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Resistivity Detection of Perfluoroalkyl Substances (PFAS) with 6 Fluorous-Polyaniline in an Electrical Lateral Flow Sensor

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- 4 Main Manuscript for
- 5 Resistivity Detection of Perfluoroalkyl Substances (PFAS) with
- 6 Fluorous-Polyaniline in an Electrical Lateral Flow Sensor

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- 15 Author Contributions: S.P. and C.T.G. designed experiments, developed materials,
- and executed the experiments. T.M.S. conceived and directed the research. All authors
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- 21 conductivity change, sensor
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23 This PDF file includes:

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33 Abstract

Perfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS), known as "forever chemicals," are a growing concern 34 in the sphere of human and environmental health. In response, rapid, reproducible, and 35 36 inexpensive methods for PFAS detection in the environment and home water supplies 37 are needed. We have developed a simple and inexpensive perfluoroalkyl acid detection method based on an electrically read lateral flow assay (e-LFA). Our method employs a 38 39 new fluorous surfactant formulation with undoped polyaniline (F-PANI) fabricated to 40 create test lines for the lateral flow assay. In perfluoroalkyl acid sensing studies, an increase in conductivity of the F-PANI film is caused by acidification and doping of PANI. 41 A conductivity enhancement by 10⁴-fold can be produced by this method and we 42 demonstrate a limit of detection for perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) of 400 ppt and 43 perfluorobutanoic acid (PFBA) of 200 ppt. This new method for PFOA detection can be 44 45 expanded for wide-scale environmental and at-home water testing. 46

47 Significance Statement

48 Lateral Flow Assays (LFAS) have garnered a broad public acceptance for sensing in healthcare and offer expanded applications for environmental sensing with facile 49 implementation. With the increasing concern for the widespread detection of per- and 50 51 poly-fluoroalkyl substances (PFAS), selective sensing is imperative for monitoring these 52 harmful chemicals in the environment and drinking water. We report a low-cost and sensitive detection method for quantifying PFAS with an e-LFA. As the PFAS oxidize the 53 rigid conjugated polyaniline (PANI) backbone, an increase in conductivity can be 54 observed through an electrically read lateral flow assay (e-LFA). Our novel method 55 56 harnesses the fluorous effect to selectively target perfluoroalkyl acids, over their non-57 fluorous equivalents. Our F-PANI fabricated e-LFA exhibits a 400 ppt detection limit for PFOA and provides quantitative measurements from simple resistivity measurements. 58

59 60

61 Main Text

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63 Introduction

PFAS: Per- and poly-fluoroalkyl substances (PFAS) contain fully fluorinated alkyl 65 groups, and have been widely used to provide waterproof, anti-stain, and heat-66 67 resistance properties.(1, 2) However, their extraordinary stability has allowed for 68 accumulation in water supplies and this is now recognized as a serious threat to public 69 health.(3, 4) Studies show that PFAS may result in adverse effects including increased 70 cholesterol levels, thyroid disease, liver damage, kidney cancer, testicular cancer, 71 developmental effects affecting the unborn child, and other environmental damage.(1, 5, 6) In response to this issue, the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) has 72 introduced regulatory guidance to limit the amount of six different PFAS in drinking water 73 with levels of 4 ppt (4 ng L^{-1}) for perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) and 1 ppt for 74 perfluorobutanoic acid (PFBA) in March 2023.(7) Currently, the EPA employs liquid 75 chromatography, and mass spectrometry for PFAS detection at the ng L⁻¹ level.(8) Yet, 76 77 these methods are time-consuming, expensive, require well-trained personnel, and must 78 be performed in laboratory environments. (8, 9) To facilitate broader testing and source attribution, fast, portable, user-friendly, and low-cost PFAS sensing methods are needed
 that robustly meet the EPA required ppt detection limits.

