Stability test of novel combined formulated dry powder inhalation system
containing antibiotic: Physical characterization and in vitro-in silico lung
deposition results
Edit Benke ^a , Árpád Farkas ^b , Imre Balásházy ^b , Piroska Szabó-Révész ^a , Rita Ambrus ^a *
^a Institute of Pharmaceutical Technology and Regulatory Affairs, University of Szeged,
Szeged, Hungary
^b Centre for Energy Research, Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Budapest, Hungary
*Corresponding author:
Dr. Habil. Rita Ambrus PhD
e-mail: arita@pharm.u-szeged.hu
Tel: +36-62-545-572

View metadata, citation and similar papers at core.ac.uk

brought to you by CORE provided by SZTE Publicatio Repositorium - SZTE - Repository of Publications

Abstract

Objective: The aim was to study the stability of dry powder inhaler (DPI) formulations
containing antibiotic with different preparation ways -carrier-based, carrier-free, and novel
combined formulation - and thereby to compare their physicochemical and *in vitro-in silico*aerodynamical properties before and after storage.

Significance: Presenting a novel combined technology in the field of DPI formulation
including the carrier-based and carrier-free methods, it is the most important reason to
introduce this stable formulation for the further development of DPIs.

9 Methods: The structure, the residual solvent content, the interparticle interactions, the particle
10 size distribution and the morphology of the samples were studied. The aerodynamic values
11 were determined based on the Cascade Impactor *in vitro* lung model. We tested the *in silico*12 behaviour of the novel combined formulated samples before and during storage.

Results: The physical measurements showed that the novel combined formulated sample was the most favourable. It was found that thanks to the formulation technique and the use of magnesium stearate have a beneficial effect on the stability compare with the carrier-based formulation without magnesium stearate and carrier-free formulations. The results of *in vitro* and *in silico* lung models were consistent with the physical results, so the highest deposition was found for the novel combined formulated sample during the storage.

19 Conclusion: It can be established that after the storage a novel combined formulated DPI 20 contained amorphous drug to have around 2.5 µm mass median aerodynamic diameter and 21 nearly 50 % fine particle fraction predicted high lung deposition *in silico* also.

Keywords: novel combined formulation, pulmonary drug delivery, ciprofloxacin
hydrochloride, sodium stearate, magnesium stearate, *in silico* assessment, interparticle
interactions

1. Introduction

Cystic fibrosis (CF) is an autosomal recessive hereditary disease, caused by mutations in the 2 gene that encodes the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator (CFTR) protein 3 [1,2]. Due to the mutation, ion transports are modified through the membrane of airway 4 epithelial cells. As a result, the pH of the airway surface liquid is lowered, the mucus is 5 concentrated, mucociliary clearance efficiency is decreased, and the inflammation causes 6 7 mucin hypersecretion, which promotes bacterial infection [3–6]. "Polymicrobial" infection – which is defined as an individual patient at a particular point of time infected with a number 8 9 of different organisms - is characteristic of CF. The most typical bacteria are: Pseudomonas aeruginosa, Haemophilus influenzae and Burkholderia cepacia (Gram-negatives); 10 Staphylococcus aureus (Gram-positive). Haemophilus influenzae and Staphylococcus aureus 11 12 cause the early infections of CF respiratory tract, then Pseudomonas aeruginosa becomes the most significant pathogen in adulthood [7]. In CF more effective anti-infective and anti-13 inflammatory treatments are required to control ongoing inflammation, tissue destruction, and 14 exacerbations. Therefore the formulation of potent inhaled agents would offer significant 15 benefits for the prevention and treatment of pulmonary bacterial infections. The key 16 challenges of the therapy for airway inflammation, structural changes and mucociliary 17 dysfunction are opportunities for novel inhaled drug formulations [8,9]. 18

Ciprofloxacin hydrochloride is the hydrochloride salt form of ciprofloxacin. This drug is a second generation fluoroquinolone antibiotic, which is a fluorinated derivative of nalidixic acid [10,11]. Ciprofloxacin is effective against both Gram-positive and Gram-negative microorganisms. In point of its mechanism of action, the main target is the bacterial enzymes DNA gyrase (topoisomerase II) in Gram-negative bacteria and topoisomerase IV in Grampositive bacteria [12,13]. Therefore, it may be used for respiratory bacterial infections in patients with CF [14].

Drugs (e.g. antibiotics) can be delivered via the pulmonary route for the purpose of achieving 1 local and systemic effects. This type of drug delivery has many advantages. For example, it 2 should be noted that by circumventing the gastrointestinal tract, the drugs reach the C_{max} value 3 in the blood within approximately 1-3 minutes [15]. By avoiding the first-pass effect of the 4 liver and the enzymatic inactivation of the gastrointestinal system as metabolic pathways, the 5 use of lower doses of active agents is sufficient to induce the same therapeutic effect. Thus, 6 the side effects profile could be modified. In addition, pulmonary drug delivery is a non-7 invasive therapeutic procedure, which does not cause pain or tissue damage [16,17]. 8 However, at present only three inhaled antibiotics (tobramycin, aztreonam and colistimethate 9 (sodium)) are on the market [18]. The use of the dry powder inhalers (DPIs) offers 10 outstandingly many benefits: propellant-free, easy to use, portability, increased stability, less 11 need for patient coordination, etc. [19-21]. 12

The specialized literature fundamentally separates carrier-based, and carrier-free systems 13 based on the formulation of DPI systems. Both formulations have advantages and 14 disadvantages. Most of the DPIs available on the market are made with carrier-based 15 formulation, which involves applying the active ingredient particles to the surface of a large 16 carrier particle by forming an interactive physical mixture. The use of carriers is an advantage 17 in the case of active ingredients that have a strong cohesive property, the flow properties of 18 the composition are improved, applying of the small doses of the active substance could be 19 easier by dilution with carrier, and the taste of the carrier confirms successful inhalation by 20 21 the patient [22–24]. However, most of these compositions do not yet have outstanding lung deposition. These formulations have an average of 20-30 % fine particle fraction (FPF), 22 meaning that the drug reaches the deeper layers of the lungs in a low percentage [25]. In the 23 case of carrier-free DPI systems, the use of special excipients (e.g. L-leucine) and 24 25 technologies (e.g. co-spray-drying) makes the application of a large carrier avoidable.

