranda et al. (2016) found an μ_{max} of *E. coli* at 37°C at approximately 0.40 and 0.45 h⁻¹. These results corroborate the MCDSC data shown.

5.3.3 Growth characteristics of *E. coli* ATCC 25922

The *E. coli* growth kinetics were determined using the standard growth method (shaking bath) and the microplate method (static cultivation) under isothermal conditions (Figure 11). The microcalorimetric experiment was conducted in parallel using the same inoculum and working conditions. For the standards, CFU counting was performed periodically over 24 h.

The *E. coli* growth curve (Figure 11) showed a sigmoidal pattern with lag, exponential and stationary phases (BERNAERTS, 2004; PEREZ-RODRIGUEZ; VALERO, 2015). The growth parameters of the standard and microplate methods were estimated by fitting the BAR model, and they were related to the parameters estimated from the microcalorimetric data (Table 2). The growth parameters were similar for all the different cultivation methods.

Figure 11 – *E. coli* growth curve at 37°C along 24 h of incubation in static cultivation (microplate) (□), in a shaking bath (standard) (○), and the MCDSC (■)



Fonte: Elaborada pela autora (2023).

The time to reach the detection threshold ($t_{0.02}$ approximately 3.8 h) is due to the metabolic heat production of the microorganism at the insertion of the ampoule in the MCDSC, the tubes in the shaking water bath, or the microplate at the incubator. They always considered strain activation and history. *E. coli* showed high exponential growth with a short adaptation phase, reaching a maximum density in approximately 8.45 h in the microcalorimetric growth investigation, approximately $9 \log \text{CFU} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$ at this moment in standard experiments, which represents the end of the exponential growth phase (YANG et al., 2008b). Russel et al. (2009) found that the optical density remained constant, indicating that bacterial growth almost stopped, and the total number of bacteria remained constant and at the highest, which explains the *E. coli* microcalorimetric behavior.

From the fitting of the BAR model to the *E. coli* microcalorimetric growth curve, the μ_{max} equal to $0.799 (\pm 0.146) \text{ 1/h}$ was estimated, while the μ_{max} estimated for classical incubation methods were $1.143 (\pm 0.159)$ and $1.096 (\pm 0.163) \text{ 1/h}$ for standard and static cultures, respectively. A minimal increment in the initial density of the inoculum and the difference between the methods can change the μ_{max} (CHEN et al., 2008a). It is worth mentioning that the mathematical model fits well with all the datasets (Figure 3).

As heat measurement is an indirect assessment of microbial growth, its relationship to cell counts is uncertain. Released heat production is a global measure of the metabolic reactions that occur in a certain microbial population under given growth conditions. Thus, initially, the adaptation of the microorganism to the new culture medium can cause a low production/release of heat in the initial stages of growth. Microcalorimetry is a nonspecific analytical method with high sensitivity, accuracy, and simplicity (Tan et al., 2012; Von Stockar et al., 2006).

The adaptation phase is characterized by the production/ storage of enzymes necessary for cell duplication and population adaptation to the medium. This process can cause microbial metabolism at this point to use more heat than it produces, thus decreasing the heat flow. Low heat production/ release values make its detection difficult by the calorimeter (TAN et al., 2012). Considering that for the present study the calorimeter has a sensitivity for initial detection of ± 200 nW, and a single bacterial cell can produce approximately 1 to 3 pW (AVELEDO et al., 2018), which is 2×10^5 times lower than the detection limit. This could explain the difference between the time of detection of the calorimetric signal and the consequent duration of the lag phase, which in the MCDSC was 8 h, whereas, in the other cultivation modes, it lasted approximately 2 h. When full growth was considered, the exponential replication in culture can make it easier to detect by microcalorimetry (LEWIS; DANIELS, 2003; TAN et al., 2012; TRAMPUZ et al., 2007a).

As mentioned earlier, the growth parameters of *E. coli* have not yet been compared by the plate count method and microcalorimetric data simultaneously. Compared with classical microbiological methods, microcalorimetry offers a new point of view for the evaluation of microbial growth. Viable counts are commonly obtained by spread-plate and pour-plate techniques and, therefore, are linked to classical microbiological methods, which are considered reference methods, even though these methods can have certain limitations (PEREZ-RODRIGUEZ; VALERO, 2015). By using it, the energy changes through growing periods (e.g., lag, exponential, and stationary phases), which represent microbial population growth, can be distinguished from the heat released curve (YAN et al., 2008) because the parameters of these heat flow curves are determined simultaneously.

