

Fig. 4 – The sequences of the reagents for protein assay by the SI system. Buffer: 500 μ L of 0.5 M acetate buffer at pH 3.2, TX-100(A) and TX-100(B): 50 and 25 μ L of 0.1% TX-100, respectively, TBPE(A) and TBPE(B): 50 and 25 μ L of 1×10^{-4} M TBPE, respectively, HSA: 20 μ L of human serum albumin standard solution.

The maximum absorption wavelength of the red color product was at 520 nm.

3.2. Peak profiles

According to the two detecting steps in the successive determination of protein and glucose, first, the protein-TBPE associate was formed and monitored at 607 nm (Fig. 3A). Then in the steps for glucose determination, the oxidized form of *p*-anisidine was monitored at 520 nm (Fig. 3B). The detection steps for protein and glucose can be performed independently with the ability of the spectrometer to measure absorbances of the monitored products simultaneously, even in two different wavelengths.

3.3. Variables in the determination of protein

3.3.1. Aspiration sequence

The aspiration sequence of reagents into the SI system is important for mixing and consequent reaction steps. Four different aspiration sequences of reagents (types A, B, C and D) were tried, as illustrated in Fig. 4. Experiments using HSA (0–8 mg dL⁻¹), 20 μ L; 1×10^{-4} M TBPE, 50 μ L; 0.1% TX-100, 50 μ L and the buffer solution (pH 3.2) were performed. Type B sequence was selected as it yielded small standard deviation, reproducibility and a good linear calibration graph.

3.3.2. Effect of TBPE concentration

The effect of TBPE concentration was examined in a range of 8×10^{-5} M to 1.5×10^{-4} M. It was found that the slope of the calibration graph was practically constant for TBPE concentrations in a range of 1×10^{-4} to 1.5×10^{-4} M. The slope was found to be less when TBPE concentration was less than 1×10^{-4} M. TBPE of 1×10^{-4} M was selected for further study.

3.3.3. Effect of Triton X-100 concentration

The effect of TX-100 concentration (0.05–0.13%, w/v) on the sensitivity of the system for the protein determination was studied. A concentration of 0.09% (w/v) was suitable for the detection.

3.3.4. Effect of pH of buffer

In this study, pH of the 0.5 M of acetate buffer was optimized for protein detection. The effect of pH in the range of 2.7–4.8 on the 5 mg dL⁻¹ HSA is presented in Fig. 5. Signals increased slightly when pH of the buffer increased. However, the blank signals also increased when pH increased. The net signals (subtraction for blank) were considered. It can be seen that the net signals become constant starting from pH 3.2. Therefore, the suitable pH for protein-detected reaction should be 3.2.

3.3.5. Flow reversal

For the protein determination, there are two steps employing flow reversal, one before and one after protein solution was

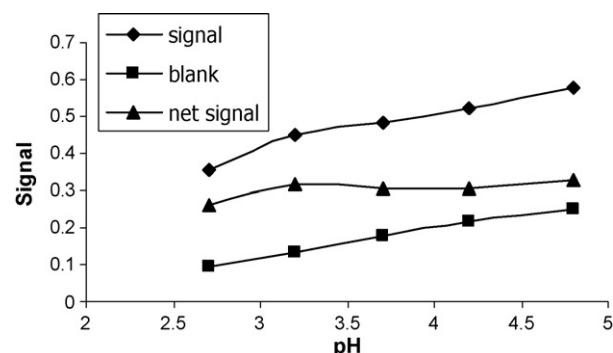


Fig. 5 – Effect of pH of 0.5 M acetate buffer on protein determination, 5 mg dL⁻¹ HSA 20 μ L, (■) blank signal, (◆) 5 mg dL⁻¹ HSA, (▲) net signal, other conditions as in Fig. 1.

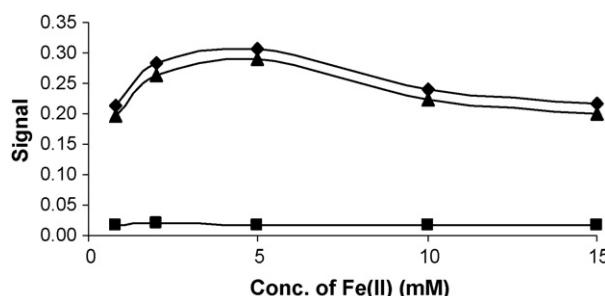


Fig. 6 – Effect of iron(II) concentration on glucose assay. 80 μL of 8×10^{-4} M H_2O_2 and 100 μL of iron(II) at various concentration. (■) Blank signal, (♦) 8×10^{-4} M H_2O_2 , (▲) net signal. Other condition as in Fig. 1.

aspirated into the system. It was found that flow reversal for both the steps did not enhance signals. So, only one direction of flow should be implemented.

3.4. Variables on the determination of glucose

3.4.1. Effect of iron(II) concentration

Iron(II) solution was used as a catalytic reagent for the oxidative reaction of *p*-anisidine and hydrogen peroxide. The effect of concentration of iron(II) (8×10^{-4} M to 1.5×10^{-2} M) was studied. The results in Fig. 6 indicate that 5×10^{-3} M iron(II) should be chosen.

3.4.2. Effect of *p*-anisidine concentration

The effect of concentration of *p*-anisidine (0.02–0.15 M) was studied. The absorbance increased with increasing concentration of *p*-anisidine until 0.1 M and became constant over 0.1 M. Therefore, a 0.1 M of *p*-anisidine was selected.

3.4.3. Effect of pH of buffer solution

The effect of pH on the formation of colored product was investigated in the range pH 4.0–5.7 using 0.5 M acetate buffer. It was found that the slope of calibration obtained by using buffer of pH 4.5 was the highest. Hence, pH 4.5 was chosen.

Table 2 – The recoveries of successive determination of 3 mg dL⁻¹ HSA and 5.4 mg dL⁻¹ glucose in a real sample urine using various dilution factors.

Dilution factor	%Recovery	
	Protein	Glucose
10	89	52
20	100	55
30	97	74
50	98	90
60	101	100

3.4.4. Standard/sample volume

Sample volume loaded into the enzymatic column was studied over the range of 40–320 μL . The peak height for glucose increased with increasing sample volume up to 280 μL . The peak height became constant for a volume of 280 μL or over. Therefore, a sample volume of 280 μL was selected.

3.5. Analytical characteristics

Calibration graphs for protein and glucose were established under the proposed conditions: $[\text{peak area}] = 0.747 [\text{mg dL}^{-1} \text{HSA}] + 0.673$, $r^2 = 0.999$ for 0–10 mg dL⁻¹ HSA with LOD (3σ) of 0.3 mg dL⁻¹ and R.S.D.s ($n = 11$) were 2.7% and 2.5% for 1 and 5 mg dL⁻¹ HSA, respectively; and $[\text{peak height}] = 0.0106 [\text{mg dL}^{-1} \text{glucose}] + 0.0275$, $r^2 = 0.998$ for 0–12.5 mg dL⁻¹ glucose with LOD (3σ) of 0.08 mg dL⁻¹ and R.S.D. of 1.4% (9 mg dL⁻¹ glucose; $n = 11$). The sample throughput was six samples h^{-1} for successive analyses.

3.6. Interference study

For the determination of protein and glucose, various amounts of foreign compounds were added and their interference was examined. Sodium chloride, creatinine and urea were considered as they are commonly coexisting in urine. The average concentration levels of Na^+ , Cl^- , creatinine and urea in an ordinary person's urine were reported to be 294 mg dL⁻¹ (128 mEq L⁻¹), 478 mg dL⁻¹ (134 mEq L⁻¹), 196 mg dL⁻¹ and 1820 mg dL⁻¹, respectively, although the values may be differ-

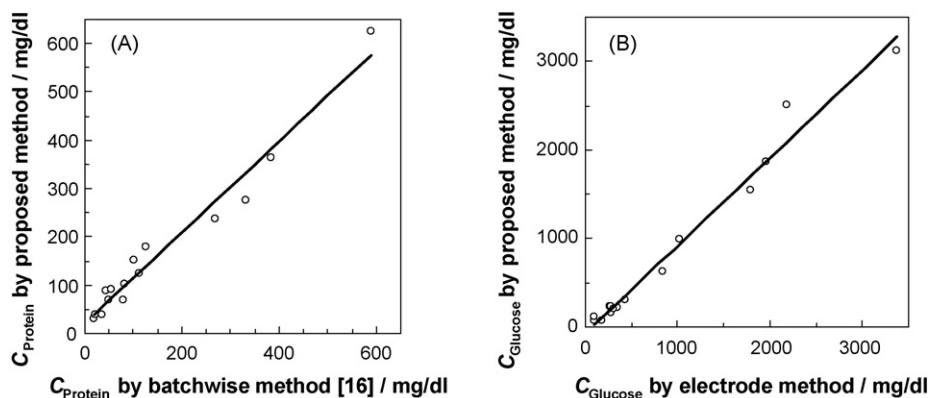


Fig. 7 – Correlations between the results obtained by the proposed method and other methods (see the text) for the determinations of (A) urinary protein and (B) glucose. (A) $y = 0.942x + 20.6$, $r^2 = 0.967$ ($n = 15$); (B) $y = 0.991x - 74.3$, $r^2 = 0.980$ ($n = 15$).

ent from person to person and/or condition to condition [26]. Sodium chloride and creatinine did not interfere in the protein determination up to 75 mg dL^{-1} (29 mg dL^{-1} for Na^+ and 46 mg dL^{-1} for Cl^-) and 100 mg dL^{-1} , respectively, when defining as a maximum concentration of foreign species that causes a deviation of less than $\pm 5\%$. Urea up to 1820 mg dL^{-1} did not interfere. For enzymatic glucose determination, uric acid and ascorbic acid were reported to compete with a reduced chromogen as hydrogen donors [27,28]. Uric acid and ascorbic acid are usually found to be about 42 mg dL^{-1} ($2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M}$) and 3.7 mg dL^{-1} ($2.1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ M}$) in normal urine. It was found that uric acid up to 2 mg dL^{-1} ($1.2 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M}$) and ascorbic acid up to 0.25 mg dL^{-1} ($1.4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ M}$) did not interfere for the determination of 9 mg dL^{-1} glucose. In order to overcome the possible interferences discussed above, dilution of urine sample should be made so that the concentration of interfering species would become lower than their limits that would interfere.

A urine sample containing 3 mg dL^{-1} HSA and 5.4 mg dL^{-1} glucose with various dilution factors was studied for recovery to verify the approach. The results (Table 2) indicate that dilution of at least 60 folds would overcome the possible interference from the species. The R.S.D.s of this manipulation were higher than that of the standard solutions of the same concentrations without dilution.

3.7. Applications to real samples

The proposed SI method was applied to determine successively protein and glucose in 15 urine samples taken from diabetic disease patients in a group of different ages. The samples were filtered by filter paper (Whatman#1) and were diluted at least 60-fold with water before aspirating directly into the proposed SI system. Concentrations of protein and glucose were evaluated from the calibration equations. The results are shown in Fig. 7. The protein contents obtained by the proposed SI method agree with those by the batch-wise method [16] with correlation of $y = 0.942x + 20.6$, $r^2 = 0.967$. The correlation of glucose concentration obtained by the proposed SI method and that of a routine assay using a commercial Glucoroder GXR with an oxygen electrode (A&T Co., Yokohama) was: $y = 0.991x - 74.3$, $r^2 = 0.980$. The experimental t-values between the two couples of methods were 0.291 for protein and 1.77 for glucose. These t-values were less than the t-value (2.145) for 14 degrees of freedom at the 95% confidence level.

For medical checkup, protein is generally assayed in the range from 15 to 1000 mg dL^{-1} while the range for glucose is from 50 to 2000 mg dL^{-1} . Healthy subjects give concentration levels of protein and glucose less than 15 and 50 mg dL^{-1} , respectively. The proposed method would be employed for the assays of protein and glucose with suitable dilution.

4. Conclusions

A new automatic sequential injection system with spectrophotometric detection for successive determination of protein ($0\text{--}10 \text{ mg dL}^{-1}$) and glucose ($0\text{--}12.5 \text{ mg dL}^{-1}$) was devel-

oped. The protein assay is based on ion-associate formation with TBPEH, while the glucose assay is based on the detection of hydrogen hydroxide produced from glucose oxidase, using *p*-anisidine with iron-catalyst. With automation using SI, protein assay can be performed during the glucose oxidation incubation period. The developed system has been demonstrated for the assay of protein and glucose in diabetic patient urine samples with good agreement with the other methods. This new automated SI system should be an alternative for clinical routine assay for diabetic disease screening.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at [doi:10.1016/j.aca.2007.10.010](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aca.2007.10.010).

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Illustrating Some Principles of Separation Science through Gravitational Field-Flow Fractionation

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Field-flow fractionation (FFF) is an elution-based separation method analogous in many ways to liquid chromatography. The FFF concept was proposed in 1966 by the late J. Calvin Giddings (1) and the principles were outlined in an article in this *Journal* in 1973 (2). FFF has been extensively used for separating and sizing particles and macromolecules (3–7) and has been applied to characterize a wide variety of samples including polymers (8), soils (9), river suspended matter (10), bacteria (11), starch (12), proteins (13), blood (14), and milk (15). One significant application for FFF is to determine the size-based element speciation of particulate samples (16–21). This involves determining the element concentration distribution across the size range of the particles.

FFF is an emerging analytical technique as evidenced by the fact that recently about 50–60 articles have been published each year in the scientific journals. There have also been several detailed reviews written on FFF aimed at researchers and there have been two books on the subject, the most recent being the *Handbook of FFF* (22). However, since Giddings's article in this *Journal* in 1973 (2) there have been no articles specifically aimed at educators. There are also few textbooks that mention the technique, notable exceptions being Hunter's *Introduction to Modern Colloid Science* (23) and the text *Fundamentals of Analytical Chemistry* by Skoog, et al. (24).

FFF separations are based on a combination of physical principles involving the force induced on particles by an applied field or gradient and hydrodynamic laminar flow in a thin unpacked channel. Different fields and gradients can be employed in FFF such as centrifugal, electrical, magnetic, fluid crossflow, thermal gradient, and acoustic standing waves. In addition back diffusion away from the accumulation wall in response to the concentration gradient may also be important. In the theory and experiments described in this article the earth's gravitational field will be utilized and the particles will be too large for concentration diffusion, which causes particle transport along a concentration gradient by Brownian motion, to be significant.

Commercial FFF equipment is available but, like HPLC and GLC, it is relatively expensive (25, 26). In this article we outline the construction of a simple gravitational FFF

(GrFFF) system that can be made for a few hundred dollars. Many of the parts and components required are similar to those utilized for simple cost effective flow injection analysis experiments (27). Thus it is possible to introduce this new technique fairly simply and inexpensively. There is a disadvantage: this simple apparatus is only applicable for a limited particle diameter range of about 1–50 μm .

A major objective of the theory and laboratory exercises described in this article is to illustrate some general concepts of physical chemistry and separation science through gravitational field-flow fractionation. A secondary objective is to introduce the emerging technique of FFF to the undergraduate curriculum. The article outlines material suitable for presenting in the classroom and suggests laboratory exercises that can be given as a standard practical exercise or an expanded project. A tested undergraduate experiment along with an instructor's manual are available in the Supplemental Material.^W

The FFF Separation Principle

FFF Instrument

The architecture of an FFF instrument is similar to liquid chromatography (LC) with the essential components being a pump, sample injection port, FFF separation channel, detector, and chart recorder or computer (Figure 1). The difference between FFF and LC is the mechanism of separation occurring in the channel. In most forms of LC differential migration of sample components is caused by chemical interaction with a stationary phase. Exceptions include size-exclusion chromatography (SEC) and hydrodynamic chromatography (HDC). In this respect FFF is more similar to SEC and HDC as selective migration in the channel is purely due to physical effects.

FFF Channel

The FFF channel is a thin open (i.e., unpacked) rectangular ribbon with triangular inlet and outlet end pieces as illustrated in Figure 2D. Typical dimensions are 20–50 cm \times 1–2 cm \times 0.1–0.5 mm. The method of construction is illustrated in Figure 2A–C and is described in the section on GrFFF instrumentation below.

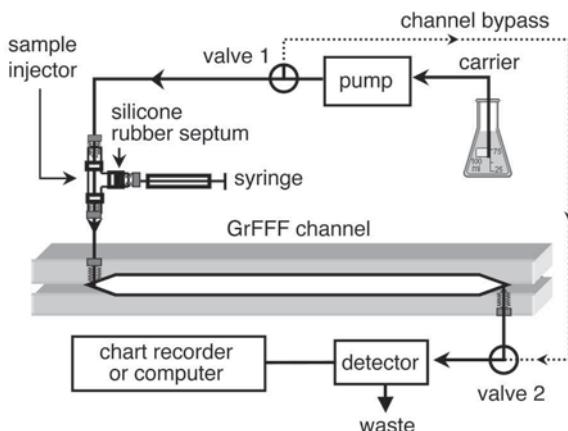


Figure 1. Schematic diagram of a GrFFF system showing the channel and the auxiliary equipment. Arrows indicate the flow directions in different positions.

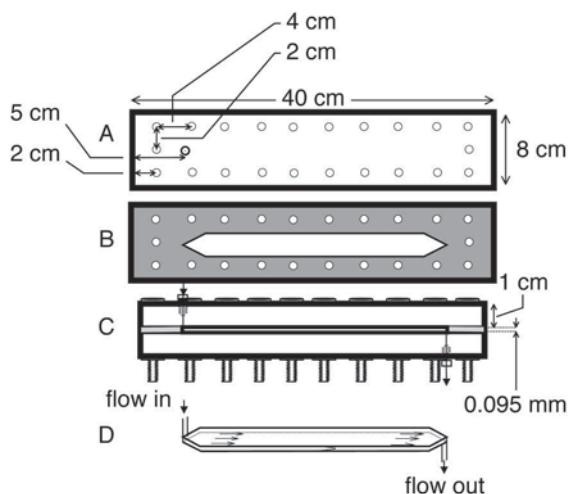


Figure 2. Construction of a gravitational FFF channel (A) lucite blocks, (B) plastic spacer sheet, (C) assembled channel, and (D) schematic representation of the flow channel

Field Relaxation of the Sample

After injection of a sample suspension at one end of the channel the flow is usually turned off while the field is on. This allows the field to force the sample particles across the channel to the accumulation wall in a process referred to as sample relaxation (Figure 3). It may take only a few seconds or much longer (up to 1 hour) depending on the field strength and its interaction with the particles through the appropriate properties of the particles. For larger particles the relaxation time may be small compared to the sample run time and the relaxation step may be omitted from the experimental procedure.

Sample Relaxation Time

The relaxation time (t_{relax}) must be sufficient for the smallest particles in the sample starting at the top wall to settle to the bottom wall (i.e., a distance equivalent to the

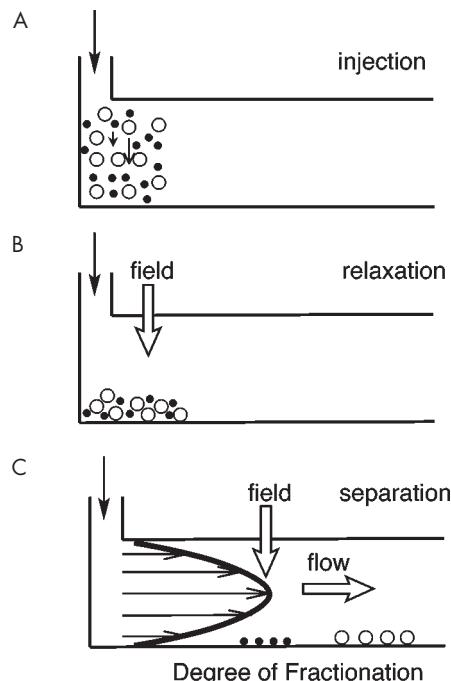


Figure 3. Cross-section view of the inlet end of the GrFFF separation channel showing the steps involved (A-C) in the separation mechanism.

channel thickness). By transposing the Stokes settling velocity equation for a gravitational field we obtain

$$t_{\text{relax}} = Uw = \frac{18\eta w}{g\Delta\rho d^2} \quad (1)$$

where U is the settling speed, w is the channel thickness, η is the viscosity of fluid, g is the gravitational acceleration constant, $\Delta\rho$ is the density difference between the particle and the fluid, and d is the equivalent spherical particle diameter.

Laminar Fluid Flow in the FFF Channel

Following the relaxation period the carrier flow is initiated. Owing to the thin channel, non-turbulent laminar flow results and the velocity profile is parabolic across the channel, which is shown in Figure 3C. The fluid has maximum velocity at the center of the channel and is essentially zero at each wall. The fluid velocity profile is given by the quadratic equation

$$v(x) = 6\langle v \rangle \left(\frac{x}{w} - \frac{x^2}{w^2} \right) \quad (2)$$

where $v(x)$ is the velocity at distance x from the lower accumulation wall and $\langle v \rangle$ is the mean velocity of the fluid.

For the region very close to the channel wall the second term can be neglected (i.e., $(x/w)^2 \ll (x/w)$), thus for $x \ll w$ equation 2 becomes

$$v(x) \approx \frac{6\langle v \rangle x}{w} \quad (3)$$

It can be shown that for flow in a thin rectangular channel

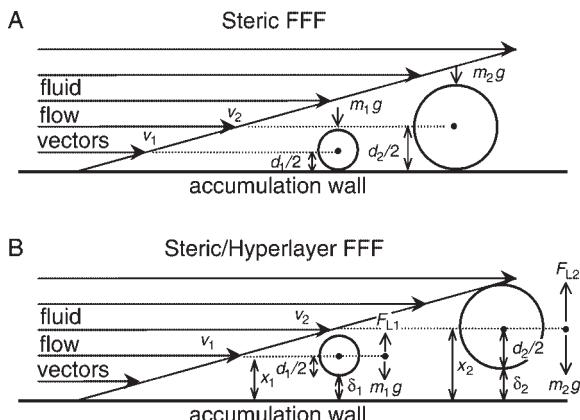


Figure 4. Two different modes of separation mechanism in GrFFF: (A) hypothetical steric FFF mechanism and (B) actual steric/hyperlayer on lift mode of FFF.

that the mean linear velocity is $\langle v \rangle$ related to the volumetric flow rate \dot{V} and channel dimensions by,

$$\langle v \rangle = \frac{\dot{V}}{bw} \quad (4)$$

where b is the channel breadth and bw is thus the cross sectional area. (Note in SI units \dot{V} should be expressed in $\text{m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$ but it is more common to record it as mL min^{-1} . If we use units of cm and mL min^{-1} then the linear velocity will be expressed in cm s^{-1} .)