81 We report herein a new PFAS sensing platform based on the conducting polymer. polyaniline (PANI), and electrical lateral flow assay (e-LFA, Figure 1). PANI is an 82 attractive material to create sensors, as a result of its facile synthesis, high stability, and 83 84 large conductivity changes caused by protonic doping as described in **Figure 1a**.(10, 11) To target PFAS responsive polymer coatings, we mixed the fluorous surfactant (Krytox-85 PEG-600-diamide, KPD)(12) with emeraldine free (PANI-EB) state by ultrasonication in 86 87 water to create a dispersion as shown in Figure 1b. Therefore, we yield a material that 88 selectively absorbs PFAS as a result of fluorous interactions.(13, 14) In the case that the 89 functional groups of PFAS contain acidic functionality, absorption will result in acidification of the film and a transition of the PANI from its insulating emeraldine free 90 (PANI-EB) state to highly conductive emeraldine salt (PANI-ES) polymer (Figure 1c). To 91 92 create responsive sensory devices, we print a KPD-(PANI-EB) test line on nitrocellulose 93 (NC) membranes. Aqueous perfluoroalkyl acid solutions move by capillary force along the NC membrane and a calibrated amount of water transverses the conducting polymer 94 95 test line to produce an economical, fast, quantitative, and easy-to-use flow assay.(15-17)

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97 Results and Discussion

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99 Preparation of Polyaniline Nanofibers, Ink, and Test Lines: PANI is polymerized in nanofiber form to ensure high surface area to enhance analyte interactions. Nanofibers 100 101 with diameters around 80 nm were produced by an interfacial oxidative polymerization method using camphorsulfonic acid and ammonium persulfate (Figure S1).(10, 18) The 102 103 synthesized PANI-ES (emeraldine salt) powder is then converted to undoped PANI-EB 104 (emeraldine base) by treatment (washing then filtration) with ammonium hydroxide solution. PANI-EB formation is confirmed by Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy 105 (FTIR) with a guinoid ring stretching at 1576 cm⁻¹, benzenoid ring stretching at 1491 cm⁻¹ 106 107 1 , C–N stretching modes at 1378 cm⁻¹ and 1295 cm⁻¹ (**Figure S1**).(19, 20)

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The Fluorous-PANI-EB (F-PANI) ink is prepared by mixing PANI-EB dispersion with Krytox-PEG-600-diamide (KPD) solution and sonicating for 30 minutes (**Figure 1b**). The ink is likely stabilized by the noncovalent interactions between KPD (amide and ether groups) and the nitrogen atoms of PANI-EB as shown schematically in **Figure 1b**. Deposition of F-PANI ink on nitrocellulose (NC) membrane or filter paper substrates resulted in test line bands. Detailed procedures for the preparation of the materials and test lines are described in the **Materials and Methods** section.

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117 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images reveal microcracks in the surface of coatings formed on the NC membrane (Figure 2a, b). The dehydration of PANI likely 118 provides the stresses that result in the microcracks that are not apparent with visual 119 120 inspection.(10) Microcracks still remained in the wet F-PANI coating (Figure S9). The 121 rehydration and swelling of the materials likely occur during the sensing experiments, 122 and although the microcracks can produce unwanted resistance in the test lines, they may also provide for expanded interactions with the aqueous solutions for improved 123 partitioning of the analytes into the films. The crack widths of the F-PANI coating are ca. 124 3 μm, which is smaller than those observed in the coating (ca. 15 μm) produced from 125

pure PANI-EB inks. We attribute that the fluorous surfactant prevents aggregation between PANIs and hence favors smaller features. The F-PANI is expected to be less hydrophilic than PANI-EB and this was evaluated by measuring contact angles (θ) of water droplets placed on the films (**Figure 2c**). We confirmed that the F-PANI coating presents a hydrophobic surface regardless of the substrate, whereas the PANI-EB coating surface is hydrophilic.

