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1	Performance characteristics of UV imaging instrumentation for diffusion, dissolution and
2	release testing studies
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20

21 Abstract

22 UV imaging is capable of providing spatially and temporally resolved absorbance measurements, 23 which is highly beneficial in drug diffusion, dissolution and release testing studies. For optimal 24 planning and design of experiments, knowledge about the capabilities and limitations of the 25 imaging system is required. The aim of this study was to characterize the performance of two 26 commercially available UV imaging systems, the D100 and SDI. Lidocaine crystals, lidocaine 27 containing solutions, and gels were applied in the practical assessment of the UV imaging 28 systems. Dissolution of lidocaine from single crystals into phosphate buffer and 0.5% (w/v) 29 agarose hydrogel at pH 7.4 was investigated to shed light on the importance of density gradients 30 under dissolution conditions in the absence of convective flow. In addition, the resolution of the 31 UV imaging systems was assessed by the use of grids. Resolution was found to be better in the 32 vertical direction than the horizontal direction, consistent with the illumination geometry. The 33 collimating lens in the SDI imaging system was shown to provide more uniform light intensity 34 across the UV imaging area and resulted in better resolution as compared to the D100 imaging 35 system (a system without a lens). Under optimal conditions, the resolution was determined to be 36 12.5 and 16.7 line pairs per mm (lp/mm) corresponding to line widths of 40 µm and 30 µm in the 37 horizontal and vertical direction, respectively. Overall, the performance of the UV imaging 38 systems was shown mainly to depend on collimation of light, the light path, the positioning of 39 the object relative to the line of 100 micron fibres which forms the light source, and the distance 40 of the object from the sensor surface.

42 Keywords: Dissolution imaging; Dissolution testing; Instrument performance; Spatial
43 resolution; UV imaging

Abbreviations: API, active pharmaceutical ingredient; CARS, coherent anti-Stokes Raman
Scattering Microscopy; CMOS, Complementary metal oxide semiconductor; FTIR, Fourier
transform infrared; LOD, Limit of detection; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging; TDA, Taylor
dispersion analysis.

48

49 **1. Introduction**

50 Dissolution and release testing is conducted for various purposes in the pharmaceutical industry 51 e.g., to guide the drug development process, in quality control, and as biowaivers [1]. In the early 52 phases of drug development, miniaturized or micro-scale techniques requiring low-milligram 53 quantities of the active pharmaceutical ingredient (API) or formulation are of particular value [2-54 4]. Many dissolution and release testing methods are invasive methods and involve bulk solution 55 concentration measurements by the withdrawal of test samples, which may disturb the 56 subsequent release. In addition, the withdrawal of samples may also lead to delayed responses, 57 due to the need for accumulation of the API in solution. Especially, in case of fast dissolution 58 and release kinetics real-time analysis is advantageous. Better understanding of the dissolution or 59 release behavior of an API or formulation may be attained using imaging techniques providing 60 spatially, spectrally, and/or temporally resolved information. Imaging techniques used in 61 pharmaceutical sciences for investigating drug dissolution and release processes include 62 magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) [5-8], Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) imaging [4, 9-11], 63 coherent anti-Stokes Raman Scattering Microscopy (CARS) imaging [12], fluorescence imaging

64 [13,14], and UV imaging [15,16]. UV imaging is compatible with a small scale format and has 65 attracted attention as it offers insights into dissolution and release processes of drugs [17-27]. 66 However, limited data are available regarding system performance of the commercially available 67 UV imaging instrumentation. The current study was prompted by observations made during UV 68 imaging experiments in our lab, and an associated wish to understand better the performance 69 characteristics of the instrumentation, since this knowledge would be useful in the design, 70 planning, and execution of future experiments. The purpose of the present study was to 71 characterize two embodiments of a commercially-available UV imaging system in terms of 72 analytical performance, including spatial resolution, linearity and noise. The instruments subject 73 to study were an SDI (Sirius-Analytical, Forest Row, UK) and a D100 (Paraytec Ltd, York, UK) 74 imaging system.

75

76 **2. Experimental**

77 2.1 Materials and sample preparations

Agarose (type I) was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Sodium hydroxide
and sodium dihydrogenphosphate monohydrate were obtained from Merck (Darmstadt,

80 Germany). Lidocaine (Ph Eur (European Pharmacopoeia) 6th ed.) was obtained from Unikem

81 (Copenhagen, Denmark). Lidocaine crystals were prepared as described previously [16].

82 A 0.067 M phosphate buffered solution with an ionic strength of 0.15 M was prepared as

83 follows. A weighed amount of sodium dihydrogenphosphate monohydrate (9.25 g) was

transferred to a 1000 ml volumetric flask to which was then added de-ionized water to the neck

of the volumetric flask. The mixture was stirred at room temperature until the substance was
dissolved, then the pH adjusted to 7.40 by adding 5 M NaOH.

