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Feasibility of Cyclodextrin-Potassium Ion Assemblies Synthesis and Its Application in Loading Bio-active Molecules

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In the study, colorless cubic crystals of “green” cyclodextrin (CD)-based assemblies were synthesized and their potential to load bio-active molecules such as drugs and, separately, enzymes were investigated. Busulfan (Bu), an anti-cancer drug widely used to treat chronic myelogenous leukemia (CML), was used as a test drug while trypsin and lipase were used as model enzymes. These porous CD-K⁺ ion assemblies were prepared by dissolving alkali metal salts and γ-CD in water followed by vapor diffusion in varying solvents for several days. Crystals were activated via dichloromethane dispersion and in vacuo drying. Slow vapor diffusion with ethanol was found to give the highest yield and fastest crystallization time among all the solvents used. The materials synthesized using ethanol were characterized to be cubic crystals with sizes ranging from 100–1000 µm that are stable up to 250 °C. Loading of Bu (%S) onto the CD-K⁺ ion assemblies and co-crystallization with trypsin (%N) were both successful, as confirmed by elemental analysis. Loading studies of Bu performed using thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) confirmed about 5 wt% loading in the porous materials.

INTRODUCTION

Metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) represent an extensive class of porous materials where coordination of metal ions with organic ligands gives rise to networks containing potential voids (Rowsell et al. 2004; Batten et al. 2013; Rosseinsky 2004; Kitagawa et al. 2004; Férey 2008, 2009; Janiak and Veith 2010; Shen 2020). Recently, a series of environment-friendly MOFs with large pore volumes comprising alkali metal salts and endogenous linker, γ-CD, have been reported by Smaldone and co-workers (2010). This γ-CD combined with salts of Group IA, IIA, or transition metal cations gives rise to CD-MOFs having large surface areas (SAs) [Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) SA: 1200 m²/g, Langmuir SA: 1300 m²/g] and biocompatibility, making them desirable for food and pharmaceutical applications (Gassensmith et al. 2011; Stoddart et al. 2015; Forgan et al. 2010).

CD-MOFs have been reported to reversibly sequester a variety of organic molecules. This phenomenon can be largely attributed to the structure of CDs, which includes a hydrophobic interior and hydrophilic exterior, that can accommodate various guest molecules. There are three types of CDs according to the number of fused glucose units: α- (six), β- (seven), and γ- (eight). Efficient CO₂ sequestration by CD-MOFs was documented by Gassensmith et al. (2011) and Wu et al. (2013) whereas
CD-MOFs’ use in separation of a wide variety of compounds – including alkyl-, vinyl- and haloaromatics plus saturated and unsaturated acyclic compounds; on top of these chiral compounds were reported by Holcroft et al. (2015) and Hartileb et al. (2016), respectively. CD-MOFs encapsulation of acetaldehyde and other volatile organic compounds for post-harvest applications have been studied by Al-Ghamdi (2014). Moussa and co-workers (2016) reported that CD-MOFs could also be a promising benign system to store and stabilize curcumin for food applications.

At present, potential pharmaceutical applications of CD-MOFs have progressed from ibuprofen uptake simulation studies detailed by Bernini and co-workers (2014) to the recently reported in vitro viability studies of ibuprofen-loaded CD-MOFs by the Stoddart group. Additionally, recent studies on the drug loading capability of CD-MOFs – by the Shen (2020), Wu (2013), and Falcaro (2011) groups – have also been undertaken. Besides these few accounts, to the authors’ best knowledge, no other literature cited CD-MOFs for biomedical applications. For this reason, we decided to contribute information on the CD-MOFs’ viability for biomolecule uptake by attempting to synthesize CD-MOFs based on γ-CDs and investigate their affinity towards a potential anti-cancer drug (Bu) and enzymes trypsin and lipase into these materials.

The exploration of potential applications of CD-MOFs and similar materials, especially in the fields of pharmaceutical and bio-catalysis, is an essential undertaking. Their biocompatibility is one of its many properties that sets it apart from other MOF-based structures. The vast majority of MOFs described to date are composed of exogenous organic struts and transition metals (Smaldone et al. 2010). Their benign composition (K⁺ and γ-CD) permit their possible use in the fields of medicine and food applications without toxicological concerns. Herein, the potential of CD-K⁺ ion assemblies to load bio-active molecules such as drugs and enzymes is further investigated. Bu is used as a test drug while lipase from porcine pancreas and trypsin from bovine pancreas are used as model enzymes.

