

Microfluidic diffusion diluter: bulging of PDMS microchannels under pressure-driven flow*

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Abstract

The bulging of microfluidic systems during pressure-driven flow is potentially a major consideration for polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS)-based devices. Microchannel cross-sectional areas can change drastically as a function of flow rate and downstream microchannel position. Such geometrical flexibility leads to difficulties in predicting convective/diffusive transport for these systems. We have previously introduced a non-dimensional parameter, κ , for characterizing convection and diffusion behavior for pressure-driven flow in rigid all-glass systems. This paper describes a modification of that concept for application to non-rigid systems, which is accomplished by incorporating an experimental step to account for the bulging in PDMS/glass microsystems. Specifically, an experimental measurement of channel height by fluorescence microscopy is combined with the aforementioned theory to characterize convective/diffusive behavior at a single location in the device. This allowed the parameter κ to be determined at that point and applied to predict fluid flow in the subsequent portion of the PDMS microsystem. This procedure was applied to a PDMS/glass microfluidic diffusion dilution (μ DD) device designed for generating concentration gradients. Theoretically predicted and experimentally measured distributions of concentrations within the microsystem matched well.

(Some figures in this article are in colour only in the electronic version)

1. Introduction

Polydimethylsiloxane-based microfluidics has proven to be a fast, cheap and widely accessible technology for rapid prototyping in microanalytical systems [1]. Replica molding with PDMS can be employed for making valves, pumps, electrophoretic separation systems, gradient generation as well as for many other processes [2–11]. Further PDMS advantages include optical transparency and easily modified

surface chemistry [7, 11–15]. However, aspect ratio becomes a major design constraint in these systems, since very wide and shallow microchannels can easily collapse during the bonding process [17]. Though electroosmotic and vacuum-driven flow [16] through such PDMS devices can be carried out with relatively little concern for microchannel geometry changes, positive pressure-driven flow presents a unique set of challenges. Specifically, there is a serious consideration for pressure-driven flow through such microchannels, which has been largely overlooked. Namely, the pressure itself can induce a ballooning

* This work is dedicated to the memory of our friend and colleague Saurabh Kumar.

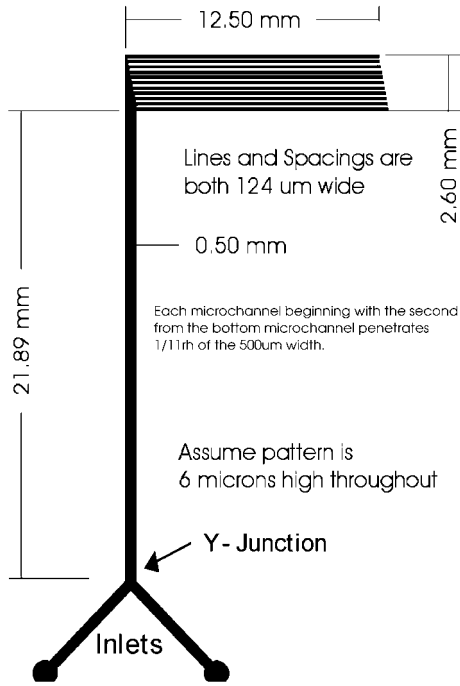


Figure 1. Schematic view of the μ DD device, and its characteristic dimensions.

effect that greatly increases the cross-sectional area of the microchannel during flow. This phenomenon and its effect on creating dilution gradients is the central concern of this paper.

We have previously demonstrated a pressure-driven device for isolation of concentration gradients in a rigid, all-glass microchip [18]. The technique, called microfluidic diffusion dilution (μ DD), works by combining two flowing streams at a Y-junction into a main channel, which is subsequently divided into a parallel array of microchannels (figure 1). Each channel contains a successively higher concentration of a given analyte, and the shape and distribution of the gradient formed is a function of the flow rate. Numerical simulations were successfully used to predict how the concentrations would be distributed in the microchannels. It would be convenient to extend this methodology to PDMS/glass hybrid systems, but due to the elastic nature of PDMS, the channel geometry changes as a function of flow rate. This, in turn, affects the convective/diffusive transport of analytes in the μ DD.

