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Measurement of Average Aggregate Density by Sedimentation and Brownian Motion Analysis

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Abstract

The spatially averaged density of protein aggregates is an important parameter that can be used to relate size distributions measured by orthogonal methods, to characterize protein particles, and perhaps to estimate the amount of protein in aggregate form in a sample. We obtained a series of images of protein aggregates exhibiting Brownian diffusion while settling under the influence of gravity in a sealed capillary. The aggregates were formed by stir-stressing a monoclonal antibody (NISTmAb). Image processing yielded particle tracks, which were then examined to determine settling velocity and hydrodynamic diameter down to 1 μm based on mean square displacement (MSD) analysis. Measurements on polystyrene calibration microspheres ranging in size from 1 μm to 5 μm showed that the MSD diameter had improved accuracy over the diameter derived from imaged particle area, suggesting a future method for correcting size distributions based on imaging. Stokes' law was used to estimate the density of each particle. It was found that the aggregates were highly porous with density decreasing from 1.080 g/cm^3 to 1.028 g/cm^3 as the size increased from 1.37 μm to 4.9 μm .

Keywords

Flow imaging; Image analysis; Microscopy; Particle Sizing; Physical Characterization; Protein aggregates

INTRODUCTION

The use of orthogonal methods to characterize the size distribution of protein aggregates in biopharmaceuticals is useful to cover broader size ranges with increased confidence. However, it can be difficult to reconcile results obtained through different measurement methods, which—based on their respective calibration and operational protocols—may provide seemingly conflicting results. The spatially averaged density is a key parameter for comparing size distributions obtained by the resonance mass method, particle tracking, flow image analysis, or light obscuration. Extracting particle diameter from a resonance mass measurement requires knowledge of the particle density. Optical methods also depend on particle density in an indirect manner: a higher particle density corresponds to a higher optical scattering or image contrast, which in turn can affect the particle diameter

measurement. The density of protein aggregates is also important for estimating the amount of aggregated protein in a sample.

The density of a protein (as a molecule or pure substance) has long been considered a parameter that is—to a good approximation—independent of the protein type, and is commonly used in the analysis of X-ray structure data from protein crystals. A protein density of 1.35 g/cm^3 is a commonly accepted value based on early sedimentation¹ and compressibility² measurements over a variety of different proteins³. Quillin and Matthews³ revised the calculation of Andersson and Hovmoller⁴ of the molecular volume based on the crystal structures for 28 proteins using coordinates from the Protein Data Bank⁵ to estimate an average density of 1.43 g/cm^3 . Fischer et al. reanalyzed the results obtained by Quillin and Matthews (2000), noting a dependence of density on molecular weight and suggesting proteins $>30 \text{ kDa}$ have a 1.41 g/cm^3 density value⁶. An example application for the protein density value is given by Fischer et al.⁷, who used small angle X-ray scattering to determine protein volume. A protein density value based on the results from Squire et al.¹ and Gekko et al.² (1.37 g/cm^3) was then used to determine molecular weight.

There is evidence that protein aggregates are porous. Sung et al. found that “TEM revealed that aggregates were highly irregular in shape and porous in nature suggesting that their water content is substantial⁸.” This would suggest an average density lower than the value for pure protein. There are several reports of researchers using aggregate density to estimate the amount of protein in an aggregate based on imaging results. Wuchner et al. assumed a value of 1.3 g/cm^3 for the density. They note the uncertainty resulting from such an assumption: “By applying a hard sphere model to calculate the weight percent of protein particles (an approximation since the protein particles are heterogeneous in nature), these calculations may be an overestimate of their mass⁹.” Barnard et al.¹⁰ combined the pure protein density value from Quillin and Matthews³ (1.43 g/cm^3) with an estimate that aggregates are 25 % by volume water, resulting in an estimated aggregate density of 1.32 g/cm^3 . Kalonia et al.¹¹ combined the pure protein value from Fischer et al.⁶ (1.41 g/cm^3) with an estimate that aggregates are 80 % by volume water, resulting in an estimated aggregate density of 1.08 g/cm^3 .

