

Accepted Manuscript

Title: Glass transition and heat capacity behaviors of plant vitrification solutions

Author: Aline S. Teixeira Milos Faltus Jiri Zámečník M.Elena González-Benito Antonio D. Molina-García



PII: S0040-6031(14)00379-7
DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/doi:10.1016/j.tca.2014.08.015>
Reference: TCA 76981

To appear in: *Thermochemica Acta*

Received date: 13-2-2014
Revised date: 8-8-2014
Accepted date: 13-8-2014

Please cite this article as: Aline S.Teixeira, Milos Faltus, Jiri Zámečník, M.Elena González-Benito, Antonio D.Molina-García, Glass transition and heat capacity behaviors of plant vitrification solutions, *Thermochemica Acta* <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tca.2014.08.015>

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

Glass transition and heat capacity behaviors of plant vitrification solutions

Aline S. Teixeira^{a,b*}, Milos Faltus^c, Jiri Zámečník^c, M. Elena González-Benito^d,

Antonio D. Molina-García^{a,*}

^aInstituto de Ciencia y Tecnología de Alimentos y Nutrición, (ICTAN-CSIC), José Antonio Novais 10, 28040, Madrid, Spain.

^b Centro de Investigación y Desarrollo en Criotecnología de los Alimentos (CIDCA-CONICET), Fac. Cs. Exactas (UNLP), 47 y 116, La Plata (1900), Argentina.

^cCrop Research Institute, Prague, Czech Republic.

^d Dpto. de Biología Vegetal, E.U.I.T. Agrícola, Universidad Politécnica de Madrid, Ciudad Universitaria, 28040, Madrid, Spain.

*For correspondence (fax +34 915493627; e-mail teixeiraline@hotmail.com; antoniom@ictan.csic.es)

Graphical abstract

T_G and ΔC_p measurement in plant cryopreservation solutions.

Highlights

- T_G and associated ΔC_p measurement in Plant Vitrification Solutions (PVS)
- The T_G of five PVS can be related to their different composition, especially to its water content
- T_G of PVS and its associated ΔC_p are not altered (or only very slightly) by a wide range of cooling and warming rates
- Consequently, T_G of these PVS do not significantly change with cryopreservation methods with different cooling/warming rates

ABSTRACT

Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) was employed to investigate the vitrification and annealing behaviors of the most commonly used plant vitrification solutions (PVS). These solutions are employed to protect plant tissues towards ice formation and freeze injury, and help to the vitrification of these tissues, by globally reducing the intracellular fluids mobility. Glass transition temperatures (T_g) and heat capacity increments (ΔC_p) were determined for five solutions PVS1, PVS2, PVS2 mod, PVS3 and PVS3 mod, with different composition, and a range of cooling and warming rates was employed. Glass transitions showed clear and consistent temperature differences within vitrification solutions, which could be related to composition and water content. Roughly, two sets of T_G values were obtained, those for PVS1 and 2, at $-112\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ and $-114\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, respectively, and those for PVS3, at $-90\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. The observed T_g and ΔC_p , unexpectedly, did not significantly change within a wide range of cooling rates (from $5\text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ to liquid nitrogen quenching) and warming rates (from 5 to $20\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$). Garlic shoot tips cryopreserved after the droplet method produced a similar result to that of the vitrification solutions employed. After quench cooling to temperatures below T_g , repeated excursions to higher temperatures were made and the cooling and warming T_g were recorded. These treatments had little or no effect over the PVS solutions T_g , which remained practically constant. A direct practical consequence is that the plant vitrification solutions glass transition temperature does not significantly change with cryopreservation methods based on either direct plunging of samples into liquid nitrogen or employing closed cryovials.

1. Introduction

Glass, the state of matter where molecular mobility is so reduced that most physicochemical processes (including ice formation) are actually detained, is a basic state of matter for cryopreservation. The temperature at which glass initially forms from supercooled liquid is

known as the glass transition temperature (T_G). It is rather a range of temperatures than a single defined one. The glass transition is also characterized by a change in heat capacity (ΔC_p), which is measured as the baseline difference at the transition inflection point. At temperatures above T_G , there is an increase in molecular mobility and a decrease in viscosity which enables the crystallization of water, if sufficient time to carry out the process is granted [1]. Per contra, when temperature is below the glass transition, the system can be considered stable. Most physical and chemical processes (especially those that are diffusion driven) are impeded, in a physically accessible time frame. Actually, there is movement in the glassy state: many reports describe the existence of a significant degree of short range mobility, associated to solvent molecules (water, in this case) (for example Ablett et al. [2] and Le Meste et al. [3]). Within the very field of plant cryopreservation, a reduced but not null molecular movement degree has been found in intracellular glasses, investigated by different physical techniques [4-7]. However, the relatively large-scale molecular reorganizations required for ice crystal nucleation are certainly not possible in these conditions of greatly reduced molecular mobility [8].

Consequently, glassy state allows living tissues preservation with no or very limited physicochemical changes and completely free of ice formation, which is associated with lethal freeze injury [9,10]. Since the knowledge that cells treated with specific cryoprotecting solutions survive exposure to cryogenic temperatures was achieved, numerous variations on solution composition were developed for plant cells [11]. Different vitrification solutions were developed by various research teams worldwide [12,13]. Sakai's group developed the PVS (Plant Vitrification Solution) series. PVS1 has been employed for work with asparagus cell suspensions [14,15]. PVS2, originally developed for treating citrus cell suspensions [12], has been successfully used for different explants of around 200 species [16], including garlic [11,17]. PVS3 has been notably employed with wasabi [18], asparagus [19] and garlic [20]

shoot tips. The cryopreservation of garlic germplasm, an economically important crop, has been profusely studied by several authors using different approaches [11,17,20-22].

The glass transition temperature of aqueous systems is very sensitive to the proportion of water and other small molecules, and small changes in compositions can give rise to large variations in T_G . When taking advantage of the glassy state for preservation purposes, often the difficulty lies in the prediction and control of this temperature. Another problem is how to reach temperatures below T_G , from room temperature, without ice being formed during the cooling process (the same problem arises when warming specimens to room temperature) [1,23]. The probability of ice formation increases with the time that the system is at a temperature comprised between T_f (the equilibrium freezing temperature) and T_G . Actually, the ice nucleation temperature should be considered, instead of T_f . This nucleation temperature has not a fixed value, being dependent on Brownian movement, but is often placed well below T_f . On the other hand, the region “close” above T_G is considered too viscous for anything like ice nucleation to happen, in a short time frame. A zone of 20°C above T_G is often accepted as having a very low probability of ice formation [24].

