

# Analyst

Accepted Manuscript



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

*Accepted Manuscripts* are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this *Accepted Manuscript* with the edited and formatted *Advance Article* as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the [Information for Authors](#).

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard [Terms & Conditions](#) and the [Ethical guidelines](#) still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.

# Neutral polymers as coatings for the high resolution electrophoretic separation of A $\beta$ peptides on glass microchip

Cite this: DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

Received 00th July 2014,  
Accepted 00th

DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

[www.rsc.org/](http://www.rsc.org/)

Kiarach Mesbah<sup>a</sup>, Romain Verpillot<sup>a</sup>, Marcella Chiari<sup>b</sup>, Antoine Pallandre<sup>a</sup> and Myriam Taverna<sup>a,†</sup>

This study reports a comparison of the performances of two neutral polymers, poly ethylene-oxide (PEO) and poly (dimethylacrylamide-*co*-allyl glycidyl ether) (EpDMA), in glass microchips to achieve zone electrophoresis separation of several truncated forms of A $\beta$  peptides, sharing very similar structures. The peptides were derivatized by the fluoprobes 488 NHS to allow their fluorescence detection. Two protocols based either on PEO or EpDMA led to good pH stabilities in addition to a significant reduction of the electroosmotic flow. These two polymer coatings allowed repeatable analyses and high resolution for the simultaneous analysis of three beta-amyloid (A $\beta$ ) peptides, A $\beta$  1-38, A $\beta$  1-40 and A $\beta$  1-42, considered as potential biomarkers of Alzheimer's disease. A recovery study showed that EpDMA was superior in reducing the adsorption of the A $\beta$  peptides on the coated inner wall. Finally, the separation method relying on the EpDMA coated microchips was validated as linear using a calibration curve and the LOD was estimated to be close to 200 nM. Despite very short migration distances, different N-term or C-term truncated A $\beta$  peptides, corresponding to promising biomarker combinations for future diagnostic, were fully resolved. The method was successfully applied to detect these peptides in a spiked cerebrospinal fluid and provides a first achievement toward the development of a microsystem that would integrate preconcentration and separation steps.

## 1 Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common cause of dementia in the elderly [1] and it is becoming a paramount issue throughout the world. Today, AD affects about 35.6 million people worldwide, and recent projections estimate this number to increase to 115.4 million by 2050 [2]. The neuropathological hallmarks of AD are amyloid plaques, mainly composed of beta-amyloid 1-42 (A $\beta$ 1-42) [3] and neurofibrillary tangles (NFTs) containing hyper phosphorylated Tau [4]. To date, cognitive tests such as Mini Mental State Evaluation and brain imaging are mainly used for diagnosis while determination of A $\beta$ 1-42, total tau and phospho-tau-181 levels in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) are often used to help diagnosis [5] [6]. However, these assays alone are not sufficient to diagnose AD with certainty [7] [8]. Furthermore, the major challenge is to diagnose the disease at its earliest stages, before irreversible brain damages or mental decline have occurred [9]. Consequently, research on new strategies to allow either more efficient or earlier biochemical diagnosis is among the most active areas in Alzheimer's science [10].

Among these strategies, proteomic [11], genomic [12] and metabolomic [13] have permitted biomarkers to be identified for early stages of AD. Very recently, the potential of metabolomic [14] and in particular lipidomic [15] to predict the progression of AD was reviewed. Small molecules such as amino acids or lipids have been also proposed as potential CSF biomarkers for this disease as some differences between AD and non-AD samples were described in CSF. Several metabolites, among which amino acids, amino acid derivatives and di- or tri-peptides were, identified as possible disease progression biomarkers [16]. A set of ten lipids from peripheral blood has been discovered and validated, predicting phenocconversion to either amnesic mild cognitive impairment or Alzheimer's disease with over 90% accuracy [17]. In a very recent study, a panel of 10 plasma proteins predicting progression to AD was validated with an accuracy of 87% [18].

Amyloid beta-peptides represent a family of peptides produced by the enzymatic cleavage of amyloid precursor protein, which are found in both plasma and CSF [19] [20]. They consist of 43 amino acids (untruncated form) or less (truncated at the N or C-terminal amino acid sequence). CSF A $\beta$  1-40, A $\beta$  1-38 and A $\beta$  1-42 are the most abundant forms [21]. According to Bibl et al. [22], the average total abundance of A $\beta$  peptides in CSF is around 2.5 nM in AD

1 patients. The main change observed in CSF of AD patients  
2 compared to controls is the decrease of A $\beta$ 1-42 levels [5]. Indeed,  
3 the A $\beta$  1-42 which has a high tendency to polymerize and form  
4 insoluble fibrils in the brain plays a pivotal role in the pathogenesis  
5 of AD. That is why it is considered as a relevant biomarker of this  
6 disease. However, its measurements in CSF lead to limited  
7 specificity and poor discrimination of AD toward normal aging and  
8 other neurologic disorders [23]. Only its combination to other  
9 biomarkers, such as Tau and p-Tau, produces a more specific  
10 diagnosis [24]. Several groups have investigated the diagnostic  
11 power of the simultaneous quantification of A $\beta$  1-38, A $\beta$  1-40, and  
12 A $\beta$  1-42. Some authors demonstrated that the combination of A $\beta$  1-  
13 42 with A $\beta$  1-38 and A $\beta$  1-40 could enhance the accuracy of A $\beta$  1-  
14 42 determination in CSF alone [25]. In particular, the A $\beta$ 1-42/A $\beta$ 1-  
15 38 ratio was found to allow for a slightly better discrimination  
16 between AD patients and non-demented (nD) controls than A $\beta$ 1-  
17 42/A $\beta$ 1-40 ratio [25]. A promising ratio combination, A $\beta$  1-  
18 42/(A $\beta$ 1-42 + A $\beta$  1-40 + A $\beta$ 1-38 ), producing a high discrimination  
19 between AD and nD patients has been also reported [26]. Besides  
20 these conventional A $\beta$  peptides, N-truncated ones have recently  
21 attracted the attention of several research groups (see ref. [27] for  
22 a review). In 2012, Wilftang's group reported an AD-specific decrease  
23 of A $\beta$  2-42 in comparison to frontotemporal dementia, and proposed  
24 A $\beta$  2-42 as a candidate biomarker. Indeed, CSF levels of A $\beta$  2-42  
25 and 1-42 have been shown to be similarly decreased in AD [28]. In  
26 addition, Esselmann *et al.* have filed a patent on the use of  
27 quantitative ratio of A $\beta$  peptide (1-42, 2-40 and 2-42) to diagnose  
28 patients suffering from an early stage of Alzheimer's disease [29].

