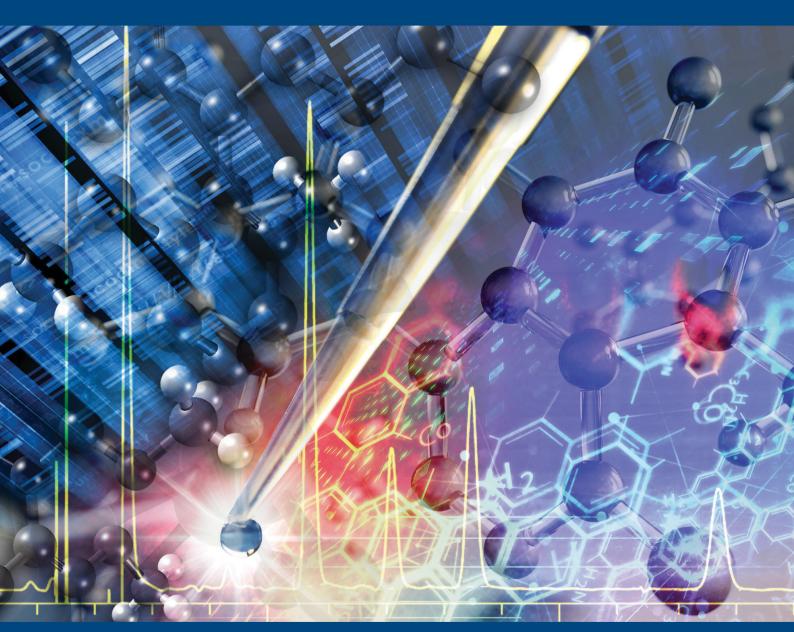


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### RESEARCH ARTICLE



### Comparison of separation modes for microchip electrophoresis of proteins

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Separation of a set of model proteins was tested on a microchip electrophoresis analytical platform capable of sample injection by two different electrokinetic mechanisms. A range of separation modes—microchip capillary zone electrophoresis, microchip micellar electrokinetic chromatography, and nanoparticle-based sieving-was tested on glass and polydimethylsiloxane/glass microchips and with silica-nanoparticle colloidal arrays. The model proteins calmodulin (18 kiloDalton), bovine serum albumin (66 kDa), and concanavalin (106 kDa) were labeled with Alexa Fluor 647 for laser-induced fluorescence detection. The best separation and resolution were obtained in a silicananoparticle colloidal array chip.

### **KEYWORDS**

capillary electrophoresis, electrokinetic injection, laser induced fluorescence detection, microchip electrophoresis

#### 1 INTRODUCTION

Despite the introduction of novel techniques, protein separation with microfluidic devices is still challenging due to the unique characteristics of proteins [1–6]. Among the most significant challenges encountered in microchip separations of proteins are the similarity in electrophoretic mobilities for different proteins, protein adsorption to surfaces, Joule heating, and the need for sensitive detection. Recent advances include the application of methods such as capillary gel electrophoresis and micellar electrokinetic chromatography (reviewed in [2,4,5]), the development of coatings to improve performance (reviewed in [2,3]), and use of polymeric materials [7].

Abbreviations: AF647, Alexa Fluor 647; CaM, calmodulin; ConA, concanavalin A; DDM, n-dodecyl-β-D-maltopyranoside; HEPES, 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid; HPMC, hydroxypropyl methylcellulose; MCE, microchip electrophoresis; MCZE, microchip zone electrophoresis; PDMS, polydimethylsiloxane; TBE, tris-borate EDTA

Here we study the effectiveness of several separation methods by microchip electrophoresis (MCE) with a set of model proteins. MCE-based protein separation methods are generally adapted from the conditions optimized for conventional CE [8,9]. CE uses high voltages and exhibits relatively short separation times with small sample volumes to attain high separation efficiencies of up to millions of theoretical plates [10]. Microchip electrophoresis coupled with sensitive detection methods has been utilized to further improve electrophoretic protein separations [11,12].

The aim of this work was to compare three MCE separation modes: microchip capillary zone electrophoresis (MCZE), MEKC, and silica-nanoparticle based sieving, coupled with different chip substrates, glass, polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS)/glass, and silica-nanoparticle colloidal array chips, for separation of a set of proteins spanning a large range in molecular mass. A further goal was to contrast separations in the presence of EOF with separations where EOF is suppressed. Calmodulin (CaM), BSA, and concanavalin A (ConA) were selected as model proteins for this study.

