

Lecture 2: Molecular Design and Synthesis of Biomaterials I: Biodegradable Solid Polymeric Materials (continued)

Last time: chemistry and physical chemistry of degrading polymeric solids for biomaterials

Today: Theory of polymer erosion
Enzymatic degradation of synthetic biomaterials
Designing degradable materials

Reading: A. Gopferich, "Mechanisms of polymer degradation and erosion," *Biomaterials* **17**, 103 (1996)
Ratner p. 243-259

Supplementary Reading: R.J. Young and P.A. Lovell, "Introduction to Polymers," ch. 4 *Polymer Structure* pp. 241-309 (crystallization of polymers, T_m , glass transition, etc.)

Surface vs. Bulk Hydrolysis: Göpferich's theory for polymer erosion¹⁻⁴

Biodegradable solids may have differing *modes* of degradation:

Surface erosion – degradation from exterior only with little/no water penetration into bulk

Bulk erosion – water penetrates entire structure and degrades entire device simultaneously

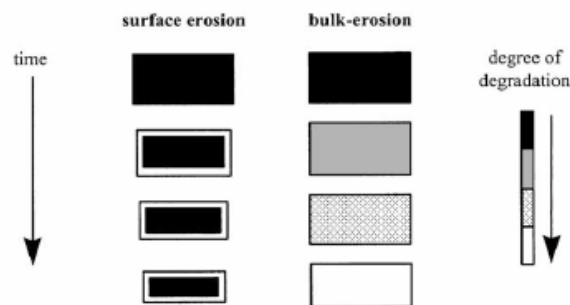


Fig. 1. Schematic illustration of the changes a polymer matrix undergoes during surface erosion and bulk erosion.

Polymers hydrolyzing by mechanisms II or III can be either surface or bulk eroding.⁵⁻⁷

Assuming that a polymer is water insoluble (initially) and that hydrolysis is the only mechanism of breakdown, the factors listed above all vary two rates of importance:

rate of water diffusion into polymer

rate of chain cleavage by water ions

The balance of these rates determines whether a polymer erodes from the surface in or by simultaneous degradation throughout the material:

Comparing velocities of water diffusion and chain cleavage:

Accounting for rate of water diffusion: Time required for water to diffuse a mean distance $\langle x \rangle$ into the solid polymer:

(1) $t_{diff} = \langle x \rangle^2 \pi / 4 D_{H_2O}$
 D_{H_2O} = effective diffusivity of water in polymer
 See Atkins Phys. Chem p. 770 for derivation

Random walk:

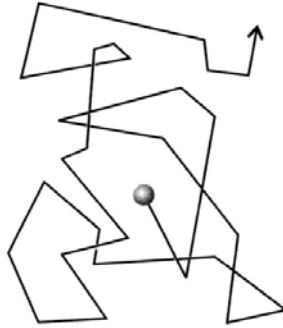


Fig. 10.18 One possible path of a random walk in three dimensions. In this general case, the step length is also a random variable.

(Atkins⁸)

Mean distance from origin traveled by water molecule after time $t = \langle r \rangle = (2D_{H_2O}t)^{1/2}$
 Mean distance traveled in x direction = $\langle x \rangle = 2(D_{H_2O}t_{diff}/\pi)^{1/2}$
 EXPLAIN

Number of bonds in depth $\langle x \rangle$:

(2) $n = \langle x \rangle (\text{bonds/cm}^3)^{1/3} = \langle x \rangle (N_{AV}\rho/M_0)^{1/3}$
 N_{AV} = Avogadro's number
 ρ = polymer density
 M_0 = molecular weight of polymer repeat unit

Accounting for rate of chain cleavage (k): probability that a bonds breaks in the interval (0,t):

(3) $p(t) = ke^{-kt}$
 where we have assumed that chain cleavage is a random event following Poisson kinetics
 k = rate constant for bond hydrolysis

Therefore the mean lifetime of a single bond is given by:

(4) $\langle t_c \rangle = \int_0^\infty t p(t) dt = \int_0^\infty t e^{-kt} dt = \frac{-1}{k} (kt + 1)e^{-kt} \Big|_0^\infty = \frac{1}{k}$

Time to degrade n bonds is a zero-order waiting time distributed according to a zero-order Erlang distribution:

(5) $\langle t_c(n) \rangle = (1/k) \sum_{i=1}^n (1/i) \approx (1/k) \ln(n)$
 $= (1/k) [\ln \langle x \rangle + (1/3) \ln (N_{AV}\rho/M_0)]$ (substituting (2))

Mechanism (surface vs. bulk) is controlled by ratio of time for diffusion to time for hydrolysis, a dimensionless parameter analogous to a Deborah number:

Erosion number = ϵ

$$(5) \quad \epsilon \equiv t_{diff} / \langle t_c(n) \rangle = \langle x \rangle^2 k_c \pi / [4 D_{H_2O} \{ \ln \langle x \rangle + (1/3) \ln (N_{Av} \rho / M_0) \}]$$

- note $\langle x \rangle$ in denominator \ln should have same units as ρ , i.e. cm if ρ is in g/cm^3

If $\langle x \rangle$ is replaced by the total thickness of a degrading sample, we can predict the mechanism of erosion:

- $\epsilon > 1$ bulk erosion
- $\epsilon = 1$ change in erosion mechanism
- $\epsilon < 1$ surface erosion

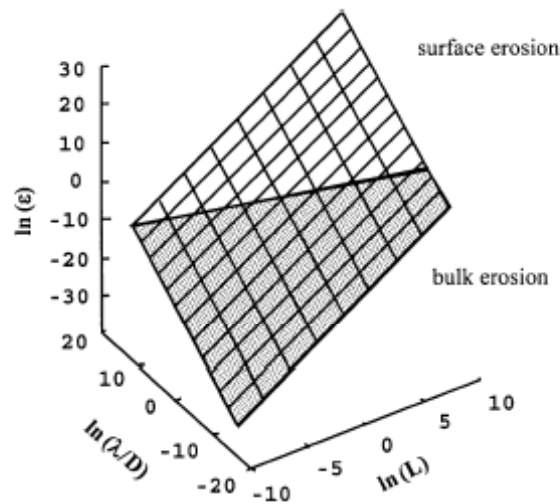


Fig. 2. Dependence of the erosion number, ϵ , on the diffusivity of water inside the polymer, D_w , the dimensions of a polymer matrix, L , and the polymer bond reactivity, λ , calculated from equation 7. The white plane represents the area of surface erosion, the gray one the area of bulk erosion.

- mass loss is linear for surface-eroding devices only

Table 1
Estimated values of λ and $L_{critical}$ for selected degradable polymers

Chemical structure	Polymer	λ (s^{-1})	λ^a	$L_{critical}^b$
$\left[\begin{array}{c} O & O \\ & \\ R-C & -O-C \\ & \\ & & \end{array} \right]$	Poly(anhydrides)	1.9×10^{-3} Ref. [30]	11,515	75 μm
$\left[\begin{array}{c} R \\ \\ O-C-O-R \\ \\ R \end{array} \right]$	Poly(ketal)	6.4×10^{-5} Ref. [30]	387	0.4 mm
$\left[\begin{array}{c} OR \\ \\ O-C-O-R \\ \\ R \end{array} \right]$	Poly(ortho esters)	4.8×10^{-5} Ref. [30]	291	0.6 mm
$\left[\begin{array}{c} H \\ \\ O-C-O-R \\ \\ R \end{array} \right]$	Poly(acetal)	2.7×10^{-8} Ref. [30]	0.16	2.4 cm
$\left[\begin{array}{c} O \\ \\ O-(CH_2)_5-C \end{array} \right]$	Poly(ϵ -caprolactone)	9.7×10^{-8} Ref. [31]	0.1	1.3 cm
$\left[\begin{array}{c} H & O \\ & \\ O-C & -C \\ & \\ CH_3 & \end{array} \right]$	Poly(α -hydroxy-esters)	6.6×10^{-9} Ref. [30]	4.0×10^{-2}	7.4 cm
$\left[\begin{array}{c} H & H & O \\ & & \\ N-C & -C & -C \\ & & \\ R & & \end{array} \right]$	Poly(amides)	2.6×10^{-13} Ref. [30]	1.5×10^{-6}	13.4 m

^aFor a 1cm thick device, $D = 10^{-8} cm^2 s^{-1}$ (estimated from Ref. [32]) and $\ln \left[\frac{\sqrt[3]{M_n}/N_A(N-1)\rho}{\lambda} \right] = -16.5$.