Steric FFF Separations

After relaxation the particles are pushed close to the accumulation wall as shown in Figure 3B. For particles in the micrometer size range, back diffusion effects can be ignored. A simplified model for the separation of particles according to size is illustrated in Figure 4A. As an approximation the particles can be imagined to be pushed along by the fluid velocity vector acting at its center (i.e., at a distance $d/2$ above the accumulation wall). Thus from eq 2 this velocity will be

$$v_r = 6\langle v \rangle \left(\frac{d}{2w} - \frac{d^2}{4w^2} \right) \quad (5)$$

or using eq 3, then

$$v_r \approx \frac{3\langle v \rangle d}{w} \quad (6)$$

This indicates that the retention volume or time required for a given component to elute should decrease as the particle size increases (Figure 4A).

Unfortunately this simple model is not accurate owing to a number of additional effects not taken into account. These perturbing influences include wall attractive and repulsive forces, near wall viscous drag, and hydrodynamic lift forces (28–30). This can be accounted for empirically by including a correction factor γ yielding

$$v_r = \frac{3\langle v \rangle \gamma d}{w} \quad (7)$$

Processes pushing the particles away from the wall result in faster elution and $\gamma > 1$, whereas attractive wall forces and additional drag slows the particle migration along the channel and will result in $\gamma < 1$.

Hydrodynamic Lift Forces

When particles in the close vicinity of the accumulation wall are pushed along the channel by the fluid flow they experience an upward lift force owing to the increased pressure in the liquid film between the particle and the wall. This hydrodynamic lift force has been discussed in more detail by Williams et al. (29, 30) and interested students could be referred to this more advanced treatment. The lift force (F_L) decreases as the distance between the particle and the wall increases (30). At equilibrium the particles are elevated a distance δ above the wall, where the gravitational force (mg) is balanced by the lift force (F_L) as illustrated in Figure 4B.

Steric-Hyperlayer or Lift Mode of FFF

The separation mechanism depicted in Figure 4B is referred to as the steric-hyperlayer or lift mode of FFF. The particles are forced into equilibrium hyperlayers and are swept down the channel by the corresponding fluid flow vectors.

As the channel flow increases, the particles become more elevated because the magnitude of the lift force increases. As discussed above the particle velocity, and hence the retention time and volume, will depend on the distance of the particle center above the wall, which for particles in these hyperlayers will be at position x_{eq} given by

$$x_{eq} = \delta + \frac{d}{2} \quad (8)$$

where δ is the distance of closest approach between the particle surface and the accumulation wall. Thus the retention volume of a given particle is not constant but decreases with increasing flow rate. The exact relationship involves the complex hydrodynamic lift force. Consequently eqs 5 or 6 cannot be used for quantitative determination of particle diameter from the measured peak position and calibration with size standards of the same particle density is required at each flow rate as will be discussed later.

Retention Ratio

As with chromatography, retention of a sample is usually expressed in terms of the dimensionless retention ratio, R ,

$$R = \frac{v_r}{\langle v \rangle} = \frac{t^\circ}{t_r} = \frac{V^\circ}{V_r} \quad (9)$$

where v_r is the migration velocity of a retained sample component, t° is the void time or elution time for an unretained component, V° is the void volume or channel volume, t_r is the retention time for a sample component, and V_r is the retention volume for sample. From eq 7,

$$R = \frac{3\gamma d}{w} \quad (10)$$

However, as indicated above, γ is an empirical factor that incorporates several phenomena.

Particle Elevation Parameters x_{eq} and δ

Transposing the approximate expression for $v(x)$ (eq 3) and substituting eq 9, the elevation of the particle center above the wall is

$$x_{\text{eq}} = \frac{wv(x)}{6\langle v \rangle} = \frac{wR}{6} \quad (11)$$

Note that when dealing with particle migration if we ignore fluid slip effects, the fluid velocity $v(x)$ in eq 3 becomes approximately the particle velocity (v_p). Thus the measured retention ratio can be used to estimate approximate value of x_{eq} from eq 11 and if the particle diameter is known, δ is obtained through eq 8.

This simplified theory will not apply when the particles are forced very close to the channel wall as attractive and repulsive interactions can influence the exact position of the hyperlayer. In addition near wall viscous drag effects can cause fluid slip and retard the particle motion along the channel resulting in longer elution times than predicted by these approximate equations. In this case even negative values of δ can be obtained, which is obviously an unrealistic result.

Gravitational FFF Instrumentation

A brief summary is given here and details can be found in the Supplemental Material.¹¹

Channel Construction

Two 1 cm thick lucite blocks (approximate size 40×8 cm) are cut and two holes were drilled and tapped to take a standard flange-free nut for connecting 1/16 inch o.d. polymeric tubing to the inlet and outlet of the channel. A thin plastic sheet is cut as shown in Figure 2B ($\approx 0.1\text{--}0.5$ mm thick) and clamped between the two lucite blocks to the channel. An overhead transparency sheet is suitable and generally thinner channels result in better resolution. For the channel used to obtain the results given here $w = 0.095$ mm and $V^o = 0.57$ mL.

Ancillary Equipment

HPLC pumps and UV-vis detectors are ideal for FFF although cheaper options are available (31). Simple septum injector systems can be used in place of more expensive LC injection valves (27, 32). Data capture is achieved with a chart recorder or a computer.

Samples

Various particle samples are suitable for GrFFF experiments for student exercises. Perhaps the best are monodisperse silica obtained from used HPLC columns. Other samples used in this article are polydisperse silica and silica gel, which can be fractionated into desired size ranges by gravitational settling (detailed methods are in the Supplemental Material¹¹).

In the experiments described in this article, normal phase monodisperse chromatographic silica was obtained from used HPLC columns (CN packing from Partisphere RTF Columns, Whatman, United Kingdom). The 5 μm particles were

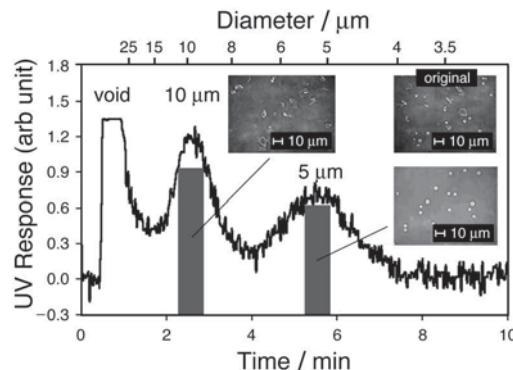


Figure 5. GrFFF fractogram of a mixture of 5 μm and 10 μm silica particles and the optical microscope pictures of the original mixture and fractions collected from the shaded regions at the two peak maxima. The flow rate was 1.0 mL min^{-1} .

spherical and the 10 μm particles had somewhat irregular shapes. A particle suspension was prepared in deionized water at a concentration of about 2 mg mL^{-1} .

Polydisperse silica and silica gel 60G (5–40 μm) for thin layer chromatography from Merck, (Germany) was also used as a sample. The particles were irregular in shape and samples were prepared with size ranges of <10 μm and 10–20 μm using repeated gravitational settling.

Suggested Gravitational FFF Experiments

GrFFF Fractograms

The GrFFF fractogram is a plot of the detector response versus elution time and is obtained by using a chart recorder or digitized signal using a computer interface. However, it is often advantageous to convert the x axis to elution volume using the volumetric flow rate, as this compensates for changes in flow rate in different GrFFF runs.

$$V_r = \dot{V} t_r \quad (12)$$

An example of such a fractogram for a mixture of the 5 μm and 10 μm monodisperse silica samples is given in Figure 5. The first peak eluted is a void peak owing to dissolved material or unretained particles that may be either too small to be settled by the gravitational field or so large that retention is negligible. The subsequent retained peaks are due to the sample particles. The mean retention can be characterized by the position of the peak maximum signified by t_r and V_r for elution time and volume measurements, respectively.

GrFFF Retention Order

GrFFF operates in the steric-hyperlayer or lift mode of FFF, where larger particles elute before smaller ones. For the mixture of monodisperse silica samples shown in Figure 5 and Figure 10, the 10 μm beads elute before the 5 μm particles. Note that the elution times are different owing to the different flow rates used in the two different runs. For a polydisperse sample such as those shown in Figure 6 and Figure 7A the particle size will also decrease with increasing V_r .

This elution order can be demonstrated with monodisperse samples by injecting different size particles in individual

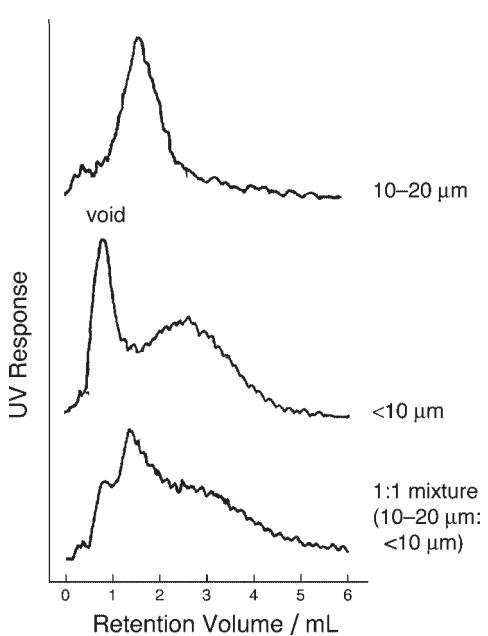


Figure 6. GrFFF fractograms of silica samples with size ranges of $10\text{--}20\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ and $<10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, and a 1:1 mixture of $10\text{--}20\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ and $<10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ particles. The carrier was deionized water, flow rate 2.0 mL min^{-1} and relaxation time was 30 s.

runs. Alternatively mixtures of several monodisperse samples or broad polydisperse samples can be separated and fractions at appropriate elution times can be collected and the particles observed with an optical microscope as illustrated by the photos in Figure 5.

Effect of Relaxation Time

Runs on the $10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ monodisperse silica were performed at a flow rate of 1.5 mL min^{-1} with relaxation times of 30, 60, and 90 s. The fractograms are not shown but the relaxation time appeared to have a negligible effect on the fractogram shape or the peak maximum retention volume. Since the calculated relaxation time is only 11 s (see eq 1) effective settling occurs early in the sample migration and the stop-flow relaxation procedure could be safely eliminated with this sample.

The above conclusion may not be valid for smaller particles. This could be investigated by varying the relaxation time for a range of silica samples ($<10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$). Inadequate relaxation is indicated by a shift to lower retention volume and eventually merging of the sample peak with the void peak as the relaxation time is reduced. This effect can be seen in the set of fractograms for the $<10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ silica gel shown in Figure 7A. Obviously 30 s is not enough relaxation time for the smallest particles in the sample causing a loss of resolution from the void and a slight shift in the peak maximum. The plot of peak retention volume versus t_r shown in Figure 7B indicates that a relaxation time of at least 90 s is required for this sample.

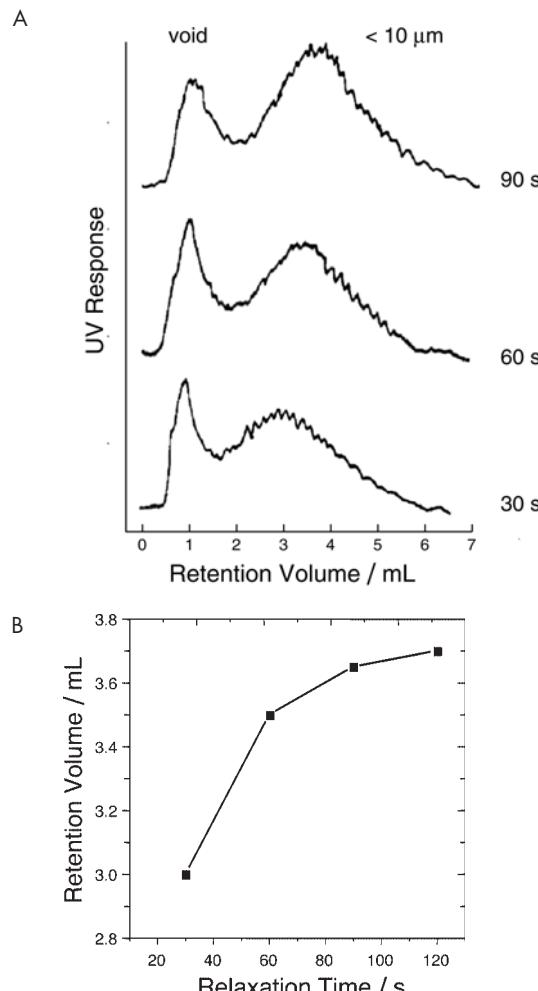


Figure 7. (A) The GrFFF fractograms of silica gel $<10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ with different relaxation times. The carrier was deionized water and the flow rate 1.0 mL min^{-1} . (B) Plot of retention volume versus relaxation time for the $<10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ silica gel.

Effect of Flow Rate

Figure 8 gives the fractograms of the $10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ silica at flow rates of 0.20 , 0.60 , and 1.00 mL min^{-1} . Naturally a higher flow rate results in a lower retention time. More significantly the peak maximum is shifted to a lower retention volume (1.7 mL compared to 2.3 mL for 1.00 and 0.20 mL min^{-1} , respectively). This demonstrates that the lift forces are stronger at higher flow rates, which elevates the particles further away from the accumulation wall and into the higher velocity flow streams.

A series of runs were performed on the $5\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ and $10\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ silica samples. The retention volumes and retention ratios at the peak maximum are plotted as a function of flow rate in Figure 9. Again the peaks shift to lower elution volume and higher retention ratios as the flow rate increases owing to the increased lift force as explained above.

Calculation of Plate Height and Resolution

Separation efficiency in FFF is monitored using the plate height, as in chromatography. The plate height (H) is a mea-

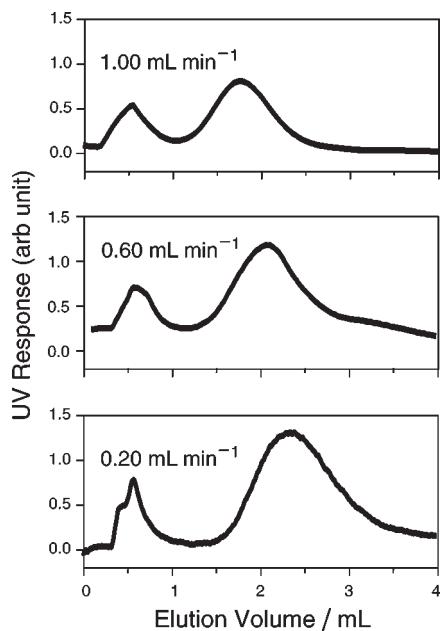


Figure 8. GrFFF fractograms of the 10 μm chromatographic silica particles at different flow rates.

sure of how narrow the peak is maintained during elution and can be calculated by the expression

$$H = \frac{L W^2}{16 t_r^2} = \frac{L W_{1/2}^2}{5.545 t_r^2} \quad (13)$$

where L is the channel length, t_r the peak maximum retention time, and W the width of the peak at the baseline (also estimated as twice the width at half the peak height, $W_{1/2}$).

The plate height is determined by a number of factors as summarized in the van Deemter equation:

$$H = \frac{A}{\langle v \rangle} + B\langle v \rangle + H_l + H_p \quad (14)$$

The first term results from longitudinal diffusion, which will be negligible for micrometer-size particles. The second term is due to nonequilibrium effects and the third term (H_l) is caused by instrumental peak broadening. The last term (H_p) is related to the sample polydispersity. If a graph of H versus flow rate is plotted and extrapolated to zero flow rate the influence of the latter two quantities can be obtained.

The resolution of two sample peaks is estimated from the expression

$$R_s = \frac{2[x_{r(2)} - x_{r(1)}]}{W_{(1)} + W_{(2)}} = \frac{1.18[x_{r(2)} - x_{r(1)}]}{W_{1/2(1)} + W_{1/2(2)}} \quad (15)$$

where x_r refers to the distance along the fractogram to the peak maximum.

Calculation of Particle Elevation

The particle elevation parameters x_{eq} and δ can be calculated using eqs 11 and 8, respectively. Data (not tabulated)

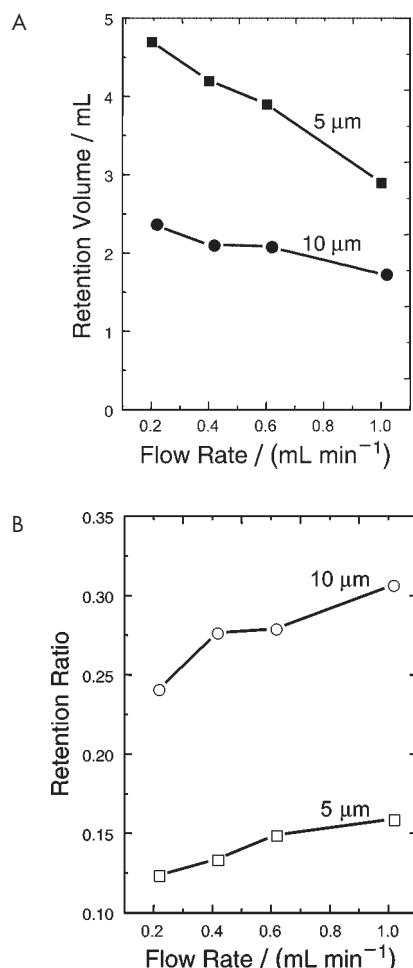


Figure 9. Effect of flow rate on (A) retention volume and (B) retention ratio of 5 μm and 10 μm silica samples.

for the 5 and 10 μm silica show that the particles are lifted further away from the accumulation wall by increasing the carrier flow rate. This is obvious from the data in Figure 10, as the retention ratios increase with the flow rate. Negative δ values can result when the viscous drag force causes particles to move slower than anticipated by the simplified theory used here, which does not incorporate a fluid slip function (see discussion in ref 22, p 85).

Effect of Carrier Composition

Experiments to demonstrate the effect of ionic strength of the carrier for the 5 μm silica were performed at a flow rate of 4.0 mL min^{-1} in deionized water as well as in 0.01% and 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), an anionic surfactant. The retention ratios were 0.69, 0.37, and 0.36, respectively, for these carriers. Clearly very small increases in ionic strength have a large effect on retention. The particle elevation terms x_{eq} and δ were calculated and these parameters clearly demonstrated that the particles move closer to the channel wall as ionic strength increases. This is due to significant charge repulsion between the negatively charged particles and the wall in deionized water, which is reduced by

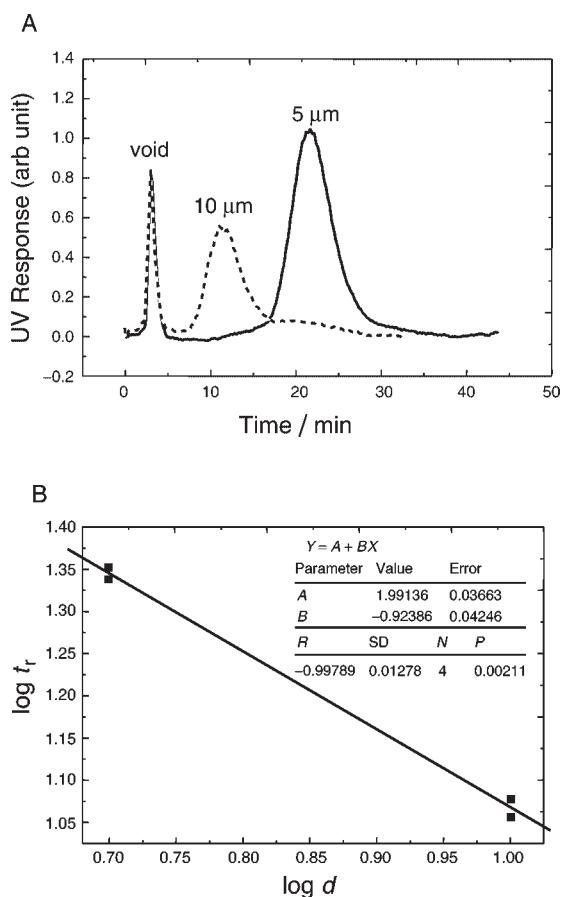


Figure 10. (A) GrFFF fractograms of 5 and 10 μm silica particles and (B) Calibration plot of $\log t_r$ versus $\log d$. The flow rate was 0.2 mL min^{-1} .

shielding of the counter ions (Na^+) as the SDS is added. This illustrates that for quantitative use of GrFFF in size determination a small concentration of ions in the carrier is necessary (about 10^{-4} M is usually sufficient) to avoid quite large errors owing to the effect of wall repulsion.

Calculation of Particle-Size Distributions

Conversion from Elution Time to Diameter

By assuming that the silica particles in the monodisperse standards have the same density as the other sample particles used, the conversion of the diameter scale was made employing the empirical formula (33),

$$\log t_{ri} = -S_d \log d_i + \log t_{rl} \quad (16)$$

where t_r is measured retention time, d is the diameter of the particles, S_d is the size selectivity, and t_{rl} is a constant equal to the extrapolated value of t_r corresponding to particles of unit diameter. Figure 10 shows fractograms of the 5 and 10 μm silica particles and the plot of $\log t_r$ versus $\log d$. These plots were used to generate the equation for converting the x axis to a diameter scale as described above. In this case, the

calculated selectivity using the data for the 5 μm and 10 μm silica was found to be 0.92 and t_{rl} was 98.0.

It should be noted that there may be a systematic error in this calibration due to the fact that the 5 μm silica standard particles are spherical but the 10 μm silica standard and the silica gel particles are platey in shape. It is known that platey particles experience higher lift forces than spheres of the same volume (34). Thus particles of the same shape should be used for accurate calibration and at least three standards covering the size range of interest would be desirable.

Conversion from UV Detector Signal to Eluted Mass

For micron size particles, the UV detector response, UV_i , at point i along the FFF elution profile is related to the mass concentration of particles of the sample in the eluent ($dm_{p_i}^c/dV_{r_i}$) (35, 36)

$$\frac{dm_{p_i}^c}{dV_{r_i}} = UV_i d_i \quad (17)$$

where $m_{p_i}^c$ is the mass of sample eluted up to elution volume V_{r_i} and d_i is the particle diameter eluting at V_{r_i} . It should be noted that the superscript c in these quantities signifies that it is the cumulative amount eluted up to point i on the fractogram. The appropriate y axis for a particle-size distribution, $m_{p_i}^c/(dd_i)$, is given by (22)

$$\frac{dm_{p_i}^c}{dd_i} \approx UV_i d_i \frac{\delta V_i}{\delta d_i} \quad (18)$$

where δd_i is the increment in d_i corresponding to increment δV_i in V_{r_i} at point i along the fractogram. For such a plot, $m_{p_i}^c/(dd_i)$ versus d_i , the area under the distribution between two size values represents the mass of particles in this size range. Advanced students could be set the assignment to generate such a mass-based size distribution.

