



Relaxation and antiplasticization measurements in trehalose–glycerol mixtures – A model formulation for protein preservation

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ABSTRACT

We utilize dielectric relaxation spectroscopy for the quantitative characterization of antiplasticization of glassy-trehalose by glycerol. The high frequency Johari–Goldstein relaxation time (τ) was obtained by analyzing the complex permittivity data in terms of the distribution function of relaxation times and a regularization technique. We analyzed the dielectric spectrum without prior assumptions about a spectral function and the number of the relaxation processes. The ratio of τ values for the mixture and pure trehalose, an antiplasticization factor (Θ), is found to provide a useful measure of the extent of antiplasticization. We observe that increasing the glycerol mass fraction (x_w) at fixed temperature increases τ , extending antiplasticization until a temperature dependent critical plasticization concentration is reached. At a fixed concentration, we find an antiplasticization temperature at which antiplasticization first occurs upon cooling. At a temperature of 293 K the antiplasticization factor peak value is about 1.6 when x_w of glycerol is about 0.24. At 323 K a mild antiplasticization maximum occurs when x_w decrease to about 0.05. Above 323 K, $\Theta < 1$, glycerol plasticizes trehalose, thus the antiplasticizing effect apparently no longer exists. The antiplasticization factor that we describe in terms of Arrhenius functions is a convenient predictive model to characterize antiplasticization in glassy sugar formulations and other glass-formers.

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1. Introduction

Sugar formulations are generally effective in preserving drugs and biological tissues [1,2]. Trehalose in particular has been widely used in preserving and maintaining the activity of diverse materials including proteins, viruses and antibodies [3]. A number of measurements and simulations have shown that the internal motions of proteins and other biological macromolecules tend to be strongly coupled to those of the glass solutions in which they are embedded [4,5]. The relatively high glass transition temperature of trehalose has been recognized as a factor enhancing the preservation time [6,7]. The amplitude of protein molecular motions can be further reduced by adding a small amount of glycerol to trehalose, improving the cryopreservation time [8,9]. This effect has been attributed to the antiplasticization of trehalose by glycerol, making the trehalose–glycerol mixture a stronger glass-former [10,11].

Antiplasticization in glassy polymers [12–14] is typically accompanied by reduction in glass transition, negative deviations

from volume additivity upon mixing (i.e. the solutions densify upon mixing), an increase in elastic moduli [15,16], and suppression of the secondary relaxation. Antiplasticization has been observed in a number of polysaccharides mixtures [17–19] enriched by water and glycerol [20,21]. It was shown that glycerol slows down the secondary relaxation process of maltose up to concentrations of about 0.28 mass fractions. At higher concentrations of glycerol, the secondary relaxation process of maltose merges with the primary structural relaxation process of glycerol, and only plasticization is apparent [18]. Several studies have shown antiplasticization of trehalose by glycerol at various concentrations [22–24]. The antiplasticization effect was attributed to the formation of an extended network of hydrogen bonds with a longer lifetime at about 5% of glycerol [23]. It was also shown that at about 36% of glycerol, which corresponds to a stoichiometry of 2:1 glycerol to trehalose molecules, excess permittivity sharply increases indicating a change in dipole ordering from anti-parallel to parallel alignment [24]. However, to date there has been no strong evidence that glycerol increases the elastic moduli of glassy-trehalose that would be indicative of antiplasticization from the classical view point. In fact, molecular dynamics simulation showed that glycerol somewhat slows the mobility of hydrogen atoms on time scale of about 10^{-9} s, but the effect is small and does not influence the macroscopic elastic constants [25].

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In our previous work [24] we showed that antiplasticization in the trehalose–glycerol mixtures occurs only below a certain antiplasticization temperature (T_a), which corresponds to a compensation point between the enthalpic and entropic contributions to the free energy of activation. We characterized the extent of antiplasticization by using the relaxation time obtained from the Havriliak–Negami function under some arbitrary assumptions regarding the shape of the relaxation peak and the number of the relaxation processes. This typically leads to a conditioned solution, especially when the relaxation process results from mixing a secondary relaxation with an asymmetric primary relaxation, which is the case of glassy-trehalose and glycerol. In this work we employ a distribution function of relaxation times and a regularization technique to determine the relaxation time of the mix. This approach determines the relaxation time more accurately, without prior assumptions about a spectral function or about the number of the relaxation processes. We quantify the antiplasticization effect based on the measured relaxation time, and finally determine the temperature and concentration conditions using an Arrhenius function as a predictive model governing the antiplasticization.

2. Materials and measurements²

Anhydrous α , α' trehalose and anhydrous glycerol were purchased from Sigma and Fluka, respectively, and used without further purification. The mixtures of trehalose and glycerol were prepared by dispersing glycerol in the trehalose powder followed by a homogenization at 350 K overnight. After mixing, the samples were melted at temperature of about 480 K and then cooled rapidly on a cold plate to obtain glassy transparent films. In order to avoid the caramelization of trehalose and the crystallization of the trehalose–di-hydrate, the samples were handled in an argon gas inert environment in the dry box.

