Bone-Tissue-Engineering Material Poly(propylene fumarate): Correlation between Molecular Weight, Chain Dimensions, and Physical Properties

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Received February 2, 2006; Revised Manuscript Received March 18, 2006

Poly(propylene fumarate) (PPF) is an important biodegradable and cross-linkable polymer designed for bone-tissue-engineering applications. For the first time we report the extensive characterization of this biomaterial including molecular weight dependences of physical properties such as glass transition temperature $T_{\rm g}$, thermal degradation temperature $T_{\rm d}$, density ρ , melt viscosity η_0 , hydrodynamic radius $R_{\rm H}$, and intrinsic viscosity [η]. The temperature dependence of η_0 changes progressively with molecular weight, whereas it can be unified when the temperature is normalized to $T_{\rm g}$. The plateau modulus $G_{\rm N}^0$ and entanglement molecular weight $M_{\rm e}$ have been obtained from the rheological master curves. A variety of chain microstructure parameters such as the Mark—Houwink—Sakurada constants K and α , characteristic ratio C_{∞} , unperturbed chain dimension r_0^2/M , packing length p, Kuhn length p, and tube diameter p have been deduced. Further correlation between the microstructure and macroscopic physical properties has been discussed in light of recent progress in polymer dynamics to supply a better understanding about this unsaturated polyester to advance its biomedical uses. The molecular weight dependence of p for six polymer species including PPF has been summarized to support that p is irrelevant for the finite length effect on the glass transition, whereas surprisingly these polymers can be divided into two groups when their normalized p is plotted simply against p to indicate the deciding roles of inherent chain properties such as chain fragility, intermolecular cooperativity, and chain end mobility.

Introduction

The diverse clinical needs for bone regeneration include applications arising from resection of primary and metastatic tumors, bone loss after skeletal trauma, total joint arthroplasty with bone deficiency, spinal arthrodesis, and trabecular voids. Polymeric biomaterials with satisfactory properties in biocompatibility, mechanical properties, osteoconductivity, sterilizability, and handling characteristics are the most attractive substitute for autologous bone or allograft bone. Recently developed injectable materials have fulfilled many design criteria for diverse orthopedic applications. One promising candidate material of this type is poly(propylene fumarate) (PPF) (Scheme 1), an unsaturated linear polyester that can be modified or crosslinked through its fumarate double bonds. 1-6 PPF can be crosslinked via radical polymerization by itself or with cross-linkers such as methyl methacrylate, N-vinyl pyrrolidinone (NVP), and biodegradable macromers of PPF-diacrylate or poly(ethylene glycol)-diacrylate.⁵ PPF degrades by simple hydrolysis of the ester bonds and the degradation time depends on polymer characteristics such as molecular weight, type of cross-linker, and cross-linking density. 1-6 Although many efforts 1-6 have been made to explore the biomedical applications of PPF-based materials, which often were used in cross-linked form, there still lacks comprehensive physical characterizations and rheological understanding of this polymer in its un-cross-linked form.

In this work, we report the molecular weight dependence of various important parameters such as glass transition temperature

Scheme 1. Chemical Structure of PPF

 $(T_{\rm g})$, thermal degradation temperature $(T_{\rm d})$, and polymer density ρ. Rheological characteristics of PPF including melt viscosity and its temperature dependence and intrinsic viscosity $[\eta]$ in tetrahydrofuran at 30 °C have also been assessed. These parameters are crucial in processing PPF and choosing optimal molecular weights to construct bone-tissue-engineering scaffolds using both fabrication methods of injection molding and stereolithography. Furthermore, a variety of chain microstructure parameters including the Mark-Houwink-Sakurada constants, characteristic ratio, unperturbed chain dimension, packing length, Kuhn length, and tube diameter have been calculated using the theory in polymer dynamics. Finally, the correlation between the microstructure and macroscopic physical properties will be discussed and the molecular weight dependence of T_g will be further emphasized together with another five polymer species. Therefore, the objective of this work is not only to supply an extensive library of important chain parameters and physical properties of PPF but also to further examine the validity of state-of-art theoretical work on chain dynamics on unsaturated polyesters and investigate the finite length effect on glass transition using PPF as a model polymer.