87 For preparing the agarose hydrogels, a weighed amount of agarose powder, corresponding to 88 0.5% (w/v), was suspended in phosphate buffer at pH 7.4 followed by heating of the agarose 89 suspensions to 98°C for approximately 20 min to dissolve the agarose. The agarose solution 90 (approximately 310 μ l) was transferred to a quartz cell (8.0 mm \times 1.0 mm \times 38 mm (H \times W \times 91 L)) (Starna Scientific Ltd, Hainault Essex, UK), and the lid of the cell placed on top of the 92 agarose solution. Each quartz cell containing the agarose solution (the pre-gel) was left at room 93 temperature for at least 0.5 h to ensure complete gelation of the agarose matrix. 94 The grids used for estimation of the resolution consisted of a black image made of silver halides 95 (5 µm print layer thickness) coated on one side of a plastic base of polyester (180 µm thickness).

96 The grids were produced under conditions of 21 $^{\circ}$ C at 50% humidity (JD Photo-Tools, Oldham,

97 UK). The grids were drawn in AutoCAD software (Autodesk Inc., San Rafael, CA, USA). The

98 width of the lines and the distance between the lines were identical and varied in the range 10 -

 $100 \ \mu m$ in 10 μm increments and then in 20 μm increments in the 100 to 400 μm range.

100

101 2.2 Instrumentation

The two imaging systems investigated, both utilizing ActiPix technology, were a D100 (Paraytec
Ltd., York, UK) and an SDI (Sirius-Analytical, Forest Row UK). In terms of optical design
[28,29], the Sirius SDI has improvements relative to the D100 through incorporating a lens for
collimating the light in the direction parallel to the line of 90 x 100 µm optical fibres which

106	provide the 9 mm x 100 μ m illumination source. The UV imaging systems are shown in
107	Supplementary data Fig. S.1. The active pixel CMOS sensors have a total detection area of 9 mm
108	$\times7$ mm consisting of 1280 $\times1024$ pixels with a size of 7 $\mu m \times 7$ $\mu m.$ Band pass filters with a
109	band width of 10 nm were sourced from various manufacturers. Images were recorded and
110	analyzed using ActiPix D100 software version 1.4 (Paraytec Ltd.). Images were recorded with a
111	rate of 0.2 images per second, and the integration time was 10 ms. Pixel intensities were
112	converted into absorbance using the ActiPix D100 software.
113	

- 114 2.3 Methods and measurements
- 115 2.3.1 Linearity

116 Calibration curves of lidocaine in phosphate buffered solution at pH 7.4 in a concentration range 117 of $5 \times 10^{-6} - 1 \times 10^{-2}$ M were constructed. Absorbance values of lidocaine solutions were 118 measured in quartz cells with light paths of 1 and 4 mm at a wavelength of 214 or 254 nm using 119 the SDI UV imaging system. The results were compared to results obtained using a conventional 120 spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-1700, Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan) and quartz cuvettes with a 10 121 mm light path.

122

123 2.3.2 Noise

Assessment of noise was made from the data recorded while preparing the lidocaine calibration
curves in phosphate buffered solution at pH 7.4 using the Sirius SDI imaging system. Lidocaine

126 solutions were flowed through the flow cell with an ActiPix flow-through type dissolution

127 cartridge CADISS-3 (Paraytec Ltd.) at a flow rate of 1.0 ml/min. The pixels were binned 10×1

128 $(x \times y)$, the images were obtained at a rate of 1.15 frames per second, and the absorbance was

129 read from 5 effective pixel units positioned at different positions in the imaging area.

130

131 2.3.3 Resolution measurement using grids

132 Resolution measurements were carried out by placing the grid in an empty 1 mm quartz cell (8.0 133 $mm \times 1.0 mm \times 36.0 mm (H \times W \times L))$ or a 1 mm quartz cell filled with 0.067 M phosphate 134 buffered solution, pH 7.40, or 0.5% (w/v) agarose gel, pH 7.40. In these experiments, the grid is 135 located 1.2 mm above the cover slip of the sensor surface. Additional measurements were carried 136 out where the grid was placed directly on the cover slip of the sensor surface. Measurements 137 were performed at 610 nm with the pixels binned 1×1 and 4×4 using the D100 and the SDI 138 imaging systems. The resolution measured by the grids is given as the maximum number of line 139 pairs per mm (lp/mm) [30] for which the correct number of line pairs can be resolved by eye.

140

141 2.3.4 Resolution measured using lidocaine crystals

Lidocaine crystals were arranged in a quartz cuvette and imaged at 254 and 610 nm with pixel binning of 1×1 or 4×4 using the SDI imaging system. The dimensions of the crystals were furthermore measured using a Dino-Lite Premier Digital microscope (AM-7013MZT, AnMo Electronics Corporation, Hsinchu, Taiwan) with a magnification of $\times 50$.