^b $D = 10^{-8} cm^2 s^{-1}$ (estimated from Ref. [32]) and $\ln \left[\frac{\sqrt[3]{M_n}/N_A(N-1)\rho}{\lambda} \right] = -16.5$.

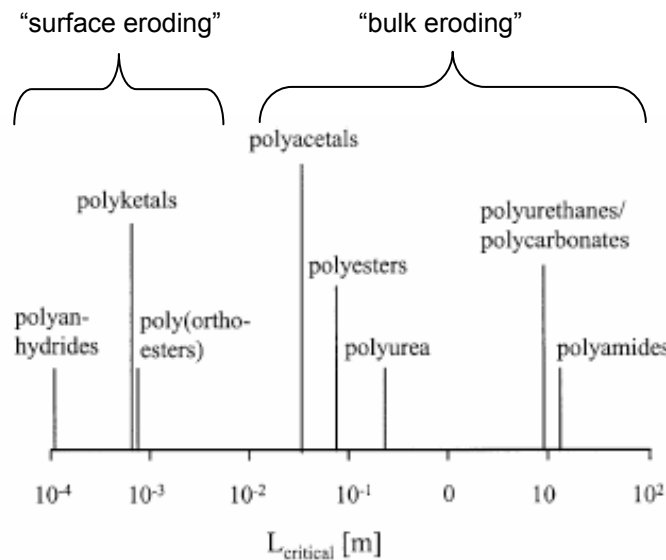


Fig. 3. Critical thickness, $L_{critical}$, that a polymer device has to exceed to undergo surface erosion (calculated from Eq. (7), data shown in Table 1).

Experimental demonstration of theory:

Transition of PLGA erosion from bulk to surface mode:
 degraded at basic pH (>12)- increased k_c , thus decreasing $\epsilon \ll 1$

Bulk (normal erosion at pH 7.4):

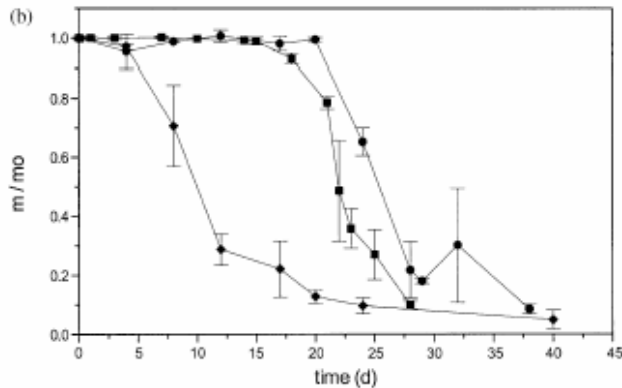


Fig. 4. Erosion profiles of poly(α -hydroxy esters) at pH 7.4: (a) PLA₅₀11h (○) and PLA₅₀17 (□), (b) PLA₂₅GA₅₀8h (◆), PLA₂₅GA₅₀14 (●) and PLA₂₅GA₅₀47h (■).

Surface (pH > 12):

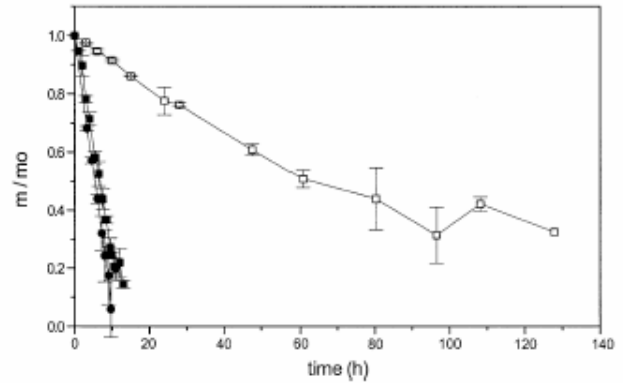


Fig. 9. Erosion of poly(α -hydroxy esters) at pH > 13: PLA₂₅GA₅₀14 (●) and PLA₅₀17 (□), PLA₂₅GA₅₀47h (■).

SEM shown previously (Fig. 13) confirms transition to surface mode

Synthesizing biodegradable macromolecules to tailor properties

Approaches to molecular design

- Copolymerization
 - Control polymer hydrophobicity -> degradation rate
 - Control concentration of reactive groups
 - Alter biocompatibility
 - What are the degradation products? Acidity/basicity? Toxicity? Biological effects?

