



# Influence of fill factor variation in high shear granulation on the post granulation processes: Compression and tablet properties

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1	Influence of fill factor variation in high shear granulation on the post
2	granulation processes: compression and tablet properties.
3	C. Mangwandi <sup>1, 2</sup> , M.J. Adams <sup>3</sup> , M.J. <sup>1</sup> Hounslow, A.D. Salman <sup>1</sup>
4	
5	<sup>1</sup> Particle Products Group, Department of Chemical and Biological Engineering
6	The University of Sheffield, Mappin Street, Sheffield S1 3JD, UK
7	<sup>2</sup> School of Chemistry & Chemical Engineering, Queen's University Belfast, Belfast BT9 5AG, UK
8	<sup>3</sup> School of Chemical Engineering, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, B15 2TT, UK
9	
10	
11	Corresponding authors
12	E-mail: Addresses
13	<u>c.mangwandi@qub.ac.uk</u> (C. Mangwandi), Tel. +44(0)289 097 4378
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### 15 Abstract

This paper describes an investigation of the effect of fill factor; on the compaction behaviour of the 16 17 granules during tableting and hence mechanical properties of tablets formed. The fill factor; which 18 is the ratio of volume of wet powder material to vessel volume of the granulator, was used as an 19 indicator of batch size. It has been established previously that in high shear granulation the batch 20 size influences the size distribution and granule mechanical properties [1]. The work reported in this 21 paper is an extension to the work presented in [1], hence granules from the same batches were used 22 in production of tablets. The same tabletting conditions were employed during tabletting to allow a 23 comparison of their properties. The compaction properties of the granules are inferred from the data 24 generated during the tabletting process. The tablet strength and dissolution properties of the tablets 25 were also measured. The results obtained show that the granule batch size affects the strength and 26 dissolution of the tablets formed. The tablets produced from large batches were found to be weaker 27 and had a faster dissolution rate. The fill factor was also found to affect the tablet to tablet variation 28 of a non-functional active pharmaceutical ingredient included in the feed powder. Tablets produced 29 from larger batches show greater variation compared to those from smaller batches. 30 Keywords: fill factor, compression, granules strength, compaction energy, batch size

31

## 33 1. Introduction

34 High shear wet granulation has been used extensively in the pharmaceutical industrial as a 35 size enlargement process for granulating feed powders in order to improve their flow characteristics. Moreover, it has been used in a number industries for the manufacture of different products, e.g. 36 37 fertilisers in agro-based industries [2-4], and for the granulation and mixing of metal or powder 38 oxides such as iron, silica and aluminium in the metal processing industry [5, 6]. The quality of the 39 granules formed during this process is sensitive to the process conditions as well as the formulation 40 [1, 7-11]. Several studies have been undertaken to investigate the importance of process variables on 41 the granule size and size distribution [8, 12-15]. Research on scale-up has focused particularly on 42 the influence of the size distribution of the product [7, 12, 16-20]. Hassapour et al. [21] and 43 Rahmanian et al. [22] examined scale-up rules based on constant speed, shear stress and the Froude 44 number to achieve a target granule strength. It was concluded that a constant tip speed was the most 45 effective. However, even when using the same granulator, small variations in the size of the batch 46 can lead to significant differences in the properties of the granules [10, 12, 20, 23-25].

47 The fill factor is defined as the ratio of the volume of wet powder material to the vessel 48 volume of the granulator. Recent work has shown that not only is the granules size affected by the 49 variations in the fill factor but also the mechanical properties of the granules formed [1]. The total 50 mass of the granulate material was varied (from 2113 to 2875 g corresponding to fill factors of 0.21 51 to 0.42 respectively) without changing the other variables such as impeller speed, granulation time 52 and liquid to solid ratio. The resulting mechanical properties, such as strength, yield stress and 53 Young's modulus, of the granules were measured. The granule strength, Young's modulus and yield 54 stress of the granules were shown to increase with increasing batch size as represented by the fill 55 factor.