Figure 2(a) shows a cartoon representing the main channel under conditions of pressure-driven flow. The channel would be a rectangular duct under no-flow conditions (blue rectangle in figure 2(a)); however, the cross-section takes on a hemicylindrical shape at high flow rates. This cross-section ‘deflates’ as the fluid moves downstream. Not only does the channel geometry change as a function of position, but also the channel-averaged velocity of the fluid is affected. In figure 2(a), the last segment, shown in green, represents the end of the main channel just before the microchannel entrance. When fluorescence intensities are measured here in an actual device as a function of flow rate, dramatic geometric changes can be seen. Epifluorescent data of Alexa 594 dye in buffer solution inside the main channel and channel array clearly

show that the channel cross-sectional area expanded with increasing of flow rate (figure 2(b)). The bulging effect on the microchannels was not as pronounced as in the main channel because the microchannels have a higher combined cross-sectional area and lower aspect (width to height) ratios.

The work below details a modification of the previous concentration dilution theory [18] to account for cross-sectional area changes caused by the bulging of PDMS microchannels. The modification relies on a simple one-point ‘calibration’ method in which initial experimental data are combined with computational fluid dynamics to predict convective/diffusive transport over the entire PDMS/glass system. This allowed for good agreement to be obtained between experiment and theory.

2. Theory

The device used in these experiments had a height of $6 \mu\text{m}$ (z direction) and a main channel width of $500 \mu\text{m}$ (y direction) under no-flow conditions, yielding an aspect ratio of ~ 83 (figure 1). We [18] and others [19, 20] have shown that scalar transport in such high aspect ratio rectangular microchannel systems can be considered two dimensional since transverse diffusive broadening is negligible. Along the length (x direction) of the main channel, analyte transport is dominated by convective forces. By contrast, analyte transport is dominated by diffusion across the width of the main channel. Therefore, the following assumption is made:

$$\partial^2 \Theta / \partial x^2 \ll \partial^2 \Theta / \partial y^2 \quad (1)$$

where Θ is the non-dimensional analyte concentration, normalized by the analyte concentration at the channel inlet. Since the aspect ratio is very high, the height-averaged streamwise velocity is assumed to be uniform across the main channel width and diffusion along the channel length is negligible, so that the species transport equation can be reduced to the following form:

$$\bar{u} \frac{\partial \Theta}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{Pe} \left[\frac{\partial^2 \Theta}{\partial y^2} \right] \quad (2)$$

where $\bar{u} = u_x$ is the channel-averaged fluid velocity and Pe is the Peclet number. The Peclet number is defined as