Experimental Section

PPF was produced as previously described.⁶ Briefly, diethyl fumarate (DEF) and an excess amount of 1,2-propane diol were mixed together

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Table 1. Physical Properties of Representative PPF Samples

no.	M _w (g·mol ⁻¹)	<i>M</i> _n (g•mol ⁻¹)	$M_{\rm w}/M_{\rm n}$	T _g (°C)	T _d (°C)	$ ho$ (g•cm $^{-3}$) a	η₀ (Pa⋅s) at 40 °C	C_1^b	C₂ (°C)b	[η] (dL ⁻¹ ·g) ^c
1	1130	800	1.61	-22.4	336	1.239	24	6.7	121.6	0.029
2	1640	1160	1.42	-12.5	344	1.256	120	6.5	97.4	0.036
3	2530	1460	1.73	2.8	343	1.267	2370	8.8	94.2	0.045
4	3340	1760	1.90	8.6			11 600	8.8	75.7	
5	4370	2030	2.16	9.0			34 400	9.8	81.3	
6	5830	2460	2.37	17.8	347	1.278	230 000	11	81.2	
7	7910	3460	2.29	24.2	351	1.276	840 000	8.7	76.9	0.086
8	17 900	11 200	1.60	28.9	345			9.0	70.9	

^a Measured at 20 °C. ^b Reference temperature $T_0 = 25$ °C for PPF1-6, 40 °C for PPF7, and 50 °C for PPF8. ^c Intrinsic viscosity was measured in THF at 30.0 \pm 0.05 °C.

in a flask with hydroquinone as a cross-linking inhibitor and zinc chloride as a polymerization catalyst. The reaction was first performed to obtain the fumaric diester at 100 °C for 1 h and then 150 °C for 7 h. The excess of 1,2-propane diol and the byproduct ethanol were removed. Then the intermediate was transesterified under vacuum to form the linear PPF with 28 different molecular weights by varying the polymerization time or temperature. Polymer fractionation was carried out using methylene chloride solutions with ether as the nonsolvent.

Gel permeation chromatography (GPC) was performed with a Waters 717 Plus autosampler GPC system (Waters, Milford, MA) connected to a model 515 HPLC pump and model 2410 refractive index detector. Monodisperse polystyrene standards (Polysciences, Warrington, PA) with four molecular weights (474, 6690, 18 600, and 38 000 g·mol⁻¹) were used to obtain a universal calibration curve for calculating the molecular weights of the polymers herein.

Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) was done on a TA Instruments DSC Q1000 differential scanning calorimeter at a heating rate of 10 °C/min under nitrogen. To keep the same thermal history, each sample was preheated from room temperature to 100 °C and cooled to -90 °C at a cooling rate of 5 °C/min. Then the DSC scan was recorded via heating from -90 to 100 °C. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was done using a TA model Q500 thermal analyst in flowing nitrogen at a heating rate of 20 °C/min.

Linear viscoelastic properties of PPF melts and solutions in DEF were measured by a dynamic mechanical spectrometer (AR2000 rheometer, TA instruments) at frequencies ranging from 0.1 to 628.3 rad/s and at various temperatures between 0 and 100 °C. Oscillatory shear measurements were carried out using a 20 mm diameter parallel plate flow cell with a geometry gap of 1.0 mm to measure the storage and loss moduli G' and G'' and the zero-shear viscosity η_0 . A small strain ($\gamma < 0.05$) was always used when $|G^*|$ was large, and no strain amplitudes were greater than 0.10. The steady-state shear viscosities at low shear rate were also measured, and the results were consistent with the dynamic viscosity at low frequencies.

Viscosities for the dilute polymer solutions in tetrahydrofuran (THF) and the solvent THF were measured at 30.0 ± 0.05 °C with a calibrated Cannon Ubbelohbe capillary viscometer (model 0C, Cannon Instrument Company) in a water bath equipped with a Lauda ECO-Line Immersion Circulator (Brinkmann Co.). The intrinsic viscosities and hydrodynamic radii of three PPF samples have been characterized using Viscotek's size exclusive chromatography (SEC) instrument consisting of a Tetra Detector (refractive index, UV, light scattering, and viscometry) array (TDA) and GPCmax front-end chromatography setup with a refractive index increment parameter dn/dc of 0.080 mL·g⁻¹.

Polymer density was measured at 20 °C in weighed GPC vials by comparing the sample to an identical volume of distilled water, which had a density of 0.99821 g·mL⁻¹.7 The molecular characteristics and physical properties for 8 typical PPF samples are shown in Table 1.