Recently, Folzer et al. sought to measure protein aggregate densities for the purpose of converting protein aggregate resonance mass measurements to an equivalent spherical diameter¹². Using cesium chloride solutions of varying concentrations, they measured the buoyant mass of particles using the resonance mass method as a function of solution density. It was assumed that the particle density is equal to the solution density where the linear fit of the data passes through zero buoyant mass. This procedure yielded excellent values for the density of calibration microspheres. For protein aggregates, however, it neglects the possibility that the particles may be porous, and that the altered density fluid—as it penetrates the pores of the particle—changes the total mass of the aggregate. The resulting density from this measurement is actually $(\text{Mass})/(\text{Non-Buffer-Accessible Volume})$, and not the average density of the particle $(\text{Mass})/(\text{Total Volume})$ in the formulation buffer. The measured values ranging from 1.28 g/cm^3 to 1.33 g/cm^3 correspond to the density of the non-buffer-accessible portion of the particle, which is closer to the value for pure protein.

In this work, we seek to measure the sedimentation velocity of protein aggregates settling in solution under the influence of gravity while simultaneously measuring the particle size. Similar measurements have been reported for other types of particles. Bach et al. performed sinking velocity measurements of various phytoplankton species using a flow imaging system (FlowCam) outfitted with glass cuvettes¹³. The equivalent spherical diameter (ESD) was obtained from the instrument's software determination of the area of imaged particles, while the velocity was obtained by tracking the particles using a MATLAB script. Sediq et al. used a FlowCam to perform sedimentation and size measurements on Poly lactic-coglycolic acid (PLGA) particles and polystyrene microspheres ranging in size from 30 μm to 70 μm ¹⁴. PLGA is a biodegradable copolymer used for drug delivery or biomaterial applications. Falling velocity measurements in fluids of different densities were used in combination with the imaged size to determine particle density. The porous PLGA particles were in dried form prior to being added to the fluid, so the pores of the particles were assumed to be filled with air. Average densities of 0.8 g/cm^3 , 1.0 g/cm^3 , and 1.3 g/cm^3 were observed for three different batches of the PLGA. Zhao et al. measured the density of yeast cells by observed the falling velocity of cells from a top view and using an optical electrokinetics platform¹⁵. Cells on a bottom photoconducting electrode were propelled upward towards an upper transparent conducting electrode when an illumination source was activated. Switching off the illumination allowed the cells to sediment under gravity. By comparing the out-of-focus images obtained during sedimentation to calibrated images prepared prior to the light pulse, the vertical trajectory was obtained. Estimated densities for the cells ranged from 1.04 g/cm^3 to 1.13 g/cm^3 .

In the measurements reported here, we use a configuration similar to Bach et al.¹³ and Sediq et al.¹⁴. The aggregates—formed by stir-stressing NISTmAb— primarily produced particles below 5 μm in diameter. In this size range, size measurements based on particle image are prone to diffraction and out-of-focus effects. Instead, we used the tracked diffusive motion of the particle to obtain the equivalent spherical hydrodynamic diameter. By simultaneously imaging the particles, we were able to obtain a direct comparison between the image sizing and Brownian motion sizing methods for our experimental arrangement. Combined with the measurement of the average sedimentation velocity, we obtain the spatially averaged density difference between the liquid and settling particle. This density difference is equal to the buoyant mass (mass of protein material plus trapped liquid minus mass of displaced liquid) divided by the hydrodynamic volume. The average particle density is the sum of this measured density difference and the liquid density.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

Polystyrene microspheres nominally 1.0 μm , 2.0 μm , 3.0 μm , and 5.0 μm in diameter were obtained in aqueous suspensions from the line of Thermo Scientific™ Duke Standards™ 2000 Series Uniform Polymer Particles (ThermoFisher, Grand Island, NY). (Certain commercial products and instruments are identified to adequately describe the experimental procedure in this paper. In no case does such identification imply endorsement by the National Institute of Standards and Technology.) The microspheres were diluted in

ultrafiltered, deionized water (Barnstead Nanopure system, Dubuque, IA). The water density was measured using a Laboratory Density Meter Model DDM 2911 (Rudolph Research Analytical, Hackettstown, NJ). The value was 0.997051 g/cm³ at 25 °C with a standard deviation of 0.000002 g/cm³. To consider if there were any concentration-dependent effects, samples were made with concentrations ranging from 1×10⁶ ml⁻¹ to 33×10⁶ ml⁻¹.

