# **Excipient Selection for Thermally Stable Enveloped and Non-Enveloped Viral Vaccine Platforms in Dry Powders**

Steven P. Toniolo<sup>a</sup>, Sam Afkhami<sup>b</sup>, Ahmad Mahmood<sup>c</sup>, Cécile Fradin<sup>c</sup>, Brian D. Lichty<sup>b</sup>, Matthew S. Miller<sup>d</sup>, Zhou Xing<sup>b</sup>, Emily D. Cranston<sup>a,e,f</sup>, Michael R. Thompson<sup>a\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Department of Chemical Engineering, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada

<sup>b</sup> McMaster Immunology Research Centre and Department of Pathology & Molecular Medicine, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada

<sup>c</sup> Department of Physics and Astronomy, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada

<sup>d</sup> Michael G. DeGroote Institute for Infectious Diseases Research, McMaster Immunology Research Centre, and Department of Biochemistry & Biomedical Sciences, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada

<sup>e</sup> Department of Wood Science, University of British Columbia, 2424 Main Mall, Vancouver, BC, V6T 1Z4, Canada

<sup>f</sup> Department of Chemical and Biological Engineering, University of British Columbia, 2360 East Mall, Vancouver, BC V6T 1Z3, Canada

\* Corresponding Author: E-mail address: mthomps@mcmaster.ca (M.R. Thompson)

# Nomenclature

AdHu5	human type 5 adenovirus
CTC	controlled temperature chain
DSC	differential scanning calorimetry
GFP	green fluorescent protein
MEM	minimum essential medium
PBS	phosphate buffered saline
RNA	ribonucleic acid
SEM	standard error of the mean
Tg	glass transition temperature
T <sub>m</sub>	phase transition temperature
VSV	vesicular stomatitis virus
WHO	World Health Organization

#### 1 Abstract

2 Two enveloped viral vectors, vesicular stomatitis virus and influenza virus, and a non-enveloped

3 viral vector, human adenovirus type 5, were encapsulated by spray drying to enhance thermal

4 stability. Results with these candidates led to the hypothesis that stability performance of chosen

5 excipients may be less virus-specific, as previously postulated in the literature, and more 6 differentiated based on whether the virus has a lipid envelope. Spray dried samples were 7 characterized for their thermal properties, RNA viability and *in vitro* viral activity after storage at 8 37 °C for up to 30 days or at 45°C for up to 3 days. The enveloped viral vectors, as a group, 9 were more thermally stable in trehalose while the non-enveloped viral vector showed higher activity with mannitol as the primary excipient in blends. Trehalose shows strong hydrogen 10 bonds with the envelope's lipid membrane than the other carbohydrates, more effectively 11 replacing water molecules while maintaining the fluidity of the membrane. Conversely, the small 12 13 size of mannitol molecules was attributed to the more effective hydrogen bonding between water 14 and the protein capsid of non-enveloped viral vectors. In all cases, a matrix with high glass 15 transition temperature contributed to thermal stabilization through vitrification. This work 16 suggests that carbohydrate stabilizer selection may be more dependent on the envelope rather 17 than the specific viral vector, which, if universally true, will provide a guideline for future 18 formulation development.

19

20 KEYWORDS: spray drying, enveloped, vitrification, viral, vaccine

21

#### 22 **1. Introduction**

23 The stabilization of vaccines, including viral-based vaccines, through cryopreservation is 24 the current best practice to ensure that stored vaccines maintain their efficacy when administered 25 to humans [1]. This requires vaccines in aqueous media to be kept below 2-8 °C [1], and often 26 well below this range, resulting in the necessity of a cold chain management system for the 27 production, transportation, and storage of vaccines. The implementation of a cold chain system 28 is costly to suppliers and governments, whereas failure to adhere to management protocols can 29 have serious consequences to public health. As such, the World Health Organization (WHO) has 30 advocated for alternative storage methods to alleviate the dependency on cold chain systems [2]. 31 This has led to the development of thermally stable vaccines to preserve the virus in a dry state 32 based on vitrification [3,4].

33 Broadly, viruses can be classified into two structural groups, enveloped and non-34 enveloped. Enveloped viruses, such as vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) and influenza virus, have 35 their genetic material confined within a protein capsid that is surrounded by a lipid membrane 36 [5]. The genetic material of non-enveloped viruses, like adenovirus, is enclosed within a rigid 37 protein capsid and lacks a lipid membrane [6]. The lipid membrane and protein capsid participate 38 differently in the two relevant mechanisms involved in the preservation of biologics in the dry 39 state (intended to eliminate the dependency for cold chain storage); the two mechanisms are 40 *water replacement hypothesis* and vitrification theory [7]. The two mechanisms are not mutually 41 exclusive and both are often required to preserve the biologic in the dry state[8]. Damaging these 42 layers in the preparation of dry powder vaccines is generally felt to be a major cause for reduced 43 viral infectivity and vaccine efficacy.

2

44 The water replacement hypothesis considers stabilization of the virus with carbohydrates 45 based on chemical interactions. The modelled mechanism states that upon dehydration, the 46 hydroxyl groups of the carbohydrate, form hydrogen bonds with the protein capsid to maintain 47 the native protein structure and prevent denaturation [9]. Similarly, with lipid membranes, upon 48 dehydration, the hydroxyl groups of the carbohydrate will stabilize phosphate heads of the lipids 49 through the formation of hydrogen bonds [10]. Without the presence of these stabilizing 50 hydrogen bonds, the lipid membrane will experience an increase in van der Waals attraction 51 between the hydrocarbon tails of the lipid bilayer [10], resulting in fusion and increased rigidity 52 of the bilayer, as the membrane transitions into a gel (solid) state [7,11]. The temperature at 53 which this transition occurs is known as the phase transition temperature (T<sub>m</sub>), below which a 54 membrane is in its gel state. The (T<sub>m</sub>) increases when the hydrogen bonds between water and the 55 phosphate heads are not replaced [12]. When the gel state lipid membrane is rehydrated, it 56 locally transitions back to the disordered fluid-like liquid crystalline phase, resulting in non-57 uniform fluidity and leakage of internal components. The hydroxyl groups of some known 58 sugars, such as sucrose and trehalose, have been shown to be more effectively able to replace the 59 hydrogen bonds formed between water and the phosphate heads upon dehydration of the lipid 60 membrane, stabilizing the phase transition temperature and preserving membrane fluidity and 61 viral function [13].