The glass transition is not a phase transformation in the full thermodynamic sense. Its occurrence is determined by the history of the material, and is dependent on the exact conditions of the experiment [25]. The change between liquid and vitreous state has also been described as a second order phase change, not characterized by an enthalpy increment as first class changes are, but by a step in some of the physical properties, such as the heat capacity, specific volume and apparent viscosity [26]. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) is a powerful tool to investigate glass transition and heat capacity behaviors of plant vitrification solutions [27]. A model plant system (garlic) was included in the experimental design, to compare the behavior of the pure solutions and that of a real system. Garlic shoot tips

cryopreservation had been studied previously, using PVS2 [11] and PVS3 [28] cryopreservation solutions.

The present study aimed the characterization of the calorimetric properties of the most common plant vitrification solutions under the same range of cooling and warming rates, at conditions relevant to their use as cryopreservation agents. The characterization of the calorimetric properties of garlic shoot tips treated with one of such solutions (PVS3) is also included.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Standard compounds

Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), ethylene glycol (EG) and propylene glycol (PG) of chromatographic grade were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Heidelberg, Germany); glycerol, sorbitol and sucrose used were manufactured by Penta (Chrudim, Czech Republic) and isothiazolinone by Schulke & Mayr (Norderstedt, Germany). All other chemicals used were of the highest commercially available purity.

2.2. Solutions

The vitrification solutions were (**Table 1**): (1) PVS1 (Plant Vitrification Solution 1: 19% w/v glycerol, 13% w/v EG, 13% w/v PG, 6% w/v DMSO in half-strength MS liquid medium + 0.5 M sorbitol) [14], (2) PVS2 (30% w/v glycerol, 15% w/v EG, 15% w/v DMSO, and 0.4 M sucrose in half-strength MS liquid medium) [12], (3) modified PVS2 (PVS2 mod: 37.8% w/v glycerol, 16.7% w/v EG, 16.5% w/v DMSO and 0.4 M sucrose in half-strength MS liquid), (4) PVS3 (50% w/v glycerol, 50% w/v sucrose in water) [19], (5) modified PVS3 (PVS3 mod: 50% w/v glycerol, 50% w/v sucrose, 5% DMSO in water) [19].

2.3. Plant material

Experiments were carried out with *Allium sativum* L. *sativum* cv. 'Djambul 2'. Microbulbils (small areal bulbs formed together with flower buds) were rinsed with 1% isothiazolinone solution for two hours. Subsequently, the shoot apex (1 mm) in each microbulbil was excised with a scalpel blade and forceps. Shoot apices were placed in 75% isothiazolinone solution for 2 s and then transferred to 1% isothiazolinone solution for 10 min. Finally, batches of 20 apices were directly placed onto MS medium [29] with 10% sucrose overnight.

Excised shoot tips were immersed into the loading solution (13.7% w/v sucrose + 18.4% w/v glycerol) [12] for 20 min at 25°C. Shoot tips were immersed in PVS3 at 25°C for 2 h [30].

2.4. Differential scanning calorimetry conditions

Thermal processes in vitrification solutions were measured using a TA 2920 DSC (TA Instruments, New Castle, DE, USA). Hermetic aluminum pans (TA) were used in all DSC experiments and an empty pan was used as reference. The furnace block of DSC was flushed with dry nitrogen gas to avoid condensation of moisture from the air. Helium gas (99.999%) was used as sample purge at a rate of about 33 ml min⁻¹. The temperature scale of the instrument was calibrated with cyclohexane (-87°C), mercury (-38.87°C), water (0.01°C) and indium (156.6°C) and with heat fusion of water (334 J g⁻¹). All calibrations were performed by using scanning rates of 5, 10 and 20°C min⁻¹. Calorimetric data were collected from two replicates per treatment.

Samples within pans were either approx. 10 mg of vitrification solutions or three garlic shoot tips, immediately after treatment with the vitrification solution PVS3. In work with shoot tips, pans were weighed before and after DSC; in the second case pans were punctured and oven-dried (~85°C, 72 h), to obtain the water content. Calorimetric data were collected from two replicates per treatment.

2.5. Glass transition characterization for PVS

The glass transition parameters (T_G and ΔC_p) were determined for the different vitrification solutions considered, in both cooling and warming scans. Pans with samples were cooled at standard rates ($10^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$) from 30°C to -145°C . After 5 min equilibration at this temperature, they were warmed back to 30°C , also at $10^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$. This cycle was repeated four times. Two different samples were studied for each solution.

2.6. Cooling rate test

For this test, cooling was performed at different rates: either using the calorimeter control (5 , 10 and $20^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$), or, for higher rates, by quickly immersing the closed pan with the sample in liquid nitrogen (LN), either naked or previously included inside a cryovial (approximately $6600^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ and $160^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$, respectively [31]). The pan was then transferred to the calorimeter sample chamber, pre-cooled to -150°C , where a short equilibration time was allowed. Glass transition temperature and the corresponding heat capacity change were observed upon warming from -145°C to room temperature, at a standard warming rate of $10^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$. The samples were either vitrification solutions or garlic shoot tips, after treatment with the vitrification solution PVS3.

2.7. Warming rate test

For investigating the effect of the warming rate, cooling was performed at two fixed rates: $10^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ (using the calorimeter control) or by quenching in LN (without cryovial). Quenched pans were transferred to the calorimeter sample chamber, pre-cooled to -150°C , where a short equilibration time was allowed. Glass transition temperature and the corresponding heat capacity change were measured upon warming pans with samples from -

145°C to room temperature, at different warming rates: 5, 10 and 20°C min⁻¹. The samples were either vitrification solutions or garlic shoot tips, after treatment with the vitrification solution PVS3.

Crystallinity, for garlic shoot tips was evaluated using TA proprietary software (TA Instruments, undated), using a value for the specific fusion heat of water of 334 J g⁻¹. The routine basically evaluates the thermal event enthalpy and, by comparing with the water specific fusion heat and considering the water content of the sample (obtained by differential weighing, after drying in an oven after the DSC experiment), calculates the fraction of water that had crystallized into ice.

2.8. Statistical analysis

The results were analyzed by analysis of variance (ANOVA), and means were compared by Duncan's multiple range test ($P \leq 0.05$) using STATISTICA version 10, (StatSoft, Inc., 2011).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Vitrification behavior of different vitrification solutions

Glass transition parameters were determined for the five PVS employed, at standard rates of 10°C min⁻¹ (**Table 2**). Glass transitions temperatures were fairly reproducible and showed clear and consistent differences among vitrification solutions (confirmed by the statistical analysis), which were related to different composition and water contents (**Table 1**). T_G values calculated for each solution were identified by the statistical analysis as distinct (**Table 2**, $P < 0.001$). The value of T_G generally decreased as the water content of solutions with similar chemical composition increased. For example, T_G tended to decrease as the water content of a particular plant vitrification solution increased (i.e., PVS2 vs. PVS2mod, PVS3

vs. PVS3mod). But also T_G tended to decrease as the water content of plant vitrification solutions based in glycerol and sucrose increased. A minimum square regression to a straight line yielded a high regression coefficient ($R^2 = 0.991795$) for T_G values of PVS2, PVS2mod, PVS3 and PVS3mod. PVS1 was excluded from this regression since glycerol and sucrose are not present in its chemical composition and, differently than PVS2 or 3, includes sorbitol and PG in its composition.