The NISTmAb is a monoclonal antibody available as reference material (RM 8671) from NIST¹⁶. A vial of RM 8671 contains 800 µL of 10 mg/mL IgG1κ (molecular mass ≈150 kDa), a monoclonal antibody in histidine buffer: 12.5 mmol/L L-histidine and 12.5 mmol/L L-histidine HCl (pH 6.0). The stock NISTmAb was diluted to 1 mg/mL in histidine buffer and stressed by stirring for two hours as described previously by Joubert et al.¹⁷ to create aggregates. The buffer density was measured to a value of 0.998817 g/cm³ at 25 °C with a standard deviation of 0.000039 g/cm³.

Experimental Methods

A schematic of the imaging setup is shown in Figure 1 a. Samples were drawn into rectangular-cross-section glass capillaries (VitroCom, Mountain Lakes, NJ) by capillary action. The glass capillaries have inner dimensions of 0.05 mm × 0.5 mm × 50 mm, and are sealed at both ends with silicone high vacuum grease. This sealing substance (Dow Corning Corporation, Auburn MI 48611) is water insoluble, is commonly used for sealing coverslips for microscopy applications, and had the advantage that imaging could begin immediately after sealing, which was important for protein aggregates that eventually would adhere to the capillary walls. No evidence of leaching of the sealant into the tube was observed, and the results were similar to other sealing methods we also evaluated (Room-Temperature-Vulcanizing silicone glue, epoxy). A flow imaging system (FlowCam, Fluid Imaging Technologies Inc., Yarmouth, ME) was modified to replace the flow-through system with a glass capillary. The use of the glass capillary was critical to ensure there was no convective fluid flow during the long settling measurements. The FlowCam used for these experiments features an open component layout; the lid on the instrument was closed during measurements to mitigate thermal gradients that could cause convection. Subsequent image sorting along the x-axis revealed no evidence of convection or non-uniformity. The temperature was measured during each run with a type K thermocouple (Model DP462, Omega Eng. Inc., Norwalk, CT) and was used to obtain the viscosity based on the temperature dependence of the viscosity of water¹⁸. Images were collected as the particles settled in the glass capillary. The system was configured with 20× magnification using a lens that was modified by temporarily gluing a 2.5 mm aperture to the rear of the objective to increase the depth of field. This modification reduced the possibility of particles drifting out of focus during long tracking measurements. The use of a 20× objective also results in greater spatial resolution (compared to a 10× objective), and thus more precise MSD and settling velocity values. The images were 1294 pixels × 964 pixels (362 µm × 270 µm.) Time-stamped images were typically acquired at a rate of 1 frame per second. It was useful to acquire runs of 2000 s or longer to obtain tracks that have a falling velocity displacement that represents a significant component of the total vertical displacement when compared to the Brownian diffusion contribution. The low acquisition speed reduced the obtained quantity of data to a manageable level. There was little wall adhesion during measurements

of the calibration microspheres, allowing runs as long as 16000 s to analyze a larger number of particles. However, the protein aggregate samples exhibited significant adhesion to the capillary walls after about 2000 s, therefore, multiple runs with freshly loaded capillaries were studied. Reported here are the results from 17 separate NISTmAb-loaded capillaries.

Images were analyzed using the NIST “Variable Threshold” algorithm, which improves boundary definition for samples with particles of widely varying contrast¹⁹. An example of some processed images is shown in Figure 1 b. The software implementing this algorithm, FIJI²⁰, is a freely available derivative of ImageJ²¹ preloaded with additional plugins. The software removes the background by taking the median of a set of images and subtracting that median image from each image¹⁹. The software produces a table of data that includes particle center of mass coordinates, radius, and mean brightness. The results were converted by a program (Supplementary Information) to a file in a format usable by Trackmate²²—an open source plug-in for FIJI—which was used to identify particle tracks. Trackmate was modified to export data that included particle radius and mean brightness (Supplementary Information). Tracks ranged in length up to 6986 steps (1 s per step) for single 1 μm microspheres. Tracks less than 50 steps were removed from analysis. Tracks in which the particle is adhered to the capillary walls at the end of the track were also removed from analysis, as these tracks might be affected by wall effects that would modify calculated properties. For the microspheres, size and circularity filtering of the tracks was performed so that only monomers of the analyzed spheres were analyzed. Filtering of tracks was not employed for the protein aggregate samples. When one track intersected another track, both tracks were deemed ended. The total number of tracks analyzed for both microspheres and aggregates are shown in Table 1.