62 Vitrification theory is centered around the concept that biologics can remain active through encapsulation by a rigid, amorphous glassy phase of a carbohydrate matrix [14]. 63 An 64 encapsulated biologic is less susceptible to protein denaturation that would otherwise occur 65 during aggregation of the biologics or by thermal stresses. A glassy matrix is ideal for vitrification as its disordered state allows for improved encapsulation of the biologics compared 66 67 to a crystalline material [15]. Molecular mobility in the glassy amorphous phase governs how 68 well a biologic is encapsulated over time and can be characterized by difference between the 69 storage temperature of a material and its glass transition temperature  $(T_g)$  [16]. As the storage temperature approaches the material Tg, the molecular mobility of the material increases 70 71 significantly, which will lead to reduced confinement and ultimately yield protein denaturation [16]. When the storage temperature of a material is  $\sim 50$  °C below the T<sub>g</sub>, known as the 72 Kauzmann temperature, molecular mobility in the amorphous phase is deemed to be insignificant 73 74 and is ideal for long-term storage of biologics [17]. The presence of water due to high humidity 75 can depress the T<sub>g</sub> of many matrix materials, resulting in rapid activity loss [18,19,20], as well as degradation of encapsulated biologics over time [16]. Additionally, low Tg materials have a 76 77 greater tendency to recrystallize at ambient temperatures due to higher molecular mobility of the 78 material itself, which is undesirable for vitrification [16].

Lyophilisation is the preferred method for vitrification of biologics in industry, but the process is time consuming, limited by its batch throughput [21] and biologics can be disturbed by stresses endured during the freezing and drying process [22]. An alternative to lyophilisation that has garnered attention in academic and industrial research recently, is the use of spray drying to produce dry powders, with applications as vaccines, for example [1]. The process uses pressurized gas to aerosolize a liquid feed containing the vaccine and excipient formulation, into a heated chamber, where it is then rapidly dried into particles which can be collected in a cyclone chamber [23]. Vitrification by spray drying involves undesirable transport phenomena related to
droplet formation and drying but offers many demonstrated benefits as well to encapsulate and
protect vaccines, including tunability, scalability and relatively short batch time [1].

89 Recent efforts to improve thermal stability of viral vectors through spray drying, have 90 vielded encouraging results [14]; however, there is a fundamental lack of knowledge on how 91 different viral vectors behave when spray dried with various excipients. The literature in this 92 field has almost exclusively focused on the thermal stability of one biologic at a time and 93 repeatedly concluded that the choice of stabilizing carbohydrate requires broad and substantial 94 screening to yield ideal storage results (normally at 25°C for several months or under accelerated 95 evaluation at temperatures closer to 40°C for many days). This study examines differences in the 96 thermal stabilization of spray dried viruses that are classified by whether they are enveloped 97 (influenza and VSV) or non-enveloped (human adenovirus type 5; AdHu5). The chosen 98 stabilizing sugar matrices for discussion in this paper were found through broader screening 99 studies to show superior stabilization of the biologics, demonstrated by using identical (non-100 optimized) spray drying conditions. The intent of the work is to explain the observed preference 101 of sugar species in stabilizing enveloped versus non-enveloped viral vectors to ultimately 102 provide guidance in excipient selection for this new class of dry powder vaccine products.

103

# 104 **2. Materials and Methods**

#### 105 2.1 Chemicals and Viral Vectors

106 D-(+)-trehalose dihydrate, D-mannitol, dextran (Mr 40,000 kDa), anhydrous lactose were 107 purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Ontario, Canada). Culture media was prepared from Alpha 108 Minimum Essential Medium Eagle ( $\alpha$ -MEM) (in house according to protocol by the supplier, 109 Technologies: Ontario, Canada) with 10% fetal bovine serum and Life 1% 110 streptomycin/penicillin (Invitrogen; Ontario, Canada). Phosphate buffered saline (PBS) was 111 prepared in house.

Recombinant replication-deficient human type 5 adenovirus expressing green fluorescent protein (AdHu5GFP) and vesicular stomatitis viral vector expressing green fluorescent protein (VSVGFP) were produced in the vector facility of the McMaster Immunology Research Centre (MIRC), as described previously [24]. The A/Puerto Rice/8/1934 H1N1 mNeon-2A-HA virus (Influenza mNeon) was a gift from Dr. Heaton of Duke University and was propagated in embryonated chicken eggs [25]. From this point on, these viruses are termed AdHu5, VSV and influenza for brevity.

#### 119 **2.2** Spray Drying of Viral Vectors

120 Spray dried powder viral vectors were produced by spray drying using a Mini Spray 121 Dryer B-290 (Büchi; Switzerland) with 0.7 mm spray nozzle and high performance cyclone 122 attachment, as previously described [18]. For all spray dried excipients, the spray dryer was 123 operated at the same (non-optimized) conditions, namely a spray gas flow rate of 439 L/h, feed 124 solution of 234 mL/h and a nozzle inlet temperature of 110 °C. The concentration of all feed

125 solutions was 4 wt% solute.

### 126 2.3 Storage of the Powder Viral Vector

127 Samples of the dry powder viral vectors were stored individually in closed 2 mL Nalgene 128 General Long-Term Storage Cryogenic Tubes (Nalgene; Ontario, Canada) sealed with Parafilm 129 Wax (Bemis NA; Wisconsin, US). The tubes were placed in a re-sealable plastic bag and stored 130 within a glass jar filled with gel desiccant and sealed with Parafilm Wax to ensure a low humidity environment (<10% RH). The glass jars were sealed within another resealable plastic 131 bag and placed in a water bath for temperature control at 37 °C for up to 30 days or under 132 "accelerated storage conditions" at 45 °C for up to 3 days. The liquid control containing only 133 134 PBS buffer and AdHu5, VSV, or influenza were stored in a plastic resealable bag within a tightly 135 sealed glass jar without gel desiccant.

### 136 2.4 Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC)

137 Thermograms for the spray dried powders (without viral vector) were measured by differential scanning calorimetry (DSC). Powder samples were weighed out between 4-8 mg and 138 hermetically sealed in Tzero<sup>TM</sup> pans. The samples were analyzed with a Q200 Differential 139 Scanning Calorimeter (TA Instruments; New Castle, DE). Samples were tested using a 140 141 modulated DSC protocol from 20 °C to 200 °C at a ramp rate of 1 °C/min, an amplitude of ±1°C 142 and an oscillation period of 30 s, under a nitrogen purge gas flow rate of 50 mL/min. The glass 143 transition temperature (T<sub>g</sub>) of the sample was determined using TA Universal Analysis software 144 (TA Instruments; New Castle, DE).

#### 145 **2.5 RNA Staining**

Spray dried samples of VSV were stored, as described above, under the accelerated 146 storage conditions for 3 days at 45 °C. The samples were reconstituted with nuclease free water. 147 148 A liquid control of VSV in PBS was dried and stored under the same conditions. The RNA 149 staining was conducted in an opaque flat bottom 96 well plate with the QuantiFluor RNA System 150 (Promega; Madison, WI) in accordance with the Promega QuatiFluor RNA System Protocol 151 [26]. Fluorescence was measured using a Spectramax i3 (Molecular Devices; San Diego, CA). 152 To mitigate the effects of the different excipients on the fluorescence readout, standard curves 153 were prepared for each excipient or blend of excipients at the same concentration of the 154 reconstituted spray dried samples.