Factors that Affect the Conductivity of Test Lines: Resistance measurements were 132 collected with a four-point probe. Multiple measurements on each test line were 133 performed to investigate the uniformity of the materials. As shown in Figure 3a, the 134 135 conductivity is influenced by multiple different factors. The resistance of the F-PANI test line decreases after exposure to aqueous solutions of PFOA (Figure 3b). Hydration of 136 the test line is important and if a test strip is removed from the solution and air-dried for 137 138 15 minutes the water evaporates and the test lines display a high resistance >220 M Ω , 139 which is the limit of our detection. This feature is due to the cationic (polaron) and 140 dicationic (bipolaron) carriers that are pinned by attractive electrostatic interactions with the counterions in the absence of water.(21) Water reduces these interactions by a 141 solvation of the ions/carriers by a combination screening and separation of the charges. 142 143 To avoid dehydration, resistivity measurements were made within 5 minutes after the 144 sample was removed from the vial to ensure full hydration.

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The absorption of perfluoroalkyl acids into the polymer coating is critical to obtaining an 146 optimal response, and this is facilitated by the fact that the solution passes very slowly 147 148 through the hydrophobic F-PANI test line (Figure 2c). Solutions require 20 minutes to completely pass through the F-PANI test line, whereas only 90 seconds is required with 149 an equivalent PANI-EB test (Figure S2). Figure 3c shows that the test line reaches a 150 151 constant resistance value of approximately 67 M Ω after 30 minutes of being dipped into a 10⁻⁶ M PFOA solution. Hence, the main time limitation is the transport of the water 152 along the NC membrane and the absorption of the PFBA and PFOA with concurrent 153 protonic doping of F-PANI is a relatively rapid process. Therefore, resistivity 154 155 measurements were made after 30 minutes of the test strip being placed in the solution. 156

The width of the F-PANI test line was investigated. Lines with widths of 0.3 cm, 0.7 cm, 157 158 and 1.4 cm were created using 17 μ L, 40 μ L, and 80 μ L of F-PANI ink, respectively. 159 They had similar thicknesses (27.9 \pm 5.9 μ m). It was found that test lines 0.7 cm or less provided consistent results over a range of analyte concentrations (Figures 3d and e). 160 Wider test lines (1.4 cm) displayed higher resistances with 10⁻² M PFOA and large 161 standard deviations (86.7 ± 79.7 k Ω) as compared to the 0.7 cm lines (30.7 ± 17.5 k Ω). It 162 is likely that in these cases protonic doping is not uniform throughout the test line. The 163 data for other concentrations are given in **Table S1** and is consistent with the previous 164 165 results. As a result, test line widths of 0.7 cm were used to determine the sensor 166 performance.

167 **Ultratrace PFAS detection:** The performance of the F-PANI lateral flow devices was 168 evaluated for PFOA detection. The resistance measurements are limited to values less 169 than 220 M Ω , which is the resistance of the assay with PFAS-free water. The histogram 170 of resistance values of F-PANI test lines on the NC membrane for each concentration of 171 perfluorooctanoic acid (PFOA) is shown in **Figure 4a**. Because of non-uniformity in the 172 films, the resistance for each concentration taken with a colinear 4-point probe has a

distribution rather than a single clear value. The distribution could potentially be the 173 174 result of microcracks of the coating that can complicate the conductive pathways and also from non-uniform protonic doping of the PANI backbone. For the statistical analysis 175 of the data, we fit our data to single Gaussian functions to obtain the peak value of 176 177 resistance (R_M) for each concentration and its standard deviation (σ_M). We emphasize that no data is omitted. This method allows us to avoid bias in the data by excluding 178 179 outliers.(22) The detection limit of an analyte is the concentration at which the value 180 obtained by adding the standard deviation (σ_M) to the peak resistance value (R_M) acquired at a certain concentration begins to fall below 220 M Ω which is the resistance 181 182 of the assay with PFAS-free water as the concentration increases. For PFOA, the detection limit is 400 ppt (10⁻⁹ M) and the change in conductivity increases by 10⁴-fold for 183 a 10⁻² M PFOA concentration. Table 1 summarizes the resistance and conductivity 184 values of the F-PANI test lines on NC membranes as a function of PFOA concentration. 185 186 Similarly detailed data for OA is given in the Supporting Information (Figure S3, Table 187 S2).

