Dynamics analysis of microparticles in inertial microfluidics for biomedical applications

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ABSTRACT

Inertial microfluidics-based devices have recently attracted much interest and attention due to their simple structure, high throughput, fast processing and low cost. They have been utilised in a wide range of applications in microtechnology, especially for sorting and separating microparticles. This novel class of microfluidics-based devices works based on intrinsic forces, which cause microparticles to migrate laterally and locate at their equilibrium positions. In this article, a comprehensive theoretical formulation is presented for the dynamics of ultrasmall particles in microfluidics-based devices. Explicit expressions are presented for various important forces, which act on a microparticle, such as drag, Magnus, Saffman and wall-induced forces. In addition, the drag coefficient, diffusion phenomenon and Peclet number are formulated. Finally, the influences of particle size, as a crucial parameter, on various intrinsic forces including drag, Magnus and Saffman forces as well as the wall-induced force, are investigated. It is found that the drag, wall-induced and Saffman forces have an important role to play in the dynamics of microparticles in inertial microfluidics while the effects of Magnus force and diffusion can be ignored in most applications.

1. Introduction

Microelectromechanical and nanoelectromechanical devices involving small-scale resonators [1, 2], generators [3] and sensors [4-6] have been widely manufactured and analysed in recent years due to their fascinating functions and features. Various structural components (ultrasmall beams, plates and channels) [7-14] have been utilised in their manufacturing process. The mechanics of these components [15-19] has been an interesting topic for researchers and scientist all over the world as well [20-24]. Microfluidics-based devices are a novel class of microelectromechanical systems, which are used to control and manipulate fluid and particle behaviour at microscale levels [25, 26]. These ultrasmall devices have a wide range of applications from biomedical systems [27, 28] to the synthesis of polymeric ultrasmall particles. Compared to traditional tools for manipulating and controlling fluids and particles, it has a number of advantages including reduced process time, less fabrication cost, small size, being portable, high precision and less maintenance cost [26]. Moreover, microfluidics-based devices have the potential to be connected to smart phones [29]. In this way, for instance, there is no need for a laboratory and extra equipment to see the results of a biomedical test.

Generally, there are two important classes of microfluidics-based devices: 1) active, and 2) passive. In the first class (i.e. active devices), the device operates using an external applied force such as electrical and magnetic forces whereas in the second class, there is no external force, and the device works based on intrinsic forces. Among passive microfluidics-based devices, inertial microfluidics has attracted much attention owing to their advantages such as having a simple structure, high throughput, fast processing and low cost [26, 27]. This type of microscale systems plays a crucial role in focusing and separating particles and fluids at the scale of micrometres. In comparison with traditional microfluidic devices, where Reynolds number is less than one, meaning that the fluid velocity is very low and viscosity is large, inertial microfluidics has an intermediate Reynolds number. Inertial microfluidic devices can be used in biomechanical and biomedical applications such as detecting and diagnosing malaria, detaching circulating tumour cells and extracting blood plasma.

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Inertial migration and secondary flow are the basis of inertial microfluidics. When particles flow in a straight channel, inertial lift forces cause particles to migrate laterally to the equilibrium position. There are two main kinds of inertial effects that act in an opposite manner: 1) Saffman and shear gradient forces, which cause particles to move away from the centre, and 2) wall-induced force, which repels particles away from the wall due to their interaction with the channel wall. These two inertial forces are balanced with each other, leading particles to the equilibrium position \([30, 31]\). The secondary flow, which is induced by the pressure gradient due to the fluid momentum difference between the centre and wall, is observed in straight channels as well as curved ones. The centre of the channel has a higher velocity compared to the regions near the wall. Therefore, when particles flow through the curved channel, they go towards the channel and then recirculates back, forming two different streams in the cross-sectional plane of the channel (Dean vortex) \([32, 33]\). Moreover, dean drag force has been added to inertial lift forces, determining the equilibrium position. The ratio of the inertial lift force to dean drag force is important in differentiating and separating particles based on their size (see Fig. 1). In a straight channel, the inertial lift force is generated as particles flow in the fluid, leading to the lateral migration. In a curved channel, inertial lift forces together with dean drag force are generated, determining the final equilibrium position. Curved channels are able to separate particles based on their size while straight channels are not reasonable for this purpose.