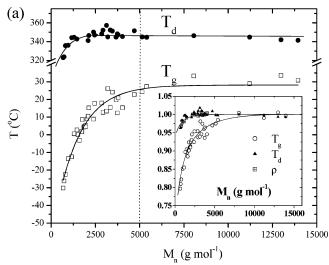
Results and Discussion

The 28 PPF samples obtained directly from polycondensation have weight-average molecular weights varying from 1110 to 11 000 g·mol⁻¹ and a polydispersity between 1.4 and 2.8. Ten relatively monodisperse (polydispersity between 1.21 and 1.78) fractions were obtained from fractionation of PPF10, shown as 10a-10j in Table S1 in the Supporting Information. It should be noted that a small fraction of branching or partial crosslinking occurred due to the Ordelt reaction, 6,8 i.e., the addition of glycols onto the double bonds of unsaturated segments. New methods, such as transesterification between the diester of fumaric acid and diols, and the use of a less acidic catalyst such as ZnCl2 have been used to reduce the extent of the Ordelt reaction.6 The Ordelt saturation ratio can be calculated from the chemical shifts around 2.9-3.1 and 6.8 ppm in ¹H NMR spectra in Figure S1 to be less than 3%, which is in agreement with earlier studies.^{6,8} No discernible chemical shifts at 37 and 75 ppm belonging to Ordelt saturation can be found in the ¹³C spectra of any PPF samples in Figure S2. As cited in an earlier paper,8i Piras8k showed that the chain branches caused by Ordelt saturation are mostly monomer short-chain branches. Besides the short-chain branches, only a small fraction (<3 wt %) due to partial cross-linking can be found in the GPC curves in Figure S3 of PPF 5-8 in Table 1. Because both fractions are very small, they can be safely omitted for the eight PPF samples that will be investigated in detail as linear chains.

DSC results show that all the PPF samples are amorphous and there is a single glass transition occurring at different temperatures for different molecular weights. $T_{\rm g}$ here refers to the midpoint of the glass transition. It is evident in Figure 1a that T_g increases dramatically with the molecular weight from \sim -30 to \sim +30 °C when the molecular weight is lower than a critical M_n around 5000 g·mol⁻¹. A similar molecular weight dependence of $T_{\rm g}$ has been identified for many polymer species. 9-12 The thermal degradation temperature T_d and polymer density ρ also increase with the molecular weight in a similar fashion. However, the molecular weight dependence for $T_{\rm d}$ and ρ is much weaker than that for $T_{\rm g}$, as observed in the inset of Figure 1a when these three parameters are normalized to their asymptotic values. Such difference has been reported for polystyrene (PS), ¹³ 1,4-polybutadiene (1,4-PBD), ¹⁴ and poly-(diethylene glycol-co-succinic acid). 15 The molecular weight dependence of T_g for PPF is plotted against M_n using the Fox-Flory equation

$$T_{\rm g} = T_{\rm g}^{\infty} - \frac{A}{M_{\rm p}} \tag{1}$$

in Figure 1b. The linear fitting results in a constant A of 45 100 and a glass transition temperature $T_{\rm g}^{\infty}$ of 31.9 °C extrapolated to infinite molecular weight. T_g vs $1000/M_w$ is also given for comparison. It can be seen that both lines almost emerge at infinite molecular weight. The inset in Figure 1b shows the polydispersity for all the PPF samples in this study. The samples obtained directly from polycondensation become more polydisperse for higher $M_{\rm n}$, whereas those from fractionation maintain a relatively lower constant around 1.5. No significant role of polydispersity was found in Figure 1.



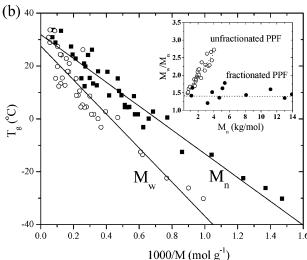


Figure 1. (a) Number-average molecular weight dependences of T_q and T_d . Inset: physical properties (T_g , T_d , and ρ) of PPF normalized to the asymptotic values at infinite molecular weight. (b) Fox-Flory expression of molecular weight dependences of T_q for PPF. Inset: polydispersity of PPF vs number-average molecular weight.