Track Analysis

a. Determination of hydrodynamic diameter from Brownian motion—The analysis to determine particle size is similar to what is used in nanoparticle tracking analysis (NTA); the main difference is that the particle’s coordinates are based on the particle image, rather than the light scattering distribution. Tracks were analyzed using a mean-square-displacement (MSD) algorithm to calculate a hydrodynamic diameter²³⁻²⁵ and a settling velocity. The program is supplied in the Supplementary Information. For each particle, the MSD was calculated over the first n time intervals between measurements²⁵. For this work, n was chosen as 10, which gave good results for particle diameters ranging from 1 μm to 10 μm . For a two-dimensional diffusion process, the MSD scales according to:

$$MSD(\tau) = 4D\tau, \quad (1)$$

where D is the diffusion coefficient and τ is the time interval between measurements. MSD is calculated by the following:

$$MSD(t) = \langle [r(t) - r(0)]^2 \rangle \quad (2)$$

where r is the two-dimensional position of the particle and t is the timestamp for the position measurement. A linear fit to the results from Equation 2 is used to extract the diffusion coefficient, D , which can then be used to determine diameter, d , using the Stokes-Einstein equation

$$d = \frac{kT}{3\pi\eta D}. \quad (3)$$

b. Determination of density difference from sedimentation velocity—We apply Stokes' Law to a falling sphere in liquid to estimate the density difference between the spatially averaged protein aggregate and the buffer solution. For a sphere,

$$\Delta\rho = \frac{18\eta\nu}{g d^2}, \quad (4)$$

where ρ is the difference in density between the particle and buffer, η is the viscosity, g is the gravitation constant 9.8 m/s^2 , d is obtained from Equation (3), and the velocity ν was obtained from a linear fit of the vertical position as a function of time.

Deviations from Stokes' Law due to wall effects and non-sphericity can be accounted for by generalizing Equations 3 and 4 cases to:

$$d' = \frac{kT}{3\pi\eta D\chi\lambda}, \quad (5)$$

$$\Delta\rho' = \frac{18\eta\nu\chi\lambda}{g d^2}, \quad (6)$$

where d (in Equation 6) represents the diameter of an equivalent volume sphere, λ is the wall factor^{13,26} approximated by a model in which particles are falling midway between two semi-infinite walls separated by a distance L :

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{1 - d/L} \quad (7)$$

and χ is the dynamic shape factor²⁷ which can be approximated as,

$$\chi = \frac{d_n + 2d_s}{3d}, \quad (8)$$

with d_n and d_s the equivalent circular diameter of the particle's projection normal to its motion and the equivalent diameter of a sphere with the same surface area as the particle, respectively. The wall factor λ was included in our calculations, and found to have a 10 percent effect for particles with $d \approx 5 \mu\text{m}$, with reduced effect as d decreases. The value of χ was estimated for a variety of non-spherical shapes. For prolate/oblate spheroids with a 0.5 aspect ratio, $\chi = 0.96$ if the long axis is parallel to the flow, and $\chi = 1.07$ if the long axis is perpendicular to the flow. Particles were observed to tumble during sedimentation, so χ is effectively averaged over the path. Because the vast majority of particles had an aspect ratio >0.5 , we did not include corrections for shape in the analysis.

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

Figure 2 shows examples of tracks obtained for the $1 \mu\text{m}$ to $5 \mu\text{m}$ diameter microspheres (Figure 2 a-d) and for the protein aggregates (Figure 2 e). For the $1 \mu\text{m}$ diameter microspheres in Figure 2 a, a selection of tracks longer than 4000 s is shown. These tracks exhibit substantial diffusive motion in combination with a net vertical displacement resulting from sedimentation. As the microsphere size increases, the net diffusive motion is reduced compared to the net vertical motion. For the $5 \mu\text{m}$ diameter microspheres in Figure 2 d—where tracks longer than 300 s are shown—the motion is primarily settling with a small amount of diffusive motion still evident in the track. This trend is due to the increased mass of the larger particle, which gives rise to a d^2 dependence of the settling velocity according to Stokes' law. Thus, for the smallest microsphere size, the challenge was to obtain good statistics for falling velocity measurement, while for the largest ($5 \mu\text{m}$) diameter microspheres, the challenge was to obtain good statistics for Brownian motion analysis for size measurement. Meeting these issues at the size extremes explains the variation in the number of tracks we analyzed at different bead sizes as shown in Table 1.