The general role of water as plasticizer agents and their effect reducing the value of T_G have been extensively studied (i.e. [32,33]). These vitrification solutions contained large amounts of solutes able to form hydrogen bonds with water. The number of water molecules available per each solute molecule was relatively low and even lower the number of water molecules per potential hydrogen bond in solute molecules. Nevertheless, in such concentrated and complex mixtures not all these potential bonds could be expected to bind water, as many intersolute (and intramolecular) bonds would arise for molecular formulas of the components of the cryopreservation solutions and their molar composition.

The different T_G found could be divided into two groups: one centered around -112°C (PVS1, PVS2 and PVS2 mod) and the other at -89°C (PVS3 and PVS3 mod). The heat capacity changes measured were less distinct than the corresponding T_G values, but a decrease with the water content in solutions could be appreciated and these data can be fitted to a straight line ($R^2 = 0.944513$, which improves to 0.992353 upon discarding the value for PVS1). However, PVS solutions could be distributed according to ΔC_p in the same groups. The prediction of glass transition behavior for complex mixtures as those studied here, is, currently, not a solved problem (see, for example, Angell et al. [34]). Nevertheless, water content seems to be the dominant factor over the solute composition.

Very few data on glass transition parameters of PVS have been reported. The initial PVS2 publication [12] reported a T_G value of -115°C (equal for both cooling and warming scans),

within experimental error of our data. It must be noted that, in the same publication, the existence (upon warming at $10^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$, following $80^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$ cooling) of a devitrification event (at -75°C), subsequently followed by melting (at -36°C) was reported. After extensive, repeated and reproducible DSC experiments, we have been unable to find any ice formation event, at any of the combinations of cooling and warming rates considered, and for any of the PVS studied. The reported devitrification event took place upon warming at $10^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$, twice as fast as our $5^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$ slowest experiment (where ice formation would have been more likely). PVS3 was also previously reported to have a T_G in good agreement with those reported here [28].

Pure water glass transition temperature, though difficult to physically measure, is believed to take place at 135K (-138°C) [35,36], actually not so far away from the T_G found here for PVS solutions. Other authors even rise this temperature to 165 K (-108°C) [37,38], or even higher [39,40]. Clearly, the question is far from being settled.

Binary mixtures (water and a single solute) can partly explain the T_G values reported here for PVS. Sucrose aqueous solutions with a 40-60% (w/w) solute content, present glass transition temperatures ranging from -110°C to -86°C [41], comparable with those obtained in this work (PVS3 and PVS3-mod have approx. 40% w/w sucrose content). Meanwhile, glycerol, which is present in the aforesaid solutions also at $\approx 40\%$ w/w, but at $\approx 30\%$ w/w in PVS2 and PVS2-mod, would, in binary aqueous systems, show a T_G at approx. -100°C and -110°C , respectively [42]. PVS1, lacking glycerol and sucrose, has a combined ethylen and propylen glycol content of $\approx 25\%$ w/w. A 25% w/w ethylen glycol water solution would give raise to a T_G between -130°C and -135°C [42]. A correct prediction of the glass transition temperatures for PVS from composition data would be a more complex matter, though.

3.2. *Effect of cooling rate on vitrification behavior*

Vitrification in cryopreservation protocols is achieved, without sophisticated cooling equipment, by simply plunging specimens into LN after a set of physicochemical treatments, designed to increase their cytoplasmatic microviscosity and enhance tissue resistance to cold and dehydration. Fast cooling is required to achieve vitrification avoiding ice crystal formation [43]. In a similar way, warming after the storage period must be carried out quickly, and it is practically performed by plunging samples (naked or inside cryovials) directly from LN into a water bath or warm culture medium [31].

Thermograms showing details the effect of cooling rate on the vitrification behavior of PVS3 are shown in **Figure 1**. The glass transition recorded in the warming scan (always carried out at $10^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$) was similar both in temperature and heat capacity change. The width of the glass transition process was estimated to be on an average of 7°C .

T_G and ΔC_p were measured for the five solutions studied and are shown in **Figure 2**. ANOVA indicated that the vitrification solution had a significant effect ($p < 0.001$) on T_G , while cooling rate and the interaction of both variables/factors did not. The T_G of a solution did not significantly change within a wide range of cooling rates (from 5 to $20^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$, under the DSC control, and the faster resulting from plunging the sample pan into LN, with the aluminum pan naked or inside a cryovial). The cooling rate did not influence the glass transition region, as compared with the width of the whole transition interval (**Figure 1**). The mean T_G for each PVS (calculated with the data from all cooling rates) were significantly different among them (according to Duncan's test, $p < 0.05$): PVS1 -112.4210 ± 0.3656 , PVS2 -114.5770 ± 1.01569 , PVS2-mod -109.4910 ± 0.56078 , PVS3 -90.0550 ± 0.82682 ; PVS3-mod -87.3010 ± 1.25750 .

Although ΔC_p values show a larger variation, no clear trend with the cooling rate could be observed (**Figure 2**). ANOVA indicated that cooling rate did not have a significant effect on ΔC_p , while the vitrification solution and the interaction of solution rate did ($p < 0.001$).

Therefore, statistical analysis on both T_G and ΔC_p , showed that the differences observed among cooling rates were not significant. This was an unexpected finding, as both T_G and the ΔC_p are generally considered to be dependent on cooling rate (e.g. [4,44]). After this, the slower a liquid is cooled, the longer time would be available for configuration of samples at each temperature, and hence the colder it could become before falling out of liquid-state equilibrium. This would be reflected in T_G increasing with cooling rate [45,46], as the properties of the glass depend on the process by which it is formed. In practice, the reported dependence of T_G on the cooling rate is weak: T_G changes by 3–5°C when the cooling rate changes by an order of magnitude [44,47].

Possible explanations for the discrepancy between the small variation (1.2°C) reported here and the expected value (3–5°C per rate magnitude order corresponds to 9–15°C, for the more than three orders between 5 and 6600°C min⁻¹ of our experiments) may lie on that the experimental observations in which T_G undergoes these changes with cooling rate refer in most cases to much simpler systems, either pure liquids or binary mixtures. These ternary, quaternary and pentary solutions may present a compensating behavior, with different components having contributions of different sign to the glass transition displacement with cooling rate.

