Contents lists available at ScienceDirect



International Journal of Biological Macromolecules

journal homepage: http://www.elsevier.com/locate/ijbiomac



# Influence of succinvlation of a wide-pore albumin cryogels on their properties, structure, biodegradability, and release dynamics of dioxidine loaded in such spongy carriers



Vladimir I. Lozinsky <sup>a,\*</sup>, Anastasiya O. Shchekoltsova <sup>b</sup>, Ekaterina S. Sinitskaya <sup>a</sup>, Olga I. Vernaya <sup>c</sup>, Anastasiya V. Nuzhdina <sup>c,d</sup>, Irina V. Bakeeva <sup>b</sup>, Mariam G. Ezernitskaya <sup>a</sup>, Alexander M. Semenov <sup>e</sup>, Tatyana I. Shabatina <sup>c,d</sup>, Mikhail Ya. Melnikov <sup>c</sup>

<sup>a</sup> A.N.Nesmeyanov Institute of Organoelement Compounds, Russian Academy of Sciences, Vavilov street, 28, 119991 Moscow, Russian Federation

<sup>b</sup> MIREA – Russian Technological University, 119571 Moscow, Russian Federation

<sup>c</sup> M.V.Lomonosov Moscow State University, Chemical Faculty, Moscow 119991, Russian Federation

<sup>d</sup> N.E.Bauman Moscow State Technical University, Moscow 105005, Russian Federation

<sup>e</sup> M.V.Lomonosov Moscow State University, Biological Department, Moscow 119991, Russian Federation

# ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 3 March 2020 Received in revised form 14 April 2020 Accepted 27 May 2020 Available online 30 May 2020

Keywords: Serum albumin Cryogels Succinylation Biodegradation Drug release

# ABSTRACT

The goal of this study was to reveal how the chemical modification, succinylation in this case, of the wide-pore serum-albumin-based cryogels affects on their osmotic characteristics (swelling extent), biodegradability and ability to be loaded with the bactericide substance – dioxidine, as well as on its release. The cryogels were prepared via the cryogenic processing (freezing – frozen storage – thawing) of aqueous solutions containing bovine serum albumin (50 g/L), denaturant (urea or guanidine hydrochloride, 1.0 mol/L) and reductant (cysteine, 0.01 mol/L). Freezing/frozen storage temperatures were either -15, or -20, or -25 °C. After defrosting, spongy cryogels were obtained that possessed the system of interconnected gross pores, whose shape and dimensions were dependent on the freezing temperature and on the type of denaturant introduced in the feed solution. Subsequent succinylation of the resultant cryogels caused the growth of the swelling degree of the pore walls of these spongy materials, resulted in strengthening of their resistance against of trypsinolysis and gave rise to an increase in their loading capacity with respect to dioxidine. With that, the microbiological tests showed a higher bactericidal activity of the dioxidine-loaded sponges based on the succinylated albumin cryogels as compared to that of the drug-carriers based on the non-modified protein sponges.

© 2018 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

# 1. Introduction

Cryogels based on synthetic or/and natural macromolecular compounds are the macroporous polymeric gels formed in the non-deeply frozen systems that contain corresponding precursors [1–4]. Currently, many types of cryogels are widely used in various applied fields, commencing from biology and medicine [2,3,5–12], biotechnology [1–3,14–25], cell and tissue engineering [3,26–34], chemical catalysis and biocatalysis [35–40], sorption processes [41–48], carriers of immobilized nanoparticles [49–51], smart polymers [52–54], up to ecology [55–57], food technologies [58–60], construction of engineering structures in the permafrost regions [61,62], etc.

\* Corresponding author. *E-mail address:* loz@ineos.ac.ru (V.I. Lozinsky).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2020.05.251 0141-8130/© 2018 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

All polymeric cryogels are the heterophase macroporous gel materials, since during their formation the polycrystals of frozen solvent, ice crystals in case of cryotropic gelation in frozen aqueous media, play the role of porogens [1-4]. The properties of various cryogels and the spatial "architecture" of their pores are dependent on many factors. In particular, the factors that are of fundamental importance [1,63–65], include the chemical nature and concentration of precursors, the type of dispersion medium (solvent) and its cryoscopic properties, the presence or the absence of certain additives, both soluble and/or insoluble (dispersed fillers), their content, and also the temperature/time regimes of all stages of the cryogenic processing. The latter conditions are as follows: the temperature and cooling rate in the course of initial gelling system freezing, the regimes for keeping the samples frozen, the dynamics of their heating during defrosting, and the number of cryogenic treatment cycles [1,63–69]. By varying these parameters of cryotropic gelation, it is possible to modify widely the physicochemical characteristics of the resulting cryogels and their macroporous morphology,

thereby adapting the totality of the polymeric material properties to the requirements of a particular area of its use for solving practical tasks.

In the last decade, the largest number of publications dealing with the applied potential of various polymeric cryogels has been related to the biomedical aspects of these materials use (see books and reviews [2,3,10-13,30,32-34,69-71]). This concerns both the nonbiodegradable cryogels based mainly on synthetic polymers (e.g., physical cryogels of poly(vinyl alcohol) [8,11,12]) and the matrices that, when being placed into the patient's body, either decompose (for instance, via the enzymatic hydrolysis), or are disintegrated as a result of gradual dissolution. The cryogels prepared from various globular or fibrillar proteins are related exactly to the biodegradable materials [71]. The well-known examples of similar cryogenically-structured matrices that are hydrolyzed by the proteolytic enzymes of animals and humans are the cryogels based on gelatin [71-75] and serum albumin [71,76–79]. For instance, the efficiency of using the antibiotic-loaded albumin cryogels as the antibacterial sponges for the treatment of infected superficial and deep wounds has been demonstrated [79]. In this case, a high-dose antimicrobial agent attacks the pathogenic microorganisms directly in the infected wound, and the biopolymeric carrier of the drug is cleaved rather rapidly into harmless peptides and amino acids.

In certain cases, the lifetime of similar carriers can be of significance, therefore it would be of necessity to have a tool for controlling, e.g. elongation, the biodegradation dynamics. In this respect, the approach based on the chemical modification of proteins [80,81] in order to increase somewhat the resistance of the carrier matrix to the proteolysis was considered by us as such an useful tool. So, validation of this approach was the main aim of the present study. Its objects were the spongy proteinaceous cryogels based on serum albumin and their derivatives chemically modified by the succinylation. The in vitro enzymatic degradability of such biomaterials was examined, as well as the dioxidine loading in the albumin sponges and the release of this bactericide from such carriers was evaluated.

# 2. Experimental section

# 2.1. Materials

The following substances and reagents were used in the experiments without additional purification: bovine serum albumin (**BSA**) ( $\geq$ 98%); urea (**URE**) (ultra grade); succinic anhydride ( $\geq$ 99%); sodium hydrocarbonate ( $\geq$ 98%) (all from Sigma-Aldrich, USA); guanidine hydrochloride (**GHC**) ( $\geq$ 99.5%; Helicon, Moscow, Russian Federation); L-cysteine (**CYS**) (ultra grade) (Fluka, Switzerland); 0.25% trypsin solution (Trypsin-EDTA 1×) (Gibco, Canada); sterile physiological solution (Nikopharm, Russian Federation); 2,3-bis-(hydroxymethyl) quinoxaline-N,N'-dioxide (dioxidine) (98,9%) (MIR-Pharma Co., Russian Federation).

All aqueous solutions were prepared using Milli-Q water; for rinsing albumin cryogels the boiled deionized water was employed.

#### 2.2. Methods

#### 2.2.1. Synthesis of BSA cryogels

Spongy BSA-based cryogels have been prepared essentially in accordance with the procedure described elsewhere [77]. In brief, BSA powder was dissolved in water to prepare the solution of the protein, followed by the addition and dissolution of required amounts of URE or GHC and CYS. The final solution was poured in the 2 mL-portions in the plastic Petri dishes with a 35 mm inner diameter. The dishes were sealed and placed onto the horizontal cooling platform connected with a MPC-K20 ultracryostat (Huber, Germany). The samples were frozen and incubated at a pre-set minus temperature for 20 h, and then immersed in water bath for 15 min to defrost the contents of the dishes. Further the resultant cryogel discs (~2 mm thickness) were removed from the dishes and rinsed at 6 °C for one day in a 100-fold excess of pure water, which was changed for a fresh portion every 8 h. The albumin cryogel discs thus treated were frozen at -20 °C and then lyophilized using an ALPHA 1–2 LD plus freeze-drier (Martin Christ, Germany). The final dry samples were stored in the hermetically-sealed vials at 6 °C.