Bu (1, 4-butanediol-dimethanesulfonate) is an anti-cancer drug widely used to treat CML. It is an alkylating agent and works by slowing down the reproduction and growth of certain white blood cells. Many attempts have been made to entrap Bu in known drug carriers to avoid liver accumulation and to protect it against rapid degradation however poor loadings and fast release was generally obtained (Dunn 1974). In 2011, Horcajada et al. reported the encapsulation of Bu with high loadings up to 25 wt % but using iron carboxylate-based MOFs.

Lipases (triacylglycerol acylhydrolase, EC 3.1.1.3) are enzymes that catalyze both the hydrolysis and transesterification of triacylglycerides under mild reaction conditions. Lipases are among the most attractive and promising enzymes for industrial applications in the dairy, pharmaceutical, and oleochemical industries (Houde et al. 2004; Cao et al. 2016). Trypsin (EC 3.4.21.4) is an enzyme that catalyzes protein digestion and cleavage of peptides; it is often referred to as proteolytic enzyme/protease. It is one of the three principal digestive proteinases (the other two being pepsin and chymotrypsin) and has been used widely in proteomics studies and other biotechnological processes. In spite of their excellent catalytic properties, some properties such as stability have to be improved to widen their applications. According to Brenner’s Encyclopedia of Genetics, immobilization of enzymes is thought to be a simple and efficient method to address these issues.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

γ-CD samples (purity > 99%) were obtained from DKSH (Makati, Philippines). Potassium hydroxide (KOH) pellets (ACS reagent, purity ≥ 85%), Bu (analytical standard), lipase from porcine pancreas (Type II), and trypsin from bovine pancreas (2x crystallized, dialyzed, and lyophilized; salt-free) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Corp. (Saint Louis, MO, USA). All chemicals and solvents were used without further purification.

Methods

Synthesis and characterization of CD-K⁺ ion assemblies.

Several methods were tested to synthesize these materials. The principal method used was the slow vapor diffusion route to synthesize CD-MOFs, as described by Smaldone et al. (2010). The other two methods – which produce smaller crystals, suggested by Smith et al. (2015) and Marui et al. (2010) (number of moles of reactants was varied for the latter’s method) – were also tried. All experimental set-ups were done in triplicate. Syntheses using the first method were repeatedly done taking careful inspection since varying results for crystal formation were initially observed. As-synthesized assemblies were activated by immersion in dichloromethane (washings were refreshed once a day for 3 d). The crystals were then dried in vacuo at room temperature for 10 h and then the temperature was increased to 50–80 °C (depending on the solvent used) for an additional 12 h. Evaluation of the thermal stability of crystals was conducted using a Shimadzu TGA-50 thermal analysis system heated at 5–10 °C min⁻¹ from 25–800 °C. Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectra of samples were collected using Shimadzu IR Prestige-21 with diffuse reflectance spectroscopy.

IR Prestige-21 with diffuse reflectance spectroscopy.
Energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) analyses were performed using a Hitachi S-3400N scanning electron microscope (SEM). Samples were first subjected to an ion sputter (Au-Pt) before analysis. Powder X-ray diffraction data were collected using Rigaku Ultima IV X-ray diffractometer with the following settings: radiation of Cu Ka (λ = 0.154 nm) at 40 kV, 40 mA, and 1.2-mm beam incision with 2.0-mm detector slit over the range of 1–30° with increments of 0.02°. BET data were collected using Quantachrome NovaWin where the N₂ adsorption took place at 77.3 K.

**Bu loading.** Bu loading via in situ encapsulation was done by adding varying amounts of Bu in water with γ-CD. Although Bu is largely non-polar and is expected to be insoluble in water, the authors hypothesized that γ-CD might improve Bu’s solubility in the solvent. For two-step, ex situ encapsulation studies, previously-dried (65 °C, 2 h) CD-MOF-1 samples were incubated in a Bu solution made from dissolving Bu in chloroform (80% max solubility). Chloroform was chosen according to the reported high solubility of Bu in the solvent (8 mg/ml). The mixtures were incubated for 16 h at room temperature. The Bu-loaded solids were then collected by filtration and then vacuum-dried. The collected solids were analyzed using EDX – enabling determination of C, O, and S wt%. For the determination of Bu loading by nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy, 20 mg of previously-dried materials were incubated in 2 ml of a 2 mg/ml Bu solution in deuterated chloroform (CDCl₃) containing 0.05% v/v tetramethylsilane (TMS), used as an internal standard. After 16 h of incubation at 16 °C, the crystals were collected and vacuum-dried overnight. The amount of non-encapsulated Bu was determined in the supernatants by ¹H-NMR spectroscopy using a calibration curve of Bu solutions in CDCl₃ (0.0001–0.01 g/ml).