#### 155 2.6 FTIR of Lipid-Sugar Interactions

#### 156 2.6.1 POPC- Sugar Liposome Preparation

To mimic the lipid-sugar interactions that occur between the lipid envelope of an enveloped virus and the encapsulating sugar, a lipid analogue was selected and assembled into liposomes and mixed with the sugar excipients. The selected lipid was 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-snglycero-3-phosphocholine (POPC) from Avanti Polar Lipids, Inc. (Alabaster, AL) as POPC is found in relatively large percentages in the cellular and viral envelope [5]. POPC was preferred 162 over lipid extracts from the viral envelope due to the large quantity of lipid needed to create

163 liposomes with high lipid-to-sugar ratios for each sugar compound, to elucidate their interactions

164 with the lipid.

165 The lipids were first prepared into lipid films by evaporating chloroform dissolved lipids under 166 an argon gas stream and dried further in a vacuum chamber overnight. After drying, the films 167 were rehydrated with MilliQ water (18.2 M $\Omega$  cm) to a concentration of 10 mg/mL and mixed 168 with the respective excipient blend (10 mg/mL) to the desired lipid:sugar ratio by mass. The 169 solution was vortexed and subjected to 10 freeze-thaw cycles using liquid nitrogen and a warm 170 water bath, to give unilamellar liposomes, with sugar present both inside and outside of the 171 liposome. The solution was then extruded 11 times through a 100 nm diameter pore membrane 172 using the Avanti® Mini-Extruder (Avanti Polar Lipids, Inc. Alabaster, AL), to create a more 173 monodisperse liposome size. Dynamic light scattering (DLS) analysis of the POPC-sugar 174 solution with a Malvern ZetaSizer Nano (Malvern Panalytical; Montreal, OC) vielded an average 175 particle size of approximately 140 nm. The liposome suspension was transferred to a vial, purged with argon gas, wrapped in parafilm, and stored at 4 °C. Suspensions were used within 176 177 one week [27].

#### 178 **2.6.2 POPC-Sugar Preparation for FTIR Sampling**

179 Spectroscopy-grade KBr powder (Sigma-Aldrich; Mississauga, ON) was added to the 180 POPC-sugar liposomes at a ratio of 25  $\mu$ L of liposome/100 mg KBr to allow for the sample to be 181 handled in the FTIR while ensuring a strong signal. The KBr-liposome mixture was dried under 182 vacuum in a chamber containing desiccant for 4 hours to remove the bulk water. Residual water 183 was removed by drying the sample in an oven at 110 °C overnight.

#### 184 2.6.3 Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR)

185 Infrared absorption measurements were carried out using a Nicolet 6700 FT-IR 186 Spectrometer (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) equipped with a Smart iTR Diamond ATR and a DTGS KBr detector. The acquisition parameters were: 4 cm<sup>-1</sup> resolution, 128 co-added 187 interferograms covering a 4000-525 cm<sup>-1</sup> wavenumber range at room temperature and the ATR 188 189 correction feature of the software was applied. Spectral analysis was carried out with the OMNIC Spectra software. The spectral region between 3600 and 3000 cm<sup>-1</sup> was selected to 190 191 measure the -OH stretching band (vOH) and the band position was calculated as the average of 192 spectral positions of 80% of the maximum peak height, similar to Wolkers et al. [28].

#### 193 2.7 In Vitro Testing of Viral Vectors

#### 194 2.7.1 Cell Culturing

195 Vero cells isolated from kidney epithelial cells and A549 lung epithelial cells were 196 thawed from liquid nitrogen and cultured with Alpha Minimum Essential Medium Eagle ( $\alpha$ -197 MEM) in T150 culture flasks. Cell culturing was completed in a humidified Forma Series II 198 Water Jacketed CO<sub>2</sub> Incubator (Thermo Scientific Corporation; Waltham, MA) at 37°C and 199 5.0% CO<sub>2</sub>. When cells appeared to be 80-90% confluent, they were split into a new T150 culture
200 flask and/or plated in a 96-well plate for *in vitro* testing.

201 2.7.2 GFP Detection and Endpoint TCID Calculation

202 The viral activity after the spray drying process and subsequent storage was determined by 203 an endpoint dilution in a 96 flat bottom well plate. For the VSV vector, plated Vero cells were infected with 4 mg of powder (initial concentration of  $1.30 \times 10^9$  pfu/g) reconstituted in culture 204 media. For influenza, plated Vero cells were infected with 4 mg of powder (initial concentration 205 of  $2.51 \times 10^5$  pfu/g) reconstituted in culture media. For AdHu5, plated A549 cells were infected 206 207 with 4 mg of powder (initial concentration of  $2.71 \times 10^8$  pfu/g). After the overnight incubation 208 of plated the respective cells, the cell media was removed and replaced with an eight-fold serial 209 dilution from each reconstituted sample at a volume of 100  $\mu$ L per well and a total of 4 wells per 210 sample. After overnight incubation, viral infectivity was detected by the presence of a GFP 211 expression indicated by a bright green hue to cells, observed under an EVOS FL Cell Imaging 212 System with a GFP filter (Thermo Scientific Corporation; Waltham, MA). A positive GFP response of a single cell within a well constituted a positive infection response with respect to the 213 214 endpoint dilution. If greater than 50% of the wells in the row were non-expressive, the dilution 215 was determined to have reached its endpoint and the median tissue culture infections dose 216 (TCID<sub>50</sub>) was calculated using the Reed-Muench method [29]. Using the Poisson distribution, 217 the results were multiplied by a factor of 0.69 to convert to an approximated pfu value and 218 reported as a viral activity loss of pfu/g of material with error bars calculated as the standard 219 error (n = 3). Due to the different starting titres of the various types of viral vectors, the data was 220 plotted as Relative Activity to normalize the activity data between the different viral vectors. 221 Relative Activity was calculated according to Equation 1:

222 Relative Activity = 
$$\frac{\log_{10}(Initial\ titre) - \log_{10}(Titre\ lost)}{\log_{10}(Initial\ titre)} \times 100$$
 (Eq. 1)

# 223 **3. Results**

#### 224 **3.1** Thermal Storage Properties of Spray Dried Powders

Spray dried excipients (with no virus included) were stored in the same low relative humidity environment at 37 °C as the spray dried viral vectors, to investigate changes in glass transition temperature over time; the chosen excipients were selected for an inhalable formulation, and tested individually or as binary blends. The glass transition temperatures of the samples were measured using DSC (Table 1) with an estimated uncertainty in the measurement of  $\pm 0.1$  °C. Ideal formulations should exhibit an amorphous phase with a glass transition above 100 °C to ensure normal storage conditions are far below the Kauzmann temperature.