56 The implications of batch size variation on the downstream processes due to changes in the 57 material properties have not been investigated and this is the objective of the current work. The 58 main aim was to establish the effects of the fill factor on the compression behaviour of the granules 59 and the consequent effect on the tablet properties. The fill factor was varied by changing the total 60 mass of the feed powder and binder liquid without changing other variables (impeller speed, liquid-61 to-solid ratio and granulation time) as described in previous work by the current authors [1]. It was 62 found out that changing the fill factor of the granulator resulted in changes in the size distribution 63 and mechanical properties of the granules produced.

64 The behaviour of granular solids under compression depends on the mechanical properties of the granules and this in turn has an effect on the mechanical properties of the tablets formed. A 65 number of parameters that characterise the compression behaviour were determined (efficacy 66 67 coefficient, net compression work and degree of compression), which will be described in the next 68 section. The objective of this paper was to study the effect of fill factor on the mechanical, 69 dissolution, and homogeneity of tablets formed from high shear granules. The effects of the fill 70 factor on the strength and mean dissolution times of tablets formed from the granules were also 71 measured. Although previous studies have considered the compositional uniformity of tablets [26-72 30], the effect of granulation process variables on tablet homogeneity has not been addressed.

73

2.

# Materials and Methods

# 74

### 2.1 Production of the granules and tablets

Granules were produced in a 10 L high shear granulator (RomatoRoto Junior) from a mixture of lactose monohydrate powder (Granulac 230, MolkerelMeggelGmBH, German) and potato starch (Solani, Pharma, Quality Avebe) using an aqueous solution of hydroxypropyl cellulose (HPC) as the binder. Sodium chloride was added to the powder mixture (1% w/w) as non-functional active ingredient. In all the experiments, the feed powder was pre-mixed at an impeller speed of 250 rpm for 2 min. The subsequent inclusion of the binder involved pouring for a period of about 1 min with an additional granulation period of 6 min [1]. The granules were dried in a fluidised bed at a temperature of 50°C to a moisture content of approximately 4% w/w, which required a drying time of about 25 min. The fill factor was calculated from the following expression [1]:

84 
$$\psi = \frac{m_w}{\rho_w \pi R_B^2 H}$$
 Eq (1)

85

86 where  $m_w$  and  $\rho_w$  are the mass and bulk density of the wet powder, and  $R_B$  and H are the radius and 87 height of the cylindrical granulator vessel. The bulk densities of the dried granules,  $\rho_b$ , in the size 88 range 0.5 to 0.6 mm, from the different batches, were determined by measuring the mass, m, of a 89 known volume of granules, V:

90 
$$\rho_b = \frac{m}{V}$$
 Eq (2)

91 2.1.1 Production of tablets

100 mg tablets were also produced from the granules in the size range 0.5 - 0.6 mm at a maximum compression force of 5 kN using a universal material tester (Instron model 3555); the loading and unloading data were stored in a computer. The loading and unloading speeds were both 10 mm/min and the internal diameter of the die was 6.35 mm. The tablets were stored in sealed plastic bags before their strength and dissolution characteristics were measured. The force – displacement data was recorded during compression of bed of granules into tablet and was used to determine the strength of the granules as described in section 2.1.2.

#### 101 **2.1.2 Determination of granule strength**

During compression of the bed of granules to form tablets the force displacement data was recorded The force-displacement data were analysed using a method described previously [31] to obtain the single granule strength:

105 
$$\ln P = \ln\left(\frac{\tau}{\alpha}\right) + \alpha \varepsilon_n + \ln\left(1 - e^{(-\alpha \varepsilon_n)}\right)$$
 Eq (3)

106

107 where *P* is the applied pressure,  $\varepsilon_n$  is the natural strain,  $\alpha$  is a pressure coefficient and  $\tau$  is the 108 strength parameter which is a measure of the single granule strength. The values of  $\tau$  and  $\alpha$  were 109 obtained by fitting Eq. (3) to the measured values of  $\ln P$  as a function of  $\varepsilon_n$  using non-linear 110 regression.