147 2.3.5 Density gradients

148	Dissolution of lidocaine from single crystals was investigated in 0.067 M phosphate buffer, pH
149	7.4, and 0.5% w/v agarose gel, pH 7.4, in 1 mm quartz cells (see section 2.3.3) at 254 nm using
150	the SDI imaging system with pixels binned 4×4 . To secure lidocaine single crystals during their
151	dissolution into 0.067 M phosphate buffered solution, pH 7.4, they were fixed at one end with
152	Bantex Tack-all removable adhesive (Bantex A/S, Lynge, Denmark) in the quartz cell.
153	
154	2.3.6 Lidocaine diffusion in hydrogel
155	Diffusion of lidocaine from a 0.5% agarose gel at pH 7.4 loaded with 1 mM lidocaine into a
156	blank 0.5% agarose gel, pH 7.4, was studied using the SDI and D100 UV imaging systems in 1
157	mm quartz cells (see section 2.1). The D100 system was applied initially using the standard
158	setting and subsequently with the illumination source, the line end of the round-to-line fibre optic
159	cable, rotated by 90 $^\circ$ (cf. section 2.2 for details on the line configuration of the fibre optic
160	bundle). The imaging was performed at a wavelength of 254 nm.

161 The diffusion coefficient (*D*) of lidocaine in the hydrogel matrix was determined from the UV
162 absorbance maps as a function of time by applying the following derivation of Fick's second law
163 [21,31]:

164
$$\frac{C(x,t)}{C_0} = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} erf\left(\frac{x-x_0}{2\sqrt{t\cdot D}}\right)$$
 (1)

165	where $C_{(x,t)}$ is the measured concentration as a function of distance and time, C_0 is the initial
166	analyte concentration in the donor gel, erf is the error function, x_0 is the position of the interface
167	between the gel phases and x is the distance from the gel-gel interface and t is the time. Eq. 1 is
168	applicable for one-dimensional diffusion. In Eq. 1, the measured absorbance was used instead of
169	the concentration, because the measured absorbance values were within the linear range
170	according to Lambert Beer's law.
171	
172	2.3.7 Diffusion coefficient of lidocaine in phosphate buffered solution
173	The diffusion coefficient of lidocaine in phosphate buffer at pH 7.4 was determined by Taylor
174	dispersion analysis (TDA) at 25 $^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$ as previously described by Ye et al. [32]. A sample of 5.0 \times
175	10 ⁻³ M lidocaine in 0.067 M phosphate buffered solution was introduced into a fused silica
176	capillary (75 μm (id) \times 200 μm (od)) by pressure (50 mbar) for 7 s. The sample was forced
177	through the capillary at a constant rate, and the broadening of the lidocaine sample plug due to
178	convective diffusion was detected through two windows in the capillary by UV area imaging at
179	214 nm. The diffusion coefficient of lidocaine was determined from the peak appearance times
180	and the variances of the Gaussian shaped peaks as described by Ye et al. [32].
181	

3. Results and discussion

183 3.1 Performance characteristics of the UV imaging systems

184 The D100 UV imaging system was initially designed for use as detector in separation science 185 [29,33-36]. Subsequently, applications in drug dissolution and release testing have emerged [20]. 186 Fig. 1 shows a schematic representation of the basic UV imaging setup for monitoring surface 187 dissolution. The prototype systems have been described in some detail [29,34-36], and 188 methodology for capillary imaging with the D100 is covered elsewhere [28]. The key 189 components include a pulsed Xe lamp emitting light in the wavelength range 190 to 1100 nm, 190 12.5 mm diameter band-pass filters with 10 nm bandwidth (22 nm at 214 nm) for wavelength 191 selection, and a round-to-line fiber optical bundle, where the fibers are arranged in a line 192 configuration at the end, presenting the light to the measurement zone (an array of 90 fibers with 193 a diameter of $100 \,\mu\text{m}$). The light is transmitted through the sample and reaches the detector part 194 consisting of a cover slip, a layer of UV down-converting phosphor and an IBIS4 195 complementary metal oxide semiconductor (CMOS) sensor (Cypress, Mechelen, Belgium) with 196 1280×1024 pixels with dimensions of 7 µm × 7 µm (total imaging area 9 × 7 mm²). The CMOS 197 sensor is light sensitive in the range 400 to 1000 nm, thus the role of a UV down-converting 198 phosphor layer (Gd₂O₂S:Tb) is to convert light in the UV wavelength range (190 - 290 nm) to 199 the visible wavelength range (a line emission spectrum emitting at several wavelengths with the 200 most prominent emission at 540 nm [37]), where the sensor is sensitive. The principles of UV 201 converting phosphors are described elsewhere [38,39]. The associated electronics and software 202 allow for the construction of images, which may be read in intensity or absorbance mode.

