

Effects of porosity on drug release kinetics of swellable and erodible porous pharmaceutical solid dosage forms fabricated by hot melt droplet deposition 3D printing

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1 **Abstract**

2 3D printing has the unique ability to produce porous pharmaceutical solid dosage forms
3 on-demand. Although using porosity to alter drug release kinetics has been proposed in
4 the literature, the effects of porosity on the swellable and erodible porous solid dosage
5 forms have not been explored. This study used a model formulation containing
6 hypromellose acetate succinate (HPMCAS), polyethylene oxide (PEO) and
7 paracetamol and a newly developed hot melt droplet deposition 3D printing method,
8 Arburg plastic free-forming (APF), to examine the porosity effects on *in vitro* drug
9 release. This is the first study reporting the use of APF on 3D printing porous
10 pharmaceutical tablets. With the unique pellet feeding mechanism of APF, it is
11 important to explore its potential applications in pharmaceutical additive
12 manufacturing. The pores were created by altering the infill percentages (%) of the APF
13 printing between 20 to 100% to generate porous tablets. The printing quality of these
14 porous tablets were examined. The APF printed formulation swelled in pH 1.2 HCl and
15 eroded in pH 6.8 PBS. During the dissolution at pH 1.2, the swelling of the printing
16 pathway led to the gradual decreases in the open pore area and complete closure of
17 pores for the tablets with high infills. In pH 6.8 buffer media, the direct correlation
18 between drug release rate and infills was observed for the tablets printed with infill at
19 and less than 60%. The results revealed that drug release kinetics were controlled by
20 the complex interplay of the porosity and dynamic changes of the tablets caused by
21 swelling and erosion. It also implied the potential impact of fluid hydrodynamics on
22 the *in vitro* data collection and interpretation of porous solids.

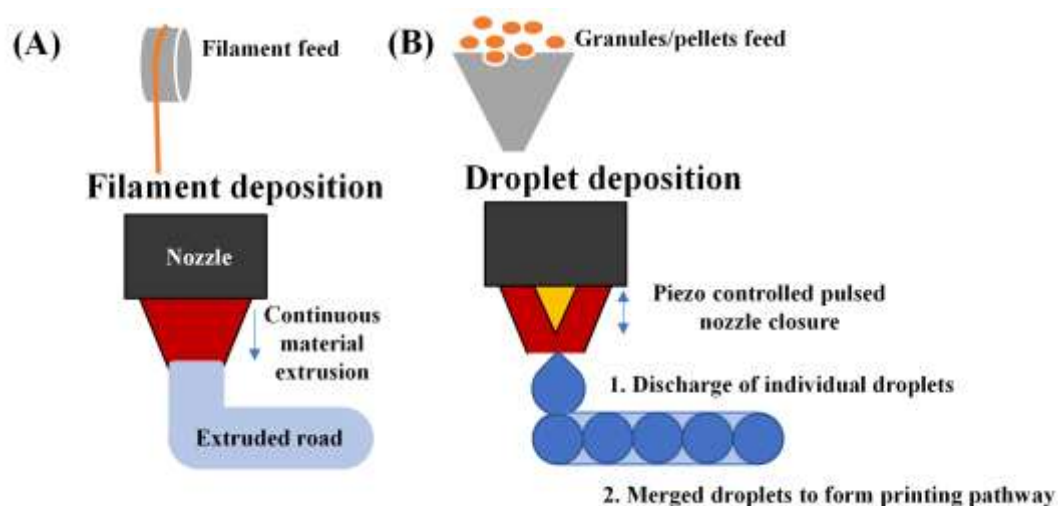
23 **Keywords:** Hot melt droplet deposition 3D printing, hot melt extrusion, Arburg plastic
24 free-forming, controlled drug release, infill control, porous solids

25 **1 Introduction**

26 Pharmaceutical additive manufacturing is a field that has seen rapidly development in
27 the past decade ^[1-4]. Material extrusion-based additive manufacturing (ME-AM) is one
28 of the additive manufacturing methods that continues to attract increasing attention as
29 a potential method to manufacture personalised pharmaceutical solid dosage forms ^{[4-}
30 ^{10]}. The most reported thermal-based ME-AM operations in the pharmaceutical
31 literature are hot melt filament-based extrusion printing (e.g. fused deposition
32 modelling (FDM)) ^[1-11] and recently developed direct powder extrusion ^[12-15]. ME-AM
33 allows for the rapid fabrication of highly tailored, bespoke objects with specific
34 geometries that can fit the purpose of personalised medicines ^[16-22]. One process
35 parameter which is often associated with its dose tailoring potential is the infill ^[23-29].
36 Sparse infill patterns are used in typical 3D printing to reduce material consumption
37 and build time. The pattern and density of the infill can typically be specified in the
38 printer control software when preparing a 3D print or it can be designed using 3D
39 computer-aided design (CAD) software ^[30, 31]. When infill (%) is reduced, more free
40 volume is created within a 3D printed object and porous structures can be created. In
41 this study, a recently developed thermoplastic droplet deposition, Arburg Plastic
42 Freeforming (APF) printing was used to produce porous tablets.

43 APF is a hot melt droplet-deposition printing that replicates some of the strengths of
44 inkjet technology ^[32]. It deposits heated thermoplastic material via a piezo controlled
45 nozzle that can open and shut-off at a defined frequency. The material deposition speed
46 can be optimised by altering the frequency of the movement of the piezo. The droplets
47 are deposited continuously to form a joined-up printing pathway, equivalent to the ones
48 generated using hot melt filament-based extrusion printing (as illustrated in **Figure 1**).

49 In contrast to hot melt filament-based extrusion and APF is fed with granulated or
50 pelletised materials instead of filaments. This overcomes the challenge for developing
51 feedable and printable filaments that is faced by hot melt filament-based extrusion
52 printing [33, 34]. In this study, the HME dispersions were pelletised and used as the
53 feedstock for APF printing.