Figure 4b shows the plots of conductivity of F-PANI test lines on NC membrane as a function of PFOA and its non-fluorous form (octanoic acid, OA) concentrations obtained by Gaussian fitting of the histogram of resistance values. The aqueous PFOA analyte shows higher conductivity compared to OA at the same concentration.

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193 We also tested the effect of different substrates. Figure 4c shows the plots of conductivity of F-PANI test lines on NC membrane and filter paper substrates as a 194 function of PFOA concentrations. The conductivity responses are independent of the 195 196 substrate and correlate with the PFOA concentration. The data for the F-PANI test line on the filter paper is described in Figure S4 and Table S3. The fluorous nature of the F-197 PANI is critical and a flow assay using PANI-EB is 10⁵ times less sensitive to PFOA with 198 a detection limit of 10⁻⁴ M (Figure S5 and Table S4). We also found that the 199 performance of the F-PANI test lines was the same when the aqueous media was 200 changed from D.I. water to our local (Cambridge, MA) tap water. (Figure S6 and Table 201 **S5**). The F-PANI lateral flow assay is also capable of detecting PFBA at 10⁻⁹ M (200 ppt) 202 similar to the PFOA limits of detection (Figure S7, Table S6). Here again, we have high 203 204 selectivity for the fluorous acid over the non-fluorous equivalent, butyric acid, (BA), which gives responses that are 10^4 times lower (Figure S8, Table S7). 205

206 207

208 Conclusion

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210 We have developed simple electrical lateral flow assays (e-LFAs) for the detection of 211 PFOA with limits of detection down to 400 ppt. Although additional optimization and larger sample sizes than used in current e-LFA are necessary to align with the current 212 213 US EPA limits, the remarkably low detection thresholds of this sensor scheme render it promising for on-site PFAS detection. Our transduction method is the protonic acid 214 doping of polyaniline in its insulating emeraldine base form (PANI-EB) to produce an 215 216 electrical conducting emeraldine salt (PANI-ES). A formulation of PANI-EB and a 217 fluorous polymeric surfactant creates a conducting polymer with a fluorous character (F-PANI). Test lines of F-PANI are printed on nitrocellulose membranes or filter paper, and 218 219 wicking of aqueous solutions results in the flow of water through the polymer test line. 220 When PFOA is present, it is absorbed into the F-PANI and acidifies the film resulting in protonic doping of the PANI to create charge carriers. This simple, inexpensive, rapid, 221

and quantitative PFAS detection method is ideally suited for monitoring PFAS in areas,
 such as military bases, airports, and industrial locations where PFAS exposure is a
 concern.(23)

225 226

227 Materials and method

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229 Materials and Characterization: Aniline (ACS reagent, ≥99.5%), ammonium persulfate (ACS reagent, ≥98%), and camphorsulfonic acid (≥98%) were purchased from Sigma-230 231 Aldrich and used as received. The fluorous surfactant, Krytox-PEG-600-diamide (KPD) 232 was synthesized by the previously reported procedure and purchased from Akita Innovations LLC.(12) All solvents used were of HPLC grade. All aqueous solutions were 233 234 prepared, and samples were rinsed using Milli-Q water. The nitrocellulose membrane strip with a polyester backing card was purchased from GE Healthcare Life Sciences. 235 236 The filter paper (494, Quantitative) for the substrate was purchased from VWR 237 International.

239 SEM images of the film were obtained by a Merlin and Crossbeam 540 Zeiss scanning electron microscope. The TEM images of nanofibers were obtained with a 120 kV FEI 240 Tecnai Multipurpose transmission electron microscope. A Thermo Scientific Nicolet 6700 241 242 FT-IR instrument with a Ge crystal was used to obtain attenuated total reflectance Fourier-transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) spectra. Resistivity measurements were 243 conducted by a Keithley 2400 and a Signatone four-point probe. The thickness of the 244 245 coating on the nitrocellulose membrane was obtained with a Dektak 6M stylus 246 profilometer.