Hazards

Normal care and supervision needs to be taken in constructing the channel, assembling the electronic components and conducting the GrFFF experiments. Avoid inhalation of any dry particle samples when making sample suspensions.

Conclusions

Field-flow fractionation is becoming quite widely used separation technique, which warrants inclusion in undergraduate analytical chemistry courses. This article outlines some FFF theory that can be incorporated in lectures and suggests experiments that can be included in laboratory classes. The theory is useful for reinforcing some important aspects of physical chemistry such as settling and fluid flow. The laboratory exercise uses gravitational FFF, which is inexpensive and easy to construct, making it accessible to most institutions. An experiment is given in the Supplemental Material¹⁰ that includes both a student and instructors manual. We have tested this experiment with students in Australia and Thailand and find it an effective way to illustrate FFF and the underlying theory.

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Supplemental Material

A tested undergraduate experiment along with an instructor's manual and a glossary of terms are available in this issue of *JCE Online*.

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Original Paper

Naphthazarin modified carbon paste electrode for determination of copper(II)

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Abstract. A carbon paste electrode modified with naphthazarin (5,8-dihydroxy-1,4-naphthoquinone) was fabricated as a copper(II) sensor. Voltammetric and potentiometric detections were investigated. Adsorptive stripping voltammetry offers better sensitivity but poorer repeatability than potentiometry. The applied potential and current passing in voltammetric detection cause irreversible electrode reactions and shortening of the lifetime of the electrode. Potentiometric determination in batch and flow injection using 3% (w/w) of naphthazarin in the paste exhibited linear response with supra-Nernstian slope to copper(II) over a wide concentration range of three orders of magnitude in 0.10 M ammonium acetate medium. The potentiometric detection limits were 1.5×10^{-6} and 3.0×10^{-5} M by batch and flow injection, respectively. The electrode shows a good selectivity for copper(II) over a wide variety of metal ions and was applied to the analysis of alloys. The electrode response time was 50 sec and it showed good reproducibility for at least 60 days.

Keywords: Copper sensor; modified carbon paste electrode; naphthazarin; adsorptive stripping voltammetry; potentiometric detection

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Chemically modified electrodes have gained great interest as chemical sensors due to the electrode surfaces can be tailored to achieve the needed selectivity and sensitivity. Chemical modifiers immobilized on the carbon paste electrodes provide attractive properties such as low cost, ease of modification and no memory effects on the renewable surface [1]. Searching for the selective modifier stills being a challenge task. Naphthazarin (5,8-dihydroxy-1,4-naphthoquinone) has capability of forming complex with a number of metal ions [2–4]. It has been successfully used as a chelating agent for spectrophotometric determination of beryllium [5, 6], aluminum [6], thorium and uranium [7], yttrium [8], manganese and zinc [9] and copper [10]. Besides the spectral properties, naphthazarin has also electrochemical properties due to quinone and hydroxyl quinone groups in its molecule. The quinone/hydroquinone couple is well known and widely used as a good model in electrochemical study [11]. Hence, in this work electrochemical detection based on the copper – naphthazarin complex was continuously investigated. Although numerous of chemical modifiers have been reported for incorporation with carbon paste and used as copper sensors. However, detection technique used in each work was either voltammetric [12–20] or potentiometric [21–23] measurement, using the same modifier in carbon paste electrode for both detection techniques has not been reported.

The objectives of this work is to demonstrate the ability of naphthazarin as a modifier immobilized in carbon paste electrode and to use this naphthazarin modified carbon paste electrode (NCPE) as an electrochemical sensor for copper(II) ion. According to the low water solubility of naphthazarin, saturation of naphthazarin in water was reported at the concentration of 1.2×10^{-4} M [24], so this reagent was used as a modifier and the mineral oil in the paste could help holding up naphthazarin on the electrode surface. The characteristics and analytical performance of NCPE as a copper(II) sensor were investigated for voltammetric and potentiometric detections by batch and flow injection modes.

Experimental

Reagents

All chemicals used in this work were of analytical grade. A stock naphthazarin solution (2.00×10^{-3} M) was prepared by dissolving an accurate amount of reagent (98% purity, Fluka) in ethanol. A stock copper solution (0.10 M) was prepared from $\text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ in deionized water. More dilute solutions were obtained by dilution with appropriate volumes of 0.10 M ammonium acetate.

Preparation of NCPE and Ag/AgCl electrode

An electrode body was made from a disposable 1 mL polyethylene syringe. For the NCPE, the syringe tip was cut off for the open end of 0.5 cm diameter. The modified paste was prepared as the following: 1 g of pure graphite powder (Aldrich, particle size of 1–2 μm) was mixed with a fixed amount of naphthazarin in ethanol solvent, ultrasonicated for 30 min and evaporated off the ethanol. This receiving powder was transferred to a mortar and mixed well with 0.4 mL mineral oil (Fluka). The modified paste was filled in the electrode body and a copper wire was used for electrode connection. The carbon paste electrode (CPE) was prepared in the same procedure without naphthazarin mixing. The paste electrodes were left with the surface tip up, air dried for 24 h before use in order to reduce oily surface and low response. The new surface of the paste electrode surface was simply renewed by scrapping off about 1–2 mm of the old surface and polished the new surface on a filter paper. One paste electrode can be used for 12–15 renewal surfaces. The home-made Ag/AgCl reference electrode was also prepared [25] in the syringe body for using in the flow system. Its potential was calibrated with the commercial Ag/AgCl electrode (6.0726.100, Metrohm, Switzerland).

Apparatus and setup

An Autolab PGSTAT30 with GPES (General-Purpose Electrochemical System) version 4.9 software (Eco-Chemie, Utrecht, The Netherlands) was used for voltammetric and potentiometric measurements. A six port injector (V-451, Upchurch Scientific) and a peristaltic pump (Masterflex, Cole-Palmer Instrument Co., U.S.A.) were employed.

Voltammetric experiments

Three-electrode system was used for voltammetric experiments. The working electrode was the carbon paste electrode or NCPE. The counter electrode was a platinum wire and the reference was an Ag/AgCl electrode. The 0.10 M ammonium acetate solution was used as a supporting electrolyte medium. Voltammetric records of the quiescent solutions were performed at room temperature ($25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$) after nitrogen flush in the measuring solution for 3 min. Cyclic voltammetric scan rate was 100 mV sec^{-1} . Differential pulse voltammetry conditions were: pulse amplitude 50 mV, pulse period 40 msec and scan rate 10 mV sec^{-1} .

Potentiometric experiments

For the batch method, the potential was recorded from the constant stirred (500 rpm) solution of a copper(II) solution in 0.10 M ammonium acetate medium and potential difference between the indicator electrode (NCPE) and reference electrode (Ag/AgCl electrode) at the steady stage was measured versus time using the Autolab30 instrument. The electrochemical cell used for potential measurements was:



The flow injection system was a single flow line connected to a pump. The 0.10 M ammonium acetate was used as the carrier solution. The detector cell body composed of two parts which were cast from the transparent resin and assembled together with screws and knots. The upper part of the detector cell was drilled for fitting the inlet solution tube, indicator and reference electrodes in order to contact to the cell chamber of $210 \mu\text{L}$ volume. The outlet tube was at the lower part of the cell. An aliquot ($\sim 0.5 \text{ mL}$) of copper(II) in 0.10 M ammonium acetate medium was injected to the injection port and the volume of $280\text{--}940 \mu\text{L}$ was transported to the mixing coil and then to the detector cell. The inlet tube, outlet tube and the mixing coil of 50, 100, 200 or 300 cm length are microbore PTFE tubing of 1.0 mm inner diameter. Potential of the solution was recorded continuously versus time by the Autolab30 instrument.

Sample preparation for alloy sample

An accurate weight of 0.20 g of Nickel Copper Alloy (NBS no. 882) sample was treated with acid digestions as follows. The 6.00 mL of 50% (v/v) HNO_3 was added to the sample and the mixture was boiled till clear before the volume was adjusted to 100 mL. Then a further 50-fold dilution was made by the solution of 0.10 M ammonium acetate.

Results and discussion

Voltammetric detection

Figures 1 and 2 represent cyclic voltammograms obtained by employing the CPE and the NCPE. Electrochemical reactions of naphthazarin on the working electrode are due to the quinone/hydroquinone couple concerning protonation and deprotonation of the quinone groups. There are several possible and complicated pathways of electrode reactions of a quinone. The possible pathway of quinone reduction in aqueous solvent depends strongly on the pH of the solution and

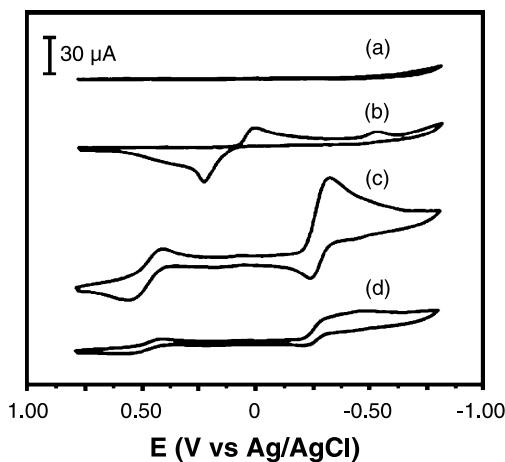


Fig. 1. Cyclic voltammograms on CPE of (a) supporting electrolyte: 0.1 M NH_4OAc , (b) 1×10^{-4} M Cu(II) ion, (c) 2×10^{-4} M naphthazarin, (d) mixture of 1×10^{-4} M Cu(II) ion and 2×10^{-4} M naphthazarin. Scan rate = 100 mV sec^{-1}

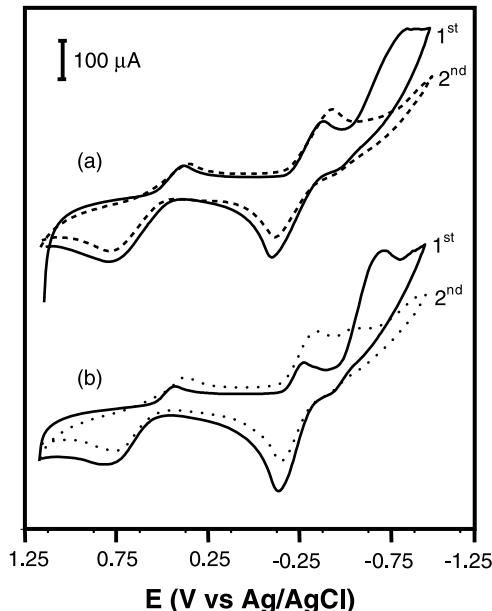


Fig. 2. Cyclic voltammograms taken for two cycles on 3% (w/w) NCPE of (a) supporting electrolyte: 0.1 M NH_4OAc , (b) 1×10^{-4} M Cu(II) ion in supporting electrolyte. Scan rate = 100 mV sec^{-1}

the pK_a values of the acid-base functions of the quinone, semiquinone radicals and the hydroquinone [24, 26]. Mechanism on the reactions involving should be investigated (as discussion on possibility is given in ESI).

In order to get the high sensitivity of detection, adsorptive stripping voltammetric technique was used. The NCPE was immersed in a stirred copper(II) solution in 0.10 M NH_4OAc medium for a fixed period. At this step copper ion was preconcentrated by complex-

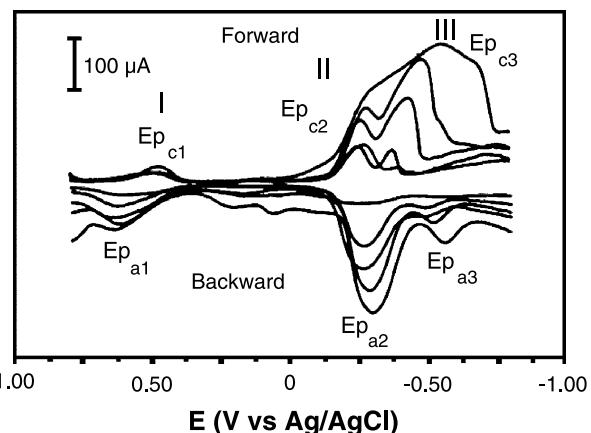


Fig. 3. Differential pulse stripping voltammograms from a 3% (w/w) NCPE in 0.1 M NH_4OAc after 5 min preconcentration in different concentrations of Cu(II): 1, 5, 10 and $100 \mu\text{M}$

ation with naphthazarin and deposited on the electrode surface. The electrode was then rinsed with water, stirred 1 min in 0.10 M NH_4OAc medium and transferred to the new deaerated electrolyte medium. The response signals were recorded by taking differential pulse voltammograms in the cathodic scan and anodic scan right after the cathodic scan as in Fig. 3. Higher peak currents are obtained from the preconcentration step with higher concentrations of copper(II) solutions. In spite of the peak potential was shifted at higher concentration of copper(II), the cathodic peak current at vicinity III ($\text{Ep}_{\text{c}3} \sim -0.37 \text{ V}$) shows good linear relationship with copper ion concentration up to $5 \mu\text{M}$ so that this reduction peak is interesting for further quantitative determination of Cu(II) after the open-circuit preconcentration in copper(II) solution.

Effect of supporting electrolytes

Various supporting electrolytes (KNO_3 , $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, NH_4Cl , NH_4NO_3 , KCl , NaOAc and NaClO_4) were studied to be used in the measuring step. In sodium perchlorate electrolyte, the reduction peak was at -0.54 V and it was good separated from the nearby characteristic peak of pure naphthazarin at -0.33 V and the peak current at -0.54 V was increased with increasing the concentration of copper ion in the preconcentration step as shown in Fig. 4.

Effect of naphthazarin content in the carbon paste

Five different naphthazarin contents (1, 3, 5, 8, 10 and 15% w/w) in the carbon paste were tested for the

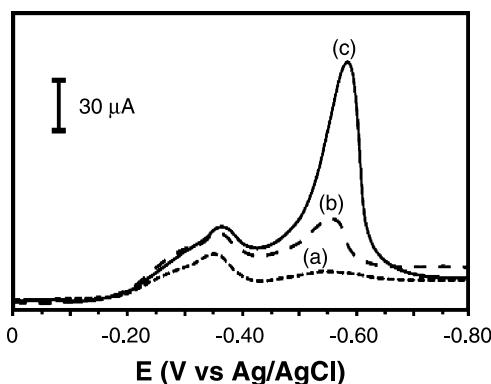


Fig. 4. Differential pulse voltammograms on the 1% (w/w) NCPE in 0.10 M NaClO_4 electrolyte after 20 min preconcentration in (a) 0.10 M NH_4OAc (b) 1 μM copper(II) in 0.10 M NH_4OAc and (c) 5 μM copper(II) in 0.10 M NH_4OAc . Pulse amplitude 50 mV and scan rate 10 mV sec $^{-1}$

response signals. The NCPE of 1% and 3% (w/w) naphthazarin in the paste did not show significant different response but the higher naphthazarin percentages revealed higher residual currents and broadening peaks so that 1% (w/w) NCPE was chosen.

Working concentration range on the NPCE

Sensitivity of copper detection depends on the preconcentration step. Longer deposition time resulted in higher peak current. Linear relationship of the peak current at -0.54 V and the copper ion concentration was obtained from 1.0–5.0 μM (0.06–0.32 ppm) using 20 min deposition time on the 1% (w/w) NCPE. The concentration range could be extended to 10 μM if shorter deposition time as 5 min was used due to the limited active surface for copper ion accumulation.

Surface electrode renewal

Homogeneity of naphthazarin in the carbon paste and surface regeneration were crucial for accuracy and precision result. We found that reversing potential scan after each differential voltammogram taken could help better precision because naphthazarin in carbon paste could return back to the former form by the reverse potential scan as in cyclic voltammetry. Different methods of electrode surface regenerations were studied. The 1.0 M acetic acid and 0.01 M EDTA solutions were used to wash the NCPE surface after each measurement but the precision of measurements were poorer than using the new scrapped off and polished surface. With the reverse potential scan, re-

sponses of a 1% (w/w) NCPE to 5 μM copper ion using 5 min deposition time gave % RSDs ($n=5$) of the measuring current signals as: 13.3, 12.8, 12.4 and 7.4% upon using an electrode with: old surface, acetic acid washing surface, EDTA washing surface and new surface, respectively. Without reversing the potential scan, an electrode with new surface resulted in bad reproducible measuring signal as % RSD ($n=5$) was high as 23.9%. The applied potential and current passing in voltammetric detection cause irreversible electrode reaction and shortening the life time of electrode so reversing of the potential scan is recommended as a part of surface electrode renewal after each measurement.

Effect of foreign ions

Effect of foreign cations and anions present in the analyte solution is represented in Table 1. Among the studied cations and anions, interference from Al(III) and EDTA were the most pronounced due to Al(III) can also form complex with naphthazarin and EDTA can form complex with Cu(II) better than naphthazarin.

The disadvantages of the adsorptive stripping voltammetric technique are complicated and time consuming steps (preconcentration, voltammetric record and electrode surface regeneration) involved. One measurement was about 15–30 min depended on deposition time. The applied potential and current passing can cause easy electrode fouling and shortening the life time of electrode. Benefit of the technique is selective adsorption and less interference as the medi-

Table 1. Tolerance limits for other ions interfere the voltammetric response of 3 μM Cu(II) using 1% (w/w) NCPE and deposition time 5 min. The mole ratios shown gave relative deviation within $\pm 10\%$ of that obtained from only Cu(II)

Cation	Mole ratio Cu(II): cation	Anion	Mole ratio Cu(II): anion
Ba(II)	1:10	F^-	1:9600
Ca(II)	1:70	Cl^-	1:7500*
Ni(II)	1:4	Br^-	1:3000
Co(II)	1:1*	I^-	1:3000*
Cd(II)	1:100	CN^-	1:3000
Pb(II)	1:5	SCN^-	1:100
Zn(II)	1:5	PO_4^{3-}	1:100
Mn(II)	1:10*	EDTA	1:0.05
Al(III)	1:0.5	citrate	1:10
Cr(III)	1:1	oxalate	1:1
Fe(III)	1:4	tartrate	1:70*

* Increasing signal.

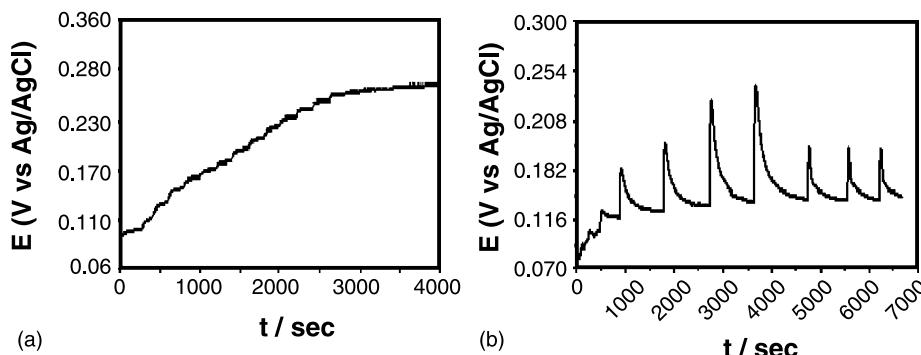


Fig. 5. Potentiometric responses of the 3% (w/w) NCPE indicator electrode to copper(II) ion at various concentrations in 0.1 M NH_4OAc medium by (a) batch and (b) flow injection techniques

um was changed between the preconcentration and measurement steps.

Potentiometric detection

Potentiometric detection at zero current is a simple technique for using the modified electrode both in batch and flow injection. The same electrode surface was used for a series of consecutive measurements and suitable for flow injection with continuous operation. Deviation of the surface-to-surface was avoided and reproducibility was improved. The copper(II) ions are extracted from solution and deposited upon the electrode surface through complexation with the immobilized naphthazarin reagent, resulted in the changing potential response by different amounts of copper ions in the solutions. This could lead to supra-Nernstian slope. In batch method, the potential response of the NCPE reached steady state within 50 sec and remained constant afterward (Fig. 5a). Potentiometric response in the flow system has the peak form with pronounce tailing due to convection predominates in dispersion control (Fig. 5b). The peak potentials give linear relationship with log activities of copper(II) over wider concentration range than the voltammetric technique but the sensitivity of the technique is lower.

Effect of naphthazarin content in the carbon paste electrode

For this purpose, eight electrodes were prepared. The amounts of carbon powder and mineral oil were constant at the ratio of 1 g carbon powder: 0.4 mL oil for each electrode. The proportions of naphthazarin in these eight electrodes were 0.5, 1.0, 3.0, 5.0, 10.0, 15.0, 20.0 and 25.0% (w/w). Calibration graphs for batch method over copper(II) concentration range of

2.0×10^{-6} – 2.9×10^{-3} M were examined. The resulting supra-Nernstian slopes and correlation coefficients are 0.0454 (0.9909), 0.0455 (0.9894), 0.0478 (0.9969), 0.0477 (0.9947), 0.0494 (0.9806), 0.0600 (0.9133), 0.0600 (0.9133) and 0.0671 (0.9820) V per decade concentration. These results showed that the slopes increased by increasing the percentages of naphthazarin modifier. An electrode with naphthazarin in the carbon paste of more than 15.0% gave nonlinear electrode response. The electrode with 3.0% of modifier was chosen for further potentiometric study.

Batch potentiometric response

The potentiometric responses of 3.0% NCPE to copper(II) together with some cations from batch method were investigated. The calibration graph of copper(II) concentration range 2.0×10^{-6} – 2.9×10^{-3} M (0.13–184 ppm) was constructed by sequential adding known amount of standard copper(II) solution into a 100 mL of 0.1 M NH_4OAc solution. Plot of potential response against \log [activity of copper ion] gave linear regression line with correlation coefficient of 0.9969 and supra-Nernstian slope of 0.0478 ± 0.0021 V. Detection limit was determined from the intersection of the two extrapolated segments of the calibration graph [28] and was found to be 1.5×10^{-6} M (0.10 ppm). The NCPE showed no selectivity to Cr(III), Ni(II), Co(II), Mn(II) and Zn(II) but the potential response was linear increased with Pb(II) concentration from 5.0×10^{-6} – 2.8×10^{-3} M with sub-Nernstian slope = 0.025 and correlation coefficient = 0.988. The Fe(III) ion showed obviously increase of the NCPE response when its concentration was more than 5.6×10^{-4} M. Also presence of Al(III) is prone to interfere with copper(II) response. Selectivity coefficient values of 3.0% NCPE respected to these three foreign ions, determined by the Matched Potential

Method [28] were found to be: $K_{\text{Cu,Pb}} = 0.0014$, $K_{\text{Cu,Al}} = 0.0095$ and $K_{\text{Cu,Fe}} = 0.058$.

