Atomic-scale structure of disordered pharmaceutical materials by high-energy XRD and atomic PDF analysis

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This document was presented at PPXRD -Pharmaceutical Powder X-ray Diffraction Symposium

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Why do materials behave the way they do ? It has a lot to do with how atoms are arranged in materials, i.e. with the atomic-scale "structure", and that is why we need to know it well.



Diamond (crystal) - hard, transparent, insulating and expensive.

It is all just Carbon



Graphite (crystal) - *soft, black, conducts heat and electricity and cheap.*



Carbon nanotubes

Stronger than steel



Amorphous Carbon Catalysis

Atomic ordering in materials is determined by X-ray diffraction: Principles

Double Slit Diffraction



PHY 101: Diffraction of light

Diffraction from Crossed Slits

The diffraction pattern at left is formed by passing the light from a helium-neon laser through short slits which cross at a 90° angle, like a plus sign. The basic geometry is shown below.

This pattern shows that the diffraction pattern reveals the symmetry of the object from which it is diffracted. The 90° angles in the object are shown by 90° angles in the diffraction pattern. The spaces between the bright concentrations of light are inversely proportional to the widths of the slits forming the object, and could be used to measure those widths.

Conceptually, this is similar to using x-ray diffraction to reveal the symmetry and lattice spacings of the atoms in a crystal lattice.

Note: The diffraction pattern was projected upon a piece of graph paper - that accounts for the dark lines. They are not a part of the diffraction.



CRYST 101: Diffraction of x-rays from a single row of atoms (Klug and Alexander in "X-ray diffraction procedures")







No Intensity loss, just Intensity re-distribution !

Appearance of object.

Structure of long-range (µm-range) ordered materials: Crystals



The atomic scale structure of crystals may be described on the basis of 3D periodic lattices in terms of a few parameters: Lattice type and symmetry Unit cell parameters a, b, c, α , β , γ Atomic positions inside the unit cell: (x,y,z).



These parameters/numbers allow to compute, understand and predict properties of crystals; also allow to "patent" crystalline pharmaceutical materials.

Example - Aspirin





Aspirin AcetyIsalicylic Acid C₉H₈O₄



C.A. Medendorp et al. J. Pharm. Science 97 (2008) 1361.



Aspirin crystals evaluated by single XRD indicated the crystals were of the monoclinic space group P2₁/c with a = 11.242(7), b = 6.539(4), c = 11.245(9) Å, and $\beta = 95.9(3)^{\circ}$. These values are

5342(1)
5965(1)
4495(1)
4122(1)
3272(2)
6337(2)
6934(2)
5417(2)
4361(2)
6598(2)
5374(2)
5094(2)
5674(2)

Non-crystalline materials: glasses, polymers, composites..

Example: again carbon but "amorphous", i.e. coal.



Example: again carbon but "nanotube"..

Atoms in non-crystals do not sit on the vertices of 3D periodic lattices. Such materials are called "structurally disordered" yet they have a very well defined local (short + often intermediate) atomic ordering.

Why ? Nature of chemical bonding does not change (usually) between crystalline and amorphous state (e.g. quartz – silica glass) We still need structure models parameters/numbers to describe this ordering.

Could we use x-rays ?



Diffraction patterns of "crystals" show many well-defined Bragg peaks. Diffraction patterns of "glasses" show diffuse scattering only. Diffraction patterns of "crystals with disorder", "nanoparticles", "composites" etc. may show both Bragg-like peaks (usually not so many and not so sharp) and diffuse scattering (that may not be neglected...)

What can be done ? Total XRD = High-energy XRD and real-space data analysis



i) The atomic PDF peaks at characteristic interatomic distances reflecting the 3D structure of materials. No long-range order or periodicity implied, i.e. well suited for any material.
ii) Total XRD, and its Fourier transform, the atomic PDF takes into account both the Bragg-like peaks and the diffuse scattering component of the XRD data. Both carry structural information !

What do we need ?

Need x-rays of higher energy – to reach higher Q Need stronger flux & more efficient detectors – to measure the diffuse component of XRD patterns with good statistics

Q: Where is the PDF's definition coming from ? A: See below (after Klug and Alexander..)