Table 1: Glass transition temperatures  $(T_g)$  of excipients after spray drying (Day 0), and after storage for 7, 10 and 15 days at 37 °C at low relative humidity.

Sample	T <sub>g</sub> (Day 0, 37	T <sub>g</sub> (Day 7, 37	T <sub>g</sub> (Day 10, 37	T <sub>g</sub> (Day 15,
	°C)	°C)	°C)	37 °C)

Trehalose	110	98	72	58
Trehalose/Dextran (1:3)	88	81	86	88
Trehalose/Dextran (3:1)	88	87	67	61
Mannitol/Dextran (2:1)	113	109	101	99
Dextran	125	123	113	107

234

235 Both the dextran and mannitol/dextran particles exhibited the highest T<sub>g</sub> values after spray drying, measured at 125 °C and 113 °C, respectively. Trehalose spray dried samples had a 236 similarly high, T<sub>g</sub> of 110 °C. The trehalose/dextran ratios of 1:3 and 3:1 had identical T<sub>g</sub> values 237 after spray drying (88 °C) and were the lowest of the excipients tested. After 10 days of storage 238 at 37 °C, trehalose and 3:1 trehalose/dextran exhibited a significant drop in  $T_{g\!\!,}$  and became 239 240 matrices with the lowest Tg in the study at 72 °C and 67 °C, respectively. The Tg is known to 241 decrease because of the gradual plasticization effect of water on carbohydrates which leads to 242 increased molecular mobility of the amorphous phase; however, suitable excipients will 243 experience a smaller change in T<sub>g</sub> over time than poorer candidates. While low, these stored T<sub>g</sub> 244 values still reasonably met the Kauzmann temperature for targeted room temperature storage (but 245 not at 37 °C). The T<sub>g</sub> of both trehalose and 3:1 trehalose/dextran continued to decrease slightly 246 to 58 °C and 61 °C after 15 days of storage, respectively. The T<sub>g</sub> of mannitol/dextran and dextran 247 samples both dropped by 12 °C after 10 days of storage but remained above the desired threshold 248 of 100 °C. The 1:3 trehalose/dextran blend yielded the smallest change in T<sub>g</sub> after 10 days of 249 storage, barely decreasing from 88 °C to 86 °C.

250

#### 3.2 Activity of Spray Dried Viral Vectors after 30 Days Storage

251 Using the same excipients reported in Table 1, spray dried powders containing AdHu5, 252 VSV and influenza were subjected to storage at 37 °C in low relative humidity for up to 30 days 253 to evaluate thermal stability. The measured activity losses (reported as relative activity, Eqn. 1) 254 were high due to the non-optimized (yet consistent) spray drying conditions used, but it was 255 decided the study would better reveal excipient effects on the viral vector activity if the process 256 environment was not varied while the sugar stabilizers were changed.

- 257
- 258

#### [Figure 1]

259 Figure 1 shows the liquid control samples reached a state with no detectable viral activity over the course of the storage study. The decline in activity was greatest for influenza, followed 260 by VSV and lastly, AdHu5. Conversely, the spray dried powders showed superior thermal 261 262 stability, with some samples retaining up to 50% of their original titre by the end of the storage period. Titre losses were notably different for the three vectors with the different excipients; 263 264 however, VSV and influenza showed similar trends across the group of excipients. Activity after 265 storage for 30 days at 37 °C resembled the activity from an accelerated storage study at 45 °C 266 after 3 days and accelerated studies also indicated that excipient blends all outperformed 267 individual excipients, except for trehalose (data not shown).

268 More specifically, for the spray dried powders with AdHu5, mannitol/dextran exhibited 269 the lowest activity losses and was the only formulation for this viral vector to retain activity after 270 30 days of storage at 37 °C, with one sample in the set of triplicates yielding no detectable 271 activity; we have previously reported this formulation as ideal for both AdHu5 and recombinant 272 replication-defective chimpanzee type 68 adenovirus [30], which is mentioned to highlight the 273 formulation is not just uniquely suited to one adenovirus. Dextran was considered the least 274 effective excipient at stabilizing AdHu5 since spray dried samples lost most of their activity after 275 only one day of storage whereas the control was completely inactive after 15 days of storage. By 276 Day 30, all samples except for mannitol/dextran were determined to have lost all detectable 277 activity.

Better performing formulations with VSV were trehalose or trehalose/dextran (3:1), both 278 279 were able to maintain some activity even after 30 days of storage contrary to the other spray 280 dried VSV samples which demonstrated no detectable activity after 15 days of storage. 281 Negligible activity was seen for the liquid control after 15 days of storage. Activity losses for 282 samples of trehalose and trehalose/dextran (3:1) appeared to reach a plateau after 10 days. The 283 titre loss of the liquid control was minor initially but exceeded the trehalose and 284 trehalose/dextran samples after 7 days of storage at 37 °C. Dextran was the least effective 285 stabilizer with VSV as well, when considering both spray drying (process loss at Day 0) and 286 storage results together, while the mannitol/dextran blend experienced the greatest loss in 287 activity immediately after the spray drying process.

288 The best formulation for stabilizing influenza was trehalose, followed by 289 trehalose/dextran (3:1) - similar to the results with VSV. By 15 days of storage, the trehalose 290 formulation was the only influenza sample that retained some viral activity, as all other 291 formulations were below the limits for activity detection. After 30 days, only one out of three 292 samples of the trehalose formulation was able to elicit a positive infection response. In 293 comparison, the liquid control for influenza lost all activity after 10 days of storage and the 294 mannitol/dextran blend vielded the highest initial activity loss (i.e. process loss). The initial 295 starting titre of the influenza vector was approximately 3.0 log lower than either AdHu5 or VSV, 296 and as such activity losses appeared to be relatively greater.

#### 297 3.3 Quantification of Intact RNA after Storage of VSV-containing Powders

298 To gain a detailed understanding of the damage occurring to the lipid membrane of 299 enveloped viruses during the preparation and storage of dry powder vaccines, the amount of 300 intact RNA after storage was measured through a staining method, using the enveloped VSV as 301 the model system in this case. Samples were tested immediately after spray drying and after three 302 days of accelerated storage at 45 °C under low relative humidity, and were compared to VSV 303 dried directly from the liquid control (i.e., buffer solution) then aged following the same 304 protocol. The amount of intact RNA after spray drying and storage is shown in Figure 2, 305 exhibiting an inverse correlation (in general) with the activity values shown in Figure 1. With 306 low RNA values, the RNA of the viral vector is exposed and unprotected by the excipient 307 resulting in a lower activity.