Another explanation may lay on the fact that, in the present work, the reported glass transition parameters measured at fast cooling rates were evaluated always at the ensuing warming scan. Actually, very few experimental techniques can perform a proper glass transition measurement while cooling at fast rate. Faster cooling would cause the glass transition to take place at earlier, higher temperatures (giving rise to a less stable glass). Upon warming, the glass transition would occur as soon as the lower T_G (of the more stable glass, found at slow warming processes) was reached. In that way, the influence of the previous cooling rate would be ignored.

Cooling rates present a wide variation in practical plant cryopreservation, though they have not been very frequently accurately measured. They range from the very slow processes of those methods relying on extracellular freezing for induced intracellular vitrification (using temperature control equipment, with rates as low as $0.3^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$) [48], to those of the vitrification method (approx. $2.3^{\circ}\text{C s}^{-1}$), the encapsulation-dehydration protocol (approx. $2.7^{\circ}\text{C s}^{-1}$) and the faster droplet-vitrification method ($110^{\circ}\text{C s}^{-1}$) [31,48-50]. Other faster approaches have been tested, such as those avoiding the Leidenfrost effect that limits the cooling rate in LN by using other cryogenic fluids, such as liquid propane or ethane, or even using mechanical implements to make faster the immersion of the sample in the cryogenic medium [11,50]. The two quench cooling procedures used here had rates similar to those of the droplet-vitrification (naked DSC pan) and the encapsulation-dehydration method (inside the cryovial), i.e. approximately $110^{\circ}\text{C s}^{-1}$ ($6600^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$), and $2.7^{\circ}\text{C s}^{-1}$ ($160^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$), respectively.

The behavior of the vitrification parameters of garlic shoot tips in the last stage of the cryopreservation protocol (after treatment with PVS3) was different from that of the vitrification solutions (**Figure 2**). Shoot tips present a much more marked dependence of both T_G and ΔC_p with the cooling rate than solutions. This may be due to the fact that the shoot tips have higher cytoplasmic water content or to the presence of other cellular components, apart from their structural and compartmentalization elements.

The glass transition parameters obtained here differ from those of other works, which had been carried out in different conditions: the T_G reported for garlic studies using PVS2 is approximately -115°C [11]. This is a very close data to the PVS2 solution T_G data reported in this work (-114.3°C). Accordingly, our values (ranging from -90 to -100°C for different rates), are close to the -89.85°C found for PVS3. The ΔC_p data for garlic, showing a strong variation in the present study, are not too different from those reported using PVS2 [11].

3.3. Effect of warming rate on vitrification behavior

The glass transition parameters were measured for different warming rates after using two different cooling rates: $10^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$ (**Figure 3a** and **c**) and LN quenching (**Figure 3b** and **d**). The variations in both T_G and ΔC_p were not significant and, again, showed no dependence of the warming rate. A clear relation between T_G and the solution composition, for all the cooling and warming conditions studied, could be observed, with a similar response of the group PVS1-PVS2-PVS2 mod, on one hand and the group PVS3-PVS3 mod, on the other (data not shown). The dependence of ΔC_p with composition for the different warming and cooling rates tested was more obscure.

Practical warming rate values for cryopreservation are of the same order of those reported for cooling rates, as most cases heat exchange is driven by stirring the sample (naked, encapsulated or inside a cryovial) in a warm water bath or culture medium, being the temperature gradients induced comparable to those created by plunging room temperature specimens into LN. Nonetheless, warming rates slightly lower than those found for cooling have been reported [31,49]: approx. 1.8 , 2 and $40^{\circ}\text{C s}^{-1}$, for mint shoot tips following the vitrification, encapsulation-dehydration and droplet-vitrification protocols, respectively.

3.4. Crystallinity of garlic shoot tips

Garlic shoot tips subjected to the vitrification procedure exhibited both freezing and glass transition events when cooled slowly ($10^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$) (**Figure 4**). Other systems treated by the vitrification method did not produce water freezing when, in the last step of the protocol, were cooled at this slow rate. This is the case of mint shoot tips [51] and this might be due to their smaller size, when compared with garlic shoot tips. Mint shoot tip average weight after the vitrification dehydration step was 0.7 mg [51], while garlic shoot tips in the same stage

weighed 3.9 ± 0.4 mg. Sample size is one of the most important determinants of vitrification probability [25]. Other differences, such as water content or permeability to solutes, may sustain alternative explanations.

The presence of this (always very small) melting endotherm allows calculation of the fraction of crystallized water. The onset of the melting process and the crystallinity calculated after the TA proprietary software, are presented in **Table 3** for different warming rates. The crystallinity decreased with increasing warming rates, while the transition onset grew. The corresponding glass transition temperatures were almost constant with warming rate. In similar systems, it has been reported that ΔC_p decreases while crystallinity increases [52], which agrees with the observations of **Figure 4** and **Table 3**. Although, at quenching rates (those employed in practical cryopreservation) there was no formation of ice, these findings could imply a potential amount of freezable water that could result in ice formation.

Garlic shoot tips cryopreservation has previously been studied employing PVS2 instead of PVS3 [11]. After 15 min exposure to PVS2, garlic shoot tips were reported to show a melting endotherm centered at -50°C , corresponding to approximately 12% crystallinity (at a scan rate of $10^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$). 30 min exposure, yielding the maximum plant recovery after cryopreservation, showed no endotherm [11]. The freezing (observed at the lower nucleation temperature) and melting events of garlic shoot tips at this work (employing PVS3) **Figure 4** and **Table 3**, were present only at the $10^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ rate. In conditions customarily employed for successful cryopreservation (including quench cooling rates) both freezing and melting events were not observed. The crystallinity degree found was small (2-0.4 %, depending on the warming rate). As the temperature of these events was higher (-15 to -20°C , **Table 3**) than that reported by Volk and coworkers [11], a possible interpretation is that these events might correspond to a separate water fraction from that required for germplasm viability. Alternatively, the higher temperature of the melting event could be the result of using PVS3 rather than PVS2, and a

border condition, where ice is formed only at low cooling rates but not at higher quenching rates, could have been reached.

Conclusion

T_G and ΔC_p of plant vitrification solutions did not significantly change when the cryopreservation methods based on either direct plunging of samples into liquid nitrogen or plunging of samples in closed cryovials, or even slower methods, were used. We can conclude that the T_G of commonly employed PVSs did not change with the wide range of cooling and warming rates. The behavior of cryopreserved tissues might be, though, different.