Optimization of FI variables

Effect of mixing coil lengths (11, 45, 90, 110, 130, 180, 280 and 380 cm) was studied with the copper concentration range 5×10^{-5} – 1×10^{-2} M. A shorter coil length, the signal to noise ratio was higher than that at the longer coil length, the longer time was needed to get the signals so that the mixing coil length of 90 cm was chosen.

Effect of flow rates (0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0 and 3.0 mL min⁻¹) was performed with the copper concentration range of 5.0×10^{-5} – 1.0×10^{-2} M. A lower flow rate led to a longer period in peak returning to baseline but a higher flow rate of more than 1.5 mL min⁻¹ resulted in bubble in flow tube and noisy signals. A flow rate of 1.0 mL min⁻¹ was chosen due to the best fit of the linear calibration graph.

Effect of sample injection volume at the injection port was varied by using different tubing lengths to give the volumes of 280, 534, 816 and 940 μ L. No significant differences in slopes and R^2 of the calibration graphs obtained at the same concentration range. The smallest sample injection volume of 280 μ L was chosen.

Higher copper concentration injected into the system gave longer return times, base line drift and hence, a decrease in sample throughput. Surface renewal of the NCPE was also required. The virgin NCPE surfaces were somewhat less efficient for copper ion detection. The potential drift was found obviously at the initial injection of copper ion solution. However, after a few injections, the reproducible signals were obtained. The similar behaviors were found in other work [13] which copper(I) was preconcentrated on 2,9-dimethyl-1,10-phenanthroline modified carbon paste electrode. It was hypothesized that the early depositions of copper ion might assist the ligand molecules to orient in the carbon paste and attaining higher degree of ordering on the electrode surface that facilitates complexation.

Calibration graph in FI

Using optimized condition: mixing coil length of 90 cm, flow rate at 1.0 mL min⁻¹ and sample injection volume of 280 μ L, calibration graph was studied in the concentration range of 5.0×10^{-5} – 1.0×10^{-2} M (0.32–635 ppm). Although the baseline drift was

Table 2. Long-term reproducibility study of a 3% (w/w) NCPE by FI-potentiometric measurement

Day*	Calibration**	Slope	R^2
1	$y = 0.0394x + 0.1830$	0.0394	0.9637
3	$y = 0.0452x + 0.2114$	0.0452	0.9933
6	$y = 0.0435x + 0.2283$	0.0435	0.9961
13	$y = 0.0472x + 0.2374$	0.0472	0.9956
19	$y = 0.0437x + 0.2274$	0.0437	0.9936
35	$y = 0.0536x + 0.2577$	0.0536	0.9939
48	$y = 0.0440x + 0.2154$	0.0440	0.9960
51	$y = 0.0491x + 0.2432$	0.0491	0.9996
60	$y = 0.0459x + 0.2074$	0.0459	0.9905
67	$y = 0.0430x + 0.1959$	0.0430	0.9889

* After fabrication.

** In the concentration range of 5.0×10^{-5} – 1.0×10^{-2} M.

found, plot of the peak height signal (obtained from the difference between the potential at peak and base point) against log copper concentration gave the linear regression line as $y = (0.0444 \pm 0.0010)x + (0.2208 \pm 0.0057)$ with correlation coefficient 0.9951 (precision from five 3% (w/w) NCPEs). Reproducibility of the slope and R^2 of calibration curve was checked and it was found that the electrode could be used for more than 60 days as data in Table 2. The time for peak returning to baseline was about 10–20 min depending on the copper(II) concentration in the injection solution. Detection limit was determined from the calibration graph to be 3.0×10^{-5} M (1.9 ppm). The wider working concentration range and higher detection limit were obtained comparing to the batch method. This could be due to that amount of copper ion reached the electrode surface was diluted in the flow tube.

Interference study in FI

Each cation or anion at various concentration was mixed with 1 mM Cu(II) ion in 0.10 M NH₄OAc me-

Table 3. Tolerance limits for other ions interfere the potentiometric response of 1 mM Cu(II) using a 3% (w/w) NCPE in the flow system with sample injection volume of 280 μ L, 90 cm mixing coil and flow rate at 1.0 mL min⁻¹. The mole ratios shown gave the potentiometric signals deviation within $\pm 5\%$ of that obtained from only Cu(II)

Cation	Mole ratio Cu(II): cation	Anion	Mole ratio Cu(II): anion
Ni(II)	1:45	F ⁻	1:100
Zn(II)	1:55	Cl ⁻	1:60
Mn(II)	1:18	Br ⁻	1:40
Al(III)	1:14	SCN ⁻	1:0.4
Cr(III)	1:1	PO ₄ ³⁻	1:0.2
Fe(III)	1:7	EDTA	1:0.2
		citrate	1:0.1
		oxalate	1:0.1

Table 4. Comparison of analytical characteristics using the 3% (w/w) NCPE for potentiometric measurement of copper(II) in batch and flow injection

Parameter	Batch	Flow injection*
Response time	2–5 min	31–35 sec
Working range (correlation coefficient, R^2)	2.0×10^{-6} – 2.9×10^{-3} M (0.997)	5.0×10^{-5} – 1.0×10^{-2} M (0.999)
Sensitivity (as linear slope)	47.8 ± 0.2 mV/decade	38 ± 9.7 mV/decade
Sample volume required	20–100 mL	0.5–1 mL
Detection limit	1.5×10^{-6} M (0.10 ppm)	3.0×10^{-5} M (1.9 ppm)
Measurement precision in potential of 1.0×10^{-4} M Cu(II)	$E = 0.208 \pm 0.022$ V %RSD = 10.4 (n = 5)	$E = 0.022 \pm 0.003$ V %RSD = 12.1 (n = 5)
1.0×10^{-3} M Cu(II)	$E = 0.256 \pm 0.016$ V %RSD = 6.3 (n = 5)	$E = 0.059 \pm 0.003$ V %RSD = 5.6 (n = 5)
Cu(II) determination in NBS Ni–Cu–Al Alloy no. 882 (Cu = 31.02 ± 0.04 % w/w other ions: Ni = 65.25, Al = 2.85, Ti = 0.57, C = 0.006, Mn = 0.0007, S = 0.0014, Si = 0.006, Fe = 0.009)	32.48 ± 1.05 % (n = 4)	31.54 ± 0.76 % (n = 4)

* Using 280 μ L injection volume, 90 cm mixing coil and flow rate of 1.0 mL min⁻¹.

dium. The optimum condition of the FI system was used for construction the calibration graph. Tolerance limit of several ions defined as the mole ratio of the copper ion: other ion that changed the 3 μ M Cu(II) signal $\sim 5\%$ are shown in Table 3. The tolerance limits in FI of the most cations studied are higher than those found in adsorptive voltammetric technique except Cr(II) while the tolerance limits of the anions are lower. In adsorptive voltammetric technique the reaction of interfering ions upon the electrode surface is the main cause but in potentiometric detection, the surface reaction and ionic strength of the solution resulted in more effect on the potential response.

Comparison between batch and FI

Analytical characteristics using the 3% (w/w) NCPE for potentiometric detection of copper(II) in batch and FI and analysis results of an reference alloy sample are shown in Table 4. No significant difference of the mean values from the certified value were obtained from both batch and FI with potentiometric detection (at $P = 0.05$).

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Fast and simultaneous detection of heavy metals using a simple and reliable microchip-electrochemistry route: An alternative approach to food analysis

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Abstract

This paper reports, for the first, the fast and simultaneous detection of prominent heavy metals, including: lead, cadmium and copper using microchip CE with electrochemical detection. The direct amperometric detection mode for microchip CE was successfully applied to these heavy metal ions. The influences of separation voltage, detection potential, as well as the concentration and pH value of the running buffer on the response of the detector were carefully assayed and optimized. The results clearly show that reliable analysis for lead, cadmium, and copper by the degree of electrophoretic separation occurs in less than 3 min using a MES buffer (pH 7.0, 25 mM) and L-histidine, with 1.2 kV separation voltage and -0.8 V detection potential. The detection limits for Pb²⁺, Cd²⁺, and Cu²⁺ were 1.74, 0.73 and 0.13 μ M (S/N = 3). The %R.S.D. of each peak current was <6% and migration times <2% for prolonged operation. To demonstrate the potential and future role of microchip CE, analytical possibilities and a new route in the raw sample analysis were presented. The results obtained allow the proposed microchip CE-ED acts as an alternative approach for metal analysis in foods.

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Keywords: Microchip CE; Electrochemical detection; Heavy metals; Microanalysis

1. Introduction

The traditional format of capillary electrophoresis is quickly being replaced by microdevice platforms in modern analytical chemistry, offering improvements in cost, resolution, speed, quantitation and automation. This aspect of miniaturization is well matched with the ultimate goal of rapid screening and simultaneous detection of a large number of samples [1,2]. The miniaturization of an integrated system improves the advantages inherent to capillary electrophoresis.

Heavy metals are particularly worrisome contaminants in foods and the environment. In general, they are not biodegradable and they have long biological half-lives. Heavy metals have potential for accumulation in humans from various plants and other natural sources, posing serious health hazards for con-

ditions such as renal failure, symptoms of chronic toxicity, and liver damage. According to the World Health Organization (World Health Organization, 1995), lead, cadmium, chromium, and other heavy metals must be controlled in food sources in order to assure public safety.

Lead and cadmium are among the most abundant heavy metals on earth, and are particularly toxic. Excessive concentrations of these metals in food is associated with the etiology of a number of diseases, especially with cardiovascular, renal, neurological, and bone diseases [3,4]. In addition, they are also implicated in causing carcinogenesis, mutagenesis, and teratogenesis [5]. Copper, another important metal, is an essential trace element for the human body and contributes to important intracellular metabolic events [6]. A copper imbalance can result in a severe human ailment, from either an excess or deficiency of this key element [7]. A major reason to monitor levels of toxic metals in foods follows from the fact that contamination of the general environment has increased. The sources of this environmental pollution are quite varied, ranging from industrial

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and traffic emissions to the use of purification mud and agricultural expedients. In order to study the toxicity of heavy metals in food, a simple, sensitive and accurate detection method is required.

Many analytical methods have been developed for determination of individual metals in food products, including: titration [8], colorimetric analysis [9,10], UV-vis spectroscopy [11–13], and either flame or graphite furnace atomic absorption spectrometry (AAS) [14–17]. In addition to these techniques, methods for multi-elemental determination have been developed; these are ion chromatography (IC) [18–20] and inductively coupled plasma combined with either atomic emission spectrometry (ICP–AES) [21,22] or mass spectrometry (ICP–MS) [23–25]. Although these methodologies are rapid and sensitive for the determination of trace amounts of metals, they require complicated instrumentation with high capital and operational costs. Furthermore, these methods are not easily implemented into fully portable analytical tools for screening, detecting, identifying, and quantifying metal ions.

Capillary electrophoresis (CE) has been widely applied to the separation and determination of different metal species, and has proved to be a fast, high-resolution separation technique [26–31]. The detection methods typically used in combination with CE separation technique are ultraviolet light (UV), fluorescence or laser-induced fluorescence (LIF) detection. The lack of a strong chromophore from metal ions has certainly been one of the major limitations in the analysis of most metals by these methods. In addition, these detection modes suffer from lack of sensitivity when a miniaturized device is used. Electrochemical detection (ED) offers high sensitivity and selectivity for metals that are readily oxidized or reduced. This technique is readily suitable and compatible with microfabrication technology that has been successfully employed in microchip CE.

Separation of metal ions by microchip CE has attracted significant attention, offering a number of advantages including speed of analysis, portability, flexibility, and compatibility with integrated analytical systems, allowing development of “micro-total-analysis systems (μ TAS)” [1,32–38]. There are a few published examples of metal ion separation performed on a microchip CE. The detection methods are largely focused on the utilization of complexing agents, such as fluorescent metal complexation [39]. Although excellent separation of metal ions was obtained, the designs of microchip sensors were not compact or portable, but tedious and expensive. Unlike other researchers, Li et al. [40] reported the use of microchip CE with indirect amperometric detection of heavy metals. Their results demonstrated good separation and detection, unfortunately, the configuration of microchip and detector was still complicated. Alternatively, we have focused on the simple, direct quantitation of metals by electrochemical reaction, which will enable the incorporation of a portable, simple, and inexpensive detector.

This work addresses the need for developing an inexpensive and field portable analytical device for metal ions which would permit the rapid screening and detection of contaminated food or waste materials on site. The detection of metal ions was accomplished using a microchip CE/amperometric detection system, in which screen-printed carbon electrode is placed

at the end of channel. This approach simplifies the fabrication of the working electrode and also provides a convenient and sensitive method for the determination of metal ions by amperometry. Furthermore, by simply changing the electrode, we can easily remove or clean the detection electrode, which is prone to contamination. In this manner, we propose an attractive portable device for screening and analyzing a complex system containing different metal species, such as food. The optimization, characterization, and attractive performance characteristics of a microchip CE, and its successful application to complex samples (such as vegetable juices) are reported in the following sections.

2. Experimental

2.1. Chemicals

Lead(II) nitrate was obtained from Aldrich (Germany). Cadmium(II) sulfate was obtained from Baker Analyzed (USA). Copper(II) sulphate was obtained from BDH (England). Standard stock solutions of all analytes were freshly prepared each day. The running buffer solution (BGE) for separation was prepared from 2-morpholinoethanesulfonic acid (MES), (s)-2-amino-3-(4-imidazyl) propionic acid (L-histidine) which were obtained from Fluka (USA). Sodium hydroxide and Hydrochloric acid were purchased from Merck (Germany), and were used for pH adjustment of the electrolytic buffer solution. All reagents were used without further purification. Pure deionized water (Millipore, USA) was used to prepare all aqueous solutions. The sample solutions were prepared by diluting corresponding stock solutions in running buffer. All solutions for electrophoresis experiments were filtered through a 0.45 μ m membrane filter (Altech) before use.

2.2. Apparatus

Borofloat glass chips with simple-cross single-separation channels (16 mm \times 95 mm \times 2.2 mm) were obtained from Micralyne (model MC-BF4-001, Canada). The microchip has a four-way injection cross that are connected to the three reservoirs and the channel. The original waste reservoir was cut off, leaving the channel outlet at the end of the chip, facilitating the end-column electrochemical detection. The chip had a 90 mm long separation channel (from injection cross to the channel outlet) and a 10 mm long injection channel (between the sample and buffer reservoir). All channels were etched to a depth of 20 μ m and a width at the top of the channel of 50 μ m.

The integrated CE-ED microchip system was described previously [36]. The CE microchip was placed in a laboratory-built Plexiglas holder for housing the separation chip and electrochemical detector, allowing convenient replacement. The holder consisted of a sample, running buffer, and unused reservoirs. Short pipette tips were cut and inserted into the fluidic ports of the various reservoirs on the glass chip for providing solution contact between the channel on the chip and the corresponding reservoir on the chip holder. Platinum wires were inserted into the compartments to provide the electrical contacts to a high-

voltage power supply. A home-made high voltage power supply, with an adjustable voltage range between 0 and +4000 V, was used for controlling the injection and separation. The amperometric detector, placed in the waste reservoir, at the separation channel outlet, consisted of an Ag/AgCl wire reference electrode, a platinum wire counter electrode, and a screen-printed carbon working electrode.

2.3. End-column amperometric detection

Amperometric detection was performed with a computer controlled electrochemical analyzer (Autolab potentiostat, PG-30, Methrom) using the “amperometric *i-t* curve” mode. The electropherograms were recorded at a fixed detection potential, −0.8 V versus Ag/AgCl wire. The screen-printed carbon working electrode was placed opposite the outlet of the separation channel through a plastic screw. The distance between the electrode surface and the channel outlet was controlled by a plastic screw and a thin-layer spacer. The electrochemical detection compartment was filled with 25 mM MES/L-histidine buffer solution (pH 7.0). All experiments were done at room temperature, sample injection were performed after the baseline current had stabilized.

2.4. Electrophoresis procedures

Before electrophoresis, the channels of each glass chip were treated by rinsing with deionized water, 0.1 M NaOH, and again with deionized water for 10 min each. The reservoirs were cleaned and the reservoir for sample solution was filled with sample solution, while all other reservoirs were filled with running buffer. Each of the corresponding pipette tips on the micro-channel chip was filled with their respective solution. Injection was carried out by applying the desired potential, 1200 V, between the sample reservoir and the grounded detection reservoir for 3 s, while all other reservoirs were allowed to float. Separation was performed by switching the high-voltage contacts and applying the corresponding separation voltages to the running buffer reservoir with the detection reservoir grounded. As soon as the voltage was switched to perform electrophoresis separation, the electrochemical analyzer was actuated to record signals.

2.5. Sample preparation

Sample solutions were blended for 300 s with a homogenizer. Two millilitre of sample solution was placed in capped centrifuge tubes and then centrifuged for 10 min at 3500 rpm. 0.5 mL of supernatant was then transferred to a centrifuge tube fitted with a filter membrane (0.45 µm Nylon membranes) and centrifuged for 5 min. The filtrate was placed in capped tubes. 0.5 mL of filtrate-sample solution was spiked with 50–100 µL of 2 mM mixed metal ion stock solution (lead(II), cadmium(II), and copper(II) ions) and further diluted with 25 mM MES and L-histidine buffer (pH 7.0) to give final concentrations of 100, 200, 400, 600, 800, and 1000 µM, respectively. Finally, the solutions were analyzed by microchip CE-ED.

3. Results and discussion

In general, the first step in using microchip CE for the determination of metal ions is the selection of the background electrolyte co-ion and subsequently, the optimization of the resolution and detection sensitivity of system. In this work, since electrochemical detection is used; the background electrolyte has a large effect on the signal sensitivity. To obtain a high signal-to-noise ratio, the conductivity of the background electrolyte co-ion, which is directly related to the electrophoretic mobility, should differ from those of analytes as much as possible. It is well known that carrier electrolytes with low-mobility co-ions are preferred for the analysis of small ions. 2-(*N*-Morpholino)ethanesulfonic acid (MES) + histidine is a typical carrier electrolyte with a low-mobility co-ion used for the separation of small ions because both compounds have relatively low mobilities. Moreover, their pK_a values are almost identical, which make them excellent components of buffer system. In the following parts, the influence of some experimental parameters such as the buffer pH, buffer concentration, the separation voltage and the detection potential on the separation efficiency and detection sensitivity are reported in detail.

3.1. Influence of the buffer pH

The running buffer pH is the first important parameter for optimization in microchip CE, the same as in conventional CE. Running buffer pH has effect on EOF rate, degree of ionization, mobility, and separation efficiency of analytes. Thus, the pH values of running buffer were examined in the pH range 6.0–8.5. All buffers contained 20 mM MES and 20 mM L-histidine. Table 1 shows the currents obtained and resolution of three metal ions (Cd(II), Pb(II), and Cu(II)). It can be seen that as buffer pH changed from 6.5 to 7.5, the three metal ions could be well separated. The highest current signal was obtained at buffer pH 7.0. Since the background noise increased relative to the signal intensity and took longer to stabilize between samples, a buffer pH of 7.0 was selected as the optimal pH for all subsequent work.

3.2. Influence of the buffer concentration

Buffer concentration is another important parameter that affects the separation efficiency and detection sensitivity. Electropherograms of 1.0 mM lead, cadmium and copper were performed in varying concentrations of pH 7.0 running buffer.

Table 1
Current and Resolution of three metal ions standards

pH of BGE	Current (nA)			Resolution	
	Pb(II)	Cd(II)	Cu(II)	$R_{Pb,Cd}$	$R_{Cd,Cu}$
6	7.35	7.35	1.87	–	7.75
6.5	1.98	14.81	7.88	2.58	2.51
7	13.49	25.71	17.09	1.91	3.33
7.5	13.25	18.48	10.99	2.18	2.31
8	14.69	20.42	13.69	1.45	1.18
8.5	11.38	11.89	10.35	1.79	1.05

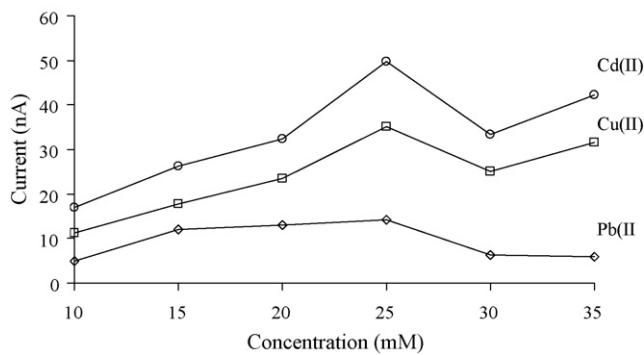


Fig. 1. The effects of the buffer concentration on peak currents. Experimental parameters: sample, 1.0 mM lead, cadmium and copper cations; running buffer, MES and L-His pH 7.0; separation voltage, 1000 V; detection potential, -0.8 V; sampling time, 3 s; working electrode, screen-printed carbon electrode.

We found that the peak current of the three cations increased with increasing buffer concentrations from 10 to 25 mM, and then decreased with further increase of the buffer concentration as shown in Fig. 1. This phenomenon can be attributed to two reasons: (1) higher concentrations of running buffer result in high ionic strength, which will decrease the difference of conductivity between the sample zone and running buffer zone and result in low signal, and (2), higher concentrations of the running buffer makes for electrostacking, which results in relatively higher concentration of the sample zone and then a relatively high signal is obtained. A running buffer concentration of 25 mM was chosen for optimal detection sensitivity.

3.3. Influence of detection potential

Since the detection potential strongly affects the sensitivity and detection limits of microchip CE with an electrochemical system, the optimal detection potential was determined by investigating a hydrodynamic voltammogram. Fig. 2 shows the results which must draw a balance between low applied potentials and enough sensitivity for all the metal ions involved at screen-printed carbon electrode. We observed that the amperometric signal of heavy metals ions increased with the increase of detection potential from -0.70 to -0.85 V. However, the baseline current and the corresponding noise level become large at higher reduction potential. The sensitivity of the signal for the three ions with the change of detection potential was also different. In order to perform the simultaneous determination of lead, cadmium, and copper, the detection potential which most influences the measurement process was optimized. From the results, it can be seen that cadmium and copper have a similar change rate of the signal, while the relative peak current of lead has a lower change rate with changing the detection potential. This suppression of the lead signal could be explained by intermetallic effect of copper [41]. There is the formation of intermetallic/solid between Cu–Pb. The phenomenon may result in low signal of Pb^{2+} , also resulting in possible calibration problem. To compromise between the sensitivity and signal-to-noise characteristics of three metals, especially Pb^{2+} , a detection potential of -0.8 V was chosen since it offered the most favorable results.