- Vary T_m , T_g^9 , (mechanical properties)

(SLIDE)

Table 3. Properties of poly(CL-co-DXO), poly(VL-co-DXO), and poly(LLA-co-DXO)

Sample	% DXO in copolymer	T_g (DSC) [°C]	T_m (DSC) [°C]
CD50	50	-56.8	27.8
CD60	41	-57.8	27.2
CD70	29	-55.5	36.0
CD80	18	-61.0	42.8
CD90	8	-65.6	50.5
CD100	0	-65.9	57.6
VD70	33	-56.7	28.0
VD80	25	-56.1	37.7
VD90	7	-59.9	46.0
VD100	0	-63.4	57.5
LD70	28	23.1	154.1
LD85	13	41.1	170.8
LD100	0	58.5	183.8

Data adopted from [134]

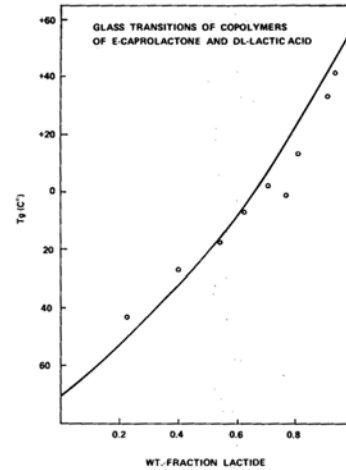


FIGURE 2. Variation of glass transition temperature (T_g) of copolymers of caprolactone and DL-lactide as a function of DL-lactide content. Solid line is calculated relationship, based on Fox equation (from Reference 8).

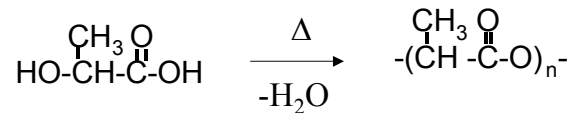
Polymer 36, 1009 (1995)

- Reactions on polymers/Polymer functionalization

Controlling Molecular Architecture

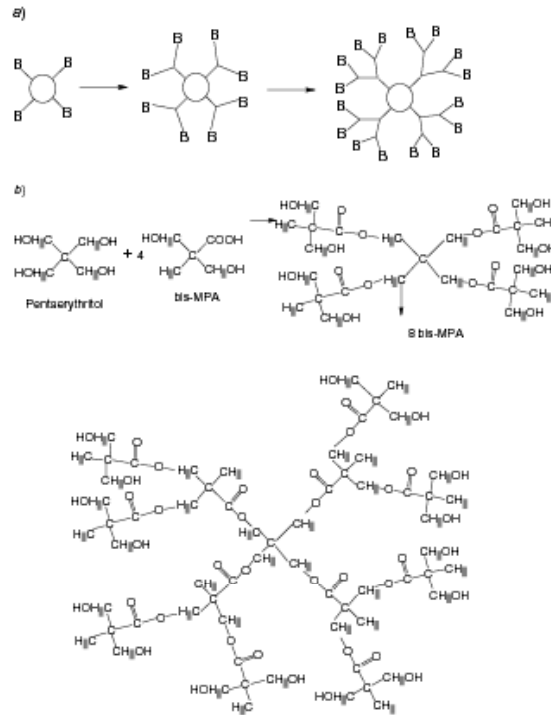
We won't undertake an exhaustive description, but some of the important methods to be aware of:

- Condensation polymerization
 - Not very efficient, produces low molecular weight polymers (usually $\leq 10K$ g/mole)



- Has been found useful for growing dendritic polymers:
 - Prepared using AB₂-type monomers

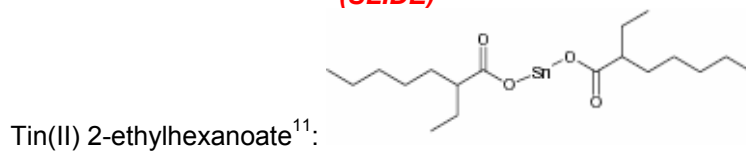
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Scheme 22. a) The divergent growth approach for the preparation of dendritic polyesters. b) The divergent approach for the preparation of dendrimer having 16-hydroxy groups