#### 111 **2.1.3** Analysis of the granule compaction data

112 The stored elastic energy per unit mass of granules during compression of granules into 113 tablets,  $W_e$ , was calculated from the integral of the unloading force data:

114 
$$W_e = \frac{1}{m_b} \int_{\Delta_m}^{\Delta_0} F_{unl}(\Delta) d\Delta$$
 Eq (4)

115 where  $F_{unl}(\Delta)$  is the force during unloading,  $m_b$  is the mass of the bed of granules in the die;  $\Delta_0$  and 116  $\Delta_m$  correspond to the displacement at zero and maximum loading respectively. The net compaction 117 work,  $W_{net}$ , which represents the energy dissipated, corresponds to the difference between the 118 integrals of the loading and unloading curves:

119 
$$W_{net} = \frac{1}{m_b} \left( \int_{0}^{\Delta_{max}} F_l(\Delta) d\Delta - W_e \right)$$
 Eq (5)

120

121 where  $F_l(\Delta)$  is the force during loading.

123 The degree of compression was determined from the initial bed height,  $h_0$ , and bed height at 124 maximum compression pressure,  $h_{max}$  using [32]:

125 
$$C_{p} = \left(\frac{h_{0} - h_{\text{max}}}{h_{0}}\right) \times 100\%$$
 Eq(6)

126

127 This parameter corresponds to the maximum percent engineering compressive strain.

#### 128 2.1.4 Tablet tensile strength

The tablets were compressed diametrically at a speed of 2 mm/min, until fracture occurred and the force-displacement data were automatically logged. A minimum of 10 tablets were measured for each experimental condition and compact type. The strength of the tablets,  $\sigma_t$ , was calculated from the maximum load,  $F_{\text{max}}$  and the dimensions of the tablet, i.e. the tablet diameter  $D_t$  and thickness, x[33, 34]:

134 
$$\sigma_t = 2 \frac{F_{\text{max}}}{\pi x D_t}$$
 Eq (7)

135

136 The specific fracture energy required to fracture the tablets,  $W_t$ , was determined from the integral 137 of the force-displacement curve:

138 
$$W_t = \frac{1}{m_t} \int_0^{\delta_{\text{max}}} F(\delta) d\delta$$
 Eq (8)

139

140 where  $F(\delta)$  is the current compressive force,  $\delta$  is the current displacement,  $\delta_{\text{max}}$  is the 141 displacement corresponding to fracture of the tablet, and  $m_i$  is the mass of the tablet. The fracture 142 energy was normalised by the mass.

#### 144 **2.1.5 Efficacy of compression coefficient**

145 The efficacy of compression coefficient,  $C_{eff}$ , which expresses the ability of the granules to 146 convert the net compression energy into cohesion energy, was determined [35, 36]. The cohesion 147 energy is that required to form bonds between the granules during compression:

148 
$$C_{eff} = \frac{W_t}{W_{net}} \times 100\%$$
 Eq (9)

149

Values > 0.1% are characteristic of an effective conversion of net compression work into cohesion [36-39]. The strength of the tablets formed during compression is linked to amount of cohesion between the constituents of the tablet; higher cohesion would result in formation of stronger tablets whereas lower cohesion would be linked to formation of weaker tablets. Hence efficacy of compression is of particular interest to this study.

#### 155 2.2 Tablet dissolution

The dissolution of 100 mg tablets in 250 ml distilled water was measured at a temperature of 37°C. This involved stirring with a paddle at 250 rpm and monitoring the conductivity of the solution as a function of time using a conductivity meter (Hanna 9000, Hanna Instruments, USA). The conductivity and temperature data were recorded automatically at 10 s intervals using a computer. Five repeat measurements were made.