Synthesis of PANI Polymer: The PANI nanofiber was synthesized via the interfacial 247 polymerization of aniline (Figure S1). Distilled aniline was used for experiments. The 248 249 polymerization was performed in a 20 mL glass vial. Aniline (3.2 mmol) was dissolved in 10 mL of dichloromethane to yield the organic phase.(10, 18) 0.8 mmol of ammonium 250 251 persulfate was dissolved in 10 mL of 1 M camphorsulfonic acid solution to yield the aqueous phase. The interfacial polymerization of aniline was targeted by combining the 252 253 aqueous and organic phases into a 20 mL vial. After 14 hours (o/n), the as-prepared 254 PANI-ES (Emeraldine salt) was purified by filtration. PANI-EB (Emeraldine base) form 255 was obtained by reduction with a 0.1 M aq. NH₄OH solution. Figure S1 shows Fouriertransform infrared spectra of PANI-EB nanofibers. The FTIR spectrum displays quinoid 256 ring (Q) stretching at 1576 cm⁻¹, benzenoid ring (B) stretching at 1491 cm⁻¹, C-N 257 stretching vibration near quinone diimine unit at 1378 cm⁻¹, C-N stretching in cis-Q-B-Q, 258 259 Q-B-B and B-B-Q at 1295 cm⁻¹, C–N stretching in B-B-B at 1224 cm⁻¹, aromatic C–H inplane bending vibration at 1144 cm⁻¹, aromatic C–H out of plane bending vibration of 260 1,2,4-ring at 806 cm⁻¹.(19, 20) 261

Preparation of Ink and Coating: The PANI dispersion was obtained by mixing 30 mg of PANI-EB powder and 1.5 mL of D. I. water and sonicating for 1 hour. Sonication treatment was processed to redisperse polyanilines into the original nanoscale fibers. The fluorous surfactant solution was prepared by dissolving 100 mg of Krytox-PEG-600diamide (KPD) in 2 mL of Hexafluoroisopropanol (HFIP), which is miscible with water. The fluorous PANI (F-PANI) dispersion was obtained by sonicating 600 μ L of polymer dispersion and 100 μ L of fluorous surfactant solution for 30 minutes. In this process, the noncovalent interactions between KPD (amide and ether groups) and the imines of thePANI nanofibers are introduced.

Polymer coatings were prepared by fabricating PANI inks onto the substrates (nitrocellulose membrane or filter paper). Test line bands with an area of 45 mm² (1.5 cm * 0.3 cm) were created using 17 μ L of ink, while bands measuring 105 mm² (1.5 cm * 0.7 cm) and 210 mm² (1.5 cm * 1.4 cm) were created using 40 μ L and 80 μ L of ink, respectively. The thickness of the test line bands was obtained by the stylus profilometer, and the average value was 27.9 ± 5.9 μ m (n = 5). We used the test lines for measurement after drying for 2 hours.

Calculation of conductivity of the coating We calculated the conductivity by using the four-point probe method. We recorded the resistance reading (*R*) and a constant (C =4.3947) derived from the dimensions of our sample,(24) and determined the sheet resistance (ρ_s) using the following equation

$$\rho_{s} = R * C$$
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$$\sigma = \frac{1}{\rho_{s} * l}$$

The resistivity of the coating is ρ_s multiplied by its thickness (*l*), and the conductivity (σ) is its reciprocal. The resistance (*R*) values were collected from over 30 different locations with 3 samples for each concentration.

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- 358 Figure Captions and Tables
- 359 360

Figure 1. A PFAS sensing platform based on polyaniline (PANI) polymer and e-LFA. (a) Doped and undoped PANI structures. (b) Preparation of fluorous PANI-EB dispersion by mixing PANI-EB nanofiber powder with the fluorous surfactant (Krytox-PEG-600-diamide). (c) Photograph of e-LFA membrane and schematic of the conductivity change after exposure to PFAS aqueous solution.