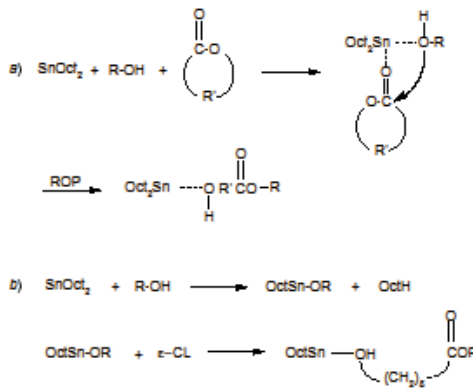
- Ring-opening polymerization
 - Catalysis by stannous octoate (tin 2-ethyl hexanoate, FDA-approved)
 - Useful for polyesters (PLA, PCL, PGA, and their copolymers)¹⁰
 - Polymerization initiates from alcohol co-initiator groups by a coordination-insertion mechanism:

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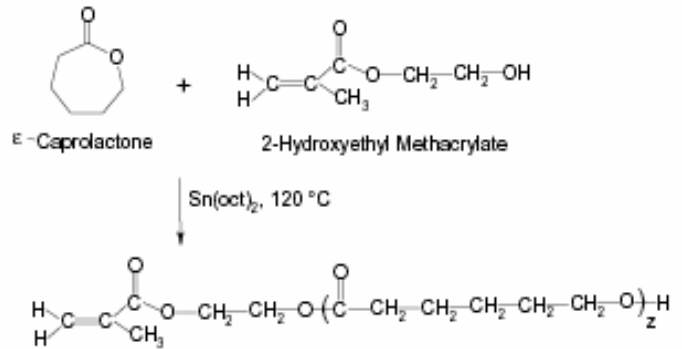


Proposed mechanisms: **(on board)**

example insertion:



Scheme 6. The main ROP mechanism proposals with $\text{Sn}(\text{Oct})_2$ as catalyst, a) complexation of a monomer and alcohol prior to ROP and b) formation of a tin-alkoxide before ROP of $\epsilon\text{-CL}$.



Scheme 17. α -Methacryloyl- ω -hydroxyl-poly(ϵ -caprolactone) macro monomer

- For lactide and glycolide, each ring monomer opens to 2 lactic acid/glycolic acid moieties:

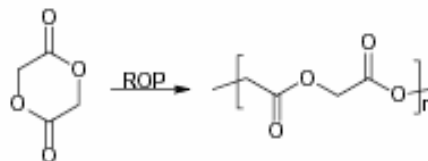


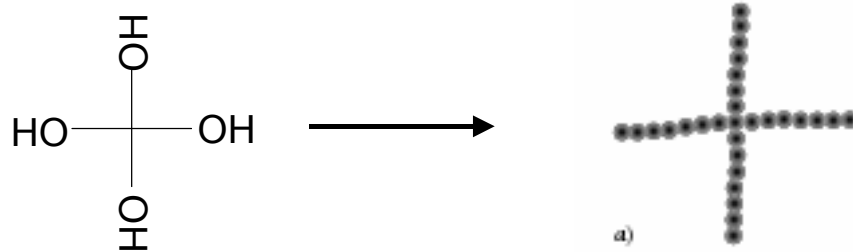
Fig. 8. The chemical structure of glycolide and the resulting repeating unit

A variety of similar catalysts can be used to polymerize lactone ring monomers: **(SLIDE)**

Table 1. Structure and designation of various lactones

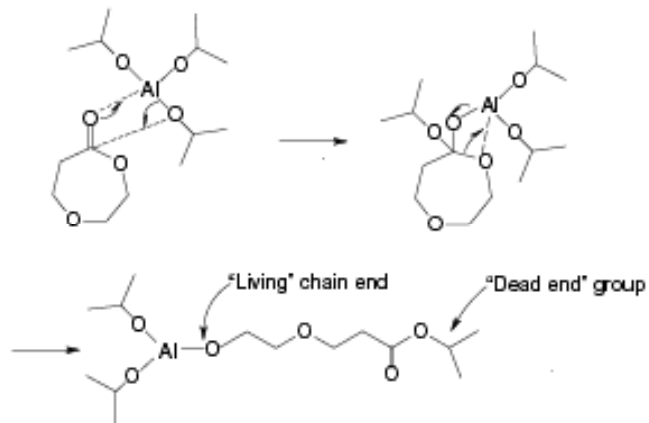
β -propiolactone		β -PL
γ -butyrolactone		γ -BL
β -butyrolactone		β -BL
δ -valerolactone		δ -VL
ϵ -caprolactone		ϵ -CL
1,5-dioxepan-2-one		DXO
R=H; glycolide		GA
R=CH ₃ ; lactide		LA