Table 5 – Growth parameters of *E. coli* in a Multicell DSC (MCDSC), static cultivation (microplate), and cultivation in a shaking water bath (standard)

	CFU	λ (h)	onset			1 _{peak}		2 _{peak}		offset		final			μ_{\max} (h ⁻¹)	
			t _{0.02} (h)	t _{0.05} (h)	CFU	t _{1peak} (h)	mW	CFU	t _{2peak} (h)	mW	t _{offset} (h)	mW	CFU	t _{final} (h)		mW
Standard	3.09	2.199	-	4.50	5.65	~ 8	-	8.90	-	-	-	-	9.84	24	-	1.143 ± 0.159 ^b
Microplate	3.10	2.646	-	4.50	5.13	~ 8	-	7.92	-	-	-	-	10.0	24	-	1.096 ± 0.163 ^b
MCDSC	2.70	8.089 ± 1.440 ^a	3.80	4.59	-	7.96	0.099	-	11.28	0.120	17.39	0.003	9.40	24	0.002	0.799 ± 0.146 ^a

CFU: log CFU/mL

mW: Heat flow (mW/s)

Q_t: total heat released over the 24 h (mJ)

λ : lag phase (h)

μ_{\max} : maximum growth rate (h⁻¹)

R²: coefficient of determination

RSME: root mean squared error

onset and t_{0.02} (h): time to reach threshold 0.02 mW- signal above the baseline detection

t_{0.05} (h): time to reach threshold 0.05 mW - signal twice above the baseline detection

t_{1peak} (h): time to reach the 1_{peak}

t_{2peak} (h): time to reach the 2_{peak}

offset and t_{offset} (h): time to return to the baseline

final and t_{final} (h): end of metabolic heat release

Δt (h): period between the start of calorimetric recording and return to baseline

Fonte: Elaborada pela autora (2023).

It is noteworthy that the calorimetric data are less scattered than the viable count method, which can be favorable for the reduction of the error and allows the growth heat and the metabolic process of microbes to be described dynamically and precisely (GARCIA; HERRMANN; HÅKANSSON, 2017; YAN et al., 2009a).

The adaptability and robustness of the BAR model to describe the microorganism under different metering conditions were proven, as well as the capability of MCDSC for detecting *E. coli* microcalorimetric growth.

5.2.4 Microcalorimetric fingerprint of *E. coli* in the MCDSC

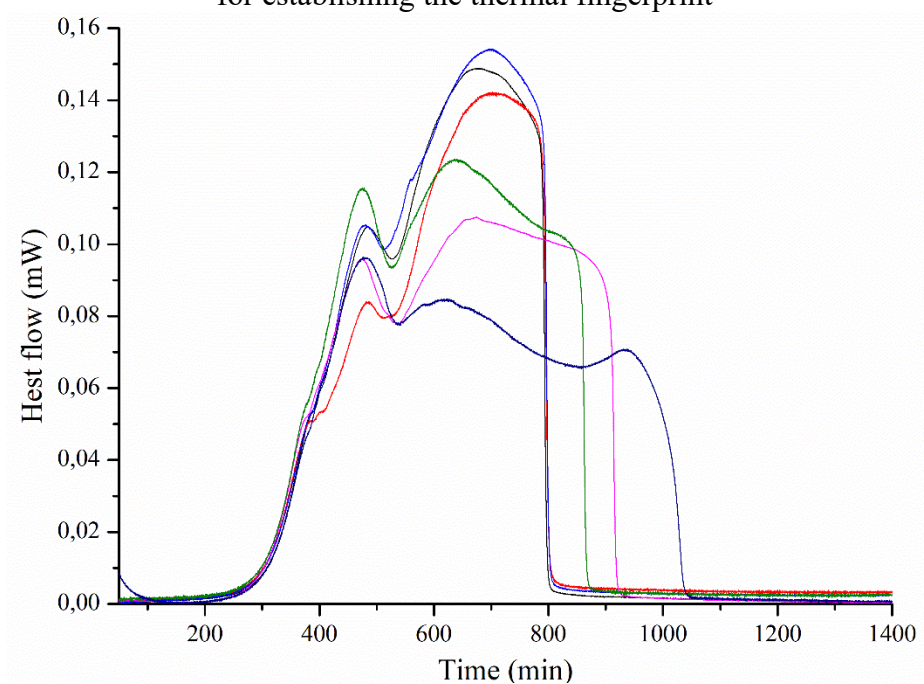
To establish the fingerprint of the *E. coli* ATCC 25922 microcalorimetric fingerprint in an MCDSC, experiments were performed at 37 °C with an inoculum of 2.70 log CFU.mL⁻¹. Figure 12 shows the heat flow curves that were taken for the *E. coli* fingerprint, as shown in Figure 13. Therefore, the thermal fingerprint was extracted from the independent experiments under the same set of growth conditions. The heat flow curve parameters are summarized in Table 5.

