



Polymer Osmotic Pressure in Hydrogel Contact Mechanics



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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Hydrogel
Osmotic pressure
Poroelasticity
Darcy's law
Contact mechanics

ABSTRACT

Simple, semi-dilute hydrogels made from flexible polymers are often used as material surrogates for biological tissues, despite the dramatic differences between gels and tissues in their micro- and nano-structure, osmotic properties, and fluid permeability. Moreover, these simple hydrogels are often treated as poroelastic, even when applied pressures are below the hydrogel's osmotic pressure. Here we investigate the role of polymer osmotic pressure in hydrogel contact mechanics with a series of local indentation tests and bulk compression tests. Performing hydrogel indentation atop an inverted confocal microscope and applying surface pressures less than the hydrogel osmotic pressure, we find that hydrogel deformation behavior agrees with the Hertz model, observing no evidence of fluid flow or volumetric gel compression. A long-time creep of the hydrogel is also found, which can be predicted from a model of diffusive relaxations within the gel. In bulk compression tests, the gel is found to be incompressible, and therefore water cannot be driven out of the gel, unless the applied pressure exceeds the hydrogel osmotic pressure.

1. Introduction

Hydrogels have been broadly employed for many decades as material surrogates for biological tissues, largely because the elastic modulus and fluid permeability of hydrogels can be tuned to approximate the material and transport properties of various tissues [1,2]. This level of control allows the design of tribological and mechanical experiments that test fundamental questions about tissue properties while mitigating the variability within tissue samples that arise from factors such as age, sex, health of the donor, and sample preparation [2–5]. Popular hydrogel systems used as experimental tissue surrogates include polyacrylamide and polyethylene glycol, which, in their simplest formulations, are semi-dilute networks made from flexible polymers, having material and transport properties that are determined by the thermal fluctuations of their constituent polymer chains at the nano-scale [6,7]. By contrast, living tissues are complex assemblies of cells, extracellular matrix, and numerous other biopolymers and biomaterials, having material and transport properties that depend strongly on micro-scale architecture and interstitial pore space between cells [8,9]. This dominantly entropic difference between simple hydrogels and tissues may manifest in how they compress; both the elastic modulus and osmotic pressure of simple hydrogels arise from polymer thermal fluctuations and are approximately equal, while tissues behave more like bi-phasic poroelastic solids [10]. Often, the long-time

dissipative response of hydrogels to compressive loads is interpreted as poroelastic without considering the role of the polymer osmotic pressure [11–13]. However, osmotic pressure of a hydrogel is a qualitatively different physical parameter from the effective compression modulus of a poroelastic solid. Thus, if the osmotic pressure dominates the hydrogel response to compressive loads, caution must be taken in interpreting the response as poroelastic and assuming pressure-driven fluid flow occurs.

Here we investigate the role of osmotic pressure in the response of a simple hydrogel system to applied, direct-contact pressure. Using a hemispherical indenter, we integrate classic contact-mechanics indentation tests with confocal microscopy, enabling the measurement of contact area, indentation depth, and applied normal load without assuming any specific elastic, viscoelastic, or poroelastic model to generate loading curves. The loading-rate dependence of hydrogel response to applied loads and evidence of fluid flow are both investigated. Applying surface pressures below the hydrogel osmotic pressure, we find that polyacrylamide gel slabs behave as described by Hertz, observing no evidence of pressure driven fluid flow. A time-dependent gel response is observed, in which the system creeps slowly under persistently applied load over very long timescales, which are hypothesized to be diffusive micro-structural relaxations within the hydrogel rather than water flow. These results are corroborated in bulk compression tests in which a thin slab is squeezed between two parallel

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plates; the gel does not compress until the applied pressure exceeds the gel osmotic pressure.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Materials

Hydrogel samples are prepared following the methods described in Uruña et al. [7]. We prepare gels at 7.5% (w/w) polyacrylamide (pAAm) and 0.3% (w/w) bis-acrylamide crosslinker, producing networks with a mesh size of about 7 nm. 20 nm diameter red fluorescent polystyrene spheres are mixed into the polymer precursor solution before polymerization at a concentration of 0.02% (w/w) [6,7,14]. Hydrogel sheets (1 mm thick, 10 mm diameter) are cast in glass-bottom culture dishes under a glass coverslip to ensure a constant thickness for confocal imaging. After polymerization, the coverslip is removed and the hydrogel sample is allowed to equilibrate for 24 h in ultrapure water.

2.2. Indenter Configuration

In situ indentation experiments are performed with a custom micro-indenter as described in [15,16], mounted to a laser-scanning confocal fluorescence microscope. The custom microindenter is mounted to a piezoelectric stage that is used for vertical displacements up to 250 μm (Physik Instrumente P-622.ZCL, 1 nm resolution). The sapphire probe (1.6 mm radius of curvature) is fastened to a double-leaf flexure cantilever assembly with a normal stiffness of 40 $\mu\text{N}/\mu\text{m}$ (~ 5000 μN max normal loads). Normal forces are calculated from cantilever deflections which are measured by a linear displacement capacitance probe (Lion precision C5R-0.8 sensor, 5 nm resolution). The apex of the spherical sapphire probe is centered on the microscope's optical axis for all experiments.