Acknowledgments

This work was funded from project “CRYODYMINT” (AGL2010-21989-C02-02) from the Spanish “*Plan Nacional de I+D+i 2008-2011*” and projects No. QH92163 of the Ministry of Agriculture and LD12041 of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports of the Czech Republic, M.C.I. A.S. Teixeira was supported by the CSIC, within the JAE-Pre program, partially funded from the European Social Fund.

References

- [1] Y.H. Roos, M. Karel, Applying state diagrams to food processing and development. *J Food Technol.* 45 (1991) 66-68.
- [2] S. Ablett, A.H. Darke, M.J. Izzard, P.J. Lillford, Studies of the glass transition in malto-oligomers, in: J.M.V. Blanshard, P.J. Lillford (Eds.), *The glassy state in foods*: Nottingham University Press, Nottingham, 1993, pp. 189-206.
- [3] M. Le Meste, D. Champion, G. Roudaut, G. Blond, D. Simatos, Glass transition and food technology: A critical appraisal. *J Food Sci.* 67 (2002) 2444-2458.

- [4] J. Buitink, M.M.A.E. Claessens, M.A. Hemminga, F.A. Hoekstra, Influence of water content and temperature on molecular mobility and intracellular glasses in seeds and pollen. *Plant Physiol.* 118 (1998) 531-541.
- [5] C. Walters, Temperature-dependency of molecular mobility in preserved seeds. *Biophys. J.* 86 (2004), 1253-1258.
- [6] D. Ballesteros, C. Walters, Detailed characterization of mechanical properties and molecular mobility within dry seed glasses: relevance to the physiology of dry biological systems. *Plant J.* 68 (2011) 607-619.
- [7] B. Fernandez-Marin, I. Kranner, M. S. Sebastian, U. Artetxe, J. M. Laza, J. L. Vilas, H. W. Pritchard, J. Nadajaran, F. Miguez, J. M. Becerril, J. I. Garcia-Plazaola, Evidence for the absence of enzymatic reactions in the glassy state. A case study of xanthophyll cycle pigments in the desiccation-tolerant moss *Syntrichia ruralis*. *J. Exper. Bot.* 64 (2013) 3033-3043.
- [8] C.A. Angell, J.M. Sare, E.J. Sare, Glass transition temperatures for simple molecular liquids and their binary solutions. *J Phys Chem.* 82 (1978) 2622-2629.
- [9] J. Muthusamy, H.J. Staines, E.E. Benson, M. Mansor, B. Krishnapillay, Investigating the use of fractional replication and taguchi techniques in cryopreservation: a case study using orthodox seeds of a tropical rainforest tree species. *Biodivers Conserv.* 14 (2005) 3169-3185.
- [10] J. Nadarajan, M. Mansor, B. Krishnapillay, H.J. Staines, E. Benson, K. Harding, Applications of differential scanning calorimetry in developing cryopreservation strategies for *Parkia speciosa*, a tropical tree producing recalcitrant seeds. *Cryo Lett.* 29 (2008) 95-110.
- [11] G.M. Volk, C. Walters, Plant vitrification solution 2 lowers water content and alters freezing behavior in shoot tips during cryoprotection. *Cryobiology* 52 (2006) 48-61.
- [12] A. Sakai, S. Kobayashi, I. Oiyama, Cryopreservation of nucellar cell of navel orange (*Citrus sinensis* Obs. var. *brasiliensis* Tanaka) by vitrification. *Plant Cell Rep.* 9 (1990) 30-33.

- [13] P.L. Steponkus, R. Langis, S. Fujikawa, Cryopreservation of plant tissues by vitrification, in: P.L. Steponkus (Ed.), *Advances in Low Temperature Biology*, JAI Press, Hamptomill, 1992, pp. 1-16.
- [14] A. Uragami, A. Sakai, M. Nagai, T. Takahashi, Survival of cultured cells and somatic embryos of *Asparagus officinalis* cryopreserved by vitrification. *Plant Cell Rep.* 8 (1989) 418-421.
- [15] A. Uragami, Cryopreservation by vitrification of cultured cells and somatic embryos from mesophyll tissue of asparagus. *Acta Hort.* 271 (1990) 109-116.
- [16] A. Sakai, Proceedings of the International Workshop on Cryopreservation of Bio-Genetic Resources, International Technical Cooperation Center, Rural Development Administration. Suwon, 2003, pp. 3-18.
- [17] E. Niwata, Cryopreservation of apical meristems of garlic (*Allium sativum* L.) and high subsequent plant regeneration. *Cryo Lett.* 16 (1995) 102-107.
- [18] T. Matsumoto, A. Sakai, C. Takahashi, K. Yamada, Cryopreservation in vitro grown apical meristems of wasabi (*Wasabi japonica*) by encapsulation-vitrification method. *Cryo Lett.* 16 (1995) 189-206.
- [19] S. Nishizawa, A. Sakai, Y. Amano, T. Matsuzawa, Cryopreservation of asparagus (*Asparagus officinalis* L.) embryogenic suspension cells and subsequent plant regeneration by vitrification. *Plant Sci.* 1 (1993) 67-73.
- [20] Z. Makowska, J. Keller, F. Engelmann, Cryopreservation of apices isolated from garlic (*Allium sativum* L.) bulbils and cloves. *Cryo Lett.* 20 (1999) 175-182.
- [21] E.R.J. Keller, Cryopreservation of *Allium sativum* L. (Garlic), in: L.E. Towil, P.S. Bajaj (Eds.), *Cryopreservation of Plant Germplasm II*, Springer, Berlin, 2002, pp. 37-47.
- [22] G.M. Volk, A. Caspersen, C. Walters, Shoot tip structural and biophysical responses to plant vitrification solution 2 (PVS2) exposure. *Cryobiology* 55 (2007) 358.