From Figure 12 and Figure 13, it is possible to observe the importance of the $t_{1\text{peak}}$ determination, such as the time to detection for characterization of the *E. coli* thermal profile. One also observes that the sterile culture media do not release heat, which will not interfere with colorimetric detection (PU; MA; WANG, 2019). Additionally, the $t_{2\text{peak}}$ means that *E. coli* heat output was largely due to the optimal growth conditions. The pattern observed for an individual strain is not dependent on the inoculum size but depends on a strain's metabolism of consuming nutrients (BONKAT et al., 2012), or the fingerprint is from the compounds of culture media in the metabolism of the microorganism (ZHANG et al., 2016). There are changes in the medium and mode of cultivation to suggest changes in the microorganism's metabolism. Although the data obtained are not specific, suggesting caution in interpreting the data, they allow one to continuously observe fluctuations in the microorganism's metabolic activity and replication rates as they occur (BRAISSANT et al., 2010b; BRAISSANT; BACHMANN; BONKAT, 2015).

However, it is crucial to emphasize that the calorimetric curves are fully analyzed to carry out the descriptive and comparative data analysis (BRAISSANT et al., 2013), which was made by the BAR modeling, as shown.

Furthermore, the *E. coli* calorimetric fingerprint showed a profile with two peaks followed by an abrupt return to the baseline, as explained early. The fingerprint shown here represents the average from all calorimetric studies performed – shown in Figure 12, giving the average calorimetric profile intermediate to the three heat flow patterns for different concentrations of the inoculum, or how the *E. coli* performs calorimetric growth at MCDSC by the representation of the main peaks and times.

Figure 12 – Heat flow curves of *E. coli* growth from 2.7 log UFC/mL in MCDSC used for establishing the thermal fingerprint

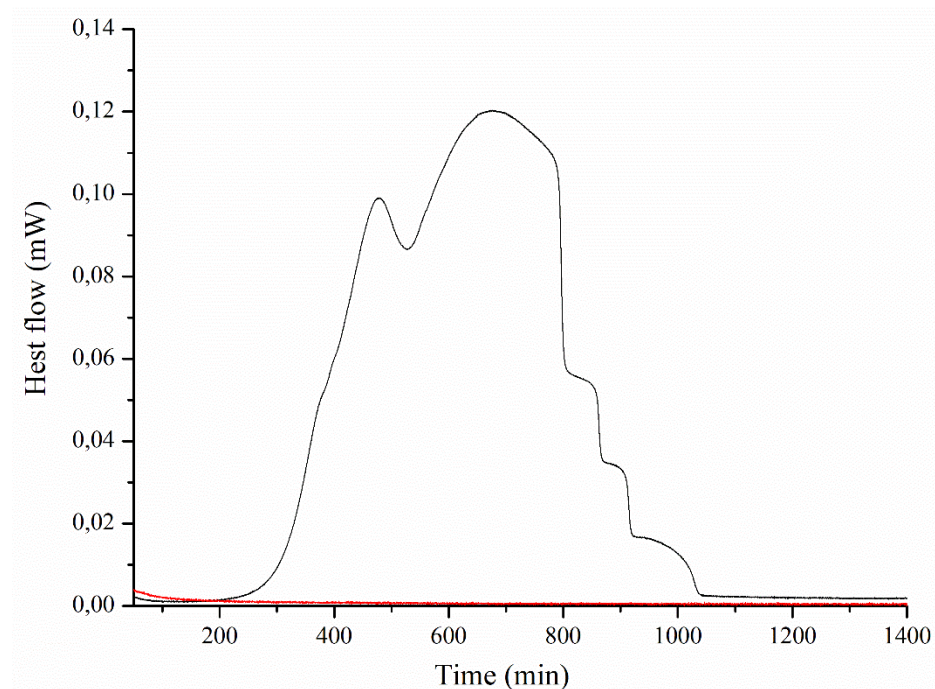


Fonte: Elaborada pela autora (2023).