There are nonlinear forces in inertial microfluidics that have been used to manipulate microparticles. These forces include but not limited to viscous drag, diffusion, Magnus, Saffman and wall-induced forces. When a particle/object moves in fluid, an external force acts on the particle, causing the viscous drag force. Random movements of ultrasmall particles in fluid create diffusion force. There is low diffusion process if the viscosity of fluid is high or particles are large. Magnus force is associated with a rotating object in fluid. It is due to pressure difference because of the spinning of the object in fluid. Furthermore, because of channel walls, a velocity gradient is generated, causing a lift force (Saffman force). Finally, the wall-induced force, which acts on particles near boundaries, together with Magnus and Saffman forces, cause the lateral migration of particles. In this paper, all of these important forces are formulated and discussed in detail. This is a comprehensive paper which deals with a high number of intrinsic forces in inertial microfluidics-based devices. In addition to mathematical formulation of intrinsic forces, the influences of particle size on the drag force, drag coefficient, particle Reynolds number, diffusion coefficient and Peclet number as well as Magnus, Saffman and wall-induced forces are examined and discussed.

### 2. Drag force

When particles move in fluid, a force is required to carry the fluid molecules away from the path of particles. This force is technically called viscous drag force. Let us take into account a rotating object in fluid. This force is technically called viscous drag force. Let us take into account a rotating object in fluid. In this case, \(F_D = \rho_f \pi \mu_f \frac{V_d}{d_p} \), which acts on particles suspended in fluid. The influences of being scale-dependent are neglected in this force analysis. The scale influences are usually captured for nanoscale structures \([35-42]\).

There are several ranges of Reynolds number for determining the drag coefficient, and then consequently for obtaining the drag force as follows:

#### 1) \(10^4 < \text{Re}_p < 0.2:\)

\[
c_D = 12 \frac{\mu_f V}{d_p},
\]

and

\[
F_D = 3 \pi \mu_f V d_p,
\]

The drag force in this case, is commonly known as the Stokes drag. Stokes drag happens if the relative speed of particles to fluid is sufficiently small. The second range is \([34]\)

#### 2) \(0.2 < \text{Re}_p < 500 \sim 1000:\)

\[
c_D = 12 \frac{\mu_f V}{d_p} \left[ 1 + 0.15 \left( \text{Re}_p \right)^{0.87} \right],
\]

and

\[
F_D = 3 \pi \left[ 1 + 0.15 \left( \text{Re}_p \right)^{0.87} \right] \mu_f V d_p,
\]

#### 3) \(500 \sim 1000 < \text{Re}_p < 2 \times 10^5:\)

\[
c_D = 0.22 \rho_f \left( \frac{V}{d_p} \right)^2,
\]

and

\[
F_D = 0.055 \pi \rho_f \left( \frac{V}{d_p} \right)^2 d_p^2.
\]

In inertial microfluidics-based channels, there are two drag force components: 1) mainstream drag force, and 2) secondary flow drag force. The former is caused by the movement of particles along the direction of the channel whereas the latter is induced due to the secondary flow of particles. The mainstream drag force acts on the particle along the channel direction while the secondary flow drag force exists in the cross-sectional plane. It should be noticed that in inertial microfluidics, we have intermediate Reynolds numbers (i.e. \(-1 < \text{Re}_p < 100\)) for the main stream, and thus the corresponding drag coefficient and force are obtained from Eqs. (5) and (6), respectively.

### 3. Diffusion force

The diffusion force, which acts on particles suspended in a fluid, is caused by the Brownian motion. Due to the frequent collision between suspended particles and fluid molecules, random
motions are observed, which are known as Brownian motions. Based on the Einstein-Smoluchowski relation, we have [43]
\[
\left( t_{\text{diff}} \right)^2 = 6c_{\text{diff}} \mu t,
\]
Here \( r_{\text{diff}} \), \( c_{\text{diff}} \), and \( t \) denote the mean diffusion distance, diffusion coefficient and time, respectively. \( r_{\text{diff}} \) represents the mean distance which particles diffuse inside a fluid. Using the Stokes-Einstein assumption, \( c_{\text{diff}} \) can be written as
\[
c_{\text{diff}} = \frac{kT}{3\pi d_{\text{p}} \mu},
\]
where \( k \) and \( T \) stand for Boltzmann’s coefficient and absolute temperature, respectively. Boltzmann’s coefficient is \( 1.3806485 \times 10^{-23} \) J/K. To compare advection (main flow) to diffusion, a dimensionless number is given by
\[
\text{Pe} = \frac{ \text{advection rate} }{ \text{diffusion rate} } = \frac{V_f L_c}{c_{\text{diff}}},
\]
in which \( \text{Pe} \), \( V_f \) and \( L_c \) are the Peclet number, fluid velocity and channel characteristic length, respectively [44]. When the Peclet number is small, the diffusion has an important effect on the motion of particles. In inertial microfluidics-based devices, the Peclet number is large, meaning that the effect of diffusion can be neglected.