The gel-fraction yield (*Y*) was calculated with a formula:

$$\mathbf{Y} = (m_{\rm drv}: m_{\rm theor}) \cdot 100\%,\tag{1}$$

where  $m_{dry}$  is the weight of the dry sample,  $m_{theor}$  is the 'theoretical' weight of the sample calculated by assuming that all the initial protein amount was incorporated in the 3D network of the resultant cryogel.

#### 2.2.2. Succinylation of BSA cryogels

Each freeze-dried disc was weighed and immersed in 5 mL of water for swelling, further 10 mg of sodium bicarbonate was introduced to adjust the pH value to about 8, and then succinic anhydride was added in such amount that its molar excess regarding the amount of aminogroups in the protein was equal to 4. The reaction mixture was gently shaken at 6 °C for one day followed by rinsing and drying of the succinylated sample analogously to the non-modified albumin sponges (see Section 2.2.1).

# 2.2.3. FTIR studies of non-modified and succinylated samples

The water-swollen albumin cryogels were freeze-dried and then additionally dried in vacuum desiccator over the burned CaCl<sub>2</sub> granules. FTIR spectra of the samples thus prepared were recorded on a Vertex 70 V Fourier spectrometer (Bruker, Germany) using a Pike ATR accessory with a diamond crystal (Nicolet, USA); the ATR spectra were averaged from 128 scans over a range of 4000–400 cm<sup>-1</sup> with a resolution of 4 cm<sup>-1</sup>. All necessary corrections were done using an Omnic 8 program package (Nicolet, USA). The IR spectra of the dioxidine-loaded samples were recorded with a Bruker Tensor II spectrometer (Germany) with an ATR platinum attachment.

## 2.2.4. Characterization of cryogels samples

The swelling by weight ( $S_{w/w}$ ) of the polymeric phase (the walls of macropores) of spongy non-modified and succinylated cryogels was measured gravimetrically as described earlier [77]. To this end, the free liquid was removed from a water-swollen albumin sponge on a glass filter under vacuum (water-jet pump). The sample "squeezed" in this way was weighed and dried in an SNOL 24/200 air thermostat (AB Utenos Elektrotechnika, Lithuania) at 105 °C to a constant weight. The  $S_{w/w}$  values were calculated as follows:

$$S_{\rm w/w} = (m_{\rm wet} - m_{\rm drv})/m_{\rm drv} \text{ (g H}_2\text{O per 1 g of dry polymer)}, \qquad (2)$$

where  $m_{wet}$  is the weight of the wet squeezed sample and  $m_{dry}$  is the weight of the dried sample.

#### 2.2.5. In vitro modeling of the biodegradation of albumin-based cryogels

The respective freeze-dried cryogel discs were cut to the segmentshaped fragments that were weighed and immersed individually into the 0.05% (w/v) aqueous solution of trypsin taken in an amount required to provide the enzyme-to-substrate ratio (w/w) equal to 1:500. The samples were incubated with gentle shaking at room temperature. After certain time intervals one partially degraded piece was removed from the reaction solution, rinsed with water and dried analogously to the case of the  $S_{w/w}$  evaluation (Section 2.2.3). The biodegradation extent was expressed as the percent of the residual (R) dry matter amount at the current time point of trypsinolysis:

$$R = (m_{\rm dry\_curr}/m_{\rm dry\_init}) \cdot 100\%, \tag{3}$$

where  $m_{dry\_curr}$  is the current dry weight of the sample and  $m_{dry\_init}$  is the initial dry weight of the same sample.

2.2.6. Dioxidine loading in and release from the albumin-based spongy cryogels

The freeze-dried albumin discs were placed in an 1% (*w*/w) aqueous solution of dioxidine for swelling at room temperature for 30 min, then frozen at -30 °C and finally freeze-dried for 22 h at the pressure in the chamber  $(8-6) \cdot 10^{-2}$  Torr.

The kinetic curves for the release of the drug from the dioxidineloaded sponges into the distilled water were recorded at  $\lambda = 375$  nm with a Jasco V-770 spectrophotometer (Jasco, Japan).

# 2.2.7. DSC experiments

Differential scanning calorimetric studies of the freeze-dried dioxidine-loaded samples were carried out on a DSC 204 F1 Phoenix instrument (NETZSCH, Germany). Each sample of 5–10 mg weight was placed in an aluminum crucible. The temperature profile was as follows: heating from 25 to 400 °C with a rate of 10 K/min in the argon atmosphere.

# 2.2.8. H<sup>1</sup>-NMR

The chemical shifts of the initial and cryogenically modified dioxidine were identified using a high resolution NMR-spectrometer VXR-400 (VARIAN, USA). The test samples were in the D<sub>2</sub>O medium.

# 2.2.9. Microstructure of the wide-pore BSA-cryogels

The microstructure of water-swollen albumin cryogels was studied with an optical stereomicroscope SMZ1000 (Nikon, Japan) equipped with an MMC-50C-M system (MMCSoft, Russian Federation) for digital image recording. Prior to the experiments the disc gel samples were stained by treatment for 1 min with 0.125 mM aqueous solution of methylene blue dye followed by exhaustive rinsing the discs with water.

# 2.2.10. Antibacterial properties of the dioxidine-loaded albumin sponges

Determination of the antibacterial activity of the samples was carried out by the disc-diffusion method according to the earlier described procedure [49,50] using the albumin discs (4 mm in diameter and 2 mm in height) cut from the samples initially prepared in the 35-mm Petri dishes. Bacterial cells *E. coli* 52 and *S. aureus* 144 (Catalog of the collection of microorganisms of the Department of Microbiology, Biological Faculty, Moscow State University) were used as the test cultures. The experiments were carried out in Petri dishes containing 20 mL of agar nutrient medium dried during the day (thickness of the medium layer 4 mm). The bacterial cells of both test cultures in an amount of 10<sup>8</sup> have been seeded onto each 90-mm agar dish for further discdiffusion experiments. Measurement of growth inhibition zones of the test cultures was carried out after 24 h of incubation. Statistically reliable results were obtained by a nine-fold repetition of the growth inhibition zones measurements for each series of samples.

# 3. Results and discussion

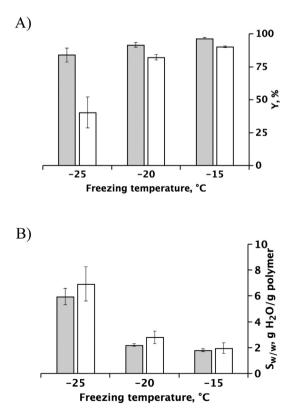
# 3.1. Spongy cryogels based on serum albumin

The procedure used in this study for the preparation of BSA-cryogels is grounded on the finding [76] that cryogenic processing (freezing – frozen storing – thawing) of the serum albumin aqueous solutions that also contain additives of denaturant and thiol reductant is able to result in the formation of spongy cryogels. It was shown that their 3D-polymeric network is supported by the de-novo-linked intermolecular disulfide bridges in the junction nodes [77]. In the present study, serum albumin cryogels were synthesized starting from the feed solutions that contained the gel precursors in the following concentrations: BSA – 50 g/L, URE or GHC – both 1.0 mol/L, CYS – 0.01 mol/L. These compositions were selected on the basis of preliminary experiments, where it was found that the resultant BSA cryogels possessed stable enough sponge-like texture and thus being the most convenient for further

manipulations in comparison with the samples prepared at a lower (0.5 mol/L) and a higher (1.5-2.5 mol/L) denaturant concentrations.

The 2-mL-portions of the feed solutions were dosed in the plastic Petri dishes and frozen for 20 h either at -15, or -20, or -25 °C, then defrosted and rinsed with water from the sol-fraction. The attempts to prepare similar cryogels via the initial liquid systems freezing at -10 °C did not lead to the reproducible results mainly because of the supercooling effects, when very often the solutions did not freeze at all.