- Multi-alcohol initiators permit synthesis of multi-armed polymers:



- Living ring-opening polymerization
 - Coordination-insertion catalysts: e.g. aluminum isopropoxide¹⁰

Provide control over molecular weight and MWD:



Scheme 15. Aluminum isopropoxide initiated polymerization of 1,5-dioxepan-2-one

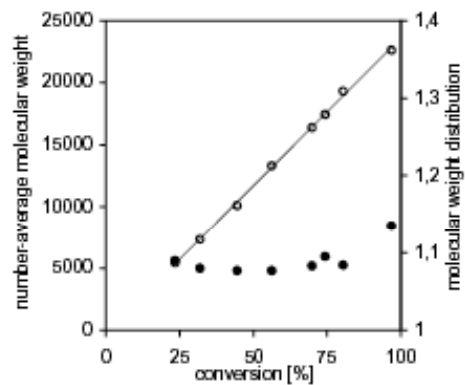


Fig. 2. The influence of 1-LA monomer conversion on the number-average molecular weight (○) and the MWD (●). Polymerization conducted at 60 °C in chloroform with an initial monomer-to-initiator ratio of 100:1

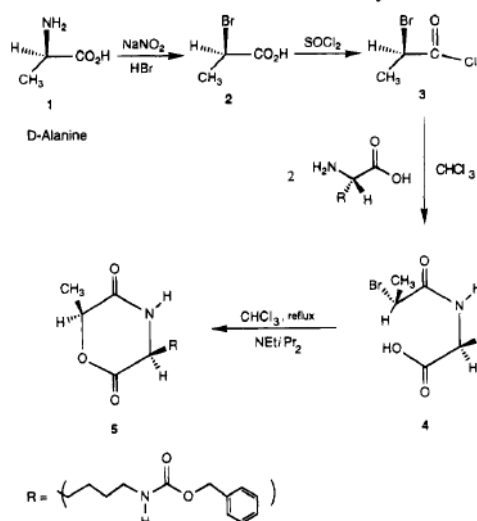
- Allows the synthesis of block copolymers:



Fig. 5. A schematic presentation of an ABA tri-block copolymer with two A-blocks (gray circles with dark centers) and one B-block (gray circles with light centers)

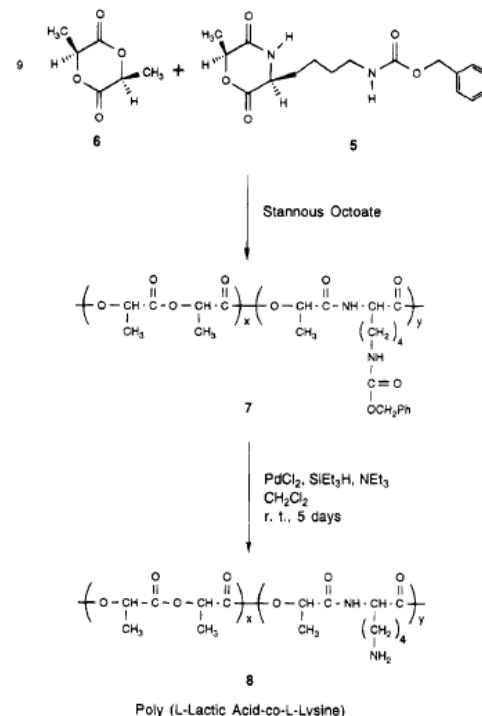
- Monomers polymerized sequentially, when block A is formed, monomer B is injected, etc. pendant peptide groups

- Copolymerization of ring peptides with biodegradable monomers

Scheme 1. Synthesis of 5, the Cyclic Dimer of L-Lactic Acid and Protected L-Lysine


e.g. Barrera et al¹²⁻¹⁴:

- monomers must be synthesized from scratch
- bulky substituents make for highly inefficient ring-opening polymerization¹⁵

Scheme 2. Synthesis of Poly(L-lactic acid-co-L-lysine)