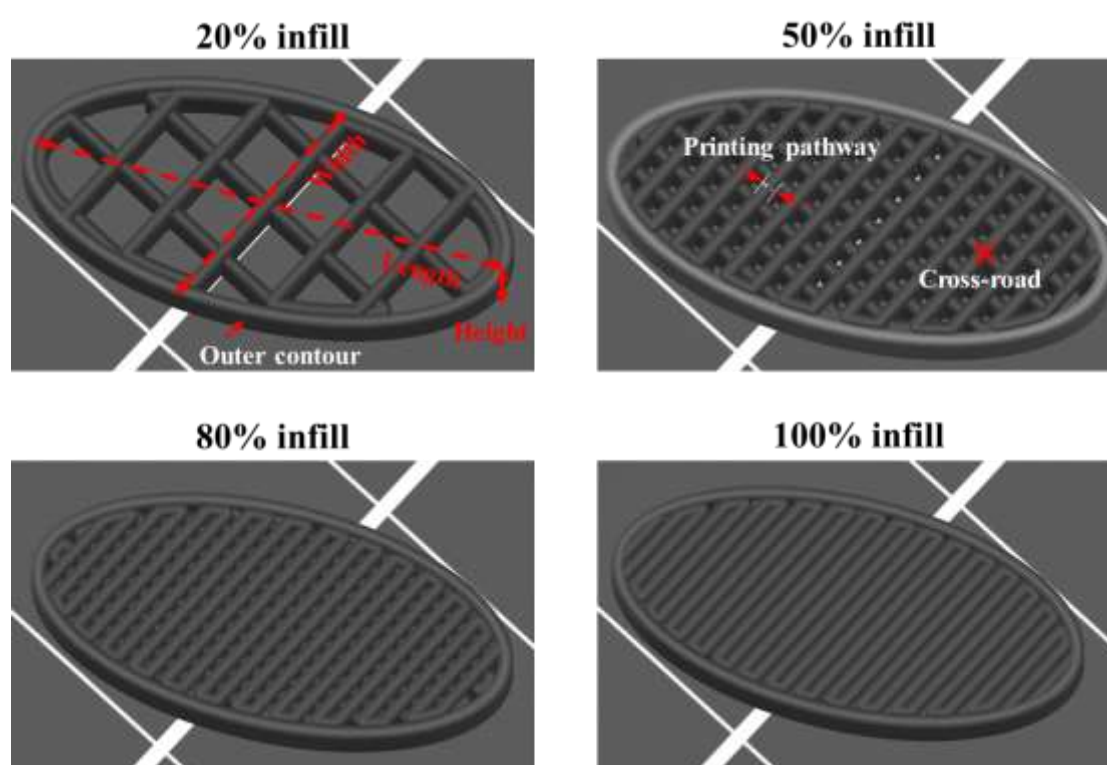


54

55 **Figure 1.** Illustration of two types of ME-AM deposition mechanism: (A) hot melt
56 filament-based extrusion (i.e. FDM) and (B) hot melt droplet-based 3D printing (i.e.
57 APF).

58 Infill, as a technical terminology, is often loosely used in the literature. In this study,
59 infill is specifically referred to the amount of deposited material that occupies the
60 internal part of a solid print that has a solid outer contour (sometimes called boundaries,
61 perimeters or walls) but with open roof and floor (as illustrated in **Figure 2**). It is
62 important to highlighted that the focus of this study is on the effect of microscale pores
63 within the printed tablets, not the effects of the overall shape change of the tablets, on
64 the drug release behaviour. Previously, other studies have concluded that for a non-
65 porous 3D printed object, the drug release patterns are independent of the

66 shape/geometry designs of the object [23, 35]. The concept of reducing the infill to print
67 porous solid dosage forms and to subsequently alter the drug release rate has been
68 mostly explored in the literature for non-swellaable and non-erodible materials with
69 diffusion-controlled drug release [23-29]. The hypothesis behind this concept is that by
70 implementing porous structures, such as the ones shown in **Figure 2**, the total surface
71 area of the matrix exposed to solvents increases while maintain the overall outer
72 dimensions.



73
74 **Figure 2.** Illustration of the examples of the CAD designs of porous (with 20, 50, and
75 80% infill) and non-porous tablets (with 100% infill).

76 Concerning this concept, within the existing literature, proof-of-concept studies have
77 been performed for two key milestones: (1) the printing of such porous solid dosage
78 forms is achievable using both lipids and polymeric materials [24-29]; (2) a common
79 finding of the level of porosity of the tablets can affect the drug release has been reached
80 [24-29]. However, the knowledge gaps still exist in the following areas for using ME-AM

81 printing of porous solid dosage forms: (1) many literature on porous oral dosages were
82 performed using thermoplastic polymers instead of pharmaceutical excipients used for
83 oral administration and (2) most reported data are on drug release mechanisms
84 dominated by diffusion in non-swellable and non-erodible materials. Most excipients
85 and products used for oral administration go through erosion and swelling at some stage
86 in the gut in the course of drug release. Therefore, it is important to gain a fuller
87 understanding of swellable and erodible 3D printed porous dosage forms. This study
88 used a blend of hypromellose acetate succinate (HPMCAS) and polyethylene oxide
89 (PEO) as the base of the solid dispersion. HPMCAS, PEG and PEO have been used for
90 hot melt extrusion-coupled FDM printing in other reported studies to produce solid oral
91 dosage forms (printed with 100% infill) with various geometries ^[17, 28, 35-38], but with
92 no micron-scaled porosity. HPMCAS is only soluble above pH 5 ^[39]. The formulation
93 swells in pH 1.2 HCl due to the presence of PEO and erodes in pH 6.8 PBS, thus can
94 act as a model swellable material and an erodible material by changing the pH of the
95 dissolution media.

96 With the use of the model system, this study aimed to examine two specific areas, the
97 printing quality of APF and whether specified porosity can be used to control drug
98 release for swellable and erodible materials. In the literature, printing quality is
99 typically judged on measurements of weight and drug content uniformity compared to
100 pharmacopeial standards and reproducibility of the outer dimensions of the hot melt
101 filament-based extrusion printed tablets ^[19, 29, 40]. In most cases, the 3D printing tablets
102 met weight uniformity specifications, indicating that the printing of tablets with the
103 same design is reproducible. However, for porous tablets with micron-scale structures
104 there is no measure developed or proposed to examine the printing quality with
105 different infills. As the inner printing pathway are exposed, and are therefore surfaces

106 for drug release, the uniformity of the printing pathway widths could have a significant
107 impact on the reproducibility of the subsequent drug release performance of the porous
108 printed tablets. The data in the literature show that most porous tablets printed by hot
109 melt filament-based extrusion printers have certain levels of micron-scale defects at the
110 individual printing pathway level ^[19, 23-29, 40-43]. This may be related to the continuous
111 printing pathway-laying nature of the material deposition of these printers, which
112 makes the printing pathway turning point and layer-overlapping points extremely
113 challenging to produce repeatably and defect-free, and highly dependent on the thermal
114 viscoelastic properties of the materials ^[40, 42, 43]. With the droplet deposition nature, APF
115 may be able to reduce these issues as the printing pathway are formed by merging
116 individual droplets instead of the continuous extrusion and stretching of molten
117 material. This was examined within this study.

118 In terms of the porosity controlling drug release, early literature on 3D printed porous
119 tablets used a solid roof and floor with a porous interior, probably due to using available
120 software options to specify percentage infill ^[24, 28]. This made the evaluation of the
121 effects of porosity on drug release inconclusive because the tablets did not have open
122 porosity. For example, work by Lamichhane and co-workers' showed no significant
123 difference in drug release rate between the formulations with different infills in samples
124 with solid roofs; whereas with prints having an open roof and floor, the effect of infill
125 on drug release can be clearly seen, but the trend is complex ^[28]. When the qualities of
126 the prints were examined, poor print quality may have been of the cause of poor
127 reproducibility of the porosity and subsequently the inconsistency of the drug release
128 results. However Isreb and co-workers data on the FDM printed 'radiator-like' tablets
129 using PEG and PEO demonstrated the effects of spacings between layers on the drug
130 release kinetics ^[37]. With higher printing quality of micro-scale structural details using

131 melt inkjet printing, Kyobula and co-worker's confirmed that infill was one of the key
132 factors affecting the drug release of fenofibrate-loaded beeswax tablets ^[27]. This study
133 reported no observed swelling or erosion from the porous tablets during dissolution,
134 making the release mechanism entirely diffusion based. Of the six infills investigated,
135 the four lower infill formulations showed no significant differences in drug release but
136 were significantly faster than a higher infill formulation, and the 100% infill
137 formulation ^[27]. In practice, many pharmaceutical solid dispersions are swellable and
138 erodible. Therefore, it is important to understand the behaviour of this group of
139 materials when they are used to produce 3D printed solid dosage forms.

140 **2 Materials and Methods**

141 **2.1 Materials**

142 Hypromellose acetate succinate (HPMCAS, low-fine grade) was kindly donated by
143 Shin Etsu (Shin Etsu Inc., Tokyo, Japan). Polyethylene oxide N-10 grade (PEO;
144 molecular weight of 100,000) was kindly donated by Colorcon (Colorcon Ltd.,
145 Dartford, United Kingdom). Paracetamol (PAC) was purchased from Sigma Aldrich
146 (Sigma Aldrich, Salisbury, United Kingdom).