The protein aggregate tracks in Figure 2 e—where tracks longer than 200 s are shown—exhibit a variety of trajectories. Some of these trajectories resemble the $1 \mu\text{m}$ diameter microsphere tracks with substantial diffusion, while others resemble the $5 \mu\text{m}$ diameter microspheres dominated by settling motion.

Following MSD analysis of the tracks, key results were tabulated, including MSD diameter d , average equivalent spherical diameter from the image d_I , settling velocity v , density difference ρ (a function of d and v), and density difference ρ_I (a function of d_I and v). Tracks were sorted according to path length and histograms of the parameters for different path lengths were plotted. Some examples are shown in Figures 3 and 4.

For the $1 \mu\text{m}$ diameter microspheres, the MSD diameter distribution (Figure 3a) narrows with increasing path length. The microspheres do not become more monodisperse with increasing path length, but rather as there is more data in the longer paths, the precision of the measurement is improved. The median of the distributions is approximately $1 \mu\text{m}$. In contrast, the medians for the distributions of the imaged diameters (Figure 3 b) are around $2.9 \mu\text{m}$ and the distribution widths have little dependence on path length. The discrepancy between the imaged diameter and known microsphere diameter is due to the aperture on the $20\times$ lens used to increase the depth of field at the expense of increasing out-of-focus and

diffraction effects. These effects affect the variable threshold algorithm. In flow imaging, it is typical that raw images of calibration microspheres will result in oversizing, and corrections can be made for this effect²⁸. The velocity distribution (Figure 3 c) narrows for longer track lengths. Note that some particles exhibit negative velocity, especially for shorter track lengths. For these particles, the Brownian diffusion in the y-direction exceeds the net settling displacement. Because the Brownian displacement is proportional to $t^{1/2}$ and the settling displacement is proportional to t —where t refers to the track length in seconds in this context—the settling displacement will eventually overtake the random Brownian displacement. Nevertheless, the medians of these distributions are meaningful and yield the average settling velocity for the 1 μm diameter microspheres.

For the 5 μm diameter microspheres, the increased mass and settling velocity reduces the time that a particular microsphere is in the field of view. In addition, the Brownian motion component is smaller in each time step, so there is less information to calculate the MSD diameter. This reduced information results in a larger MSD diameter spread, compared to the 1 μm diameter microspheres (Figure 4 a) and set a diameter value of 5 μm as an upper limit for MSD analysis of size in this experimental arrangement. We note that NTA and dynamic light scattering (DLS) face similar difficulties at larger sizes. Brownian motion has little effect on the net vertical displacement, resulting in a distribution that is determined by the settling velocity (Figure 4 c). The more rapid descent of particles through the field of view limits the track lengths to less than 500 s.

Based on the distributions obtained for all microsphere sizes, we used the following criteria for including tracks in the calculation of median values for important parameters:

$d \leq 4 \mu\text{m}$; Track length > 300 s

$d > 4 \mu\text{m}$; Track length > 200 s.

Results did not depend strongly on these criteria. For example, for nominal 2 μm diameter microspheres, with track length minima set to 50, 200, 300, 500, and 1000, we obtain median MSD diameters of 2.07 μm , 1.99 μm , 1.97 μm , 1.95 μm , and 1.94 μm ; and median densities difference values of 0.0433 g/cm^3 , 0.0468 g/cm^3 , 0.0472 g/cm^3 , 0.0474 g/cm^3 , and 0.0468 g/cm^3 , respectively.

The range of concentrations of the microspheres was explored to determine any effect of concentration (i.e. particle-particle interactions) on the results. The number of particles per frame ranged from 10 to 160. At the higher concentrations, there were a higher fraction of tracks with shorter lengths. This is due to the higher probability of tracks crossing, which, as mentioned above, ended the track for the purpose of analysis. Other than that, there was no effect on key results (MSD diameter, median image diameter, average density difference, etc.) for the range of concentrations measured.