161 The fraction of the non-functional active ingredient (sodium chloride) dissolved, *Y*, after a time,162 *t*, was determined as follows:

163 
$$Y = \left(\frac{\chi - \chi_o}{\chi_\infty - \chi_o}\right) \times 100 \%$$
 Eq (10)

164 where  $\chi$  is the conductivity of the solution at a time *t*, and  $\chi_o$  and  $\chi_\infty$  are the initial and final 165 conductivities ( $\mu$ S/cm). The Weibull distribution function was used to describe the data [9, 40].

167 
$$Y = 1 - \exp\left(-\left(\frac{t - t_0}{\tau_d}\right)^{\xi}\right)$$
 Eq (11)

168 where  $\tau_d$  is the time taken to dissolve 63.2% of the non-functional active ingredient,  $\xi$  is a shape 169 factor of the curve and  $t_0$  is the lag-time, which is zero in the current work. The amount of the non-170 functional active ingredient in each tablet,  $m_a$  (mg), was determined from:

171 
$$m_a = \Delta \chi \, \lambda V_s = (\chi_\infty - \chi_o) \lambda V_s \qquad \text{Eq (12)}$$

172 where  $\lambda$  is a constant obtained from a calibration curve of the amount of NaCl as a function of  $\Delta \chi$ , 173 which is the change in conductivity of the solution caused by presence of a known mass active of 174 ingredient, and  $V_s$  is the volume of the dissolution medium (ml). The mean of 10 measurements 175 was determined for each fill factor and the coefficient of variation of the non-functional active 176 ingredient in the tablets was determined using:

177 
$$n_t = \frac{\overline{\sigma}}{\overline{m}_a} \times 100\%$$
 Eq(13)

178

179 where  $\overline{m}_a$  is the mean value of active ingredient composition in the tablets and  $\overline{\sigma}$  is the standard 180 deviation of the non-functional active ingredient compositions.

#### 181 **2.2.1 Determination of acceptance values**

The European Pharmacopea recommends assessing the content uniformity of tablets by computing Acceptance Values (AV) from the concentrations of the active ingredient and their standard deviations and comparing them with previously established ranges [41]. The AV is calculated from:

186 
$$AV = |M - X| + k\overline{\sigma}$$
 Eq (14)

187 where *M* is the reference value, *X* is the average value for individual tablets, *k* is a constant equal 188 to 2.4 for n = 10 (n = number of repeat measurements) and  $\overline{\sigma}$  is the standard deviation. The content 189 of uniformity requirement is assumed to be met if the AV of the first set of 10 tablets is  $\leq 15$ . The 190 acceptance values of the tablet from the different batches are reported in Table 1. According to this 191 table the granulation batches with fill factors of only 0.31 and 0.34 would pass acceptance.

#### 192 **3. Results**

#### 193 **3.1 Bulk density**

Before compression of the granules into tablets, the bulk densities of the dried granules were determined as outlined previously. Fig.1 shows that there is a reduction in the bulk density of the granules as the fill factor is increased. This can be attributed to the changes in the degree of consolidation and compaction of the granules when the batch size is changed whilst maintaining the other granulation conditions.

**199 3.2 Compression data** 

Fig. 2 (a) shows the loading and unloading curves for the fill factors investigated and Fig. 2 (b) shows the same data expressed as the pressure as a function of the strain, which was calculated from  $\Delta/h_0$  where  $h_0$  is the initial height of the granular bed and  $\Delta$  is displacement. It is clear from Fig. 2 (b) that the maximum strain increases (54 to 59%) as the fill factor decreases.

The increase in strain required to achieve a given compression force as the fill factor decreases (Fig. 2b) is consistent with data published previously that showed an increase in the strength, Young's modulus and yield stress with increasing fill factor [1]. This is exemplified in Fig. 3 for the strength, which shows that the strength of the granules approximately doubles for the range of fill factors examined. Fig. 4 shows that efficacy coefficient decreases as the fill factor increases with the values being less than the lower ideal limit of 0.1% for the three largest fill factors. The trend is consistent with the increase in granule strength since the propensity of granules to deform is important in the development of a cohesive tablet.