Generally, these systems have low density and special morphology. However, they have 1 around 50-60 % FPF results due to the apparent high cohesive properties between the active 2 ingredient's particles [26,27]. Many publications deal with the development of DPI containing 3 ciprofloxacin or ciprofloxacin hydrochloride [12,28–33]. A serious challenge of our previous 4 work was using the benefits of these two formulations (applying 1:10 ratio and current 5 inhaled antibiotics are ~100 mg), the novel combined formulation (a co-spray-dried drug 6 blended with surface modified lactose) produced by us resulted in a higher FPF value than the 7 carrier-based and carrier-free DPI formulations [18]. 8

The aim of the present work was – on the basis of the aforementioned publication [18] – the 9 10 stability testing of the carrier-based formulation; carrier-free formulation and novel combined formulation DPI systems, which contain ciprofloxacin hydrochloride. Before and after the 11 storage we investigated the morphology, particle size and structure changes of prepared 12 formulations, as well as the modification of interparticle interactions, and mainly how these 13 physical changes influence the *in vitro* aerodynamic parameters. Furthermore, our aim was to 14 15 carry out computer simulations of lung deposition (from now on termed as *in silico* modeling) at the stability test times with the novel combined formulated samples and compare these 16 results with the in vitro aerodynamic results. 17

18

19

2. Materials and methods

20 2.1. Materials

Micronized ciprofloxacin hydrochloride (µCIP) (D50: 5.09 µm), was kindly provided by Teva
Pharmaceutical Works Ltd. (Debrecen, Hungary). Lactose monohydrate, Inhalac[®] 70 (IH 70)
(D50: 215.00 µm) was obtained from MEGGLE Group (Wasserburg, Germany) and used as a
carrier. Magnesium stearate (MgSt) (D50: 6.92 µm) was applied as a surface modifier

(Sigma-Aldrich, Budapest, Hungary) of the carrier [34]. Sodium stearate (NaSt) (Alfa Aesar,
 Heysham, United Kingdom) was used for a surface modifier of the co-spray dried particles
 [35]. Both of them are frequently applied moisture protective agents [36,37].

4 2.2. Methods

5 2.2.1. Preparation of the samples

For the stability test, we again produced the samples which had been examined in our 6 7 previous work [18]. We prepared carrier-based, carrier-free, and novel combined formulated DPI systems. Table 1. contains the w/w % compositions of these samples. The carrier-based 8 formulation (µCIP+IH70) – as a reference [38] – was prepared with mixing in 1:10 [39] mass 9 ratio of the drug and carrier by turbula blending (Turbula System Schatz; Willy A. Bachofen 10 AG Maschinenfabrik, Basel, Switzerland) for half an hour at 60 rpm [36]. The carrier-free 11 formulation (CIP 0.5NaSt spd) was produced from a solution with co-spray-drying of CIP 12 and NaSt. Firstly, we made a 1.5 w/v % aqueous solution using CIP and the alcoholic solution 13 containing 0.0175 w/v % NaSt at 30 °C. Then the two solutions were mixed in the 7: 3 ratio. 14 Büchi B-191 apparatus (Mini Spray Dryer, Büchi, Switzerland) was applied for the co-spray-15 drying procedure with the following parameters: inlet heating temperature, 130 °C, outlet 16 heating temperature, 78 °C, aspirator capacity, 75 %, pressured air flow, 600 L/min, feed 17 pump rate, 5 %. So the solid formulation contained 99.5 w/w % of CIP and 0.5 w/w % of 18 NaSt. The novel combined formulated sample (CIP 0.5NaSt spd+IH70 MgSt) combined the 19 20 two above-mentioned preparation methods supplemented with carrier surface treatment. The surface modification of IH 70 carrier was made by 2.0 w/w % of MgSt (according to the 21 literature background and the applied marketed concentration [40,41]) with turbula mixing 22 for 4 h [34]. Then we prepared co-spray-dried particles as described in the carrier-free section 23 and these particles were blended with a surface smoothed carrier in the 1:10 mass ratio with a 24 turbula mixer at 60 rpm for 30 min. 25

Table 1. Composition of the DPI formulations containing the applied concentration of excipients.

3 2.2.2. Investigation of the stability of samples

Stability tests were performed in Binder KBF 240 (Binder GmbH Tuttlingen, Germany) 4 equipment, with a constant-climate chamber. An electronically controlled APT.lineTM line 5 preheating chamber and refrigerating system ensured temperature accuracy and 6 7 reproducibility of the results in the temperature range between 10 and 70 °C and the RH (Relative Humidity) range between 10 and 80 %. The stability test was performed at 25 ± 2 °C 8 with 50 ± 5 % RH (room conditions). Samples were stored in hard gelatine capsules (size 3) 9 (Capsugel, Germany) in open containers; the duration of storage was 1 month. Sampling was 10 carried out after 0 and 10 days, and 1 month. 11

12 2.2.3. X-ray powder diffraction (XRPD)

13 XRPD was implemented in order to determine the crystalline form of the produced DPI 14 formulations. The powder samples were loaded in contact with a plane quartz glass sample 15 slide with an etched square, and measured with a slit detector Cu K λ_{I} radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406$ 16 Å) source. Settings were as follows: the samples were scanned at 40 kV and 40 mA and the 17 angular range was 3°-40° 20, at a step time of 0.1 s/step and a step size of 0.01°.

18 2.2.4. FT-IR analysis

An FT-IR apparatus was used before and after storage for the study of the interaction between the components and test the chemical stability of the materials. FT-IR spectra were recorded with a Bio-Rad Digilab Division FTS- 65A/896 FTIR spectrometer (Bio-Rad Digilab Division FTS-65A/869, Philadelphia, PA, United States) between 4000 and 400 cm⁻¹, at an optical resolution of 4 cm⁻¹. Thermo Scientific GRAMS/AI Suite software (Thermo Fisher Sciencific Inc., Waltham, United States) was used for the spectral analysis. The sample, with a CIP content of 0.5 mg, was mixed with 150 mg of dry KBr in an agate mortar, and the
mixture was then compressed into a disc at 10 t. Each disc was scanned 128 times at a
resolution of 2 cm⁻¹ over the wavenumber region 4000-400 cm⁻¹.

4 2.2.5. Thermogravimetry (TG)

Residual solvent content was investigated by TG-DTA with a Mettler Toledo TG 821e 5 thermal analysis system with the STAR^e thermal analysis program V9.1 (Mettler Inc., 6 Schwerzenbach, Switzerland) under a constant flow of dry nitrogen gas flow of 100 mL min⁻¹. 7 Aluminium pans were applied for the samples and the reference. Scans were recorded at a 8 constant heating rate (10 °C min⁻¹) up to 350 °C. The TG-DTA oven was pre-equilibrated at 9 room temperature and each sample (ranging between 12 and 20 mg) was weighed as fast as 10 possible in order to minimize moisture uptake or release from the sample. The mass losses 11 were recorded, and the moisture contents [% wet basis] were evaluated from the normalized 12 scans, the actual mass is divided by the initial mass. The loss of water basically occurred 13 between 5 and 110 °C, and the higher temperature was used for the determination of bound 14 15 water.

