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INTRODUCTION TO MICROFLUIDICS

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Chip-based LC, Liquid Chromatography

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Chip-based LC, Liquid Chromatography

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Summer School in Microfluidics ICTP, Trieste, Italy



Methods of separation

Many variations exist, e.g.: -distillation -solvent extraction -gas / liquid / supercritical fluid <u>chromatography</u> -<u>electrophoresis</u>

The application of the methods can be either

-preparative (e.g. in oil refinery, food industry) - trend to larger -<u>analytical</u> - trend to smaller





Basic idea

Separation is based on differences in:

•interaction/affinity (e.g. in solvent extraction)

- •size/mass (e.g. in membrane filtering)
- charge (e.g. in ion-exchange chromatography)
- physical state/phase (e.g. in crystallisation)

These differences are translated in:

- •residence time variation (retention) in a flow system
- •accumulation in a batch system





Filtering and related methods



Chromatography and related methods

Substances are carried by a mobile phase along a stationary phase; individual species are retarded by the stationary phase

M. Tswett first observed separation of plant pigments as bands on chalk columns (1903) and named the phenomenon "chromatography" (in Greek "color writing")

L.S. Ettre and A. Zlatkis, Eds., 75 years of chromatography, Elsevier, Amsterdam, 1979

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Note that a retention difference is translated in a location difference, which enables sorting



3 fundamental modes of operation





Chromatographic concepts

Major categories of LC





Chromatography-animation





Movie courtesy of D. Williams, Sandia National Labs.



Partition chromatography

Normal phase: polar stationary phase and non-polar solvent Reverse phase: non-polar stationary phase and polar solvent

Factors to consider in solvent selection:

Solvent strength: measure of relative solvent polarity (ability to displace a solvent) - scales are based on silica or alumina

Polarity index: index used for reverse phase methods

(NB these are only two of the many scales that are used to describe partitioning and solubility properties)



Solvent strength and polarity index

Solvent	Eo	P	viscosity	RI	UV cutoff
n-pentane	0.00	~0.0	0.23	1.36	210
CCI4	0.18	1.6	0.97	1.47	265
toluene	0.29	2.4	0.59	1.50	285
ethyl ether	0.38	2.8	0.32	1.35	220
THF	0.45	4.0		1.41	220
MEK	0.51	4.7		1.38	330
acetonitrile	0.65	5.8	0.37	1.34	210
methanol	0.95	5.1	0.60	1.33	210
E ^o is for alum	ina				





Mixing solvents and gradient elution

Optimal solvent strength or polarity can be obtained by mixing solvents



Gradient elution: stepwise or continuous change from one solvent to another during separation run

"Mixed stream": solvents are pumped together with turbulent mixing; total flow rate is kept constant, mixing is programmed



Solvent classes

classification uses acid/base, dipole and chemical properties

Class	Partial solvent list
Ι	aliphatic ethers and alkyl amines
II	aliphatic alcohols
III	THF, pyridines, DMSO, amides
IV	formamide, acetic acid, glycols
V	CH ₂ Cl ₂ , 1,2-dichloroethylene
VI	alkyl halides, esters, ketones, nitriles
VII	benzene and derivatives
VIII	chloroform, m-cresol, water







Supercritical fluid chromatography



Pressure programming

Density increases with pressure, which leads to increased solubility in mobile phase i.e. retention decreases



Field flow fractionation







Chromatographic theory

Plate theory (1941, Martin & Synge; based on analogy with distillation and counter-current extraction)

Rate theory (1956, van Deemter, dynamics of separation)

Retention and partitioning



capacity factor k gives ratio of amount of analyte in mobile : stationary phase:

$$k = \frac{V_s}{V_m} \left(\frac{c_s}{c_m}\right)_{eq} = \frac{V_s K}{V_m}$$

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Relative retention times

fraction R of total analyte found in mobile phase:

$$R = \left(\frac{V_m c_m}{V_m c_m + V_s c_s}\right)_{eq} = \left(\frac{V_m}{V_m + K V_s}\right) = \frac{1}{1+k}$$

retention time of analyte zone: $t_r = \frac{L}{v} = \frac{L}{Ru}$

with *v* the average velocity of the zone and *u* the average velocity of the mobile phase. Obviously the unretained mobile phase has retention: $t_0 = \frac{L}{v}$

Note that: $k = \frac{t_r - t_0}{t_0}$

Thus, for different analytes: $\alpha_{2,1} = \frac{t_{r2} - t_0}{t_{r1} - t_0} = \frac{k_2}{k_1} = \frac{K_2}{K_1}$





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Flow principles in separation science

Pressure-driven	most common in LC and GC
Electrokinetic	Capillary Electrophoresis
Shear-driven	SDC, Rotational Planar Chromatography*
Centrifugal	RPC, Centrifugal Planar Column Chromatography
Gravity-driven	preparative LC
Capillary-force driven	Thin Layer Chromatography

