



Recent progresses of understanding the viscosity of concentrated protein solutions

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Viscosity control for concentrated protein solutions is very important for the manufacturability and drug delivery routes of many protein therapeutics of the pharmaceutical industry. Even though there are successful applications of colloidal theories to calculate or predict the viscosity of globular proteins with electrostatic repulsions, understanding concentrated protein solutions remains an open challenge for colloidal science. This is especially true when proteins have complicated interaction potentials and non-spherical shapes, such as monoclonal antibody proteins. This paper provides a brief review of the recent experimental and theoretical progress in understanding the viscosity of concentrated protein solutions with a focus on the experimental results.

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Introduction

Protein therapeutics, such as rDNA-derived monoclonal antibody (mAb) drugs, have been tremendously successful in past decades to treat many diseases including some cancers. In fact, mAb based therapeutics have the global market value already over \$40 billion. The large scale production of mAbs poses a big challenge for pharmaceutical scientists to create an appropriate formulation in order to meet all requirements of the target product profile such as drugs stability, compatibility with administration routes, and so on [1–3]. Even though most FDA approved mAbs have been administered intravenously at present, more convenient administration routes, such as oral, transdermal, pulmonary, and subcutaneous injection routes, becomes desirable due to the convenience for outpatient and home treatments [3]. Among them,

subcutaneous injections become the preferred choice for some mAbs recently. But subcutaneous injection is limited to a small injection volume (<1.5 ml). Therefore it requires protein concentrations as high as 100 mg/ml or more [1,4,5]. The increased protein concentration increases the viscosity that can exceed the limit of ‘syringeability’ to subcutaneous routes as well as bringing manufacturing difficulties to industries. Thus, reducing viscosity while maintaining stability for a long shelf life becomes very important for pharmaceutical industries.

Many variables can affect the viscosity of protein solutions, such as surface charge, molecule shape, solvent viscosity, pH, ionic strength, temperature, and shear rate [5]. Thus, a clear physical picture for the high viscosity of highly concentrated protein solutions is necessary to provide guidance for protein formulation developments. Comprehensive rheological responses of protein solutions can be obtained through rheological measurements such as steady shear, small/large amplitude oscillatory shear, and creep/relaxation. Among them, the apparent shear viscosity is the most discussed property in literatures due to its practical importance on the drug delivery and manufacturability. It is also noted that simple model globular proteins have been studied with a hope to shed light to the understanding of more complex behavior of non-spherical protein systems [6,7,8,9,10]. In this paper, a brief review will be presented based on recently published literatures on the understanding of protein bulk viscosity and available measurement methods.

Controlling viscosity of concentrated protein solutions

The viscosity of concentrated protein solutions is determined by inter-protein structures in solutions, which depend on the protein–protein interactions (PPI). By controlling the experimental conditions, such as pH, and coions/counterions, PPIs can be altered [11,12,13]. Thus, there are three important steps that link the experimental control parameters to the protein solution viscosity: (1) the relationship between experimental control parameters and PPIs; (2) the relationship between PPIs and inter-protein structures, and finally (3) the relationship between inter-protein structures and solution viscosity. Protein and/or solution differences may affect different steps, which can alter the formulation strategy necessary to control the protein solution viscosity. Research efforts have been devoted to the understanding of one or multiple steps. By gaining enough understanding of each step, hopefully, a complete physical picture

can be formed in future to provide guidance for both industrial applications and academic researches. Because protein sizes are typically small, the ratio of convective to diffusive mass transport rate, or say Peclet number [14], of experiments on protein systems is usually so small that we will mainly focus on the discussion of the zero shear viscosity and only briefly discuss non-Newtonian behaviors.