The system is capable of running in a load-controlled and displacement-controlled configuration, allowing the system to servo on a particular load or to follow a user defined indentation path. Reliance on a close-looped force feedback in lieu of dead weight loads allowed for other indenter characteristics such as smoothness, reflectivity, and adhesion consideration to govern material considerations over density. This design also reduced concerns with sample flatness and modulus that can be encountered in the dead load experiments.

2.3. Indentation Measurement

Prior to indentations, the sapphire probe is coated with a 0.1% (w/w) solution of F-127 Pluronic to mitigate adhesion. All experiments are performed with both the probe and the hydrogel sheet entirely submerged in ultrapure water. A normal load is chosen (500, 750, 1000, 1500, 1750, 2000, and 3000 μN) and held for a prescribed duration after which the deformed interface is imaged with the confocal microscope. Load dwell times before imaging are 0 s, 200 s, 1000 s and 3000 s. For the 1000 s and 3000 s dwell tests, the hydrogel is allowed to relax under no applied load for the same amount of time between loading steps.

2.4. Bulk Compression

The macroscopic compression test is run with a Kinexus Pro rheometer using a plate-on-plate geometry. Roughened plates are used to prevent the hydrogel from expanding radially. A 7.5% (w/w) pAAm solution is polymerized with 0.3% bisacrylamide crosslinker between the two plates (10 mm diameter) at a 0.5 mm gap. A surplus of water is placed around the plate to prevent hydrogel dehydration during the experiment. Stepped, increasing compressive loads are applied to the gel and held persistently for 90 min at each load while the change in the gap between the plates is recorded by the rheometer.

3. Results

We perform contact indentation tests on 7.5% (w/w) polyacrylamide hydrogels (pAAm) with 0.3% (w/w) bisacrylamide crosslinker (see Materials and methods). These gels are submerged in water throughout all tests reported here. Using previously published measurements of hydrogel mesh-size, we estimate the osmotic pressure to be 11 kPa using $\Pi = k_b T / \xi^3$ [7,17]. To enable visualization of the surface profile and sub-surface gel compression, we disperse red fluorescent polystyrene beads (20 nm diameter) at approximately 0.02% (w/w). To apply a controlled normal load to the gel while imaging the 3D fluorescence intensity distribution, we mount an indentation system on the bright-field illumination arm of an inverted confocal microscope, in place of the condenser lens and aperture turret. This strategy allows a 1.6 mm radius of curvature, hemispherical, sapphire indentation probe to be aligned with the optical axis. Two different indentation protocols are followed. In the first protocol, the applied normal load is ramped step-wise, holding a constant load during imaging, increasing to the next load, holding, imaging, and so on. In the second protocol, the normal load is completely removed between increasing steps, providing long times for potential hydrogel relaxation and recovery.

In the step-wise ramping measurements, normal loads are held at 500 μN , 750 μN , 1000 μN , 1500 μN , 1750 μN , 2000 μN , and 3000 μN (Fig. 1 A). The ramping rate between normal load steps is 200 $\mu\text{N}/\text{s}$, and before imaging the load is held for 200 s before confocal z-stacks are collected. Each confocal stack takes 100 s to collect. The z-stacks are azimuthally averaged around the vertical axis of symmetry centered on the apex of the indenter (Fig. 1 B). The resulting R-Z intensity profiles are thresholded to determine the indented gel surface profile (Fig. 1 C), and the edge of contact is identified by finding the location where the gel surface diverges from the known indenter shape (Fig. 1 D). The contact width, a , at each load can be converted into an indentation depth, d , producing a force-indentation curve. The normal load scales like $d^{3/2}$ as predicted by the Hertz model, which we fit to the data to determine the hydrogel composite modulus, finding $E^* = 26$ kPa (Fig. 2).

To explore the potential role of rate-dependent dissipation and stress relaxation that may arise from poroelastic effects, we perform a series of indents in which the gel is allowed to recover between static normal loads by fully retracting the indenter. Here, each load is treated as an individual indentation, held for a chosen time, and imaged. After imaging, the hydrogel is allowed to equilibrate under no load before increasing the load for an equivalent time period. Two separate 7.5% pAAm hydrogels samples are used, loaded and unloaded for both 1000 s and 3000 s. For the 1000 s experiment, a measurement is also taken immediately after the target load is reached, creating another dataset with a 0 s delay under load. Performing the same analysis as described above, we find Hertz scaling for all three tests, and E^* of 32 kPa, 26 kPa, and 35 kPa for the 0 s, 1000 s, and 3000 s protocols. The lack of a systematic trend in these data and their overlap with the progressive load data suggest that negligible time-dependent behaviors contribute to the mechanical response of hydrogels to contact forces.

Given the agreement between our data and the Hertz contact model, we use the Hertz model to determine the maximum applied pressure across all the tests, at the apex of the indenter. This predicted maximum pressure is 6 kPa, which is significantly less than the 11 kPa osmotic pressure of the hydrogel, suggesting that the gel is maintaining a uniform polymer concentration throughout the indentation process and preventing fluid flow. The 3D confocal images are used to observe whether polymer is concentrating below the indenter; if the hydrogel is concentrating near the surface, the voxel intensity should increase with applied load. Thus, we measure the fluorescence intensity at all discrete loads near the surface at a radial distance of 100 μm from the center. No correlation between the indentation depth and fluorescence intensity is found, confirming that during the indentation process the gel is not concentrating.

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