*RPC uses paper or TLC plates and centrifugal forces

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Centrifugal chromatography, large & small







Why pressure-driven flow is preferred over EOF

- 1. more accurate flow control (independent of pH, electrolyte concentration, wall surface material, adsorption of large molecules onto the wall, composition of the sample matrix)
- 2. much broader range of applicable solvents
- 3. no interference in case of electrical detection methods
- 4. broader substrate material choice (allowing the use of silicon and the extended micromachining toolbox)





Packed vs. open-tubular



Comparison of the band broadening in a two dimensional mimic of a chromatographic column with increasing degree of heterogeneity; source: J.Billen, VU Brussel, B http://wwwtw.vub.ac.be/chis/Jeroen.htm









Zone spreading:



Gaussian peak dispersion due to diffusion



Standard deviation of band (infinitely small injection plug): $\sigma = \sqrt{2Dt}$ with *D* diffusivity of analyte





Plate theory

Column is considered to consist of a number of *plates*, (in analogy to distillation) on which the equilibrium of the solute with the mobile and stationary phases occurs.

Length of column is divided by this *number of theoretical plates N* to give the *height equal to a theoretical plate H (or HETP)*.

Higher *N* or smaller *H* means a more efficient column.

Plate height is introduced by the equation:

$$\sigma_x^2 = 2Dt = 2D\frac{L}{u} \equiv HL$$







Resolution

Resolution = $\frac{\text{peak separation}}{\text{average peak width}}$

It can be derived that: R = -

$$R = \frac{t_{r_2} - t_{r_2}}{2(\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)} = \ln\left\{1 + \frac{k_2 - k_1}{1 + k_1}\right\} \sqrt{\frac{N}{4}}$$

For
$$k_2 \approx k_1$$
: $R = \frac{k_2 - k_1}{1 + k_1} \sqrt{\frac{N}{4}}$

N = plate height, can be extracted from peak half-width:



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Resolution examples



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from: http://www.tut.fi/units/ymp/kem/opintojaksot/3500820/L2.pdf

Resolution limits



Resolution	Rel. impurity (%)
1.5	0.1
1.0	2.3
0.8	4.5
0.5	16





Peak capacity

A measure of how many peaks can be totally separated between any two points on a chromatogram:



Band broadening outside the column

 $\sigma_{total}^{2} = \sigma_{column}^{2} + \sigma_{detector}^{2} + \sigma_{injector}^{2}$ with $\sigma_{detector}^{2} = \frac{(\Delta t)^{2}}{12}$ and $\sigma_{detector}^{2} = \frac{(\Delta t)^{2}}{12}$



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Van Deemter equation

Proposed in 1956, has the basic form:

$$H \approx A + \frac{B}{u} + Cu$$

A: multiple passes through the column packing

B: molecular diffusion

C: equilibration between phases







Instrumentation

Basic LC setup







Injection valves and sampling loops



Injection by automated syringes





Optical detectors for LC





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Other detectors for LC

Heat of absorption detector

A small amount of heat is released when a sample absorbs on a suitable surface. This detector can measure this.



Electrochemical detectors

Dielectric constant Amperometric Conductometric Polarographic Potentiometric







Why is miniaturisation important?

Standard LC formats are already miniaturised: 75 µm-1 mm capillaries; packed columns with (sub)micron flow passages; (nano)porous materials; surface processes; sensitive detectors; low sample volumes and flow rates

Micro/nanofabrication benefits: integration improves performance, parallel separations, new types of size separation, model systems for fundamental studies of pores





100 µm i.d. monolith column

Dispersion by dead volumes





van Deemter equation

$$H = \frac{2D_m}{u_m} + 2\kappa \frac{u_m \cdot d_H^2}{D} + \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{k}{(1+k)^2} \frac{u_m \cdot d_f^2}{D_s}$$

Knox equation:

$$H = A u^{1/3} + \frac{B}{u} + C u \frac{D_m}{D_s}$$

Overview of *k*-values

	к (unretained solute)	κ (retained solute)
Plug flow	к=0	$\kappa = \frac{{k'}^2}{6.(1+k')^2}$
Parabolic flow	$\kappa = \frac{1}{210}$	$\kappa = \frac{1 + 9k' + 25.5{k'}^2}{210.(1 + k')^2}$
Axisymmetric linear flow	$\kappa = \frac{1}{120}$	$\kappa = \frac{1 + 7k' + 16{k'}^2}{120.(1 + k')^2}$



Fig. 1. Number of theoretical plates as a function of column diameter for five different pressures. k' = 10, $D = 1 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec}$, $\eta = 5 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ P}$, t = 2 h. 1 = 300 p.s.i.g. (21 bar); 2 = 1000 p.s.i.g. (69 bar); 3 = 3000p.s.i.g. (210 bar); 4 = 6000 p.s.i.g. (420 bar); 5 = 10,000 p.s.i.g. (690 bar).