- [23] J. Zamečník, A. Bilavčík, M. Faltus, Importance, involvement and detection of glassy state in plant meristematic tissue for cryopreservation. *Cryobiology* 5 (2007) 324-378.
- [24] O. Mishima, H.E. Stanley, The relationship between liquid, supercooled and glassy water. *Nature*, 396 (1998) 329-335.
- [25] S. Yavin, A. Arav, Measurement of essential physical properties of vitrification solutions. *Theriogenology*. 67 (2007) 81-89.
- [26] P. Walstra, *Physical Chemistry of Foods*, CRC Press, New York, 2002.
- [27] O. Leprince, C. Walters-Vertucci, A calorimetric study of the glass transition behaviors in axes of *Phaseolus vulgaris* L. seeds with relevance to storage stability. *Plant Physiol.* 109 (1995) 1471-1481.
- [28] J. Zámečník, M. Faltus, A. Bilavčík, R. Kotková, Comparison of Cryopreservation Methods of Vegetatively Propagated Crops Based on Thermal Analysis, in: I. Katkov (Ed.), *Current Frontiers in Cryopreservation*, In Tech, New York, 2012, pp. 335-358.
- [29] T. Murashige, F. Skoog, A revised medium for rapid bioassays with tobacco tissue cultures. *Physiol Plantarum*. 15 (1962) 473-497.
- [30] D. Sakar, P.S. Naik, Cryopreservation of shoot tips of tetraploid potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L.) clones by vitrification. *Ann Bot.* 82 (1998) 455-461.
- [31] A.S. Teixeira, M.E. González-Benito, A.D. Molina-García, Measurement of cooling and warming rates in vitrification-based plant cryopreservation protocols. *Biotechnol progr.* (2014). In press, published online: DOI: 10.1002/btpr.1938
- [32] L. Slade, H. Levine, A food polymer science approach to structure-property relationships in aqueous food systems: non-equilibrium behavior of carbohydrate-water systems, in L. Slade, H. Levine (Eds.), *Water Relationships in Food*, Plenum Press, New York, 1991, pp. 29-101.

- [33] L. Slade, H. Levine, D.S. Reid, Beyond water activity: Recent advances based on an alternative approach to the assessment of food quality and safety. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 30 (1991) 115-360.
- [34] C.A. Angell, K.L. Ngai, G.B. McKenna, P.F. McMillan, S.W. Martin, Relaxation in glass forming liquids and amorphous solids. *J Appl Phys.* 88 (2000) 3113-3157.
- [35] G.P. Johari, G. Astl, E. Mayer, Enthalpy relaxation of glassy water. *J Chem Phys.* 92 (1990) 809-810.
- [36] I. Kohl, L. Bachmann, E. Mayer, A. Hallbrucker, T. Loerting, Water Behaviour: Glass transition in hyperquenched water?. *Nature.* 435 (2005) E1-E1.
- [37] V. Velikov, S. Borick, C.A. Angell, The glass transition of water, based on hyperquenching experiments. *Science.* 294 (2001) 2335-2338.
- [38] C.A. Angell, Insights into phases of liquid water from study of its unusual glass-forming properties. *Science.* 319 (2008) 582-587.
- [39] J. Swenson, J. Teixeira, The glass transition and relaxation behavior of bulk water and a possible relation to confined water. *J Chem Phys.* 132 (2010) 014508.
- [40] S.A. McCartney, V. Sadtschenko, Fast scanning calorimetry studies of the glass transition in doped amorphous solid water: Evidence for the existence of a unique vicinal phase. *J Chem Phys.* 138 (2013) 084501.
- [41] G. Blond, D. Simatos, M. Catté, C.G. Dussap, J.B. Gros, Modeling of the water sucrose state diagram below 0 °C. *Carbohydr Res.* 298 (1997) 139-145.
- [42] D.H. Rasmussen, A.P. MacKenzie, The Glass Transition in Amorphous Water. 1 Application of the Measurements to Problems Arising in Cryobiology. *J Chem Phys.* 76 (1971) 967-973.
- [43] P. Mazur, I.L. Pinn, F.W. Kleinhan, The temperature of intracellular ice formation in mouse oocytes vs. the unfrozen fraction at that temperature. *Cryobiology* 54 (2007) 223-233.

- [44] P.G. Debenedetti, F.H. Stillinger, Supercooled liquids and the glass transition. *Nature*. 410 (2001) 259-267.
- [45] C.T. Moynihan, A.J. Easteal, M.A. Bolt, J. Tucker, Dependence of the fictive temperature of glass on cooling rate. *J Am Ceram Soc*. 59 (1976) 12-16.
- [46] R. Brüning, K. Samwer, Glass transition on long time scales. *Phys Rev B*, 46 (1992) 318-322.
- [47] M.D. Ediger, C.A. Angel, S.R. Nagel, Supercooled liquids and glasses. *J Phys Chem*. 100 (1996) 13200-13212.
- [48] A. Kaczmarczyk, V.M. Rokka, E.R.J. Keller, Potato shoot tip cryopreservation. A review. *Potato Res*. 54 (2011) 45-79.
- [49] A.S. Teixeira, M. Faltus, J. Zámečník, R. Kotková, M.E. González-Benito, A.D. Molina-García, Invariance of the Glass Transition Temperature of Plant Vitrification Solutions with Cooling Rate. *Cryobiology* 65 (2012) 339-366.
- [50] J. Wesley-Smith, C. Walters, N.W. Pammenter, P. Berjak, Interactions among Water Content, Rapid (Nonequilibrium) Cooling to -196°C , and Survival of Embryonic Axes of *Aesculus hippocastanum* L. seeds. *Cryobiology* 42 (2001) 196-206.
- [51] A.S. Teixeira, M.E. Gonzalez-Benito, A.D. Molina-García AD, Glassy state and cryopreservation of mint shoot tips. *Biotech Progr*. 29 (2013) 707-717.
- [52] C. Gao, G.Y. Zhou, Y. Xu, T.C. Hua, Glass transition and enthalpy relaxation of ethylene glycol and its aqueous solution. *Thermochim Acta*. 435 (2005) 38-43.

Figure 1. PVS3 thermograms showing the glass transition, performed at a warming rate of $10^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$ and after cooling at different rates. Quenching: direct immersion of the DSC pan in LN; cryovial: pan included in a cryovial and then in LN. White arrows mark the glass transition inflection point.

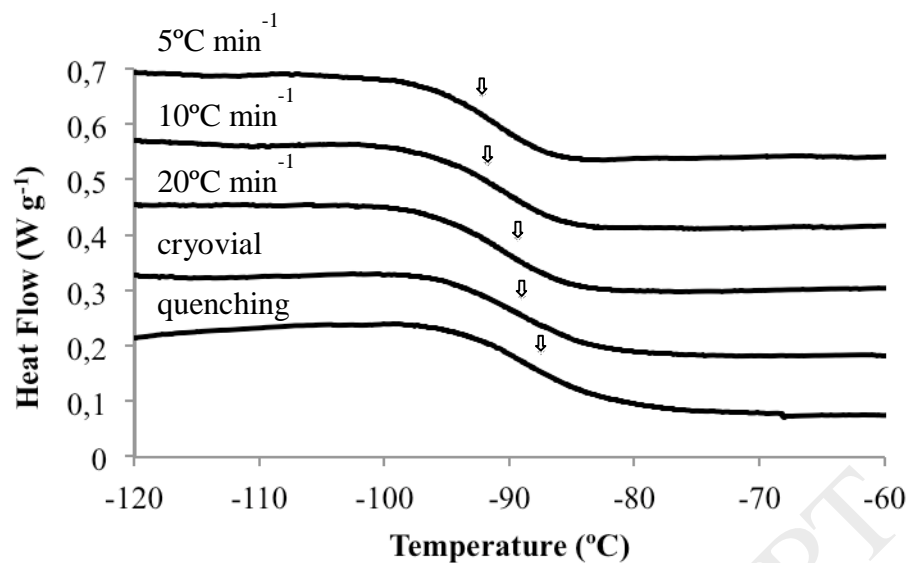


Figure 2. Glass transition temperatures (a) and glass transition heat capacity changes (b) for the different PVS and garlic shoot tips (after treatment with PVS3), obtained in warming ($10^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$) DSC experiments, after being cooled at different rates.* Rate not tested for garlic samples. Mean values of T_G and ΔC_p from garlic samples with the same letter are not significant different according to the Duncan's Multiple Range Test at $\alpha = 0.05$. Bars: standard deviation.