**Enzyme immobilization via in situ synthesis.** One equiv. γ-CD plus 8 equiv. KOH and trypsin/lipase (100–500 mg) were combined in water and subsequently allowed to undergo slow vapor diffusion for 2–7 d. The solution with crystals at the bottom was carefully decanted and washed with the solvent three times. The crystals were allowed to stand in the solvent for 3 d, as another set of crystals were immediately dried since clear crystals turned yellow and then brown upon soaking with ethanol. The crystals were then dried in vacuo at room temperature for 10 h and then the temperature was increased to 50 or 80 °C (depending on the solvent used) for an additional 12 h. Evaluation of the thermal stability of crystals was conducted using a Shimadzu TGA-50 thermal analysis system. Samples were heated at 1 °C min⁻¹ from 30–500 °C. FTIR spectra of samples were collected from pelletized samples using Shimadzu IR Affinity FT-IR. SEM-EDX analyses were performed using a Hitachi S-3400N SEM. Samples were first subjected to an ion sputter (Au-Pt) before analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

CD-K⁺ ion assemblies were synthesized using KOH as metal ion source (K⁺) and γ-CD as an organic linker. It might be important to note that while a high degree of crystallinity is the desired quality of all MOFs published in the literature, not all MOFs produced share similar characteristics and properties. For instance, a study involving various methodologies of synthesizing HKUST-1 (MOF composed of copper ions and 1, 3, 5-benzenetricarbocylic acid) resulted in various samples with differences in crystallinity, phase purity, and BET surface area calculations (Moosavi et al. 2019). In this work, we adopted and slightly tweaked the slow vapor diffusion method in the synthesis of our CD-K⁺ assemblies similar to those of published literature concerning CD-MOFs. While highly crystalline CD-MOFs fit for well-resolved XRD analysis failed to materialize, we were able to produce sufficient products for harvest and investigate its potential in loading bio-active molecules, Bu, lipase, and trypsin. Clear cubic crystals were formed in the solution after 24 h in methanol and in ethanol. Fewer and smaller crystals were observed in THF after 4 d. Soft and thin rod-like crystals together with cubic crystals were formed in the solution using acetone as diffusion solvent.

The solution was also observed to change from clear to yellow, which may be caused by an aldol condensation reaction with acetone promoted by KOH in the solution (Al-Ghamdi 2014, Figure1). Slow vapor diffusion with ethanol was found to give the highest yield and fastest crystallization time among all the solvents used for our material (Table 1). Methanol also produced clear cubic crystals; however, some white precipitates appeared during Days 3–7.

Nikon Eclipse E200 optical microscope was also used for relative size evaluation of crystals. Powder X-ray diffraction data were collected using Rigaku Ultima IV X-ray diffractometer with the following settings: radiation of Cu Ka (λ = 0.154 nm) at 40 kV, 40 mA, and 1.2-mm beam incision with 2.0-mm detector slit over the range of 1–30° with increments of 0.02°. ¹H-NMR spectroscopy was performed at 400 MHz using JEOL LA400.

Figure 1. CD-MOFs formed via slow vapor diffusion in varying solvents.
**Table 1.** Synthesis of CD-K\textsuperscript{+} assemblies with varying solvents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Solvent</th>
<th>Boiling point of solvent</th>
<th>Time of crystallization (day)</th>
<th>Yield\textsuperscript{a}</th>
<th>Observations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acetone</td>
<td>56 °C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>Thin rod-like and cubic crystals; solution turned yellow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methanol</td>
<td>65 °C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>Clear cubic crystals with white precipitates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THF</td>
<td>66 °C</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0–2%</td>
<td>Small clear cubic crystals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethanol</td>
<td>78 °C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>Clear cubic crystals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{a}Crystals were collected after 7 d and oven-dried at 80 °C for 2 h. Values average of three trials.

No visible crystals were formed using the methods suggested by Smith et al. (heating with acetone for 2 h) while the modified method of Marui et al. (dropping 2-propanol in heated KI and γ-CD solution) yielded only white precipitates. White precipitates that were collected from the solutions were analyzed using X-ray fluorescence (XRF). Potassium (K) was not detected in the white precipitates, suggesting that CD-MOFs were not formed in the solution. CD-K\textsuperscript{+} assemblies synthesized using ethanol were characterized to be cubic crystals with sizes ranging from 100–1000 µm (Figure 2) that are stable up to 250 °C (TGA) and having an absorption of about 300 cm\textsuperscript{3} g\textsuperscript{−1} (BET). XRD pattern of synthesized CD-K\textsuperscript{+} assemblies showed varying peaks with simulated data in the literature [see Appendix Figure S3; vis-à-vis Smaldone et al. (2010) and Stoddart et al. (2015)]. The synthesized CD-K\textsuperscript{+} assemblies is possibly a polymorph of the one reported in the literature. No sharp XRD peaks were produced and no single crystal available for X-ray crystallography was also obtained. The exact structure of the synthesized material remains unknown.