The gel-fraction yield for the samples formed with URE additives at -15 and -20 °C was a rather high, ~80–90%, while in the case of cryogels prepared at -25 °C a marked decrease in the cryotropic gelformation efficiency ( $Y \approx 40\%$ ) was observed (Fig. 1A, white columns). Such result testified that the processes responsible for the unfolding (denaturation) of albumin globules and thiol-disulfide-induced intermolecular cross-linking commenced to be significantly inhibited at the temperatures below -20 °C. One of such factors, as it was early shown for the water-ovalbumin-urea system [82], is a partial crystallization of urea at reduced temperatures, since the eutectic point of the water-urea system lies in the vicinity of -9 °C. Such solidification of urea decreases its concentration in the non-frozen liquid microphase, thus lowering the ability of the denaturant solution to unfold the protein globules. The same conclusion on a decrease in the efficiency of intermolecular cross-linking with lowering the cryotropic gelation temperature can also be drawn from the data on the swelling characteristics of BSA-based cryogels formed at analogous negative temperatures (Fig. 1B, white columns). The swelling ability of the cross-linked polymeric networks is essentially dependent on their cross-linking degree, i.e., the lower is the amount of interchain cross-links, to a higher level the respective spatial network will swell [83]. Therefore, an increase in the  $S_{w|w}$  values from ~1.8 to 6–8 g/g for the walls of macropores in these cryogels with lowering the cryotropic gelation temperature from -15 to -25 °C evidently points to a decrease in the amount of



**Fig. 1.** Gel-fraction yield (A) and swelling degree (B) of the albumin-based cryogels prepared in the presence of 1-molar URE (white columns) or GHC (grey columns) in the aqueous BSA solutions (50 g/L) frozen at different negative temperatures.

the cross-links within the final 3D-network. These results also testify that the temperature interval, where the formation of such albumin cryogels occurs with high performance, is a rather narrow, namely, of about 5–7 °C.

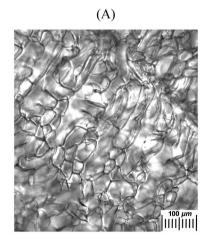
In the case of albumin cryogels formed with GHC additives, the trend to a decrease in the gel-fraction yield with lowering the cryostructuring temperature from -15 to -25 °C was exhibited in a lesser extent: Y values declined from ~97 to ~84% (Fig. 1A, grey columns). In parallel, swelling capability of the polymeric phase in the respective spongy samples grew from about 2 to ~6 g of H<sub>2</sub>O per 1 g of the protein core (Fig. 1B, grey columns). GHC is well-known to be a stronger than URE denaturant for proteins [84,85] because of the ability of GHC not only to cleave the hydrogen bonds but also to affect the ionic interactions. Therefore, a negative influence of temperature lowering on the BSA cryotropic gelation in the presence of GHC, which possesses a higher "denaturation power", is exhibited weaker compared to the UREcaused effects, since the efficient unfolding of albumin globules is the necessary condition for the formation of such cryogels [77].

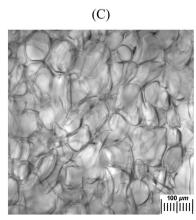
The (denaturant + reductant)-induced cryotropic gel-formation of BSA gives rise to the proteinaceous sponges that have the interconnected capillary-size pores whose shape, dimensions and spatial "architecture" depend on both the conditions of cryogenic processing and the composition of the initial solution prior to its cryostructuring. Thus, microphotographs (optical stereomicroscope) in Fig. 2 show the porous morphology of the BSA-based cryogel discs formed in the presence of 1-molar additives of URE (A and B) or GHC (C and D) by freezing at -15 °C (A and C) and -20 °C (B and D). The samples contrasted by dyeing with methylene blue (see 'Experimental section') are in a waterswollen state; the dark areas in the black-and-white images of Fig. 2

are the polymeric walls of macropores, and the light areas are the macropores themselves filled with water.

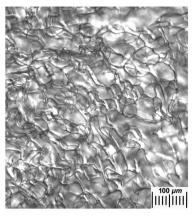
These micrographs visually testify that such albumin cryogels are the heterogeneous wide-pore spongy matrices whose macroporous morphology is dependent on the cryotropic gelation temperature and on the nature of the denaturant used, i.e. URE or GHC. Since the succinylation did not cause any noticeable changes in the structural features of the respective cryogels, their micrographs are not shown. Lowering the cryotropic gelation temperature from -15 to -20 °C (that is, only by 5 Centigrade) in the case of cryogels formed with URE additives resulted in a decrease in average cross-section of macropores from 50 to  $110 \,\mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 2A) to  $20-70 \,\mu\text{m}$  (Fig. 2B). At a qualitative level, such an effect is typical of the processes giving rise to the formation of various polymeric cryogels [1–3,16,17,63–67], since the lower is the freezing temperature, the smaller are the solvent polycrystals thus formed that act as porogens (see 'Introduction').

However, in the case of BSA-based cryogels prepared with additives GHC a quite different trend was observed. If the roundish shape of macropores (average cross-section of 60–140  $\mu$ m) in the samples formed at -15 °C (Fig. 2C) was similar to the cryogels prepared with URE additives at the same temperature (Fig. 2A), the macroporous morphology of spongy gel samples formed at -20 °C in the presence of 1-molar GHC turned out to undergo a significant transformation: such pores acquired the shape of oblong ellipsoid with the minor axis average size of 15–50  $\mu$ m and the major axis up to 100–400  $\mu$ m and even longer (Fig. 2D). This fact evidently points to the unequal influence of GHC on the ice crystallization at different freezing temperatures. Since the higher amount of the solvent is frozen-out upon decrease of the temperature, the solutes concentration in the so-called unfrozen











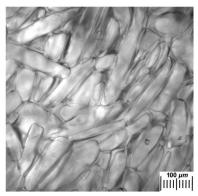
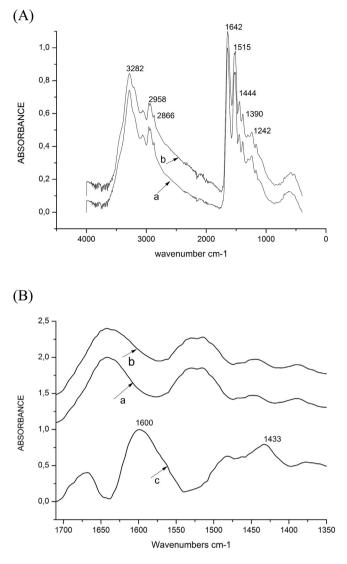


Fig. 2. Micrographs (optical stereomicroscope) of the albumin-based cryogels prepared in the presence of 1-molar URE (A and B) or GHC (C and D) in the aqueous BSA solutions (50 g/L) frozen at -15 (A and C) or -20 °C (B and D).



**Fig. 3.** FTIR spectra in the wavenumber ranges of 4000–400 cm<sup>-1</sup> (A) and 1710–1350 cm<sup>-1</sup> (B) of the non-modified (**a**) and succinylated (**b**) dried albumin-based cryogel samples, as well as the result (**c**) of the spectra subtraction, i.e. (**b**) - (**a**).

microphase [1,92] increases and it can start, commencing from a certain GHC concentration level, to affect markedly the growth dynamics of different facets of ice crystals. No doubts, this phenomenon requires additional separate exploration, which was out of the frameworks of the present study.

In any case, the micrographs in Fig. 2 show that albumin-based cryogels that were formed in the non-deeply-frozen protein solutions containing also the denaturant (URE or GHC) and the thiol reductant (CYS), possess a sponge-like morphology with the system of interconnected wide pores. Such 3D structure of these heterophase matrices allows loading the sponges with the solutions of desired substances by a very simple immersion of the material in the respective liquid. Quite similar procedure has been used in this work for loading the cryogenically-structured albumin sponges with the bactericide agent, dioxidine. The results of these experiments are discussed later in the Section 3.4.

# 3.2. Chemical modification of BSA cryogels by their succinylation

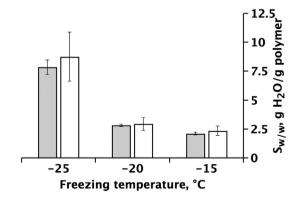
The succinylation (mainly, be means of the N-acylation of lysyl amino-groups) is popular, experimentally simple, non-dangerous toxicologically and rather widely implemented method for the modification of physicochemical and functional properties, as well as the enzymatic digestibility, of various proteins including food and medicamentous proteins [80,86]. For instance, succinylation of the plant protein glycinin has been applied for increasing its foaming ability [87], and aqueous solution of succinylated gelatin (trade mark 'Gelofusin®') is a therapeutic agent for the replacement of blood plasma [88]. Therefore, the use of this type of chemical modification of the albumin-based cryogenically-structured spongy cryogels that are of interest for the biomedical application should not cause any undesirable toxic effects.

In this study both types of BSA cryogels, i.e. protein sponges formed in the presence of URE or GHC, have been subjected to chemical modification of this type. With that, the 4-fold molar excess of succinic anhydride relatively to the amount of NH<sub>2</sub>-groups in the protein was introduced into the reaction. The fact of succinylation has been confirmed by the FTIR spectroscopy; the osmotic properties of the resultant succinylated specimens have been evaluated through the measurement of their swelling characteristics.