Viscosity of globular protein solutions

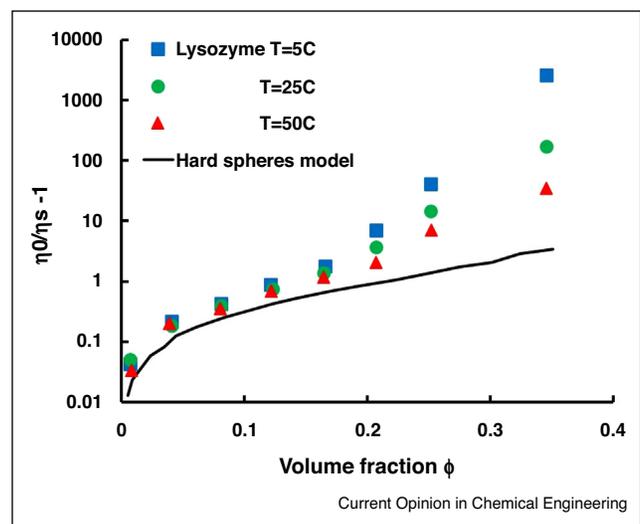
Proteins are, in general, very complex objects. To simplify the problem, globular proteins, such as bovine serum albumin (BSA) [9,15,16,17] and lysozyme [6,10], have been widely investigated as model systems. Many globular proteins can be approximated as spherical particles and further, the PPIs between them can be approximated as isotropic interactions. Therefore, well-developed colloidal theories for spherical particles have been applied to understand the viscosity of globular protein solutions in different buffer conditions [7,9,16]. It is noted that Sarangapani *et al.* recently questioned the suitability of using colloidal models to understand the solution viscosity of globular proteins [19] while many others believe that colloidal model theories are still valid for many cases [7,9,16,18].

For globular proteins with only electrostatic repulsions, colloidal theories based on spherical particles seem working reasonable well to calculate or fit experimental viscosity data. The PPI between BSA proteins can be modeled as a hard sphere core with an electrostatic repulsion. The viscosity of BSA proteins with and without salts have been measured up to about 100 mg/ml by Heinen *et al.* [9]. Interestingly, the difference of the viscosity for BSA proteins with these two different buffer conditions is not very large. The theoretical viscosity calculated with the mode-coupling theory (MCT) seems to agree with the experimental values reasonably well [9]. Sharma *et al.* have measured the viscosity of BSA proteins up to about 40% volume fraction in presence of a strong electrostatic repulsion. By considering an effective radius of BSA proteins due to the electrostatic repulsion, the viscosity data can be fitted well with colloidal theories [16]. A recent study on α -crystallin solutions also indicate that the relative viscosity can be fitted well with Krieger–Dougherty equation up to about 50% volume fraction while for concentration higher than 50% volume fraction, it needs to use the MCT to fit the data. Because excessive amount of salts is added to α -crystallin solutions to screen out the electrostatic repulsion, proteins in this experiment can be treated essentially as polydisperse hard sphere particles [7].

However, many proteins have also a strong short-range attraction. Without added salts to screen the electrostatic repulsion, the PPI has both a short-range attraction and long-range repulsion (SALR), where the range of the

repulsion is, sometimes, comparable to the size of one protein molecule. Liu *et al.* demonstrated that the competition of the short-range attraction and long-range repulsion introduces the intermediate range order in a SALR system [10] that can affect the solution viscosity. There have been extensive studies in the past decade for SALR colloidal systems [20,21]. One widely studied example is lysozyme. The range of attraction between lysozymes in water is about a few angstroms. And its attraction strength can be controlled by temperature [8,10,22]. The viscosity of highly concentrated lysozyme in D₂O was measured by a capillary rheometer and reported by Godfrin *et al.* [8]. As shown in Figure 1, the theoretical calculation based on the MCT using the hard sphere interaction starts deviating from the experimental viscosity data when lysozyme's volume fractions are over ~ 0.15 . And the viscosity at high protein concentrations dramatically increases when the temperature decreases from 50 °C to 5 °C. At the highest protein concentration, the viscosity shows an increase by a few orders of magnitudes. The increase of the attraction strength by decreasing the temperature introduces the intermediate range order in these lysozyme samples that drives the viscosity to a higher value. Interestingly, despite the very large viscosity change, lysozyme solutions remain to be Newtonian fluids at all tested concentrations [8]. A shear thinning region can only be reached when the shear rate is up to $\sim 10^4 \text{ s}^{-1}$ [23]. Unlike the cases of BSA and α -crystallin proteins, new colloidal theories are still needed to be developed to successfully calculate/predict the viscosity of a SALR system at high concentrations.

Figure 1



Specific viscosity at the zero shear limit as a function of the lysozyme volume fraction relative to the viscosity of a hard sphere system. The figure was regenerated from the work by Godfrin *et al.* [8].