However, despite calorimetry being widely applied in the detection of microorganisms, the MCDSC is still little used. In summary, with this work, it was possible to observe the main advantages of using the MCDSC. The calorimeter is capable to measure the heat content of 3 ampoules simultaneously, whose capacity is 1 mL - which is 10 times greater than the capacity of microdilution wells. Measurement in 3 ampoules can be useful to decrease plate count processes at culturing growth curves, for example, which promotes clearer data on the kinetics of the microorganism. Also, the MCDSC was able to discriminate differences in the inoculum concentration, remaining with the calorimetric profile of the microorganism, and more, with the beginning of the detection of microbial growth at 3 hours. Withal, the major advantage of MCDSC use is

the low cost involved – when compared to the acquisition of more robust calorimeters. Despite the sensitivity of $0.2 \mu\text{W}$ - much lower than most used isothermal calorimeters, the *E. coli* behavior observed makes us believe that the sensitivity of this equipment can be useful in several processes, such as the detection of growth in other organisms whose heat production is lower, or which present fastidious growth (HOWELL et al., 2012; RODRÍGUEZ et al., 2011; SOLOKHINA et al., 2017). Even so, the calorimetric data were useful in the application of the BAR model, one of the most used in predictive microbiology.

Figure 13 – Isothermal microcalorimetric fingerprint of *E. coli* ATCC 25922 in an MCDSC



Fonte: Elaborada pela autora (2023).

6 CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS

A microcalorimetria isotérmica (IMC) é uma técnica promissora na avaliação de processos do crescimento bacteriano. Realiza medições em tempo real acerca do calor produzido ou consumido em reações metabólicas. Fornecendo, assim, informações referentes a cinética do metabolismo de microrganismos sob determinada condição. Embora muito vantajosa, a IMC tem uso ainda pouco explorado, dada a dificuldade na interpretação dos dados calorimétricos e quanto a correlação entre as curvas HFP-t e significado biológico. Assim, o presente estudo propôs a utilização do MCDSC como alternativa ao uso dos microcalorímetros isotérmicos. Para isso, reuniu as publicações referentes ao uso da calorimetria em medições microbiológicas, a fim de unificar as variações de nomenclaturas e aplicação da calorimetria, e promover protocolo de ensaio adequado para avaliação do MCDSC no referido âmbito. Ainda, foi proposta a utilização de modelo matemático com capacidade de ajuste em todas as fases do crescimento microbiano, explicando assim integralmente os dados calorimétricos. A utilização da modelagem matemática é de grande valia na extração de parâmetros cinéticos do crescimento microbiano. Assim, MCDSC foi capaz de detectar o metabolismo de *E. coli* em cerca de 3 horas, enquanto o controle negativo não apresentou produção de sinal calorimétrico. O instrumento se demonstrou útil na detecção de diferentes concentrações de *E. coli*, e ainda, mostrou que inóculos iniciais em altas concentrações podem dificultar a interpretação dos dados de crescimento. Finalmente, o MCDSC pode fornecer a impressão digital calorimétrica de *E. coli*. Os dados para o crescimento de *E. coli* em MCDSC corroboram com os resultados obtidos pela microbiologia clássica, que foram avaliados qualitativa e quantitativamente por valores de similaridade de perfis biológicos e parâmetros termodinâmicos, como a velocidade máxima específica de crescimento (μ_{max}) e tempo de detecção dos picos calorimétricos, respectivamente. Aqui, foi apresentada a primeira investigação de crescimento para *E. coli* no MCDSC, juntamente de modelagem matemática para explicação microbiológica dos dados calorimétricos. O MCDSC foi capaz de mostrar o crescimento metabólico de *E. coli* de forma dinâmica e precisa, oferecendo um novo ponto de vista para avaliar o crescimento microbiano, como a redução significativa do erro devido a dados dispersos pelo método de contagem de células viáveis.