147 **2.2 Preparation of filaments by hot melt extrusion (HME)**

148 Filaments were prepared to the weight ratio of 81% HPMCAS, 10% PAC, and 9% PEO
149 using a Haake Minilab II hot melt compounder (Thermo Scientific, Karlsruhe,
150 Germany) equipped with a 1.75 mm circular die. Extrusion was conducted at a screw
151 speed of 100 RPM and a temperature of 155 °C. Materials were cycled in the extruder
152 for 5 minutes prior to flushing to ensure homogeneity along the filament. The melt was
153 flushed at a screw speed of 35 RPM onto a conveyer belt. To achieve a wide range of

154 filament diameters for drug release tests (from 20 μm to 1.75 mm), the filament
155 described above was feed through a RepRap x400 3D printing system and ‘drawn’ from
156 the nozzle at different speeds by manually rotating and moving a mandrel by hand.
157 After ‘drawing’, the filament diameter was measured with a digital vernier calliper
158 along its length to identify regions of consistent and appropriate diameters
159 (approximately 20 μm , 350 μm , 650 μm and 1.8 mm), and these sections were cut away
160 as small length (10 mm) for drug release tests. The diameters of tested filaments were
161 accurately measured prior to the dissolution test using a digital vernier calliper.

162 **2.3 HME pellets preparation and APF printing of tablets**

163 The pellets used for APF printing were produced using a larger scale extruder, Pharma
164 16 twin-screw extruder (ThermoFisher Scientific, UK), than the one used in 2.2. This
165 is due to the larger batch volume of the pellets required for the feeding of the APF
166 printer. The extruder was coupled with a using a VariCut 16 Strand Pelletiser
167 (Thermofisher Scientific, UK). The extrudates were produced at 150°C and 100 rpm
168 using a circular die of 1.75 mm diameter. The extruded strands were guided onto a
169 conveyer belt and collected continuously and cut into pellets at averagely 3 mm in
170 length the pelletiser.

171 Prior to the tablet printing, the feeding hopper of the APF printer (Freeformer[®], Arburg,
172 Germany) was filled with HPMCAS-PEO-PAC pellets prepared by HEM. The
173 following temperature profile was used for the tablet printing: discharge nozzle, 170°C;
174 barrel zone 2, 120°C; barrel zone 1, 93°C. In order to achieve 0.20 mm droplet layer
175 height, the discharge value of 45% and the droplets aspect ratio (width/height) of 1.005
176 was set. The defined elliptical tablets geometry (8×15×3 mm) with variable infilling
177 density ranging from 20% to 100% were printed. The printing operation and the CAD

178 file uploading were controlled through the APF operational interface integrated within
179 the printer.

180 **2.4 Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC)**

181 The thermal properties of the raw polymers, the physical mixtures, the HME
182 extrudates/pellets and the printed tablets were characterised using a Q20 differential
183 scanning calorimetry (DSC) (TA Instruments, Delaware, United States). The DSC was
184 calibrated prior to samples measurement. Each sample (3-5 mg) was accurately
185 weighed in an aluminium crimped DSC pan (TA Instruments, Delaware, United States)
186 with a lid. All samples were tested at a 5°C/min scanning rate. Nitrogen purge gas with
187 a flow rate of 50 mL/min was used throughout the experiments. TA Universal Analysis
188 2000 software was used for the data analysis. All tests were performed in triplicates.

189 **2.5 Attenuated total reflectance-Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy** 190 **(ATR-FTIR)**

191 ATR-FTIR measurements were conducted using a Vertex 70 FTIR spectrometer
192 (Bruker Optics Ltd., United Kingdom), equipped with a Golden Gate, heat-enabled
193 Attenuated Total Reflectance (ATR) accessory (Specac Ltd., Orpington, United
194 Kingdom) fitted with a diamond internal reflection element. ATR-FTIR spectra were
195 acquired in absorbance mode, using a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹, 32 scans for each sample,
196 within the range of wavenumbers from 4000 cm⁻¹ to 650 cm⁻¹. Spectra analysis was
197 conducted using OPUS version 7.8 (Bruker Optics Ltd., United Kingdom). All
198 measurements were done in triplicate.

199 **2.6 Powder X-Ray diffraction (PXRD)**

200 A D5005 X-ray diffractometer (Siemens, Munich, Germany) with monochromatic
201 CuK α radiation (wavelength =1.54056 Å) was used to measure the raw materials, the
202 physical mixtures, the extrudates and the APF printed tablets. The extrudates and the
203 printed tablets were briefly grinded to powder form prior to their measurements. The
204 samples were scanned from a 2 θ angle of 5° to 50°, with a scan speed of 2°/min. The
205 scan step was maintained at 0.02°, the resultant scan resolution was found to be 0.0025.

206 **2.7 Swelling tests**

207 The swelling experiments were performed on the APF printed tablet. The tablets were
208 immersed in 900 mL of pH 1.2 media at 37 °C in a USP paddle apparatus with a rotating
209 speed of 50 rpm. At each 30 minutes, samples were removed and imaged using a
210 Linkam Imaging Station (Linkam Scientific Instruments, Tadworth, United Kingdom).
211 The printing pathway and pore area were quantified by measuring 10 times in Image J
212 software (<http://rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/>); the data was exported for analysis, and the
213 statistical distributions were plotted using Origin software (OriginLab, USA).

214 **2.8 *In vitro* drug release studies**

215 Two dissolution media were used, pH 1.2 HCl and pH 6.8 buffer. The pH 1.2 HCl
216 medium was prepared by adding 100 mL of 1 M HCl solution into 1000 mL Milli-Q
217 water and stirring until it completely mixing. For the pH 6.8 buffer medium, 6.8 g of
218 monobasic potassium phosphate (KH₂PO₄) was dissolved in Milli-Q water and diluted
219 with water to 1000 mL volumetric flask then stirring for at least 3 hours to make sure
220 KH₂PO₄ completely dissolved. 0.9 g of sodium hydroxide (NaOH) was then added into
221 the solution and stirred for 3 hours until completely dissolved. The pH of the result

222 solution was measured using a pH meter (Hanna Instruments, Padova, Italy) and
223 adjusted (if required) to 6.8.

224 *In vitro* drug release of the HME filaments with different diameters were performed
225 using a shaking incubator (IKA KS3000i, Staufen, Germany) with 100 rpm at 37 °C.
226 The samples were measured accurately for weight and placed in glass vials with 20 mL
227 pH 1.2 or pH 6.8 media that were pre-heated to 37 °C. The time point for HME filament
228 in pH 1.2 and 6.8 media was 5, 10, 15, 30, 45, 60, 120, 180, 240, 420, 720 and 1560
229 minutes. 2 mL aliquot was withdrawn at each time point and replaced with pre-heated
230 fresh media.

231 A Caleva 8ST USP paddle dissolution apparatus (Caleva Ltd., Dorset, United
232 Kingdom) was used to test the APF printed tablets in 900 mL dissolution media either
233 at pH 1.2 or pH 6.8 with 50 rpm paddle rotation rate and at 37 ± 0.5 °C. 5 mL aliquots
234 were withdrawn from the dissolution media at predetermined time points and replaced
235 with 5 mL of preheated fresh dissolution media. The time points for the APF tablets in
236 pH 1.2 buffer were 30, 60, 120, 240, 330, 480, 1200 and 1560 minutes. Considering the
237 APF tablets having faster dissolution in pH 6.8 buffer than in pH 1.2 buffer due to the
238 HPMCAS being soluble at pH 6.8, shorter total dissolution periods and more sampling
239 time points within the 1st hour were used, which was 5, 10, 15, 30, 45, 60, 165, 300 and
240 600 minutes. All APF tablets with variable infill were fully dissolved in pH 6.8 buffer
241 within 2 hours. Drug content was analysed using a UV-Visible spectrophotometer
242 (Perkin-Elmer lambda 35, USA) at a wavelength of 242 nm. At least three samples
243 from each formulation were tested.