$$Pe = \frac{\bar{u}h}{\alpha} \quad (3)$$

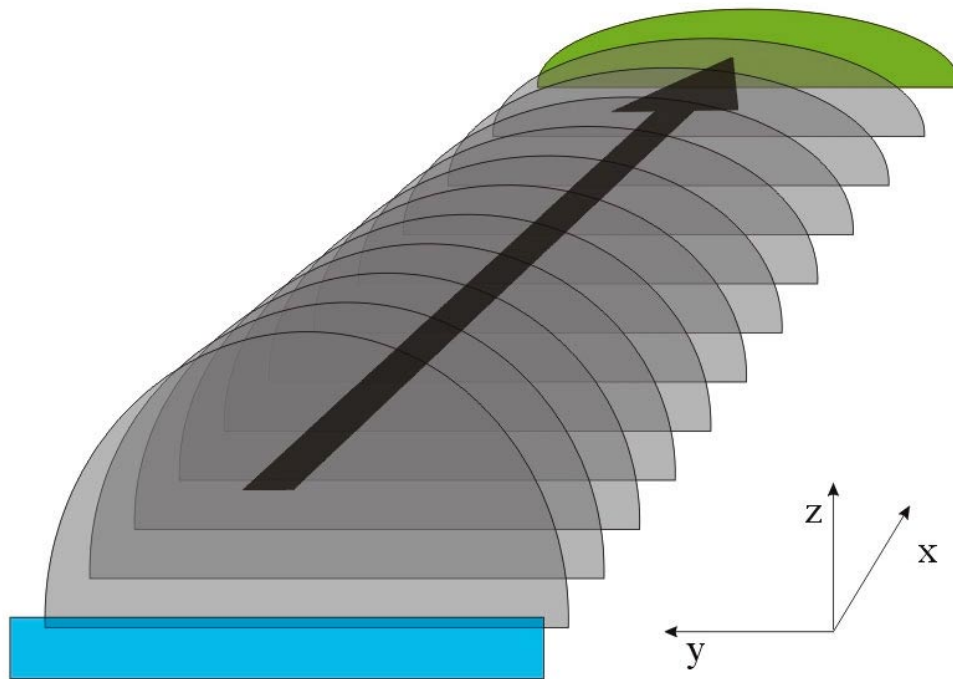
where \bar{u} , h and α are the channel-averaged fluid velocity, characteristic length (width of the main channel) and the mass diffusivity, respectively. These approximations allow this system to be considered in just two dimensions (i.e., $\Theta = \Theta(x, y)$).

We have previously described a non-dimensional parameter, κ , for the characterization of convective/diffusive transport in microchannels [18]. Briefly,

$$\kappa = \frac{x}{hPe} = \frac{x\alpha}{h^2\bar{u}} \quad (4)$$

where x is the downstream distance from the Y-junction. The value of κ uniquely defines the concentration distribution $\Theta = \Theta(x, y)$ in a straight rectangular channel at any point (x) for a given channel width (h) and flow conditions (α, \bar{u}). Although this form of κ allowed the prediction of the

(a)



(b)

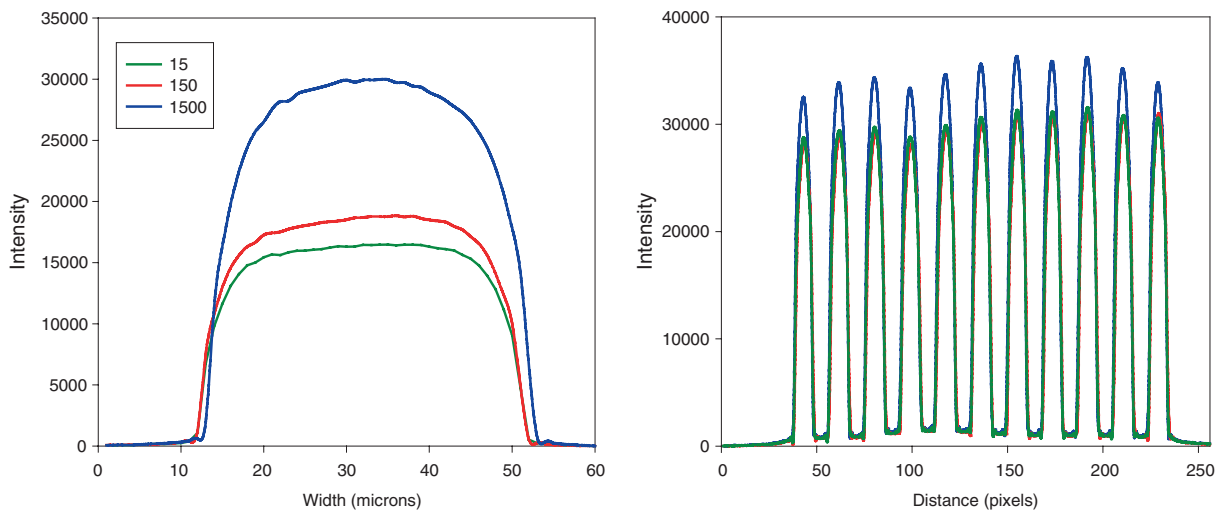


Figure 2. (a) Schematic representation of a bulging microchannel under pressure-driven flow (not to scale). The original geometry under no flow conditions (blue) expands greatly at high flow rates (gray). (b) Background subtracted fluorescence intensities taken across the width of the main channel just before the inlet to the microchannels (left) and across the microchannels (right) at various flow rates. Flow units shown in the legend are in nl min^{-1} .