The UV imaging systems allow real-time monitoring of the experiments subject to study. Light intensity maps are displayed on a PC using the ActiPix software, and illustrated in Fig. 2 for the D100 and the Sirius SDI. With the D100 (Fig. 2A), the intensity distribution in the xy plane showing a maximum at y ~ 3 mm for all x is consistent with the line of fibres positioned above

207 the imager at $y \sim 3$ mm and aligned in the x direction. In the SDI system (Fig. 2B), the light 208 intensity is more uniform across the imaging area, particularly in y direction; however, the light 209 intensity is comparatively lower. The relatively uniform light intensity across the imaging area is 210 related to the incorporation of a collimating lens in the SDI system, leading to a change in how 211 the light is presented to the sample and sensor surface (cf. Fig. 3). The collimating lens 212 constitutes the major difference between the two systems. The presentation of the light to the 213 sample cell and sensor surface is of importance. This is further corroborated by measuring the 214 apparent height from the lower to the upper surface of the flow cell (Fig. 1) to quantify the 215 shadowing effect (Fig. 3). The directly measured height for the open section of this machined 216 part was 3.44 mm. Apparent height values of 4.12 mm and 3.46 mm were reported from the 217 ActiPix software from the images of the cell insert taken with the D100 and the Sirius SDI, 218 respectively. The latter value is in good agreement with the true height, consistent with the light 219 being fairly well collimated. The former value accords with a shadowing effect, in which light at 220 any angle which hits the lower or upper surfaces of the insert is obscured.

When using the D100, this may contribute to the difficulties in calculating dissolution rates from UV images and matching those to dissolution rates obtained from the collected effluent, as was the case for paracetamol dissolution studies [20,40]. Also, so called surface concentrations obtained using a D100 UV imaging system should be considered as concentration estimates, since the line of fibres is centred at a y distance greater than the location of the lower surface of the cell insert, the first unobscured ray to reach the imager is transmitted through a layer of fluid significantly elevated from the surface.

UV imaging relies on the molecular absorbance of light. Pixel intensities are converted intoabsorbance using the instrument software according to:

232
$$A = \log\left(\frac{I_{ref} - I_d}{I_{sig} - I_d}\right)$$
(2)

233 where I_d , I_{ref} and I_{sig} are the ADC counts (a measure of intensity which will be referred to as 234 pixel intensity in the following) due to the dark current (electronic noise measured with the lamp 235 turned off), pixel intensity measured with the phosphate buffer (solvent) in the cell (reference 236 signal), and pixel intensity measured during the experiment, respectively. The conversion into 237 absorbance eliminates (to a large extent) the effects of non-uniformity of light intensity across 238 the imaging surface as previously shown [41]. However, imaging artifacts have been observed, 239 mainly in the edges of the images, which are related to low light intensity in this part of the 240 imaging area (this has primarily been observed when using the D100 system). Examples of UV 241 images showing such artifacts can be found in [42,43]. These imaging artifacts are most likely 242 due to drift in the output of the light source over time, which will have the most predominant 243 effect, when the light intensity is low. Drift in light intensity will mainly be an issue in release 244 and diffusion studies, such as described in [42,43], where the self-referencing options of the 245 software used in flow-through type dissolution studies cannot be applied.

The absorbance measured by UV imaging may be converted into concentration using Lambert
Beer's law by the aid of a calibration curve. Deviations from Lambert Beer's law may occur due
to a number of effects: the use of polychromatic rather than monochromatic radiation; the

249 presence of stray light; refractive index changes; close proximity of the absorbing molecules 250 affecting their charge distribution and thereby altering their absorptivity; the molecules taking 251 part in reactions (such as self-association and chemical degradation) and scattering effects due to 252 particles [44-46]. The linearity of the system should therefore be investigated prior to dissolution 253 and release testing experiments. Calibration curves obtained using the SDI imaging system for 254 lidocaine solutions in quartz cells with light paths of 1 and 4 mm, and in a conventional 255 spectrophotometer with a light path of 10 mm are shown in Fig. 4. The use of different 256 instrumentation for absorbance measurements leads to the following apparent molar absorption coefficients (ϵ_{254}) at 254 nm: 6.2×10^2 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹, 6.5×10^2 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹, and 4.0×10^2 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹ 257 258 (RSD < 4%; n = 3), when the light paths were 1 mm (SDI), 4 mm (SDI), and 10 mm (double 259 beam spectrophotometer), respectively. At 214 nm the following apparent molar absorption coefficients (ϵ_{214}) were obtained: 4.7×10^3 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹, 4.1×10^3 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹ and 11.2×10^3 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹ 260 261 (RSD \leq 7%; n = 3), when the light paths were 1, 4, and 10 mm, respectively. The calibration 262 curves were constructed by averaging the absorbance values over a large part of the imaging area 263 from absorbance readings over at least 1 min, in order to minimize the uncertainty and get the 264 best estimate of the molar absorption coefficients. Fig. 4 shows that the calibration curves 265 obtained by UV imaging bend off at absorbance values around 0.5 and 1 at light paths of 1 and 4 266 mm, respectively, while the calibration curve was linear up to an absorbance of approximately 2 267 at a light path of 10 mm using the conventional spectrophotometer. We have previously reported a ε_{254} of 4.36×10^2 M⁻¹ cm⁻¹ for lidocaine in the same phosphate buffer using a 3 mm light path 268 269 quartz cell and an SDI300 imaging system (using a D100 sensor head configuration) [16]. The 270 results show the importance of using a calibration curve that is constructed in the quartz cell, and 271 using the band pass filter as well as the same system as the actual measurements will be

performed on. The performance of the total system is dependent on the light path, collimation oflight and band pass width as well as the performance of the detector.