244 **2.9 *In vitro* drug release data analysis**

245 As the hot melt extrudates are close to an ideal cylindrical in shape, and if it is assumed
246 that the dissolution rate is determined by Fick type I diffusion from the filament, which
247 is semi-infinite, then the rate may be modelled by using the solution to the diffusion
248 equation for a cylinder which is:

$$249 \quad \frac{M_t}{M_0} = 1 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{4}{a^2 \alpha_n^2} \exp(-D \alpha_n^2 t) \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

250 where $(a\alpha)_n$ are the roots of the zero order Bessel function, a is the radius of the cylinder
251 and D is the diffusion coefficient, t is time. In addition, drug release data of APF tablets
252 were fitted to a single exponential model, as shown below:

$$253 \quad \frac{M_t}{M_0} = A \left(1 - \exp \left(-\frac{t}{T} \right) \right) \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

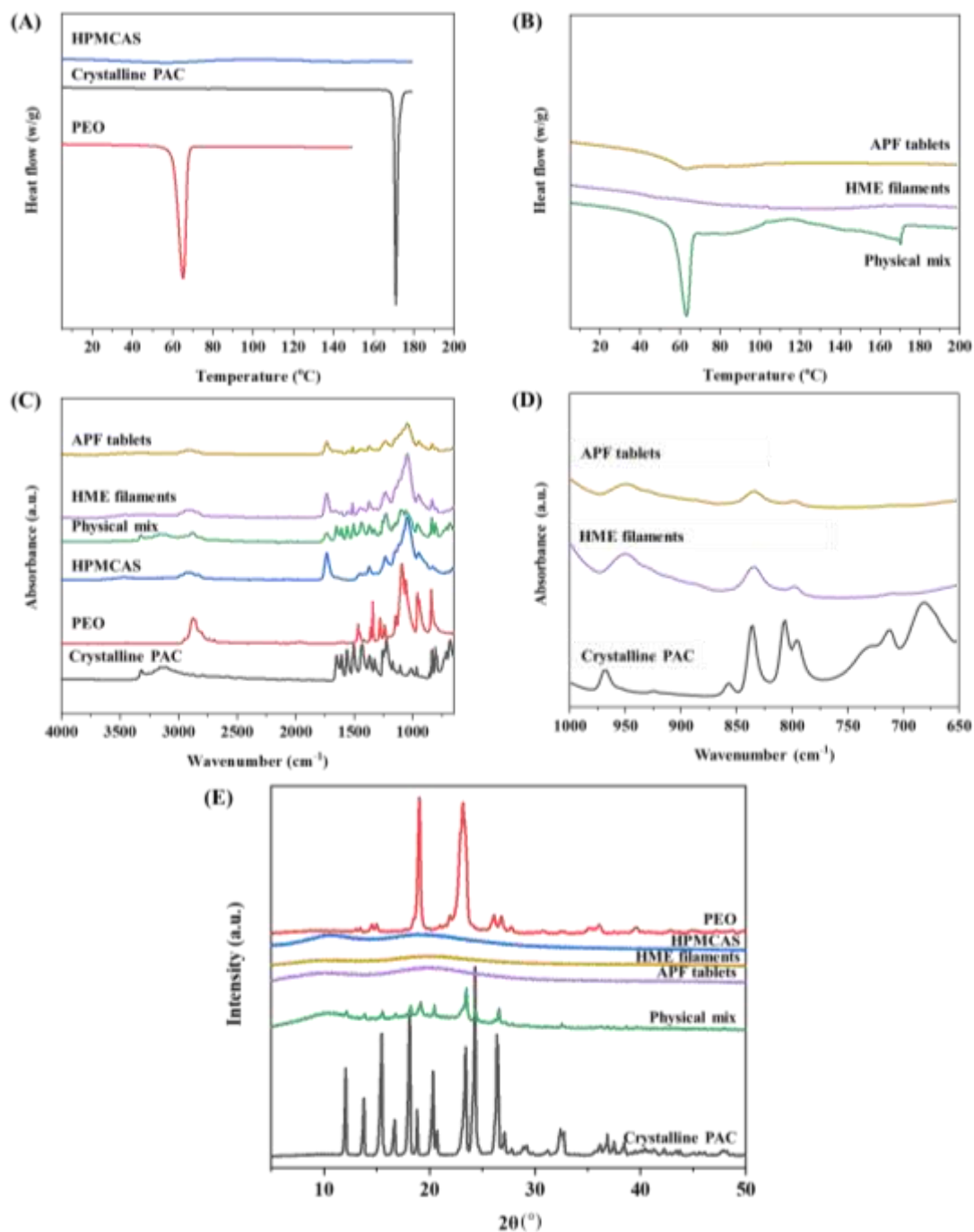
254 where M_t is the mass of drug released at time t , M_0 is the total mass of drug in the
255 sample, A is the fitting factor that represents the fraction of m_0 actually released at $t=$
256 ∞ , T is time constant.

257 **3 Results and discussion**

258 **3.1 Formulation characterisation**

259 **Figure 3A** shows the DSC thermograms of the raw materials, physical mixtures and
260 the filaments prepared by HME and the APF printed tablet. For the raw materials, the
261 T_g of HPMCAS is seen at ~ 120 °C. An endothermic event corresponding to the T_m of
262 PEO is seen at 60 ± 1.1 °C. The melting (T_m) of PAC form I (monoclinic form) was
263 seen at $\sim 169 \pm 0.79$ °C which agrees well with the literature ^[44]. For the physical
264 mixture, the both T_m of the crystalline fraction of PEO and the T_m of crystalline PAC

265 are clearly visible (**Figure 3B**). No visible melting of PAC can be observed in the DSC
266 results of the hot melt extrudate and APF printed tablet. With 10% PAC loading, the
267 crystalline PAC can be detected using ATR-FTIR and PXRD in the physical mixtures
268 (**Figure 3C and 3E**). As seen in **Figure 3C**, there is notable broadening of the N-H
269 stretching peak of crystalline PAC at 3321 cm^{-1} indicating the significant loss of
270 crystallinity. The peak at 808 cm^{-1} , representing the out-of-plane bending of a para-
271 substituted aromatic ring of PAC that is particularly indicative of the crystal packing of
272 the monoclinic form of PAC ^[45], is absent in the spectra of the HME filament and the
273 APF printed (**Figure 3D**). The halo shaped PXRD diffraction patterns of the filaments
274 and the APF printed tablet showed no PAC crystalline peaks. The DSC, PXRD and
275 ATR-FTIR data are in good agreement of the formation of amorphous dispersion of
276 PAC in the HPMCAS-PEO matrix.