4. Magnus force

When a particle rotates with angular speed \( \Omega_p \) inside a flowing fluid with speed \( V_f \), a lift force, which is known as Magnus force, is created (see Fig. 2). In fact, the fluid speed is lower near the point where the particle speed is in the opposite direction to that of the flow, and thus the pressure is higher (Bernoulli principle). This difference in the pressure results in the Magnus force. For a rotating spherical particle, one obtains [45]
\[
\vec{F}_M = \frac{1}{8} \pi d_{\text{p}}^2 \rho_f (V_f - \vec{V}_p) \times \vec{\omega}_p,
\]
in which \( \vec{F}_M \) is the Magnus force. When the rotating spherical particle moves inside the fluid with speed \( \vec{V}_p \), the Magnus force is determined as
\[
\vec{F}_M = \frac{1}{8} \pi d_{\text{p}}^2 \rho_f (\vec{V}_f - \vec{V}_p) \times \vec{\omega}_p.
\]
The above-stated relations are true for irrotational fluid flow with low Reynolds numbers. When there is a rotational flow field for the fluid, we have
\[
\vec{F}_M = \frac{1}{8} \pi d_{\text{p}}^2 \rho_f (\vec{V}_f - \vec{V}_p) \times \vec{\omega}_r,
\]
where
\[
\vec{\omega}_r = \vec{\omega}_p - \frac{1}{2} \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{V}_f,
\]
in which \( \vec{\omega}_p \) is the relative angular velocity.

5. Saffman force

In general, there are two wall effects in a microfluidic channel: 1) a fluid speed gradient (shear rate) induced by the wall, and 2) retardation of the particle motion due to the presence of the wall. The lateral lift force caused by the first wall effect is known as Saffman force. One of important phenomena in inertial microfluidics is inertial migration, in which all particles of one type migrate to a particular distance from the channel centre after a certain length. For instance, for a straight tube of average radius \( R \), particles migrate to the distance \( 0.6R \) from the centre. It should be noticed that this phenomenon is greatly affected by all wall effects.

6. Wall-induced force

As mentioned in the previous section, there are two distinct effects induced by the presence of the wall. The first one is the fluid velocity gradient, and the second effect is the retardation of particle motions. The latter effect is studied in detail in this section. To remove the influences of the fluid velocity gradient (the first wall effect), it is assumed that the fluid is stagnant. Generally, to investigate the wall retardation effect, two overall cases are taken into consideration:

I) The motion of the particle is affected by a single wall. This assumption is true when the particle characteristic size is much smaller than that of the channel.

II) The particle motion is subject to all boundaries. In other words, the effects of all wall are important and cannot be neglected. This case happens when the particle characteristic size is in the range of the channel characteristic dimension.

First of all, it is assumed that the motion of particles in the stagnant fluid is under the effects of only one wall (i.e. case I).
There are two possibilities in this case: 1) the particle moves towards the wall, and 2) the particle moves parallel to the wall (Fig. 2). We will investigate these two possibilities in the following step by step. When the direction of the particle motion is perpendicular to the wall, a force is exerted on the particle in the opposite direction, retarding its motion (Fig. 2). It leads to an increase in the drag force. For a spherical particle approaching perpendicularly to a wall, the corrected drag force is [47]

\[
\left( F_d \right)_{\text{wall}} = \frac{\pi}{4} \left( c_o \right)_{\text{wall}} d_p^2 = 4 \pi \kappa d_p \mu_f V_s,
\]

where

\[
\left( c_o \right)_{\text{wall}} = \frac{16 \kappa \mu_f V_s}{d_p},
\]