The molecular weight dependence of polymer physical properties may be attributed to the finite length effect usually interpreted by chain-end free volume approach.¹⁶ For the purpose of simplicity, rheological measurements have been performed on eight representative PPF samples (Table 1) covering the full molecular weight range at various temperatures to obtain information such as zero-shear viscosity η_0 and the storage and loss moduli G' and G''. The time-temperature superposition (tTs) was applicable for PPF in the temperature range studied here, and the master curves reduced to 40 °C were formed as shown in Figure 2. The C_1 and C_2 values generated in Williams-Landel-Ferry (WLF) equation¹⁶

$$\log a_{\rm T} = \log \frac{\eta(T)}{b_{\rm T}\eta(T_0)} = -\frac{C_1(T - T_0)}{C_2 + (T - T_0)} \tag{2}$$

are listed in Table 1. In eq 2, a_T and b_T are horizontal and vertical shift factors in tTs, respectively. Since b_T depends very weakly on temperature, it is close to unity and can be ignored safely here. It should be mentioned that the C_1 and C_2 values for PPF7 and 8 in Table 1 are at the reference temperatures of 40 and 50 °C, respectively, in contrast with 25 °C for the others. The correlation between different C_1-C_2 pairs at different

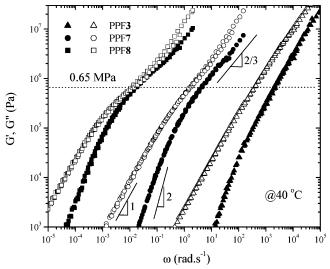


Figure 2. Master curves of G' and G'' of PPF3, 7, and 8 at a reference temperature of 40 °C. Solid symbols: G'. Open symbols:

reference temperatures T_1 and T_2 can be described as 16

$$C_{2,T_1} = C_{2,T_2} + (T_1 - T_2)$$
 and $C_{1,T_1} = C_{1,T_2}C_{2,T_2}/C_{2,T_1}$ (3)

Therefore, the C_1 and C_2 values at 25 °C for PPF7 and 8 can be calculated to be 10.8 and 61.9 and 13.9 and 45.9, respectively. The master curves for PPF8 at 40 °C in Figure 2 were obtained indirectly from those at 50 °C by a horizontal shift factor a_T = 30.4. It can be seen from the master curves that almost all of the PPF samples are either unentangled or marginally entangled since there is no sufficient plateau regime. In the terminal regime at low frequencies, all of the polymers show typical relations in G' and G'' functions as $G' \propto \omega^2$ and $G'' \propto \omega^{1.16}$ As usually expected for the terminal regime at lower frequencies, the glass regime at higher frequencies for different PPF samples also shifts to the lower frequency region with increasing molecular weights. It implies that the local segmental motion in PPF varies with molecular weight in the molecular weight range studied here, which is similar to the trend found in low molecular weight PS.12

The measured η_0 at 40 °C for seven representative PPF samples are given in Table 1 and the temperature dependence of η_0 is shown in Figure 3a, which also varies with molecular weight. A smooth progression with molecular weight is evident in the inset of Figure 3a when the viscosity data were normalized to the values at 40 °C. The temperature dependence for PPF7 with an $M_{\rm w}$ of 7910 g·mol⁻¹ is the strongest and the viscosity varies as much as 4 orders of magnitude when the temperature changes from 40 to 100 °C. This phenomenon is another manifestation of the molecular weight dependence of $T_{\rm g}$. The η_0 data in Figure 3a are replotted in Figure 3, panels b and c, with the temperature subtracted by and normalized to the corresponding T_g of each PPF, respectively. It can be observed that all of the seven PPF samples share the same $T-T_{\rm g}$ and T_g/T dependence. Furthermore, all of the data can be well superposed together after vertical shifts by taking out the pure chain length effect on η_0 , shown in the insets of Figure 3, panels b and c. Limited by the temperature window of rheological measurements, the melt viscosities at temperatures close to $T_{\rm g}$ are not reachable. Nevertheless, the identical molecular weight independent fragility $m [m = \partial \log \eta(T)/\partial (T_g/T)|_{T=T_g}]$ is expected for PPF as also revealed in many polymer species such as poly-(dimethylsiloxane) (PDMS)^{17,18} even in the molecular weight CDV