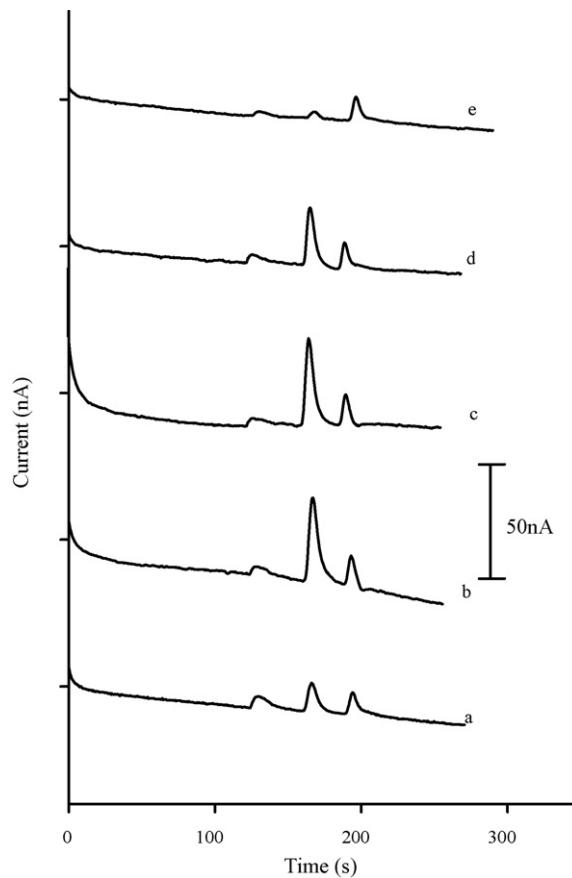


Fig. 2. Electropherograms of 1.0 mM lead, cadmium and copper cations at different detection potentials, -0.90 V (a), -0.85 V (b), -0.80 V (c), -0.75 V (d), -0.70 V (e). Experimental parameters: running buffer, 25 mM MES and L-His pH 7.0; separation voltage, 1000 V; sampling time, 3 s; working electrode, screen-printed carbon electrode.

3.4. Influence of separation voltage

The separation voltage affects the electric field strength, which in turn affects the EOF and the migration velocity of charged particles, which determine the migration times of the analytes. Moreover, higher separation voltages may result in higher Joule heating. The effect of separation voltage on the migration time of the analytes is shown in Fig. 3A. As expected, increasing the voltage gives shorter migration times but also increases the background noise, resulting in a higher detection limit. The migration times were dramatically decreased for all three metal ions, from 120 to 90 s for lead, 150 to 110 s for cadmium, and 175 to 140 s for copper. Although the resolution of analytes can be improved to some extent, too low a separation voltage will increase the analytical time considerably, which in turn causes severe peak broadening (Fig. 3B). Based on experiments, 1200 V was chosen as the optimum voltage to strike a good compromise.

3.5. Effect of oxygen

The effect of oxygen using batch system by screen-printed carbon electrode compared to that by glassy carbon electrode

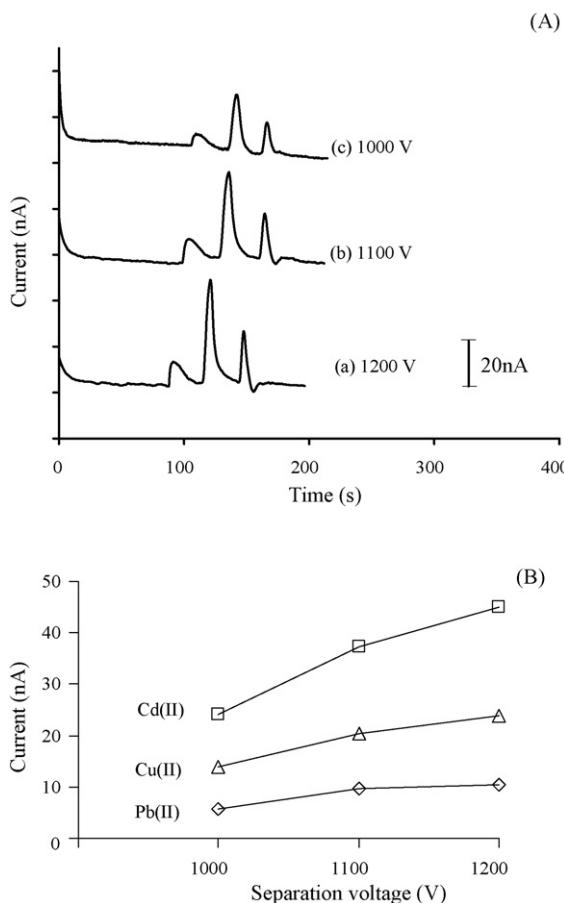


Fig. 3. Electropherograms of 1.0 mM lead, cadmium and copper cations at different separation voltages. The relationship between the peak currents and the separation voltage (A), 1200 V (a), 1100 V (b), 1000 V (c). The relationship between the peak current and the separation time (B). Other parameters same as in Fig. 2.

was studied. It was found that there was a little effect of oxygen on the background signal using screen-printed carbon electrode whereas the high effect of oxygen on the background signal using glassy carbon was obtained. It indicates that screen-printed carbon electrode is less sensitive to oxygen. We also investigated the effect of oxygen of three metals using normal and degas solutions. It was found that the peak current decreased around 11% for Cd^{2+} and 21% for Pb^{2+} , respectively. For Cu^{2+} , very small change of the peak current was obtained (data not shown). For the microchip separation system, the experiment was performed in a very small system. Therefore, the effect of oxygen on the determination of these metals can be negligible. From this point, it should be an advantage of this proposed method that it does not need to perform the experiment under the oxygen-free condition.

3.6. Linear range and detection limits

According to the previous studies on pH value and concentration of the running buffer, as well as the separation voltage and the detection potential; optimized conditions of 1200 V separation voltage, -0.8 V detection potential, with 25 mM (pH 7.0) of MES + L-histidine as running buffer were obtained. Under

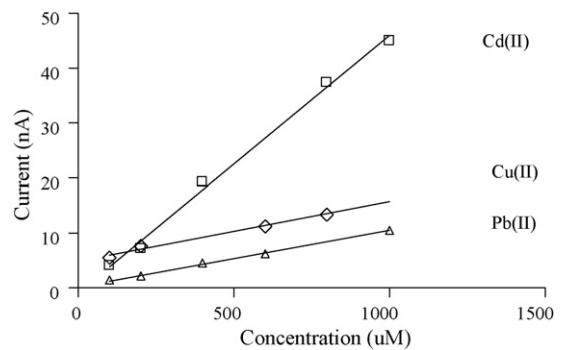


Fig. 4. The relationship between the peak currents and the concentrations. Experimental parameters: running buffer, 25 mM MES and L-His pH 7.0; separation voltage, 1200 V; detection potential, -0.8 V; sampling time, 3 s; working electrode, screen-printed carbon electrode.

the selected conditions, a series of the standard mixture solutions of lead, cadmium, and copper with a concentration range of 100–1000 μM was tested to determine the linearity for all analytes at the screen-printed carbon electrode in this system. The data are shown in Fig. 4. The results of regression analysis on calibration curves are 0.9977, 0.9902, and 0.9958 for lead, cadmium, and copper, respectively. The detection limits were evaluated on the basis of a minimum signal-to-noise ratio of 3. The calibration curves exhibit excellent linear behavior over the concentration range of about micromolar orders of magnitude, with detection limits ranging from 0.13 to 1.74 μM for all the metal ions (data shown in Table 2).

A standard mixture solution of lead, cadmium, and copper (1 mM each) was analyzed ten times to determine the reproducibility of the peak current and migration time for all analytes under the optimal conditions in this experiment. The relative standard deviations (R.S.D.s) of peak current and migration time are 4.20% and 1.47% for lead, 5.27% and 1.40% for cadmium, 3.92% and 1.20% for copper, respectively. It is indicated that the proposed system exhibited an excellent performance on both separation and detection for prolonged operation.

3.7. Sample analysis

The analytical potential of screen-printed carbon electrodes in constant EC detection coupled with microchip CE for the separation of lead, cadmium, and copper in juice samples were investigated. By applying the optimum conditions described above, the injection of three metal ions were analyzed by standard addition method. We studied the metal ions of three different juice samples obtained from a local market. The results are

Table 2

The reproducibility of peak current, retention time and limit of detection of metals

Metal ions	%R.S.D. of peak current	%R.S.D. of retention time	LOD (μM)
Cu(II)	3.92	1.20	0.13
Cd(II)	5.27	1.40	0.73
Pb(II)	4.20	1.47	1.74

Table 3

Determination of Pb(II), Cd(II), and Cu(II) in different samples by means of microchip CE-ED using screen-printed carbon electrode

Sample	Amount added (μM)			Amount found (μM)			%Recovery ($n=3$)			%R.S.D. ($n=3$)		
	Pb	Cd	Cu	Pb	Cd	Cu	Pb	Cd	Cu	Pb	Cd	Cu
Green vegetable juice	1000	750	750	1032	791.85	784.35	103.20	105.58	104.58	2.93	2.10	2.11
	750	500	500	757.95	477.15	459.65	101.06	95.43	91.93	2.37	2.39	2.67
	500	250	250	486.95	269.75	250.08	97.39	107.90	100.03	3.40	2.13	3.75
Tomato juice	1000	800	800	1012.8	775.44	781.84	101.28	96.93	97.73	2.65	0.90	2.68
	800	600	400	791.12	603.06	389.80	98.89	100.51	97.45	4.25	1.63	4.76
	400	200	200	399.92	200.50	191.18	99.98	100.25	95.59	6.48	6.07	6.23
Pine apple juice	800	800	800	819.12	803.84	810.96	102.39	100.48	101.37	3.56	2.87	2.28
	600	600	600	586.26	639.66	621.66	97.71	106.61	103.61	1.57	2.71	2.25
	400	200	500	396.56	214.62	490.05	99.14	107.31	98.01	2.13	1.87	2.57

shown in **Table 3**. Recoveries ranged from 91.93 to 107.90 with ten replicate each, giving %R.S.D.s of 0.90–6.48. The results show that the proposed methods can be efficiently used for the determination of metal ions in practical samples. Such the high speed of analysis and efficiency of proposed method, it should be possible to separate and detect other metals in different kinds of food by simply varying the detection potential.

4. Conclusions

This work presents the first application of microchip CE-ED in direct mode for the simultaneous determination of lead, cadmium, and copper in vegetable juices. It has been demonstrated that microchip CE-ED is characterized by its simplicity, quickness, higher resolution and sensitivity, excellent reproducibility, low expense of operation and minor amounts of samples and reagent. The reproducibility of quantitative analysis by this method is satisfactory. Electrochemical detection coupled with microchip CE enables selective and sensitive detection of the electroactive constituents and simplification of the electro-pherograms. We conclude that microchip CE-ED is a powerful technique for the study of heavy metal ions and has become an alternate, competitive and supplementary method for HPLC, because of its special attributes. In particular, microchip CE-ED provides an attractive approach for a portable analytical device for rapid screening and the analysis of complex systems simultaneously containing metals and heavy metals. Such a microchip CE-ED system may have wide applications, particularly in food analysis.

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ภาคผนวก ข

ภาคผนวก ข1 รางวัลและเกียรติยศ

ภาคผนวก ข2 ข่าวผลงานด้านการวิจัย

ภาคผนวก ข3 การเขียนหนังสือเพื่อเผยแพร่ประโยชน์ด้านการวิจัย

ข่าวรางวัลและเกียรติยศ

ป้าวรางวัลและเกียรติยศ

ศาสตราจารย์ ดร.เกตุ กรุดพันธ์

รับรางวัล “บุคคลดีเด่นของชาติ”

สาขาวิชายศศาสตร์และเทคโนโลยี (ด้านเคมีวิเคราะห์) ประจำปี 2547

จากคณะกรรมการอุตสาหกรรมน้ำดื่มและน้ำอุตสาหกรรม สำนักนายกรัฐมนตรี

ข่าวผลงานด้านการวิจัย

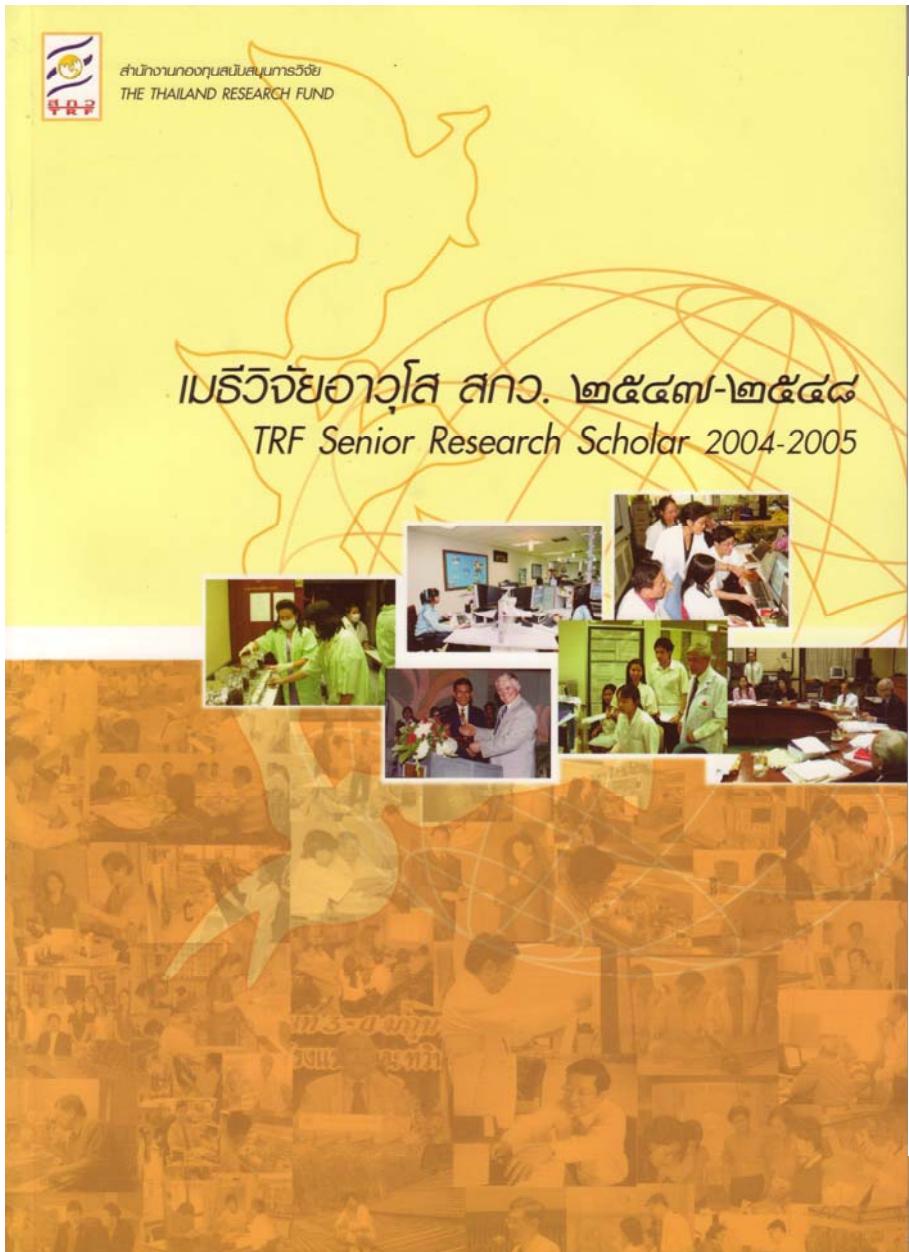
ข่าวผลงานด้านการวิจัย

ศาสตราจารย์ ดร.เกตุ กรุดพันธ์

“นักเคมีสร้างอุปกรณ์ห้าสารรั่วระดับนาโน”

บทสัมภาษณ์ จากหนังสือพิมพ์กรุงเทพธุรกิจ หน้า 9

เมื่อวันศุกร์ที่ 10 มิถุนายน 2548



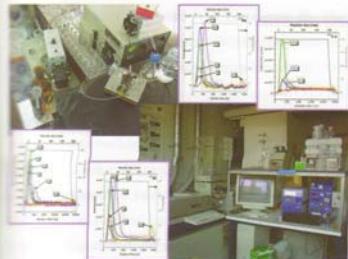


เป็นผู้รักษาอวัยวัณชีสัจพาร์ทเนอร์ให้กับงานวิชาการด้านเคมีและเคมีประยุกต์ชั้นนำที่จัดขึ้นในประเทศไทย ได้แก่ ให้เกียรติเป็นหัวหน้าวิชาการเคมีและเคมีประยุกต์ชั้นนำที่จัดขึ้นในประเทศไทย 5 ครั้ง ได้รับเชิญเป็นผู้จัดการประชุมทางวิชาการในหลายโอกาส เช่น ICAS 2001 (International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry Congress on Analytical Science 2001) ลิสต้าคม พ.ศ. 2544 กรุงเทพฯ ประเทศไทย ได้รับเกียรติเป็น Co-organizer ในงานประชุมวิชาการนานาชาติ FACIFICHEM 2005 (24-26 December 2005) ใน Symposium#16 เป็นกรรมการใน International Advisory Board ของงานประชุมวิชาการนานาชาติ เช่น International Flow Analysis IX และ X ที่เมือง Geelong ประเทศออสเตรเลีย (February 2003) และปีต่อมา (September 2006) เป็นผู้ริเริ่มใน Steering Committee ในการจัด 12th และ 13th International Conference on Flow Injection Analysis, ที่เมือง Marida, Venezuela: (December 2003) และเมือง Las Vegas ประเทศสหรัฐอเมริกา (April 2005) เป็นผู้ประสานงานด้านวิชาการจัด Interfaces of Analytical Sciences : Workshop of US and Thai Analytical Scientists ในเดือนมกราคม 2549 ที่จัดขึ้นโดยการสนับสนุนของ National Science Foundation (NSF) และหน่วยงานของไทยที่ร่วมจัดงานของทุนสนับสนุนวิชาชีพด้วย นอกจากงานนี้ยังได้รับเชิญให้พิจารณารายงาน และเป็นประธานในการวิชาการในระดับชาติและนานาชาติหลายครั้ง เช่น The 3rd International Conference on Flow Injection Analysis ที่เมือง Seattle, USA, ในเดือนสิงหาคม 2541 ได้รับเชิญให้บรรยายพิเศษในหัวข้อ “Analytical Chemistry in Micro-Device” ปี พ.ศ.2542 (สำนักงานคณะกรรมการวิจัยแห่งชาติ) นักวิจัยขนาดเล็ก ปี พ.ศ.2542 (สำนักวิทยาศาสตร์และเทคโนโลยี) “Science & Technology Research Grant” ปี พ.ศ.2543 (Thailand Totoray



งานวิจัยในอนาคต

จากการเริ่มต้นวิถีการใช้วัสดุอุปกรณ์วิเคราะห์เพื่อทักษาริสquéนท์คิด Flow Injection Analysis (FIA) ซึ่งเป็นการวิเคราะห์ต่อเนื่อง (Continuous Flow) ที่ซึ่งจะขยายการวิเคราะห์เพื่อครอบคลุมหน่วยนิยมการวิเคราะห์ที่เกี่ยวกับการไหล (Flow-based Analysis) โดยเพิ่มเติมหน่วยนิยมที่เกิดขึ้นมากจากนั้น ได้แก่ Sequential Injection Analysis (SIA) ซึ่งเป็นในส่วนของการตีบ่ยแต่ที่ใช้การในหลอดปั๊บกล่องน้ำยาบังคับปั๊บเหล็ก หลังจากนั้นได้เพิ่มเติมหน่วยนิยมที่เกี่ยวกับการหุ้นส่วนของวัสดุที่ติดต่อกัน นักวิชาการจึงเรียกว่าหุ้นส่วนของวัสดุที่ติดต่อกัน Bead Injection Analysis (BIA) ที่ให้สาระแบบละเอียดมากขึ้นในท่อนเลือด แล้วก้าวไปสู่การวิเคราะห์ที่ให้สามารถใช้ประโยชน์ของภาระที่ติดต่อกัน นักวิชาการจึงเรียกว่าหุ้นส่วนของวัสดุที่ติดต่อกัน



ในเว้นล้าหัวการวิเคราะห์ในครั้งใหม่ ซึ่งเกิดประโยชน์ที่สูง คือการประมวลผลการสอดส่องการทราบ (Inference) ได้โดยอิสระ ทั้งนี้มีผลให้ที่นี่ใช้เพื่อพัฒนาระบบและเทคโนโลยีทางชีวภาพที่นับเป็นหนึ่งในครั้งแรก คือ Lab-on-Value (LOV) หรือ Lab-at-Value (LAB) (เป็นเทคโนโลยีที่น่าสนใจโดยเช่นเดียวกัน) รวมถึงเทคโนโลยี Stopped-Flow based analysis เพื่อประโยชน์ที่ต้องการในการทราบวิเคราะห์ตัวอย่างต่างๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้องของตัวอย่างภายในตัวพื้นฐานทาง Microfluidics ซึ่งจะเป็นประโยชน์ในการวิจัยเพื่อพัฒนาระบบเครื่องดั้ง (down-scaling หรือ miniaturization) พยายามผลักดันให้มีความช่วยเหลือในระบบทั่วไปบุคลากรของสถาบันต่างๆ ที่ไม่ใช่ประเทศไทยและต่างประเทศ เช่น กลุ่มวิจัยต่างๆ ในประเทศไทยญี่ปุ่น มีความช่วยเหลือกับ Japanese Association for Flow Injection Analysis และกลุ่มวิจัยต่างๆ ในสหราชอาณาจักร โดยจัดประชุมเชิงปฏิบัติการ Interfaces of Analytical Sciences : Workshop of US and Thai Analytical Scientists พยายามทำงานเป็นทีมโดยเดินทางไปท่องเที่ยวและสัมมนาเพื่อแลกเปลี่ยนความคิดเห็นของสมาชิกและคณาจารย์ให้อ่ายอ่ายไม่ประดิษฐ์ภาพ เพื่อความแนบเนียนระบบเครื่องดั้งที่รวมถึงอุปกรณ์และเครื่องมือที่ใช้ในกระบวนการนี้

Biography and Research Summary

การนำผลงานวิจัยไปใช้ประโยชน์

ประโยชน์ที่เกิดขึ้นจากการวิจัยจะมีผลกระทำทั้ง
วงกว้างวิชาการและน่าจะมีผลต่อสังคมด้วย ทั้งนี้



Researcher in Chemical and Pharmaceutical Sciences (1999 by the National Research Council of Thailand), and TRF Senior Research Scholar I (2001, by the Thailand Research Fund). He has served on various committees including of the National Research Council of Thailand in chemical and pharmaceutical sciences (2002–present), editorial advisory boards: Talanta (Elsevier) (2000–present) and Journal of Flow Injection Analysis (Japanese Association for Flow Injection Analysis) (2003–present), Associate Editor: Water Research (Elsevier) (2003–present), Editorial board: Laboratory Robotics and Automation (LRA) (Wiley) (1997–2000), and Guest editor for special issues of the above journals. Professor Dr. Grudpan has been invited to be a course director, an organizer, and a co-organizer for national and international training courses, workshops and Conferences including International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) courses, PACIFICHEM 2005, International Conference on Flow Injection Analysis (ICFIA), Flow Analysis Conference, and the Interfaces of Analytical Sciences: Workshop of U.S. and Thai Analytical Scientists.