**3.3 Mechanical properties of the tablets** 

214 Results in Fig. 5 (a) shows that the tablet strength is reduced by ~ 25% when the fill factor is 215 increased from 0.31 to 0.42. Since the tablets were formed by the compression of granules of the 216 same mass, maximum pressure and compression speed, the differences in the tablet strength cannot 217 be attributed to the tabletting conditions. Consequently, they must arise from the differences in the 218 mechanical properties of the granules as exemplified in Fig. 3 and the trend is reflected in the 219 reduction of the efficacy coefficient. Fig. 5(b) also shows that there is a clear correlation between 220 the tablet strength and that of the granules. Moreover, the reduction of the tensile strength of the 221 tablets corresponds to a similar reduction of  $\sim 30\%$  in the specific fracture energy (Fig. 6).

222

#### 3.4 Effect of fill factor on tablet dissolution

Since it has been shown that the fill factor or size of the batch affects the strength of the tablets 223 224 it is reasonable to expect that they should also have different dissolution rates and this is evident 225 from the data Fig. 7 (a). The symbols show the measured data points (an average of 5 226 measurements) and the error bars are the standard deviation. The continuous line through the data 227 points are fits to Eq. (11). The dissolution profiles shift to the left with increasing fill factor, 228 implying an increase in the dissolution rate. The parameter  $\tau_d$ ; which is the length of time it takes to 229 release 63.2 % of the drug was obtained from non-linear regression of Eq. (11) to the dissolution 230 data.

231 In our previous work similar procedure was done using granules in same size range to those 232 used for tableting in current study to obtain dissolution characteristics of the granules [3]. The 233 granule dissolution tests were performed using granules of the same mass as the tablets (100 mg). The results that were obtained showed that the dissolution time,  $\tau_g$  of the granules increased with 234 235 increasing fill factor (~4 to ~12s). The correlation between the dissolution time of the tablets and 236 that of granules is shown in Fig 7 (b). This result is consistent with the decrease in tablet strength 237 with increasing fill factor since it is generally the case that there is a correlation of the rate 238 dissolution and the tablet strength [1]. The correlation between the mean tablet dissolution time and 239 the tablet strength is shown in Fig. 8. The data demonstrate that stronger tablets require a longer 240 time to dissolve compared to those that are weaker. On the other hand, there is a minimum strength 241 is required for packing and handling purposes, therefore a trade-off has to be made in producing 242 tablets sufficient strength to survive handling processes without compromising the dissolution 243 kinetics.

# 244 **3.5** Effect of batch size on tablet drug homogeneity

245 The relative standard deviation of the non-functional active ingredient composition in different 246 tablets produced from granules made with different fill factors is presented in Fig. 9 (a). The 247 coefficient of variation of the tablet non-functional active ingredient increases with the batch size, 248 which would result in a similar variation in the active pharmaceutical ingredient (API) composition 249 for a real pharmaceutical tablet. A similar trend has been found for the dissolution characteristics of 250 granules [1]. In our previous work [1] the coefficient of variation of the non-functional active 251 ingredient of samples of granules  $(\eta_g)$  obtained from different fill factors was determined using the 252 same procedure described in section 2.5. The coefficient of variation of non-functional ingredient in 253 the granules data from [3] was then plotted Fig. 9 (b). Please note that the masses of granules used in these measurements were the same as tablet masses used in the current study. The results show that there is a linear correlation of the coefficient of variations of the tablets and corresponding granules. This is an interesting point to note since it implies that information about the content homogeneity of the tablets can be inferred from tests performed on the granules even before the tablets are produced.