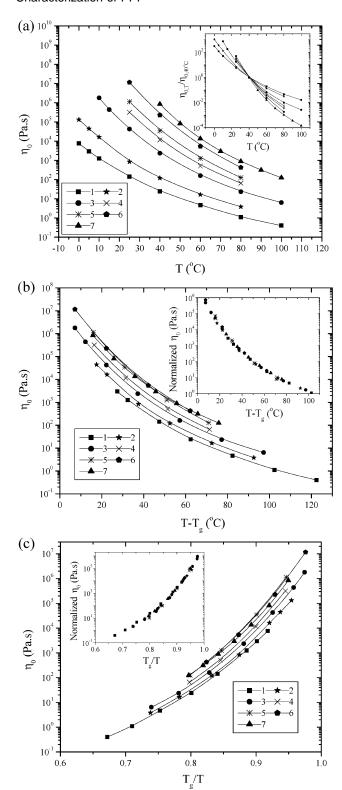


Figure 3. PPF melt viscosity vs (a) T, (b) $T - T_g$, and (c) T_g/T . Inset in panel a: viscosities at various temperatures reduced to 40 °C vs temperature. Inset in panel b: viscosities at various temperatures vertically shifted to the data for PPF1 vs $T - T_{q}$ by shift factors of 0.582, 0.275, 0.160, and 0.064 for PPF2, 3, 4, and 5-7, respectively. Inset in panel c: viscosities at various temperatures vertically shifted to the data for PPF1 vs T_g/T by shift factors of 0.574, 0.329, 0.197, 0.119, and 0.079 for PPF2, 3, 4, 5, and 6-7, respectively.

range that shows molecular weight dependent $T_{\rm g}$. It should be mentioned here that an unusual increasing fragility with $M_{\rm w}$ was found in PS,12 particularly when the relaxation times were normalized to a fixed value, up to molecular weights at which

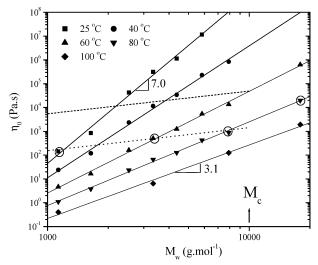


Figure 4. Molecular weight dependence of PPF zero-shear viscosity at various temperatures. The dashed and dotted lines show the Rouse prediction $\eta_0 \propto M^{1.0}$ using the iso-friction correction approach at 60 $^{\circ}$ C and the method of a fixed $T-T_{g}$, respectively.

 $T_{\rm g}$ becomes invariant. For PS, by considering the low molecular weight polymer as a blend of chain ends and inner repeat units, the results were explained by the coupling model.¹⁹

Figure 4 shows the molecular weight dependence of the viscosity for seven PPF samples (1-7) at five temperatures. The striking point is that the exponent a in $\eta_0 = kM^a$ decreases gradually from as high as 7.0 at 25 °C to 3.1 at 100 °C, with a dramatically increasing k from 3.6 \times 10⁻²⁰ to 1.2 \times 10⁻¹⁰. Though the strong molecular weight and temperature dependences of viscosity make the iso-friction correction less accurate, the conventional free volume theory can be applied here to render Rouse prediction $\eta_0 \propto M^{1.0}$ (dashed line in Figure 4) after adjustment of viscosity at 60 °C for PPF to constant monomeric friction coefficient. It uses the information of C_1 and considers the C_1 value for PPF8 is C_1^{∞} in the equation¹⁴

$$\frac{\eta_0^{\infty}}{\eta_0} = \frac{\zeta^{\infty}}{\zeta} = \exp[2.303(C_1^{\infty} - C_1)] \tag{4}$$

where η_0^∞ is the viscosity without free volume effect and ζ^∞ and ζ are monomeric friction coefficients for PPF8 and other PPF samples, respectively. It is interesting to note that the Rouse prediction $\eta_0 \propto M^{1.0}$ can be also achieved when a dotted line was drawn through the data points for PPF1, 4, and 7 (circled) at T=25, 60, and 80 °C, respectively, when $T-T_{\rm g}$ is close (47.4, 51.4, and 55.8 °C). Another data point highlighted in a circle is the viscosity of PPF8 at 80 °C with $T - T_g = 51.1$ °C. It is apparently higher than the dotted line though $T - T_g$ is close to the others, suggesting that entanglement occurs. The dashed and dotted lines intersect with the solid lines for viscosities at 60 and 80 °C, respectively, both at a critical molecular weight M_c of about 10 000 g·mol⁻¹, marked with an arrow in Figure 4.

The viscosities of PPF in DEF at 25 °C (Figure 5) as well as their $T_{\rm g}$ s (inset) show a sharp decrease in both terms by adding DEF into PPF because of both plasticization and dilution effects. DEF's viscosity at 25 °C is 2.12×10^{-3} Pa·s obtained by comparison with toluene $(5.6 \times 10^{-4} \text{ Pa} \cdot \text{s})^7$ using a capillary viscometer. It is clear that the higher the PPF molecular weight, the stronger the concentration dependency. When the PPF composition is lower than 60%, no discernible glass transition exists in DSC curves and an exothermal peak of DEF appears CDV