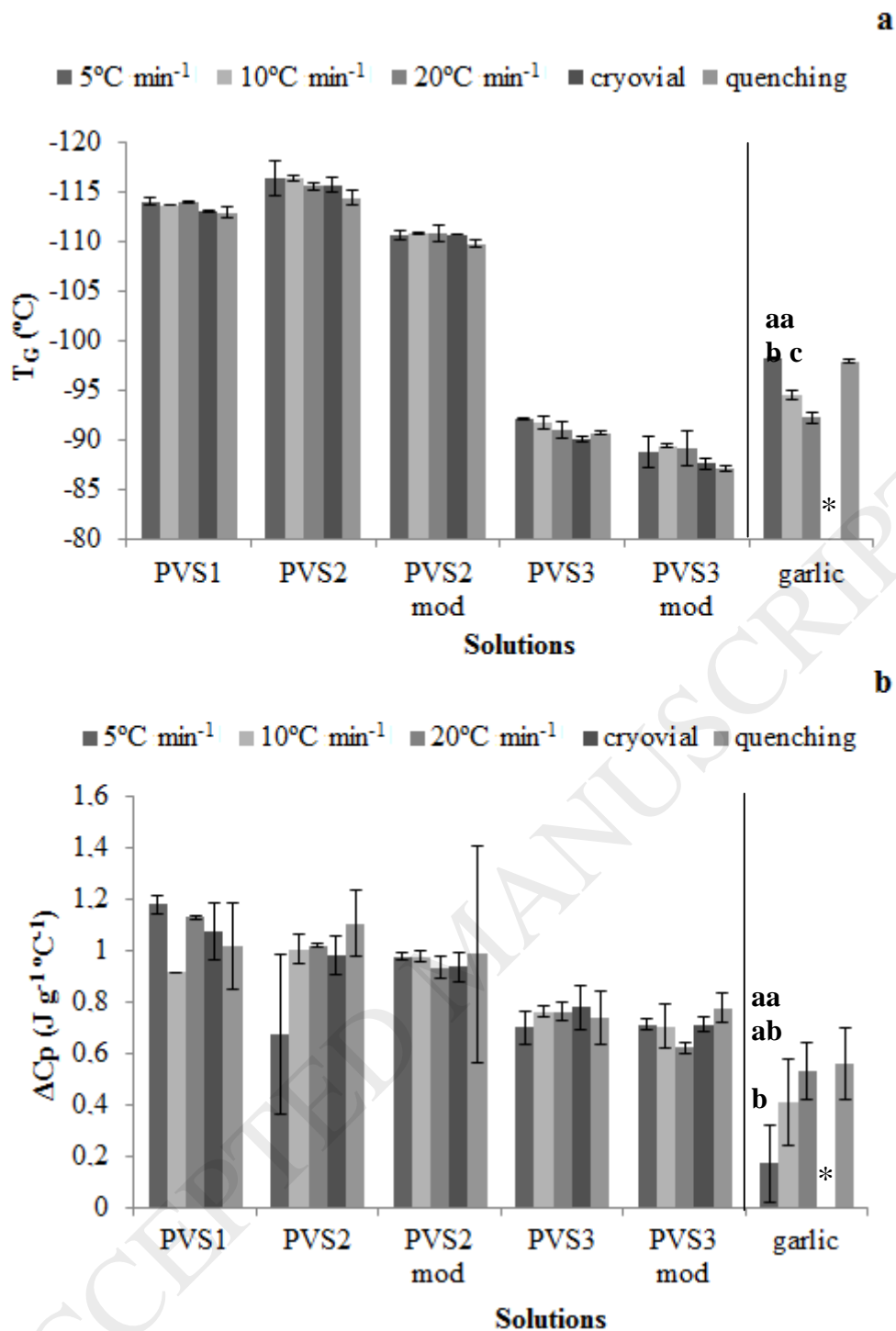


Figure 3. Glass transition temperature (**a** and **b**) and heat capacity (**c** and **d**) obtained by DSC during warming at different rates (5 , 10 or $20^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$). DSC pans had been cooled either at $10^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$ in the calorimeter (**a** and **c**) or by quenching in LN (**b** and **d**). Bars: standard deviation.