concentration distribution for a rigid system, the PDMS/glass hybrid system requires an additional consideration. As stated above, under pressure-driven flow, variations in the channel cross-sectional area result in considerable changes in the channel-averaged velocity, \bar{u} . Hence, without knowing the cross-sectional area, the value of κ cannot be obtained for determining the theoretical concentration distribution. To remedy this, experimental data were taken to determine the cross-sectional area of the channel under a given set of flow conditions.

2.1. Experimental/computational methodology

Prior to measuring concentration gradient profiles in the μDD , both inlets were injected with the same concentration of dye. The device was then run at three flow rates and fluorescence data acquired at two positions, first at the end of the main channel just before the μDD ($x = 21 \text{ mm}$), and again across the microchannels (figure 2). This measurement was critical, since the fluorescence pathlength changes at each flow rate. At our dye concentration of $6 \mu\text{M}$, the fluorescence intensity

Table 1. Computational parameters for three flowrate cases, obtained using theory and experimental results.

Flowrate (nl min ⁻¹)	κ	\bar{u} (m s ⁻¹)	$Re = \bar{u}h/\nu$	$Sc = \nu/\alpha$	$Pe = Re \times Sc$
1500	0.0059	9.24×10^{-4}	0.462	15 408	7118
150	0.026	2.09×10^{-4}	0.104	15 408	1602
15	0.12	4.52×10^{-5}	0.0225	15 408	347

was linearly related to the fluorescence pathlength, thereby allowing us to measure the channel height changes. This height information was used to correct the relative intensities when measuring the distribution of fluorophores in the concentration gradients. This was done by setting the maximum intensity for each case as $\Theta = 1$, followed by aligning each case to their respective $\Theta = 0.5$ value at the center of the main channel.

In order to measure the formation of concentration gradients, fluorescence data were obtained in the main channel at a fixed distance ($x = 21$ mm) from the Y-junction at each flow rate. Concentration curves were fitted to the experimental data, and the value of κ , which would theoretically result in the experimentally measured concentration distribution, was determined. In contrast to the rigid case [18] where κ depended only on the flow rate, here it was a function of both flow rate and channel cross-sectional area. Using equation (4), \bar{u} was calculated from the volumetric flow rate. The width of the main channel was $500 \mu\text{m}$ and the diffusivity was $\alpha = 6.5 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ as measured previously [18]. Using the calculated \bar{u} and α , Re and Pe were determined. The values of the calculated parameters are listed in table 1 for three representative flow rates. The experimental and theoretical concentration distributions are shown in figure 3.

Transport parameters (Re , Pe), as well as experimentally determined and theoretically matched concentration distributions, were used for numerical simulations of convective/diffusive transport in the microchannel array section. The concentration distributions at the microchannel exits were calculated from the numerical solution of the incompressible Navier–Stokes and species transport equations using a spectral element algorithm [21]. Details of the computational algorithm, boundary conditions and grid independence studies are presented in [22].

3. Experimental details

3.1. Device fabrication

Standard $50 \text{ mm} \times 75 \text{ mm}$ soda-lime microscope slides were spin coated with Microposit S1813 photoresist (Shipley, Marlborough, MA) to a thickness of $6 \mu\text{m}$ and baked in a convection oven at 90°C for 1 h. The photomask was produced by reducing a negative image printed from a 1200 dpi laser printer onto Kodak technical pan photographic film (which ultimately served as the contact photomask) using a Pentax K1000 camera fitted with an SMC Pentax-A 1:2.50 mm lens. Samples were exposed using a Quintel 6000 mask aligner and developed in a 1:1 solution of Microposit developer concentrate (Microchem) and DI water. Glass barriers were glued around the photopattern and degassed PDMS was poured