Figure 5 shows the histograms of MSD diameters for protein aggregate data sorted by track length. This data represents tracks from 17 separate runs. As size is reduced below $\approx 1.5 \mu\text{m}$, the number of particles in the distributions rapidly declines. This is a result of the measurement, not a reflection of the aggregate size distribution in the sample. Protein

aggregates of this size are harder to detect by microphotography, as they approach the optical limits of detection and the small difference in the index of refraction with respect to the buffer make the particles even harder to detect²⁹. Tracks of varying lengths were evaluated according to the above rule for microspheres. These tracks were then sorted by MSD size into 1 μm wide bins (i.e., from 0.5 μm to 1.5 μm , from 1.5 μm to 2.5 μm , and so on) with the aim of testing whether the average particle density is size-dependent or not.

As noted previously for the microspheres, the imaged size exceeds the calculated MSD size. Figure 6 shows results for the median imaged equivalent circular diameter (ECD) d_{Image} vs. the median MSD diameter d_{MSD} for both the microspheres and the protein aggregates, along with a dashed line showing $d_{\text{Image}} = d_{\text{MSD}}$. Also in Figure 6 are quadratic fits for d_{MSD} as a function of d_{Image} :

$$d_{\text{MSD}} = a_0 + a_1 d_{\text{Image}} + a_2 d_{\text{Image}}^2 \quad (9)$$

The fit parameters a_0 , a_1 , and a_2 for the two sets of data are shown in Figure 6. These fits could be used to correct an image diameter to the MSD diameter. In commercial instruments it is common to use a relation based on images collected from calibration microspheres in a properly tuned instrument, to yield a diameter that will obtain a correct value when imaging similar microspheres under the same conditions. The different fits in Figure 6 for aggregates compared to microspheres, show that fit parameters obtained from calibration beads would not yield optimal values when applied to images of protein aggregates. This is not surprising given the differences between the index of refraction for protein aggregates and polystyrene microspheres^{28,29}. Note that the fit parameters in Figure 6 would only apply to the optical setup used in this experiment, which includes an aperture on the 20 $\times$ lens designed to increase the depth of field for optimal particle tracking. It may be challenging—but possible—to obtain tracks of sufficient information content without the 2.5 mm aperture and with a 10 $\times$ lens to obtain a more generalizable transformation function, but this was outside the scope of this work.

The median density difference ρ —calculated using both the MSD diameter and the imaged ECD—for the microspheres as a function of the MSD diameter is shown in Figure 7 along with a horizontal line representing the microsphere manufacturer's reported density of 1.050 g/cm^3 (which shows as a $\rho = 0.050 \text{ g}/\text{cm}^3$). The results for the MSD-calculated density are approximately independent of microsphere size and in reasonable agreement with the manufacturer's given density, which serves as a reasonable validation of our experimental approach. As expected, the density calculated using the imaged ECD is substantially lower due to the significant oversizing effect evident from Figure 6.

The results for the dependence of aggregate average density on MSD-calculated size are shown in Figure 8 a, along with the results from polystyrene microspheres. As mentioned above, the data from Figure 5 was sorted into 1 μm wide bins, and the median density difference vs. the median MSD diameter is plotted for each bin. The error bars represent the standard error of the mean for each bin. The data shows the aggregate density difference decreases with increasing particle size, with a value of $\rho = 0.081 \text{ g}/\text{cm}^3$ at 1.37 μm and a