Thus, Fig. 3A shows the FTIR spectra of the dried non-modified albumin cryogel (**a**) and the respective succinylated sample (**b**). Both spectra are very similar and typical of proteinaceous substances. Broad absorption with the maximum at  $3282 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  extending to  $2500 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  belongs to NH modes of protonated amino groups. The Amide I and Amide II bands at 1642 and 1515 cm<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, show that the succinylation accomplished under the conditions used in this study does not affect significantly the chemical composition of the modified albumin sponges as compared to that of the non-modified ones.

It is known that the Amide I and Amide II bands are a result of coupling of C=O stretches with NH deformational modes; besides, the bands of carboxylate groups are observed in the same range and can overlap with the amide bands. Thorough examination of the bands in Fig. 3B shows that the Amide I band at  $1642 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  of the succinvlated sample (b) is somewhat broadened as compared to that of the nonmodified sample (a). The differential spectrum (c) representing the subtraction result (b)-(a) shows that the Amide I and Amide II bands the of the modified sample contain, as compared with the corresponding spectrum of the non-modified sample, two new bands at 1600 and 1433 cm<sup>-1</sup> that could be assigned to the asymmetric and symmetric modes of carboxyls in the succinate fragments. Thus, the FTIR data could be considered as one of the evidences for the succinvlation consequence. In addition, the same conclusion can be drawn from the comparison of swelling characteristics peculiar for the non-modified and succinvlated samples.

Since the succinylation shifts the isoelectric point of a protein towards the acidic zone because of the replacement of the basis amino groups for the carboxylic ones, the osmotic characteristics (swelling



**Fig. 4.** Swelling degree of the succinylated albumin-based cryogels prepared in the presence of 1-molar URE (white columns) or GHC (grey columns) in the aqueous BSA solutions (50 g/L) frozen at different negative temperatures.

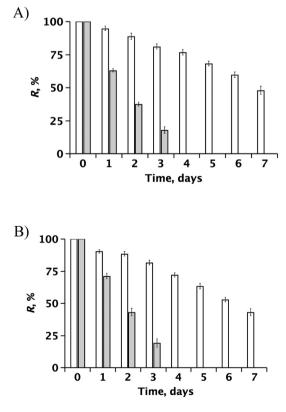
ability) of thus modified BSA cryogels are changed. The graphs in Fig. 4 presents the  $S_{W\setminus W}$  values for all tested samples that prior to the succinylation were formed at -15, -20 and -25 °C.

As expected, the polymeric phase of succinylated spongy cryogels swelled somewhat higher (by 15–30%) than in case of the respective non-modified samples. Therewith, it turned out that in contrast to the non-modified cryogels (Fig. 1b) the differences in the  $S_{w/w}$  values for the samples gelled cryogenically at equal negative temperature, but under the action of URE/CYS or GHC/CYS, virtually disappeared after the succinylation of these samples (Fig. 4). Most probably, it was stipulated by a higher hydration ability [89] of carboxylic groups (coordination number of five) grafted to the albumin chains instead of the initially less hydrated amino-functions (coordination number of three), thus smoothing not very strong differences in swelling degrees. In any case, both types of the albumin cryogels retained their integrity after succinylation and did not lose a sponge-like texture.

# 3.3. Modeling of the biodegradation of non-modified and succinylated BSA cryogels

The studies of the enzymatic hydrolysis of BSA-based cryogels had the goal to compare the dynamics of the trypsin-induced decomposition of non-modified and succinylated protein sponges. In the preliminary experiments it was found that the most convenient for the manipulation with the tested samples was the enzyme-to-substrate ratio equal to 1:500 (*w*/w); in this case it was possible to track the biodegradation process up to almost 80% completion. The results of such measurements are given in Fig. 5 as the respective diagrams for the non-modified and succinylated albumin cryogels formed either in the presence of URE (Fig. 5A), or GHC (Fig. 5B).

It turned out that under the above-indicated conditions both types of the non-modified albumin cryogels were decomposed enzymatically



**Fig. 5.** Trypsin-induced degradation of the non-modified (grey columns) and succinylated (white columns) albumin-based cryogels prepared in the presence of 1-molar URE (A) or GHC (B) in the aqueous BSA solutions (50 g/L) frozen at -20 °C.

rather quickly – for about 3 days (Fig. 5, grey columns). At the same time, succinylated samples were markedly more resistant with respect to the trypsin-catalyzed hydrolysis: for the same 3 days the sponges lost no >10–12% of the initial dry matter content, and to the lapse of one week around 40–50% of these albumin sponges remained undigested (Fig. 5, white columns). Calculated values of the half-life for the proteinaceous cryogels of these types upon their trypsinolysis were as follows:

- (i) non-modified freeze-thaw gel formed in the presence of URE 38 h;
- (ii) succinylated cryogel derived from the sample (i) 192 h;
- (iii) non-modified freeze-thaw gel formed in the presence of GHC 42 h;
- (iv) succinylated cryogels derived from the sample (iii) 151 h.

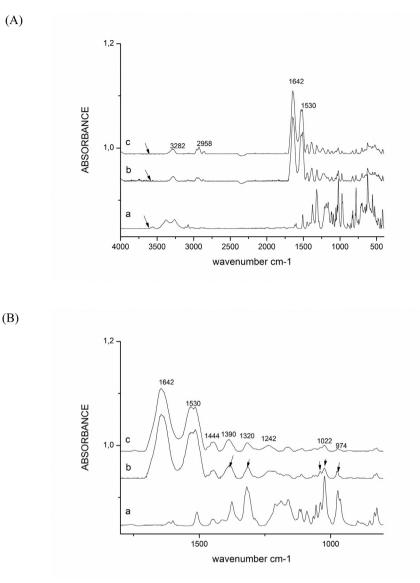
These results evidently testify that the suitability of the initial idea of this study was confirmed, thus showing the opportunities to vary the biodegradation rate of the serum-albumin-based spongy cryogels by applying the chemical modification (the succinylation in this case) approach.

The reasons for the observed deceleration of the trypsin-catalyzed hydrolysis of the succinylated BSA cryogels are sufficiently clear and can be explained from the knowledge on the substrate specificity of trypsin. Since this enzyme splits amide bonds in proteins and peptides after at the basic lysyl or arginyl monomeric units [90], the succinylation of the pendant lysyl  $\varepsilon$ -NH<sub>2</sub>-groups lowers the amount of the recognition sites for the enzymatic attack, i.e. "deteriorates" the substrate for this enzyme. As a result, the proteolysis efficiency decreases. The primary structure of BSA macromolecules is known to include 583 amino acid units, among them are 60 lysyl units [91], thus, there is a wide range for the variation of modification degree. It is also evident that the extent of similar modification can be adapted to the desirable level by a simple selection of the modifying reagent concentration and/or the reaction duration.

3.4. Dioxidine loading into the non-modified and succinylated BSA cryogels and release of the bactericide from such spongy carriers

In order to impart the antimicrobial properties to the cryogenicallystructured albumin-based sponges, the respective non-modified and succinylated biopolymeric matrices have been loaded with the bactericide agent, dioxidine (see Experimental Section 2.2.6). The main goal of this part of our study was to demonstrate the potential of similar sponges as the drug carriers and to show their possibilities to the efficient drug release. These experiments were carried out using the albumin cryogels prepared from the feed solutions that contained BSA (50 g/L), URE (1 mol/L) and CYS (0.01 mol/L). The dioxidine amount in the loaded sponges was found gravimetrically as the difference in the weight of the freeze-dried drug-loaded sponge and the weight of the respective freeze-dried non-loaded sample. The values thus determined were as follows (in milligrams of dioxidine per 1 g of dry sponge):  $79 \pm 1$  mg/g in the case of non-modified albumin sponges and  $114 \pm 2$  mg/g for the succinylated samples.

The IR spectra of both above-indicated types of loaded carriers turned out to be virtually akin (Fig. 6A). They contain bands that inherent in the BSA matrices themselves, e.g. the Amide I and II peaks (Fig. 3A), and, in addition, the spectra of dioxidine-loaded samples also have the bands related to the drug substance (Fig. 6B). Namely, these are the set of peaks at 1050–1020 cm<sup>-1</sup> refers to plane deformation vibrations of the CH groups of aromatic circle, vibrations at 974 and 825 cm<sup>-1</sup> relating to the off-plane deformation vibrations of these groups; the band at 1110 cm<sup>-1</sup> associating with the C-O-H group, and the peak at 1320 cm<sup>-1</sup> relating to the NO group. With that, the signal at 1515 cm<sup>-1</sup> is related to the Amide II band and quinoline ring vibration in the cryomodified form of dioxidine. The latter one is formed as



**Fig. 6.** IR spectra of the systems of dioxidine with non-modified (**a**) and succinylated (**b**) albumin-based cryogenically-structured sponges: 4000–400 cm<sup>-1</sup> wavenumber range (A) and 1600–800 cm<sup>-1</sup> wavenumber range (B).

a result of freezing and freeze-drying of dioxidine aqueous solutions; this form mainly contains the amorphous phase, some amount of hydrated crystalline phase and trace amount of anhydrous monoclinic crystal polymorph phase [92,93]. Broad absorption with the maximum at 3280 cm<sup>-1</sup> is concerned both with the NH modes of protonated amino groups in the protein and with the OH groups of dioxidine, which are linked into poly-associates, which is also characteristic for the dioxidine cryomodified form.