16 2.2.6. Interparticle interactions

Contact angle (Θ) was determined by using a Dataphysics OCA 20 apparatus (Dataphysics 17 Inc. GmbH, Germany), from which we could count some of the correlations (see below). The 18 pastilles were pressed from 0.10 g of the samples with 1 ton compression force (Perkin Elmer 19 hydraulic press, Waltham, USA). Six pastilles were made of each sample. Of this, three were 20 dripped with distilled water (as a polar liquid) and the other three pastilles were dripped with 21 22 diiodomethane (as dispersion liquid). Thus, we obtained the contact angle of the two different fluids by three parallel tests per sample. At the same time as the dropping, we made a 23 recording by using the device in 1-25 seconds time interval, so it was possible to detect and 24

determine the change of the contact angle. The surface free energy (γ_s) of the samples was calculated based on the Wu-equation. This energy consists of two parts: a disperse part (γ_s^d) and a polar part (γ_s^p) , thereby $(\gamma_s = \gamma_s^d + \gamma_s^p)$. The surface tension of the liquids is known in literature $(\gamma_l = \gamma_l^d + \gamma_l^p)$: distilled water $\gamma^p = 50.2 \text{ mN/m}$, $\gamma^d = 22.6 \text{ mN/m}$ and diiodomethane $\gamma^p = 1.8 \text{ mN/m}$, $\gamma^d = 49 \text{ mN/m}$ [42]. In the Wu-equation, therefore, there are only two unknowns: the disperse (γ_s^d) and the polar component (γ_s^p) of the solids tested, which can already be expressed.

8 The Wu-equation is the following [43]:

9
$$(1 + \cos \Theta)\gamma_1 = \frac{4(\gamma_s^d \gamma_1^d)}{\gamma_s^d + \gamma_1^d} + \frac{4(\gamma_s^p \gamma_1^p)}{\gamma_s^p + \gamma_1^p}$$

10 where Θ = contact angle; γ = surface free energy; s = solid phase; l = liquid phase; d = 11 dispersion component; p = polar component

12 Cohesion work (W_c) corresponds to twice the surface free energy [44]:

13
$$W_c = 2*\gamma_s$$

The adhesion work (W_{adh}) that can be interpreted between the two different materials (represented by numbers 1 and 2) can be determined from the dispersion (γ_s^d) and polar component (γ_s^p) values calculated for the material in the present formula γ^d and γ^p , and it equals [44]:

$$W_{adh} = 4 \left[\frac{\gamma_1^d \gamma_2^d}{\gamma_1^d + \gamma_2^d} + \frac{\gamma_1^p \gamma_2^p}{\gamma_1^p + \gamma_2^p} \right]$$

18

Several models are known for the determination of adhesion force (F_{adh}). In our present work
we used Derjaguin's approach, which is commonly used in pharmaceutical technology [43]:

$$F_{adh} = 2\pi \left(\frac{R_A R_B}{R_A + R_B}\right) W_{adh}$$

1

where R_A and R_B are the radius of the A and B particles, between which adhesive interactions
were measured. R was defined as half of D [0.5], which was determined in the particle size
analysis of the used raw materials.

The spreading coefficient (S_{12}) shows the spreadability of one material (1) on the surface of the other material (2). Conversely, it can be calculated. It is used in two-component systems to characterize distribution. This coefficient is a dimensionless number. Spreading is favorable if the result is a positive value, and the higher the number. In this case, the spreading of the drug particles can be characterized on the surface of the carrier. The coefficient or reverse case can be calculated using the following equations [43,44]:

11
$$S_{12} = 4 \left[\frac{\gamma_1^d \gamma_2^d}{\gamma_1^d + \gamma_2^d} + \frac{\gamma_1^p \gamma_2^p}{\gamma_1^p + \gamma_2^p} - \frac{\gamma_1}{2} \right]$$

$$S_{21} = 4 \left[\frac{\gamma_1^{d} \gamma_2^{d}}{\gamma_1^{d} + \gamma_2^{d}} + \frac{\gamma_1^{p} \gamma_2^{p}}{\gamma_1^{p} + \gamma_2^{p}} - \frac{\gamma_2}{2} \right]$$

12

13 where γ^{d} is the disperse part of surface free energy and γ^{p} is the polar part of surface free 14 energy and γ is the total surface free energy of the components whose is spread on the other 15 component.

16 2.2.7. Particle size analysis

The particle size distribution of the used active ingredients, excipients, and the formulations before and after storage from the dry dispersion unit were also measured by laser light scattering (Malvern Mastersizer Scirocco 2000, Malvern Instruments Ltd., Worcestershire, UK). Approximately 0.5 g of composition was loaded into a feeder tray. In the dry analysis method, the air was used as the dispersion agent for the sample particles. The dispersion air
pressure was adjusted to 2.0 bars in order to determine whether particle attrition had occurred.
At least three repeated measurements were made on each sample, and the mean value was
calculated. Particle size distribution was characterized by the D[0.1], D[0.5], and D[0.9]
values.

6 2.2.8. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

The morphology of the samples was investigated by scanning electron microscopy – SEM – (Hitachi S4700, Hitachi Scientific Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). The samples were coated with an electrically conductive coating (Bio-Rad SC 502, VG Microtech, Uckfield, UK). The air pressure was 1.3-13.0 MPa. In brief, the samples were sputter coated with gold–palladium (90 seconds) under an argon atmosphere applying a gold sputter module in a high vacuum evaporator and the samples were studied using SEM set at 10-15 kV.

13 2.2.9. Aerodynamic assessment with the Andersen Cascade Impactor Model

The *in vitro* aerodynamic properties of the formulations were tested with the Andersen 14 Cascade Impactor (ACI) (Copley Scientific Ltd., Nottingham, UK), which is a most 15 commonly used to characterize the aerosolization performance of the inhaled DPIs. This 16 corresponds to the United States Pharmacopeia and Ph. Eur. 2.9.18 requirements [26,45]. The 17 vacuum pump (High-capacity Pump Model HCP5, Critical Flow Controller Model TPK, 18 Copley Scientific Ltd., Nottingham, UK) provided 28.3 L/min flow rate and a corresponding 19 ACI assembly was applied to that flow. The actual flow rate through the impactor was 20 detected with the mass flow meter (Flow Meter Model DFM 2000, Copley Scientific Ltd., 21 Nottingham, UK). Before each test, to prevent particle bounce the ACI collection plates were 22 coated with a surfactant (Span 80 + cyclohexane solution; 1 + 99 w/w %), so repeated 23 inhalation into the cascade impactor was possible. In our experiments, the samples were 24