and

\[
\kappa = \sinh(\phi) \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \frac{m(m+1)}{(2m+1)(2m+3)} \left[ f(\varphi, m) - 1 \right],
\]

in which \( f \) and \( \varphi \) are defined as

\[
f(\varphi, m) = \frac{2 \sinh((2m+1)\varphi) + (2m+1)\sinh(2\varphi)}{4 \sinh^2((m+0.5)\varphi) - (2m+1)^2 \sinh^2(\varphi)},
\]

\[
 f(\varphi, m) = \cosh^{-1}(2\ell_w/d_p),
\]

where \( \ell_w \) represents the distance between the particle centre and the wall.

In the case of an immersed spherical particle moving parallel to the wall, a lateral migration in the opposite direction of the wall is imposed on the particle. The speed of this migration is obtained as [48]

\[
V_m = \frac{3 \left( 1 - \frac{11}{32} h_w^2 \right) V_s \Re_s}{64},
\]

where

\[
\Re_s = \frac{\rho_f d_p V_s}{\mu_f}, \quad h_w = \frac{\rho_f \ell_w V_s}{\mu_f}.
\]

Here \( \Re_s \) and \( V_s \) are, respectively, the sedimentation Reynolds number and velocity. Equation (23) is valid only for small values of \( h_w \) (i.e. \( h_w \ll 1 \)). Taking into account this condition, one can further simplify the migration velocity as follows

\[
V_m = \frac{3}{64} V_s \Re_s.
\]

From the above relation, it is found that the migration velocity of particles is constant near the wall. Conducting experiment, it was indicated that Eq. (25) is valid up to \( \Re_s = 3 \). For large values of \( h_w \) (i.e. \( h_w \gg 1 \)), we have

\[
V_m = \frac{3}{16} \left( 1 + \frac{2.219}{h_w} \right) V_s \Re_s.
\]

When the particle moves parallel to the wall, there are two different forces. The first force causes the particle to migrate laterally while the second one acts as a drag force against the sedimentation motion. Near the wall, this force is obtained by the following relation

\[
F_d = 3 \pi \mu_f d_p V_s \left( 1 + \frac{3}{8} \frac{d_p}{\ell_w} \right),
\]

for

\[
\frac{d_p}{2\ell_w} \ll 1 \ll \frac{1}{\Re_s}.
\]

In addition, for particles that moves at distances comparatively far from the wall, one obtains

\[
F_d = 3 \pi \mu_f d_p V_s \left( 1 + \frac{3}{8} \frac{d_p}{\ell_w} - 0.095 \frac{1}{\Re_s^{1/3}} \right),
\]

for

\[
\frac{d_p}{2\ell_w} \ll 1 \ll \frac{1}{\Re_s}.
\]

For the case II in which the particle is subject to the wall effects of all boundaries, the sedimentation motion is significantly influenced. This case is found when the spherical particle characteristic size such as its diameter has more or less the same order as that of microchannel. The drag force acting on a rigid spherical particle in a cylindrical tube full of stagnant fluid is determined as

\[
F_d = 3 \pi \kappa \mu_f d_p V_s,
\]

where \( \kappa_{\text{wall}} \) is a coefficient associated with geometrical properties, which is obtained as [44]

\[
\kappa_{\text{wall}} = \left( 1 - 2.014 \lambda_b + 2.089 \left( \lambda_b \right)^3 \right. - 6.948 \left( \lambda_b \right)^5 - 1.372 \left( \lambda_b \right)^7 \right)^{-1},
\]

in which \( \lambda_b \) indicates the blockage ratio, which is given by

\[
\lambda_b = d_c/d_p.
\]

Here \( d_c \) is the channel diameter. It is worth mentioning that the blockage ratio \( \lambda_b \) must be less than 1 in order to avoid blockage.

7. Results and discussion

In the following, a comprehensive force analysis is conducted to compare and recognise which types of forces are dominant in an inertial microfluidics-based device. Let us consider a spherical rigid microparticle of diameter \( d_p \) in a microchannel with flowing fluid of density 1000 kg/m³ and viscosity 8.90×10⁻³ Pa·s. The value of the particle diameter varies from 5 to 75 micrometres. The fluid itself is supposed to be Newtonian and incompressible. These values are assumed for the particle and fluid throughout this section, unless otherwise stated.