and cured in a convection oven at 70°C for at least 3 h. Molds were peeled away and a piece of PDMS was sliced off to open the microchannel outlets. Using a hollow flat-tipped syringe needle, holes were reamed to form the two inlets to the device. The PDMS mold and a clean $25 \text{ mm} \times 50 \text{ mm}$ microscope cover slide were simultaneously placed in a plasma cleaner and oxidized for 20 s. The two pieces were brought immediately into contact to form an irreversible bond. Water was injected as quickly as possible into an inlet port of the nascent device to hydrate the channel. This insured that the main channel did not collapse and bond with the surface during subsequent use.

3.2. Epifluorescence microscopy flow rate experiments

Fluorescence data were acquired with a Nikon E800 microscope using a Pentamax CCD camera (Princeton Instruments). The PDMS/glass device was attached to the microscope stage and two Teflon lines were inserted into the inlet ports. A modified syringe pump (Harvard Apparatus, Holliston, MA) fitted with two Hamilton $100 \mu\text{l}$ syringes, where one syringe was filled with buffer solution and the other with buffer solution plus Alexa 594 dye, pumped the fluid. Data were acquired using Metamorph (Metamorph 5.0r1, Universal Imaging Corp.) software and normalized in Sigmaplot.

4. Results and discussion

Since the bulging of the PDMS channels changed the pathlength through the dye solution, it was possible to directly determine the channel height as a function of flow rate with a constant concentration of solution. This was achieved by infusing identical concentrations of fluorophore into both inlets to the main channel. Figure 2(b) shows the fluorescence profile taken across the main and microchannels at various flow rates. The fluorescence intensity observed was approximately twice as high in the main channel at 1500 nl min^{-1} as at 15 nl min^{-1} despite the fact that the dye concentration remained the same everywhere in the fluid. This was a direct indication of the path length increase and, hence, channel bulging. Note that the effect of flow rate on bulging is much stronger for the main channel than the microchannels. This was due to the fact that the microchannels taken in aggregate have a greater cross-sectional area than the main channel and, therefore, the pressure was lower. Due to the constant drop in pressure as the fluid moves downstream, the force ‘inflating’ the microchannels is also lower than that of the main channel. Furthermore, the aspect ratio of the microchannels is significantly lower, thereby enhancing the mechanical rigidity of microchannels.