We note that samples obtained by melting trehalose di-hydrate or subjected to freeze-drying, exhibit in their dielectric loss spectra an additional dielectric process in the intermediate frequency range between the β -relaxation and that characteristic of large scale structural α -relaxation. Though clearly absent in the glass mixtures obtained from amorphous trehalose prepared and handled in the moisture-free dry box [24], this feature appears on dielectric loss spectra with slowly growing intensity and drifting frequency over the time scale of several days when exposed to ambient humidity. We conclude that this additional relaxation originates from the residual crystalline trehalose–di-hydrate. Because the development of crystallinity has a clear signature in the NMR 25 MHz ^{13}C CPMAS spectrum [24], we use this technique as well to monitor the purity of our glassy materials.

2.1. Dielectric measurements

The dielectric permittivity data were obtained from the capacitance and loss tangent measurements in the frequency range of 100 Hz–100 MHz using an Agilent 4294A precision impedance analyzer. Solid film specimens, typically 200 μm thick were prepared in the dry box by melting samples between glass slides with evaporated aluminum electrodes, contacts, and spacers clamped together. After melting, the samples were cooled to obtain transparent glassy films. Liquid materials were injected to fill the gap between electrodes. The real part of the dielectric constant, ϵ' and the dielectric loss, ϵ'' were obtained from the measured complex capacitance and geometry of the test specimen. The relative

standard uncertainty of the capacitance was assumed to be within the manufacturer's specification for the 4294A analyzer of 1%.

In the frequency range of 100 MHz–18 GHz, the dielectric permittivity was obtained from one-port reflection coefficient measurements, which were carried out with a HP 8720D vector network analyzer [26,27]. Dielectric measurements were carried in a nitrogen gas environment in the temperature range of 220–350 K. The specimen temperature was controlled to an uncertainty of ± 0.5 K. The combined relative experimental uncertainty of the measured complex permittivity was within 8%, while the experimental resolution of the dielectric loss tangent measurements was about 0.005.

2.2. Calculations

The relaxation time was obtained by analyzing the complex permittivity data in terms of the distribution function of relaxation times and a regularization technique [28].

$$\frac{\epsilon(\omega) - \epsilon_\infty}{\Delta\epsilon} = \int \frac{1}{1 + i\omega\tau} G(\ln\tau) d(\ln\tau), \quad (1)$$

where $G(\ln\tau)$ is the logarithmic distribution function of relaxation times, $\epsilon(\omega)$ is the complex permittivity, $\epsilon = \epsilon' - i \cdot \epsilon''$, which depends on the angular frequency ω . $\Delta\epsilon = \epsilon_0 - \epsilon_\infty$ is the dielectric relaxation strength, ϵ_0 and ϵ_∞ are the relaxed and unrelaxed dielectric constant, respectively. Our data can be analyzed by a system of linear first kind integral Eq. (1) with additive random measuring errors. Here, we decompose the dielectric spectrum into several discrete processes with separated relaxation times without prior assumptions about a spectral function and the number of the relaxation processes. However, discretizing (1) leads to a regression problem in which the standard least squares estimate is unstable. In such cases, stable estimates are usually gotten by one of two general methods:

1. truncating a singular value decomposition (SVD) of the model matrix to remove components of the solution thought to be corrupted by measurement errors, or
2. appending additional linear equations to the model which describe *a priori* constraints, e.g., non-negativity that the unknown solution must satisfy.

The latter technique, which is usually called regularization, requires the user to choose a free parameter, which controls the relative weightings of the measurement equations and the additional constraint equations. In our calculations we have used a form of regularization where the regularization constraint was designed to smooth the estimate by making its second derivative vector close to the zero-vector [28,29]. The success of the regularization method depends crucially on the choice of the adjustable regularizing parameter. The criteria that we used to make this choice have been reviewed in Refs. [30,31]. The guiding principle is to seek estimates which produce residuals that are as much like the measurement errors as can be determined. For example, if the measurement errors are normally distributed, and the regression model is normalized to reduce the variance–covariance matrix to an identity matrix, then the residuals should be independently, identically distributed with a standard normal distribution, and the sum of squared residuals (SSR) should be a sample from a chi-square distribution with m degrees of freedom. The fact that the mean value of the above chi-square distribution is m suggests that one should seek an estimate which gives a SSR as close as possible to m . Other selection criteria that we used include generalized cross-validation, the L -curve method, and the length of the cumulative periodogram of the residuals [30,31]. The combined relative experimental uncertainty of the relaxation time was within 8%.

² Certain equipment, instruments or materials are identified in this paper in order to adequately specify the experimental details. Such identification does not imply recommendation by the National Institute of Standards and Technology nor does it imply the materials are necessarily the best available for the purpose.

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