308

#### 309

310

#### [Figure 2]

- The larger intact RNA values in Figure 2 of samples exposed to the spray 311 312 drying/reconstitution/ageing steps indicates that the encapsulating sugars were able to protect the 313 viral genetic material and prevent damage to the lipid membrane. Exposed RNA denatures 314 quickly and becomes undetectable by the fluorescent dye used in this assay. (Evidence that 315 exposed RNA denatures under these storage conditions and is not detected by the current dye 316 was supported by an additional control experiment conducted whereby stock RNA at 50 ng of 317 RNA/ $\mu$ L was dried and tested; after 3 days at 45 °C the detectable RNA decreased 65% to 17 ± 2 318 ng of RNA/ $\mu$ L.)
- 319 The VSV-mannitol/dextran powder had the lowest concentration of detectable RNA at 320  $2.0 \pm 0.4 \times 10^{-6}$  ng/pfu after spray drying and also had the lowest detectable RNA after three days of storage  $(0.6 \pm 0.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ ng/pfu})$  indicating poor stabilizing performance with VSV. The 321 322 VSV-trehalose sample had a high value initially and experienced the smallest decrease in detectable RNA over the three days of storage, showing that most RNA was protected. The 323 324 VSV-dextran powder also exhibited a high RNA value initially but then had the most significant rate of decline (from  $6.1 \pm 0.3 \times 10^{-6}$  ng/pfu to  $1.04 \pm 0.08 \times 10^{-6}$  ng/pfu after three days) which 325 326 suggests that the matrix could not prevent RNA leakage and denaturation during storage. A 327 dried VSV-only control (no excipient) yielded the lowest detectable RNA concentration of all samples after 3 days of storage with only  $0.37 \pm 0.01 \times 10^{-6}$  ng/pfu measured. 328

#### 329 3.4 Strength of Lipid-Sugar Interactions

To understand the strength of hydrogen bonding between the lipid membrane analogue (POPC liposomes) and sugar excipients, the average position of the hydroxyl vibrational stretching band (vOH) of the sugar was measured by FTIR. The vOH position of the different liposome-sugar mixtures as a function of changing the POPC to sugar mass ratio is displayed in Figure 3.

335

#### [Figure 3]

336 Hydrogen bonding interactions between the lipids and sugars became more apparent in this test as the POPC:sugar ratio increased, i.e., at increasing ratios, the lipid-sugar hydrogen 337 338 bonding dominated over the sugar-sugar hydrogen bonding. A decrease in the vOH peak 339 position indicates a shorter hydrogen bond length, which means a stronger bond. We believe 340 that at higher POPC:sugar ratios, the test was better at approximating what happens at the excipient-viral vector envelope interface and focus the discussion primarily on the 3:1 341 342 POPC:sugar data points. The excipients that form the strongest hydrogen bonds with lipids thus 343 follow the order trehalose/trehalose/dextran 3:1>mannitol:dextran 3:1>trehalose/dextran 1:3, 344 according to Figure 3. This trend generally matches the activity (particularly at day 5 in Figure 345 1) and RNA viability, implying that hydrogen bond strength is linked to the ability of certain 346 sugars to thermally stabilize viral vectors with lipid membrane envelopes.

347 More specifically for trehalose and trehalose/dextran 3:1 formulations, the vOH band 348 position decreased with increasing POPC:sugar ratio, indicating increasing hydrogen bond 349 strength and strong lipid-sugar interactions. Conversely, the vOH band position for 350 mannitol/dextran and trehalose/dextran 1:3 increased with increasing POPC:sugar ratio, 351 indicating that these sugar blends do not contribute significantly to hydrogen bonding with the 352 lipids meaning that they do not be expected to protect the envelope from leaking upon 353 rehydration. Similarly, Wolkers et al. demonstrated that mixing trehalose, glucose and sucrose 354 with POPC vesicles led to a decrease in band position and stronger hydrogen bonding whereas 355 dextran did not [28]. The inability for dextran to hydrogen bond significantly with POPC was 356 attributed to its larger, branched molecular structure [28,31] and explains why the excipient 357 blend with the higher concentration of dextran (trehalose/dextran 1:3) showed weaker hydrogen 358 bonding abilities in the test. Like dextran, other polysaccharide glucans have also been shown to 359 be unable to stabilize lipid bilayers due to steric hindrance [32].

360

#### 361 **4. Discussion**

362 Spray drying has emerged to be a new technology for vaccine formulation development. It 363 is growing apparent that single excipient formulations lack sufficient performance in storage testing to be considered ideal matrices. It is therefore contingent upon the community to develop 364 365 guidance in formulating appropriate mixtures that reduce the development window for dry 366 powder vaccine manufacture. In the present study, it was evident through the activity storage 367 data that the same excipient formulations did not thermally stabilize all viral vectors equivalently 368 when spray dried. The scope of this first study on the theory is obviously too small in the number 369 of viral vectors examined to make definitive assertions but we have seen similar preferential 370 stabilization by the same sugars with other viral vectors during preliminary testing in our lab to 371 conclude that the trends merit serious consideration. The best performing excipients to be used 372 in the spray drying of VSV and influenza viral vectors were trehalose and trehalose/dextran 373 (3:1), based on storage data, showing similarities between the two enveloped viral vectors. The 374 best performing spray dried formulation for AdHu5, the non-enveloped viral vector, in terms of 375 storage data was mannitol/dextran, which conversely experienced the greatest activity loss when 376 spray dried with VSV and influenza. The same mannitol/dextran blend demonstrated excellent 377 stabilization of a chimpanzee type 68 adenovirus in previously reported results by the authors as 378 well [30]. All of these viral vectors are among the important candidate vaccine platforms against 379 infectious diseases and cancer.

380 Differences in thermal stabilization appear attributable to the vitrifying properties of the 381 sugar excipients and the chemical interactions (or lack thereof) between the sugars and the outer 382 surfaces of the viral vectors. The balance of considerations mentioned below for dextran make 383 apparent that excipient selection is quite complicated but not without understandable rules. The 384 use of dextran in the studied blends was universally favored by both enveloped and non-385 enveloped viral vectors due to its high  $T_g$  and its ability to minimize  $T_g$  depression over time, as indicated in Table 1. Since dextran is a large molecule, it has low molecular mobility and as 386 387 such, movement of the virus within the matrix should be limited. This limitation in movement 388 should ensure that the virus remains encapsulated and does not aggregate, which would 389 otherwise result in a loss of activity [16]. However, alone, dextran in spray dried samples 390 demonstrated poor activity retention for both enveloped and non-enveloped viruses (Figure 1f). 391 The use of dextran as the only excipient was considered to be non-ideal, as its large size and 392 branching makes it unable to closely encapsulate the vaccine or prevent aggregation, and unable 393 to effectively replace water hydrogen bonds [28,31] to minimize membrane leakage (Figure 2) 394 resulting in reduced activity as shown previously for encapsulated protein systems [33]. 395 Furthermore, dextran in moderate to high concentrations within a blend yielded high activity 396 losses for enveloped viruses as observed with the trehalose/dextran (1:3) blend for VSV and 397 influenza (Figure 1d). This was further exemplified by the overall increase of the vOH position 398 of trehalose/dextran (1:3) with increasing lipid:sugar ratios, indicating weaker hydrogen bonding 399 with the lipid membrane [28,32], as shown in Figure 3.