measured in a hard gelatin capsule (transparent, size 3, Capsugel, Germany). The drug content 1 of the formulations was detected with an UV/Vis spectrophotometer (ATI-UNICAM UV/VIS 2 Spectrophotometer, Cambridge, UK). The amounts charged into the capsules were determined 3 so that the CIP content per sample was 10 mg [12]. This mass corresponds to the tenth of the 4 CIP oral dose [27]. During our testing, Breezhaler[®] (Novartis) inhaler was used. The filled 5 capsule was placed in this inhaler and then with the help of the needles of the appliance the 6 capsule was punched with a definite movement. Because of the big amount of carrier lactose, 7 in the cases of carrier-based and novel formulations, to apply the same amount of CIP (10 8 mg), we used 2 capsules per one dose application. The DPI device, the mouthpiece, the 9 induction port, the eight plates of the impactor, and the filter were washed with distilled water 10 and the CIP concentration was quantified with an UV/Vis spectrophotometer (ATI-UNICAM 11 UV/VIS Spectrophotometer, Cambridge, UK) at 276 nm. Knowing the amount of the active 12 13 ingredient in the device and in the parts of the impactor, the emitted fraction (EF), fine particle fraction (FPF) and mass median aerodynamic diameter (MMAD) were determined. 14 15 FPF expresses the fraction of particles having an aerodynamic diameter less than 5 micron, 16 these particles are likely to be deposited in the lungs. However, more and more publications express the percentage of particles below 3 microns as they are most likely to reach the deep 17 lung [46,47]. MMAD is defined as the diameter of the particles deposited in the impactor for 18 19 which 50% w/w of particles have a lower diameter and 50% w/w have a higher diameter [48]. EF was expressed as the percentage of the drug found in the ACI (except the drug found in 20 the capsules and device). Only the drug concentration was determined by analytical method. 21 22 Therefore we can use this data by the calculation of emitted fraction.

23 *2.2.10. In silico characterization*

For the estimation of the amount of drug depositing in different anatomical regions of the airways (upper airways, lungs), the most up-to-date version of the Stochastic Lung Model

(SLM) of Koblinger and Hofmann (1990) [49] was applied. Indeed, the impactor 1 measurements can demonstrate the repeatability of formulation batches and reveal the 2 aerodynamic properties (size, size distribution) of the sample. However, these data can be 3 used as predictors of airway deposition as well, with the mentioning that impactor 4 measurements cannot provide exact airway deposition values like the scintigraphic studies. 5 However, computer models validated against scintigraphic measurements (like the one 6 presented in this study) are able to estimate the deposited amount quite exactly. Deposition in 7 the extrathoracic region was calculated based on the formulas derived by Cheng (2003) [50]. 8 Particles which were not filtered out by the upper airways were tracked in stochastic 9 tracheobronchial geometry. Airway lengths, diameters, bifurcation angles and gravity angles 10 were selected from statistical distributions based on the morphometric database of Raabe et al. 11 (1976) [51]. The architecture of the acinar airways relied on the data published by Haefeli-12 13 Bleuer and Weibel (1988) [52]. Inertial impaction and gravitational settling were considered as deposition mechanisms in both the bronchial and acinar parts of the airways. Particle size 14 15 distributions determined by Andersen Cascade impactor as part of this work were used as 16 inputs for the deposition simulations. In addition, the breathing parameters of a patient when inhaling through Breezhaler[®] were used as modeling inputs (inhaled air volume: 1.7 L, 17 inhalation time: 3.2 s, breath-hold time after the inhalation: 5 s and 10 s, exhalation time: 3 s). 18 The breathing parameters were adopted from the work of Colthorpe et al. (2015) and 19 corresponded to a female patient with moderate COPD. The exact deposition values naturally 20 depend on the disease type and degree of severity, however, the main conclusions of the 21 present work would not be affected. The simulated high lung deposition values associated 22 with the formulation would even increase for patients with less impaired lung function. These 23 data correspond to the breathing parameter values measured by Colthorpe et al. (2013) [53]. 24

This patient was selected because his/her inhalation parameter values yield an average flow
 rate value very close to 30 L/min, which was applied in the present impactor measurements.

3 2.2.11. Statistical analyses

The statistical analyses were performed with the Social Science Statistics Online web page 2019. For the stability assessment using t-test calculation at 0.05 significance level and onetailed hypothesis (Social Science Statistics Online). All reported data are means \pm S.D of three parallel measurements (n=3).

- 8
- 9

3. **Results and discussion**

10 3.1. Structural characterization

11 Figure 1. Structural investigation of the formulations by XRPD before and after storage

XRPD makes it possible to track the structural changes of the DPI samples during storage, 12 which can be analyzed if the XRPD patterns of CIP and of the used excipients are known. 13 14 Specifically, the characteristic of the solid state form of the active ingredient particles could be very important, since the crystalline form or amorphous form could present results in 15 morphological differences and influences the interparticle interactions, thus affecting the 16 17 aerodynamic results. According to the XRPD diffractograms (Figure 1.A), we can determine the characteristic peaks of the starting materials. These are the following: 12.8, 16.8 and 20.0 18 2Theta degree of IH 70; 8.23, 9.25, 19.22, 26.39 and 29.16 2Theta degree of CIP; 3.8, 5.5 19 2Theta degree of MgSt and 4.0, 6.0 2Theta degree of NaSt. All of these materials are 20 crystalline. We can conclude that the surface modification of IH 70 with 2 w/w% MgSt did 21 not cause any change in the XRPD pattern, thus not causing any structural change either. 22

In the case of samples (Figure 1.B) it can be concluded that CIP could be found mainly in 1 amorphous form in the CIP 0.5NaSt spd, however the characteristic peaks of NaSt and CIP 2 (with small intensity) could be found on the curve before storage, but after 1 month complete 3 recrystallization is seen and the CIP XRPD pattern in the above figure is almost identical. 4 However, based on the peaks at 8.23, 9.25 and 26.39 2Theta degree, we can make statements 5 about carrier-based formulations as well. Thus for µCIP+IH70 it can be established that the 6 initial crystalline nature of the active ingredient particles remains, and there is no change. In 7 the case of freshly prepared CIP 0.5NaSt spd+IH70 MgSt, the active ingredient particles 8 were mainly amorphous similarly to CIP 0.5NaSt spd, but after 1 month a substantial 9 amount of crystal structure change is not apparent on the XRPD pattern, which indicates that 10 CIP 0.5NaSt spd+IH70 MgSt has greater structural stability relative to the latter 11 composition. Therefore the crystalline peaks correspond to IH 70. 12

According to the FT-IR analyses, the FT-IR spectra of the raw components and the prepared samples before and after storage compared with each other (Figures are not presented in the article). We concluded that no chemical decomposition was presumable.