value of $\rho = 0.029 \text{ g/cm}^3$ at $4.9 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$. Based on the measured density of the buffer solution (0.998817 g/cm^3), this gives a value for the average particle density of 1.080 g/cm^3 at $1.37 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ and a value of 1.028 g/cm^3 at $4.9 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$. If we assume the molecular density of the protein is 1.41 g/cm^3 (1410 kg/m^3)⁶, our results suggest that the fraction of water in the stir-stressed NISTmAb aggregates ranges from 80 % at $1.37 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ to 93 % at $4.9 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$. These results indicate a lower density than has generally been assumed for subvisible particles, and also suggests that when attempting to correlate resonance mass results with particle tracking or flow imaging—or when trying to estimate the amount of protein in aggregate form—a density in the range of 1.028 g/cm^3 to 1.080 g/cm^3 should be considered. Optimally, it may be necessary to consider the size-dependence of protein aggregate density. There may be differences in density based on the particular protein, stress method, and concentration of the protein monomer and excipients, which would be of interest for further study. We note that there may be some bias in the result for the lowest size bin (i.e., $0.5 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ to $1.5 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$). As mentioned in connection with Figure 5, we lose detection of the smaller particles more often (thus the median size for this bin is $1.37 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$) and, presumably, also particles with lower optical contrast (and therefore lower density). The result is that the density value 1.080 g/cm^3 at $1.37 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ may be seen as an upper bound. The density increase with decreasing size should not be surprising. Eventually, as the size regime moves down to the molecular scale, (dimers, trimers, etc.) the density will approach the pure protein density value (1.41 g/cm^3)⁶. In addition, we note that if the particle porosity allows liquid to flow through the particle during settling, this will enhance the sedimentation rate, thus causing the particle to appear to have a higher density. This is more likely for the larger particles, which would also suggest the value we obtain for $3 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$ and above should be considered an upper bound.

Our results for ρ can be compared with recent determinations of the average refractive index of aggregated proteins^{28,30}. The difference in refractive index, n , of a particle relative to the matrix fluid is related to the difference in protein concentration, c , of the particle relative to the matrix fluid:

$$\Delta c = \Delta n / (dn/dc), \quad (10)$$

where dn/dc refers to the refractive index increment and has a value of $\approx 0.189 \text{ cm}^3/\text{g}$ ³¹. The relationship between ρ and c can be found using the fundamental definitions of these quantities. Suppose a quantity of protein of mass m_p and volume V_p are combined with a quantity of buffer of mass m_b and volume V_b to form a protein particle, and that the solution is ideal so that the combined particle volume is the sum $V_b + V_p$. Then,

$$\Delta \rho = \rho_p - \rho_b = \frac{m_p + m_b}{V_p + V_b} - \frac{m_b}{V_b}, \quad (11)$$

$$\Delta c = \frac{m_p}{V_p + V_b}, \quad (12)$$

where ρ_p and ρ_b are the densities of the dry protein (1.41 g/cm³) and the buffer (1.0 g/cm³), respectively. Solving for c ,

$$\Delta c = \frac{\Delta \rho}{1 - \rho_b / \rho_p}. \quad (13)$$

Combining Eqs. 10 and 13:

$$\Delta \rho = 1.54 \Delta n \text{ g / cm}^3. \quad (14)$$

Literature results for n values of protein aggregates formed by agitating polyclonal human IgG—in comparison to NISTmAb²⁸—have been converted to ρ and included in Figure 8 b. These values were obtained using quantitative phase imaging, which has poor accuracy for $d < 5 \mu\text{m}$ due to the large correction factors and the difficulty in defining particle diameter. Even though the protein is different, the agreement with the more precise sedimentation results is quite good. Also shown are results based on a holographic determination of n ³⁰. These measurements—based on yet a third protein (bovine pancreas insulin)—demonstrate the same conclusions; that protein aggregates are highly hydrated and that ρ climbs rapidly with decreasing particle diameter. Although our tracking method relies on photomicrographs, the determination of particle diameter and settling velocity does not rely on image analysis for particle dimensions, only for particle location. For that reason, the present results provide an orthogonal method to current image-analysis methods.

Observing that—even with monodisperse microspheres—the sedimentation/MSD analysis method used in this experiment results in apparent density distributions (as shown in Figure 3), we nevertheless sought to discern if there is a spread in densities among similarly-sized protein aggregates. To do this, we sampled protein aggregates of MSD-analyzed diameters from 1.8 μm to 2.2 μm . We did not observe enough size variation to significantly affect the density (as seen in Figure 8). We considered only tracks longer than 1000 steps for which error in the MSD size is reduced and the distribution has a better chance of reflecting something about the actual size distribution in the sample. This was also a diameter range where there were enough particles (177) to construct a density histogram. Figure 9 shows a comparison of this data with microspheres also sampled from measured diameters ranging from 1.8 μm to 2.2 μm (of which there were 624 particles). Note that we normalized the histograms to the total number of particles to allow for easy comparison. It is evident that the width of the protein aggregate density distribution is greater than that of the monodisperse polystyrene microspheres, suggesting that there is a real distribution of densities among aggregates of the same size.