$r[\rho(r) - \rho_0] = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int_0^\infty Si(S) \sin rS \, dS,$

Here $s = Q = 4\pi \sin(\theta)/\lambda = 1.0135 \sin(\theta) E[keV]$

For a multicomponent system si(s) is "replaced" by F(Q) where:

$$F(Q) = Q \frac{I_a^{\text{coh}}(Q) - \langle f^2 \rangle}{\langle f \rangle^2}, \qquad (7)$$

where $\langle f^2 \rangle$ and $\langle f \rangle^2$ are short notations for $\langle f(Q)f^{*}(Q)\rangle$ and $\langle f(Q)\rangle\langle f^{*}(Q)\rangle$, respectively, and $I_a^{\rm coh}(Q)$ is the coherent single-diffracted intensity per atom. $I_a^{\rm coh}$ and f^2 are expressed in dimensionless electron units. Note that $I_a^{\rm coh}$ does not contain contributions from multiple scattering, inelastic scattering or small-angle contributions arising from the finite size of the scattering volume.

Welcome to real space world: Si standard





Si S.G: F d 3 m (227) Structure: diamond type Cell parameters: a=b=c=5.4309 A $\alpha=\beta=\gamma=90.0^{\circ}$ Si (8a) 0.125, ...



A useful comparison: Traditional XRD/Rietveld Analysis (reciprocal space)



Crystalline materials produce well defined Bragg peaks that can be used to solve the average, long-range structure of material. Bragg peaks come from a stack of regular atomic planes (Miller indexes) !



Pair Distribution Function Analysis (real space)



PDF's peaks reflect frequently occurring atomic pairs/coordination distances/spheres and not atomic planes ! Any material has a particular/unique coordination spheres distribution.....may serve as a "structural fingerprint" !

Structural model (search and

refinement)

If necessary may compute the XRD pattern

However, traditional (reciprocal space) and PDF (real space) analyses have different sensitivity to the atomic ordering in materials.

Traditional – Long-range order and translational periodicity (Bragg peaks only) PDF – Any atomic ordering, periodic or not....does not matter.

PDF peaks =

Interatomic distances

How it is done: In-house high-energy XRD/PDF Experiments



High-energy XRD/PDF experiments at synchrotrons





Synchrotron x-rays Continuum of wavelengths Energy range (0 ~ 150 keV vs 8 keV from Cu tube

(Advanced Photon Source, Argonne, Chicago)





Example 1: Structure studies of cellulose by atomic PDFs

Cellulose is an organic compound with the formula $(C_6H_{10}O_5)_n$, a polysaccharide consisting of a linear chain of several hundred to over ten thousand $\beta(1\rightarrow 4)$ linked p-glucose units.^{[2][3]}

Cellulose is the structural component of the primary cell wall of green plants, many forms of algae and the oomycetes. Some species of bacteria secrete it to form biofilms. Cellulose is the most common organic compound on Earth. About 33 percent of all plant matter is cellulose (the cellulose content of cotton is 90 percent and that of wood is 50 percent).^[4]



Several different crystalline structures of cellulose are known, corresponding to the location of hydrogen bonds between and within strands. Natural cellulose is cellulose I, with structures I_{α} and I_{β} . Cellulose produced by bacteria and algae is enriched in I_{α} while cellulose of higher plants consists mainly of I_{β} . Cellulose in regenerated cellulose fibers is cellulose II. The conversion of cellulose I to cellulose II is not reversible, suggesting that cellulose I is metastable and cellulose II is stable. With various chemical treatments it is possible to produce the structures cellulose III and cellulose IV.^[12]

Commercial products

[edit]

See also: dissolving pulp and pulp (paper)

Cellulose is the major constituent of paper, paperboard, and card stock and of textiles made from cotton, linen, and other plant fibers.

Cellulose can be converted into cellophane, a thin transparent film, and into rayon, an important fiber that has been used for textiles since the beginning of the 20th century. Both cellophane and rayon are known as "regenerated cellulose fibers"; they are identical to cellulose in chemical structure and are usually made from dissolving pulp via viscose. A more recent and environmentally friendly method to produce rayon is the Lyocell process.

Cellulose is the raw material in the manufacture of nitrocellulose (cellulose nitrate) which was historically used in smokeless gunpowder and as the base material for celluloid used for photographic and movie films until the mid 1930s.

Cellulose is used to make water-soluble adhesives and binders such as methyl cellulose and carboxymethyl cellulose which are used in wallpaper paste. Microcrystalline cellulose (E460i) and powdered cellulose (E460ii) are used as inactive fillers in tablets^[9] and as thickeners and stabilizers in processed foods. Cellulose powder is for example used in Kraft Parmesean Cheese to prevent caking inside the tube.