400 When dextran was used at lower concentrations in conjunction with smaller carbohydrates, 401 such as mannitol and trehalose, its dominant function was to limit molecular mobility within the 402 matrix (Table 1). The smaller sugars then had the potential to directly interact with the viral 403 vectors, bridging the virus with the stabilizing matrix and minimizing activity loss [33]. Again, 404 the increase in vOH peak position at higher lipid:sugar ratios (Figure 3), indicates that the 405 trehalose/dextran (1:3) blend was not able to interact with the envelope analogue via hydrogen 406 bonding as strongly as the trehalose/dextran (3:1) blend and trehalose-only formulations. Thus, 407 while dextran is an attractive excipient for thermal stabilization of vaccines due to its high T<sub>g</sub>, its 408 inability to stabilize lipid membranes through physical/chemical bonding makes it a poor 409 primary material for stabilizing enveloped viral vectors and as such, should be used as a 410 secondary excipient in blends at low relative concentrations.

411 Trehalose and its blends were generally found to be good thermal stabilizers for all spray 412 dried viral vectors tested here, but more specifically preferred for the enveloped vectors. This agrees with other studies reported in the literature showing trehalose to be a good stabilization 413 414 agent, known to effectively replace water molecules surrounding phosphate heads in lipid 415 membranes upon dehydration, satisfying the water replacement hypothesis [7,34,35]. Trehalose is able to maintain the T<sub>m</sub> of a lipid membrane upon dehydration, which is necessary to stabilize 416 enveloped viral vectors [36] and prevent leakage of viral genetic material through a damaged 417 418 lipid membrane. This was supported here by the larger amounts of intact RNA and strong 419 hydrogen bonding measured for trehalose-rich systems (Figure 2 and 3, respectively). For a disaccharide, trehalose possesses a relatively high Tg and forms a primarily amorphous glassy 420 phase when spray dried [17], vitrifying the viral vector. However, the depression of the T<sub>g</sub> of 421 422 trehalose during storage at elevated temperatures seen in Table 1 suggests that the sugar is not 423 without negative performance factors. The formed matrix experiences significant plasticization over time [16] such that the storage temperature was below the Kauzmann temperature (by the 424 425 10<sup>th</sup> day) whereby the matrix experiences significant molecular mobility. This depression could 426 be due to residual moisture after spray drying as trehalose is known to be a hygroscopic material 427 [37], though residual moisture testing was outside of the scope of this project. Overall, the decrease in Tg for trehalose-containing formulations correlated with a decrease in viral activity 428 429 (Figure 1b-d), particularly over the first 10 days after which a plateau was reached suggesting 430 that the molecular mobility of the matrix stopped, changing as the moisture content (and  $T_g$ ) 431 reached equilibrium [16]. These results imply that the water replacement mechanism dominates 432 over the vitrification mechanism for enveloped viral vector stabilization.

433 While trehalose was able to retain activity of spray dried AdHu5 and outperformed the 434 liquid control, the mannitol/dextran blend was significantly better even after 30 days of storage 435 at 37°C (Figure 1e) with this non-enveloped vector. The mannitol/dextran blend was best at 436 minimizing activity loss of AdHu5 during storage due to the high T<sub>g</sub> of the blend and the ability 437 of mannitol to replace hydrogen bonds with the protein capsid of the non-enveloped viral vector 438 [38]. On the other hand, mannitol is not an ideal excipient, especially for enveloped viral 439 vectors, because it readily crystallizes [38] which could lead to crystal nucleation in the dry state 440 and pierce the lipid membrane of enveloped viruses [39]. Polyols like mannitol, can also alter the phase of a lipid membrane from a bilayer to a hexagonal II phase, resulting in leakage [40]. 441 442 Once the lipid membrane is perturbed, the genetic material of the virus will leak out and lower 443 the infectivity of the viral vector. The decrease in detectable RNA between 0 and 3 days of 444 storage for all excipients with VSV (Figure 2) is an indicator that RNA has likely leaked through 445 the membrane and is unprotected on the outside of the virus. The VSV-mannitol/dextran 446 particles had the lowest concentrations of intact RNA (both immediately after spray drying and 447 after 3 days of storage), corresponding to large activity losses in vitro.

448 After analyzing the trends between the spray dried formulations with AdHu5, VSV, and 449 influenza a set of general criteria can be identified for the production of thermally stabilized 450 enveloped or non-enveloped viral vectors. For dry powder vaccines based on a non-enveloped 451 viral platform, a glassy matrix with high T<sub>g</sub> is preferred that has minimal molecular mobility and 452 encapsulates the virus. However, mobility increases with time due to plasticization and as such, materials that maintain their Tg over time are ideal. These material characteristics can be 453 454 achieved through the blending of small monosaccharides (mannitol) as a primary component, 455 with branched polysaccharides (dextran) in lower concentrations. The monosaccharides are not 456 limited by steric effects and will tightly encapsulate the non-enveloped viral vector, while the polysaccharide will behave as a stabilizing matrix to enhance and maintain the T<sub>g</sub> of the blend. 457 Stabilization of enveloped viruses similarly requires a glassy matrix with high T<sub>g</sub>, but the 458 459 formulation must also contain sugars that have demonstrated the ability to form strong hydrogen 460 bonds with the phosphate heads of lipid membranes to maintain fluidity of the lipid bilayer and 461 prevent a phase transition to the gel state. To achieve this desired effect, polysaccharides 462 (dextran) in lower concentrations can be used within the excipient blend to form a glassy matrix 463 with high Tg. However, the steric effects of the polysaccharide impede the stabilization of individual phosphate heads of the viral lipid bilayer, resulting in a loss of fluidity and viral 464 465 activity when used alone. The addition of small branched disaccharides (trehalose) as the primary component in a blend is necessary to form the hydrogen bonds via its hydroxyl groups, 466 467 and maintain the T<sub>m</sub> of the lipid bilayer, protecting the viral envelope. Thus, when selecting excipients for stabilization of enveloped viruses in the dry state, both the Tg of the sugar and the 468 469  $T_m$  of the lipid must be considered.