Viscosity of monoclonal antibodies solutions

The viscosity control of mAb solutions is very important for both manufacturing and final administrations of such therapeutics. It has been reported that the viscosity limitation of syringeability is about 50 mPa·S for most cases [1,24]. However, the viscosity of some mAb solutions exceeds well above 50 mPa·S when the concentration is over 100 mg/ml, while many others stay below even 30 mPa·S at the similar concentration range [25*,26]. The pharmaceutical industry has showed a very strong interest in understanding the mechanisms in past decades. Therefore, the viscosity of mAb solutions has been widely studied as functions of concentration, temperature, pH, ionic strength, and different types of ions [1,5,11*,12*,13,27–30].

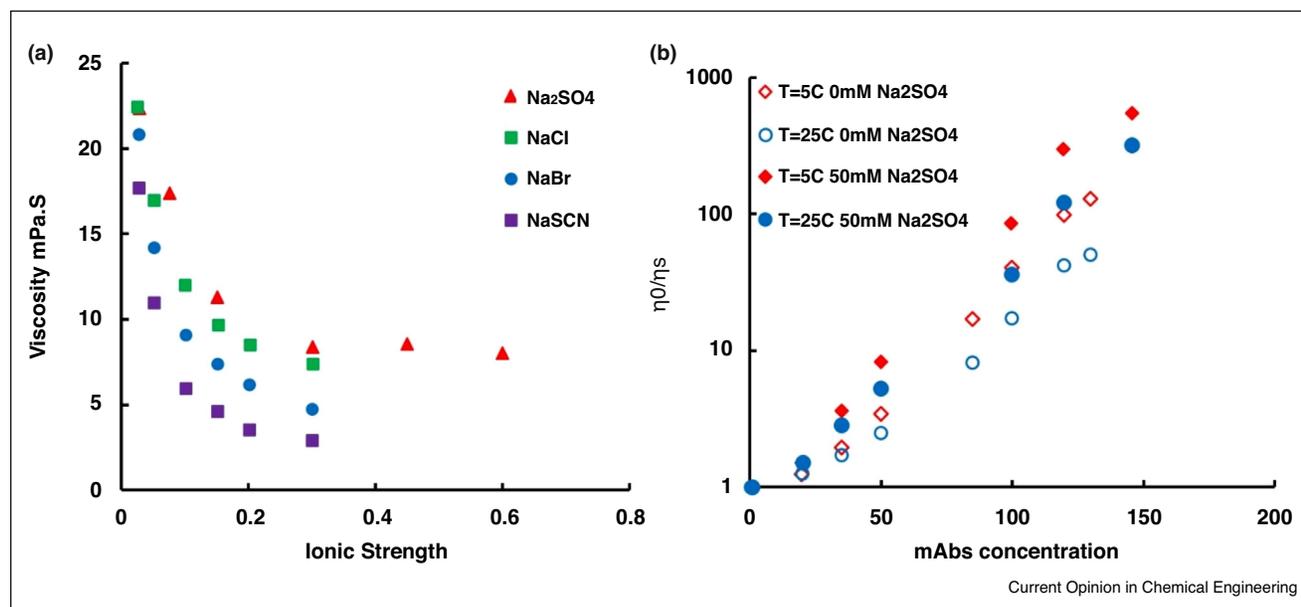
Controlling viscosity of mAbs solutions is much more challenging compared with cases of globular proteins due to the lack of understanding of the three relationships mentioned before. In fact, different mAb solutions, sometimes, show completely opposite trends of viscosity changes even though the buffer conditions, such as ionic strength and pH, are changed in the same way. Therefore, the clear understanding of viscosity control mechanisms can provide important guidance in developing successful mAb formulations.

A mAb protein is a 'Y' shaped molecule consisting of three domains: one fragment crystallizable (Fc) and two fragment antigen-binding (Fab) domains [1]. The anisotropic shape of mAb molecules makes it difficult to apply

existing colloidal theories based on spherical particles to predict viscosity behaviors of concentrated mAbs solutions. However, experimental methods developed based on globular proteins can be still applied to study mAb solutions. And it is common to find that phenomenological equations traditionally applied to spherical colloidal systems are still used to understand experimental results of mAb solutions [5,31,32].