Cellulose is used in the laboratory as the stationary phase for thin layer chromatography. Cellulose fibers are also used in liquid filtration, sometimes in combination with diatomaceous earth or other filtration media, to create a filter bed of inert material. Cellulose is further used to make hydrophilic and highly absorbent sponges.

Cellulose insulation made from recycled paper is becoming popular as an environmentally preferable material for building insulation. It can be treated with boric acid as a fire retardant.











Structure studies of other organic polymeric products...



Example 3: Crystallization of lactose



Sample dried at different conditions and crystallized for different times *Collaboration with Sandra Weiling, U. Bonn and Panalytical*

Crystallization of lactose:



Example 4: Organic macromolecules for drug delivery



Dendrimers: consist of a series of

chemical shells built on a small core molecule. Can be designed with a variety of organic and inorganic cores and branches, with tunable branch length, multiplicity and surface functionality:

Applications:

Polymer mimics of globular proteins Building blocks of multifunctional nanocomposites Hosts of guests molecules and nanoparticles

Questions: Is the interior hollow ? How big is the free volume, if any ?

Organic macromolecules for drug delivery



Nanocomposites taken up by human body cells exhibit blue fluorescence when subjected to UV excitation, as seen in this confocal microscope image. Exposure to IR radiation could allow their use in treatment as well. Courtesy of Lajos Balogh, Roswell Park Cancer Institute.

In cancer cells, bubbles began to appear at energies 100 times lower than in cells containing no nanocomposite particles. When small and nonlethal, the bubbles were easily recognizable in ultrasound images. Increasing laser power generated larger bubble that caused cell lysis. Bubbles disappeared before they could contact adjacent cells, however, and the radiation levels used did not harm cells that collected a few or no composites.

r Size Comparison







PDFs for fullerene, PAMAM dendrimers and hyper-branched polymers

Fragments of structure models for fullerene, PAMAM dendrimers and hyper-branched polymers

PDF study of 7th generation PAMAM



Exp. data – symbols Model data – line in red 3D models of PAMAM dendrimers



Example 5: Chemical specificity: PtPd nanoparticles in solution

Collaboration with R. Nuzzo, U. Illinois





Pd-core/Pt-shell



Resonant XRD application in pharmaceuticals:

Cisplatin

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

Cisplatin, cisplatinum, or

cis-diamminedichloroplatinum(II) (CDDP) is a platinum-based chemotherapy drug used to treat various types of cancers, including sarcomas, some carcinomas (e.g. small cell lung cancer, and ovarian cancer), lymphomas, and germ cell tumors. It was the first member of a class of anti-cancer drugs which now also includes carboplatin and oxaliplatin. These platinum complexes react *in vivo*, binding to and causing crosslinking of DNA which ultimately triggers apoptosis (programmed cell death).



5574

Inorg. Chem. 1997, 36, 5574-5579

Structure of Amorphous Platinum Uridine Green Sulfate by AWAXS and EXAFS

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Platinum pyrimidine blues^{1,2} are antitumor active, amorphous and paramagnetic products formed in reactions of cisplatin or *cis*-diaquadiammineplatinum(II) with pyrimidine bases. In several studies, e.g.,^{3–7} products with varying antitumor activities, elemental compositions, and colors have been obtained. Both the detailed structures and the origin of the antitumor activity of platinum pyrimidine blues are unknown.



Figure 3. Assumed mononuclear (1 and 2), dinuclear (3), and tetranuclear (4) Pt-uridine complexes.

Traditional anti-cancer drugs.....

MRI

Magnetic resonance imaging

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia (Redirected from Magnetic Resonance Imaging)

"MRI" redirects here. For other meanings of MRI or Mri, see MRI (disambiguation).

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), or nuclear magnetic resonance imaging (NMRI), is primarily a medical imaging technique most commonly used in radiology to visualize detailed internal structure and limited function of the body. MRI provides much greater contrast between the different soft tissues of the body than computed tomography (CT) does, making it especially useful in neurological (brain). musculoskeletal, cardiovascular, and oncological (cancer) imaging. Unlike CT, it uses no ionizing radiation, but uses a powerful magnetic field to align the nuclear magnetization of (usually) hydrogen atoms in water in the body. Radio frequency (RF) fields are used to systematically alter the alignment of this magnetization, causing the hydrogen nuclei to produce a rotating magnetic field detectable by the scanner. This signal can be manipulated by additional magnetic fields to build up enough information to construct an image of the body.^{[1]:36}

Magnetic resonance imaging is a relatively new technology. The first MR image was published in 1973^{[2][3]} and the first cross-sectional image of a living mouse was published in January 1974.^[4] The first studies performed on humans were published in 1977.^{[5][6]} By comparison, the first human X-ray image was taken in 1895.