274 During the absorbance measurements of the standard solutions for construction of the calibration 275 curves, the noise of the SDI imaging system was assessed. The peak to peak noise was estimated 276 to be ~18 and ~35 mAU at 214 and 254 nm, respectively (Supplementary data Fig. S2; quartz 277 cell with 4 mm light path). A higher light intensity at 214 nm is the reason for the lower noise 278 level at 214 nm as compared to 254 nm. From the data shown in Supplementary data Fig. S2 and 279 the slope of the calibration curve, the LOD (S/N = 3) for lidocaine in phosphate buffer was 280 calculated to 3.3×10^{-5} M and 4.0×10^{-4} M at 214 and 254 nm, respectively. These LOD values 281 are based on readings with individual effective pixels (10×1 binning), which together with the 282 low molar absorption coefficients provide the reason for the relatively high LODs.

283 Fig. 5 shows detector response (pixel intensity) as a function of wavelength for the band-pass 284 filters available in our lab using the SDI imaging instrument. The pixel intensities were read 285 from the same area $(5.60 \times 4.76 \text{ mm}^2)$ in all experiments to limit effects of the non-uniform 286 intensity across the image surface. The detector response depends on the lamp intensity, 287 transmittance of the band-pass filters, and efficiency of the UV down-converting phosphor in the 288 UV range, and how these parameters vary as a function of the wavelength. Fig. 5 reveals a low 289 pixel intensity/detector response in the wavelength interval 300 - 350 nm making UV imaging 290 difficult in this range. The relatively poor performance in the range 300 - 350 nm results from the 291 combination of a relatively low light output from the Xe lamp and poor efficiency of the UV 292 down-converting phosphor (Gd₂O₂S:Tb [37]). These issues have also been described for a CCD 293 detector utilizing UV down-converting phosphors [38,39]. Fig. 5 highlights another interesting

feature requiring attention in, namely that the transmission efficiency of the individual band passfilters vary.

296

297 3.1.2 Resolution of the UV imaging systems

298 Previous studies in our lab have indicated that the resolution of the UV imaging system is 299 different in the horizontal (x) and vertical (y) direction. In the following, studies were performed 300 to shed light on the resolution of the UV imaging systems. The resolution was assessed using 301 grids with line pairs (a black and transparent line constitute a line pair) having widths between 10 302 and 400 µm. The line pair-width intervals were 10 µm below 100 µm, and 20 µm above 100 µm. 303 The measurements were performed in the visible wavelength range, where the film is transparent 304 and the grid lines absorb the light. Fig. 6 shows the absorbance maps of a grid with a line width 305 of 100 µm placed on the cover slip of the sensor surface or in a quartz cell, leading to a position 306 of the grid 1.2 mm above the cover slip of the sensor surface for the D100 and SDI imaging 307 system due to the thickness of the quartz wall. High and low absorbance values are indicated by 308 red and blue coloring, respectively, in the absorbance maps. A clear difference in the 309 performance of the imaging systems in the x- and y-direction is seen from these images. This is 310 due to the light coming from the fiber optic bundle with a line configuration above the CMOS 311 chip (Fig. 3). An improved resolution is observed when the grid-lines are placed parallel to the 312 light source line. In Table 1, the estimated resolution of the imaging systems is given as 313 maximum line pairs per mm (lp/mm). In empty quartz cells and quartz cells filled with phosphate 314 buffered solution or 0.5% (w/v) agarose hydrogel at pH 7.4, the resolution of the D100 and SDI 315 imaging systems with pixels binned 4×4 (nominal resolution of 28 µm) were determined to be

316 1.7 and 2.5 lp/mm, respectively, in the x-direction and 10 and 12.5 lp/mm, respectively, in the y-317 direction. A resolution of 12.5 lp/mm indicates that the system is able to separate and measure 318 lines with a width of 40 μ m. According to Table 1, the resolution is substantially better when the 319 grid is placed directly on the cover slip of the sensor surface as compared to on the quartz cell. 320 Thus, the resolution depends on the position of the object above the cover slip of the sensor 321 surface, and it decreases as the object gets closer to the light emission slit. This can be seen as a 322 result of a shadowing / optical lever effect (Fig. 3 and section 3.1). The pixel-binning (1×1) 323 versus 4×4) does not seem to have a large effect on the resolution. The results show that the 324 minimum resolvable feature size is greater than the size of the effective pixel. This is primarily 325 due to the optical lever effect combining the width of the light source (100 µm diameter for the 326 optical fibres) and the relatively short (9 mm) distance from fibre output to sensor surface. By 327 comparison with the D100, Table 1 highlights an improved resolution for the SDI due to 328 movement of the source to a greater distance away from the sensor surface and incorporation of a 329 collimating lens. The highest resolution was observed using the SDI system without any pixel 330 binning, when the grid was placed on the cover slip of the sensor surface, and was measured to 331 be 12.5 and 16.7 lp/mm (corresponding to line widths of 40 and 30 µm) in the x- and y-direction, 332 respectively.