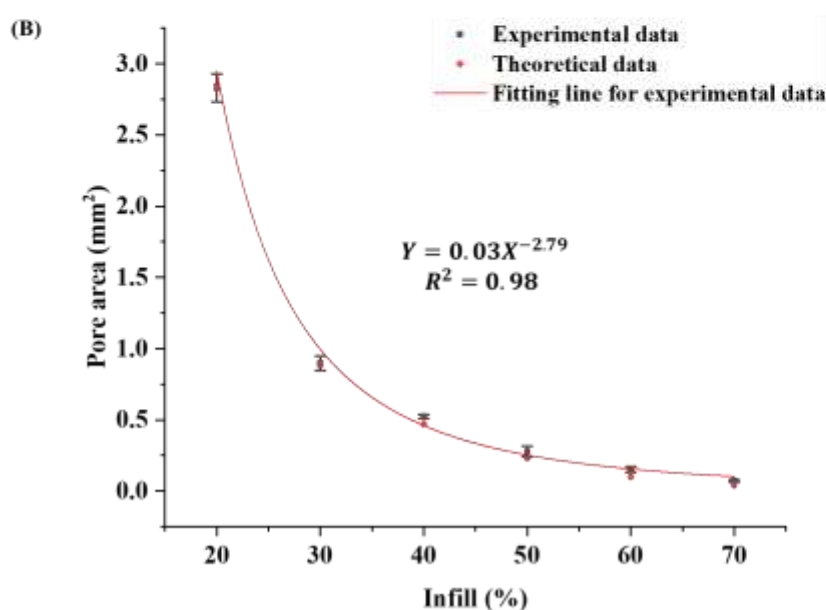
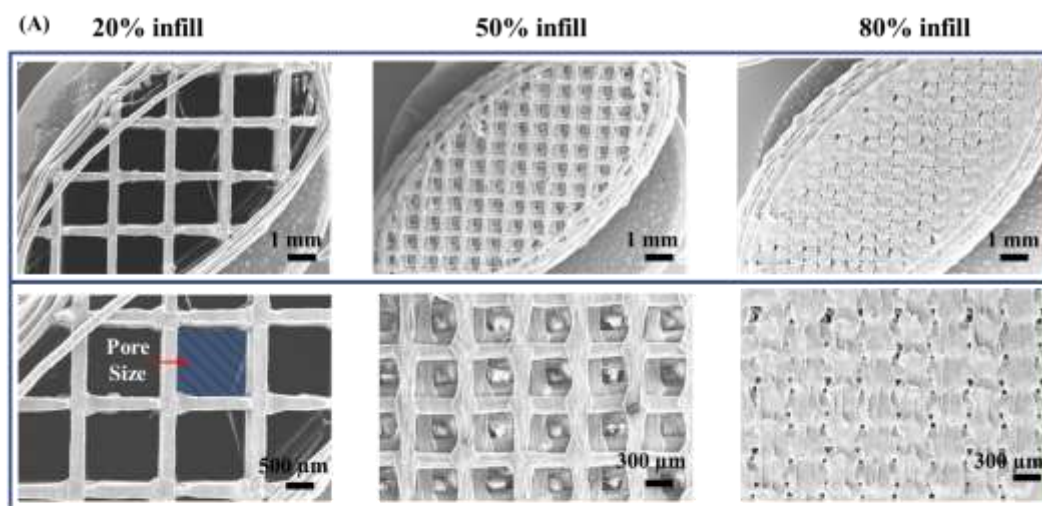
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278 **Figure 3.** DSC thermograms of (A) the raw materials and (B) the physical mix, the
 279 HME filaments and the APF tablets; (C) ATR-FTIR spectra of the raw materials, the
 280 HME filaments and the APF tablets; (D) ATR-FTIR spectra of crystalline PAC and the
 281 HME-filaments, showing the disappearance of the 808 cm⁻¹ aromatic CH bending peak;

282 (E) PXRD diffraction patterns of the raw materials, the physical mix, the HME
283 filaments and the APF tablets.

284 **3.2 Evaluation of the printing quality of the porous tablets prepared by** 285 **APF**

286 **Figure 4A** shows the detailed morphologies of the APF printed porous tablets with
287 tablets with 20%, 50% and 80% infills as examples tested using SEM. Clear defects
288 (i.e. mis-aligned outer contour) can be seen in the tablets with 20% infill. A unique
289 feature of the widths of the printing pathways at the cross-roads being wider than the
290 rest of 'free-handing' printing pathways is observed. The cause of this is uncertain, but
291 it could be due to droplet deposition nature of the APF printing. The pore area (i.e. the
292 surface area of the interfilamentous gap area) was not measurable for the tablet with
293 80% infill as the pores were too small to be accurately measured. The analysis of the
294 pore area of the APF printed tablets with 20-70% infill is summarised in **Figure 4B**.
295 The results of the APF printed tablets with 20-70% infill indicate the mean pore area
296 has a power law relationship with the infill. This is in close agreement with the
297 theoretical calculation of the pore area using the CAD file designs of the tablets (red
298 dots in Figure 4B).



299

300 **Figure 4.** (A) SEM image of APF printed tablets with 20%, 50% and 80% infills, and
 301 (B) the measurement of pore area (void space between printing pathways as illustrated
 302 in A) of the APF printed tablets with infills between 20-70%.

303 The uniformities of the outer dimensions (height, width, and length) and the weight of
 304 APF printed tablets with 20-100% infills are summarised in the **Table 1**. The inter-
 305 tablet variations of the outer dimension (height, width, and length) of the APF printed
 306 tablets are less than 1, 0.7 and 2 % in width, length and height, respectively. The
 307 detailed inspection of each dimensional parameters of the APF printed tablets revealed

308 that they are all closely resemble the dimensions of the CAD elliptical design (8×15×3
 309 mm) with less than 0.4 mm deviation. The uniformity data of the outer dimension of
 310 the APF printed tablets implies the high reproducibility of the APF printing for the
 311 geometry control.

312

313 **Table 1.** Outer dimension and weight uniformity of the APF printed tablets. The
 314 dimension of the elliptical tablets CAD model is 8 (width)×15 (length) ×3 (height) mm
 315 (n=3).

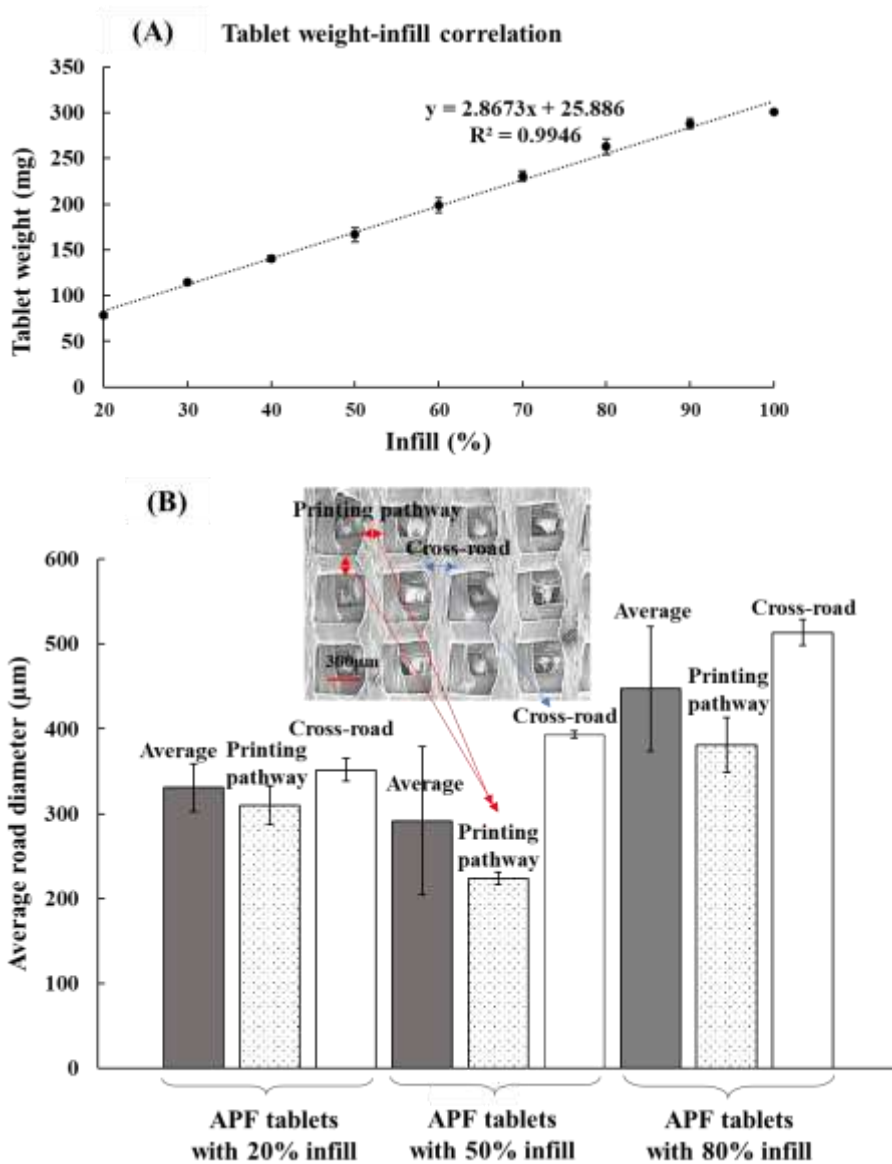
Infill (%)	Width (mm)	Length (mm)	Height (mm)	Weight (mg)
20	8.03±0.06	14.60±0.10	2.90±0.03	78.3±2.5
30	8.02±0.06	14.86±0.08	2.92±0.03	114.4±2.8
40	8.03±0.08	14.86±0.04	2.97±0.02	140.6±3.3
50	8.02±0.02	14.89±0.02	2.97±0.01	166.5±7.6
60	8.01±0.02	14.87±0.03	2.98±0.06	198.7±8.2
70	8.02±0.06	14.87±0.04	2.95±0.03	230.7±5.4
80	7.96±0.07	14.92±0.04	2.96±0.04	260.9±8.5
90	7.97±0.02	14.89±0.05	2.98±0.01	288.2±5.5
100	7.93±0.06	14.86±0.05	3.03±0.02	300.9±1.0