470

### 471 **5. Conclusion**

472 This study shows that there are differences in the thermal stabilization of enveloped and 473 non-enveloped viral vectors when spray dried with the same formulation. When selecting 474 excipients it is imperative to consider the viral structure. Trehalose and trehalose/dextran (3:1) 475 were the best excipients at retaining viral activity when spray dried with enveloped viral vectors 476 (VSV and influenza) and mannitol/dextran blends retained the most activity for the non-477 enveloped viral vector (AdHu5). Conversely, mannitol/dextran was the least successful at 478 stabilizing the VSV and influenza vectors. A set of model experiments with lipid liposomes and 479 sugar mixtures supported the importance of hydrogen bonding as a primary mechanism in 480 stabilizing enveloped viral vectors. Furthermore, RNA staining of spray dried powders implied 481 that excipients that did not hydrogen bond with the viral vector envelope allowed for leakage and 482 exposure of the viral genetic material and only small quantities of intact RNA were detectable 483 after storage. The thermal stabilization mechanism for non-enveloped viral vectors was 484 dominated by matrix morphology although the ability for the matrix to replace water bonds with 485 the protein capsid can also improve the stabilization. This work contributes new design rules for 486 excipient selection for dry powder vaccines with different types of viral vectors.

487

## 488 Acknowledgements

489 The authors thank Dr. Xueva Feng for viral vector production, Dr. Nicholas Heaton (Duke 490 University) for providing the influenza mNeon viral vector and Daniel Osorio for DLS 491 measurements. The authors also acknowledge the Biointerfaces Institute at McMaster University 492 for use of their facilities. This study is supported by funds from the Quebec Consortium for 493 Drug Discovery (CQDM), Ontario Centres of Excellence (OCE), the Canadian Institutes of 494 Health Research, and Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada. Cranston 495 holds the Canada Research Chair in Bio-based Nanomaterials (Tier 2). Miller holds a CIHR New 496 Investigator Award and Early Researcher Award from the Government of Ontario.

#### 497 **References**

- 498
- G. Kanojia, G.-J. Willems, H. W. Frijlink, G. F. A. Kersten, P. C. Soema, and J.-P.
  Amorij, "A Design of Experiment approach to predict product and process parameters for a spray dried influenza vaccine," *Int. J. Pharm.*, vol. 511, no. 2, pp. 1098–1111, 2016.
- 502 [2] World Health Organisation, "The controlled temperature chain ( CTC ): frequently asked 503 questions," 2014.
- 504 [3] D. T. Brandau, L. S. Jones, C. M. Wiethoff, J. Rexroad, and C. R. Middaugh,
  505 "MINIREVIEW Thermal Stability of Vaccines," *J. Pharm. Sci.*, vol. 92, no. 2, pp. 218– 231, 2003.
- 507 [4] J. Huang *et al.*, "A novel dry powder influenza vaccine and intranasal delivery
  508 technology: Induction of systemic and mucosal immune responses in rats," *Vaccine*, vol.
  509 23, no. 6, pp. 794–801, 2004.
- 510 [5] P. T. Ivanova, D. S. Myers, S. B. Milne, J. L. Mcclaren, P. G. Thomas, and H. A. Brown,
  511 "Lipid Composition of the Viral Envelope of Three Strains of In fl uenza Virus Not All
  512 Viruses Are Created Equal," 2015.
- 513 [6] M. O. Lasaro and H. C. Ertl, "New Insights on Adenovirus as Vaccine Vectors," *Mol.*514 *Ther.*, vol. 17, no. 8, pp. 1333–1339, 2009.
- 515 [7] J. H. Crowe, J. F. Carpenter, and L. M. Crowe, "the Role of Vitrification in
  516 Anhydrobiosis," *Annu. Rev. Physiol.*, vol. 60, pp. 73–103, 1998.
- 517 [8] D. K. Hincha, A. V. Popova, and C. Cacela, "Effects of Sugars on the Stability and
  518 Structure of Lipid Membranes During Drying," *Adv. Planar Lipid Bilayers Liposomes*,
  519 vol. 3, no. 5, pp. 189–217, 2006.
- M. A. Mensink, H. W. Frijlink, K. van der Voort Maarschalk, and W. L. J. Hinrichs,
  "How sugars protect proteins in the solid state and during drying (review): Mechanisms of
  stabilization in relation to stress conditions," *Eur. J. Pharm. Biopharm.*, vol. 114, pp. 288–
  295, 2017.
- J. H. Crowe, L. M. . C. Crowe, and D. Chapman, "Preservation of Membranes in
  Anhydrobiotic Organisms : The Role of Trehalose," *Science (80-. ).*, vol. 223, no. 4637,
  pp. 701–703, 1984.
- 527 [11] E. A. Golovina, A. Golovin, F. A. Hoekstra, and R. Faller, "Water replacement hypothesis
  528 in atomic details: Effect of trehalose on the structure of single dehydrated POPC bilayers,"
  529 Langmuir, vol. 26, no. 13, pp. 11118–11126, 2010.
- J. H. Crowe, L. M. Crowe, J. F. Carpenter, and C. Aurell Wistrom, "Stabilization of dry phospholipid bilayers and proteins by sugars.," *Biochem. J.*, vol. 242, no. 1, pp. 1–10, 1987.
- J. P. Amorij, A. Huckriede, J. Wilschut, H. W. Frijlink, and W. L. J. Hinrichs,
  "Development of stable influenza vaccine powder formulations: Challenges and