29 From the analytical point of view, different methods have been  
30 developed to analyze simultaneously several A $\beta$  peptides from CSF  
31 such as capillary electrophoresis-laser induced fluorescence [26],  
32 solid phase extraction coupled to ultra performance liquid  
33 chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry [30] or  
34 ultrafiltration/liquid chromatography-matrix-assisted laser  
35 desorption mass spectrometry [31]. ELISA assays, based on specific  
36 antibodies commercially available are frequently used but cannot  
37 determine individual level of each of the amyloid peptides. Very  
38 recently, Haussmann *et al.* [32] developed a novel capillary  
39 isoelectric focusing (CIEF) immunoassay for the detection and  
40 discrimination of amino-terminal A $\beta$  variants. The sensitivity of the  
41 method was sufficient to detect total A $\beta$  peptides starting with  
42 Asp(1) in human CSF after desalting/buffer exchange and without  
43 prior enrichment. Nevertheless, CIEF based assays do not allow to  
44 separate C truncated A $\beta$  peptides such as A $\beta$  1-38, A $\beta$  1-40, and A $\beta$   
45 1-42, which exhibit the same isoelectric point. That is why  
46 alternative separation techniques are still required to evaluate the  
47 CSF level of each form composing the main promising biomarker  
48 combination. Microchip capillary electrophoresis (MCE) is  
49 emerging as a reliable analytical technique for proteins and peptides  
50 analysis [33, 34, 35, 36] showing significant advantages compared  
51 to conventional capillary electrophoresis (CE) such as speed and  
52 low sample consumption, providing also a strong potential for  
53 automation and integration [37]. To date, the only reported  
54 application of MCE for the analysis of A $\beta$  peptides relies on a gel-  
55 based MCE method to separate Fluorobeads 488 (FP488) labeled A $\beta$   
56 peptides in a PDMS microchip. In this previous work, we reported  
57 for the first time a reproducible analysis in MCE of C-truncated A $\beta$   
58 peptides [35]. However, only three of the C-truncated variants were  
59 separated. In addition, due to the poor resolution obtained,  
60 quantification was not possible at this stage. In parallel, miniaturized  
immunocapture modules for A $\beta$  peptide preconcentration have been  
also proposed [38], [39].

Surface treatment of microchannels is often essential to achieve high  
resolution and reproducible peptide analyses in MCE, not only to  
limit the adsorption of peptides to the glass wall of the microchip,  
but also to tune the EOF in order to obtain the highest resolution. In  
the present work, we focused on two polymers as coatings for glass  
microchannels: poly ethylene-oxide (PEO) and poly  
(dimethylacrylamide-*co*-allyl glycidyl ether) (EpDMA). A non-  
permanent coating based on PEO can be easily obtained but needs to  
be regenerated between runs [39]. PEO has been widely used in  
glass microchip, but mostly as a sieving matrix for the separation of  
proteins [41] and DNA fragments [42]. More recently it was added  
to a triblock copolymer, Pluronic F127 (PEO-PPO-PEO), to coat a  
highly hydrophobic PDMS microchip channel, and showed to  
highly reduce the non-specific adsorption of proteins [43]. Despite  
its potential to reduce adsorption, no work focusing on capillary  
zone electrophoresis (CZE) separation of protein or peptide on a  
glass microchip coated with physically adsorbed PEO has been  
reported yet. Besides this polymer, Chiari's group reported EpDMA  
as an efficient co-polymeric coating showing high ability to reduce  
non-specific adsorption of both acidic and alkaline proteins, while  
reducing the EOF on a wide pH range. It has been first reported in  
conventional capillary electrophoresis demonstrating a high  
chemical stability [44]. Later, EpDMA has been used as coating for  
the separation of DNA fragments [45] and more recently for the  
analysis of milk protein by CIEF on glass and PDMS microchips  
[46]. EpDMA has also been used as part of a two layer coating for  
PDMS microchannel for the analysis of A $\beta$  peptides heretofore  
mentioned [38].

The final objective of the present study was to develop a method to  
achieve the simultaneous separation in microchip of several relevant  
A $\beta$  peptides for the AD diagnosis. The MCE method had to be  
compatible with a coupling to an on line preconcentration module.  
The aim of the present work was essentially to compare the  
performances of the two polymers PEO and EpDMA as glass  
microchip coatings.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Chemicals and Reagents

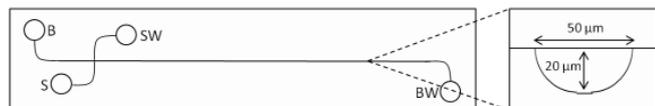
Amyloid peptides (A $\beta$  1-38, A $\beta$  1-40, A $\beta$  2-40, A $\beta$  2-42) were  
purchased from Anaspec (Fremont, CA, USA) with the exception of  
A $\beta$  1-42 which was from American peptide (Sunnyvale, CA, USA).  
PEO (MW 200 000), HEPES (4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-  
piperazineethanesulfonic acid) sodium salt, Boric Acid, Sodium  
hydroxide, hydrochloric acid (HCl), and DMSO were obtained from  
Sigma (St. Louis, MO, United States). The Fluorobeads 488 NHS  
was obtained from Interchim (Montluçon, France). EpDMA was  
synthesized in ICRM, Milano, Italy, according to the procedure  
previously described [47].

### 2.2. Material and Apparatus

Simple cross glass microchips (PS-SC) were obtained from  
Micalyne (Edmonton, Canada). Reservoirs, adhesive rings, and  
gaskets were purchased from Upchurch (Oak Harbor, WA, USA).  
The microchip design used in these experiments consisted of a  
simple cross channel with a separation channel (50  $\mu$ m wide and 20  
 $\mu$ m deep) of 8.1 cm from the injection cross to buffer waste (BW).  
The distance from sample (S) and sample waste (SW) reservoir to  
the injection cross was 0.48 cm. The length from buffer reservoir  
(B) to the injection cross was 0.94 cm. A schematic diagram of the  
microchip is presented in Figure 1. Platinum electrodes were

## Analyst

1 inserted into the reservoirs, providing electrical contact from the  
 2 power supply to the electrolyte solutions.  
 3



4  
 5  
 6  
 7 **Fig. 1** Schematic diagram of the single cross glass microchip and of its cross  
 8 section (right). B represents the buffer reservoir, BW the buffer waste  
 9 reservoir, S the sample reservoir and SW the sample waste reservoir.

10 A HVS448 6000 D power supply from Labsmith (Livermore, CA,  
 11 USA) controlled by a workstation was used for the microchip  
 12 capillary electrophoresis. An inverted fluorescence microscope Axio  
 13 Observer A1 from Carl Zeiss (Marly le Roy, France), equipped with  
 14 a 20X objective lens (Carl Zeiss) was used to detect in real time  
 15 fluorescently labeled peptides. Illumination was done by a HXP 120  
 16 C mercury arc lamp from Carl Zeiss. A CCD camera Orca-03G02  
 17 from Hamamatsu (Hamamatsu, Japan) was used to capture images  
 18 of the detection zone located at 70 mm from the injection cross.  
 19 HCIImage software (Hamamatsu, Japan) was used to optimize the  
 20 framerate, light sensitivity, and to define the region of interest. Azur  
 21 software (DATALYS, France) was used to convert the mean grey  
 22 scale from CCD as a function of time into electropherograms.  
 23

### 23 2.3. Buffers and solutions

24 The 100 mM (concentration) HEPES buffer was prepared by  
 25 dissolving appropriate amounts of HEPES sodium salt in deionized  
 26 water. A solution of HCl (1M) was then added to reach pH 8.0. The  
 27 Borate buffer (pH 10.5, 40 mM ionic strength (IS)) was prepared by  
 28 mixing appropriate volumes of sodium hydroxide (1 M) and boric  
 29 acid (0.5 M). The 40% saturated ammonium sulfate solution was  
 30 prepared by adding 0.242 g of ammonium sulfate to 1mL of water.  
 31 The labeling stock solution (10 mg/mL) was prepared by dissolving  
 32 1 mg of Fluoprobes 488 NHS ester in 100  $\mu$ L of DMSO. This  
 33 solution was stored at -20  $^{\circ}$ C and in the dark until used. Two  
 34 different EpDMA polymer formulations were used for the  
 35 experiments on glass chip coating. EpDMA was first dissolved in  
 36 deionized water at 1.2% (m/v). Once completely dissolved, the  
 37 solution was diluted twofold by adding either deionized water or a  
 38 solution of ammonium sulfate (40% sat.). The PEO polymer  
 39 solution was prepared by first dissolving the PEO powder in  
 40 deionized water at 0.22% (m/v) and by vigorously vortexing the  
 41 solution at ambient temperature. Before the coating step; HCl  
 42 was added to the solution in order to obtain a PEO solution at 0.20%  
 43 (m/v) in 0.1 M HCl. PEO and EpDMA polymer solutions were  
 44 prepared freshly before each coating process. All buffers and  
 45 solutions were stored at 4  $^{\circ}$ C. HEPES and labeled peptides samples  
 46 were protected from light.