316

317 There is no clear trend of the weight variation being associated with infill used for
 318 printing. The weight uniformity of the APF printed tablets are all within the
 319 pharmacopeial specification of mass uniformity for tablets (>80 mg, 80-250 mg and
 320 <250mg categories) and are comparable with the variabilities reported in the literature
 321 of the tablets printed using FDM [28, 29, 37]. The highly linear correlation between the
 322 infill and the tablet weight of the APF printed tablets is demonstrated by the R² of
 323 0.9951 (**Figure 5A**). This indicates the APF has good control of consistency of material
 324 deposition during the printing process. As all tablets were printed with the same

325 numbers of layers, the intercept of 27.213 mg obtained from the linear fitting is the
326 weight of the unchanged outer contour for all the tablets with different infills.

327 As revealed by the SEM images of the APF tablets (**Figure 4A**), the width of the
328 printing pathway at the cross-road is wider than the rest. Therefore, the analysis of the
329 uniformity of the width of the printing pathway of the APF printed tablets was
330 performed. As seen in **Figure 5 B**, no significant difference in the width of the printing
331 pathways at different locations of the tablets with low infill (20%), whereas the tablets
332 with higher infills (50 and 80%) the width at the cross-road are significantly higher than
333 the rest of the tablets. Currently it is unclear if this particular feature would impact on
334 the drug release behaviour and require further investigation which is out of the scope
335 of this study. However, with the dimension and weight uniformity data, it is clear that
336 this feature is not affecting the macroscopic level of the properties of the tablets.



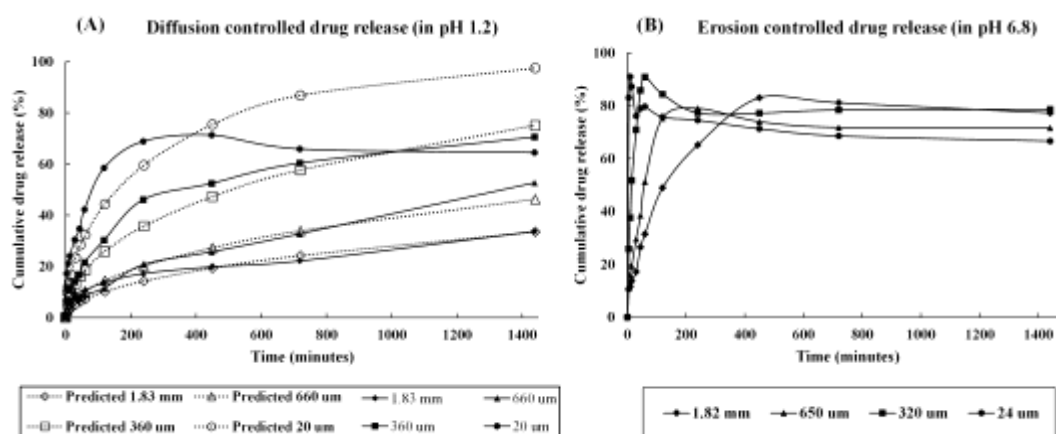
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338 **Figure 5.** (A) The relationship between the infilling density and the weight of APF
 339 printed tablet, and (B) the printing pathway width uniformity of APF printed porous
 340 tablets with different infills. The insert image is the SEM images of APF printed tablets
 341 with 50% infill (labelled with the illustrations of the data population named as ‘printing
 342 pathway’ and ‘cross-road’).

343

344 **3.3 *In vitro* drug release of drug-loaded HME filaments**

345 In order to examine the hypothesis that porosity and infill can be used to manipulate
 346 the drug release from porous tablet, the drug release of the simplest two-dimensional
 347 filaments with diameters ranging from approximately 20 μm to 1.8 mm were tested. As
 348 the filaments are simple cylinders, changing the diameter of the filament changes both
 349 the overall surface area and volume of the samples. As weights of all tested filaments
 350 were kept as closely similar as possible, the surface area per unit mass of the filaments
 351 ranges from 2 to 38 mm^2/mg . As seen in **Figure 6**, the drug release rate of the filaments
 352 with smallest diameter released drug fastest in both pH 1.2 and 6.8 media. HPMCAS
 353 being insoluble at pH 1.2, thus the drug release rate in pH 1.2 is significantly slower
 354 than in pH 6.8 media, in which HPMCAS became soluble.



355
 356 **Figure 6.** *In vitro* drug release of HME filaments with a range of diameters (A) in pH
 357 1.2 and (B) in pH 6.8 buffer media. Note: the dotted line in A is not fitted line of the
 358 drug release data of the filaments, but the predicted drug release if assuming the
 359 filaments are ideal cylinders and the drug release profiles follow a simple diffusion
 360 model.

361

362 The dotted lines in **Figure 6A** show the predicted curves obtained assuming that the
363 diffusion coefficient (D) of drug, $6.7 \times 10^{-14} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$. This value was calculated from the
364 simulation based on **Equation 1** that gave curves on the same time scale as the observed
365 experimental release drug profiles. It should be emphasised that the curves in the figure
366 are not attempts at best fit to the data but hypothetical curves that would be observed if
367 the simple diffusion model applied. The difference seen between the predicted results
368 and the experimental (**Figure 6A**) may be attributed to a number of factors: (1)
369 Although the width to length ratio of the filaments is small, the assumption of the semi-
370 infinite model may not be correct; (2) thin filaments flexed/coiled during the drug
371 release process and this changed geometry; (3) although HPMCAS is not soluble at pH
372 1.2, PEO is a highly swellable material. This led to a degree of swelling of the filaments
373 in pH 1.2.