16 3.2. Thermogravimetry (TG)

17 Table 2. Residual solvent content in samples.

The determination of thermogravimetric residual solvent content for DPIs is of key importance in tracking the stability of samples. By increased residual solvent content decreased stability is presumable. An increase in this value may indicate a decrease in stability. Moisture sorption can cause the agglomeration of the particles; can modify interparticle interactions and influence drug dispersion; de-agglomeration, which affects the lung deposition results [54]. The percentages resulting from residual solvent content (Table 2.) from our measurements are realistic for DPIs [55]. We have found that the residual solvent

content has increased after 1 month for the μ Cip +IH70 and CIP 0.5NaSt spd formulations. 1 For example, it provides an explanation for the recrystallization of the latter composition. In 2 the case of the novel combined formulated DPI (CIP 0.5NaSt spd+IH70 MgSt) residual 3 solvent content did not change, and it decreased slightly. The present of MgSt caused the 4 moisture resistance of the composition and this phenomenon already described in the 5 international literature [36] has been confirmed by us. It has also been found that the moisture 6 resistance of the DPI composition is improved by the use of MgSt as an excipient. The largest 7 residual solvent content change was observed for the CIP 0.5NaSt spd formulation, in 8 contrast, there was no significant change in the novel combined formulated DPI 9 (CIP 0.5NaSt spd+IH70 MgSt), which also contains CIP 0.5NaSt spd. 10

11 3.3. Interparticle interactions

12 Table 3. Cohesion, adhesion values and spreading coefficient of the formulations.

Interparticle interactions have already been studied in our previous work [18]. Cohesive work 13 (W_c) in the carrier-free formulations (between the drug particles), furthermore, adhesive work 14 (W_{adh}) and force (F_{adh}) in the carrier-based formulations (between drug and carrier particles) 15 are correlated with the in vitro lung deposition results. The studies were performed after a 16 period of 1 month storage, as shown in Table 3., the Fadh of µCIP+IH70 did not change, this 17 means that the active ingredient particles continue to adhere strongly to the carrier, so a low 18 FPF value is expected after 1 month, too. In the case of CIP 0.5NaSt spd, W_c increased 19 20 substantially, approaching the value of fully crystalline µCIP, resulting from recrystallization and residual solvent content growth that contribute to interparticle interaction change. As 21 cohesion between the active ingredient particles is increased, they can aggregate more easily. 22 For the novel combined formulated DPI (CIP_0.5NaSt_spd+IH70_MgSt), Fadh did not 23 increase greatly, still not reaching the value of adhesion of μ CIP+IH70, and the spreading 24

coefficient (S₂₁) remained in the negative range left. The latter suggests that a vectored drug
position can still be assumed on the surface of the carrier, it is not completely covered with it.
All this - encountered with CIP_0.5NaSt_spd+IH70_MgSt - can be explained by the structure
testing and the residual solvent content experience. Thus, it is expected that the FPF value will
be outstanding in the *in vitro* lung deposition assay after 1 month.

6 3.4. Particle size analysis and scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

7 Table 4. Morphology and particle size distribution of the formulations during the 8 storage.

9 The study of particle size distribution and the morphology of the DPI samples also has great importance during storage. According to existing literature, it can be said that the range of 1-5 10 microns is the optimal drug particle size for appropriate lung deposition. Particles greater than 11 12 5 microns are deposited in the throat and trachea with great probability and most of the submicron particles are exhaled [56]. Furthermore, in terms of morphology, it can be stated 13 that spherical particles produced by spray-drying have a low contact area; homogeneous 14 particle size distribution and these result in a higher FPF than in the case of mechanically 15 micronized drugs [57]. Table 4 shows the results of SEM and laser light scattering. We can 16 17 conclude that the (average) diameters measured by Malvern and SEM are in correlation. We focused on the active ingredient particles on SEM. The average particle size of the drug 18 particles remained in the range of 1-5 microns nevertheless, it increased for all formulations 19 during the stability test, which can somewhat reduce the lung deposition results. In the case of 20 the µCIP+IH70 formulation, no aggregation or morphological changes can be observed after 21 1 month. After 1 month, the CIP 0.5NaSt spd formulation shows the recrystallization and 22 aggregation of the particles, which is also indicated by XRPD; residual solvent content; 23 cohesion results and the significantly increased D [0.9] value. In contrast, there is no 24

significant morphological change which would refer to recrystallization; and there is no 1 aggregation even in SEM images in terms of the CIP 0.5NaSt spd+IH70 MgSt formulation 2 containing the spray-dried drug particles - of the same method as the sample mentioned 3 above - on the surface modified carrier. We collected the D [0.5] values of the drug and the 4 carrier by the carrier-based formulations using the bimodal distribution curves (see table 5 below). However, D [0.1] and D [0.9] could be determined only for the formulations. We 6 concluded that the size of CIP in µCIP+IH70 sample changed from 4.92 µm to 5.34 µm and 7 the size of IH70 changed from 180.03 µm to 186.66 µm. Furthermore, the size of CIP 8 0.5NaSt spd in CIP 0.5NaSt spd+IH70 MgSt sample changed from 2.27 µm to 2.57 µm 9 and the size of IH70 MgSt changed from 171.12 µm to 179.45 µm. If we compare the change 10 in [0.5] size CIP 0.5NaSt spd and 11 D of of CIP 0.5NaSt spd in CIP 0.5NaSt spd+IH70 MgSt we can see that in the combined formulation the size changing 12 13 was smaller than by the carrier-free sample. Therefore, in the case of the novel combined formulated formulations, high FPF values are still expected in terms of in vitro lung 14 15 deposition.

16 3.5. Aerodynamic assessment with the Andersen Cascade Impactor Model

17 Table 5. FPF value of microparticles before and after storage.

18 Table 6. EF and MMAD values of microparticles before and after storage.

In vitro lung modeling with the Andersen Cascade Impactor results in FPF, MMAD and EF (Table 5., 6.) that have been defined in the Method section. The quantities of the samples were chosen after drug content determination, where the measured drug content was between 82 and 93% compared to the theoretical drug content. We concluded that these values didn't change after the storage also. The lung deposition values (FPF) were based on the results of physical examinations (XRPD, residual solvent content, interparticle interactions, morphology