Magnetic resonance imaging was developed from knowledge gained in the study of nuclear magnetic resonance. In its early years the technique was referred to as nuclear magnetic resonance imaging (NMRI). However, as the word *nuclear* was associated in the public mind with ionizing radiation exposure it is generally now referred to simply as MRI. Scientists still use the term NMRI when discussing non-medical devices operating on the same principles. The term magnetic



Sagittal MR image of the knee



Para-sagittal MRI of the head, with aliasing artifacts (nose and forehead appear at the back of the head)





MRI relies on contrast agents

Gadopentetic acid (in the form of gadopentetate dimeglumine or Gd-DTPA) is the first paramagnetic magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) contrast agent. First described in 1981, and introduced in 1988, it is used to assist imaging of blood vessels and of inflamed or diseased tissue where the blood vessels become 'leaky'. It is often used when viewing intracranial lesions with abnormal vascularity or abnormalities in the blood-brain barrier. It is usually injected intravenously. Gd-DTPA is a gadolinium complex of diethylenetriamine pentaacetic acid and is classed as an acyclic, ionic gadolinium contrast medium. Its paramagnetic property reduces the T1 relaxation time (and to some extent the T2 and T2* relaxation times) in NMR, which is the source of its clinical utility.

Marketed as **Magnevist** by Bayer Schering Pharma, it was the first intravenous contrast agent to become available for clinical use, and is in widespread use around the world.

Gadolinium based agents may cause a toxic reaction known as Nephrogenic Systemic Fibrosis (NSF) in patients with severe kidney problems.^{[1][2]}

Gadopentetic acid



Search for better contrast agents is going on:



Gd-Gd pairs distribution is a critical parameter of MRI contrast agents

Gd edge resonant XRD and differential PDFs would help a lot

Collaboration with DNT

Volume 4, Issue 1, Pages 57-69 (March 2008)

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Fabrication of {¹⁹⁸Au⁰} radioactive composite nanodevices and their use for nanobrachytherapy

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Received 11 April 2007; accepted 26 November 2007, published online 01 February 2008.

Abstract

We describe the simple fabrication of poly({¹⁹⁸Au}) radioactive gold-dendrimer composite nanodevices in distinct sizes (diameter between 10 nm and 29 nm) for targeted radiopharmaceutical dose delivery to tumors in vivo. Irradiation of aqueous solutions of ¹⁹⁷Au containing poly(amidoamine) dendrimer tetrachloroaurate salts or {¹⁹⁷Au⁰} gold-dendrimer nanocomposites in a nuclear reactor resulted in the formation of positively charged and soluble poly{¹⁹⁸Au⁰} radioactive composite nanodevices (CNDs). A mouse melanoma tumor model was used to test whether the poly{¹⁹⁸Au⁰} CNDs can deliver a therapeutic dose. A single intratumoral injection of poly{¹⁹⁸Au⁰}_{d=22nm} CNDs in phosphate-buffered saline delivering a dose of 74 µCi resulted after 8 days in a statistically significant 45% reduction in tumor volume, when compared with untreated groups and those injected with the "cold" nanodevice. No clinical toxicity was observed during the experiments.

This study provides the first proof of principle that radioactive CNDs can deliver therapeutic doses to tumors.

Management and the state of the

Resonant XRD can be very useful here !





Figure 6: Electron microscope image of mouse tumor tissue 1,25 hours after $\{Au\}$ injection. Unstained specimen, black dots represent gold nanocomposite clusters, dark areas within the nucleus are preferred for $\{Au\}$.

Indeed atomic PDFs have proven to be very useful with nanocomposites: (Polyaniline)_xV₂O₅nH₂O



Atomic ordering in $(PANI)_x V_2 O_5 nH_2 O$ as determined by the present PDF studies. The vanadium-oxygen octahedra (in red) are assembled in bilayers and the polyaniline chains occupy the interlayer space. The model atomic configuration is periodic and involves 476 atoms allowing theoretical studies on material's properties.