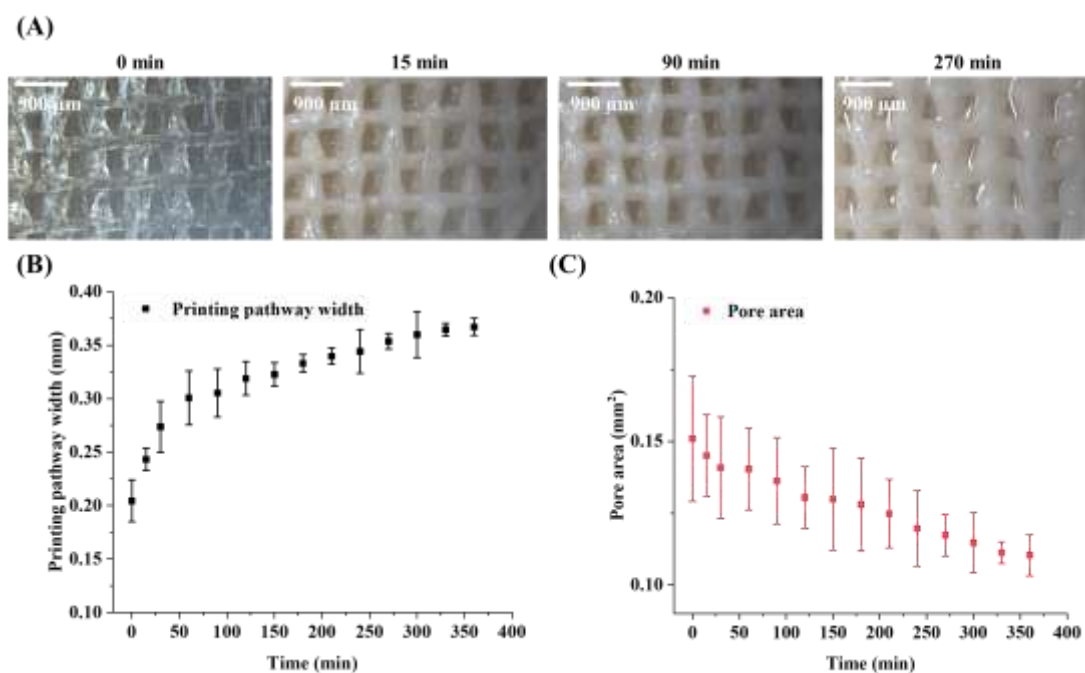
374 In pH 6.8 media, in which HPMCAS becomes soluble and the filaments erode, the drug
375 release from the filaments are significantly faster (**Figure 6B**). The diameter of the
376 filament still shows a clear impact on the drug kinetics. The filament with the smallest
377 diameter (24 μm) rapidly dissolved and released drug within less than 5 minutes;
378 whereas the filaments with the largest diameter (1.82 mm) less than 50% of the drug
379 load in 180 minutes. These results implied the clear correlation between SA and drug
380 release for both erosion (in pH 6.8) and swellable (in pH 1.2) systems.

381 To summarise, the results show that the *in vitro* drug release rates in both pH 1.2 and
382 pH 6.8 depend on the radius of deposited filaments. When this is translated into the
383 cases of APF printed multi-printing pathway tablets, the implication is that if the
384 printing pathway width is kept constant, increasing the number of printing pathways
385 (different infills) should not change the relative drug release rate. In this case any effect

386 of infill seen, if printing pathway radius is kept constant, will be due to the change in
387 space between the printing pathways. This is further tested on the APF printed tablets.

388 **3.4 Effects of porosity on *in vitro* drug release of swellable porous tablets**

389 The swellability of the APF printed tablets in pH 1.2 media was examined prior to the
390 drug release test in order to evaluate the extent of the swelling of the printing pathway
391 and assess their possible effect on the pore area during dissolution. As HPMCAS is
392 soluble at pH 6.8, the APF printed tablet was dissolved within the pH 6.8 medium; thus
393 the swelling test was only performed at pH 1.2. As seen in **Figure 7A and 7B**, the
394 printed printing pathways show clear evidence of swelling in pH 1.2 medium. The
395 example tablet with 60% infill shows continuous swelling of the printing pathways.
396 This led to the reduction of the pore area with time (**Figure 7C**). Such a change in
397 printing pathway width would dynamically impact on the SA of the tablet during the
398 dissolution process. As swelling occurs, the diffusion coefficient of the drug from the
399 matrix is likely to change and the diffusion pathway from the interior of the printing
400 pathway will increase. At the same time the pore dimensions will be reduced. For the
401 tablets with high infill levels, due to the swelling of the printing pathways, the size of
402 the pores created by the infill could reduce significantly. These tablets have lower
403 spatial allowances (smaller pores) to accommodate swelling than the tablets with lower
404 infills, therefore, the pores get filled up more quickly than the tablets with lower infills,
405 which limits the drug release. These mechanisms led to the prediction of drug release
406 kinetics of a swellable system being complex to resolve.

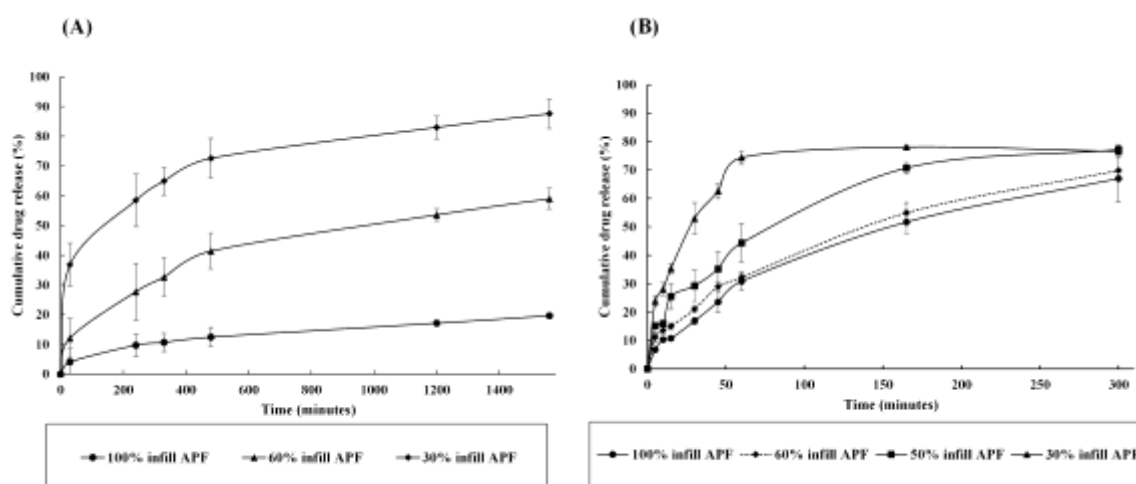


407

408 **Figure 7.** (A) Example microscopic images evidencing the swelling of APF printed
 409 tablet with 60% infill in pH 1.2 HCl at the time points of 0, 15, 90 and 270 minutes; (B)
 410 printing pathway width and (C) pore area measured at time point in the pH 1.2 HCl.

411 The *in vitro* dissolution data of the APF printed tablets in pH 1.2 HCl revealed slower
 412 drug release rates, with the 30% infill tablets have the significantly fastest drug release
 413 among all tested tablets (**Figure 8A**). The tablets with 60% infill released drug
 414 significantly faster than the ones with 100% infill. The drug release rate increasing with
 415 decreasing infill agrees with the correlation of SA/V and drug release kinetics ^[23, 27, 32].
 416 The difference in the drug release rates between the tablets with 90 and 100% infills is
 417 insignificant (see **Supplementary Materials Figure S1**). Due to the swelling of the
 418 printing pathways, this can be attributed to the blockage of the pores within the 90%
 419 density tablets. Moreover, the results highlight that when designing a 3D printed solid
 420 dosage form from swellable material, it is important to fully understand the swelling
 421 behaviour which can be used to guide the geometry design of the dosage form in order

422 to achieve desired drug release pattern. In practical terms the pore size must exceed the
423 swelling.



424

425 **Figure 8.** *In vitro* dissolution results of the APF printed tablets in (A) pH 1.2 HCl and
426 (B) pH 6.8 buffer media.