The presence of dioxidine in the drug-loaded sponges was also confirmed in the DSC experiments (Fig. 7). The thermograms obtained for the non-modified and succinylated albumin-based samples, both the dioxidine-bearing, contained two broad endothermic peaks. The first one is associated with the loss of water from the matrix at 355 K, and the second one at 503 K is concerned with thermal decomposition of the protein matrix. In turn, sharp exothermic peaks in both thermograms at 446 K relate to the thermal decomposition of dioxidine, and such peak is typical for this substance [92,93].

As it was indicated in the 'Introduction', the cryogenically-structured serum-albumin-based sponges are of biomedical interest as the biodegradable carriers for various medicaments, when such drug-loaded sponges are implemented for the treatment and healing of infected wounds [79]. In this regard, it was necessary to compare the character of the dioxidine release from the bactericide-bearing non-modified and succinylated cryogels in order to reveal possible differences induced

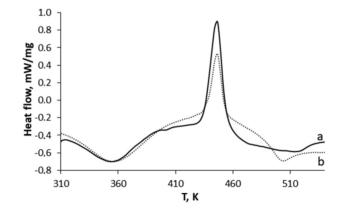


Fig. 7. DSC thermograms for the non-modified (a) and succinylated (b) albumin-based cryogenically-structured sponges both loaded with dioxidine.

by the succinvlation. The respective experiments have been carried out using two independent procedures: (i) with the spectrophotometric analysis of dioxidine release into a pure water from the loaded sponges followed by the dioxidine identification by UV and NMR spectroscopy (see Sections 2.2.6 and 2.2.8), as well as (ii) the efficiency of the bactericide properties of the same samples has been evaluated in the microbiological tests (see Section 2.2.10).

The kinetic curves of dioxidine release from the drug-loaded sponges are shown in Fig. 8. The dioxidine release from the nonmodified cryogels reached the maximum level for about 2 h (a, Fig. 8), while in the case of dioxidine-loaded succinylated sponge the release turned out to be considerably longer. The drug release in the outer solution continued for the >3 h (**b**, Fig. 8), and the resultant dioxidine concentration was higher. This result indicates that succinylated cryogenically-structured albumin-based sponge holds dioxidine molecules somewhat stronger compared to the non-modified sponge. With that, when the samples of these two kinds of loaded freeze-dried sponges had been immersed into the medium of D<sub>2</sub>O, and solutions of the released dioxidine have been analyzed with H<sup>1</sup> NMR, no differences between the samples, as well as the reference solution of pure dioxidine, were observed. All the spectra had the multiplet signals at the following  $\delta$  values: 4.93–5.21 ppm, CH<sub>2</sub> (4); 7.85–8.05 ppm, H Ar (2) and 8.38–8.52 ppm, H Ar (2). Since such spectral parameters are characteristic of the intact dioxidine, these data demonstrate the absence of changes in the structure of this substance being absorbed inside the wide-pore polymeric matrices of both the non-modified and succinylated albumin cryogels.

A higher capacity of succinylated cryogel with respect to dioxidine and a longer drug release in comparison with the drug-loaded nonmodified cryogel is, most probably, stipulated by the succinylationcaused larger amount of carboxylic groups in the chemical structure of the former polymeric matrix. Since the dioxidine molecule itself has two OH groups (Fig. 9) capable of H-bonding with the carboxylic ones, their higher amount in the sorbent could bind a higher amount of the OH-bearing sorbate and, probably, could hold such substance somewhat stronger than the sorbent with a lower content of COOHfunctions.

The data on the dioxidine release was shown to be in a good agreement with the results on the evaluation of antibacterial activity of the systems studied. These experiments were carried out using two test bacterial cultures: *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus* (see Section 2.2.10). The disc-diffusion procedure was employed, when the diameter of the so-called growth inhibition zones was measured. Such zones are formed owing to the bactericide release from its carrier in the microbial mat onto the solid nutritional medium. It was found that around the non-modified dioxidine-loaded cryogel discs these zones were 15.7  $\pm$  1.0 mm for the *E. coli* cells and 20.1  $\pm$  0.8 mm for the *S. aureus* bacteria (1; Fig. 10). In turn, the growth inhibition zones around the

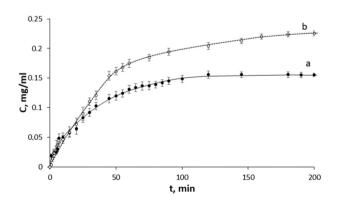


Fig. 8. Kinetic curves of dioxidine release from the drug-loaded non-modified (a) and succinylated (b) albumin-based cryogel samples.

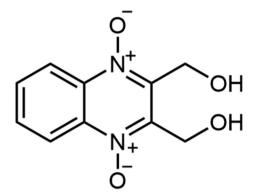
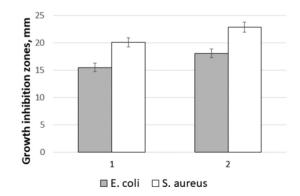


Fig. 9. Chemical structure of dioxidine molecule according to the data of ref. [94].

succinylated dioxidine-bearing cryogel discs were wider, namely,  $17.9 \pm 1.2$  mm in the case of *E. coli* cells and  $22.9 \pm 1.2$  mm for the *S. aureus* bacteria (2; Fig. 10). Thus, these experiments showed that the bactericide activity of the dioxidine-loaded sponges based on the succinylated albumin was higher in comparison with the activity of dioxidine-loaded sponges based on the non-modified albumin. Primarily, it was because of the higher dioxidine content in the former sponges.

# 4. Conclusions

Serum-albumin-based spongy cryogels, thanks to their biocompatibility and biodegradability, have certain applied potential as the materials for biomedical implementation. In this study we examined the possibilities that the approaches for the chemical modification of proteins, their succinvlation in this case, could provide for slowing the biodegradation of such wide-porous gel matrices. The latter ones have been prepared via the cryogenic processing (freezing – frozen storage - thawing) of aqueous solutions containing bovine serum albumin, denaturant (urea or guanidine hydrochloride) and reductant (cysteine). It was shown that the gel-fraction yield values were higher for the systems when guanidine hydrochloride was used as the denaturant in comparison with the cases when urea additives were introduced in the feed solutions. The treatment of the resultant cryogels with succinic anhydride yielded the N-acylation of free lysyl amino groups of the protein and some increase in the water-absorbing capability of the polymeric phase (walls of macropores) of these heterophase materials. The juxtaposition of the digestibility by trypsin of the non-modified and succinvlated albumin cryogels revealed an increase in the resistance of the latter ones against the proteolysis. Such result clearly shows the opportunities to vary the biodegradation rate of the serumalbumin-based spongy cryogels by applying the chemical modification



**Fig. 10.** The growth inhibition zones of *E. coli* and *S. aureus* cells around the dioxidine-loaded non-modified cryogel discs (1) and the dioxidine-loaded succinylated cryogel discs (2).

(the succinylation in this case) approach. In addition, both the nonmodified and succinylated sponges have been loaded with dioxidine, the bactericide substance, and we found that increased amount of carboxylic groups in the succinylated matrices allowed absorbing a higher dioxidine specific amount. Subsequent microbiological tests also showed a higher bactericide activity of dioxidine-loaded succinylated albumin cryogels compared to the dioxidine-loaded non-modified sponges. As a whole, the results of this study testify on certain promising prospects (e.g., for the biomedical aims) of both the non-modified and modified cryogenically-structured serum-albumin-based sponges capable of serving as the biodegradable drug-carriers.

# **Declaration of competing interest**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interests.

#### Acknowledgments

The work on obtaining of albumin cryogels, their chemical modification and studying their properties was supported by a grant from the Russian Science Foundation (project No. 16-13-10-365); the biodegradation tests were carried out as a part of the project of the Presidium of the Russian Academy of Sciences within the program "Basic research for the development of biomedical technologies for 2018 –2020 years".