possibilities," Pharm. Res., vol. 25, no. 6, pp. 1256-1273, 2008. 535 L. Chang et al., "Mechanism of protein stabilization by sugars during freeze-drying and 536 [14] 537 storage: Native structure preservation, specific interaction, and/or immobilization in a 538 glassy matrix?," J. Pharm. Sci., vol. 94, no. 7, pp. 1427–1444, 2005. 539 [15] V. Saluja, J. P. Amorij, J. C. Kapteyn, A. H. de Boer, H. W. Frijlink, and W. L. J. 540 Hinrichs, "A comparison between spray drying and spray freeze drying to produce an influenza subunit vaccine powder for inhalation," J. Control. Release, vol. 144, no. 2, pp. 541 542 127–133, 2010. B. C. Hancock, S. L. Shamblin, and G. Zografi, "Molecular Mobility of Amorphous 543 [16] 544 Pharmaceutical Solids Below Their Glass Transition Temperatures," Pharm. Res. An Off. 545 J. Am. Assoc. Pharm. Sci., vol. 12, no. 6, pp. 799-806, 1995. 546 [17] S. Hoe *et al.*, "Use of a fundamental approach to spray-drying formulation design to 547 facilitate the development of multi-component dry powder aerosols for respiratory drug 548 delivery.," Pharm. Res., vol. 31, no. 2, pp. 449-465, 2014. 549 [18] D. A. Leclair, E. D. Cranston, Z. Xing, and M. R. Thompson, "Evaluation of excipients 550 for enhanced thermal stabilization of a human type 5 adenoviral vector through spray 551 drying," Int. J. Pharm., vol. 506, no. 1-2, pp. 289-301, 2016. B. C. Hancock and G. Zografi, "The Relationship Between the Glass Transition 552 [19] 553 Temperature and the Water Content of Amorphous Pharmaceutical Solids," Pharm. Res. 554 An Off. J. Am. Assoc. Pharm. Sci., vol. 11, no. 4, pp. 471–477, 1994. 555 Y. H. Roos and M. Karel, "Plasticizing Effect of Water on Thermal-Behavior and [20] 556 Crystallization of Amorphous Food Models," J. Food Sci., vol. 56, no. 1, pp. 38–43, 1991. 557 [21] M. J. Pikal, "Freeze Drying," Enclopedia of Pharmaceutical Technology, no. 713585875. 558 Informa Healthcare USA, Inc., New York City, NY, pp. 1807–1833, 2006. 559 R. H. Walters, B. Bhatnagar, S. Tchessalov, and K. Izutsu, "Next Generation Drying [22] 560 Technologies for Pharmaceutical," pp. 2673–2695, 2014. 561 [23] R. Vehring, "Pharmaceutical particle engineering via spray drying," Pharm. Res., vol. 25, no. 5, pp. 999-1022, 2008. 562 E. K. Roediger, K. Kugathasan, X. Z. Zhang, B. D. Lichty, and Z. Xing, "Heterologous 563 [24] 564 boosting of recombinant adenoviral prime immunization with a novel vesicular stomatitis virus-vectored tuberculosis vaccine," Mol. Ther., vol. 16, no. 6, pp. 1161-1169, 2008. 565 566 A. T. Harding, B. E. Heaton, R. E. Dumm, and N. S. Heaton, "Rationally designed [25] 567 influenza virus vaccines that are antigenically stable during growth in eggs," *MBio*, vol. 8, 568 no. 3, pp. 1–16, 2017. 569 P. Corporation, "QuantiFluor® RNA System Technical Manual #TM377," p. 19. [26] 570 J. Oreopoulos, R. F. Epand, R. M. Epand, and C. M. Yip, "Peptide-induced domain [27] 571 formation in supported lipid bilayers: Direct evidence by combined atomic force and 572 polarized total internal reflection fluorescence microscopy," *Biophys. J.*, vol. 98, no. 5, pp.

- 573 815–823, 2010.
- W. F. Wolkers, A. E. Oliver, F. Tablin, and J. H. Crowe, "A Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy study of sugar glasses," *Carbohydr. Res.*, vol. 339, no. 6, pp. 1077–1085, 2004.
- 577 [29] L. J. Reed and H. Muench, "A Simple method of estimating fifty per cent endpoints," *Am. J. Epidemiol.*, vol. 27, no. 3, pp. 493–497, 1938.
- 579 [30] S. Afkhami *et al.*, "Spray dried human and chimpanzee adenoviral-vectored vaccines are
  580 thermally stable and immunogenic in vivo," *Vaccine*, vol. 35, no. 22, pp. 2916–2924,
  581 2017.
- J. H. Crowe, A. E. Oliver, F. A. Hoekstra, and L. M. Crowe, "Stabilization of dry
  membranes by mixtures of hydroxyethyl starch and glucose: the role of vitrification," *Cryobiology*, vol. 37, no. 1, pp. 20–30, 1998.
- 585 [32] D. K. Hincha, E. Zuther, E. M. Hellwege, and A. G. Heyer, "Specific effects of fructo586 and gluco-oligosaccharides in the preservation of liposomes during drying," *Glycobiology*,
  587 vol. 12, no. 2, pp. 103–110, 2002.
- W. F. Tonnis, M. A. Mensink, A. De Jager, K. Van Der Voort Maarschalk, H. W. Frijlink,
  and W. L. J. Hinrichs, "Size and molecular flexibility of sugars determine the storage
  stability of freeze-dried proteins," *Mol. Pharm.*, vol. 12, no. 3, pp. 684–694, 2015.
- 591 [34] M. Caffrey, V. Fonseca, and A. C. Leopold, "Lipid-Sugar Interactions," *Plant Physiol.*,
  592 vol. 86, pp. 754–758, 1988.
- 593 [35] J. L. Green and C. A. Angell, "Phase relations and vitrification in saccharide-water
  594 solutions and the trehalose anomaly," *J. Phys. Chem.*, vol. 93, no. 8, pp. 2880–2882, 1989.
- 595 [36] F. A. Hoekstra, W. F. Wolkers, J. Buitink, E. A. Golovina, J. H. Crowe, and L. M. Crowe,
  596 "Membrane stabilization in the dry state," *Comp. Biochem. Physiol. A Physiol.*, vol. 117,
  597 no. 3, pp. 335–341, 1997.
- 598 [37] T. H. Jin, E. Tsao, J. Goudsmit, V. Dheenadhayalan, and J. Sadoff, "Stabilizing
  599 formulations for inhalable powders of an adenovirus 35-vectored tuberculosis (TB)
  600 vaccine (AERAS-402)," *Vaccine*, vol. 28, no. 27, pp. 4369–4375, 2010.
- [38] P. O. Souillac, C. R. Middaugh, and J. H. Rytting, "Investigation of protein / carbohydrate interactions in the dried state . 2 . Diffuse reflectance FTIR studies," *Int. J. Pharm.*, vol.
  235, pp. 207–218, 2002.
- [39] D. E. Pegg, "Principles of Cryopreservation," in *Cryopreservation and Freeze-Drying Protocols*, vol. 368, 2007, pp. 39–57.
- M. Bryszewska and R. M. Epand, "Effects of sugar alcohols and disaccharides in inducing
  the hexagonal phase and altering membrane properties: implications for diabetes
  mellitus," *Biochim. Biophys. Acta*, vol. 943, pp. 485–492, 1988.
- 609
- 610

Table 1: Glass transition temperatures  $(T_g)$  of excipients after spray drying (Day 0), and after storage for 7, 10 and 15 days at 37 °C at low relative humidity.

Sample	T <sub>g</sub> (Day 0, 37	T <sub>g</sub> (Day 7, 37	T <sub>g</sub> (Day 10, 37	T <sub>g</sub> (Day 15,
	°C)	°C)	°C)	37 °C)
Trehalose	110	98	72	58
Trehalose/Dextran (1:3)	88	81	86	88
Trehalose/Dextran (3:1)	88	87	67	61
Mannitol/Dextran (2:1)	113	109	101	99
Dextran	125	123	113	107



Figure 1