### 2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 2.1 | Materials and reagents

T34C-CaM was expressed in *E. coli* and purified according to a previously published method [13]. The Cys residue in T34C-CaM was labeled with Alexa Fluor 647 (AF647) maleimide (Molecular Probes, Eugene OR) following methods previously described [14]. Commercially available BSA and concanavalin A (ConA) conjugated with AF647 were purchased from Molecular Probes (Eugene, OR).

SU-8 10 negative photoresist and silicon wafers were purchased from Micro-Chem (Newton, MA) and Silicon (Boise, ID), respectively. Polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) and a curing agent were purchased from Ellsworth Adhesives (Minneapolis, MN). Silica nanobeads were purchased from Bangs Laboratories (Fishers, IN). Fused silica capillaries (id 50 µm and od 364 µm) were purchased from Polymicro Technology (Molex, Lisle, IL). n-Dodecylβ-D-maltopyranoside (DDM), 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1piperazineethanesulfonic acid (HEPES), and sodium hydroxide were purchased from Fisher Scientific (Fair Lawn, NJ). Platinum (Pt) wire was purchased from Ted Pella (Redding, CA). Hydoxypropyl methylcelulose (HPMC), tris-borate EDTA (TBE) 10× buffer (CE grade), boric acid, and SDS were acquired from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis. MO). All reagents and samples were prepared with doubly-deionized water from an ultrapure water system (Barnstead, Dubuque, IA). Samples, reagents, and run buffers were filtered by 0.22-µm syringe filter before separations.

PDMS-based microchips were fabricated by standard soft lithography at the Adams Micro-Fabrication facility (University of Kansas, KS). To develop a raised structure (mold) for electrophoresis channels, SU-8 negative photoresist was spin-coated on a 4-inch silicon wafer up to a thickness of ~16 µm with a spin coater (Brewer Science, Rolla, MO). The wafer was soft baked on a programmable hot plate (Thermo Scientific, Ashville, NC) at 65°C for 2 min, followed by 95°C for 5 min. AutoCad LT 2004 (Autodesk, San Rafael, CA) was used to create microfluidic channel designs, which were printed onto a transparency film at a resolution of 50,000 dpi (Infinite Graphics, Minneapolis, MN). The transparency film was aligned on top of the photoresist coated wafer and exposed to UV light (ABM, San Jose, CA). After the exposure, the wafer was baked at 65°C for 2 min followed by 95°C for 10 min. SU-8 developer was used to develop the channel structures, and the wafer was washed with isopropyl alcohol and dried with nitrogen gas. Finally, the developed wafer was "hard-baked" at 175°C for 2 h. The depth of the PDMS microfluidic channels, was measured with a surface profiler (Alfa Step-200, Tencor Instruments, Mountain View, CA). PDMS microfluidic channels were cast using a 10:1 mixture of the elastomer and the curing agent, respectively. The channels were  $\sim$ 40  $\mu$ m wide and  $\sim$ 16  $\mu$ m deep.

Glass microchips were fabricated by the Adams Micro-Fabrication facility (University of Kansas), as described previously [15,16]. Silica-nanoparticle chips were constructed as described previously [12]. Briefly, a chip with simple "T" format (10 mm separation channel and 4 mm side arms) was fabricated from an approximately 5-mm thick PDMS layer and cured at 60°C overnight. Reservoirs were made with a 2-mm biopsy puncher. PDMS chips were sealed to clean glass slides. Monodisperse plain silica beads 170 nm and 400 nm in diameter (10% m/v, Bangs Laboratories, Fishers, IN) were introduced by controlled evaporation of water from the buffer waste reservoir (see Supporting Information Figure S2) [12], allowing colloidal arrays to assemble as 3D structures inside the microchannels [17,18]. The growth of the array was stopped by replacing the colloidal suspension in the reservoirs with water.

### 2.2 | Methods

Microfluidic channels were checked under a microscope, and any particles were removed with 0.1 M NaOH or isopropyl alcohol with pressure. PDMS/glass and glass chips were conditioned with 0.1 M NaOH and purified water for 5 min each, followed by run buffer (which was specific to the experiment) for another 5 min. Before the separation, the device was checked again for any clogging. Similarly, after self-assembly of the colloidal array, silicananoparticle microfluidic devices were equilibrated with the run buffer for 20 min.