Table 2. Effect of the Concentration of 5 on Polymerizations Conducted at 136 °C for 48 h Using a Catalyst to Monomer Ratio of 1/1000^a

reaction	mole % 5^b copolymer	yield (%)	M_n	M_w	T_g (°C)	T_m (°C)
	0.0	85	132 000	223 000	61.6	169.4
	5.3	71	14 500	36 700	57.5	155.3 ^c
	10.5	57	8 400	23 000	55.8	152.8 ^c
	27.7	20	12 300	15 000	52.4	none
	100.0	0				

^a All the molecular weight data were obtained on protected copolymers. ^b Determined by ¹H NMR. Incorporated of 10 mol % **5** actually yields only 5 mol % lysine since each molecule of **5** contains one lysine residue and one lactic acid residue. ^c Indicates 2 or more melting endotherms.

- Network polymerization
 - Photopolymerization of liquid precursors
 - E.g. polyanhydrides^{16,17}
 - Allows formation of polymeric solids *in situ* from liquid precursors
 - Useful for dental restorations, bone fixation, tissue engineering
 - Curable through fiber optics or by shining light through tissue
 - UV or visible light initiators available

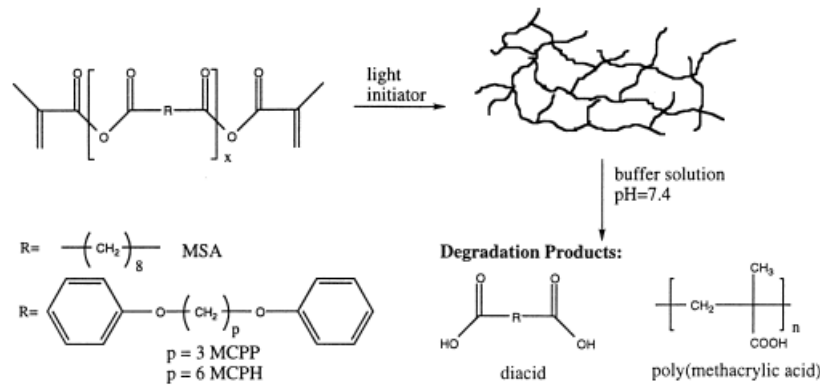


Fig. 1. Dimethacrylated anhydride monomers, methacrylated sebacic acid (MSA), methacrylated 1,3-bis(*p*-carboxyphenoxy) propane (MCPP) and methacrylated 1,6-bis(*p*-carboxyphenoxy) hexane (MCPH), as well as a general polymerization and degradation scheme.

Benefit of rapid polymerization:

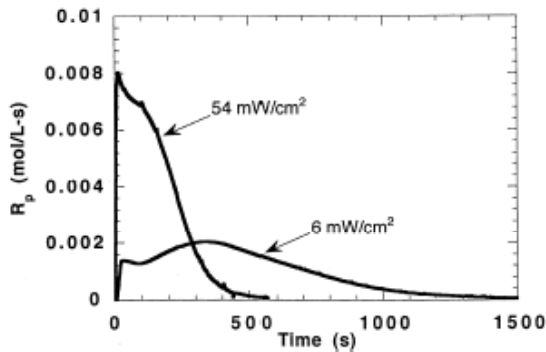


Fig. 3. Effect of light intensity on the rate of photopolymerization as a function of time for MSA polymerized with 0.5 wt% CQ and 0.5 wt% TEA.

network properties can be tuned at the molecular level by copolymerizing monofunctional monomers:

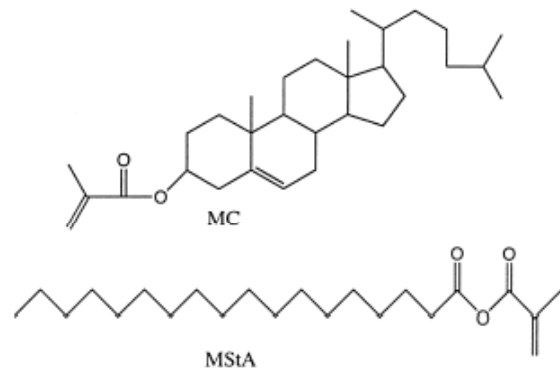


Fig. 2. Chemical structures of monofunctional monomers, methacrylated cholesterol (MC) and methacrylated stearic acid (MStA).

cholesterol a vital component of cell membranes; stearic acid a natural fatty acid

References

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