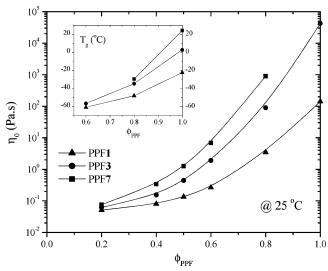


Figure 5. Viscosity of PPF/DEF solutions at 25 °C. Inset: $T_{\rm g}$ for the solutions.

around 0 °C. Furthermore, two glass transitions occur at around -26 and -61 °C for PPF7 in DEF at 60% to suggest phase separation. Figure 5 supplies useful information to choose optimal PPF molecular weight and PPF/DEF solution composition to obtain required mechanical properties while satisfying viscosity limitation for operation in PPF scaffold fabrication via stereolithography.²⁰

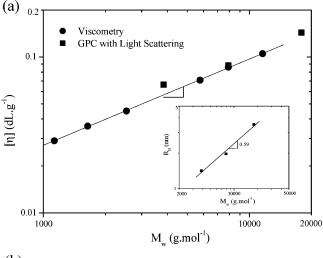
When the solution concentration was in the dilute regime, the intrinsic viscosities $[\eta]$ in Table 1 for PPF1, 3, and 7 in THF at 30 °C were obtained from the plot of $\eta_{\rm sp}/C$ vs C, where C is the polymer concentration in ${\rm g}^{\star}{\rm d}L^{-1}$ and $\eta_{\rm sp}$ is the specific viscosity. When $[\eta]$ is plotted against molecular weight (Figure 6a), the constants in the Mark–Houwink–Sakurada (MHS) equation $[\eta] = KM^{\alpha}$ are $K = 5.96 \times 10^{-4}$ and $\alpha = 0.553$. It implies that THF is nearly a θ solvent for PPF, supported by large Huggins coefficient $k_{\rm H}$ values ranging from 0.5 to 1.5.²¹ Both sets of data from dilute solution viscometry and GPC are consistent with each other. The inset of Figure 6a shows the molecular weight dependence of the hydrodynamic radius ($R_{\rm H}$) of PPF. The slope of 0.59 is a typical value for the linear random coils. The characteristic ratio C_{∞} for characterizing chain flexibility can be determined from the relation

$$C_{\infty} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{r_0^2}{n l_0^2} \tag{5}$$

In the calculation of the mean length l_0 of a statistical skeletal unit of PPF, the C=C double bond is counted with the two associated single skeletal bonds (i.e., -C=C-) as one virtual bond because the C=C bond cannot rotate around its own axis.²² Therefore, l_0 is 1.82 Å using 1.54, 1.36, and 3.91 Å for C-C, C-O, and -C=C- bonds. The number of statistical skeletal units in a chain, n, can be deduced using

$$n = n_0 N = n_0 \frac{M}{M_0} = \frac{M}{m_0} \tag{6}$$

where N is the number of repeating units, n_0 is the number of skeletal units per each repeating unit, M_0 is the repeating unit molecular weight, and m_0 is the molecular weight of the average skeletal unit. M_0 is 156 g·mol⁻¹ and n_0 is 6 for PPF. The unperturbed chain dimension r_0^2 can be achieved from Figure



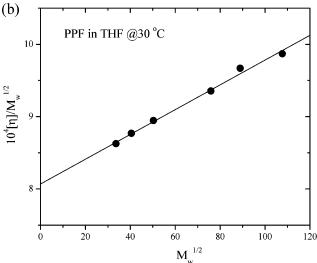


Figure 6. (a) Intrinsic viscosity vs $M_{\rm W}$ for PPF in THF at 30 °C determined from viscometry (solid circles) and GPC (solid squares). Inset: Hydrodynamic radius ($R_{\rm H}$) of three PPF samples as a function of molecular weight. (b) Stockmayer—Fixman plot for PPF in THF at 30 °C.

6b of $[\eta]M^{-1/2}$ vs $M^{1/2}$ through the Stockmayer–Fixman relationship

$$[\eta] = K_{\theta} M^{1/2} + 0.5 \Phi_0 BM \tag{7}$$

where $K_{\theta} = \Phi_0 (r_0^2/M)^{3/2}$, Φ_0 represents the Flory constant of $2.5 \times 10^{21} \, \mathrm{dL \cdot mol^{-1} \cdot cm^{-3}}$, and B is related to the polymer—solvent interaction. The linear fitting in Figure 6 gives $[\eta] M^{-1/2} = 8.07 \times 10^{-4} + 0.017 M^{1/2}$. Therefore, $r_0^2/M = 0.471 \, \mathrm{\mathring{A}^2 \cdot mol \cdot g^{-1}}.^{23} \, \mathrm{\mathring{A}}$ value of 3.7 for C_∞ was obtained to indicate PPF is a freely rotating chain. For comparison purposes, group addition prediction²⁴ gives a larger K_θ value of $1.196 \times 10^{-3} \, \mathrm{dL \cdot g^{-3/2 \cdot mol^{1/2}}}$ and consequently a greater r_0^2/M value of 0.611 $\, \mathring{\mathrm{A}^2 \cdot mol \cdot g^{-1}}.$