CONCLUSIONS

In this work, we measured a spatially averaged density for protein aggregates by obtaining the sedimentation velocity and equivalent spherical hydrodynamic diameter based on mean

square displacement analysis of particle tracks. Measurements using calibration microspheres suggest that the average results from a large number of particles correspond to the expected diameter and density of the microspheres. We find that tracking analysis is applicable up to sizes of 5 μm for an apparatus optimized for the micrometer size regime. MSD analysis of particle tracks—for which particle images are also acquired—may be used to correct for diffraction/out-of-focus effects in the particle images. The resulting relationships between imaged size and hydrodynamic size were shown to be different for polystyrene microspheres than for protein aggregates, likely due to differences in the index of refraction. It may prove feasible to perform such correlation measurements using a flow microscopy instrument with conventional optics, rather than the altered configuration used in this work to optimize the density measurement. We found that the stir-stressed NISTmAb produced aggregates with average densities that decreased with hydrodynamic diameter: from 1.080 g/cm^3 at 1.37 μm to 1.028 g/cm^3 at 4.9 μm . These densities correspond to water fractions ranging from 80% to 93%. Finally, we found that there is a statistically significant broadening of the protein aggregate density distribution in the 1.8 μm to 2.2 μm range due to variation among the particles.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Figure 1.
(a) Schematic of measurement setup. (b) Sample protein aggregate images and boundaries defined by the variable threshold algorithm.

Figure 2. Sample particle trajectories of polystyrene microspheres (a-d) and protein aggregates (e): (a) 1 μm microspheres, track lengths > 4000 s, (b) 2 μm microspheres, track lengths > 2350 s, (c) 3 μm microspheres, track lengths > 700 s, (d) 5 μm microspheres, track lengths > 300 s, (e) protein aggregates, track lengths > 200 s.

Figure 3. Histograms from track measurements of 1 μm microspheres for different track length ranges. (a) MSD diameter, (b) average image equivalent circular diameter (ECD), and (c) settling velocity.

Figure 4. Histograms from track measurements of 5 μm microspheres for different track length ranges. (a) MSD diameter, (b) average image equivalent circular diameter (ECD), and (c) settling velocity.

Figure 5.
Histograms of MSD diameter from track measurements of protein aggregates for different track length ranges.

Figure 6.

Image diameter vs. MSD diameter for polystyrene microspheres and protein aggregates.

Error bars represent standard error of the mean with number of contributing points equal to 3335, 2839, 1268, 4437 for microspheres of nominal diameter 1 μm, 2 μm, 3 μm, and 5 μm, respectively. Listed are the coefficients for the fits to Equation 9 for the microsphere and protein aggregate data. The dashed line indicates the curve $d_{\text{Image}} = d_{\text{MSD}}$.

Figure 7. Measured density difference between polystyrene microspheres and water based on the calculated MSD diameter (solid circles) and imaged equivalent circular diameter (plus symbols). The horizontal line indicates the microsphere manufacturer's quoted density of 1.050 g/cm³.

Figure 8.

(a) Measured density difference between protein aggregates and histidine buffer (solid squares) and polystyrene microspheres and water (solid circles) vs. MSD diameter. Error bars represent for the standard error of the mean for the microspheres listed in Figure 6. Errors for the protein aggregates also represent the standard error of the mean, with the number of contributing points equal to 255, 1644, 499, 121, and 55 for the aggregates in median diameter bins 1.37 μm, 2.0 μm, 2.8 μm, 3.8 μm, and 4.9 μm, respectively. (b) The density difference between protein aggregates and buffer for the NISTmAb aggregates measured by sedimentation (this work, squares), agitated IgG by quantitative phase

imaging²⁸ (circles), and agitated bovine pancreas insulin by a holographic method³⁰ (triangles).

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Figure 9. Normalized number of particles vs. density difference for protein aggregates and histidine buffer (solid squares) and polystyrene microspheres and water (solid circles).

Table 1.

Particle type and number of tracks measured.

Sample	Number of tracks analyzed
1 μm PSL	8486
2 μm PSL	5022
3 μm PSL	2584
5 μm PSL	6424
NISTmAb aggregate	9964