Figure 3 is plotted to illustrate the influences of particle size on the drag force in an inertial microfluidics-based device. The relative speed between the microparticle and fluid is set to 1 m/s. It is found that as the diameter of the microparticle plays a crucial role in the drag force in an inertial microfluidics-based device. As the particle diameter increases, the drag force substantially increases. In addition, the drag coefficient for the microparticle, which moves in an inertial microfluidics-based device, is shown in Fig. 4. The value of the particle diameter varies from 5 to 75 micrometres. It is interesting that unlike the drag force, the drag coefficient substantially decreases when the particle size increases. The particle Reynolds number is also indicated in Fig. 5 to make sure it is in the common range in which inertial microfluidics-based devices operate. It should be noticed that the drag force
analysed here is the mainstream drag force, but not the one induced by the secondary flow.

Fig. 3. Drag force acting on a microparticle in a microchannel versus the particle diameter.

Fig. 4. Drag coefficient for a microparticle in a microchannel versus the particle diameter.

Fig. 5. Particle Reynolds number (Re_p) versus the particle diameter.

To investigate the influences of diffusion on microparticles in an inertial microfluidics-based device, Figs. 6 and 7 are plotted, showing the diffusion coefficient and Peclet number, respectively. The temperature inside the device is assumed to be 25 °C. Furthermore, the fluid velocity is set to 10 m/s. These figures are plotted for time t=1 s and channel diameter L_c=300 micrometers. From Figs. 6 and 7, it is seen that the diffusion coefficient is very small whereas the Peclet number is very high. Therefore, from these results, it can be concluded that the effects of diffusion can be neglected in an inertial microfluidics-based device. In fact, when the Peclet number is very high, the ratio of advection to diffusion is large, and consequently diffusion is negligible compared to the mainstream flow.

Fig. 6. Diffusion coefficient for a microparticle in a microchannel obtained via Stokes-Einstein relation.

Fig. 7. Peclet number for a microparticle in a microchannel.

Figure 8 illustrates the Magnus force acting on a rigid spherical microparticle in an inertial microfluidics-based device. The fluid velocity and angular speed of the microparticle are taken as 1 m/s and 1 rad/s, respectively. The Magnus force and microparticle diameter are plotted in terms of nanonewton and micrometre, respectively. It is found that this force gradually increases when the microparticle diameter is increased from 5 to 75 micrometres. Comparing Fig. 3 and Fig. 8 indicates that the Magnus force is very small compared to the drag force in inertial microfluidics. It should be noticed that the drag force is plotted in terms of micronewton while the Magnus force is calculated in terms of nanonewton.

The influences of the microparticle size on the Saffman and wall-induced forces in an inertial microfluidics-based device are shown in Figs. 9 and 10, respectively. It is worth mentioning that the microparticle is rigid and spherical; moreover, the microchannel is a cylindrical microtube. In Fig. 10, it is assumed that the whole boundary has an influence on the microparticle. It
is observed that the particle diameter plays a crucial role in both Saffman and wall-induced forces. Both of these forces remarkably increase when the particle diameter is increased. In addition, it is found that generally, the wall-induced force in inertial microfluidics is around ten times higher than the Saffman force. However, both forces are much higher than the Magnus and diffusion forces.

8. Conclusions

The dynamic behaviour of microparticles in an inertial microfluidics-based device has been investigated based on fluid mechanics. Various intrinsic forces such as drag, Magnus, Saffman, diffusion and wall-induced forces, which act on particles in the device, were theoretically formulated. In addition, explicit relations were proposed for the drag coefficient in a wide range of particle Reynolds numbers. Moreover, the diffusion coefficient and Peclet number for a spherical microparticle in the channel of the device were investigated. The influences of particle size on various forces as well as the diffusion and drag coefficients were also analysed. It was concluded that compared to drag, Saffman and wall-induced forces, forces due to the diffusion and Magnus force can be ignored. Furthermore, it was found that the drag force increases with increasing the particle diameter while the drag coefficient substantially decreases when the diameter of the particle increases. The Peclet number is very high for microparticles in an inertial microfluidics-based device, indicating that the effects of diffusion are negligible. In addition, as the size of the particle grows, both Saffman and wall-induced forces dramatically increase.

References