Microchips were mounted on an X-Y translational stage (Newport, Irvine, CA) situated on a Nikon TE 300 microscope. A 633-nm He-Ne laser beam was passed through a neutral density filter wheel (Newport, Irvine, CA) to adjust the beam power. The laser beam power was measured by an optical power meter (Pro-lite Technology, Bedfordshire, UK). The laser beam was reflected by a dichroic mirror (ZT640rdc, Chroma, Bellows Falls, VT) through the microscope objective (LUC-PLFLN Plan 40×, 0.4 NA, 2.5-mm working distance, Olympus Corp., Center Valley, Pa) and into the microchannel. Fluorescence emission was collected by the objective, reflected through the C-port of the microscope through a band-pass filter (Q660LP, Chroma, Bellows Falls, VT), and detected by an avalanche photodiode photon counting module (SPCM AQR-14, PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA). A high voltage was applied between the reservoirs of the microfluidic device by a power supply with four independently-controlled high-voltage channels (HV-RACK-4-250, UltraVolt, Ronkonkoma, NY). Voltage was delivered to microchip reservoirs via Pt leads.

Protein samples were denatured at 95°C in the presence of 3.5 mM SDS for 5 min prior to separations. For gated injections in the separation state, high voltages were applied to the reservoir sample and buffer reservoirs such that the sample and the run buffer fluid flow established a gated cross section at the intersection of the vertical and horizontal channels. For a desired injection time (for example 0.3 s), the potential of the buffer reservoir was switched to zero so that a sample plug flowed through the cross junction due to cathodic electro-osmotic flow (EOF). The potential of the buffer reservoir was reestablished, and the sample plug was allowed to pass along the separation channel. (A schematic representation of the reservoir voltages is shown in the Supporting Information Figure S3.) Pinched injections with pull-back were used for separations with suppressed EOF. For injection, a high positive voltage was applied to the buffer-waste reservoir and low positive voltages to the sample and sample waste reservoirs, such that negatively charged sample species moved towards the buffer waste reservoir with "pull-back" in the sample channel to prevent sample leakage into the separation channel after injection. (Voltages for pinched injection are depicted schematically in Figure S4.)

CE was performed in a bare fused silica capillary placed in a Beckman P/ACE MDQ instrument (Beckman, Fullerton, CA). Samples were dissolved in a background electrolyte (BGE) containing 3.5 mM SDS. Laser-induced fluorescence was excited at 635 nm and collected through a band-pass filter, 705 nm, bandpass 72 nm (ET705/72 Chroma, Bellows Falls, VT). Capillaries were conditioned with methanol and 1 M NaOH for 20 min prior to use, followed by 5 min with water at  $7 \times 10^4$  Pa pressure. Separations were carried out at  $20^{\circ}$ C. Samples were injected into the capillary by pressure injections ( $3 \times 10^3$  Pa for 10 s). After each run, the capillary was washed with methanol, 1 M HCl, 1 M NaOH, and water for 2 min each, followed by the BGE (75 mM boric acid adjusted to pH 9.2 with NaOH, and 3.5 mM SDS) for 3 min before injection of the sample.

### 3 | RESULTS

The molecular masses of the three model proteins increase in the order CaM ( $\sim$ 18 kDa) < BSA ( $\sim$ 66 kDa) < ConA ( $\sim$ 106 kDa) (molecular masses include attached Alexa Flour 647). Molecular masses, pI values, and hydropathicity values for the three proteins are listed in Supporting Information, Table S1. After denaturation by heat in the presence of SDS (3.5 mM), protein analytes are expected to have a uniform negative charge density and a spherical shape.