### 47 2.4. Peptide dissolution and storage, CSF samples

48 Upon reception, standard A $\beta$  1-42 was dissolved in 0.16% (m/v)  
 49 ammonium hydroxide aqueous solution at a concentration of 2  
 50 mg/mL and then divided into several aliquots which were  
 51 individually stored at -20  $^{\circ}$ C. All other amyloid peptides were  
 52 dissolved in 0.10% (m/v) ammonium hydroxide and at the same  
 53 concentration.

54 The CSF aliquots analyzed in this work were taken from one patient  
 55 attending the department of Neurology in Ulm (Department of  
 56 Neurology, University of Ulm, Pr Markus Otto), who obtained a  
 57 lumbar puncture to exclude meningitis or bleeding. Basic CSF  
 58 parameters (albumin ratio, cell count, oligoclonal band) were  
 59 normal. Collection and analysis of the CSF sample was approved by  
 60

the Ethics Committee in Ulm. A signed written informed consent  
 form was obtained in each and every case from the patient himself  
 or his relatives. CSF was aliquoted within 2 h after collection, and  
 stored at -80  $^{\circ}$ C.

## 2.5. Methods

### 2.5.1. Fluorescence derivatization of standard Peptides and spiked CSF samples

Aliquots of peptide solution were defrosted, eventually mixed with  
 others A $\beta$  peptides and then diluted 2-fold in borate buffer (pH 10.5,  
 40 mM IS). Then, the mixtures were lyophilized to remove the  
 ammonium hydroxide. The resulting powder was dissolved in borate  
 buffer (pH 10.5, IS 40 mM) to reach the desired concentration of the  
 peptide. 2  $\mu$ L of Fluoprobes 488 NHS stock solution were added to  
 98  $\mu$ L of the peptide solution. The sample was then gently mixed  
 with a pipette and incubated at room temperature for 5 minutes.

Three different CSF samples (48  $\mu$ L) were prepared using the same  
 original CSF aliquot. One sample was filtered on a 3 kDa centrifugal  
 unit. This filtrated sample and another non-filtrated one were diluted  
 2-fold in a borate buffer (pH 10.5, 40 mM IS) containing a mixture  
 of the three A $\beta$  peptides (1-38, 1-40 and 1-42) at 1 $\mu$ M concentration  
 while the third one was just diluted 2-fold in a borate buffer. Then,  
 we added 2  $\mu$ L of sodium hydroxide 0.1 M to each 96  $\mu$ L sample to  
 reach pH 10.5. Finally, 2  $\mu$ L of Fluoprobes 488 NHS stock solution  
 were added to each CSF sample. The samples were then gently  
 mixed with a pipette and incubated at room temperature for 5  
 minutes before analysis.

### 2.5.2. Coating of the microchip channels

Before the first use, new microchips were systematically flushed  
 with 1 M NaOH for 10 min, 0.1 M NaOH for 10 min and deionized  
 water for 10 min by applying vacuum.

To perform the PEO coating (PEO 1), the microchip was first rinsed  
 with 0.1 M NaOH for 3 min, deionized water for 3 min, and HCl 1  
 M for 3 min. Then, three reservoirs (B, SW and BW) were filled  
 with PEO solution (0.2% (m/v) in HCl 0.1M) and vacuum (30 mbar)  
 was applied for 5 min to the S reservoir in order to fill all the  
 microchannels. The microchip was then rinsed with the BGE.  
 Another PEO coating protocol (PEO 2) was tested using the same  
 protocol except that the rinsing with HCl 1M was omitted.

For EpDMA coating, three protocols were tested. The first protocol  
 (EpDMA 1) was performed by rinsing the microchannels with  
 NaOH 1 M for 5 min, then with deionized water for 5 min, followed  
 by a 10 min rinsing with HCl 0.1 M, and finally 5 min of deionized  
 water. The polymer solution in ammonium sulfate was then  
 hydrodynamically flushed (2 mL/hr) in the channel for 30 min using  
 a syringe pump fixed at the BW reservoir and filled by the polymer  
 solution. The microchip was then rinsed extensively with water and  
 dried at room temperature for a few hours. Two alternative protocols  
 adapted from Rech *et al.* [45] were also tested. For EpDMA-2  
 protocol, the microchip was rinsed for 10 min with NaOH 0.1 M  
 before the introduction of the polymer solution as in protocol  
 EpDMA 1. The chip was then rinsed extensively with water and  
 finally the microchannels were emptied by applying vacuum at BW  
 reservoir. The coated chip was then directly used after filling the  
 channels with the BGE. The EpDMA 3 protocol was the same than  
 EpDMA 2 except that the polymer was dissolved in plain water.

### 2.5.3. Microchip capillary electrophoresis

Before each analysis, the coated microchip was rinsed for 5 min  
 with the BGE. To load the peptide samples and to separate the  
 analytes, a set of electrical voltages was applied to the four  
 reservoirs.

The set of voltage depended on the kind of polymer coating employed to modify the glass channel surface (PEO or EpDMA). In all cases, the pinched mode was performed for the injection. For PEO coated microchips, the sample was loaded by applying -200 V to S, -100 V to B, +300 V to SW and -700 V to BW. After 2 minutes, the set was switched to separation step by applying +600 V to S, 0 V to B, +650 V to SW and 2000 V to BW. PEO coating protocol was repeated after three successive A $\beta$  peptides analyses performed in the same microchip. For EpDMA coated microchips, the sample was loaded by applying 0 V to S, -100 V to B, +350 V to SW and -1200 V to BW. After 90 seconds, the set was switched to separation step by applying +350 V to S, -500 V to B, +400 V to SW and 2000 V to BW. For EpDMA, no coating regeneration was needed. After four successive A $\beta$  peptides analyses, the microchannels were just rinsed with water (5min) and then with BGE (5 min) before a new analysis series. For uncoated microchips, the sample was loaded by applying 200 V to S, 100 V to B, -300 V to SW and 700 V to BW. After 90 seconds, the set was switched to separation step by applying -600 V to S, 0 V to B, -650 V to SW and -2000 V to BW. The microchannels were rinsed with NaOH 0.1 M (5 min), water (5min) and then with BGE (5 min) before each new analysis.

#### 2.5.4. Measurement of the electroosmotic mobility:

As very low electroosmotic flow was generated in the coated microchips, we applied the constant effective mobility method as described by Wang *et al.* [48] to estimate the residual EOF mobility ( $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$ ) inside the channels. The apparent mobility ( $\mu_{\text{app}}$ ) of the fast migrating and negatively charged Fluoroprobes 488 NHS, was measured in the coated glass microchip. In a separate experiment, the effective mobility of this compound ( $\mu_{\text{ep}}$ ) was determined by CE using a capillary (thermally controlled at 25°C) in which the EOF was already known, thanks to the analysis of a neutral marker (thiourea). The  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  in the coated microchip was then calculated by subtracting the  $\mu_{\text{ep}}$ , obtained from the CE experiments from the  $\mu_{\text{app}}$  of the Fluoroprobes experimentally measured in microchip. The microchip experiments were performed in a separate room where the temperature was set at 21°C.