#### References

- V.I. Lozinsky, Cryogels on the basis of natural and synthetic polymers: preparation, properties and areas of implementation, Russ. Chem. Rev. 71 (2002) 489–511, https://doi.org/10.1070/RC2002V071N06ABEH000720.
- O. Okay (Ed.), Polymeric Cryogels: Macroporous Gels With Remarkable Properties, Springer, Cham e.a, 2014https://doi.org/10.1007/978-319-05846-7, 330 p.
- [3] A. Kumar (Ed.), Supermacroporous Cryogels: Biomedical and Biotechnological Applications, CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group, LLC, Boca Raton, 2016, (480 p. ISBN 978-1-4822-281-6).
- [4] V.I. Lozinsky, Cryostructuring of polymer systems. 50. Cryogels and cryotropic gelformation: terms and definitions, Gels 4 (2018) 77, https://doi.org/10.3390/ gels4030077.
- [5] K.C. Chu, B.K. Rutt, Poly(vinyl alcohol) cryogel: an ideal phantom material for NMR studies of arterial flow and elasticity, Magn. Reson. Med. 37 (1997) 314–319, https://doi.org/10.1002/mrm.1910370220.
- [6] K.J.M. Surry, H.J.B. Austin, A. Fenster, T.M. Peters, Poly(vinyl alcohol) cryogel phantoms for use in ultrasound and MR imaging, Phys. Med. Biol. 49 (2004) 5529–5546, https://doi.org/10.1088/0031-9155/49/24/009.
- [7] P.R. Hoskins, Simulation and validation of arterial ultrasound imagining and blood flow, Ultrasound Med. Biol. 34 (2008)https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ultrasmedbio.2007. 10.017 (693-517).
- [8] M.I. Baker, S.P. Walsh, Z. Schwatz, B.D. Boyan, A review of polyvinyl alcohol and its uses in cartilage and orthopedic applications, J. Biomed. Mater. Res. 100B (2012) 1451–1457, https://doi.org/10.1002/jmb.b32694.
- [9] M.S. Shoichet, Polymer scaffolds for biomaterials applications, Macromolecules 43 (2010) 581–591, https://doi.org/10.1021/ma901530r.
- [10] T.M.A. Henderson, K. Ladewig, D.N. Haylock, K.M. McLean, A.J. O'Connor, Cryogels for biomedical applications, J. Mater. Chem. Part B. 1 (2013) 2682–2695, https://doi. org/10.1021/ma901530r.
- [11] W. Wan, A.D. Bannerman, L. Yang, H. Mak, Poly(vinyl alcohol) cryogels for biomedical application, Adv. Polym. Sci. 263 (2014) 283–321, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-05846-7\_8.
- [12] A. Timofejeva, M. D'Este, D. Loca, Calcium phosphate/polyvinyl alcohol composite hydrogels: a review on the freeze-thaw synthesis approach and applications in regenerative medicine, Eur. Polym. J. 95 (2017) 547–565, https://doi.org/10.1016/j. eurpolymj.2017.08.048.
- [13] A. Memic, T. Colombani, L.J. Eggermont, M. Rezaeeyazdi, J. Steingold, Z.J. Rogers, K.J. Navare, H.S. Mohammed, S.A. Bencherif, Latest advances in cryogel technology for biomedical applications, Adv. Therap. 2 (2019), 1800114. https://doi.org/10.1002/ adtp.201800114.
- [14] V.I. Lozinsky, A.V. Vakula, A.L. Zubov, Application of poly(vinyl alcohol) cryogels in biotechnology. IV. Literature data overview, Sov. Biotechnol. (4) (1992) 4–17 (ISSN:0890-734X).
- [15] V.I. Lozinsky, F.M. Plieva, Poly(vinyl alcohol) cryogels employed as matrices for cell immobilization. 3. Overview of recent research and developments, Enzym. Microb. Technol. 23 (1998) 227–242, https://doi.org/10.1016/S-0141-0229(98)00036-2.
- [16] V.I. Lozinsky, F.M. Plieva, I.Y. Galaev, B. Mattiasson, The potential of polymeric cryogels in bioseparation, Bioseparation 10 (2001) 163–188, https://doi.org/10. 1023/A: 1016386902611.

- [17] V.I. Lozinsky, I.Y. Galaev, F.M. Plieva, I.N. Savina, H. Jungvid, B. Mattiasson, Polymeric cryogels as promising materials of biotechnological interest, Trends Biotechnol. 21 (2003) 445–451, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tibtech.2003.08.002.
- [18] M.B. Daniak, I.Y. Galaev, A. Kumar, F.M. Plieva, B. Mattiasson, Chromatography of living cells using supermacroporous hydrogels, cryogels, Adv. Biochem. Engin./ Biotechnol. 106 (2007) 101–127, https://doi.org/10.1007/10\_2006\_044.
- [19] F.M. Plieva, I.Y. Galaev, W. Noppe, B. Mattiasson, Cryogel applications in microbiology, Trends Microbiol. 16 (2008) 543–551, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tim.2008.08. 005.
- [20] A. Kumar, A. Bhardwaj, Methods in cell separation for biomedical application: cryogels as a new tool, Biomed. Mater. 3 (2008), 034008. https://doi.org/10.1088/ 1748-6041/3/3/034008.
- [21] V.I. Lozinsky, New generation of macroporous and supermacroporous materials of biotechnological interest – polymeric cryogels, Russ. Chem. Bull. 57 (2008) 1015–1032 (doi:10.1007/s11172-008-0131-7).
- [22] B. Mattiasson, Cryogels for biotechnological applications, Adv. Polym. Sci. 263 (2014) 245–282, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-05846-7\_7.
- [23] B.M.A. Carvalho, S.L. Da Silva, L.H.M. Da Silva, V.P.R. Minim, M.C.H. Da Silva, L.M. Carvalho, L.A. Minim, Cryogel poly(acrylamide): synthesis, structure and applications, Sep. Purif. Rev. 43 (2014) 241–262, https://doi.org/10.1080/15422119.2013. 795902.
- [24] M. Andaç, I.Y. Galaev, A. Denizli, Affinity based and molecular imprinted cryogels: applications in biomacromolecule purification, J. Chromatorg. 1021B (2016) 69–80, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chromb.2015.09.034.
- [25] N. Ganewatta, Z. El Rassi, Organic polymer-based monolithic stationary phases with incorporated nanostructured materials for HPLC and SEC, Electrophoresis 39 (2018) 53–66, https://doi.org/10.1002/elps.201700312.
- [26] S. Cohen, J. Leor, Rebuilding broken hearts, Sci. Am. 291 (2004) 44–51, https://doi. org/10.1038/scientificamerican1104-44.
- [27] D. Singh, V. Nayak, A. Kumar, Proliferation of myoblast skeletal cells on threedimensional supermacroporous cryogels, Int. J. Biol. Sci. 6 (2010) 371–381 (doi: none).
- [28] Y.A. Petrenko, R.V. Ivanov, A.Y. Petrenko, V.I. Lozinsky, Coupling of gelatin to inner surfaces of pore walls in spongy alginate-based scaffolds facilitates the adhesion, growth and differentiation of human bone marrow mesenchymal stromal cells, J. Mater. Sci. Mater. Med. 22 (2011) 1529–1540, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10856-011-4323-6.
- [29] S.C. Rodrigues, C.L. Salgado, A. Sahu, M.P. Garcia, M.H. Fernandes, F.J. Monteiro, Preparation and characterization of collagen-nanohydroxyapatite biocomposite scaffolds by cryogelation method for bone tissue engineering applications, J. Biomed. Mater. Res. 101A (2013) 1080–1094, https://doi.org/10.1002/jbm.a.34394.
- [30] K.R. Hixon, T. Lu, A.A. Sell, A comprehensive review of cryogels and their roles in tissue engineering applications, Acta Biomater. 62 (2017) 29–41, https://doi.org/10. 1016/j.actbio.2017.08.033.
- [31] P.A. Shiekh, A. Singh, A. Kumar, Oxygen-releasing antioxidant cryogel scaffolds with sustained oxygen delivery for tissue engineering applications, ACS Appl. Mater. Interfaces 10 (2018) 18458–18469, https://doi.org/10.1021/acsami.8b01736.
- [32] P. Zarrintaj, S. Manouchehri, Z. Ahmadi, M.R. Seab, A.M. Urbanska, D.L. Kaplan, M. Mozafari, Agarose-based biomaterials for tissue engineering, Carbohydr. Polym. 187 (2018) 66–84, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2018.01.060.
- [33] M. Bakhshpour, N. Idil, I. Perçin, A. Denizli, Biomedical application of polymeric cryogels, Appl. Sci. 9 (2019) 553, https://doi.org/10.3390/app9030553.
- [34] M. Razavi, Y. Qiao, A.S. Thakor, Three-dimensional cryogels for biomedical applications, J. Biomed. Mater. Res. 107A (2019) 2736–2755, https://doi.org/10.1002/jbm. a.36777.
- [35] S.D. Varfolomeev, E.I. Rainina, V.I. Lozinsky, Cryoimmobilized enzymes and cells in organic synthesis, Pure Appl. Chem. 64 (1992) 1193–1196, https://doi.org/10. 1351/pac 199264081193.
- [36] U. Prüsse, S. Horold, K.-D. Vorlop, Verkapselung mikroskopischer katalysatoren in gelförmigen polymernetzwerken, Chem. Ing. Tech. 69 (1997) 100–103, https:// doi.org/10.1002/cite.330690116.
- [37] U. Prüsse, M. Hähnlein, J. Daum, K.-D. Vorlop, Improving the catalytic nitrate reduction, Catal. Today 55 (2000) 79–90, https://doi.org/10.1016/S0920-5861(99)00228-X.
- [38] A.V. Bacheva, F.M. Plieva, E.N. Lysogorskaya, I.Y. Filippova, V.I. Lozinsky, Peptide synthesis in organic media with subtilisin 72 immobilized on poly(vinyl alcohol)cryogel carrier, Bioorg. Med. Chem. Lett. 11 (2001) 1005–1008, https://doi.org/10. 1016/S0960-894X(01)00113-5.
- [39] E.N. Efremenko, I.V. Lyagin, V.I. Lozinsky, Enzymatic biocatalysts immobilized on/in the cryogel-type carriers, in: A. Kumar (Ed.), Supermacroporous Cryogels: Biomedical and Biotechnological Applications, CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group, LLC, Boca Raton, USA 2016, pp. 301–324, (ISBN:9781482228816).
- [40] S.E. Kudaibergenov, Physicochemical, complexation and catalytic properties of polyampholyte cryogels, Gels 5 (2019) 8, https://doi.org/10.3390/gels5010008.
- [41] D. Ceylan, S. Dogu, B. Karacik, S.D. Yakan, O.S. Okay, O. Okay, Evaluation of butyl rubber as sorbent material for the removal of oil and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons from seawater, Environ. Sci. Technol. 43 (2009) 3846–3852, https://doi.org/10. 1021/es900166v.
- [42] I. Karakutuk, O. Okay, Macroporous rubber gels as reusable sorbents for the removal of oil from surface waters, React. Funct. Polym. 70 (2010) 585–595, https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.reactfunctpolym.2010.05.015.
- [43] P.E. Hande, A.B. Samui, P.S. Kulkarni, Highly selective monitoring of metals by using ion-imprinted polymers, Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 22 (2015) 7375–7404, https://doi. org/10.1007/s11356-014-3937-x.