and particle size). Thus, after 1 month of storage, the novel combined formulated DPI 1 (CIP 0.5NaSt spd+IH70 MgSt) had the best FPF results, outstandingly high FPF <3 µm, 2 which indicates a high deep-lung deposition (approximately three times the FPF $<3 \mu m$ value 3 of µCIP+IH70 and double of CIP 0.5NaSt spd). This is due to the fact that there is no 4 significant change in the structure and residual solvent content of this composition (in fact, the 5 latter changed favorably), thus the adhesion values did not increase substantially and its 6 morphology did not change the active ingredient particles. All this leads to a reduction in the 7 lung deposition result compared to the freshly made formulation. In contrast, 8 CIP 0.5NaSt spd (it should be noted again that there is such an active ingredient particle in 9 the novel combined formulated formulation, and also that these particles passed down into the 10 both formulations, scattered carrier 11 lung in but from the at the CIP 0.5NaSt spd+IH70 MgSt) recrystallized, the residual solvent content increased and 12 13 these led to an increase in cohesion work, its morphology became disadvantageous and aggregated. Thus, FPF $<3 \mu m$ and FPF $<5 \mu m$ values almost fell by half after 1 month of 14 15 storage. For μ CIP + IH70 (reference sample), it has been found that the FPF <5 μ m value 16 remained about 20%, which is typical for most of the marketed formulations [26]. The decrease in FPF, which is characteristic of all formulations, can be correlated with the 17 established average particle size increase of CIP 0.5NaSt spd in the formulation. Concerning 18 MMAD, we found that the MMAD value is inversely proportional to the FPF values and only 19 CIP 0.5NaSt spd+IH70 MgSt indicates that the particle size measured with laser light 20 scattering and the MMAD calculated with in vitro pulmonary modeling are also around the 21 ideal 1-5 micron range. The EF for the formulations containing the carrier (μ CIP + IH70 and 22 CIP 0.5NaSt spd+IH70 MgSt) was very high and was not considerably altered during 23 storage, however, this value of the carrier-free formulation (CIP 0.5NaSt spd) increased, 24

presumably due to structural change (hence the morphology change), so the interparticle
 interactions between the capsule wall and the particles were modified favourably.

3 3.6. In silico assessment of particle deposition

Figure 2. *In silico* lung modeling results of the novel combined formulated DPI, SD < ± 3% (ET: extrathoracic airways, LUNG: bronchial and acinar parts, EXH: exhalation fraction).

7 The *in vitro* lung modeling we used is entirely suitable for comparing the aerodynamic properties of the DPI formulations. At the same time, the results from the measurements with 8 9 Andersen Cascade Impactor are well complemented with the in silico lung modeling, which takes into account parameters other than the above-mentioned results. As the in vitro 10 investigations revealed, the novel formulation is characterized by very high and nearly 11 12 emitted fraction value which remained nearly constant over time (Table 5). The fine particle fractions remained also high after storage (Table 6). The MMAD values remained in the 13 favourable aerodynamic range regarding deposition (especially the MMAD value after 10 14 days of storage). All these characteristics predicted high lung deposition values not only of the 15 fresh sample, but also after storage. All these predictions were confirmed by the in silico 16 results depicted in Figure 2. In addition, the validated numerical models simulate the in vivo 17 conditions using real-spirometric data, so they give a more realistic picture of the behavior 18 patterns during inhalation as they take real clinical data into consideration. We can type in 19 20 individualized data based on age; sex; type and severity of lung disease. It should be noted, however, that in the above-mentioned two pulmonary models, the expressed lung deposition 21 values have different interpretations (this is the explanation for the different percentages of 22 23 FPF values by *in vitro* and LUNG values by *in silico*), but it is absolutely possible to compare the tendencies of the formulations and the two methods support each other. The in silico 24 measurements were carried out in Section 2.2.9. In our previous work, the in vitro and in 25

silico results of fresh samples (µCIP + IH70; CIP 0.5NaSt spd; CIP 0.5NaSt spd + 1 IH70 MgSt) showed the same tendency [18]. The in silico results of the formulation with the 2 best in-vitro pulmonary deposition values (CIP 0.5NaSt spd + IH70 MgSt) after 10 days and 3 1 month of storage is shown in Figure 2 with 5 s and 10 s as breath-hold time. The figure 4 reveals that, as predicted by the *in vitro* characterization, this formulation yielded high 5 simulated lung deposition fraction values. At the same time, the extrathoracic dose fraction 6 remained below 30% after storage (even decreased by storage). This is a significant 7 improvement compared to the other two formulations. The freshly produced CIP 0 8 .5NaSt spd (carrier-free) had approximately 40 %, upper airway deposition, while µCIP + 9 IH70 (carrier-based) yielded a 50 % value [18]. The exhaled dose fraction was approximately 10 20% and decreased by the increase of breath-hold time, while the extrathoracic dose fraction 11 proved to be insensitive to the length of breath-hold. Lung deposition was higher for longer 12 13 breath-hold indicating that the optimization of the inhalation technique can contribute to further improving the pulmonary deposition of the novel combined formulated DPI and to 14 15 reducing the exhaled amount.

16 Conclusion

17 Stability tests were carried out on carrier-based, carrier-free, and novel combined formulated DPI sample (CIP 0.5NaSt spd + IH70 MgSt), containing antibiotic. After the storage, the 18 19 novel combined formulation presented advantageous aerodynamic results thanks to the 20 technological steps and the compositions. This sample has the most beneficial MMAD (2,5 μm) and best FPF (<5 μm; 50 %) results after 1 month, followed by the carrier-free, and the 21 worst results are shown by the carrier-based formulations (as concluded by, for example, high 22 residual solvent content, high W_{adh} and aerodynamically unfavourable morphology). From the 23 results of the physicochemical examinations, we can conclude that in the case of the novel 24 combined formulated sample (CIP 0.5NaSt spd + IH70 MgSt), an appreciable amount of 25

crystal structure change is not apparent on the XRPD pattern, the residual solvent content was 1 slight due to the MgSt and NaSt content. As regards interparticle interactions, it can be stated 2 that the adhesion force of μ CIP + IH70 has remained high during the stability test, while in 3 the case of CIP 0.5NaSt spd, cohesion work has increased considerably, indicating that this 4 formulation is easier to aggregate, which is also supported by electron microscopic images, 5 and the recrystallization on the images could be seen. Based on these results, 6 CIP 0.5NaSt spd + IH70 MgSt introduced suitable stability, therefore required 7 physicochemical properties compare with the carrier-free formulation (where the preparation 8 of the contained drug particles was the same). However, after 1 month of storage, by the EF 9 values, a good percentage of all the three formulations was observed. The novel combined 10 formulated sample with the best *in vitro* lung deposition results was chosen for *in silico* lung 11 modeling, and it was in correlation with the *in vitro* aerodynamic results. It should be 12 13 emphasized that this sample had an extrathoracic dose fraction value below 30 % even after one month, while the freshly produced samples from the other two samples also had worse 14 15 results. Finally, it can be stated that a novel combined formulated DPI formulation with 16 favourable physicochemical characters after 1 month storage, resulted improved in vitro-in silico aerodynamic properties which could be the reason to get stable formulation for the 17 further development of DPIs. 18

19 Declaration of interest

20 The authors report no conflicts of interest in this work.

21 Acknowledgment

This project was supported by the UNKP-18-3 New National Excellence Program of the
Ministry of Human Capacities and by EFOP-3.6.2-16-2017-00006 "LIVE LONGER -

- 1 Development of Modern Medical Diagnostic Procedures and Therapies in a Translational
- 2 Approach: from a laboratory to a patient bed" project.