#### 2.6. Validation of the methods

The repeatability of the methods was estimated on both PEO 1 and EpDMA 2 coated glass microchip by measuring RSD of migration times and peak areas obtained for A $\beta$  1-38 at a concentration of 10 $\mu$ M. Four successive analyses of the peptide were performed without any rinsing step between runs.

The separation performance has been evaluated on both PEO 1 and EpDMA 2 coated glass microchip. A mixture of A $\beta$ 1-38, 1-40 and 1-42 amyloid peptides (20 $\mu$ M each) was analyzed using the two methods and the Rs between A $\beta$  1-38 and A $\beta$  1-40 and between A $\beta$  1-40 and A $\beta$  1-42 were calculated.

#### 2.7. Recovery, calibration curve and LOD:

Standard solutions containing the A $\beta$  peptide 1-38 at concentrations ranging from 0.48  $\mu$ M to 96.8  $\mu$ M were employed to evaluate the linearity of the response. The samples were analyzed in triplicate for each concentration level, 96.8  $\mu$ M, 48.4  $\mu$ M, 12.1  $\mu$ M, 2.42  $\mu$ M, 1.21, 0.61  $\mu$ M and 0.48  $\mu$ M. T-test and Anova were performed to confirm the linear regression.

Possible adsorption of the peptides to the channel wall was estimated by recovery studies according to a method adapted from Preisler *et al.* [49] and described in detail by Tran *et al.* [50]. This equation is in accordance with the more general one proposed by Espinal *et al.* for any kind of distances employed [51]. The recovery of A $\beta$ 1-38, 1-40 and 1-42 amyloid peptides was determined by

analyzing them individually at a concentration of 20  $\mu$ M and by comparing the peak areas obtained during the same analysis at two detection points (35 mm and 70mm).

The recovery percentage (X) was then deduced from the equation (1):

$$X \% = 100 \times (A_L/A_S)^{L/(L-S)} \quad (1)$$

where L is the longest effective length (70mm), S is the shortest one (35mm), and  $A_L$  and  $A_S$  are the peak areas of peptides detected at 70 mm and 35 mm, respectively.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Optimization of the coating protocol

In order to select the most efficient polymer coating and protocol to achieve a reproducible and high resolution separation of the amyloid peptides in glass microchip, we have compared several procedures relying on two neutral polymers: PEO and EpDMA. These polymers have already been described for reducing EOF or protein adsorption during electrokinetic separations by CE [52] [53]. In particular, EpDMA has been reported one time for MCE of proteins, but using the IEF separation mode [46] while PEO has been employed only in conventional CE [54]. Critical parameters such as microchip pretreatment, polymer solution composition and nature, and coating rinsing steps were investigated. Based on previous works performed by CE [49] [50] [55], we selected first 0.2% (m/v) of PEO to perform the coating. Other concentrations from 0.1% to 0.4% did not improve the coating performances. Concerning the EpDMA solution, a concentration of 0.6 % (m/v) was chosen, as described in a previous work [47].

Coating protocols were evaluated by measuring the electroosmotic mobility ( $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$ ) in the resulting coated microchannels. RSDs of the  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  were also compared to estimate the stability of the coatings after 5 and 10 successive analyses. Using EpDMA, three protocols (EpDMA 1, EpDMA 2 and EpDMA 3) were evaluated. The EpDMA 1 procedure integrates a protonation step, by rinsing the microchip channels with HCl 0.1 M before flushing it with the polymer solution, while EpDMA 2 and 3 protocols entail a deprotonation step, by rinsing the glass surface with NaOH 0.1 M. EpDMA 2 and EpDMA 3 are equivalent except that the medium of the polymer solution is ammonium sulfate in EpDMA 2 and water in EpDMA 3.

With PEO, it is possible to coat silica capillaries with or without acidic pretreatment for high performance as shown by Iki *et al.* in 1996 [40]. So far, only the coating protocol with acidic pretreatment has been adapted to glass microchip, but only for  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  reduction purposes [56]. The two procedures have been therefore tested. Table 1 summarizes the  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  obtained with different protocols and the resulting RSD for  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  measured at pH 8.0 in HEPES buffer.

## Analyst

**Table 1** Electroosmotic mobilities and their corresponding RSD after 5 (n=5) and 10 (n=10) consecutive analyses for uncoated or coated glass microchip using EpDMA or PEO and different coating protocols (see materials and methods section for more details). The measurements were performed in 50 mM HEPES at pH 8.0

Protocols	$\mu_{\text{EOF}}$		
	intensity ( $\text{m}^2 \text{V}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ ) $10^8$	%RSD (n=5)	%RSD (n=10)
Uncoated	3.84	2.7	
EpDMA 1	1.26	8.7	15.1
EpDMA 2	1.06	1.3	3.5
EpDMA 3	1.03	0.9	18.4
PEO 1	1.33	1.8	-
PEO 2	1.30	5.2	-

- Not determined since coating regeneration was required every 5 runs for EOF marker analysis

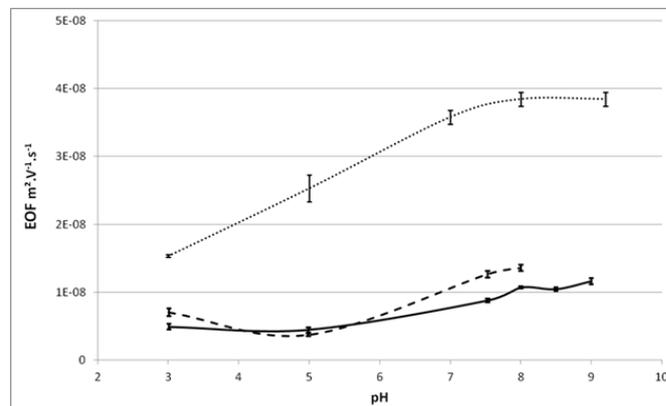
We first noticed that all the protocols led to a 3 or 4 fold decrease of  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  compared to uncoated glass microchip at pH 8.0. By comparing the  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$ , we deduced that the best protocols for efficient shielding of surface charges were EpDMA2 and 3 ones. EpDMA 1 coating protocol produced high RSDs for  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  which were even amplified after 10 analyses. The EpDMA 1 coating is less stable. Probably the protonation of the silanol groups before the polymer adsorption hinders the formation of covalent bonds between the epoxy groups of the polymer and the surface silanols by nucleophilic addition. In the absence or with a reduced number of covalent bonds, the stability of the coating could be seriously compromised at extreme pH values. On the contrary, EpDMA 2 and 3 protocols, performed with a polymer solution dissolved in ammonium sulfate or water, but after a deprotonating rinsing step, gave very good RSDs. However, after 10 successive analyses, the RSD reached 18% with EpDMA 3 protocol (table 1). These results are in accordance with those of Chiari's group which demonstrated that ten runs were sufficient to deteriorate an EpDMA coating when polymer is dissolved in water and that the use of anti-chaotropic salts in the coating solution generated a more stable coating overtime [45].

For PEO, as the coating was not stable, a regeneration of the coating was required after 4 successive analyses. In comparison to EpDMA 2 and 3, the  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  were less decreased. The successive measurements led to much lower RSD using PEO 1 protocol than PEO 2 one. We concluded that the protonation of the silanols before the adsorption of the polymer ensures a higher number of hydrogen bonds with PEO and then a better stability of the coating. The overall results indicated that EpDMA 2 and PEO 1 procedures provided the best coating stability and efficiency, and further studies were carried out using these two surface treatment protocols.