259 4. Discussion

260 In the current work it was found that increasing the granulator fill factor results in an 261 increase in the strength of the granules and a decrease in their degree of compression. It has also 262 been observed previously that the compressibility of granules decreased with their strength [42]. 263 Similarly it was reported that the degree of compression of microcrystalline cellulose pellets 264 decreased with increasing values of their crushing strength [32]. Recent work by Chan et al. [43] 265 showed that increasing the bed load (which is equivalent to increasing fill factor) results in an 266 increase in granule-blade bed stress and the effect was more pronounced at high impeller speeds. 267 The granules from larger batches are then more likely to be more consolidated than those from 268 smaller batches. Such strong granules would be less compressible compared to those that are weaker 269 as observed in the current work. Thus it may be concluded that the ability of granules to convert net 270 compaction energy to cohesion decreases with increasing fill factor. This is consistent with the 271 tablet strength data, which showed a reduction with increasing fill factor.

# 274 **5.** Conclusion

275	The granulator fill factor has a profound effect on the compaction properties of the granules.
276	Those produced from smaller batch sizes have superior compaction properties than those from
277	larger batches. The degree of compression of the granules decreases with increasing fill factor. This
278	may be due structural changes in the granules as a result of the different batch sizes. Further work is
279	recommended to analyse the changes in the internal and surface properties of the granules. An
280	important novel finding of the current work is that the variation of the non-functional active
281	ingredient in tablets are significantly affected by the value of the fill factor.

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#### 401 List of Tables.

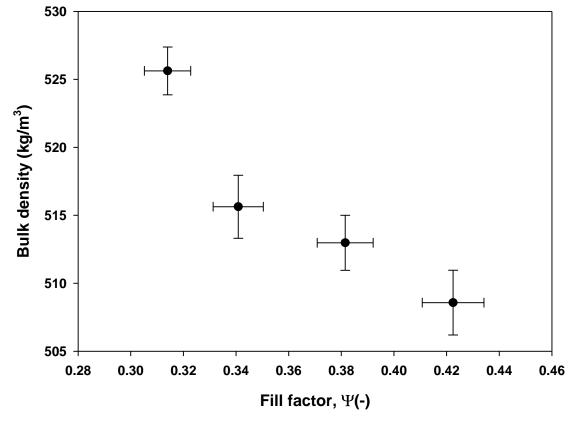
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- 404 different batch sizes

# 405406 List of figures

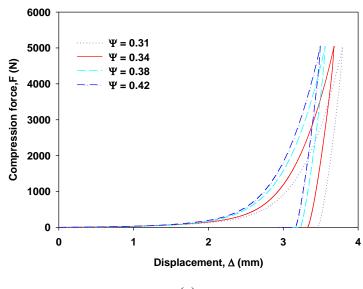
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- 408 Fig. 1: Bulk density of the granules in the size range 0.5 0.6 mm.
- 409 Fig. 2: a) Force-displacement profiles for the four different fill factors and (b) applied bed pressure
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<b>Table 1:</b> Summary of non-functional active ingredient composition, acceptance values for tablets from different batch sizes.

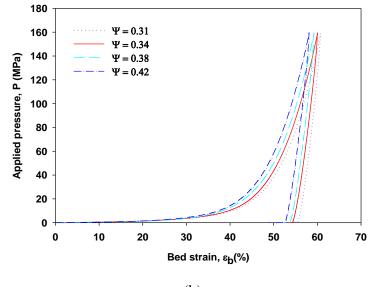
Fill factor	Average composition $\overline{m}_{ai,tab}$ (mg)	Reference composition M (%)	Percentage Average composition fX (%)	Acceptance value AV (-)
0.31	1.83	100	91.6	8.7
0.34	1.88	100	94.0	6.4
0.38	1.59	100	79.5	21.1
0.41	1.78	100	89.0	11.7