The correlation between microscopic chain characteristics such as packing length p and tube diameter a, and macroscopic properties such as plateau modulus G_N^0 and entanglement molecular weight $M_{\rm e}$ have been investigated in the past 20 years. ^{25–27} The packing length p is defined as the occupied volume of a chain divided by r_0^2 as follows: ²⁶

$$p = \frac{M}{r_0^2 \rho N_{\rm a}} \tag{8}$$

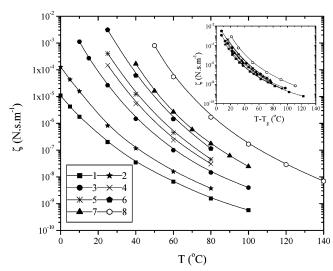


Figure 7. Monomeric friction coefficients from viscosity as a function of temperature. Inset: Monomeric friction coefficients from viscosity as a function of $T - T_{\rm q}$.

The calculation shows a value of 2.76 Å for p. The Kuhn length b for PPF can be further calculated to be 8.57 Å using²¹

$$b = \sqrt{\frac{r_0^2}{N}} = \sqrt{\frac{r_0^2}{M}} M_0 \tag{9}$$

The segmental dynamics are typically represented by the monomeric friction coefficient, ξ , as mentioned in eq 4. The strong temperature dependence of ζ can be obtained using the information of b and η_0 according to Rouse theory expression¹⁶

$$\eta_0 = \frac{\rho N_a}{36M_0} Nb^2 \zeta \tag{10}$$

The ζ results for PPF1-8 are plotted in Figure 7 against both T and $T-T_{\rm g}$ (inset). Similar to the trend for viscosity in Figure 3, ζ also shows changing temperature dependence with molecular weight and such variations again can be simply unified at fixed $T - T_g$. The inset of Figure 7 was plotted to show approximately an iso-free volume state; however, it is not satisfactory for PPF1-7 although they differ much from the marginally entangled PPF8 and overlap together without a regular order.

Generally, there are three major methods to obtain G_N^0 experimentally and two additional approaches based on chain dimension parameters.²⁸ In this study, an experimental value of 0.65 MPa for G_N^0 can be roughly estimated from the master curves in Figure 2. Method (v) in ref 28 was applied here to give a semiempirical value of 0.5 MPa for G_N^0 using the dilute solution viscometry result of K_{θ} , in contrast with a larger value 1.1 MPa if the group addition prediction result of K_{θ} is applied. Here the experimental value of 0.65 MPa is used for \hat{G}_N^0 and consequently M_e can be calculated to be 4900 g·mol⁻¹ using $M_{\rm e} = \rho RT/G_N^{0.16}$ where a value of 1.28 g·cm⁻³ is used for ρ and the temperature effect is omitted. M_e can also be approximated from the critical molecular weight M_c in viscosity's molecular weight dependence by the practical relation of M_c = $2\sim 3M_{\rm e}$ or an expression based on packing length p^{27}

$$\frac{M_{\rm c}}{M_{\rm e}} = 4.24p^{-0.65} \tag{11}$$

As mentioned above, Figure 4 indeed shows a characteristic

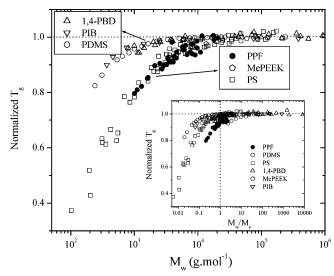


Figure 8. Normalized T_q for various polymer species as a function of molecular weight, and molecular weight reduced by M_e in the inset.

molecular weight $M_c = 10\,000\,\mathrm{g\cdot mol^{-1}}$ at the intersection of lines with or without iso-friction correction. Therefore, M_c is close to the double of M_e of 4900 g·mol⁻¹, confirming the validity of eq 11 given p = 2.76 Å as calculated above.