In the past decade, many works on mAb solutions have focused on investigating the structure-viscosity relationship. A series of papers have been published by Shire and co-workers investigating the reversible cluster formation in concentrated mAb solutions [13,27,33,34]. The viscosity of the investigated mAb solutions increases with increasing protein concentrations and can be fitted with the Mooney equation [27]. By studying 29 different mAbs, it is found that the electroviscous effect is not the governing factor for the viscosity of concentrated protein solutions [30]. The dramatic viscosity increase for some mAbs is attributed to the formation of reversible clusters driven by the electrostatic interaction. The viscosity of one mAb system is observed to decrease by over 80% by increasing the ionic strength as shown in Figure 2 (a) [27]. It's argued that added anions adsorbed on mAb surfaces disconnect this self-assembled structure and decrease the solution viscosity. Fab–Fab attractions instead of Fab–Fc interactions is found to be responsible for the formation of this structure. In order to directly probe the size of these self-assemblies, Yearley *et al.* use neutron spin echo to measure the short-time

Figure 2



(a) Solution viscosity of one mAb system decreases by adding different types of salts at the protein concentration of 125 mg/ml. The figure is regenerated from Kanai *et al.*'s work. [27] (b) Solution viscosity increases by adding Na₂SO₄ at different mAb concentrations. The figure is regenerated from the work by Godfrin *et al.* [12*].

hydrodynamic radius of some mAbs, and conclude that the formation of small clusters with extended open structures causes the observed large viscosity in one of their mAbs [25[•]]. Adding salts disassembles these small clusters as indicated by smaller hydrodynamic radius, and decreases the solution viscosity. The driven force for this cluster formation is found due to the local electrodipole effect [12[•],26,35].

Interestingly, Godfrin *et al.* also show that the viscosity of a different mAb increases by adding salts, which shows different viscosity dependence on salt concentrations as shown in Figure 2(b) [12[•]]. Before adding salts (Na₂SO₄), this mAb can reversibly associate into a loosely connected transient cluster. Those clusters are composed of monomers as small moving units at short time limit. However, after adding 50 mM Na₂SO₄, this mAb forms elongated dimers first with a long life time. These dimers then associate hierarchically into large transient clusters at higher concentrations. The formation of the hierarchical clusters significantly increases solutions viscosity.

Despite the difference of the viscosity dependence on salt concentrations, the structure-viscosity relationship is actually the same for both mAbs reported by Godfrin and coworkers [12[•],25[•]]. In both cases, the formation of clusters causes the increase of solutions viscosity. What is different is the first step of the three relationships for viscosity controls, that is, the relationship between experimental control parameters and PPIs is different for these two protein systems. For one case, adding salts weakens the short-ranged attraction [25[•]], while in another one, adding salts increases the attraction strength [12[•]].

Effects on solutions viscosity by irreversible clusters of mAbs have also been studied by Colby and coworkers [15,36]. Non-Newtonian rheology behaviors, such as yielding stress, have been detected in mAb solutions after long time incubation at 40 °C to introduce irreversible aggregates. However the mAb solution recovers Newtonian behaviors after these irreversible aggregations are filtered out.

Although reported control strategies of changing the solution viscosity seem different for different mAbs reported in literatures, the structural-viscosity relationship is actually consistent for most papers. The formation of clusters leads to the increased viscosity, which directly results from the different PPIs. Interestingly, a recent theory by Schmit *et al.* based on theoretical treatments of semidilute polymer solutions has shown some success in modeling the viscosity for some mAbs solutions [37]. More experimental tests for different theories and models are needed in future. Also we would like to point out that there is a report that the formation of large clusters in one mAb solution can result in the decrease of the solution viscosity [38].

Measurement methods of bulk viscosity of protein solutions

Conventional torsional shear rheometry systematically discussed by Macosko and Larson [39] and Bird *et al.* [40] has been widely used to measure solution viscosities. In general, the cone-plate geometry is preferred for highly concentrated samples since it generates a uniform flow profile during measurements. For low concentration samples, single/double gaps couette cell can be used in order to increase torque signal due to relative low viscosity of samples. However, these torsional shear rheometers usually cannot achieve a very high shear rate measurement.

When a torsional rheometer is used, special attention has to be paid to eliminate or avoid interfacial effects due to the formation of protein ‘films’ at the air–liquid interface. Protein molecules tend to be adsorbed onto the air–liquid (or liquid–liquid) interface and form a relatively ‘dense film’ [16[•]]. Because the resulting torque measured by rheometers is the sum of both bulk and interfacial signals, the measured apparent viscosity has also the contribution from the interface viscosity which can be expressed as [41]