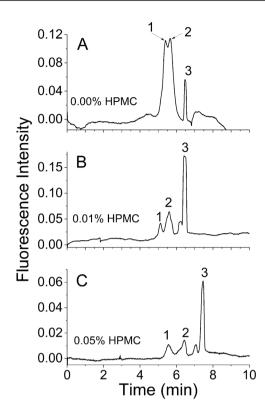


FIGURE 1 Separation of three model proteins with a bare silica capillary. Capillary length: 0.3-m, length to detector: 0.21 m, id: 50  $\mu$ m, BGE: 75 mM boric acid adjusted to pH 9.2 with NaOH and 3.5 mM SDS, (A) No HPMC added to the run buffer. The applied field strength was  $1.94 \times 10^4$  V/m. Peaks 1, 2, and 3 were identified as ConA, BSA, and CaM, respectively. The concentrations of CaM, BSA, and ConA were ~40, ~40, and ~20 nM, respectively. (B) The same separation conditions but with 0.01% (m/v) HPMC added to the run buffer. The concentrations of CaM, BSA, and ConA were ~40, ~20, and ~10 nM, respectively. (C) The same separation conditions but with 0.05% (m/v) HPMC added to the run buffer. The concentrations of CaM, BSA, and ConA were ~20, ~10, and ~5 nM, respectively

### 3.1 | Capillary electrophoresis separation of model proteins

Conventional CE was carried out as a benchmark for the separation of the model proteins. The separation of SDS-protein complexes with bare silica capillaries is depicted in Figure 1. The migration order was ConA, BSA, and CaM. In the absence of HPMC (Figure 1A) ConA and BSA were not fully resolved. With successive runs resolution decreased, migration times changed, and band broadening was observed (data not shown). This suggests that the adsorption of the proteins onto the capillary wall contributed to the relatively high and noisy background and partially resolved peaks. Similar effects have been reported previously for bare capillaries [19].

Adsorption of proteins to the capillary wall can degrade separations and affect the stability of electro-osmotic flow [20]. Therefore, HPMC was added to the buffer to coat

the capillary walls. Separations with 0.01 and 0.05 % (m/v) HPMC are shown in Figure 1B and C. With the addition of 0.01% (m/v) HPMC (Figure 1B), the three analytes were separated with improved resolution and repeatability. A slight increase of migration times of analytes in the presence of HPMC can be attributed to the reduced EOF caused by the addition of HPMC [21,22]. Upon increasing the HPMC concentration to 0.05% (m/v) the separation improved further (Figure 1C). Separation parameters of the model proteins for conventional CE are given in the Supporting Information (Table S2).

### 3.2 | Separation of model proteins by microchip electrophoresis

Glass microchips were used for microchip electrophoresis due to their high stability at high voltages compared to PDMS substrates. Furthermore, large reservoirs can be cast in glass chips to increase the buffer and sample volume and hence to minimize the effects of Joule heating and buffer evaporation. Separations of the model proteins were also attempted in PDMS/glass chips under a variety of buffer and separation conditions. However, good separations were not achieved (data not shown).

Figure 2 shows the separation of the model proteins with glass chips. Figure 2A shows results with gated injection into a 0.10-m separation channel on a serpentine glass chip with a BGE consisting of boric acid adjusted to pH 9.2 with sodium hydroxide and 3.5 mM SDS for separation of the model proteins by MCZE. The three model proteins migrated in under 100 s and were detected in the order of ConA < CaM < BSA. The observed migration order does not follow a consistent trend with respect to the molecular masses of the three proteins. Interactions with the glass surface may retard the migration of BSA, since the BGE did not contain any surface modifiers other than SDS that might have restricted adsorption of proteins. Repeatability in four consecutive runs is shown in the Supporting Information Figure S5. In separations without SDS, severe changes in migration times, peak heights, and peak shapes were observed in repeated separations (data not shown).

Figure 2B shows results obtained with an organic detergent, DDM (a water-soluble, non-ionic disaccharide derivative with a  $C_{10}$  linear hydrocarbon chain) as a dynamic coating agent [23]. DDM reduces EOF and helps to minimize surface adsorption proteins [23,24]. The buffer recipe (20 mM HEPES, 0.1% (m/v) DDM, 3.5 mM SDS, with pH adjusted to 7.5 with NaOH) used in this separation was initially reported by Zare and co-workers for a 3-cm long PDMS chip [23]. The separation conditions offered good repeatability (Supporting Information Figure S6) without changes in migration times and peak shapes. This suggests