Lab-on-Valve (LOV), Lab-at-Valve (LAV), and Lab-on-Chip (LOC) approaches.

Consideration of downscaling/miniatrization and micro-total analysis (TAS) will be of interest.

Developments of micro- and nano-scale analysis will be made. They involve: development of instrumentation, novel approaches for flow-based analysis, new materials employed in chemical analysis and applications of flow-based analysis, which would aim for agricultural, environmental, process control and clinical/medical analysis. For the last, fast screening for diseases using some biomarkers will also be investigated as well as high sample-through-put screening in the drug discovery studies. The fast screening for diseases should be useful in telehealth.

The research should have impact on communities and society.

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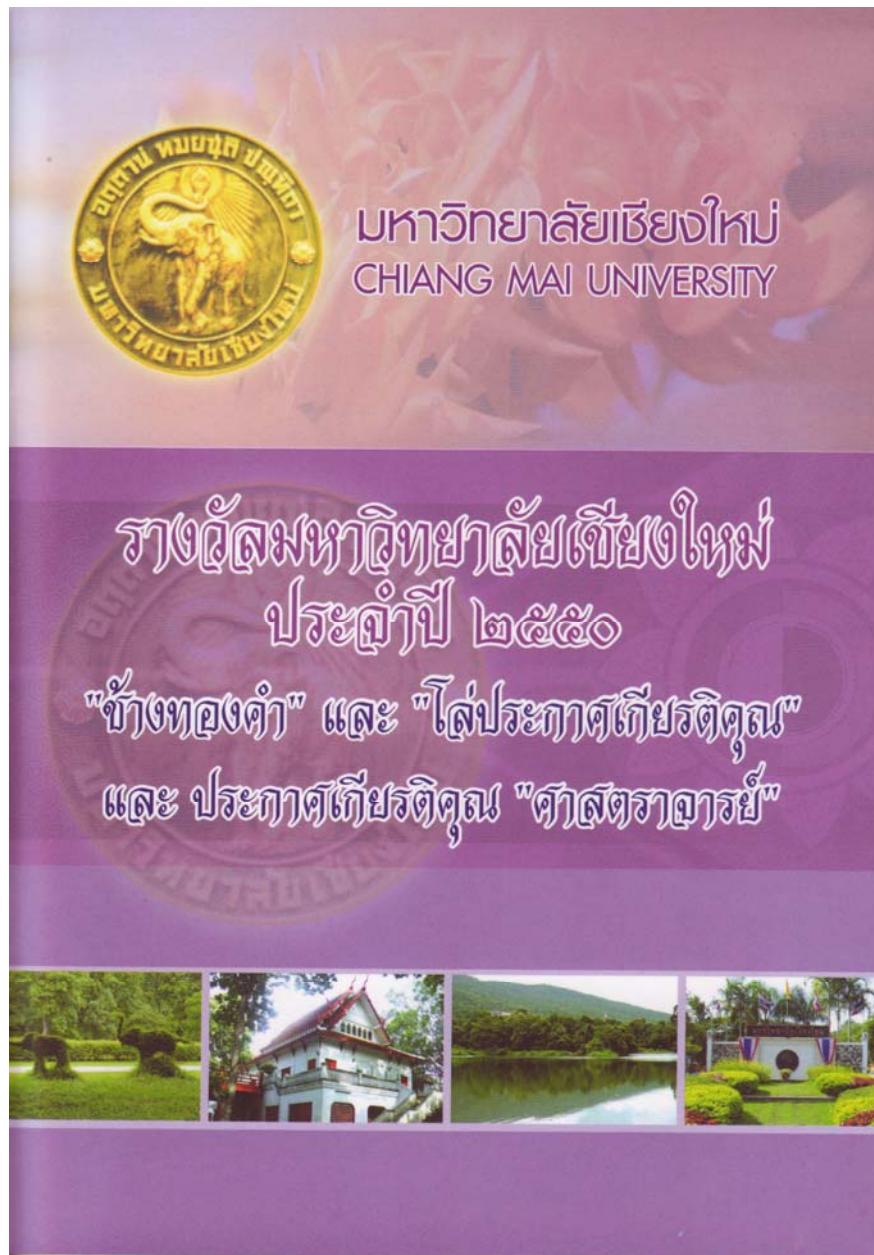
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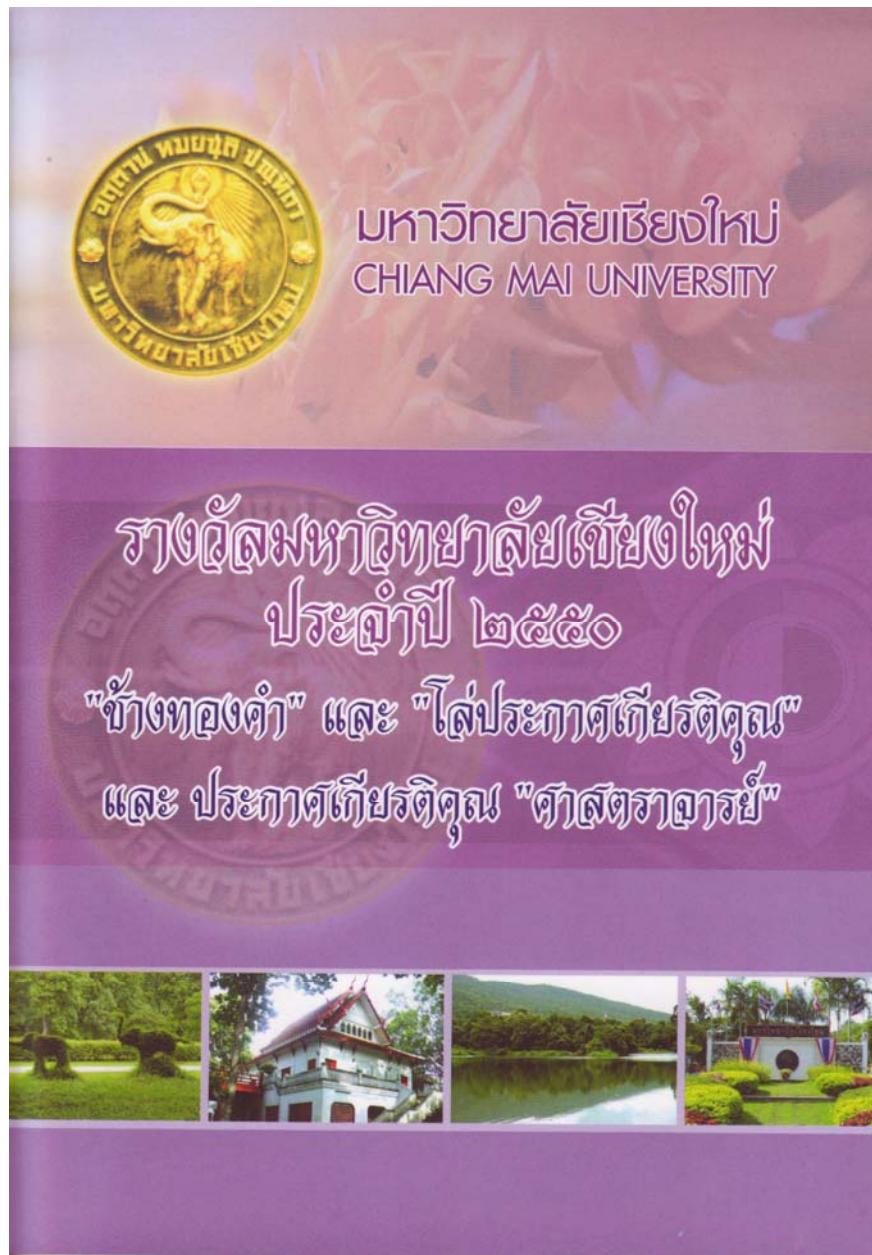
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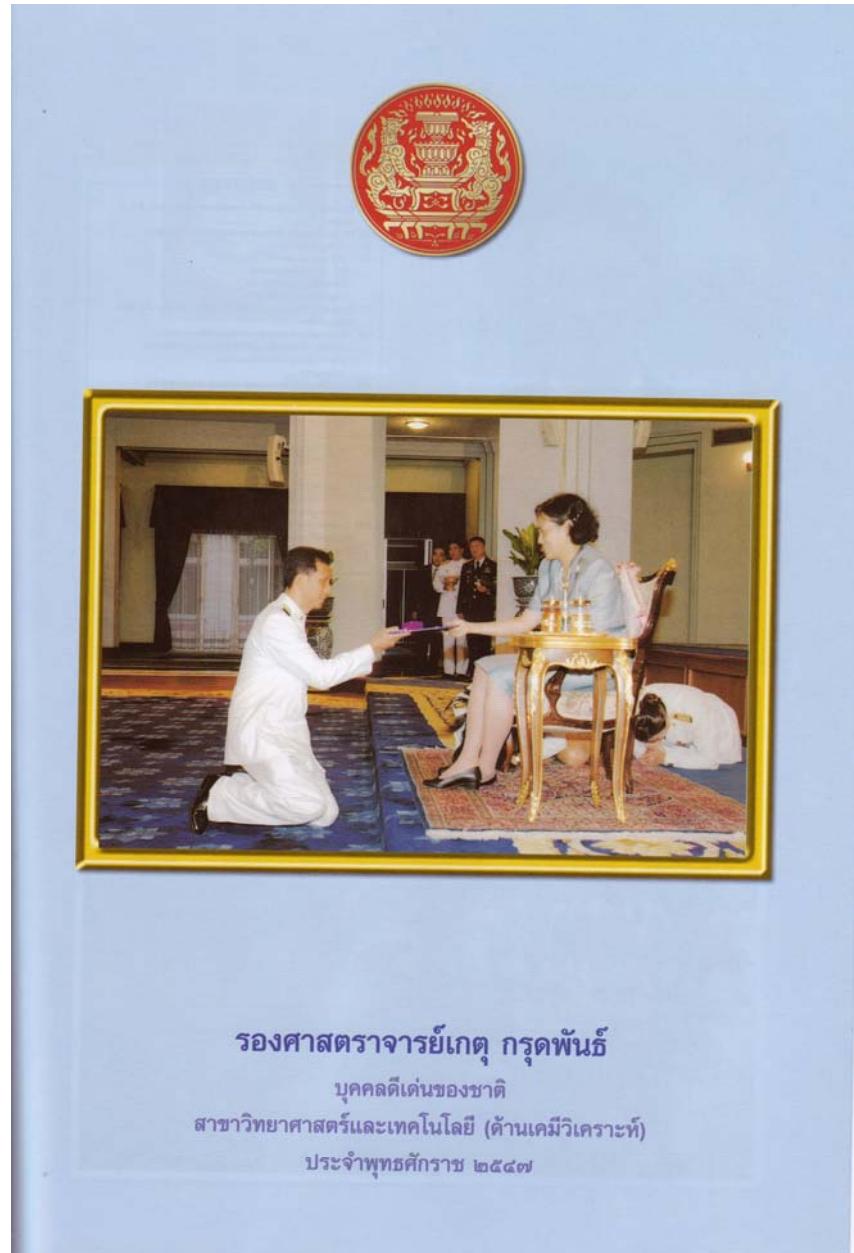
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‘กิจจิบ นช. รับรางวัล “บุคคลดีเด่นของชาติ”

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นักวิจัย นช.
รับรางวัล “บุคคลดีเด่นของชาติ”

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วิชาเคมี คณะวิทยาศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยเชียงใหม่ รับเชิดชูเกียรติ
บุคคลดีเด่นของชาติ สาขาวิทยาศาสตร์และเทคโนโลยี ด้านเคมี
วิเคราะห์ ประจำปี 2547

คณะกรรมการตัดเลือกและเผยแพร่ผลงานดีเด่นของชาติ โดย
คณะกรรมการอเล็กซิชน์ของชาติ ได้สรรหาตัดเลือกผลงานดีเด่นของ
บุคคล หน่วยงาน และโครงการที่เด่นของชาติ เพื่อเป็นการส่งเสริมและให้เกียรติ
และหน่วยงานที่ทำคุณประโยชน์ต่อประเทศชาติ โดยในปีนี้ได้พิจารณาตัดเลือกเป็นที่เรียบ
ร้อย ผลปรากฏว่า รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.เกตุ กรุดพันธ์ รองศาสตราจารย์ระดับ 9 ภาควิชา
เคมี คณะวิทยาศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยเชียงใหม่ ได้รับการบูรณาภิเษดคุณ เป็นบุคคลดี
เด่นของชาติ สาขาวิทยาศาสตร์และเทคโนโลยี (ด้านเคมีวิเคราะห์) ประจำปี 2547 ซึ่ง
คณะกรรมการฯ จึงได้นำผู้ได้รับการประกาศเกียรติคุณ เข้าร่วมกิจกรรมของศูนย์ระหว่างชาติ
พระบรมราชโณศิริฯ ประจำปี 2547 เพื่อรับพระราชทานรางวัลเกียรติคุณบุคคลและหน่วยงานดี
เด่นของชาติในโอกาสต่อไป

รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.เกตุ กรุดพันธ์ เป็นผู้ได้รับการยกย่องเชิดชูเกียรติมามาก
หลายรางวัล อาทิ เมธิวชัยอุจุโนส สำนักงาน คณะกรรมการวิจัยแห่งชาติ สาขาวิชาเคมี ประจำ
ปี 2544 - 2546 นักวิทยาศาสตร์ดีเด่น สาขาวิชาเคมีวิเคราะห์ ปี 2544 จากมูลนิธิสิ่งแวดล้อม
วิทยาศาสตร์และเทคโนโลยี ในพระบรมราชูปถัมภ์ นักวิจัยดีเด่นแห่งชาติ สาขาวิทยา
ศาสตร์เคมี-เคมี ปี 2542 ของสถาบันวิจัยฯ และ นักศึกษาเก่าตีเด่นมหาวิทยาลัยเชียงใหม่
ประจำปี 2542 เป็นต้น



คณะกรรมการอาลักษณ์ของชาติ

สำนักนายกรัฐมนตรี

ขอขอบเกียรติบัตรนี้ให้แก่

รายงานการจราจรย์เกต ภารกพหนี้ บุคคลตัวต่อพนักงาน สำหรับผู้ต้องหาในคดีฟ้อง (คดีหมายเลขคดี)

ประจำปีพุทธศักราช ๒๕๖๗

จึงขอขอบคุณที่บัตรนี้เพื่อเป็นเกียรติ และตักดีคริสบุป

(ພາຍໃຕ້ອຸປະກອດ ເກືອບາກ)

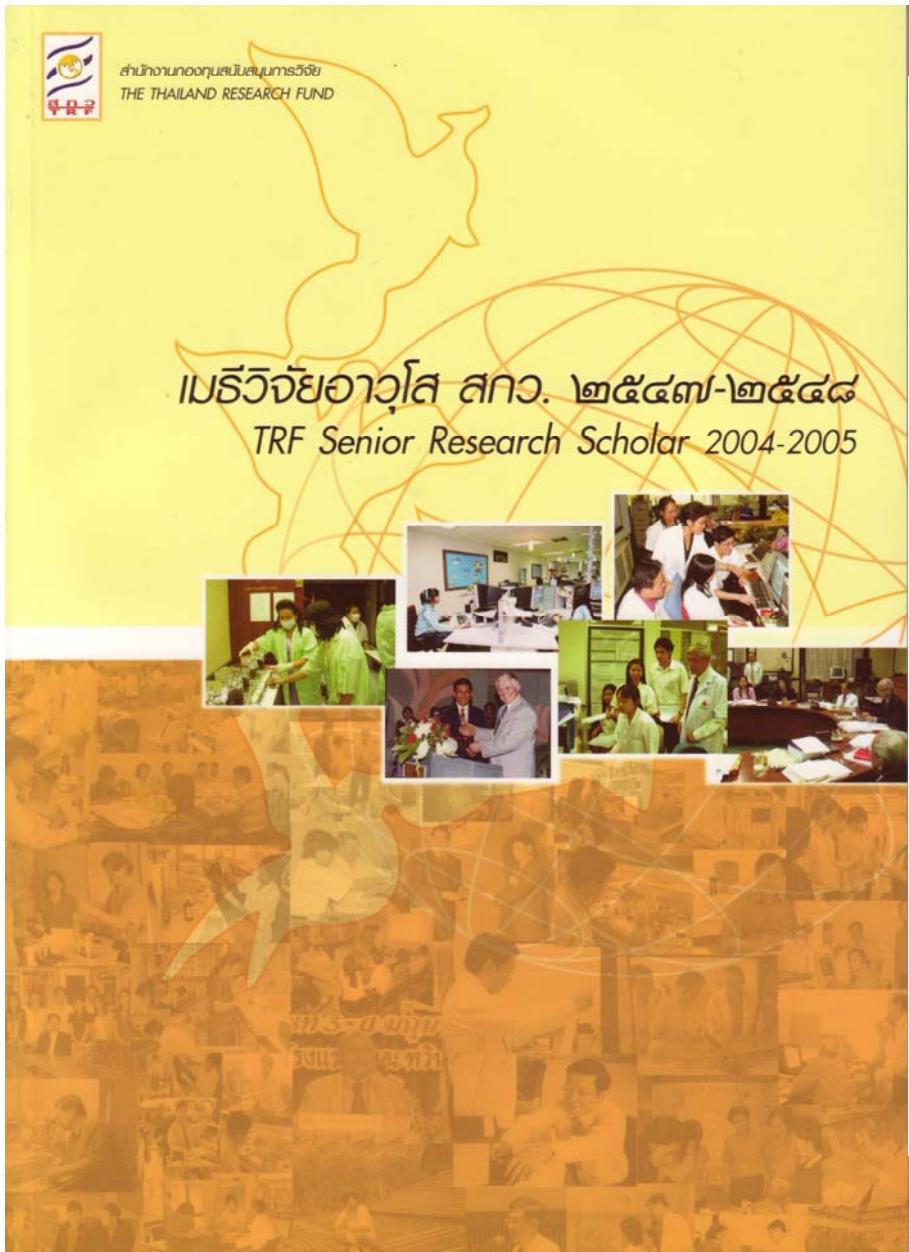
ร่องรอยการรุกรานที่ริมแม่น้ำ

ประชุมทางวิชาการระดับชาติ

John [Signature]

(ພາຍແພດ ຕັກອົປະກາຕົກ)

ທີ່ອານຸມັດນັ້ນກຳນົດເລືອດແລະເພື່ອພັດທະສົງ ແລັດເຕີເປັນອານຸມັດ

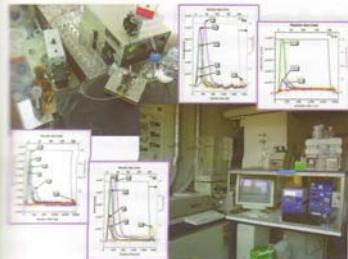




ในระดับอุณหสิทธิ์ ได้มีความต้องการในการทำงานอย่างจังจังและต้องเนื่องในการดักน้ำที่เกิดจากวัสดุ และพัฒนาทางด้านนี้ประมาณ 20 ปีก็เกิดประดิษฐ์ขึ้นของงานนี้ คุณรอน โคลีบรีแก้ไขให้สนใจพัฒนาระบบการวิเคราะห์คุณภาพในห้องทดลอง Flow Injection Analysis (FIA) ในส่วนของการพัฒนาอยู่ปัจจุบัน เห็นจะมีเชิงมีการพัฒนาอย่างต่อเนื่อง แต่ก็ปฏิริชีวะมีที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการวิเคราะห์คุณภาพในห้องทดลอง แม้แต่ที่เป็นชีววิทยาที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการวิเคราะห์คุณภาพในห้องทดลอง ที่มีความถูกต้อง แม้แต่ที่เป็นชีววิทยาที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการวิเคราะห์คุณภาพในห้องทดลอง เป็นเช่นนี้จึงเป็นที่มาที่ไปของ “L-Cos Man”

การที่ได้สนใจเริ่มการที่วิจัยเพื่อศึกษาและพัฒนาการวิเคราะห์น้ำโดยเทคนิค Flow Injection Analysis (FIA) เนื่องจากเป็นการท้าทายในเรื่องความสามารถที่ต้องทำให้วิจัยในความจำกัดในขนาดฯ ด้าน ได้แก่พัฒนาและต้องการผลลัพธ์ที่ถูกต้องในระยะเวลาสั้นๆ และเกิดองค์ความรู้ใหม่ฯ ทางวิชาการเป็นที่ยอมรับ ทั้งด้วยสถาบันที่มีพิจารณาถึงการครอบคลุมการผลิตต่อ ภาคส่วนของมนุษย์ หรือการที่จะเป็นน้ำที่สะอาดและน้ำดื่มน้ำดื่มที่คำนึงถึงกับน้ำซึ่งมีผลการวิเคราะห์น้ำเพลิดเพลิน ได้ถูกทิ้งไป ได้แก่ ความถูกต้อง ความแม่นยำฯ และความเชื่อถือของน้ำซึ่งมีผล เพราะการได้รับน้ำซึ่งมีพิษพิษต่อ ทำให้การสรุปผลหรือการตัดสินใจมีผลลัพธ์ ก่อให้เกิดผลเสียได้ นอกจากน้ำดื่มน้ำดื่มที่ต้องใช้ในภาคนา ให้เกิดชื่อผลการวิเคราะห์ที่ต้องการ เช่น ได้ใช้ชื่อ แรงงาน ซึ่งน้ำดื่มน้ำดื่มน้ำไม่สามารถแก้ปัญหาทางวิเคราะห์ที่ทำลักษณะข้อมูลในปัจจุบันแล้ว ถ้าเป็นน้ำดื่มน้ำดื่มน้ำ หรือเครื่องดื่มน้ำในการวิจัยพัฒนาให้ถูกต้อง ให้เกิดข้อเสียที่ต้องรับประทานให้เกิดประโยชน์ให้เกิดประโยชน์ ที่ให้ได้ต้องกลุ่มเสียงเงินตราในจังหวัด วิเคราะห์น้ำดื่มน้ำดื่มน้ำ ที่ให้ได้ต้องกลุ่มเสียงเงินตราในจังหวัด