Once M_e for PPF is estimated, the tube diameter a and contour length L in the reptation model can be obtained using^{29,30}

$$a = \sqrt{N_{\rm e}}b = \sqrt{\frac{M_{\rm e}}{M_0}}b \text{ and } L = \frac{r_0^2}{a}$$
 (12)

Therefore, a is 48.0 Å and L is 9.8 \times 10⁻³M Å²·mol·g⁻¹ for

The molecular weight dependence of T_g can be replotted as $T_{\rm g}/T_{\rm g}^{\infty}$ vs $M_{\rm w}$ in Figure 8 and also vs $M_{\rm w}/M_{\rm e}$ in the inset of Figure 8. Six polymer species including PPF, PS, 11,12 PDMS, 10 methyl-substituted poly(aryl ether ether ketone) (MePEEK),³¹ 1,4-PBD, ^{14,30,32} and polyisobutylene (PIB)³³ are plotted together, for which the entangled molecular weights²⁵ are 4900, 18 100, 12 000, 1450, 2000, and 5686 g·mol⁻¹, respectively. It can be observed in the inset of Figure 8 that for PS and 1,4-PBD the critical molecular weight to reach an invariant $T_{\rm g}$ is close to $M_{\rm e}$. However, the critical molecular weights for PDMS and PIB are lower than their $M_{\rm e}$ s, whereas those for PPF and Me-PEEK are higher. Apparently M_e is not a deciding parameter for the polymer glass transition. When the normalized T_g was plotted as a function of $M_{\rm w}$ directly, six polymer species can be divided into two groups. PPF, PS, and MePEEK (also PMMA,34 not shown) are in the same group with a higher molecular weight to reach the asymptotic value of T_g , whereas PDMS, PIB, and 1,4-PBD are in another group. It is interesting to note that the former group has sterically hindering pendant groups, whereas the latter one is symmetric backbone. The correlation between the chain structure, intermolecular cooperativity, and fragility will be helpful to elucidate this phenomenon.³⁵ Chains with less compact and unsymmetrical structure, rigid backbones, or sterically hindering pendent groups have stronger intermolecular cooperativity and larger fragility, which result in high T_a^{∞} and generally more sensitive molecular weight dependence of T_g . 35 All of the existing polymer species should be examined in the same way and not necessarily only two groups can be divided into because the chain rigidity can be even higher than the polymers in Figure 8, and the chain end mobility for different polymer species can be also different.35

In summary, to the best of our knowledge, for the first time, we have extensively characterized PPF in terms of molecular weight dependence with 38 molecular weights obtained by the current synthesis and fractionation techniques. A variety of microscopic chain dimensions and macroscopic physical properties for both PPF melts and solutions have been given and correlated, which are informative for practical and theoretical purposes in both fields of biomaterials and polymer dynamics. The importance of understanding chain structure and physical properties in designing novel biomaterials for various tissue engineering applications has been also shown in our recent report³⁶ of a multiblock copolymer polypropylene-co-polycaprolactone (PPF-co-PCL). Both terminal and segmental relaxations as well as zero-shear viscosity and T_g for PPF vary much with molecular weight in the molecular weight range studied here. The temperature dependence of viscosity for various molecular weights can be unified and expressed using the WLF equation when the temperature is normalized to $T_{\rm g}$. The molecular weight dependence of $T_{\rm g}$ for six polymer species including PPF shows there is no effect of M_e . More interestingly, these six polymer species can be separated into two distinguishable groups when their normalized T_g is plotted simply against $M_{\rm w}$ to indicate the roles of chain fragility, intermolecular cooperativity, and chain end mobility. The infinite glass transition temperature (31.9 °C) for PPF is between room temperature and body temperature. It implies that the fabrication of scaffolds for non-force-bearing goals using stronger, entangled PPF without cross-linking could speed up the in vivo biodegradation, whereas cross-linking is still required to make force-bearing scaffolds.

Acknowledgment. This work was funded by the Mayo Foundation and National Institutes of Health (R01 AR45871 and R01 EB003060). We appreciate the technical assistance from James A. Gruetzmacher in our lab and Dr. Wei-sen Wong and Ali Soleymannezhad in Viscotek Corporation. S.W. thanks Professor Shi-Qing Wang at the University of Akron for suggestions on Figure 8.

Supporting Information Available. Tables of molecular weights and properties of all of the PPF samples and melt viscosity at various temperatures of eight PPF samples. 1H and ¹³C NMR spectra and GPC chromatographs of typical PPF samples. This material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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BM060096A