- [44] H. Bektaş, M. Andaç, K. Çetin, T. Qureshi, A. Denizli, Development of ion-imprinted cryogels for selective removal of arsenic from environmental waters, Biointerface Res. Appl. Chem. 9 (2019) 4119–4125, https://doi.org/10.33263/BRIAC94.119125.
- [45] F. Guo, Y. Wang, X. Chen, M. Chen, W. He, Z. Chen, Supermacroporous polydivinylbenzene cryogels with high surface area: synthesis by solvothermal postcrosslinking and their adsorption behaviors for carbon dioxide and aniline, J. Appl. Polym. Sci. 136 (2019), 47716. https://doi.org/10.1002/app.47716.
- [46] E.S. Dragan, D. Humelnicu, M.V. Dinu, Development of chitosan-poly (ethyleneimine) based double network cryogels and their application as superadsorbents for phosphate, Carbohydr. Polym. 210 (2019) 17–25, https://doi. org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2019.01.054.
- [47] Y. Privar, D. Shashura, A. Pestov, E. Modin, A. Baklykov, D. Marinin, S. Bratskaya, Metal-chelate sorbents based on carboxyalkylchitosans: ciprofloxacin uptake by Cu(II) and Al(III)-chelated cryogels of N-(2-carboxyethyl) chitosan, Int. J. Biol. Macromol. 131 (2019) 806–811, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijbiomac.2019.03.122.
  [48] G.R. Ul'yabaeva, E.A. Podorozhko, N.R. Kil'deeva, V.I. Lozinsky, Study of the acidic
- [48] G.R. Ul'yabaeva, E.A. Podorozhko, N.R. Kil'deeva, V.I. Lozinsky, Study of the acidic textle dye sorption from aqueous solutions by the chitosan-containing composite cryogel of poly(vinyl alcohol), Fibre Chemistry 51 (2019) 199–203, https://doi. org/10.1007/s10692-019-10074-9.
- [49] O.V. Vernaya, V.P. Shabatin, A.V. Nuzhdina, N.D. Zvukova, D.I. Khvatov, A.M. Semenov, V.I. Lozinsky, T.I. Shabatina, M.Y. Mel'nikov, Cryochemical synthesis and antibacterial activity of hybrid nanocomposites of dioxydine with Ag and Cu nanoparticles entrapped in biopolymeric cryostructurates, Russ. Chem. Bull. 66 (2017) 2152–2156 (doi:10.1066-5285/17/6611-2152).
- [50] T.I. Shabatina, O.I. Vernaya, A.V. Nuzhdina, N.D. Zvukova, V.P. Shabatin, A.M. Semenov, V.I. Lozinsky, M.Y. Mel'nikov, Hybrid nanosystems on the basis of antibacterial medicine dioxydine and metallic nanoparicles (Ag, Cu) entrapped to the biopolymeric cryostructures, Nanotechnologies in Russia 13 (2018) 182–188, https://doi.org/10.1134/S1995078018020106.
- [51] D. Luong, A.A. Yergeshov, M. Zoughaib, F.R. Sadykova, B.I. Gareev, I.N. Savina, T.I. Abdullin, Transition metal-doped cryogels as bioactive materials for wound healing applications, Mater. Sci. Eng. Part C 103 (2019) 109759, https://doi.org/10.1016/j. msec.2019.109759.
- [52] A. Srivastava, E. Jain, A. Kumar, The physical characterization of supermacroporous poly(N-isopropylacrylamide) cryogel: mechanical strength and swelling/deswelling kinetics, Mater. Sci. Eng. Part A 464 (2007) 93–100, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.msea. 2007.03.057.
- [53] G.A. Komarova, S.G. Starodubtsev, V.I. Lozinsky, E.V. Kalinina, K. Landfester, A.R. Khokhlov, Intelligent gels and cryogels with entrapped emulsions, Langmuir 24 (2008) 4467–4469, https://doi.org/10.1021/la703983v.
- [54] N. Sahiner, Supermacroporous poly(N-isopropylacrylamide) cryogel for separation purpose, Polym. Adv. Technol. 29 (2018) 2184–2191, https://doi.org/10.1002/pat. 4326.
- [55] L.K. Altunina, V.A. Kuvshinov, S.N. Dolgikh, Cryogels a promising material for underground works in permafrost, in: S. Lombardi, L.K. Altunina, S.E. Beaubien (Eds.), Advances in Geological Storage of Carbon Dioxide, NATO Science Series IV, vol. 65, Springer, Heidelberg 2006, pp. 103–110, ISBN-13:978-1-4020-4469-4.
- [56] L.K. Altunina, M.S. Fufaeva, D.A. Filatov, L.I. Svarovskaya, E.A. Zhuk, O.G. Bender, The method of soils protection from erosion with the use of cryogels and perennials, TSPU Bulletin (7) (2012) 177–183 (/in Russian/, ISSN:1609-624X).
- [57] L.K. Altunina, M.S. Fufaeva, D.A. Filatov, L.I. Scarovskaya, E.A. Rozhdestvenskii, T. Gan-Erdene, Effect of cryogel on soil properties, Euroasian Soil Sci 47 (2014) 425–431, https://doi.org/10.1134/S1064229314010025.
- [58] V.B. Tolstoguzov, E.E. Braudo, Fabricated foodstuffs as multicomponent gels, J. Texture Stud. 14 (1983) 183–212, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-4603.1983.tb00344.x.
- [59] R. Lawrence, F. Consolacion, P. Jelen, Formation of structured protein foods by freeze texturization, Food Technol. 40 (1986) 77–90 (ISSN:0015-6639).
- [60] E. Butnaru, C.N. Cheaburu, O. Yilmaz, G.M. Pricope, C. Vasile, Poly(vinyl alcohol)/chitosan/montmorillonite nanocomposites for food packing applications: influence of montmorillonite content, High Perform. Polym. 28 (2016) 1124–1138, https://doi. org/10.1177/0954008315617231.
- [61] N.K. Vasiliev, A.A. Ivanov, V.V. Sokurov, I.N. Shatalina, K.N. Vasilyev, Strength properties of ice-soil composites created by method of cryotropic gel formation, Cold Reg. Sci. Technol. 70 (2012) 94–97, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coldregions.2011.09.003.
- [62] N.K. Vasiliev, A.D.C. Pronk, I.N. Shatalina, F.H.M.E. Janssen, R.W.G. Houben, A review on the development of reinforced ice for use as a building material in cold regions, Cold Reg. Sci. Technol. 115 (2015) 56–63, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coldregions. 2015.03.006.
- [63] V.M. Gun'ko, I.N. Savina, S.V. Mikhalovsky, Cryogels: morphological, structural and adsorption characterization, Adv. Colloid Interf. Sci. 187–188 (2013) 1–46, https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.cis.2012.11.001.
- [64] V.I. Lozinsky, O. Okay, Basic principles of cryotropic gelation, Adv. Polym. Sci. 263 (2014) 49–101, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-05846-7\_2.
- [65] O. Okay, V.I. Lozinsky, Synthesis, structure-property relationships of cryogels, Adv. Polym. Sci. 263 (2014) 103–157, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-05846-7\_3.
- [66] C. Liu, G. Tong, C. Chen, Z. Tan, C. Quan, C. Zhang, Polymeric cryogel: preparation, properties and biomedical applications, Progr. Chem. 26 (2014) 1190–1201, https://doi.org/10.7536/PC140150.
- [67] S. Reichelt, Introduction to macroporous cryogels, Meth. Molec. Biol. 1286 (2015) 173–181, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4939-2447-9\_14.
- [68] A. Damania, A.K. Teotia, A. Kumar, Synthesis and characterization of cryogels, in: A. Kumar (Ed.), Supermacroporous Cryogels: Biomedical and Biotechnological