งานวิจัยในอนาคต



ในเว็บนี้ได้รับการวิเคราะห์ในครั้งใหม่ ซึ่งเกิดประโยชน์มาก ประการนี้ถือว่าเป็นการอุปนัย (Inference) ได้ แต่ครั้งที่ทั้งนี้ไม่ใช่ที่ใช้ข้อมูลเพื่อพัฒนาระบบและเทคโนโลยี นี้คือการที่แนบให้ทั้งร่วมกับ Lab-on-Value (LOV) หรือ Lab-at-Value (LAV) (เป็นเทคโนโลยีที่นำเสนอโดย นักวิจัยฯ) รวมถึงทักษิณ Stopped-Flow based analysis เพื่อประยุกต์ใช้ก้าวในการวิเคราะห์ตัวอย่างนิคต่างๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้องของลักษณะในใช้พื้นที่ขนาดเล็ก Microfluidics ซึ่งจะเป็นประโยชน์ในการวิจัยเพื่อพัฒนา ผลิตภัณฑ์ (down-scaling หรือ miniaturization) พยายามผลักดันให้มีความร่วมมือในระดับวุฒิการของ สถาบันต่างๆ ที่ในประเทศไทยและต่างประเทศ เช่น กลุ่ม วิจัยต่างๆ ในประเทศไทยญี่ปุ่น มีความร่วมมือกับ Japanese Association for Flow Injection Analysis และกลุ่ม วิจัยต่างๆ ในสหราชอาณาจักร โคบจัดประชุมเชิงปฏิบัติการ Interfaces of Analytical Sciences : Workshop of US and Thai Analytical Scientists พยายามทำงานเข้าเป็น ทีมให้เกิดเด็กยกภารที่เด่นของสมัยกิจเดลล์และคุณอุ๊ดี้ อย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ เพื่อการเผยแพร่เป็นระบบให้กับครัวเรือนที่อยู่บ้าน

Biography and Research Summary

教授 Dr. Kate Grudpan received his B.S. (Chemistry) from Chiang Mai University in 1974, and Ph.D. degree in analytical chemistry from Liverpool John Moores University, UK in 1981. He became a lecturer in the Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Science, Chiang Mai University in 1974, where is now a professor. Professor Dr. Grudpan has received many awards and honors during his career due to his extensive research work. He received the "JAFIA scientific Award" (2002 by the Japanese Association for Flow Injection Analysis, JAFIA, Outstanding Person of Thailand in Science and Technology (Analytical Chemistry) (2004 by

การนำผลงานวิจัยไปใช้ประโยชน์

ประโยชน์ที่เกิดขึ้นจากการวิจัยจะมีผลกระทำทั้ง
วงจรวิชาการของแล้วว่าจะมีผลต่อสังคมด้วย ทั้งนี้



Researcher in Chemical and Pharmaceutical Sciences (1999 by the National Research Council of Thailand), and TRF Senior Research Scholar I (2001, by the Thailand Research Fund). He has served on various committees including of the National Research Council of Thailand in chemical and pharmaceutical sciences (2002–present), editorial advisory boards: Talanta (Elsevier) (2000–present) and Journal of Flow Injection Analysis (Japanese Association for Flow Injection Analysis) (2003–present), Associate Editor: Water Research (Elsevier) (2003–present), Editorial board: Laboratory Robotics and Automation (LRA) (Wiley) (1997–2000), and Guest editor for special issues of the above journals. Professor Dr. Grudpan has been invited to be a course director, an organizer, and a co-organizer for national and international training courses, workshops and Conferences including International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) courses, PACIFICHEM 2005, International Conference on Flow Injection Analysis (ICFIA), Flow Analysis Conference, and the Interfaces of Analytical Sciences: Workshop of U.S. and Thai Analytical Scientists.

Lab-on-Valve (LOV), Lab-at-Valve (LAV), and Lab-on-Chip (LOC) approaches.

Consideration of downscaling/miniatrization and micro-total analysis (TAS) will be of interest.

Developments of micro- and nano-scale analysis will be made. They involve: development of instrumentation, novel approaches for flow-based analysis, new materials employed in chemical analysis and applications of flow-based analysis, which would aim for agricultural, environmental, process control and clinical/medical analysis. For the last, fast screening for diseases using some biomarkers will also be investigated as well as high sample-through-put screening in the drug discovery studies. The fast screening for diseases should be useful in telehealth.

The research should have impact on communities and society.

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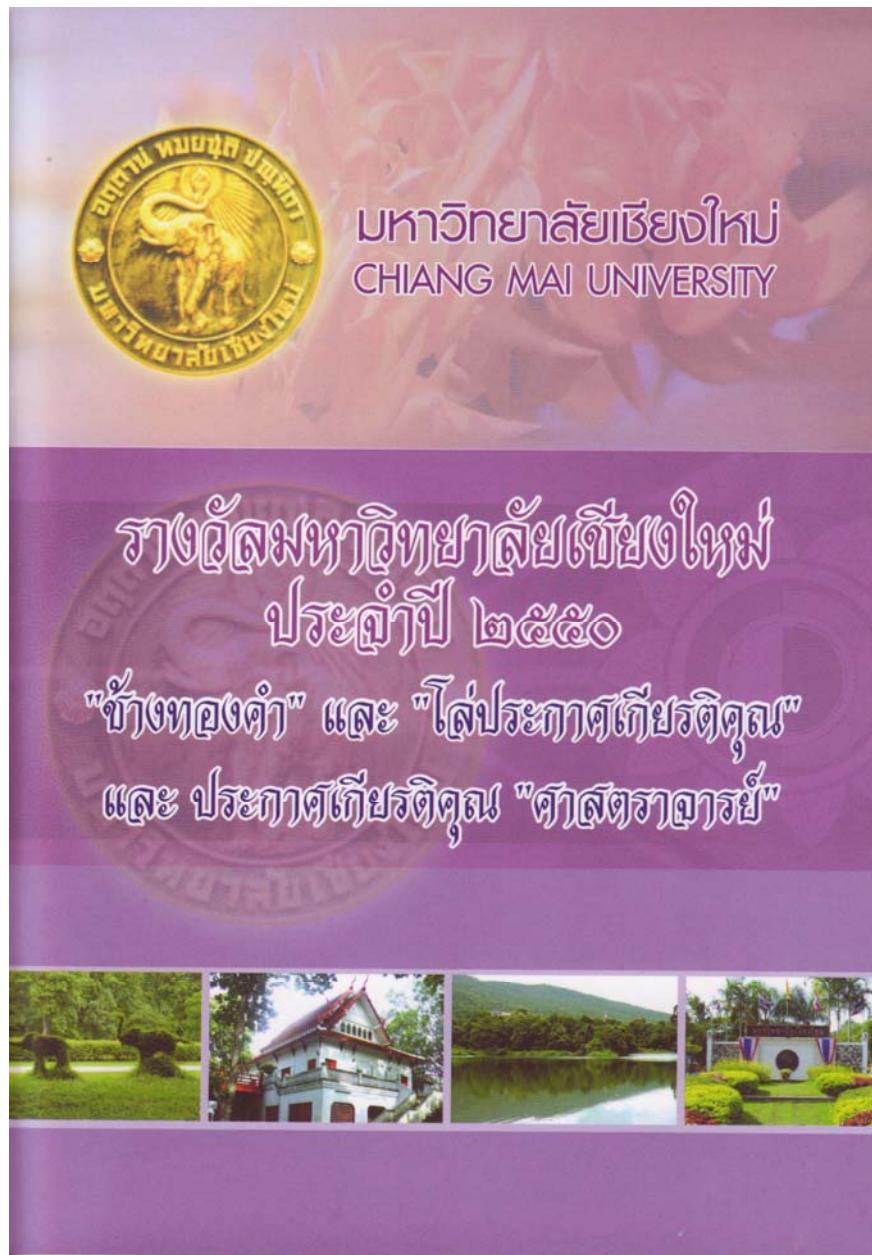
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INNOVATION INVENTION

นักวิจัยเชี่ยวใหม่คิดค้นเทคโนโลยี
วิเคราะห์สารเคมีต่ำกว่า ทรัพยากริม
แม่น้ำเจ้าพระยาได้อัตโนมัติ เมื่อสามารถ
ประยุกต์ใช้เครื่องหักห้ามเพห์ยและ
สามารถสุขชุมชนที่นักลงทุนไทยและต่างชาติ
สนใจอยอดงานวิจัยสู่พาณิชย์

รศ.ดร.เกตุ กรุดพันธ์ นักวิจัยจากห้องปฏิบัติ
การสูญเสียเพื่อศึกษาการต้านการพัฒนา
เพื่อการลดขนาดในการวิเคราะห์โดยการให้
ภาควิชาเคมี คณะวิทยาศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัย
เชียงใหม่ เปิดเผยว่า ทีมวิจัยได้พัฒนาเทคโนโลยี
การวิเคราะห์หักห้ามเพห์ยใหม่ โดยใช้เทคโนโลยี
ไหลของสาร (Flowbased Analysis) สามารถ
ช่วยในงานอุดตสาหกรรมตรวจสอบวิเคราะห์สารเคมี
ต่ำกว่าในผลิตภัณฑ์ต่างๆ อาทิ อาหาร กุ้งหรือ
ไก่สดส่งออก รวมทั้งตรวจสอบว่าใน流传์
ในกระบวนการผลิต

นักเคมีสร้างอุปกรณ์ห้ามหักห้ามเพห์ยระดับนานาชาติ

ทีมวิจัยได้พัฒนาเพื่อเพิ่มระบบและวิธีการ
วิเคราะห์ที่มีอยู่ ให้มีประสิทธิภาพและรวดเร็วขึ้น
โดยระบบที่คิดค้นขึ้นนี้สามารถตรวจส่วนผสม
ได้ตั้งแต่ 60-360 ตัวอย่างต่อชั่วโมง และตรวจ
เคราะห์ได้แม่นยำทั้งสารเคมีปัจจุบันและต่อกัน
ในระดับต่ำเพียง 1 ใน 1000 ล้านส่วน รวมทั้ง
ตัวเครื่องประกอบขึ้นเองภายในประเทศ
ส่งผลให้การวิเคราะห์มีราคาถูก

“เครื่องมือวิเคราะห์ที่ที่สร้างขึ้นนี้ได้รับ¹
การยอมรับในวงการวิชาการตั้งแต่สถาปัตย์และยังได้
รับความร่วมมือจากสถาบันการศึกษาทั่วไปและ
ต่างประเทศร่วมท่านนวัตกรรม รวมถึงภาคเอกชน
เองได้เข้ามาร่วมในการพัฒนางานวิจัยให้เป็น²
ประโยชน์ในเชิงพาณิชย์ โดยสำนักงานนวัตกรรม
แห่งชาติ (สสช.) สนับสนุนทุนวิจัย” รศ.ดร.
เกตุ กล่าว

นอกจากนี้ เทคโนโลยีที่พัฒนาขึ้นยัง³
สามารถประยุกต์ใช้กับการตรวจสอบวิเคราะห์ต้านต่างๆ
อาทิ การวิเคราะห์หักห้ามเพห์ย ซึ่งจากความรู้ที่

ได้นำไปสู่การสร้างเครื่องมือแบบอัตโนมัติ
เพื่อตรวจท่าโลหะหนักที่ปั่นเป็นอนในน้ำได้อย่าง
รวดเร็ว เช่น ตะเกีย แคตเมี่ยม ทองแดง สังกะสี
โดยได้รับความร่วมมือระหว่างกงสุลวิจัยกับบริษัท
เอกชนในสหราชอาณาจักรแลนด์ อิกทั้งสามารถวิเคราะห์
น้ำเสียจากโรงงาน

ทั้งนี้ ทีมวิจัยยังได้ร่วมมือกับกลุ่มวิจัยจาก
ญี่ปุ่น พัฒนาเครื่องมือวิเคราะห์คลอร์ไธล์และเครื่อง
วิเคราะห์สารเคมีในระดับนานาชาติ โดยลักษณะที่น่าสนใจ
คือรู้จักห้ามเพห์ยในเชิงชั้นต่ำ ซึ่งขณะนี้อยู่ในขั้นตอน
การพิจารณาที่จะนำไปใช้ในภาคอุตสาหกรรม
ชั้นต่ำ เช่น ห้ามเพห์ยในเชิงพาณิชย์ และยังมีความ
ร่วมมือกับนักวิจัยในประเทศในการพัฒนาหักห้ามเพห์ยที่
จะนำไปใช้ในเชิงพาณิชย์

ในส่วนการใช้ประโยชน์จากการแพทย์
สามารถนำไปใช้กับเครื่องมือตรวจตัดกรองผู้ป่วย
มะเร็งและโรคซื้อ เพื่อช่วยในการวินิจฉัยโรคให้
ถูกต้อง รวดเร็วและราคาถูก โดยเครื่องตั้งกล่าว
ก้าวลงสู่ในชั้นต่ำของการพัฒนาเช่นกัน
จากนั้นจะนำไปใช้ประโยชน์จริงในอนาคต

ภาคนวัก ค

การจัดประชุมวิชาการประจำปี

ภาคนวัก ค1	The 4 th Annual Symposium on TRF Senior Research Scholar On “Development of Micro-and Nano-scale Analysis by Flow-based Techniques I”
ภาคนวัก ค2	The 5 th Annual Symposium on TRF Senior Research Scholar on “Development of Micro-and Nano-scale Analysis by Flow-based Techniques II”
ภาคนวัก ค3	The 6 th Annual Symposium: TRF Senior Research Scholar and Research group on Innovation on Analytical Instrumentation CHE: “Development of Flow- based Analysis for Better Life Quality”
ภาคนวัก ค4	Interfaces of Analytical Sciences: Workshop of U.S. and Thai Analytical Scientists

การจัดประชุมวิชาการประจำปี

The 4th Annual Symposium on TRF Senior Research Scholar On
“Development of Micro-and Nano-scale Analysis by Flow-
based Techniques I”

The 4th Annual Symposium on TRF Senior Research Scholar on “Development of Micro-and Nano-scale Analysis by Flow-based Techniques I”

Program & Abstracts



19th September 2005

Chiang Mai University

Chiang Mai, THAILAND



**The 4th Annual Symposium on TRF Senior Research Scholar on
“Development of Micro-and Nano-scale Analysis by Flow-based Techniques I”**
At Room 1 ScB 2
Faculty of Science, Chiang Mai University
19th September 2004

8.15 - 8.30	Registration
8.30 - 8.45	Opening session - “Symposium Objectives” and “Progress on the Development of Micro-and Nano-scale Analysis by Flow-based Techniques: the phase II on the TRF Senior Scholar Project” by Prof. Dr. Kate Grudpan, TRF Senior Research Scholar - Opening address by the Director, Academic Division, TRF
8.45 - 9.10	Plenary Lecture I: Prof. Dr. Tadao Sakai, Aichi Institute of Technology, Japan.
9.10 - 9.35	Plenary Lecture II: Prof. Dr. Shoji Motomizu, Department of Chemistry, Faculty of Science, Okayama University, Japan.
9.35 - 10.00	<i>Coffee break</i>
10.00 - 10.15	Invited Lecture I: Prof. Dr. H. Itabashi, Gunma University, Japan.
10.15 - 10.30	Invited Lecture II: Assoc. Prof. Dr. N. Teshima, Aichi Institute of Technology, Japan.
10.30 - 10.45	Invited Lecture III: Dr. K. Higuchi, Ogawa Co. Ltd., Japan.
10.45 - 10.55	*Oral presentation 1 (for P-01, Dr. D. Nacapricha)
10.55 - 11.05	*Oral presentation 2 (for P-02-03, W. Siangproh)
11.05 - 11.15	*Oral presentation 3 (for P-08, Dr. R. Burakhram)
11.15 - 11.25	*Oral presentation 4 (for P-09, W. Siriangkhawut)
11.25 - 11.35	*Oral presentation 5 (for P-10, N. Miyoshi)
11.35 - 11.45	*Oral presentation 6 (for P-11, T. Suekane)
11.45 - 11.55	*Oral presentation 7 (for P-12, S. Somnam)
11.55 - 12.05	*Oral presentation 8 (for P-13, K. Watla-iad)
12.05 - 12.15	*Oral presentation 9 (for P-14, D. Somprayoon)
12.15 - 13.30	<i>Lunch</i>
13.30 - 14.30	Discussion at Posters
14.30 - 16.00	Discussion in Overall

* Note (1) Some from the all posters presented
(2) Should be with in 3 slides

List of Presentations

No.	Title
PL-01	Multi Element Detection Systems using Flow-based Techniques
PL-02	Ultratrace Analytical Chemistry Coupled with Flow-Based Techniques: Its Great Contribution to Now-Going Manufacturing
ILP-01	All Injection Analysis for Determination of Chromium(VI)
ILP-02	Flow Analysis of Gaseous Samples: Nitrogen Oxides in Air and Acetone in Breath
ILP-03	Simple and Mild On-Line Photo-Chemical Decomposition / Analytical Method for Organic Phosphorus Compounds
ILP-04	Non-Poisonous Analytical Method for Nitrate Based on Photo-Chemical Reduction
P-01	Application of Boron-doped Diamond Thin Film Electrode for Ion Chromatography
P-02	Microchip Capillary Electrophoresis with Screen-printed Carbon Electrode for the Analysis of Plastic Explosives
P-03	Determination of Hydrazine Compounds Using Microchip Capillary Electrophoresis and a Cobalt Phthalocyanine Modified Electrochemical Detector
P-04	Electrochemical Oxidation of Malachite Green and Leucomalachite Green at Boron-Doped Diamond Thin Film Electrode Applied to Flow Injection System
P-05	Electrochemical Analysis Sulfonamides by FIA and HPLC Coupled with Amperometric Detection in Eggs Using Boron-doped Diamond Thin Film Electrode
P-06	Analysis of Carboxylic Acids using Capillary Zone Electrophoresis with Pre-Capillary Derivatization
P-07	Anion Exchange Chromatography for Determination of Carboxylic Acids in Cane Juice and Raw Sugar

P-08	Sequential Injection-Lab-at-Valve for On-line Micro Extraction
P-09	Sequential Injection-Monosegmented Flow for On-line Standard Addition Voltammetric Determination of Some Heavy Metals
P-10	Determination of Vanadium by Using Chelating Disk for Collection / Concentration
P-11	Simple FIA System for Monitoring Ammonia in Air: Development for a Study in Thailand
P-12	Hydrodynamic Flow System for the Determination of Iron
P-13	Sequential Injection Analysis for Bradford Protein in Milk
P-14	Online Determination of Bone Alkaline Phosphatase Using Flow Injection-bead Injection System
P-15	SIA-Capillary Immunoassay System for Determination of Hyaluronic Acid
P-16	Novel Approach for Micro-titration Using SIA-LOV
P-17	Flow Injection Determination of Iron Using Guava Leaf Extract as an Alternative Natural Reagent
P-18	Reinvestigation of the Electrochemical Reactions in the Phosphomolybdate Formation
P-19	Spectrophotometric Determination of Dissolved Inorganic Carbon (DIC) and Dissolved Organic Carbon (DOC) in Natural Water by Using Sequential Injection Analysis with On-line UV Photo-Oxidation
P-20	Lab-on-a-Chip in Thailand
P-21	A Simple Sequential Injection Analysis Method for Determination of Iron
P-22	Spectrophotometric Determination of Zinc in Pharmaceutical Preparations by Use of a Sequential Injection Analysis System with 1-(2-Pyridylazo)-2-Naphthol and Non-Ionic Surfactant

P-23	Optical Sensor for Determination of Copper in Micro Flow System
P-24	Colorimetric Flow-Injection Analysis Assay of Tetracycline Antibiotics using A Dual Light-Emitting Diode based Detector
P-25	Online Sulfide Removal for Phosphate Determination
P-26	Optimization of Capillary Electrophoresis Technique for Separation of Organophosphorous
P-27	Calibration Method for Simultaneous Determination of Chlorate and Chlorite from Flow Injection-Differential Pulse Voltammogram in Agrochemical Samples
P-28	Program for Fast Identification of Gasoline Trademarks by their Dynamic Interfacial Pressure

A Report on the 4th Annual Symposium on TRF Senior Research Scholar on Flow Based Analysis in Thailand*

Tadao Sakai

Department of Applied Chemistry, Aichi Institute of Technology, 1247 Yachigusa, Yakusa-cho, Toyota 470-0392, Japan

*Translated from original Japanese, published in Journal of Flow Injection Analysis, Vol. 22, No. 2, pp. 138-139, to this English version by Associate Professor Norio Teshima, Aichi Institute of Technology, Japan.

The 4th Annual symposium on TRF senior research scholar on "Development of micro- and nano-scale analysis by flow-based techniques I" was held in Chiang Mai University on Sep. 19th, 2005. The TRF has been supported by Thai government for 6 years. This symposium was organized by Prof. Kate Grudpan of Chiang Mai University who has a strong relationship to Japanese Association for Flow Injection Analysis (JAFIA) members. Kate was promoted to professor on November, 2004. I am very pleased to hear that he is the first professor of analytical chemistry field in Thailand and also the first professor in Department of Chemistry, Chiang Mai University. I believe that all JAFIA members must also feel happy to hear the good news. Kate organized the 11th International Conference on Flow Injection Analysis held on December, 2001 which was a very impressive conference. He was a winner of FIA Award for Science in 2003 when we celebrated the twenty fifth anniversary of the founding of JAFIA. Also, he has been to Japan many times, and I think that he has enjoyed friendship with JAFIA members for the last decade. The symposium has been dependent on his great effort for these days. Prof. Shoji Motomizu of Okayama University as a JAFIA member attended the 1st TRF symposium. I have also attended the TRF symposium since the 2nd. Last year Prof. Motomizu, Prof. Hiroyuki Ukeda of Kochi University, Prof. Hideyuki Itabashi of Gunma University, Dr. Keiro Higuchi of F·I·A instruments (his current affiliation: Ogawa & Co.) and I attended the 3rd symposium, and Dr. Norio Teshima joined Japanese participants from this symposium.