![Figure 2. SEM micrographs of synthesized CD-K\textsuperscript{+} assemblies.](image)

Loading of Bu onto the material was successful as confirmed by FTIR (Bu-1100, 1300 cm\textsuperscript{−1} sulfonate peak) and elemental analysis (3.84% S). From the EDX data, it is estimated that there are two Bu molecules per γ-CD (see Appendix Figure S3). Quantitative loading studies of Bu were performed using TGA. The obtained crystals were soaked in a Bu solution prepared using CDCl\textsubscript{3}. Filtrates were collected after 16 h and were analyzed using \textsuperscript{1}H-NMR. An average of 5 wt% Bu loading in CD-K\textsuperscript{+} assemblies was calculated from the TGA analysis of Bu-loaded material (Figure 3). Analysis of Bu concentration in the remaining filtrate using \textsuperscript{1}H-NMR revealed a lower loading; however, this can be attributed to the high volatility of the solvent used. An internal standard (TMS) in the prepared solution was used to construct a calibration curve for the relative quantification of Bu loading. Integration of three peaks that characterize Bu were each plotted against the Bu concentration and revealed an average of 5% weight loading for the Bu-loaded samples.

In a separate set of experiments, enzyme loading was done using in situ synthesis of trypsin in collected crystals. Crystals (CD-MOF-enzyme) that were isolated from the solution were found to be smaller in size than the regular CD-MOFs. Additional nucleation sites produced by the enzyme may have decreased the rate of crystal growth. Loading of trypsin was successful as confirmed by FTIR (trypsin – 1650 cm\textsuperscript{−1} carbonyl peak) (see Appendices) and elemental analysis (3.01 %N, Figure 4) but unsuccessful for lipase. One factor that may have affected incorporation in the CD-K\textsuperscript{+} assemblies is its sparing solubility in the solution.

![Figure 3. TGA of Bu loaded CD-K\textsuperscript{+} assemblies.](image)
CONCLUSION
Herein, a “green” metal-organic CD-K⁺ ion assemblies made from CD was synthesized and its potential to load bio-active molecules such as drugs and enzymes was investigated. The materials were prepared by dissolving KOH and γ-CD in water followed by vapor diffusion in varying solvents. Crystals were activated via DCM dispersion and in vacuo drying. Slow vapor diffusion with ethanol was found to give the highest yield and fastest crystallization time among all the solvents used. Solids synthesized using ethanol were characterized to be cubic crystals with sizes ranging from 100–1000 µm that are stable up to 250 °C and having an absorption of about 300 cm⁻³ g⁻¹. Loading of the drug Bu (%S) via two-step encapsulation onto the material and loading of the enzyme trypsin (%N) via in situ synthesis were both successful as confirmed by elemental analysis. TGA analysis for the loading of Bu confirmed about 25 wt% loading in synthesized solids. Succeeding studies concerning the release profile of Bu and enzymes from the synthesized CD-K⁺ assemblies may be investigated in the near future.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS
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NOTES ON APPENDICES
The complete appendices section of the study is accessible at http://philjournsci.dost.gov.ph

REFERENCES


APPENDICES

Synthesis of CD-MOFs in Varying Solvents
White precipitates that were collected from the solutions were analyzed using XRF. K was not detected in the white precipitates, suggesting that CD-MOFs were not formed in the solution.

Table S1. Theta angle and d-spacing for CD-K+ assemblies XRD peaks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2-theta (deg)</th>
<th>d spacing (Å)</th>
<th>Relative intensity (a.u.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>63.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure S1. XRF analysis of white precipitates (red) and CD-MOFs (green).

Figure S2. EDX analysis of synthesized CD-MOFs. γ-CD: C_{48}H_{80}O_{40}, MW: 1297 g/mol and CD-MOF: [(C_{48}H_{80}O_{40})_(KOH)]_n, MW: 1409 g/mol

Figure S3. XRD pattern for synthesized CD-MOFs.

Bu Loading

Figure S4. EDX analysis of Bu-loaded CD-MOFs. Bu, C_{6}H_{14}O_{6}S_{2}; MW: 246 g/mol.

Figure S5. FTIR of Bu-loaded CD-MOFs.

Figure S6. Sample ¹H-NMR (400 MHz, CDCl₃) of Bu: δ 7.27 (solvent peak, s), 4.29 (2H, t), 3.03 (3H, s), 1.92 (2H, t), 1.58 (water, s).