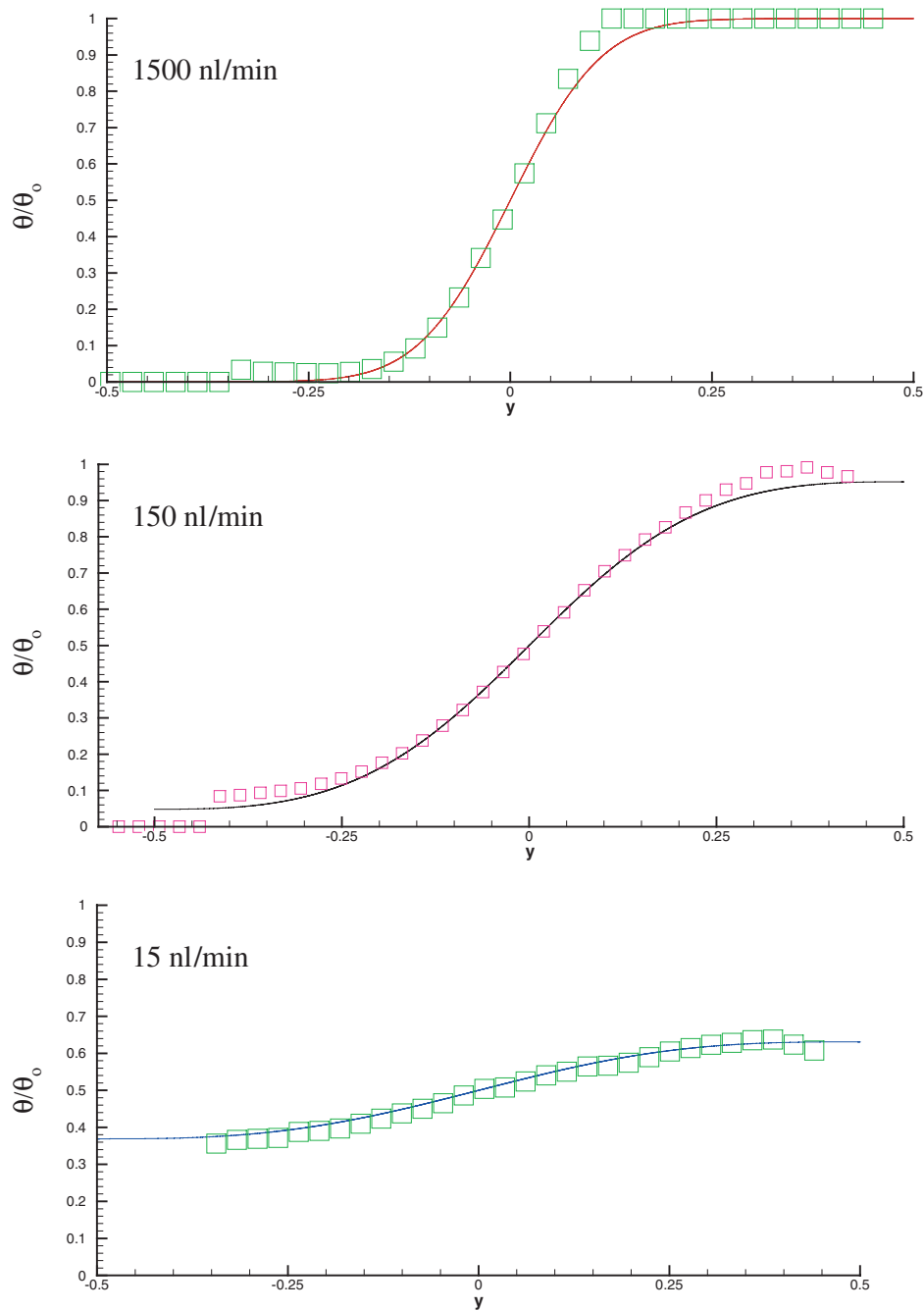


Figure 3. Normalized experimental (squares) and theoretically fitted (lines) concentration values in the main channel just before the inlet to the microchannels at various flow rates. From top to bottom flow rates were 1500, 150 and 15 nl per min.

For each flow rate, numerical simulations were performed. The concentration distribution for the 1500, 150 and 15 nl min^{-1} flow rates, as obtained both experimentally and numerically, is shown in figure 4. At 1500 nl min^{-1} , the first two microchannels had a concentration value of $\Theta = 0$. However, the last three microchannels had values around $\Theta = 1$. This demonstrates that the concentration values were not symmetric about the center microchannel, even though it was symmetric in the main channel. The asymmetry arose from the difference in convective paths of fluid particles traveling from the main channel toward the first and the last microchannels, respectively. This difference has

been described previously [18]. Overall, the numerical results matched experimental results very well for all three cases.

By updating the current theory to account for channel bulging, we have demonstrated the ability to predict convective/diffusive transport in pressure-driven PDMS microchannels. This was made possible by folding a simple experimental step into the overall CFD process. Just as fluorescence intensities can be normalized by a one-point calibration, so too can microchannel behavior in flexible systems be characterized by a ‘one-point’ process via κ determination. By determining κ , the remaining fluid dynamic parameters can be calculated quickly.