427 3.5 Effects of porosity on *in vitro* drug release of erodible porous tablets

428 As APF allowed the printing of tablets with 10% infill interval, the effect of infill on
429 the drug release can be investigated in more detail. The full set of the dissolution data
430 of the APF printed tablets can be found in the Supplementary Materials (**Figure S2**).
431 For the tablets with infills between 20-50%, the drug release rates increase with
432 decreasing the tablet infill, which could be attributed to the SA/V difference. However,
433 the drug release rate of the APF printed tablets with 60-100% infills show no significant
434 difference between them (**Figure 8B**). This may seem to be in contradiction with the
435 SA/V hypothesis. However, if the pores are sufficiently small, the entrapments of air
436 within the pores may delay the wetting of the tablets and reduce the drug release rate
437 [27]. This is also observed by the Kyobula and co-worker in their study on the thermal
438 inkjet-printed beeswax tablets with honeycomb pores [27]. These results highlight that

439 governing drug release by altering SA/V is much more complex in practice and multiple
440 material and surface properties of the prints should be thoroughly examined and taken
441 into consideration during the microstructure design of the porous tablets.

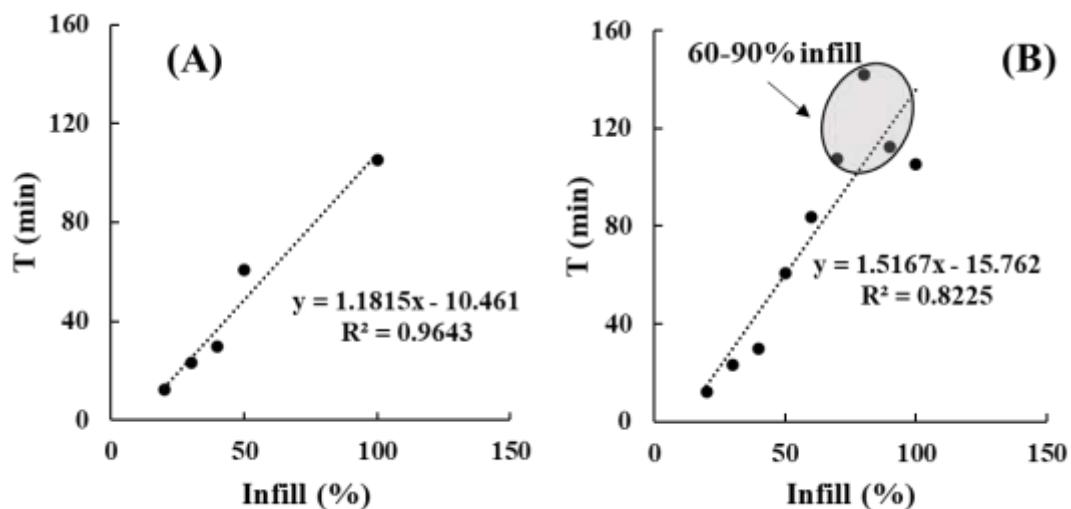
442 The drug release data of the APF tablet with the infill from 20 to 100% were fitting
443 with the exponential model described using **Equation 2**. The fitting parameters were
444 summarised in the **Table 2** (fitting details can be found in Supplementary Materials
445 **Figure S3**). The time constant T shows clear linear correlation with the infill (**Figure**
446 **9 (A)**) for the tablets with 100%, and 20-50% infills. This result indicates the direct
447 correlation between the drug release rate and infill. As seen in **Figure 9 (B)**, this linear
448 correlation is weakened when the results of the tablets with 60-90% infills were added.
449 This agrees well with the insignificant difference in the *in vitro* drug release data of
450 these tablets with infills between 60-100%. As indicated earlier, this could be due to
451 the swelling prior to erosion of the printing pathways within these tablets, which led to
452 the differences in pore area of these tablets being negligible (i.e. the pores become
453 closed).

454 **Table 2.** Fitting parameters of the *in vitro* drug release data of the APF tablets in pH
455 6.8 buffer medium.

Infilling (%)	A	T (minutes)	R²
20	81.5	12.4	0.987
30	77.0	23.2	0.979
40	75.5	30.0	0.980
50	76.0	60.6	0.953
60	68.6	83.7	0.966
70	61.8	107.7	0.949
80	82.74	141.9	0.984

90	67.0	112.5	0.977
100	69.2	105.1	0.987

456



457

458 **Figure 9.** (A) The linear correlation between the time constant T and infill for the
 459 tablets with 100, and 20-50% infills; (B) linear correlation is weakened when the results
 460 of the tablets with 60-90% infills were added.

461 It is also worth mentioning that high standard deviations are often seen in the *in vitro*
 462 drug release results of 3D printing porous tablet [23-25, 46]. When interpreting and
 463 comparing *in vitro* drug release data between formulations, the effects of fluid
 464 dynamics created by the *in vitro* dissolution testing methods are often not discussed but
 465 should be taken into consideration. In the literature, both paddle [23, 24, 27, 28] and basket
 466 [25, 29] methods were used. D'Arcy and co-workers' computational fluid dynamic study
 467 revealed that the velocities of the flow field solution within the basket (USP Apparatus
 468 1) to be of the same order as those at the base of the paddle apparatus (USP Apparatus
 469 2) at the same rotation speed and should provide equivalent dissolution rate data if the
 470 solid dosage forms were placed either in the basket or at the bottom of the vessel for

471 paddle method ^[47]. Therefore, in theory, the method for dissolution should not affect
472 the reproducibility of the results. However, most porous tablets, particularly the ones
473 with low infills, have a strong tendency to float when the paddle method was used.
474 Literature data also showed that floating during dissolution led to higher standard
475 deviation of the result ^[28]. This is confirmed by hydrodynamic studies performed by
476 D'Arcy and co-workers demonstrating less variability in dissolution data from tablets
477 fixed to a single position compared with those that were not fixed ^[46, 48]. For porous
478 tablets that float during dissolution, using basket method, in our case, did not improve
479 the reproducibility of the *in vitro* release data (as seen in **Supplementary Materials**
480 **Figure S4**). The differences observed between the drug release data obtained by paddle
481 and basket method suggest the hydrodynamics within the dissolution bath can
482 significantly affect the drug release rate of the tested dosage from in particular for
483 porous tablets. It is clear that both hydrodynamic effects and the role of air entrapment
484 in release dynamics is likely to be an important factor in understanding drug release
485 kinetics but was beyond the scope of this study.

486 **4 Conclusion**

487 The results of this study indicates that APF can be used to reproducibly 3D print porous
488 tablets using pharmaceutical polymers, such as HPMCAS and PEO, and can produce
489 tablets with a wide range of infills. Although using porosity to control the drug release
490 in diffusion-controlled systems is well-documented, there was no detailed study on
491 whether porosity can be used for drug release control of swellable and erodible systems.
492 The results of this study for the first time indicates that there is a linear correlation
493 between the drug release rate constant and infill when pore size is not affected
494 significantly by swelling. This suggests that porosity may be used to control drug

495 release rate in swellable and erodible systems. However, the control over the absolute
496 value of the drug release rate is much more complex than just the infill. It is an interplay
497 between the swelling/erosion kinetics, surface properties, and the hydrodynamic of the
498 flow during the *in vitro* testing.

499 **Acknowledgement:**

500 We would like to thank the Enabling Innovation: Research to Application (EIRA), a
501 Research England Connecting Capability Fund (CCF) project for providing the funding
502 for the study. We would like to thank Prof Dennis Douroumis and his team, Dr. Steven
503 Ross, Mr Md Sadeque Hossain Mithu and Mr Atabak Ghanizadeh Tabriz at the Faculty
504 of Engineering and Science of University of Greenwich for their assistance in the
505 preparation of the hot melt extruded pellets.

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