**Fig. 1:** Bulk density of the granules in the size range 0.5 - 0.6 mm.

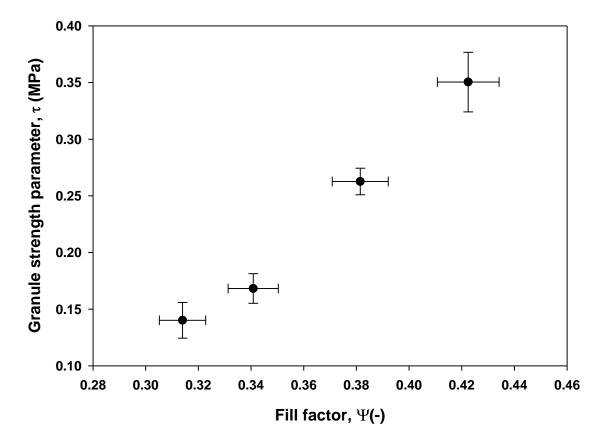




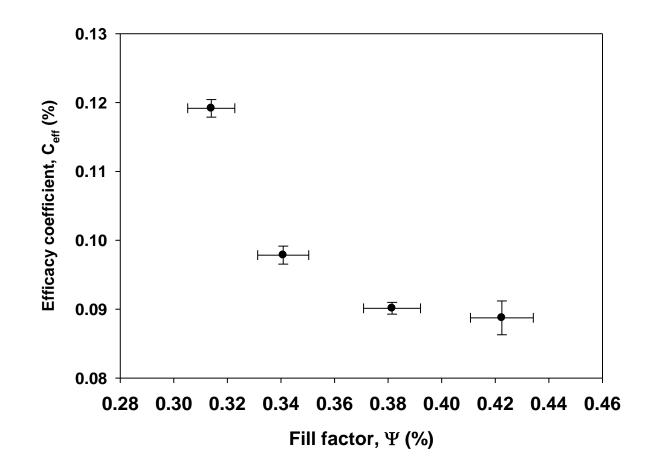


(b)

435 Fig. 2: a) Force-displacement profiles for the four different fill factors and (b) applied bed pressure as436 function of bed strain.



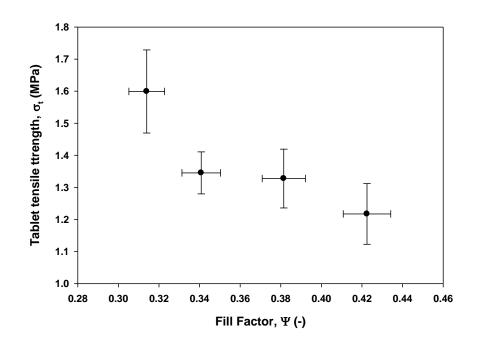
**Fig. 3:** Effect of fill factor on granule strength parameter.