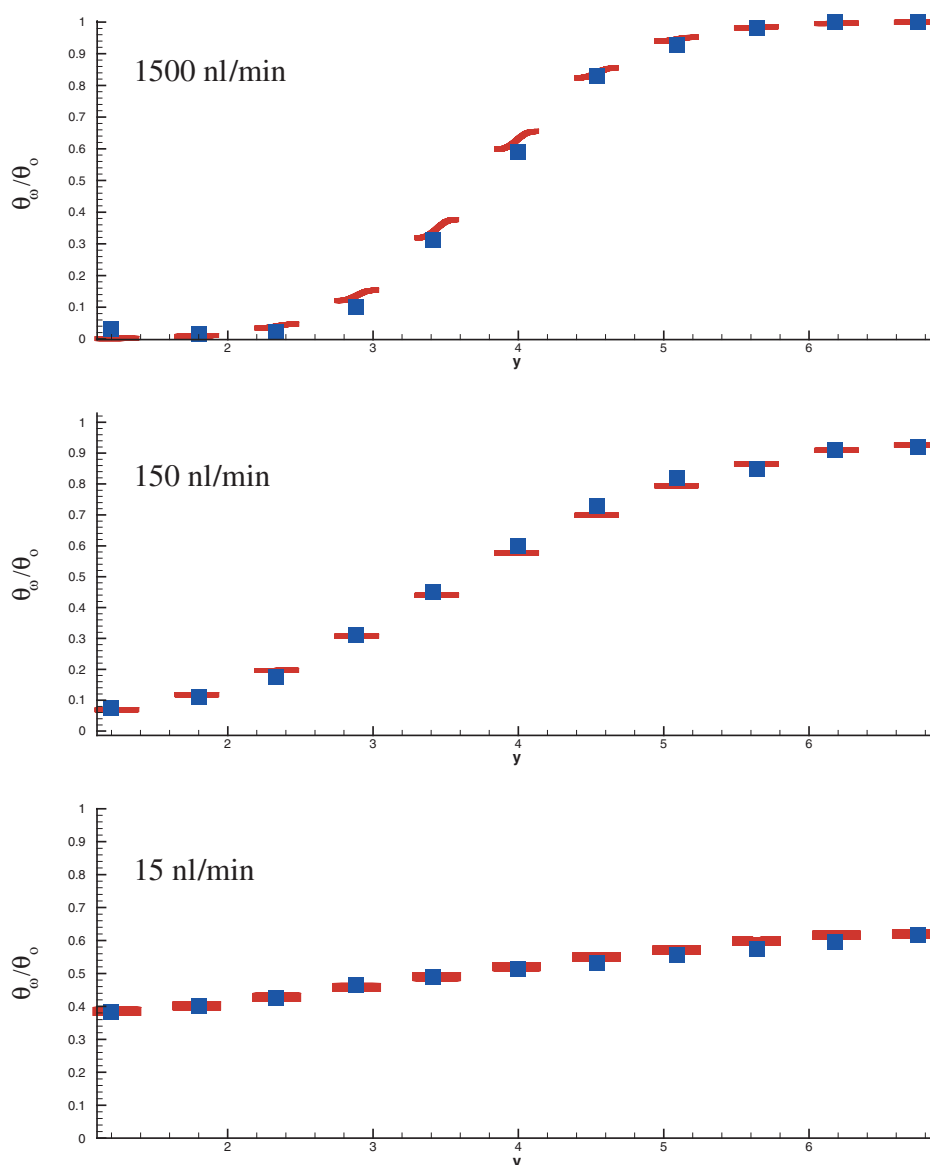


Figure 4. Normalized experimental (squares) and computationally predicted (lines) concentration values in the microchannels at various flow rates. From top to bottom flow rates were 1500, 150 and 15 nl per min.

5. Conclusions

We have build a microfluidic diffusion diluter using PDMS and performed experiments for various flow rates over two orders of magnitude. The PDMS device bulged when the flow rate was high and relaxed when it was low. The change in cross-sectional area of the device was determined experimentally and accounted for theoretically to obtain concentration gradients as a function of flow rate. This was accomplished by experimentally determining the parameter, κ , to calibrate CFD simulations.

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