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Figure 2. Characterization of PANI coatings Scanning electron microscope (SEM) images of (a) PANI-EB and (b) F-PANI coatings formed on a nitrocellulose (NC) membrane(c) Plots of contact angle (θ) of water on PANI-EB and F-PANI coatings formed on the NC membrane and glass. Insets are optical microscopic images of the droplet contact angles. Each data point was averaged from 10 measurements, and the error bars correspond to the standard deviation.

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374 Figure 3. Resistance and conductivity measurement of the F-PANI test line in the e-LFA using four-point probe system. (a) Schematic of the four-point probe 375 376 measurement and experimental factors investigated. (b) Plot of resistance value as a function of time after the sample was removed from the vial. (c) Plot of resistance value 377 as a function of exposure time in the vial with 10⁻⁶ M PFOA. Resistance values were 378 collected from over 30 different locations with 3 samples for each concentration. (d, e) 379 Plot of resistance values for each width with 10⁻⁶ M PFOA (d) and 10⁻² M PFOA (e). The 380 distance from the end of the test line to the end of the NC membrane was 1.6 cm for all 381 382 devices investigated.

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384 Figure 4. Resistance and conductivity of wet F-PANI coatings. (a) The histogram of 385 resistance values for each concentration of PFOA. The bin size of the histogram was decreased at lower concentrations. The values were collected from over 30 different 386 387 locations with 3 samples for each concentration. The measurement of the wet coating was carried out within 5 minutes after the sample was removed from the vial. (b) Plots of 388 conductivity of F-PANI coatings on NC membrane as a function of PFOA (black spheres) 389 or octanoic acid (OA, green square) concentrations. The point of 10⁻² M OA is not 390 indicated because it is not a uniform solution in ambient conditions. (c) Plots of 391 392 conductivity of F-PANI coatings on NC membrane (black spheres) and filter paper 393 (green triangles) substrates as a function of PFOA concentrations.

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Table 1. Summary of resistance and conductivity values of the wet F-PANI test line on the NC membrane as a function of PFOA concentration (data from Figure 4a and b). R_A and σ_A indicate average and sigma (standard deviation) values, respectively. R_M and σ_M indicate mean (peak) and sigma values estimated from Gaussian fitting curves. C_M is the conductivity calculated from R_M value. 220 M Ω is the maximum resistance value that can be measured.

PFOA [M]	$R_A \pm \sigma_A$ [MΩ, kΩ for [§]]	$R_M \pm \sigma_M$ [MΩ, kΩ for [§]]	C _M [S/m]	Conductivity enhancement (times)
0	> 220	> 220	$< 3.70 \cdot 10^{-5}$	-
10 ⁻¹⁰	205.9 ± 27.4	218.5 ± 8.2	$3.73 \cdot 10^{-5}$	> 1.01
10 ⁻⁹	191.4 ± 24.3	202.5 ± 10.0	$4.03 \cdot 10^{-5}$	> 1.09
10 ⁻⁸	149.8 ± 25.0	154.5 ± 23.0	$5.27 \cdot 10^{-5}$	> 1.42
10 ⁻⁷	113.9 ± 29.8	110.3 ± 21.7	$7.42 \cdot 10^{-5}$	> 2.01
10 ⁻⁶	75.7 ± 27.9	69.7 ± 18.6	$1.17 \cdot 10^{-4}$	> 3.16
10 ⁻⁵	43.8 ± 21.3	36.1 ± 17.9	$2.26 \cdot 10^{-4}$	> 6.11
10 ⁻⁴	7.6 ± 5.9	5.6 ± 3.4	$1.46 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$> 3.95 \cdot 10^{1}$
10 ⁻³	1.2 ± 2.1	318.9 ± 89.2 §	$2.56 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$> 6.92 \cdot 10^2$
10 ⁻²	$22.0 \pm 7.3^{\$}$	23.7 ± 6.7 §	$3.44 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$> 9.30 \cdot 10^3$

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