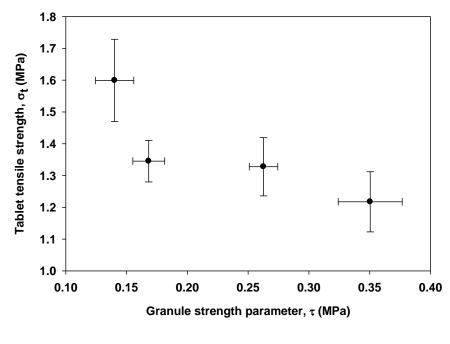




**Fig. 4:** Efficacy coefficient as a function of fill factor.

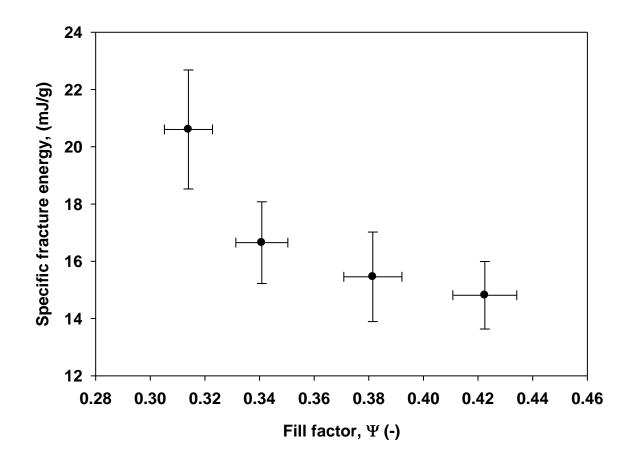


**(a)** 

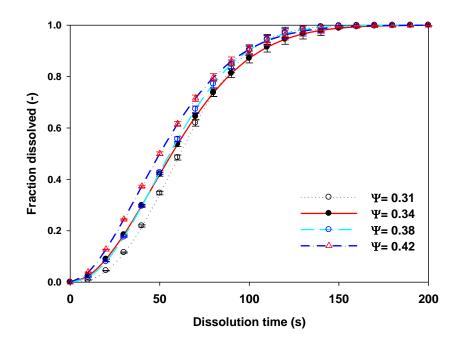


**(b)** 

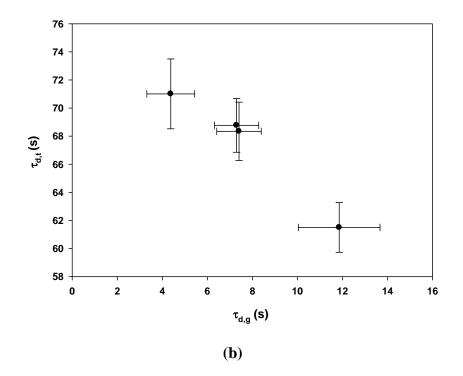
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**Fig. 6:** Specific fracture energy of the tablets as a function of the fill factor

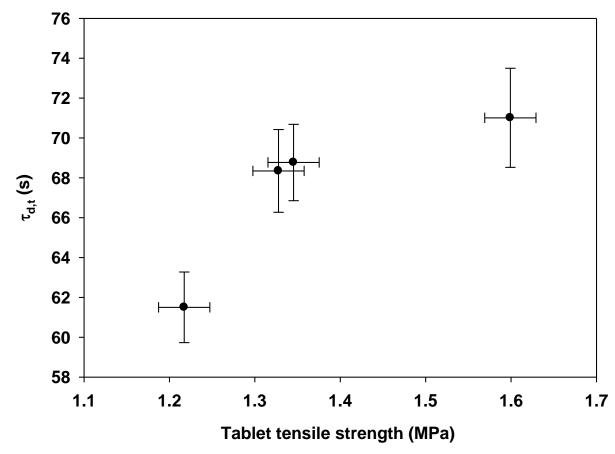


(a)

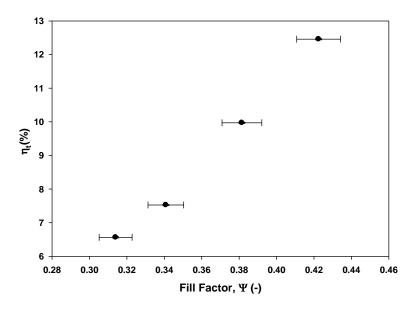


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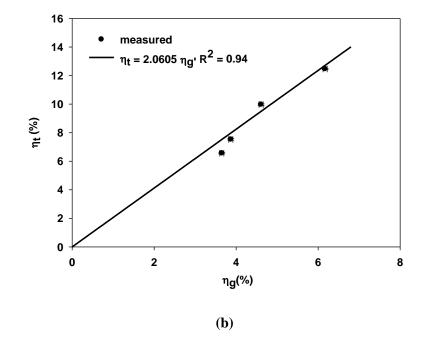
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462 Fig. 9: (a) Coefficient of variation of the tablet non-functional active ingredient content as a function of fill factor and (b) correlation between  $\eta_t$  and  $\eta_g.$