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ANEXO I

Artigo publicado – Resultados experimentais.

Journal of Microbiological Methods 205 (2023) 106674



Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Journal of Microbiological Methods

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jmicmeth



Microcalorimetric growth behavior of *E. coli* ATCC 25922 in an MCDSC

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:
Isothermal microcalorimetry
Calorimetric growth
Baranyi model
Predictive microbiology
Plate count

ABSTRACT

Isothermal microcalorimetry can provide a general analytical tool for the characterization of bacterial growth. Methodologies and equipment have been studied to expand the application and disseminate the use of the technique. The MCDSC is a microcalorimeter capable of measuring in the range of 0.2 μ W that can operate at a temperature range of -20 to 140 °C or under isothermal conditions. Here, we present the first investigation of MCDSC for *E. coli* growth with the Baranyi and Roberts modeling application. This study presented the calorimetric *E. coli* fingerprint at MCDSC and compares it with the plate count technique, giving the data more biological meaning. The calorimeter was able to accurately detect growth metabolism and discriminate *E. coli* at different inoculum densities. Additionally, the MCDSC can offer a new point of view for evaluating microbial growth, such as the significant reduction in error due to dispersed data by the viable counting method.

1. Introduction

Among the wide range of calorimetric applications, microcalorimetric methods have been used to determine the steady-state heat output of microorganisms (Braissant et al., 2013; Ronald Anderson and Flickinger, 1993). Due to its high sensitivity and accuracy, microcalorimetry is a versatile technique that can measure metabolic progress continuously (Aveledo et al., 2018). The tool has many advantages. It is possible to carry out measurements on liquid and solid-colored samples, allowing it to also be applied in clinical samples (Ripa et al., 1977; Trampuz et al., 2007a; Von Ah et al., 2008a) and to describe the action of antimicrobial compounds (Bonkat et al., 2012a; Gaisford et al., 2009; O'Neill et al., 2003; Von Ah et al., 2008b).

The heat flow curve recorded by microcalorimetry could provide much kinetic and thermodynamic information for the study of the growth process of a living cell (Li et al., 2012b). This is because the technique dynamically measures the heat released or consumed in physical-chemical and biological processes by exothermic or endothermic thermodynamic events (Bonkat et al., 2012a; Braissant et al., 2010b; Li et al., 2012b; Wadsö, 2002).

In microbiology, the heat released (W/s) refers to the biochemical reactions that occur in a metabolically active population of cells (Braissant et al., 2010b), and it may correlate with the cell number

(Braissant et al., 2013; Ronald Anderson and Flickinger, 1993). Finally, the result obtained by microcalorimetry is the expression of a unique thermal fingerprint for each microbial metabolism, allowing its identification (Fredua-Agyeman et al., 2018; Garcia et al., 2017).

E. coli is considered a model microorganism. The most investigated species, *E. coli*, is well recognized in a few areas, such as biotechnology and microbiology, and it is often chosen for preliminary studies in the proposal of alternative methods. Belonging to the group of Gram-negative rod-shaped *Escherichia coli* was discovered by Theodor Escherich in 1885. It is a non-sporulating microorganism that has peritrichous flagella. It is a facultatively anaerobic bacterium capable of fermenting lactose and other sugars, such as glucose, with gas production. It belongs to the *Enterobacteriaceae* family and is normally found in the lower gastrointestinal tract of humans, constituting approximately 0.1% of the intestinal microbiota. Four strains (K-12, B, C, and W) are considered model organisms classified in Risk Group 1 in biosafety guidelines. *E. coli* ATCC 25922 is a commonly recommended reference strain for antibiotic susceptibility testing (FDA, 2020; Franco et al., 2003; Madigan, 2006; Tan et al., 2012; Ying et al., 2017).

Mathematical modeling is an important tool used to assess the growth of microorganisms. The use of predictive models has grown due to the ability to predict microbial growth under specific conditions and the ease of use of computers and simulation software. Thus, they can

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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmicmet.2023.106674>

Received 4 August 2022; Received in revised form 31 October 2022; Accepted 9 January 2023

Available online 11 January 2023

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