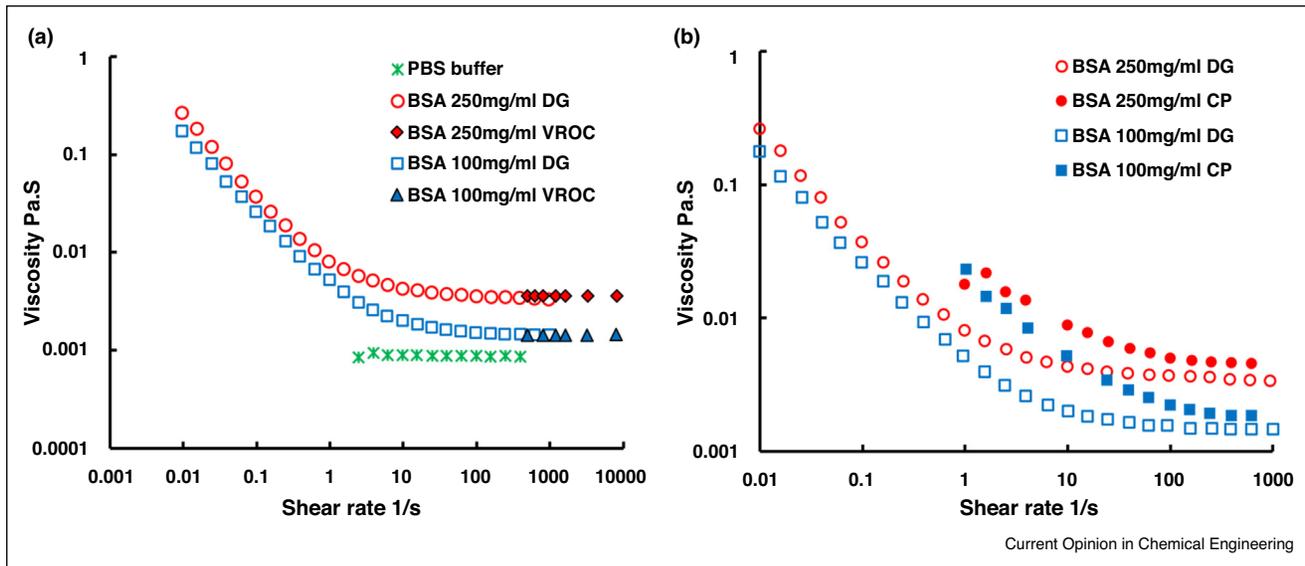
$$\eta_{\text{measure}} = \eta_{\text{bulk}} + \eta_{\text{interface}} / k \quad (1)$$

where k is the characteristic length of geometries and has been discussed in literature [15]. For protein solutions, strong interfacial films can produce a yielding behavior in low shear rate region as shown in Figure 3. Sharma *et al.* demonstrates that BSA solutions measured by a cone-plate geometry showing a ‘clear’ shear shining region while the bulk viscosity should show Newtonian behavior as indicated in Figure 3(a) [16[•]]. This measurement artifact has been proven to be due to the resistance generated by the ‘dense protein film’ formed at the interface and has been observed in many protein systems [15,42,43]. The measured viscosities by two geometries (cone-plate and double gaps couette cell) are different with each other in ‘shear shining’ domain due to different k values of geometries as shown in Figure 3(b).

To solve this problem, two methods can be used to obtain the bulk viscosity. First, surfactants, such as Tween 80 or SDS, can be added into tested samples [15,42,43]. Surfactant molecules can reduce interfacial viscosity by replacing protein molecules on the interface. Thus, the measured viscosity can be close to the bulk values. Secondly, interfacial viscosity can be independently measured by torsional rheometer with geometries such as DWR, bi-cone, and so on [44–46]. The bulk viscosity can then be calculated based on Eq. (1). However, it is sometimes difficult to have an exactly same measurement condition for both bulk and interfacial tests [42,43].