### 3.2. $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$ as a function of buffer pH:

During electrokinetic separations,  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  is greatly dependent on the efficiency and stability of the coating. Extreme pHs may remove partially the coating. This may result in peptide adsorption and lack of reproducibility. The  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  values in EpDMA 2 and PEO 1 coated and uncoated channels were evaluated at different pHs ranging from

pH 3 to 9. RSDs for  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  were also estimated at each pH. Figure 2 illustrates the  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  variation in the three conditions. As expected, the  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  in native glass chip increased from pH 3 to pH 9 due to ionization of silanols [57]. Using both polymer coatings, the  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  was markedly decreased over the entire range of investigated pHs.



**Fig. 2** Evolution of EOF mobilities in PEO (dash line), EpDMA (solid line) coated and uncoated glass microchip (dotted line) as a function of pH. Bars indicate RSD of the  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  calculated from 5 successive measurements.

PEO 1 and EpDMA demonstrated a good stability until pH 8.0 and 9.0, respectively. Indeed, both coating protocols showed very low RSD for  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  (less than 2.5 %) for most pHs, excepted at the most acidic and alkaline ones (with RSD reaching 5.0% in that cases).

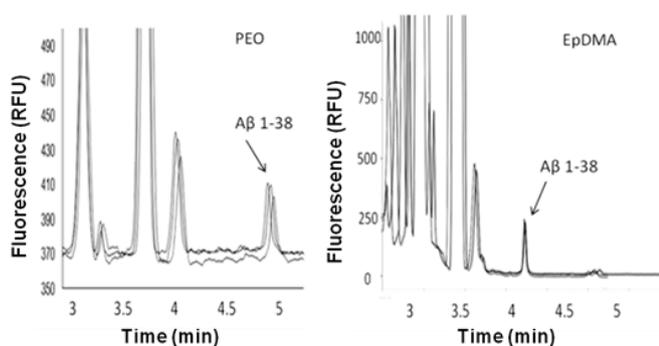
For PEO, the polymer molecules are held to the microchannel walls only by weak interactions, such as Van der Waals forces and hydrogen bonds. EpDMA has a strong adhesive character with formation of hydrogen bonds between silanol groups of PDMA backbone. Even though oxiranes stabilize the coating by covalently reacting with silanols, still the pH of the BGE may be a critical parameter to ensure polymer adhesion through hydrogen bonds. Although not completely suppressed, the EOF was significantly lower than that of the uncoated capillary in both cases. This is an interesting feature, as residual EOF can, in principle, help in reaching high resolution. From this preliminary study, we concluded that the two coating procedures give stable and efficient coatings and could be used with high repeatability using BGE from pH 3 to 8 for PEO 1 and from pH 3 to 8.5 for EpDMA 2.

### 3.3 Analysis Repeatability and Resolution performance

In order to further compare the two methods, we have performed a repeatability study for the analysis of the FP488 labeled A $\beta$  1-38 peptide. The separation was performed in reverse polarity, as the  $\mu_{\text{ep}}$  of the peptides are higher than the  $\mu_{\text{EOF}}$  at pH 8.0. Figure 3 shows the corresponding electropherograms obtained from successive analyses of A $\beta$  1-38. Repeatability data obtained for PEO 1 (n=3) and EpDMA 2 (n=4) coated glass microchips under the same separation conditions revealed good repeatability of migration times and peak areas with both polymers. Slightly better results were obtained using EpDMA 2 with RSD of 0.5 % and 2.1 % for migration times and peak areas, respectively. In addition, EpDMA 2 allowed at least four successive analyses without any rinsing or coating regeneration while PEO 1 was not stable over 3 analyses of A $\beta$  peptide samples.

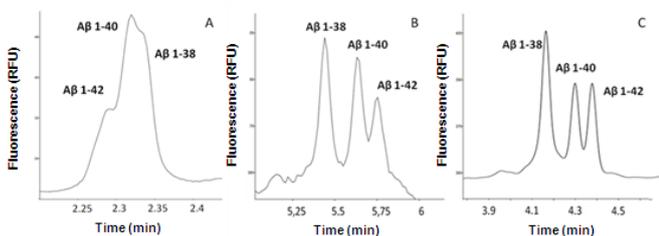
Three A $\beta$  peptides, 1-38, 1-40 and 1-42, have been selected to evaluate the resolving capacity of the microchip coated by the two methods in comparison to an uncoated glass microchip. These peptides exhibit the same charge at pH 8 (theoretical pI of 5.41 for the three peptides) and differ only by their length (from one or two

amino acids). Their separation was already achieved by CZE with a separation distance of 50 cm [26]. However, obtaining a good resolution was quite challenging using separation microchannels of only a few centimeters. Figure 4 presents the electropherograms obtained from the analysis of the peptide mixture with PEO-1 and EpDMA-2 coated glass microchips or uncoated glass microchip, using the same optimized separation buffer. The two methods, PEO-1 and EpDMA-2, allowed a good resolution of the three peptides, while with the uncoated chip, unresolved peaks and a lack of repeatability were observed. This confirmed the massive adsorption of analytes in the uncoated microchip. The resolution was slightly better with EpDMA 2 based method with Rs of 1.7 and 1.1 between 1-38 and 1-40 and 1-40 and 1-42, respectively, while PEO 1 led to a resolution of 1.5 and 1.0 respectively. The Rs obtained between these close migrating species, using EpDMA 2 method, are slightly lower than the ones obtained previously by CE [26], but they remain sufficient for a simultaneous quantification of the three peptides, which is mandatory for a high performance diagnosis tool based on A $\beta$  biomarkers.



**Fig. 3** Microchip electropherograms obtained from successive analyses of labeled A $\beta$  1-38 using PEO 1 (n=3) or EpDMA 2 (n=4) procedures to coat the glass microchip. BGE: HEPES/HCl Buffer, pH 8.0, 100 mM. Sample: A $\beta$  1-38 (10  $\mu$ M) diluted in Borate buffer pH 10.5, 40 mM. Fluorescence Detection: 488 nm at 70 mm from the injection cross.

Using PEO-1, we also noticed a change in the migration time of the peptide A $\beta$  1-38, by 7.35%, between two sets of experiment performed on two different coated microchips. This indicates a poor inter-microchip repeatability of the PEO-1 coating procedure. In contrast, the inter-chip repeatability coating protocol of EpDMA-2 seemed to be much better, as the migration times of the peptide did not vary more than 0.5%. This observation confirms the higher performance of EpDMA-2 as coating for the separation of A $\beta$  peptides in glass microchip.



**Fig 4** Separation of three A $\beta$  peptides (A $\beta$  1-38, A $\beta$  1-40 and A $\beta$  1-42) at 20  $\mu$ M using uncoated glass microchip (A), PEO coated (B) or EpDMA coated (C) glass microchip. Conditions are same as in Figure 3.A.

### 3.4 Recovery, calibration curve and limit of detection:

To ensure precision and accuracy for the quantification of biomarkers from biological fluids, it was mandatory to check that

negligible adsorption of the peptides occurred on the coated channels walls. A recovery study has been performed in order to estimate the possible loss of analyte after adsorption to the inner wall during the separation step. The recovery percentages of A $\beta$  1-38, A $\beta$  1-40 and A $\beta$  1-42 and in the two coated microchips were determined by comparing the peak areas obtained for each peptide at two distances from their injection point and using the equation described in experimental section.