Recently, the Thai government has been taking positive attitude to deal with education for young generation and the international cultural and academic exchanges. The symposium has been developed by Thailand Research Fund (TRF) and Postgraduate Education and Research Program in Chemistry. The project is evaluated every three years, and the Phase II project has just begun since this year. Kate told me that the primary aim of this project was to develop miniaturization and micro-total-analysis system (μ TAS) such as lab-at-valve (LAV), micro-titration, SIA with in-line standard addition and stopped-flow techniques. The researches on flow-based analytical methods of analysis have been expanding from Chiang Mai University to other universities such as Mahidol University, Chulalongkorn University, Khon Kean University and so on. Also, the symposium gives good opportunities to young researchers such as posdocs, Ph.D. and/or M.S. students, so that they can internationalize themselves and build up their international relationships. Prof. Gary D. Christian of University of Washington (USA), Prof. Jaromir Ruzicka of University of Washington, Prof. Ian D. McKelvie of Monash University



(Australia), Elo H. Hansen of Technical University of Denmark (Denmark) and Prof. Purnendu K. Dasgupta of Texas Tech University (USA) have contributed their help to the project.

An opening session started at 8:30 am, and Prof. Kate gave us his opening talk which included the aim and successful results of the symposium, followed by an address given by the secretariat of the TRF. There were two plenary lectures (PL I, PL II) and three invited lectures (IL I, IL II, IL III) as follows.

PL I: "Multi element detection systems using flow-based techniques" by Tadao Sakai (Aichi Institute of Technology).

PL II: "Ultratrace analytical chemistry coupled with flow-based techniques: its great contribution to now-going manufacturing" by Shoji Motomizu (Okayama University)

IL I: "All injection analysis for determination of chromium(VI) by Hideyuki Itabashi (Gunma University).

IL II: "Flow analysis of gaseous samples: nitrogen oxides in air and acetone in breath" by Norio Teshima (Aichi Institute of Technology).

IL III: "Simple and mild on-line photo-chemical decomposition/analytical method for organic phosphorus compounds" by Keiro Higuchi (Ogawa & Co.).

Thereafter, there were nine oral presentations by Ph.D. or M.S. students. In this section, Miss Miyoshi and Mr. Suekane who are Japanese exchange students from Prof. Motomizu's group to Prof. Kate's group (four months) gave their talks about their works at Chiang Mai University as follows.

N. Miyoshi "Determination of vanadium by using chelating disk for collection/concentration".

T. Suekane "Simple FIA system for monitoring ammonia in air: development for a study in Thailand".

I admired their good talks. In Japan, a lot of foreign students are invited, however, M.S. course students are not sent to abroad very often. I believe that they must have valuable and wonderful experience. Some students in Kate's group have helped them every weekend out of pure friendship. I think that they are exchanging academic things and their culture as well. This may be "real international exchanges". On the other hand, many Thai Ph.D. students are sent to abroad such as USA, Australia, UK,

Japan and so on for one year under a student supporting program by Thai government before getting their Ph.D. degree. I think that Japan should adopt such education system.

After lunch, there were thirty two poster presentations. In the poster session, Thai students were explaining their work eagerly to the Japanese attendances and asking some comment from us. When I was seeing their behavior, I felt great responsibility.

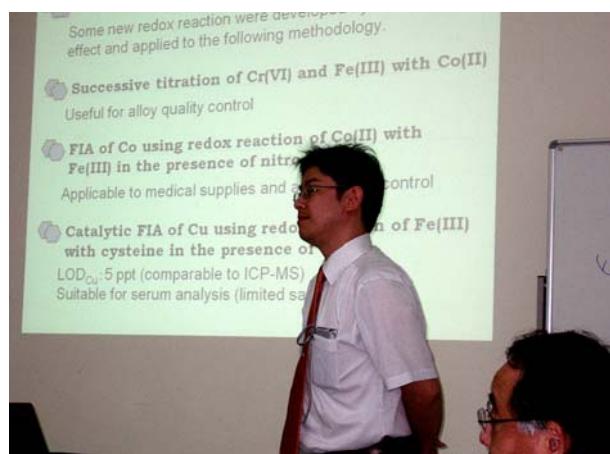
A discussion concerning expectation of developments in FIA and SIA was presided over by Kate in a closing session. The discussion covered "the spread of FIA instruments for practical use", "automation of FIA", "computer science", "zero-emission type FIA", "on-site analysis system", etc.

After the TRF symposium, Dr. Duangjai Nacapricha of Mahidol University and Dr. Orawan Chailapakul of Chulalongkorn University invited me and Teshima to their Universities. In Mahidol University and Chulalongkorn University, I gave lectures entitled "Two phase titration using ion association reaction with hydrophobic indicators" and "Ion association reactions for trace metals and onium compounds analyses using monoprotic acid dyes", respectively. Also, Teshima gave lectures entitled "New heater device and catalytic reaction available for flow-based analysis" (at Mahidol) and "Effect of ligand on redox reaction of metal ions and its application to analytical chemistry" (at Chulalongkorn). Drs. Nacapricha and Chailapakul guided us to each faculty. We also enjoyed talking with them and their students in coffee break with sweets. I appreciate their all kindness.

Prof. Motomizu visited Khon Kean University and Mahasarakham University to give lectures. Prof. Itabashi and Dr. Higuchi talked with Kate about collaboration with Chiang Mai University. We all Japanese members got back to Japan safely.

This exchange has given great contribution to Thai/Japanese researchers and students. I have warm and friendly feeling for Kate's group members. Therefore it is possible to develop various flow-based methods of analysis under collaboration with each other.

I hope that other JAFIA members would join us and I would take my students to the next symposium.

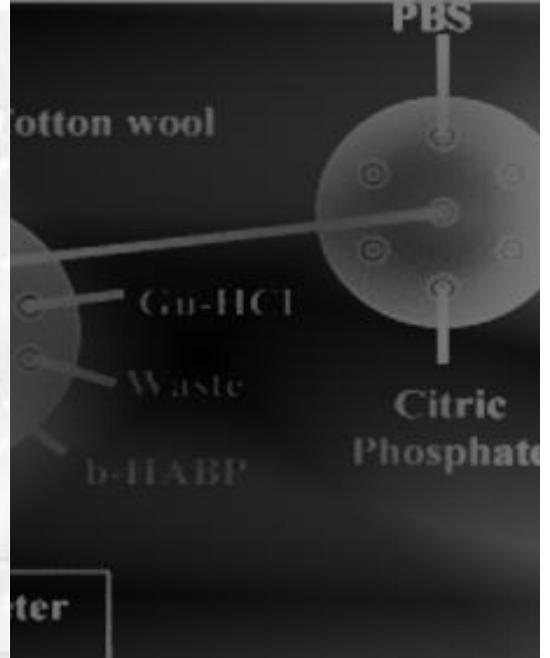
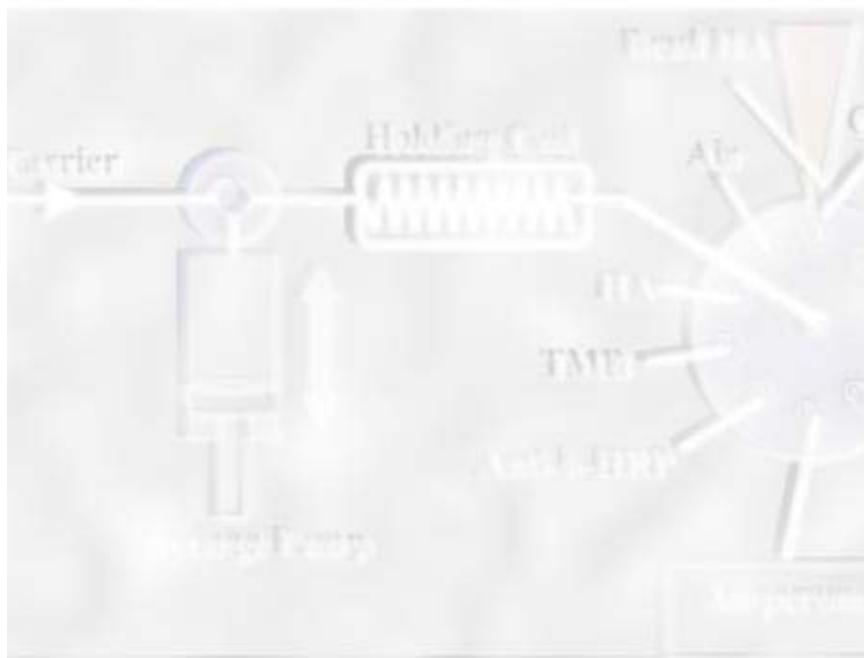


การจัดประชุมวิชาการประจำปี

The 5th Annual Symposium on TRF Senior Research Scholar on
“Development of Micro-and Nano-scale Analysis by Flow-based
Techniques II”

The 5th Annual Symposium on
TRF Senior Research Scholar

Development of Micro-and Nano-scale Analysis Flow-based Techniques II



Program & Abstracts



12 August 2006

**Chiang Mai University
Chiang Mai, THAILAND**

**The 5th Annual Symposium on TRF Senior Research Scholar on
“Development of Micro-and Nano-scale Analysis by Flow-based Techniques ”**
Seminar Room, Floor 2, SCB2
Faculty of Science, Chiang Mai University
12 August 2006

8.15 - 8.30	Registration
8.30 – 9.00	Opening session - “Symposium Objectives” and “Progress on the Development of Micro-and Nano-scale Analysis by Flow-based Techniques: the phase II on the TRF Senior Scholar Project” by Prof. Dr. Kate Grudpan, TRF Senior Research Scholar - Opening address by the Director, Academic Division, TRF (Prof. Dr. Vichai Boonsaeng)
9.00 - 9.30	Plenary Lecture: <i>“Developments of Flow-Based Methods for Automated Chemical Analysis Using Computer-Controlled Liquid Flow Devices”</i> : Prof. Dr. Shoji Motomizu
9.30 - 9.50	Invited Lecture: <i>“Spectrophotometric Flow Analyzer with Automatic Valve Switching System for Trace Phenols”</i> Assoc. Prof. Dr. Norio Teshima
9.50 - 10.00	*Oral presentation 1 (Asst. Prof. Dr. Supaporn K. Hartwell)
10.00 - 10.20	<i>Coffee break</i>
10.20 - 10.30	*Oral presentation 2 (Asst. Prof. Dr. Daungjai Nacapricha)
10.30 - 10.40	*Oral presentation 3 (Ms. Weena Siangproh)
10.40 - 10.50	*Oral presentation 4 (Dr. Rodjana Burakham)
10.50 - 11.00	*Oral presentation 5 (Ms. Wanida wonsawat)
11.00 - 11.10	*Oral presentation 6 (Mr. Tinakorn Kanyanee)
11.10 - 11.20	*Oral presentation 7 (Ms. Saiphon Chanpaka)
11.20 - 11.30	*Oral presentation 8 (Mr. Lucksagoon Ganranoo)
11.30 - 11.40	*Oral presentation 9 (Ms. Watsaka Siriangkhawut)
11.40 - 11.50	*Oral presentation 10 (Mr. Sila Kittiwachana)
11.50 - 12.00	*Oral presentation 11 (Dr. Sukon Prasitwattanaseree)
12.00 - 13.00	<i>Lunch</i>
13.00 - 14.30	Discussion at Posters
14.30 - 16.30	<i>Coffee Break and</i> Discussion in Overall

* Note (1) Some from the all posters presented
(2) Should be within 3 slides

A Report on the 5th Annual Symposium on TRF Senior Research Scholar on Flow Based Analysis in Thailand

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The 5th annual symposium on TRF senior research scholar on "Development of micro- and nano-scale analysis by flow-based techniques II" was held in Chiang Mai University (CMU) on Aug. 12th, 2006. This symposium under the auspices of the Thailand Research Fund (TRF) has been organized by Prof. Kate Grudpan of CMU since 2002. I had stayed at Chiang Mai for about 3 weeks by his kind invitation for our collaboration. During my stay, this symposium was held, so that I could take an opportunity of seeing his all group members' efforts to arrange the symposium successfully in advance. On that day they were wearing uniform and establishing their good teamwork.

The research project has active collaboration with oversea institutions: University of Washington, USA (Profs. Gary D. Christian, Jaromir Ruzicka, Robert E. Synovec), Monash University, Australia (Dr. Ron Beckett, Assoc. Prof. Ian D. McKelvie), Karlsruhe Research Centre, Germany (Prof. Thomas Fanghenel, Horst Geckeis), University of Plymouth, England (Prof. Paul J. Worsfold), Okayama University, Japan (Prof. Shoji Motomizu), Aichi Institute of Technology, Japan (Prof. Tadao Sakai), Texas Tech University, USA (Prof. Pernendu K. Dasgupta), Gunma University, Japan (Prof. Hideyuki Itabashi), Kochi University, Japan (Prof. Hiroyuki Ukeda) and Ogawa & Co., Japan (Dr. Keiro Higuchi). The first Workshop between U.S. and Thai Analytical Scientists was held in Thailand on January 4th – 8th, 2006 in order to facilitate their collaboration.

An opening session was opened with Kate's address about the objectives and progress of the project. After that, there were two welcome opening addresses by the Dean of Faculty of Science (Assist. Prof. Mongkon Rayanakorn) and the Director of Academic Research Division of the TRF (Prof. Vichai Boonsaeng). The Director gave the silver plates to Profs. Shoji Motomizu (Okayama University, Japan) and Tadao Sakai (Aichi Institute of Technology, Japan) and to me, although Tadao Sakai could not attend the symposium. I would like to congratulate Tadao Sakai on his 2006 Japan Society for Analytical Chemistry Award. Also, we praised Thai lady researchers for their awards. Bunches of flowers were given to them: Assist. Prof. Duangjai Nacapricha (Mahidol University, Thailand), Assoc. Prof. Orawan Chailapakul (Chulalongkorn University, Thailand) and Dr. Supaporn K. Hartwell (CMU, Thailand).

There were plenary (PL-01) and invited (IL-01) lectures: PL-01 "Development of Flow-Based Methods for Automated Chemical Analysis Using Computer-Controlled Liquid Flow Devices" by Shoji Motomizu, Narong Lenghor and Sarawut Somnam (Okayama University). In this paper S. Motomizu presented studies on FIA and SIA systems assembled with solenoid pumps and valves and new concept of SIMA (simultaneous injection-effective mixing analytical

method).

IL-01 "Spectrophotometric Flow Analyzer with Automatic Valve Switching System for Trace Phenols" by Norio Teshima and Tadao Sakai (Aichi Institute of Technology).

Thereafter, 11 oral presentations were on the morning session.



S. K. Hartwell presented study on immunochromatographic assay for specific proteoglycans which are a potential biomarker for ovarian cancer.

D. Nacapricha used a boron-doped diamond thin film as sensor for flow analysis of three β -agonists: salbutamol, terbutaline and clenbuterol.

W. Siangproh reported on a FIA of Sudan I, II, III and IV in food using glassy carbon modified with carbon nanotube-ionic liquid gel, and also W. Wonsawat determined the four Sudan dyes in non-aqueous system by a FIA with amperometric detection.

R. Burakham developed an on-line sample preparation for liquid chromatography and capillary electrophoresis.

T. Kanyanee performed an elegant sampling and analysis system for trace SO_2 determination using soap bubble.

S. Chanpaka used a sequential injection analysis (SIA) system with lab-at-valve (LAV) format for on-line micro-solvent extraction of tetracycline.

L. Ganranoo adapted a SI-LAV stopped flow system to a kinetic study on the reaction of iodide and persulfate as a model reaction.

W. Siriangkhawut measured some heavy metals such as Zn, Cd and Pb using Bi film flow-through electrode with anodic stripping voltammetric detection.

S. Prasitwattanaseree demonstrated chemometrics techniques for micro- and nano-scale analysis: classification of gasoline trademarks and simultaneous determination of chlorate and chlorite in agrochemical samples.

S. Kittiwachana described principal component regression (PCR) and partial least square (PLS) procedures for the determination of protein in cow milk, although he was absent because he was in a temple as a new trainee monk (I learned this kind of Thai traditional culture).

I believe that their oral presentations made themselves (especially for Ph.D. students) internationalized.

There were thirty eight poster presentations in the afternoon session. Many Thai students were discussing their successful results lively.

Kate presided at a closing session. He mentioned that studies on analytical chemistry have impacts to academic communities in Thailand by considering the data from the science citation index (Web of Science). Also, he addressed a joint symposium between Thailand and Japan on 2007. Some participants were requested to address their remarks. Ron Beckett gave his comments in supporting that future collaboration would lead to good research, and Shoji Motomizu commented on the expectation of developments in flow-based techniques. I mentioned that I hoped *Journal of Flow Injection Analysis* would be much more recognized as a valuable international journal.

After the symposium, we enjoyed a wonderful dinner at a good restaurant near the campus. Fortunately, a sudden shower waited for us till we all got into the restaurant.

I had continued my stay at Chaing Mai after the symposium, and I could take an opportunity to give a lecture to undergraduate students in Department of Chemistry of CMU. The title was "Flow-Based Methods of Water and Clinical

Analyses".

I observed that the Symposium activated the young generations (especially students) in experiencing to contribution in organizing the Symposium apart from academic experiences.



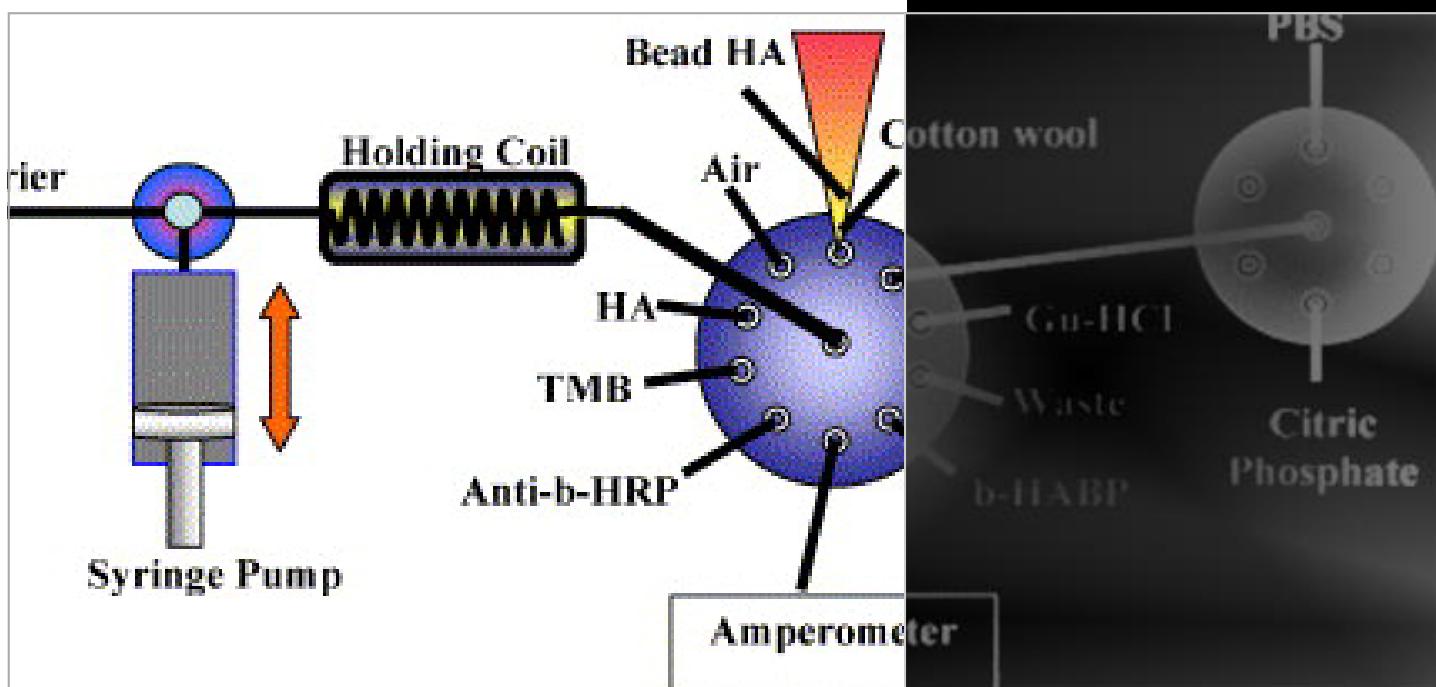
การจัดประชุมวิชาการประจำปี

The 6th Annual Symposium: TRF Senior Research Scholar and
Research group on
Innovation on Analytical Instrumentation CHE:
“Development of Flow-based Analysis for better life quality”

The 6th Annual Symposium on
TRF Senior Research Scholar and
Research Group on Innovation on Analytical Instrumentation CHE

FBA
CMU

Development of Flow-based Analysis for Better Life Quality



Program & Abstracts



16 August 2007

Chiang Mai University
Chiang Mai, THAILAND

**The 6th Annual Symposium: TRF Senior Research Scholar and
Research Group on Innovation on Analytical Instrumentation CHE:
“Development of Flow-based Analysis for better life quality”**

**Seminar Room, Floor 2, SCB2
Faculty of Science, Chiang Mai University
16 August 2007**

8.15 – 8.30	Registration
8.30 – 9.00	Opening session - “Symposium Objectives” and “Progress of the research work” by Prof. Dr. Kate Grudpan - “Opening address by the Director, Academic Division, TRF (Prof. Dr. Vichai Boonsaeng)
9.00 – 9.25	Keynote Lecture: “Computer-Assisted Fully Automated Flow Analysis System (CAFCA)”: Prof. Dr. Shoji Motomizu
9.25 – 9.50	Keynote Lecture: “Development of Field-Flow Fractionation (Interaction of Theory and Experiment)": Dr. Ron Beckett
9.50- 10.05	<i>Coffee break</i>
10.05 – 10.10	*Oral presentation 1 (Asst. Prof. Dr. Duangjai Nacapricha)
10.10 – 10.15	*Oral presentation 2 (Ms. Kanokporn Boonsong)
10.15 – 10.20	*Oral presentation 3 (Ms. Rie Fukuda)
10.20 – 10.25	*Oral presentation 4 (Mr. Kazuki Matsumura)
10.25 – 10.30	*Oral presentation 5 (Ms. Kanchana Watla-iad)
10.30 – 11.35	*Oral presentation 6 (Mr. Sarawut Somnam)
11.35 – 11.40	*Oral presentation 7 (Mr. Lucksagoon Ganranoo)
10.40 – 10.45	*Oral presentation 8 (Mr. Tinakorn Kanyanee)
10.45 – 10.50	*Oral presentation 9 (Dr. Vannajan Sanghiran Lee)
10.50 – 10.55	*Oral presentation 10 (Ms. Supada Khonyoung)
10.55 – 12.00	Discussion at Poster Session I
12.00 – 13.00	<i>Lunch</i>
13.00 – 14.30	Discussion at Poster Session II
14.30 – 16.30	<i>Coffee Break and</i> Discussion in Overall

*Note: Some from all posters presented; each presenter will brief the highlight of poster(s) with 3-5 slides