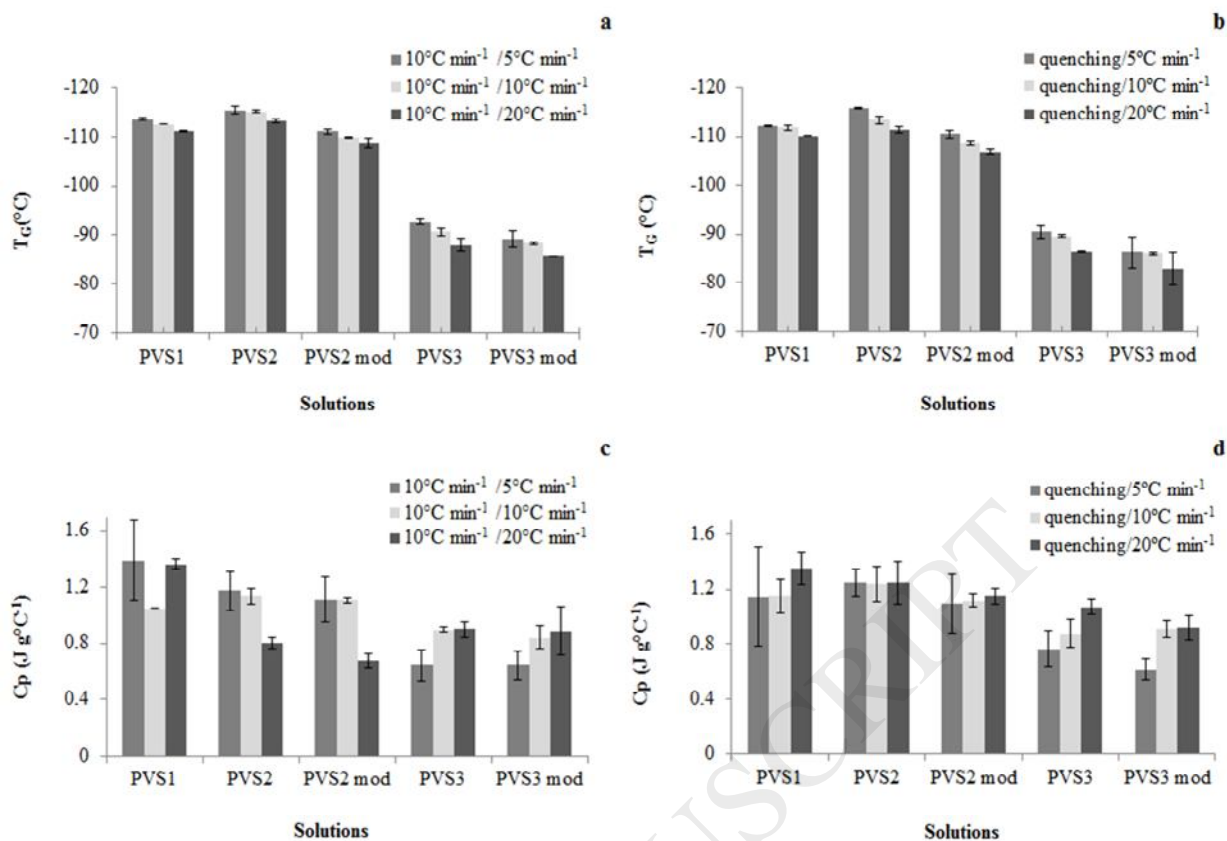


Figure 4. Typical scan of shoot tips of garlic after treatment with PVS3 for 2 h. Both cooling and warming rates were 10°C min⁻¹. The black arrows mark to the glass transition inflection point in cooling and warming scans, while gray arrows signal the freezing and melting events.

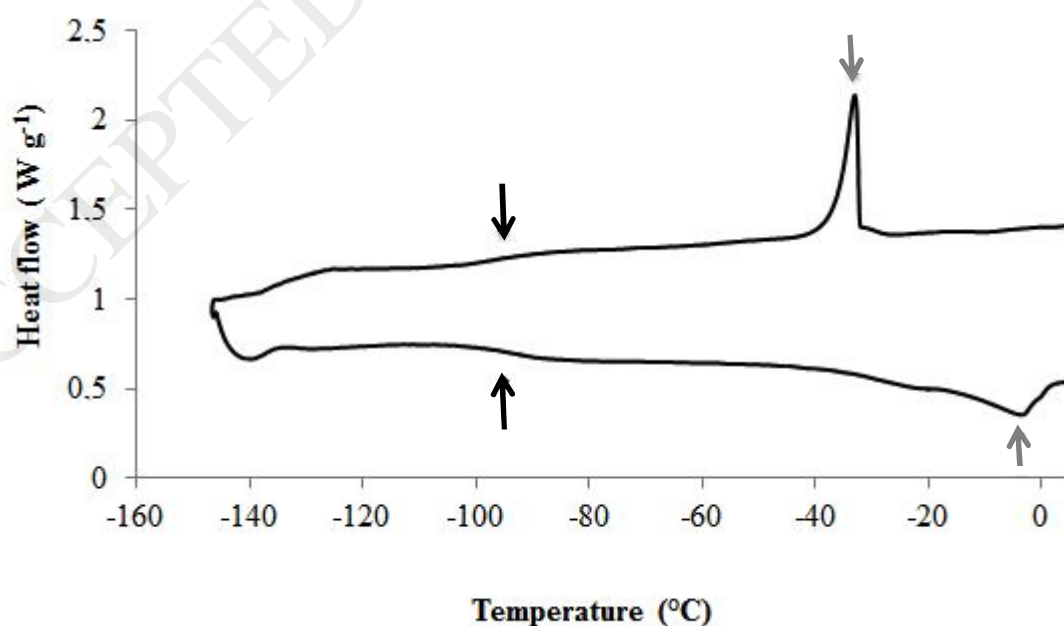


Table 1. Composition of vitrification solutions.

| Solution | Component (% w v ⁻¹) | | | | | | |
|----------|----------------------------------|------|------|----|----------|---------|-------|
| | Sorbitol | EG | DMSO | PG | Glycerol | Sucrose | Water |
| PVS1 | 9.1 | 13 | 6 | 13 | - | - | 64.1 |
| PVS2 | - | 15 | 15 | - | 30 | 13.7 | 40.3 |
| PVS2 mod | - | 16.5 | 16.5 | - | 37.8 | 13.7 | 31.3 |
| PVS3 | - | - | - | - | 50 | 50 | 28.6 |
| PVS3 mod | - | - | 5 | - | 50 | 50 | 24.1 |

Table 2. Glass transition parameters of different plant vitrification solutions (cooling and warming rates were both 10°C min⁻¹).

| Type of PVS | T _G (°C) | ΔC _p (J g ⁻¹ °C ⁻¹) |
|-------------|-----------------------------|--|
| PVS1 | -112.15 ± 0.38 ^b | 1.22 ± 0.03 ^a |
| PVS2 | -114.31 ± 0.38 ^a | 1.12 ± 0.04 ^{a,b} |
| PVS2 mod | -109.42 ± 0.11 ^c | 1.07 ± 0.04 ^b |
| PVS3 | -89.85 ± 0.29 ^d | 0.87 ± 0.01 ^b |
| PVS3 mod | -86.84 ± 0.65 ^e | 0.83 ± 0.01 ^b |

Average values and standard deviation for at least four repeats. Means of T_G and ΔC_p, in a column, with the same letter are not significantly different according to the Duncan's Multiple Range Test at alpha = 0.05.

Table 3. Crystallization parameters (mean ± standard deviation) of garlic shoot tips after treatment with PVS3 for 2 h. Onset of the melting endotherm and crystallinity as crystallization percentage, both measured in the warming scan. Cooling scans were performed at 10°C min⁻¹ and warming scans at different rates.

| Warming rate (°C min ⁻¹) | Onset (°C) | Crystallized (%) |
|---|---------------|---------------------|
| 5 | -19.87 ± 9.40 | 1.96 ± 2.51 |
| 10 | -16.49 ± 3.73 | 1.21 ± 0.25 |
| 20 | -14.61 ± 0.62 | 0.37 ± 0.51 |