3

1 References

[1]

2

3

https://www.medicalnewstoday.com/articles/147960.php. 4 Accurso FJ. 89 - Cystic Fibrosis. In: Goldman L, Schafer AI, editors. Goldmans Cecil 5 [2] 6 Med. Twenty Fourth Ed. [Internet]. Philadelphia: W.B. Saunders; 2012 [cited 2018 Jul 7 2]. p. 544–548. Available from: http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/B9781437716047000890. 8 Montgomery ST, Mall MA, Kicic A, et al. Hypoxia and sterile inflammation in cystic 9 [3] 10 fibrosis airways: mechanisms and potential therapies. Eur. Respir. J. 2017;49:1600903. [4] Shamsuddin AKM, Quinton PM. Native small airways secrete bicarbonate. Am. J. 11 Respir. Cell Mol. Biol. 2014;50:796-804. 12 Vallières E, Elborn JS. Cystic fibrosis gene mutations: evaluation and assessment of [5] 13 disease severity [Internet]. Adv. Genomics Genet. 2014 [cited 2018 Jul 2]. Available 14 from: https://www.dovepress.com/cystic-fibrosis-gene-mutations-evaluation-and-15 16 assessment-of-disease-se-peer-reviewed-fulltext-article-AGG. FAARC MM RRT. PulmoSalTM 7% (pH+) Bio-BalancedTM Hypertonic Saline [6] 17 [Internet]. [cited 2018 Jul 2]. Available from: https://westmedinc.com/pulmosal/. 18 19 [7] Goss CH, Burns JL. Exacerbations in cystic fibrosis · 1: Epidemiology and pathogenesis. Thorax. 2007;62:360-367. 20 Rogers DF. Mucociliary dysfunction in COPD: effect of current pharmacotherapeutic [8] 21 options. Pulm. Pharmacol. Ther. 2005;18:1-8. 22 23 [9] Strong P, Ito K, Murray J, et al. Current approaches to the discovery of novel inhaled medicines. Drug Discov. Today. 2018;23:1705-1717. 24 Donald PR, McIlleron H. Chapter 59 - Antituberculosis drugs. In: Schaaf HS, Zumla 25 [10] AI, Grange JM, et al., editors. Tuberculosis [Internet]. Edinburgh: W.B. Saunders; 2009 26 [cited 2018 Jul 5]. p. 608–617. Available from: 27 http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/B9781416039884000597. 28 Stockmann C, Sherwin CMT, Zobell JT, et al. Optimization of anti-pseudomonal 29 [11] antibiotics for cystic fibrosis pulmonary exacerbations: III. fluoroquinolones. Pediatr. 30 Pulmonol. 2012;48:211-220. 31 Karimi K, Pallagi E, Szabó-Révész P, et al. Development of a microparticle-based dry 32 [12] powder inhalation formulation of ciprofloxacin hydrochloride applying the quality by 33 design approach. Drug Des. Devel. Ther. 2016;10:3331–3343. 34 Denis O, Rodriguez-Villalobos H, Struelens MJ. Chapter 3 - The problem of resistance. 35 [13] In: Finch RG, Greenwood D, Norrby SR, et al., editors. Antibiot. Chemother. Ninth Ed. 36 [Internet]. London: Saunders; 2010 [cited 2018 Jul 5]. p. 24–48. Available from: 37

Cystic fibrosis: Symptoms, causes, and management [Internet]. Med. News Today.

2018 [cited 2018 Jul 2]. Available from:

38 http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/B9780702040641000038.

1 2	[14]	Bosso JA. Use of ciprofloxacin in cystic fibrosis patients. Am. J. Med. 1989;87:S123–S127.
3 4 5 6	[15]	W. S. Yapa S, Li J, Patel K, et al. Pulmonary and Systemic Pharmacokinetics of Inhaled and Intravenous Colistin Methanesulfonate in Cystic Fibrosis Patients: Targeting Advantage of Inhalational Administration. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 2014;58:2570–2579.
7 8	[16]	Pomázi A, Szabó-Révész P, Ambrus R. Pulmonal administration, aspects of DPI formulation. Gyógyszerészet. 2009;53:397–404.
9 10 11	[17]	Pomázi A, Chvatal A, Ambrus R, et al. Potential formulation methods and pharmaceutical investigations of Dry Powder Inhalers. Gyógyszerészet. 2014;58:131–139.
12 13 14	[18]	Ambrus R, Benke E, Farkas Á, et al. Novel dry powder inhaler formulation containing antibiotic using combined technology to improve aerodynamic properties. Eur. J. Pharm. Sci. 2018;123:20–27.
15 16	[19]	Muralidharan P, Hayes D, Mansour HM. Dry powder inhalers in COPD, lung inflammation and pulmonary infections. Expert Opin. Drug Deliv. 2015;12:947–962.
17 18	[20]	Varshosaz J, Taymouri S, Hamishehkar H, et al. Development of dry powder inhaler containing tadalafil-loaded PLGA nanoparticles. Res. Pharm. Sci. 2017;12:222–232.
19 20	[21]	Yadav N, Lohani A. Dry Powder Inhalers: A Review. Indo Glob. J. Pharm. Sci. 2013;3:142–155.
21 22 23	[22]	Hooton JC, Jones MD, Harris H, et al. The influence of crystal habit on the prediction of dry powder inhalation formulation performance using the cohesive-adhesive force balance approach. Drug Dev. Ind. Pharm. 2008;34:974–983.
24 25 26	[23]	Patil S, Mahadik A, Nalawade P, et al. Crystal engineering of lactose using electrospray technology: carrier for pulmonary drug delivery. Drug Dev. Ind. Pharm. 2017;43:2085–2091.
27 28 29	[24]	Benke E, Szabó-Révész P, Hopp B, et al. Characterization and development opportunities of carrier-based dry powder inhaler systems. Acta Pharm. Hung. 2017;87:59–68.
30 31	[25]	Demoly P, Hagedoorn P, de Boer AH, et al. The clinical relevance of dry powder inhaler performance for drug delivery. Respir. Med. 2014;108:1195–1203.
32 33 34	[26]	Chvatal A, Farkas Á, Balásházy I, et al. Aerodynamic properties and in silico deposition of meloxicam potassium incorporated in a carrier-free DPI pulmonary system. Int. J. Pharm. 2017;520:70–78.
35 36 37	[27]	Benke E, Szabó-Révész P, Ambrus R. Development of ciprofloxacin hydrochloride containing dry powder inhalation system with an innovative technology. Acta Pharm. Hung. 2017;87:49–58.