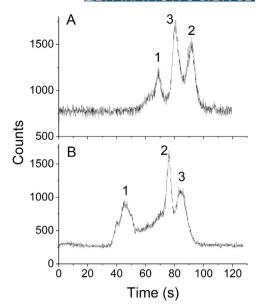


FIGURE 2 Separation of the model proteins on glass chips. Peak 1, 2, and peaks 3 were identified as ConA, BSA, and CaM, respectively. (A) MCZE on a serpentine glass chip. The separation conditions were as follows: BGE 50 mM boric acid adjusted to pH 9.2 with NaOH and 3.5 mM SDS, separation potential 7.5 kV, field strength  $\sim$ 7.50  $\times$  10<sup>4</sup> V/m, injection time 0.3 s, and length to detector  $\sim$ 0.09 m. (B) MEKC on a 0.05-m glass chip. BGE: 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 0.1% (m/v) DDM, and 3.5 mM SDS. Separation voltage and length to detector were 2500 V and  $\sim$ 0.04 m, respectively. The separation field strength was 5.00  $\times$  10<sup>4</sup> V/m. Gated injection time was 0.5 s. A: Peak 1, peak 2, peak 3 are ConA, BSA, and CaM, respectively

reduced protein adsorption onto the channel walls in the presence of DDM. Further, the low conductivity HEPES buffer at lower pH likely created a lower EOF [23] than the high pH boric acid buffer used for MCZE (Figure 2A). The observed migration order was ConA < BSA < CaM (Figure 2B). Hence the result of addition of DDM and change in buffer conditions was a change in migration order but without substantial improvement in the separation.

## 3.3 | Separation of protein standards by microfluidic devices with silica-nanoparticle colloidal arrays

Silica colloidal crystal arrays afford an alternative separation mechanism in microdevices [1,12]. The colloidal array was formed in the separation channel of a PDMS chip with a glass base [1,12,25,26]. PDMS/glass chips were cast with wide channels (~100  $\mu m$ ) from a mold with a thick PDMS layer (~5 mm), resulting in relatively deep reservoirs. This accommodates adequate volumes (~20  $\mu L$ ) in reservoirs and hence decreases the drying effect of the colloidal array. Low electric fields (4.0-6.0  $\times$  10 $^3$  V/m) were used to decrease Joule heating. Sample plugs were introduced by pinched injection.

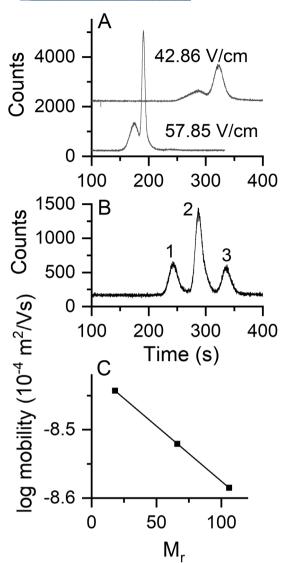


FIGURE 3 Separation of protein standards by silicananoparticle colloid array microfluidic devices. The buffer was 4X TBE, pH 8.5, 3.5 mM SDS. The buffer and sample channels were ~5-mm long, and the separation channel was 10-mm long. The diameter of the reservoirs was 1.5 mm. (A) separation of a mixture of three protein standards with a 400 nm array with field strengths  $4.3 \times 10^3$  V/m and  $5.8 \times 10^3$  V/m (the former plotted with an offset of 2000 counts). (B) Separation with a 170 nm array. The separation field strength was  $5.8 \times 10^3$  V/m. Peaks 1, 2, and 3 were identified as CaM, BSA, and ConA, respectively. (C) Semilog plot of the apparent mobilities of SDS-protein complexes vs protein molecular masses with a least-squares linear fit (n = 7). Fit parameters are log  $\mu = -0.0016 \, M_r - 8.4$  with  $R^2 = 0.9999$ , where  $M_r$  is the relative molecular mass. The error bars show the standard error

Figure 3A shows the separation of the three model proteins with a colloidal array of 400-nm beads. A BGE with high ionic strength (4× TBE, pH 8.3, consisting of 360 mM tris-borate, 8.0 mM EDTA) was used to reduce EOF [12,27]. High resistance to fluid flow in the sieving media also reduced the effect of EOF. Electropherograms

were obtained with two different field strengths. Two different colloidal arrays (particle size 170 and 400 nm) were used to separate SDS-protein complexes. Different sizes of nanoparticles create different pore sizes for size-based separation of biomolecules [12]. The standard proteins were partially resolved with 400-nm beads, which offer a pore size of ~60 nm [12,26]. Separation was greatly improved with a 170 nm silica-nanoparticle array (pore size, ~26 nm) despite the short separation distance of ~5 mm (Figure 3B).