Applications, CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group, LLC, Boca Raton 2016, pp. 35–89, (ISBN:9781482228816).

- [69] V.I. Lozinsky, Cryostructuring of polymeric systems as a tool for the creation of innovative materials of biomedical purposes, in: M.Yu. Melnikov, L.I. Trakhtenberg (Eds.), Synthesis and Functional Properties of Hydrid Nanoforms of Bioactive and Drug Substances, "Tekhnosfera" publishing house. Moscow, Russian Federation 2019, pp. 68–100, Chapter 3. (/in Russian/, ISBN:978-5-94836-561-9).
- [70] E. Caló, V.V. Khutoryanskiy, Biomedical applications of hydrogels: a review of patents and commercial products, Eur. Polym. J. 65 (2015) 252–267, https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.eurpolymj.2014.11.024.
- [71] I.A. Rodionov, E.S. Sinitskaya, R.V. Ivanov, A.V. Tsiskarashvili, V.I. Lozinsky, M.Yu. Melnikov, LI. Trakhtenberg, Proteinaceous cryogels and cryostructurates, Synthesis and Functional Properties of Hydrid Nanoforms of Bioactive and Drug Substances, "Tekhnosfera" publishing house. Moscow, Russian Federation 2019, pp. 101–135, Chapter 4. (/in Russian/, ISBN:978-5-94836-561-9).
- [72] S. Van Vlierberghe, P. Dubruel, E. Lippens, B. Masschaele, L. Van Hoorebeke, M. Cornelissen, R. Unger, C.J. Kirkpstrick, E. Schacht, Toward modulating the architecture of hydrogel scaffolds: curtains versus channels, J. Mater. Sci. Mater. Med. 19 (2008) 1459–1466, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10856-008-3375-8.
- [73] D. Berillo, N. Volkova, Preparation and physicochemical characteristics of cryogel based on gelatin and oxidised dextran, J. Mater. Sci. 49 (2014) 4855–4868, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10853-014-8186-3.
- [74] S. Gorgieva, V. Kokol, Processing of gelatin-based cryogels with improved thermomechanical resistance, pore size gradient, and high potential for sustainable protein drug release, J. Biomed. Mater. Res. 103A (2015) 1119–1130, https://doi. org/10.1002/jbm.a.35261.
- [75] S. Van Vlierberghe, Crosslinking strategies for porous gelatin scaffolds, J. Mater. Sci. 51 (2016) 4349–4357, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10853-016-9747-4.
- [76] V.I. Lozinsky, N.R. Konstantinova, N.I. Solov'eva, Method for the preparation of porous protein gel, Russ. Pat. #2,058,083 (1994).
- [77] I.A. Rodionov, N.V. Grinberg, T.V. Burova, V.Y. Grinberg, V.I. Lozinsky, Cryostructuring of polymeric systems. 40. Proteinaceous wide-pore cryogels generated by the action of denaturant/reductant mixtures on bovine serum albumin in moderately-frozen aqueous media, Soft Matter 11 (2015) 4921–4931, https://doi. org/10.1039/C4SM02814G.
- [78] I.A. Rodionov, N.V. Grinberg, T.V. Burova, V.Y. Grinberg, V.I. Lozinsky, Study of cryostructuring of polymeric systems. 42. Physical-chemical properties and microstructure of wide-porous covalently cross-linked albumin cryogels, Colloid J 78 (2016) 492–504, https://doi.org/10.1134/S1061933X1603011X.
- [79] V.I. Lozinsky, I.A. Rodionov, A.V. Tsiskarashvili, N.A. Es'kin, Antibacterial protein sponge for chemotherapy of infected wounds and method of its preparation, Russ, Pat. #2 637 (2016) 634.
- [80] A.F. Carne, Chemical modification of proteins, Methods Mol. Biol. 32 (1994) 311–320 (doi: none).
- [81] C.D. Spicer, B.G. Davis, Selective chemical protein modification, Nat. Commun. 5 (2014) #4740, https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms5740.
- [82] N.R. Konstantinova, V.I. Lozinsky, Cryotropic gelation of ovalbumin solutions, Food Hydrocoll. 11 (1997) 113–123, https://doi.org/10.1016/S0268-005X(97)80019-7.
- [83] V. Küdela, Hydrogels, Encyclopedia of Polymer Science and Engineering, v.7, J.Wiley & Sons, New York e.a 1987, pp. 783–807, (ISBN-13:978-0471806493).
- [84] C.E. Dempsey, T.J. Piggot, P.E. Mason, Dissecting contributions to the denaturant sensitivities of proteins, Biochemistry 44 (2005) 775–781, https://doi.org/10.1021/ bi048389g.
- [85] J.N. Scott, N.V. Nucci, J.M. Vanderkooi, Changes in water structure induced by the guanidinium cation and implications for protein denaturation, J. Phys. Chem. Part A. 112 (2008) 10939–10948, https://doi.org/10.1021/jp8058239.
- [86] R.E. Feeney, Food Proteins: Improvement Through Chemical and Enzymatic Modification, ACS, Washington D.C, 1977 (312 p. ISBN:0-8412-0339-3).
- [87] S.H. Kim, J.E. Kinsella, Surface active properties of proteins: effects of progressive succinylation on film properties and foam stability of glycinin, J. Food Sci. 52 (1987) 1341–1345, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2621.1987.tb14077.x.
- [88] https://www.bbraun.com.my/content/dam/catalog/bbraun/bbraunProductCatalog/ CW\_MY/en-my/b2/12610923-0415-gelofusine.pdf.bb-.05020315/12610923-0415gelofusine.pdf.
- [89] M.J. Shultz, T.H. Vu, B. Meyer, P. Bisson, Water: a responsive small molecule, Acc. Chem. Res. 45 (2011) 15–22, https://doi.org/10.1021/ar200064z.
- [90] M. Dixon, E.C. Webb, "Enzymes", Longman, USA, 1979 (1176 p, ISBN-13:978-0582462175).
- [91] T. Peters, All About Albumin: Biochemistry, Genetics, and Medical Application, Academic Press, London, 1995 (432 p. ISBN:0-12-552110-9).
- [92] G.B. Sergeev, V.A. Batyuk, Reactions in frozen multicomponent systems, Russ. Chem. Rev. 45 (1976) 391–408, https://doi.org/10.1070/RC1976v045n05ABEH002644.
- [93] T.I. Shabatina, O.I. Vernaya, V.P. Shabatin, I.V. Evseeva, M.Ya. Melnikov, A.N. Fitch, V.V. Chernyshev, Cryochemically obtained nanoforms of antimicrobial drug substance dioxidine and their physico-chemical and structural properties, Crystals 8 (2018) 298, https://doi.org/10.3390/cryst8070298.
- [94] A.S. Elina, I.S. Musatova, E.M. Peresleni, E.N. Padeiskaya, Synthesis, structure, and biological properties of N-oxides of some 2-substituted quinoxalines and pyrazines, Chem. Heterocycl. Compd. 12 (1976) (1976) 239–244, https://doi.org/10.1007/ BF00523980.