Very good recoveries for A $\beta$  1-38 and A $\beta$  1-40 with values close to 100% were observed with both methods (Table 2). The recovery for A $\beta$  1-42 was lower, especially when the PEO coating was employed. This can be explained by the higher hydrophobicity of A $\beta$  1-42 and its ability to self-aggregate at micromolar concentrations as recently described [32]. The recovery value for this peptide increased to an acceptable value of 93% with the EpDMA 2 coating. EpDMA has indeed a polydimethyl acrylamide backbone with oxirane groups attached to the skeleton. The oxirane groups enhance the hydrophilicity of the copolymer while at the same time maintaining the excellent adsorptive properties of the EpDMA on glass even at pH 8.0. This specific polymeric structure allows an excellent limitation of proteins or peptides adsorption on the coated microchannel wall.

**Table 2** Recovery % of A $\beta$ 1-38, A $\beta$ 1-40 and A $\beta$ 1-42 on EpDMA 2- and PEO 1-coated glass microchips. Detection performed at 35 mm and 70 mm from the injection cross. BGE: HEPES/HCl, 100 mM, pH8.0.

Peptides	PEO	EpDMA
A $\beta$ 1-42	84	93
A $\beta$ 1-40	101	98
A $\beta$ 1-38	97	98

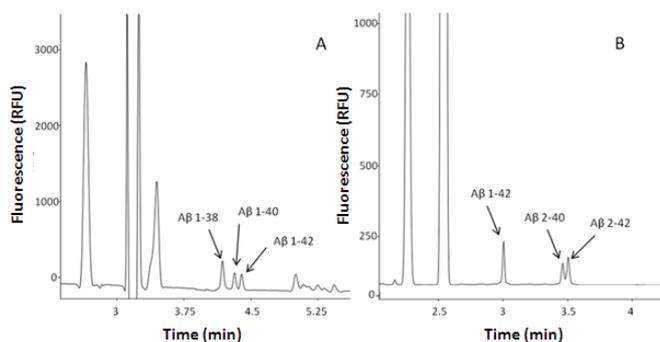
Finally, considering the excellent performance of the method based on EpDMA coating in terms of reproducibility, recovery, and resolution, the EpDMA coated glass microchip method was validated in terms of linearity and limit of detection for the A $\beta$  1-38. The linearity of the detection was assessed by performing triplicate analyses of A $\beta$  1-38 solutions at concentrations ranging from 0.48 to 100  $\mu$ M. The determination coefficient  $R^2$  was equal to 0.990 (see ESI). On a significance level of 0.05, the t- test demonstrated the variance homogeneity at each concentration. Then, ANOVA test demonstrated that the linear regression fitted the experimental data for concentrations ranging from 0.48 to 10  $\mu$ M. The detection limit, considered as the minimum analyte concentration yielding a signal-to-noise equal to three, was 240 nM, while the value obtained statistically through the regression data was 185nM.

### 3.5 Application to amyloid peptides mixture and to spiked CSF

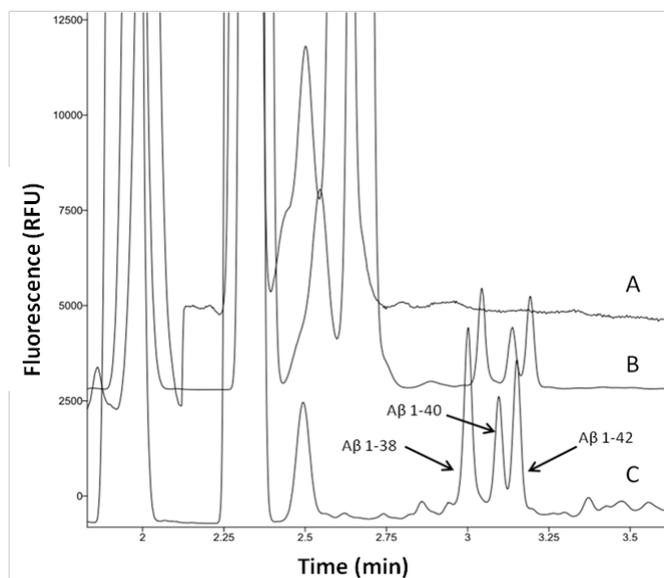
Finally, we applied the validated EpDMA coated MCE method to the separation of different mixtures containing truncated amyloid peptides of relevance for the diagnosis of AD [12, 13]. As shown in Figure 5.A, full separation of A $\beta$  1-38, A $\beta$  1-40, A $\beta$  1-42 is achieved for the first time in microchip capillary zone electrophoresis. In addition, a successful separation of three different N and C truncated variants of A $\beta$ 1-42 (A $\beta$  1-42, A $\beta$  2-40 and A $\beta$  2-42), recently patented for their diagnosis value in AD [29], is also presented in Figure 5.B. Finally, the method was applied to a real sample of CSF to evaluate the compatibility of the method with this biological medium. Indeed, the complexity of the CSF matrix was expected to deteriorate the resolution. In order to investigate the impact of the high salt concentration of CSF on the method performance, the CSF was analyzed before and after a desalting step

## Analyst

performed by a filtration on a 3 kDa centrifugal unit and results were compared in term of resolution between the three A $\beta$  peptides. As our high resolution separation MCE method is not sensitive enough to detect A $\beta$  peptides directly from CSF, both CSF samples were, therefore, spiked with the same concentration (1  $\mu$ M) of a mixture of three A $\beta$  peptides (A $\beta$  1-38, A $\beta$  1-40, A $\beta$  1-42). In addition, a non-spiked labeled CSF sample was also analyzed to check for potential interferences in the migration region of interest. The resulting profiles are compared in Figure 6. It clearly indicates that the presence of salts in the sample impacts on the amount of peptides injected in the separation channel as the peak areas were lower for the non-filtered CSF. The most important result is that the presence of salts does not seem to affect the resolution. The non-spiked CSF results pointed out that no interfering species were migrating in the relevant region.



**Fig. 5** Electrokinetic separation of two mixtures of A $\beta$  amyloid peptides performed on a EpDMA coated glass microchip. MCE separation conditions: as in figure 3 for (A) and (B) with the exception in (B) of the BGE pH which was changed to pH 7.5 and voltages applied for the separation step: B (-1000V) and BW (3000V). Detection at 75 mm from injection cross.



**Fig. 6** MCE analysis of human CSF sample, derivatized with Fluorophores 488 NHS (A), the same human CSF spiked with 1  $\mu$ M of A $\beta$  1-38, A $\beta$  1-40 and A $\beta$  1-42 (B), CSF filtered on a 3 kDa membrane and then spiked with 1  $\mu$ M of A $\beta$  1-38, A $\beta$  1-40 and A $\beta$  1-42 (C). MCE conditions are the same as Figure 3.A. except voltages applied for the separation step: B (-1000V) and BW (3000V). Detection at 75 mm from the injection cross.

## Conclusions

We have developed for the first time a microchip capillary zone electrophoresis method able to achieve high resolution separation of closed migrating A $\beta$  peptides in a coated glass microchip. This simple method has been validated in terms of linearity and repeatability and was applied successfully to two mixtures of A $\beta$  peptides described as relevant combinations for discriminating AD from nD patients. The fully validated method was applied then to spiked CSF samples with no loss of resolution between the three A $\beta$  peptides (A $\beta$  1-38, A $\beta$  1-40, A $\beta$  1-42). Compared to the conventional CE method previously published [26], this MCE strategy provides ease and fast surface modification allowing six times faster separations of A $\beta$  peptides while keeping excellent repeatability, recovery and resolution for simultaneous quantification. The miniaturization solves the first bottleneck of the development of a diagnostic tool, by demonstrating the possibility to separate with still high resolution these peptides in microchip. The sensitivity of detection in this method is not yet sufficient for the direct detection of A $\beta$  peptides in CSF, as a preconcentration factor of at least 200 is needed. Efforts are currently directed toward integrating a preconcentration step before this separation.