333 Since the grids were not transparent in the UV range, and because the resolution also depends on 334 the level of contrast available, an alternative approach was developed to estimate resolution in 335 this spectral region which is of primary interest for dissolution studies. The dissolution of 336 lidocaine from selected single crystals into stagnant phosphate buffered solution has earlier been 337 investigated by UV imaging at 254 nm [16]. In order to show how the spatial resolution of the 338 two imaging systems influences the size and shape of the imaged objects, such lidocaine crystals

339 were imaged at wavelengths of 254 and 610 nm in the absence of dissolution medium.

340 Microscope photographs and UV images of selected lidocaine crystals are shown in Fig. 7A and 341 B. Both Fig. 6 and 7 show that the resolution of the imaging systems is better in the y-direction 342 as compared to in the x-direction. In the current project, the width of the lidocaine crystal was 343 measured at a selected position under the microscope to be 185.6 µm (Fig. 7A). The UV-Vis 344 systems were able to identify and detect lidocaine crystals, but the width of the crystal placed 345 parallel or perpendicular to the emission slit was measured to 230 or 480 μ m, respectively, by 346 the SDI system with pixels binned 4 x 4 at 254 nm (Figs. 7B and C). It is evident that UV-Vis 347 imaging overestimates the thickness of the lidocaine crystal; this is due to the optical lever and 348 shadowing effects with the object (Fig. 7B).

349 Absorbance - distance profiles were constructed from the absorbance maps of the lidocaine 350 crystals, and the resolution of the imaging system was determined based on the sharpness of the 351 interface, as previously described by Chan et al. [47], by measuring the distance over which the 352 normalized absorbance fell from 95 to 5 % of the maximum value. The normalized absorbance -353 distance profiles of the selected lidocaine crystals are shown in Fig. 7D. Based on this procedure, 354 the resolution of the SDI imaging system at 254 nm with the pixels binned 4×4 was estimated 355 to be 250 and 75 μ m in the x- and y-directions, respectively. Table 2 shows the estimated 356 resolution from the crystals by the SDI system with pixels binned 1×1 and 4×4 at 254 and 610 357 nm. Overall, these data indicate that pixel binning is not the limiting factor when it comes to 358 resolution; the dimension of the light emitting slit and shadowing effects seem to be significant 359 contributing factors.

362 The dissolution behavior of lidocaine from selected single crystals into stagnant phosphate buffer 363 has previously been investigated by UV imaging. The study showed that the dissolved lidocaine 364 seems to gather at the bottom of the quartz cell, which may be explained by the formation of a 365 density gradient as lidocaine dissolves leading to natural convection [16]. Hydrogel matrixes 366 have been shown to suppress natural convection due to density gradients [43,48-50]. In the 367 current study, the effect of introducing a 0.5% (w/v) agarose hydrogel at pH 7.4 as a dissolution 368 medium on the dissolution behavior of a single lidocaine crystal under stagnant conditions was 369 visualized. Fig. 8 shows the absorbance maps of the dissolution behavior of lidocaine. The image 370 resolution is not affected by introduction of the gel (Fig. 8), which is understandable in the light 371 of the discussion in section 3.1, and the crystals are still readily apparent. During dissolution of 372 lidocaine in the hydrogel matrix, the absorbance contours mapped around the crystals were 373 almost symmetrical (Fig. 8A). This contrasts with the irregular contours around the crystals in 374 the phosphate buffered solution (Fig. 8B). The symmetrical absorbance maps formed in the hydrogel matrix indicate that the natural convection seen in aqueous solution has been 375 376 effectively suppressed in the hydrogel matrix. The mass transport of dissolved lidocaine in the 377 hydrogel is solely due to diffusion whereas transport of dissolved lidocaine the solution is due to 378 convective currents as well as diffusion.