Comparison between the experimental (symbols) and model (solid line in red) PDFs for $(PANI)_xV_2O_5nH_2O$. The model PDF is calculated from the atomic configuration shown on the left.

Collaboration with M. Kanatzidis, MSU

More in Petkov et. al JACS <u>127</u> (2005) 8805.

NanoMedicine will be around for a long time.....

Porous metal-organic-framework nanoscale carriers as a potential platform for drug delivery and imaging

Patricia Horcajada¹*, Tamim Chalati², Christian Serre¹, Brigitte Gillet³, Catherine Sebrie³, Tarek Baati¹, Jarrod F. Eubank¹, Daniela Heurtaux¹, Pascal Clayette⁴, Christine Kreuz⁴, Jong-San Chang⁵, Young Kyu Hwang⁵, Veronique Marsaud², Phuong-Nhi Bories⁶, Luc Cynobe Sophie Gil⁷, Gérard Férey¹, Patrick Couvreur² and Ruxandra Gref²*



Figure 4 | Magnetic resonance images. The images were acquired with gradient echo (a, c, d, f) or spin echo (b, e) sequence of control rats (left; a-c) and rats injected with 220 mg kg⁻¹ MIL-88A (right; d-f), in liver (a, b, d, e) and spleen (c, f) regions. 30 min after injection, product effect is observable on the liver and spleen (c, f) regions. (dm, dorsal muscle; k, ikdney; li, liver; s, spleen; st, stomach.)





Can Atomic PDFs be used to characterize metal-organic frameworks, nanocomposites etc ?

and with metal-organic frameworks, and many more...

COMMUNICATION

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Direct observation of adsorbed H₂-framework interactions in the Prussian Blue analogue $Mn^{II}_{3}[Co^{III}(CN)_{6}]_{2}$: The relative importance of accessible coordination sites and van der Waals interactions[†]

Karena W. Chapman,*^{*a*} Peter J. Chupas,*^{*a*} Evan R. Maxey^{*b*} and James W. Richardson^{*b*}

Received (in Cambridge, UK) 22nd May 2006, Accepted 26th July 2006 First published as an Advance Article on the web 16th August 2006





Fig. 1 Representation of the Prussian Blue network indicating the accessible Mn^{II} sites (star) surrounding a $Co(CN)_6^{3-}$ lattice vacancy. The lattice defines cavities of ~4 Å diameter connected by larger cavities associated with the aperiodic $Co(CN)_6^{3-}$ vacancies at one-third of the Co^{III} sites.

Conclusions:

Accurate structural characterization of disordered bulk and nanosized pharmaceutical materials can be done by high-energy XRD coupled to **PDF** (real space) data analysis. The approach succeeds because it relies on total scattering data (Bragg plus diffuse) measured over an extended range of wave vectors. It probes the material as a whole (i.e. it is not surface only sensitive/imaging like TEM) over its entire length (not only the first/second coordination sphere like EXAFS/spectroscopy) of structural coherence. It is flexible with respect to sample's state, morphology, amount, phase homogeneity and environment. Could be done using in-house or synchrotron sources of x-rays, and offer chemical specificity (resonant XRD/differential PDFs) The approach has all the potential to become a "standard structural characterization tool" in pharmaceutical research and industry.

Acknowledgements:

The work would have been impossible without the help of NSF, DoE, ARL and an army of collaborators and students ! Thank you all !



Atomic PDFs workshop coming soon:



2010 DXC Preliminary Program Denver Marriott Tech Center Hotel, Denver, Colorado, 2 – 6 August

Plenary	Special Sessions		
	Joint XRD & XRF	XRD	XRF
The Greening of X-rays: X-rays and Renewable Energy	Cultural Heritage - Full Day New Developments in XRD & XRF Instrumentation	Stress Analysis Polymers/SAX – Full Day	Fusion and Industrial Applications of XRF Environmental and Handheld XRF
	EXAFS - NEXAFS	Micro Diffraction Rietveld Analysis Mile High Resolution XRD	Trace Analysis X-ray Imaging Quantitative Analysis

Workshops					
Joint XRD & XRF	XRD	XRF			
EXAFS	Trace Phase Identification using Chemical Information	Basic XRF			
Cultural Heritage – Full day	Texture Analysis - Full day	Trace Analysis			
	Polymers	Specimen Preparation			
	Survey of Basic XRD Applications	Quantitative Analysis – Full day			
	2D Detectors	Standards for X-ray Spectrometry			
	Pair Distribution Function				