## Acknowledgements

The research leading to these results has received funding from the European Community's Seventh Framework Programme (NaDiNe FP7/2010-2015) under grant agreement n° 246513.

We are indebted to Markus Otto for generously providing real human CSF samples. The authors have declared no conflict of interest.

## Notes and references

<sup>a</sup> Protéines et Nanotechnologies en Sciences Séparatives CNRS UMR 8612, Institut Galien de Paris-Sud, Univ Paris-Sud, Faculté de pharmacie, 92296 Chatenay-Malabry, France.

<sup>b</sup> Instituto di Chimica del Riconoscimento Molecolare (ICRM) - C.N.R., Via Mario Bianco, 9, 20131 Milano, Italy

†Correspondence: Professor Myriam Taverna, Institut Galien Paris Sud, Laboratoire des Protéines et Nanotechnologies en Sciences Séparatives, Université Paris-Sud, 92296 Chatenay-Malabry, France  
E-mail: myriam.taverna@u-psud.fr

Fax: +33-1-46-83-54-62

Electronic Supplementary Information (ESI) available: [regression data and one figure]. See DOI: 10.1039/b000000x/

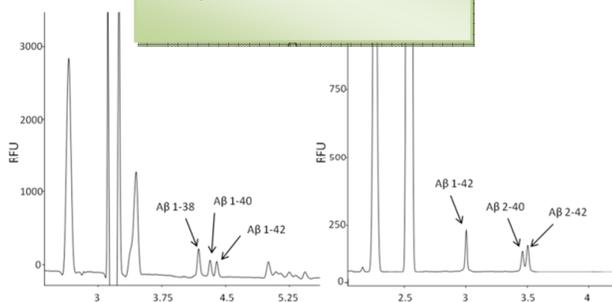
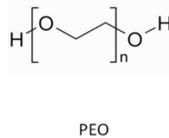
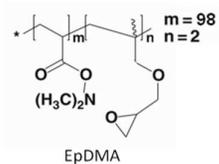
- G. Bu, *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, 2009, **10**, 333.
- N.T. Aggarwal, M. Tripathi, H.H. Dodge, S. Alladi, K.J. Anstey, *International Journal of Alzheimer's Disease*, 2012, **2012**, 3.
- C.L. Masters, G. Simms, N.A. Weinman, G. Multhaup, B.L. McDonald, K. Beyreuther, *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 1985, **82**, 4245.
- V.M. Lee, B.J. Balin, L. Otvos Jr, J.Q. Trojanowski, *Science*, 1991, **251**, 675.
- C. Humpel, *Trends in biotechnology*, 2011, **29**, 26.
- A. Hye, J. Riddoch-Contreras, A.L. Baird, N.J. Ashton, C. Bazenet, R. Leung, E. Westman, A. Simmons, R. Dobson, M. Sattler, M. Lupton, K. Lunnon, A. Keohane, M. Ward, I. Pike, H. Dieter Zucht, D. Pepin, W. Zheng, A. Tunnicliffe, J. Richardson, S. Gauthier, H. Soininen, I. Kloszewska, P. Mecocci, M. Tsolaki, B. Vellas, S. Lovestone, *Alzheimer's & Dementia*, 2014, doi:10.1016/j.jalz.2014.05.1749
- G.M. McKhann, D.S. Knopman, H. Chertkow, B.T. Hyman, C.R. Jack Jr., C.H. Kawas, W.E. Klunk, W.J. Korshetz, J.J. Manly, R. Mayeux, R.C. Mohs, J.C. Morris, M.N. Rossor, P. Scheltens, M.C. Carrillot, B. Thies, S. Weintraub, C.H. Phelps, *Alzheimer's & Dementia*, 2011, **7**, 263.