379

380 3.3 Lidocaine diffusion in hydrogel

381 Diffusion coefficients of drug compounds in hydrogel matrixes have previously been determined 382 by fitting data to equations based on Fick's second law [21,42]. In these studies, the samples are 383 placed in a manner such that the diffusion can be assumed to occur only in the x-direction. The 384 determined diffusion coefficients are influenced by the defined position of the interface, x_0 (cf. 385 Eq. 1), and the precision with which the position of the interface can be determined may 386 therefore be important for the results obtained. In our previous diffusion studies using a D100 387 imaging system [21,42], the interface between the sample and the release (acceptor) medium was 388 perpendicular to the fibre optic line source, i.e. oriented such that diffusion occur in x-direction 389 where the imaging system has the lowest resolution. The results in section 3.1.2 showed that the 390 orientation of the objects relative to the line light source has a significant impact on the 391 resolution. Tests were therefore undertaken to check whether rotation of the output end of the 392 round-to-line fibre optic cable by 90° influenced the initial appearance and sharpness of the 393 interface between a hydrogel loaded with lidocaine and a blank hydrogel. Interestingly, no 394 difference in the sharpness of the boundary between the hydrogels was observed (data not 395 shown), and the slopes of the tangent to the curves at the interface were similar at time zero. 396 However, the curves were associated with more scatter when the line source was rotated 90°, 397 which may be attributed to the higher resolution in this direction. By applying Eq. 1 to the 398 normalized absorbance-distance profiles (Fig. 9A), diffusion coefficients of lidocaine in the 399 hydrogel matrixes were determined. The apparent diffusion coefficients were found to decrease 400 with time (10 - 180 min). By plotting the diffusion coefficient as a function of the reciprocal of 401 time (Fig. 9B), the apparent diffusion coefficient was obtained from the intercept of the straight 402 line with the y-axis [21,51]. The diffusion coefficient was determined to be $(6.3 \pm 0.05) \times 10^{-10}$ m^{2}/s , (6.9 ± 0.05) × 10⁻¹⁰ m^{2}/s and (7.5 ± 0.11) × 10⁻¹⁰ m^{2}/s (n = 3 × 3) at 22.0 ± 1.0 °C using 403

the D100, SDI and D100 system with the line rotated 90°, respectively. Brouneus and co-404 405 workers have determined the diffusion coefficient of lidocaine hydrochloride to be (7.49 ± 0.43) $\times 10^{-10}$ m²/s (n = 8) in 1% (w/w) agarose gel at 25 °C by measuring the amount of lidocaine 406 407 diffusing from a well stirred solution of 25 mM lidocaine into the gel at specified time points 408 [52]. The diffusion coefficient of lidocaine in phosphate buffered solution was determined to be $(5.8 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{-10}$ m²/s using TDA, which is in accordance with the previously determined 409 diffusion coefficient of lidocaine in buffer solution at pH 7.4 ($(5.5 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$) [32]. Due 410 411 to the unhindered diffusion of small molecules in the agarose hydrogel matrix, the diffusion 412 coefficient of lidocaine obtained in the hydrogel was expected to be comparable to the value 413 obtained in aqueous solution. The observed variation in the obtained diffusion coefficients for 414 lidocaine in agarose gels and in solution is within the normal range, when different methods are 415 applied. Using the current UV imaging instrumentation, where the effective height in the y-416 direction is 3.9 mm and the length in the x-direction is ~ 8 mm for the setup used for the 417 diffusion experiments, it is advantageous to study diffusion in the x-direction due to a longer 418 potential diffusion distance allowing the process to be followed for longer periods of time. The 419 effective imaging area in the x-direction is 7 - 9 mm in the D100 and SDI system, while it is 4 - 6 420 mm in the D100 system with the line of fibres rotated 90° and the fall of intensity with distance 421 as noted in Fig. 2A. The reason why a difference with respect to sharpness of the interface was 422 not observed using the different UV imaging setups may be due to the immediate diffusion of 423 lidocaine as the lidocaine loaded gel is placed side by side with the blank hydrogel matrix. The 424 time for the quartz cell containing the sample to be placed under the UV imaging sensor head 425 varies between experiments and is generally in the order of 1 to 5 min. The root-mean-square distances $(\langle x^2 \rangle^{1/2})$ of lidocaine at 1 and 5 min were calculated to be 300 and 670 μ m, 426

427 respectively, using the formula for one-dimensional diffusion $\langle x^2 \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{(2 \times D \times t)}$ and a 428 diffusion coefficient of 7.5×10^{-10} m²/s. These are relatively large distances, in comparison to the 429 resolution which is in the order of 20 to 200 µm. Thus, the experimental procedure rather than 430 instrument performance appears to be the limiting factor in these diffusion assays.

431

432 **4. Conclusion**

The present study showed that the apparent absorption coefficients depend on the spectroscopic instrumentation used, highlighting the importance of investigating the linearity prior to dissolution imaging. For quantitative results, the apparent molar absorption coefficient should be determined using the UV imaging system rather than a conventional spectrophotometer.