Desmet, 2005; figure from: Jorgenson e.a. J.Chrom. 255, 335-348 (1983)



Si02

First LC chip



channel dimensions: 6 µm x 2 µm x 150 mm silicon-glass combination; conductivity detector





Packed LC chip





Channel dimensions: 20 mm, 313 µm x 102 µm Stationary phase: C8 on 5 µm particles mobile phase: methanol detection: LIF pump: conventional HPLC





Ocvirk e.a. Anal.Methods & Instrum. 2, 74-82 (1995)



Monoliths for CEC



Micromachined LC chip





He e.a. Anal.Chem. 70, 3790-3797 (1998)



Field-flow fractionation on a chip







Pinched flow fractionation



Continuous Deflection Electrophoresis



Flow down a paper sheet or between closely spaced plates carries different solutes, which are gradually separated by electrophoresis along a perpendicular axis, to different collection ports







<u>T-sensor</u>





Brownian ratchets for DNA separation



Basic principle of the Brownian ratchet array. Particles are driven through the array hydrodynamically or electrophoretically.(A) Particles emerging from A and diffusing to the left (1) cannot reach B- but particles diffusing to the right (2) may reach B+.(B) Particles of different size diffuse to different extents, resulting in different probabilities of reaching B+.

(C) Probability of reaching B+ is increased by tilting the flow at a small angle with respect to the vertical axis of the array.





Huang e.a. Anal.Chem. 75, 6963-6967 (2003)



Brownian ratchets



Obstacle dimensions: 0.35 μ m high,1.5 μ m x 6.0 μ m. Gap between adjacent obstacles is 1.5 μ m.

Transverse Brownian motion causes molecule to skip one channel to the right if it diffuses through displacement $a_{\rm R}$, or very rarely, one channel to the left if it diffuses through $a_{\rm I}$





"Entropic traps"









Lane 72 failed due to photolithographic defect; Lane-to-lane variance in mobility is attributed to electrode placement as well as variability in



Case study 1 Shear-driven chromatography

Gert Desmet and co-workers Free University of Brussels (VUB), Belgium Wim de Malsche, Han Gardeniers University of Twente, NL

Basics of shear-driven chromatography (SDC)





Injection procedure



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Background and results

Limitations in pressure-driven chromatography: pressure drop:

$$\Delta P = \frac{\psi \mu u_m L}{d^2}$$

with μ viscosity, *L* length, *d* column (or particle, in packed columns) diameter, u_m average linear velocity of mobile phase, ψ flow resistance parameter (32 for open and 500-1000 for packed columns).

Smaller d (for LC) or larger L (for GC) can not be used due to mechanical limitations of the system

Shear-driven: $u_m = \frac{u_{wall}}{2}$

is basically unlimited. Plate height is given by:

$$H = 2\frac{D_m}{u_m} + \frac{2}{30} \left\{ \frac{1+7k+16k^2}{(1+k)^2} \right\} u_m \frac{d^2}{D_m} + \frac{2}{3} \left\{ \frac{k}{(1+k)^2} \right\} u_m \frac{d_t^2}{D_s}$$

with d_f thickness of stationary phase layer, D_s and D_m diffusivities in stationary and mobile phase, k retention coefficient, d thickness of mobile phase layer.





high-speed separation of 4 coumarin dyes



Desmet e.a. Anal.Chem. 72, 2160-2165 (2000)



New features: micromachined injector









Case study 2 Micromachined separation columns

Peter Schoenmakers and co-workers,University of Amsterdam, NL Gert Desmet and co-workers, Free University of Brussels, B Wim de Malsche, Han Gardeniers, University of Twente, NL

Chromatography on etched silicon columns



Packed chromatography column





Regular array of pillars



Etched chromatography column



Regular array with defects

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Random pillars





Left: velocity contour; right: plug shape near wall Vervoort e.a. Anal.Chem. 76, 4501-4507 (2004)



Different pillar shapes







Pictures of the column ("Bosch" etched)



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Etched microcolumns -random pillars





Etched microcolumn -injector



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Etched microcolumns -injector close-up



New injector design



first separation results (without new injector) : de Pra e.a. accepted for microTAS 2005, Boston, Oct.10-13









Case study 3: Hydrodynamic chromatography chip

1998-2002, PhD work of Emil Chmela (University of Amsterdam, NL) & Marko Blom (University of Twente, NL) Funding by Dutch Technology Foundation, STW

Principle of hydrodynamic chromatography





Separation results: Pyrex-silicon chip



Planar HDC with integrated visco-detector



Low dispersion outlet of chromatography chip (for UV detection)



simulation of pressure distribution



simulation of the transport of a narrow zone



PhD Thesis Emil Chmela, University of Amsterdam, 2002



Hydrodynamic chromatography chip in fused silica



Separation of latex beads, UV absorption detection



Recommended reading

- J. Calvin Giddings, "Unified separation science", John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1991
- J. Kutter and Y. Fintschenko, eds. "Separation Methods in Microanalytical Systems", CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, USA, ISBN 0824725301; to appear September 2005.



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