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60
- 8 N. Mattsson, E. Rosen, O. Hansson, N. Andreasen, L. Parnetti, M. Jonsson, S.K. Herukka, W.M. van der Flier, M.A. Blankenstein, M. Ewers, K. Rich, E. Kaiser, M.M. Verbeek, M. Olde Rikkert, M. Tsolaki, E. Mulugeta, D. Aarsland, P.J. Visser, J. Schroder, J. Marcusson, M. de Leon, H. Hampel, P. Scheltens, A. Wallin, M. Eriksdotter-Jonhagen, L. Minthon, B. Winblad, K. Blennow, H. Zetterberg, *Neurology*, 2012, **78**, 468.
- 9 R.A. Sperling, P.S. Aisen, L.A. Beckett, D.A. Bennett, S. Craft, A.M. Fagan, T. Iwatsubo, C.R. Jack Jr., J. Kaye, T.J. Montine, D.C. Park, E.M. Reiman, C.C. Rowe, E. Siemers, Y. Stern, K. Yaffe, M.C. Carrillo, B. Thies, M. Morrison-Bogorad, M.V. Wagster, C.H. Phelps, *Alzheimer's & Dementia*, 2011, **7**, 280.
- 10 M. Contino, M. Cantore, M. Leopoldo, N.A. Colabufo, *Advances in Alzheimer's Disease*, 2013, **2**, 13.
- 11 R. Ghidoni, A. Paterlini, L. Benussi, *Clinical biochemistry*, 2013, **46**, 480.
- 12 T. Jonsson, H. Stefansson, S. Steinberg, I. Jonsdottir, P.V. Jonsson, J. Snaedal, S. Bjornsson, J. Huttenlocher, A.I. Levey, J.J. Lah, D. Rujescu, H. Hampel, I. Giegling, O.A. Andreassen, K. Engedal, I. Ulstein, S. Djurovic, C. Ibrahim-Verbaas, A. Hofman, M.A. Ikram, C.M. van Duijn, U. Thorsteinsdottir, A. Kong, K. Stefansson, *New England Journal of Medicine*, 2013, **368**, 107.
- 13 C. Ibáñez, C. Simó, D.K. Barupal, O. Fiehn, M. Kivipelto, A. Cedazo-Minguez, A. Cifuentes, *Journal of Chromatography A*, 2013, **1302**, 65.
- 14 C. Ibáñez, C. Simó, A. Cifuentes, *Electrophoresis*, 2013, **34**, 2799.
- 15 D. Touboul, M. Gaudin, *Bioanalysis*, 2014, **6**, 541.
- 16 P.J. Martín-Álvarez, M. Kivipelto, B. Winblad, A. Cedazo-Minguez, A. Cifuentes, *Analytical chemistry*, 2012, **84**, 8532.
- 17 M. Mapstone, A.K. Cheema, M.S. Fianadaca, X. Zhong, T.R. Mhyre, L.H. MacArthur, W.J. Hall, S.G. Fisher, D.R. Peterson, J.M. Haley, M.D. Nazar, S.A. Rich, D.J. Berlau, C.B. Peltz, M.T. Tan, C.H. Kawas, H.J. Federoff, *Nature medicine*, 2014, **20**, 415.
- 18 B. Dubois, H.H. Feldman, C. Jacova, H. Hampel, J.L. Molinuevo, K. Blennow, S.T. DeKosky, S. Gauthier, D. Selkoe, R. Bateman, S. Cappa, S. Crutch, S. Engelborghs, G.B. Frisoni, N.C. Fox, D. Galasko, M.-O. Habert, G.A. Jicha, A. Nordberg, F. Pasquier, G. Rabinovici, P. Robert, C. Rowe, S. Salloway, M. Sarazin, S. Epelbaum, L.C. de Souza, B. Vellas, P.J. Visser, L. Schneider, Y. Stern, P. Scheltens, J. L. Cummings, *Lancet Neurol*, 2014, **13**, 614.
- 19 M. Bibl, M. Gallus, V. Welge, S. Lehmann, K. Sparbier, H. Esselmann, J. Wiltfang, *Proteomics-Clinical Applications*, 2012, **6**, 163.
- 20 P. Seubert, C. Vigo-Pelfrey, F. Esch, M. Lee, H. Dovey, D. Davis, S. Sinha, M. Schioosmacher, J. Whaley, C. Swindlehurst, R. McCormack, R. Wolfert, D. Selkoe, I. Leiberburg, D. Schenk, *Nature*, 1992, **359**, 325.
- 21 J. Wiltfang, H. Esselmann, M. Bibl, A. Smirnov, M. Otto, S. Paul, B. Schmidt, H.W. Klafki, M. Maler, T. Dyrks, M. Bienert, M. Beyermann, E. Rütther, J. Kornhuber, *Journal of neurochemistry*, 2002, **81**, 481.
- 22 M. Bibl, B. Mollenhauer, H. Esselmann, P. Lewczuk, H.W. Klafki, K. Sparbier, A. Smirnov, L. Cepek, C. Trenkwalder, E. Ruther, J. Kornhuber, M. Otto, J. Wiltfang, *Brain*, 2006, **129**, 1177.
- 23 F. Hulstaert, K. Blennow, A. Ivanoiu, H.C. Schoonderwaldt, M. Riemenschneider, P.P. De Deyn, C. Bancher, P. Cras, J. Wiltfang, P.D. Mehta, K. Iqbal, H. Pottel, E. Vanmechelen, H. Vanderstichele, *Neurology*, 1999, **52**, 1555.
- 24 K. Blennow, H. Hampel, *The Lancet Neurology*, 2003, **2**, 605.
- 25 V. Welge, O. Fiege, P. Lewczuk, B. Mollenhauer, H. Esselmann, H.W. Klafki, S. Wolf, C. Trenkwalder, M. Otto, J. Kornhuber, J. Wiltfang, M. Bibl, *Journal of neural transmission*, 2009, **116**, 203.
- 26 R. Verpillot, H. Esselmann, M.R. Mohamadi, H. Klafki, F. Poirier, S. Lehnert, M. Otto, J. Wiltfang, J.L. Viovy, M. Taverna, *Analytical chemistry*, 2011, **83**, 1696.
- 27 M. Bibl, M. Gallus, V. Welge, H. Esselmann, J. Wiltfang, *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease*, 2012, **29**, 809.
- 28 M. Bibl, M. Gallus, V. Welge, H. Esselmann, S. Wolf, E. Rütther, J. Wiltfang, *Journal of Neural Transmission*, 2012, **119**, 805.
- 29 H. Esselmann, T.W. Groemer, J. Kornhuber, P. Lewczuk, J.M. Maler, J. Wiltfang, U.S. Patent Application, 2011, 13/639,866.
- 30 M.E. Lame, E.E. Chambers, M. Blatnik, *Analytical biochemistry*, 2011, **419**, 133.
- 31 M. Hölttä, H. Zetterberg, E. Mirgorodskaya, N. Mattsson, K. Blennow, J. Gobom, *PLoS One*, 2012, **7**, 42555.
- 32 U. Haußmann, O. Jahn, P. Linning, C. Janßen, T. Liepold, E. Portelius, H. Zetterberg, C. Bauer, J. Schuchardt, H.J. Knölker, H. Klafki, J. Wiltfang, *Analytical chemistry*, 2013, **85**, 8142.
- 33 K.I. Ohno, K. Tachikawa, A. Manz, *Electrophoresis*, 2008, **29**, 4443.
- 34 V. Kasicka, *Electrophoresis*, 2012, **33**, 48.
- 35 P.G. Righetti, R. Sebastiano, A. Citterio, *Proteomics*, 2013, **13**, 325.
- 36 V. Kasicka, *Electrophoresis*, 2014, **35**, 69.
- 37 S.C. Jakeway, A.J. de Mello, E.L. Russell, *Fresenius journal of analytical chemistry*, 2000, **366**, 525.
- 38 M.R. Mohamadi, Z. Svobodova, R. Verpillot, H. Esselmann, J. Wiltfang, M. Otto, M. Taverna, Z. Bilkova, J.L. Viovy, *Analytical chemistry*, 2010, **82**, 7611.
- 39 Z. Svobodova, R. Mohamadi M, B. Jankovicova, H. Esselmann, R. Verpillot, M. Otto, M. Taverna, J. Wiltfang, J.L. Viovy, Z. Bilkova, *Biomicrofluidics*, 2012, **2**, 24126.
- 40 N. Iki, E.S. Yeung, *Journal of Chromatography A*, 1996, **731**, 273.
- 41 F. Xu, M. Jabasini, Y. Baba, *Electrophoresis*, 2005, **26**, 3013.
- 42 S.H. Kang, M. Park, K. Cho, *Electrophoresis*, 2005, **26** 3179.
- 43 Z. Wu, K. Hjort, *Lab on a Chip*, 2009, **9**, 1500.
- 44 M. Chiari, M. Cretich, J. Horvath, *Electrophoresis*, 2000, **21**, 1521.
- 45 I. Rech, S. Cova, A. Restelli, M. Ghioni, M. Chiari, M. Cretich, *Electrophoresis*, 2006, **27**, 3797.
- 46 M. Poitevin, Y. Shakalisava, S. Miserere, G. Peltre, J.L. Viovy, S. Descroix, *Electrophoresis*, 2009, **30**, 4256.
- 47 M. Chiari, M. Cretich, F. Damin, L. Ceriotti, R. Consonni, *Electrophoresis*, 2000, **21**, 909.
- 48 W. Wang, L. Zhao, F. Zhou, J.R. Zhang, J.J. Zhu, H.Y. Chen, *Electrophoresis*, 2007, **28**, 2893.
- 49 J. Preisler, E.S. Yeung, *Analytical chemistry*, 1996, **68**, 2885.
- 50 N.T. Tran, M. Taverna, L. Miccoli, J.F. Angulo, *Electrophoresis*, 2005, **26**, 3105.
- 51 J.H. Espinal, J.E. Gómez, J.E. Sandoval, *Electrophoresis*, 2013, **34**, 1141.
- 52 M. Cretich, M. Stastna, A. Chrambach, M Chiari, *Electrophoresis*, 2002, **23** 2274.
- 53 M. Chiari, M. Cretich, M. Stastna, S.P. Radko, A. Chrambach, *Electrophoresis*, 2001, **22** 656.
- 54 D. Bohoyo, I. Le Potier, C. Rivière, H. Klafki, J. Wiltfang, M. Taverna, *Journal of separation science*, 2010, **33**, 1090.
- 55 Y. Alahmad, N.T. Tran, I. Le Potier, E. Forest, S. Jorieux, M. Taverna, *Electrophoresis*, 2011, **32**, 292.
- 56 B.R. Fonslow, M.T. Bowser, *Analytical chemistry*, 2006, **78**, 8236.
- 57 X. Huang, Q. Wang, B. Huang, *Talanta*, 2006, **69**, 463.

Glass microchip polymer coatings

Analyst

High resolution separation of A $\beta$  amyloid peptides



EpDMA, an efficient coating for glass microchip to achieve high resolution separation of relevant A $\beta$  peptides for Alzheimer disease diagnosis.