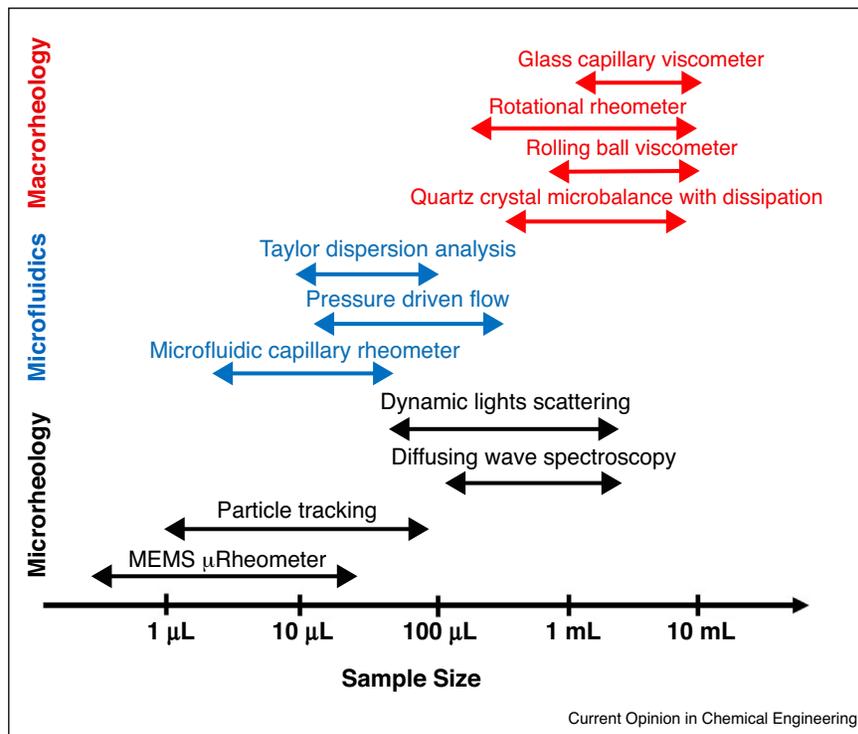
Other measurement methods, such as microfluidic capillary viscometers and microrheology technologies, which

Figure 3



(a) The apparent bulk viscosity of BSA protein solutions measured with a double gap geometry (DG) shows the characteristics of a yield stress fluid while the true bulk viscosity measured by microfluidic slit rheometer or viscometer-rheometer-on-chip (VROC) shows Newtonian behavior. This is due to the effect of the dense protein layer formed at the air-liquid interface. (b) Apparent bulk viscosity of BSA proteins measured by double gap (DG) geometry and cone-plate (CP) geometry has different results due to the interfacial protein layer. The figure is regenerated from the work by Sharma *et al.* [16].

Figure 4



Available viscosity measurement methods based on sample sizes. The figure is regenerated from the paper by Josephson *et al.* [50].

can eliminate the influence of an interface, become very useful to obtain the bulk viscosity of protein solutions.

Microfluidic capillary viscometer can measure the bulk viscosity up to a very high shear rate due to its micro-sized channel design. In some cases, it can reach the shear rate above 10^5 s^{-1} [47,48]. A comprehensive review of microfluids rheometry can be found in literature by Pipe and McKinley [49]. One apparent advantage of this technique is the small sample volume needed for a measurement compared to torsional rheometers, which is extremely desirable during early stage of mAb formulation developments due to limited sample resources for early screening studies.

Microrheology technologies, either active or passive methods, are also useful to measure the viscosity by tracking particle probes suspended in sample solutions, and are not affected by the dense protein layer at the interface. Passive particle tracking can be realized by observing particle movements driven by thermal fluctuations in solutions [50,51]. Active particle tracking by optical/magnetic tweezers can also be used in order to increase the threshold of material moduli accessible in measurements [51–53]. A short review about microrheology is published by Cicuta and Donald [54]. There are many other microrheology methods that has been studied such as light scattering [55], MEMS μ Rheometer [56]. Interested readers can learn those from cited literatures.

Overall, bulk viscosity measurements of protein solutions can be performed in various ways as shown in Figure 4 [50]. The choice of different methods depends on availability of sample volume and interested shear rate regions.

Summary

Much progresses have been made recently in understanding the viscosity of concentrated proteins solutions by focusing on the relationships between experimental control parameters, the PPIs, the inter-protein structures and protein viscosity. The behavior of some globular proteins with only electrostatic repulsions can be successfully explained by existing colloidal theories. However, when there is both a short-range attraction and long-range repulsion, the solution viscosity behavior becomes much more complex as demonstrated in lysozyme systems. New theoretical developments are needed to understand globular proteins with this type of complex potential. For mAb proteins, experimental results indicate that for most mAb proteins, the formation of clusters always increases the solution viscosity. This is also the case for globular proteins. However, there are very limited theories to calculate the viscosity behaviors of proteins with anisotropic shapes. Despite all the progresses, our understanding of the viscosity behavior of concentrated protein

solutions is still at the infant stage. It remains an open challenge for colloidal science.

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