Figure 3C shows a plot of the log apparent mobility versus molecular mass. The apparent mobility,  $\mu_{app}$  of a protein was calculated by

$$\mu_{app} = \frac{L_d/t_m}{V/L_t} \tag{1}$$

where  $L_d$  is the length to the detector and  $L_t$  is the length of the separation channel,  $t_m$  is the migration time, and V is the separation voltage. The peak-to-peak resolution of CaM and BSA  $(R_{1,2})$ , and BSA and ConA  $(R_{2,3})$  were 2.9 and 2.6, respectively. The calculated average peak capacity and the number of theoretical plates for the silica-nanoparticle colloidal array were 14 and  $1.5 \times 10^5 \, \mathrm{m}^{-1}$ , respectively. The average separation efficiency of the silica-nanoparticle colloidal array, the height equivalent to one theoretical plate, was  $6.5 \times 10^{-6} \, \mathrm{m}$ . Accordingly, of the separation methods surveyed, the silica-nanoparticle colloidal array provided the best separation of the model proteins.

### 4 | DISCUSSION

Macromolecules such as proteins exhibit low mobility under electric fields, but relatively high nonspecific adsorption [21,22,28-32], including interactions with the capillary or microchannel walls. CE separations are significantly impaired by transient or permanent adsorption of proteins onto capillary walls [20]. BSA, for example, shows both hydrophilic and hydrophobic interactions with a glass surfaces at physiological pH [32,33]. Indeed, BSA has been used to coat negatively-charged glass and polymeric substrates to minimize nonspecific adsorption of other proteins [31]. Even though the surface is negatively charged, anionic proteins may adsorb onto the channel wall by electrostatic and hydrophobic interactions [21,28–30]. This results in a non-uniform  $\zeta$ -potential over the length of the capillary [24], and consequently a zonal variation of the EOF, resulting in turn in band broadening, asymmetric peaks, poor separation efficiency, and poor reproducibility of migration times [24,34–36]. One approach to mitigate these effects, is to suppress interactions with the capillary surface with charged or uncharged coatings.

Dynamic coating and modification of run buffers are the two most common methods used for surface

**FABLE 1** Migration order for separation methods

Method	Migration order	Mechanism
Capillary zone electrophoresis	ConA < BSA < CaM	Electrophoretic mobility relative to EOF
Microchip zone electrophoresis	ConA < CaM < BSA	Electrophoretic mobility relative to EOF
Glass chip with surface modifier (DDM)	ConA < BSA < CaM	Possible MEKC
Colloidal array	CaM < BSA < ConA	Sieving

modification in both CE and MCE [8,11,37,38]. SDS was included in all BGEs and sample reagents as a dynamic coating agent. Interaction of SDS molecules in the run buffer with the microchannel or capillary wall [39] is thought to reduce adsorption of proteins onto the microchannel or capillary wall without changing the EOF [39,40]. Permanent or dynamic coating of the capillary walls can be achieved with water-soluble small molecules or nonionic and ionic polymers [24]. In the present case, the detergent DDM and the polymer-like cellulose derivative HPMC were used as buffer coating agents [21,23]. Other methods are focused on improving performance through variation of pH, ionic strength, organic additives, and surfactants [21,24,41]. Without SDS, peak heights and peak shapes changed significantly in consecutive runs, band broadening increased, and sensitivity decreased (data not shown). We conclude that the presence of SDS in the BGE is very important for achieving reproducible and efficient separations.

Table 1 summarizes the migration order observed for the methods tested in this study. CZE without HPMC showed poor separation (Figure 1A), but with a migration order consistent with higher electrophoretic mobility (in the direction opposite of the EOF) for the protein with lowest molecular mass. Poor separation is consistent with previous reports that there is little difference in the electrophoretic mobilities of SDS-protein complexes in open capillaries [40,42–44]. Separation improved in the presence of HPMC (Figure 1B and C), with migration in order of decreasing size.