437 The main difference between the D100 and SDI imaging systems is the introduction of a 438 collimating lens in the latter system. This leads to several improvements in instrument 439 performance. The SDI imaging system showed an increased uniformity of the light intensity 440 across the imaging area as well as an improved resolution, which may be explained by a reduced 441 shadowing effect. Both systems have as light source a line of 100 µm fibres aligned in the x-442 direction, which means that resolution is greatest in the y-direction. The main parameter 443 influencing the resolution was found to be the distance of the object above the cover slip and the 444 sensor surface, consistent with the optical lever effect. Under the most favorable conditions, 445 with a grid placed directly on the cover slip, the resolution was estimated to 12.5 and 16.7 lp/mm 446 in the x- and y-directions, respectively. Effects related to positioning of objects should therefore 447 be taken into account during designing of experiments and image interpretation.

448 UV imaging offers detailed insights into dissolution processes as shown for lidocaine crystals. In 449 aqueous solution, natural convection leads to dense lidocaine solution accumulating at the 450 bottom of the cell. Agarose gels are shown to be able to suppress the effect of natural convection 451 arising from density gradients, in accordance with previous studies [16]. Hydrogels may thus be 452 suitable matrixes for visualizing and characterizing dissolution (and release) processes under 453 stagnant conditions. In relation to studying diffusion processes in hydrogels, the positioning of 454 the diffusion boundary relative to the fibre optic line source (parallel versus perpendicular) did 455 not improve the sharpness of the interface even at the shortest measurement time. Calculations 456 of root-mean-square distances for diffusion showed that this could have been due to diffusion 457 occurring as the experiment was being setup, rather than the instrument limiting the sharpness of 458 the diffusion boundary.

The knowledge obtained in the current study about the instrument performance characteristics
will be helpful in the design and interpretation of UV imaging based release and dissolution
studies.

462

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- 611 Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the UV imaging setup (reprinted from [22] with permission
- 612 from Springer).



Fig. 2. Light intensity maps of the imaging area in the x- and y-direction of the A) ActiPix D100
UV area imaging system (Paraytec Ltd, York, UK) and B) Sirius SDI (Sirius Analytical Ltd, East
Sussex, UK) imaging system with pixels binned 1 × 1 at 254 nm.



618 Fig. 3. Schematic illustration of sensor head components and light paths for the D100 (A) and

- 619 SDI (B) imaging systems. The drawings are not to scale, and the linear slit height is 16 mm
- 620 above the cylinder lens. Note the change in sensor head orientation relative to Fig. 1.

Fig. 4. A) UV scan of 1.0×10^{-4} M lidocaine in 0.067 M phosphate buffered solution, pH 7.4, obtained using a conventional spectrophotometer. Calibration curves of lidocaine in phosphate buffered solution at pH 7.4 obtained in quartz cells with a light path of 1 (\blacklozenge , \diamondsuit) and 4 mm (\blacksquare , \square) using the SDI UV imaging and 10 mm (\blacktriangle , \triangle) by a conventional spectrophotometer at B) 214 and C) 254 nm. The lines are the linear regression using only the closed symbols, and the open symbols represent the points that are deviating from linearity.

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Fig. 5. Pixel intensities as a function of wavelength for the interference band-pass filters using the SDI UV imaging instrument (\circ), and the measured intensities (the dark current), when the lamp was turned off (—). The pixel intensities plotted were average values read from a selected image area (5.60 × 4.76 mm²). At some wavelengths, the pixel intensity was measured by several filters, some of which had different transmission efficiency. All filters were measured on the same system in a single experimental session.

Fig. 7. A) Microscope photograph (the image is $8.3 \times 6.4 \text{ mm}^2$) and B) absorbance maps of the 643 644 lidocaine crystals arranged in a quartz cell obtained by the Sirius SDI imaging system with pixels 645 binned 4 \times 4 at 254 nm. The image is 10.4 \times 4.6 mm². C) Absorbance – y-distance profile of the lidocaine crystal placed in the x-direction (—) and absorbance – x-distance profile for crystal 646 647 placed in the y-direction (—) for determining the width of the crystals from the absorbance maps 648 and D) normalized absorbance - distance profile of one side of a lidocaine crystal placed in the x-649 direction (—) and y-direction (—) for estimating the resolution of the Sirius SDI imaging 650 system.

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Fig. 8. Time-dependent absorbance contour maps of the dissolution of lidocaine crystals in A) 0.5% (w/v) agarose gel, pH 7.4 and B) 0.067 M phosphate buffered solution, pH 7.4. The dissolution was performed in quartz cells with 1 mm light path using the Sirius SDI UV imaging system with the pixels binned 4×4 at 254 nm and the sensor head placed in the upright position.

Fig. 9. A) Absorbance – distance profiles for lidocaine diffusion in 0.5% (w/v) agarose hydrogel
matrix, pH 7.4, after 0 (●), 10 (■), 30 (▲), 60 (▼), 120 (♦) and 180 min (+) obtained using the
Sirius SDI system. The black lines represent the fits to Eq. (1). B) Fitted diffusion coefficients of
lidocaine in 0.5% (w/v) agarose hydrogel matrix, pH 7.4, as a function of the inverse of time.