Migration in reverse order of size was not observed by MCZE in a glass microchip, with CaM migrating faster than BSA (Figure 2A). Reduction of the EOF with DDM in addition to SDS resulted in migration in the reverse order of molecular mass (Figure 2B). Addition of DDM reduces the critical micelle concentration (CMC) of SDS to 0.26 mM [23] with the formation of mixed micelles. The concentration of SDS in this experiment was tenfold higher than the CMC. Interaction of the proteins with DDM-SDS micelles affects the separation, suggesting possible separation by MEKC. The partitioning of large molecules such as proteins inside micelles is unlikely, and thus the exact separation mechanism of large molecules

under MEKC is unclear [22]. The extent of interaction of micelles with a protein is likely to depend on protein size and the number of hydrophobic residues. This suggests that separation occurred by MEKC with CaM partitioning most favorably with DDM-SDS micelles and ConA least favorably.

The masses of the three proteins are very different and hence size-based separations (capillary gel electrophoresis and nanoparticle colloidal array) were more successful than separations by CZE, which is based on the charge-to-size ratio, or micellar electrokinetic chromatography (MEKC), which is based on differential interactions of proteins with the micellar phase. We conclude that sieving is more likely to be effective for separation of a set of proteins with significantly different molecular masses.

Nonconventional methods such as nano-structured arrays open new possibilities. Zeng and Harrison introduced a sieving-based technique using self-assembled silica-nanoparticle colloidal arrays [12]. In this work, we used nanoparticle arrays to separate the model proteins. With the colloidal nanoparticle array, migration occurred in the order of increasing molecular mass, consistent with sieving. The apparent linear dependence of  $\ln \mu$  on molecular mass (Figure 3B) is consistent with freevolume (Ogston) sieving models [12,17,25,26,45–47]. The model assumes that the ratio of electrophoretic mobility,  $\mu$ , to the mobility in free solution  $\mu_0$  is equal to the fraction f of the total volume in a porous medium that can be occupied by the analyte during migration, given by [46–48]:

$$\frac{\mu}{\mu_0} = f = e^{-KC} \tag{2}$$

where *C* is the density of sieving medium, *K* is the retardation factor with  $K \propto R_g^2$  [49], and [45]

$$R_{g} = R_0 N^{1/2} \tag{3}$$

where  $R_0$  is a constant for denatured proteins and N is the number of amino acids in the polypeptide chain. On average  $N = M_r/110$ , where  $M_r$  is the relative molecular mass of the protein. Considering the above parameters, the

mobility ratio is given by

$$\frac{\mu}{\mu_0} = e^{-aM_r} \tag{4}$$

where a is a collection of constants. Hence  $\ln(\mu/\mu_0)$  is predicted to be linear with respect to the molecular mass  $M_r$ .

The linearity of the plot of  $\ln \mu$  versus  $M_r$  suggests that  $\ln \mu_0$  depends only weakly on the size of the analyte. A number of studies [42,43] have shown that the electrophoretic mobility of proteins can be modeled by an equation of the form

$$\mu_0 = A \frac{q}{M_r^p} + B \tag{5}$$

where q is the charge of the analyte, A and B are constants, and p has a value between 1/3 and 2/3, which indicates a much weaker dependence of  $\ln \mu_0$  on  $M_r$  compared to  $\ln \mu$ . Furthermore, for proteins coated with SDS, q itself increases with M. Indeed, Takagi and co-workers found that the electrophoretic mobilities of proteins in the presence of SDS are essentially independent of molecular mass for proteins with  $M_r$  greater than ~15 000 [44], which includes all three proteins in this study, a result that is consistent with the poor separation we observed with CZE and MCZE.

### 5 | CONCLUDING REMARKS

The efficacy of several variants of microchip electrophoresis was tested for separation of three model proteins with detection by laser-induced fluorescence. Surface modification was essential to improve the resolution and separation efficiency. MCE with electrokinetic injection was demonstrated in a 0.10-m serpentine glass chip. Similarly, separation in the presence of DDM-SDS micelles was achievable in a 0.05-m glass chip. However, the best separation was obtained with a silica-nanoparticle chip, showing that sieving is effective at separation of the model proteins. To further optimize separation efficiency, we anticipate that two-dimensional separation, combining, for example, silica nanoparticle sieving with MCZE, would significantly enhance peak capacity and resolution.

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### CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors have declared no conflict of interest.

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### SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

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