1 2 3	[28]	Karimi K, Katona G, Csóka I, et al. Physicochemical stability and aerosolization performance of dry powder inhalation system containing ciprofloxacin hydrochloride. J. Pharm. Biomed. Anal. 2018;148:73–79.
4 5 6 7	[29]	Shetty N, Zeng L, Mangal S, et al. Effects of Moisture-Induced Crystallization on the Aerosol Performance of Spray Dried Amorphous Ciprofloxacin Powder Formulations. Pharm. Res. [Internet]. 2018 [cited 2018 Apr 12];35. Available from: http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s11095-017-2281-5.
8 9 10	[30]	Akdag Cayli Y, Sahin S, Buttini F, et al. Dry powders for the inhalation of ciprofloxacin or levofloxacin combined with a mucolytic agent for cystic fibrosis patients. Drug Dev. Ind. Pharm. 2017;43:1378–1389.
11 12	[31]	Adi H, Young PM, Chan H-K, et al. Cospray Dried Antibiotics for Dry Powder Lung Delivery. J. Pharm. Sci. 2008;97:3356–3366.
13 14	[32]	Elborn JS. Ciprofloxacin dry powder inhaler in cystic fibrosis. BMJ Open Respir. Res. 2016;3:1–2.
15 16 17	[33]	McShane PJ, Weers JG, Tarara TE, et al. Ciprofloxacin Dry Powder for Inhalation (ciprofloxacin DPI): Technical design and features of an efficient drug–device combination. Pulm. Pharmacol. Ther. 2018;50:72–79.
18 19 20	[34]	Cocconi D, Dagli Alberi M, Busca A, et al. Use of magnesium stearate in dry powder formulations for inhalation [Internet]. 2012 [cited 2018 Apr 11]. Available from: https://patents.google.com/patent/US20120082727A1/en.
21 22 23	[35]	Parlati C, Colombo P, Buttini F, et al. Pulmonary Spray Dried Powders of Tobramycin Containing Sodium Stearate to Improve Aerosolization Efficiency. Pharm. Res. 2009;26:1084–1092.
24 25	[36]	Plastira M. The influence of Magnesium Stearate and carrier surface on the deposition performace of carrier based Dry Powder Inhaler formulations. 2008.
26 27	[37]	Zhu B, Haghi M, Nguyen A, et al. Delivery of theophylline as dry powder for inhalation. Asian J. Pharm. Sci. 2015;10:520–527.
28 29 30 31	[38]	Hamishehkar H, Rahimpour Y, Javadzadeh Y. The Role of Carrier in Dry Powder Inhaler. In: Sezer AD, editor. Recent Adv. Nov. Drug Carr. Syst. [Internet]. InTech; 2012 [cited 2019 Mar 21]. Available from: http://www.intechopen.com/books/recent- advances-in-novel-drug-carrier-systems/the-role-of-carrier-in-dry-powder-inhaler.
32 33 34 35 36 37	[39]	Buttini F, Cuoghi E, Miozzi M, et al. Insulin spray-dried powder and smoothed lactose: a new formulation strategy for nasal and pulmonary delivery [Internet]. ResearchGate. 2012 [cited 2018 Apr 11]. Available from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/284045495_Insulin_spray- dried_powder_and_smoothed_lactose_a_new_formulation_strategy_for_nasal_and_pul monary_delivery.
38 39 40	[40]	Lau M, Young PM, Traini D. Co-milled API-lactose systems for inhalation therapy: impact of magnesium stearate on physico-chemical stability and aerosolization performance. Drug Dev. Ind. Pharm. 2017;43:980–988.

1 2	[41]	Hazare S, Menon M. Improvement of Inhalation Profile of DPI Formulations by Carrier Treatment with Magnesium Stearate. Indian J. Pharm. Sci. 2009;71:725–727.
3 4 5	[42]	Schuster JM, Schvezov CE, Rosenberger MR. Analysis of the Results of Surface Free Energy Measurement of Ti6Al4V by Different Methods. Procedia Mater. Sci. 2015;8:732–741.
6	[43]	Farkas B, Révész P. Kristályosítástól a tablettázásig. Universitas Szeged; 2007.
7	[44]	Tüske Z. Influence of the surface free energy on the parameters of pellets. 2005.
8 9	[45]	Brochures - Copley Scientific [Internet]. 2015 [cited 2018 Aug 23]. Available from: http://www.copleyscientific.com/downloads/brochures.
10 11 12	[46]	Benke E, Farkas Á, Balásházy I, et al. The actuality of devices for the delivery of dry powder inhalation, formulations and modern assemblies I. Gyógyszerészet/Pharmacy. 2018;62:131–139.
13 14 15	[47]	Simon A, Amaro MI, Cabral LM, et al. Development of a novel dry powder inhalation formulation for the delivery of rivastigmine hydrogen tartrate. Int. J. Pharm. 2016;501:124–138.
16 17	[48]	Parlati C. Respirable microparticles of aminoglycoside antibiotics for pulmonary administration. 2008.
18 19 20	[49]	Koblinger L, Hofmann W. Monte Carlo modeling of aerosol deposition in human lungs. Part I: Simulation of particle transport in a stochastic lung structure. J. Aerosol Sci. 1990;21:661–674.
21 22	[50]	Cheng YS. Aerosol deposition in the extrathoracic region. Aerosol Sci. Technol. 2003;37:659–671.
23 24 25	[51]	Otto G. R, Yeh H, Schum GM, et al. Tracheobronchial Geometry: Human, Dog, Rat, Hamster - A Compilation of Selected Data from the Project Respiratory Tract Deposition Models. US Gov. Print. Off. 1976;
26 27	[52]	Haefeli-Bleuer B, Weibel ER. Morphometry of the human pulmonary acinus. Anat. Rec. 1988;220:401–414.
28 29 30	[53]	Colthorpe P, Voshaar T, Kieckbusch T, et al. Delivery characteristics of a low-resistance dry-powder inhaler used to deliver the long-acting muscarinic antagonist glycopyrronium. J. Drug Assess. 2013;2:11–16.
31 32 33	[54]	Miller DP, Tan T, Nakamura J, et al. Physical Characterization of Tobramycin Inhalation Powder: II. State Diagram of an Amorphous Engineered Particle Formulation. Mol. Pharm. 2017;14:1950–1960.
34 35 36	[55]	Pomázi A, Ambrus R, Szabó-Révész P. Physicochemical stability and aerosolization performance of mannitol-based microcomposites. J. Drug Deliv. Sci. Technol. 2014;24:397–403.

- [56] Lewis D, Rouse T, Singh D, et al. Defining the 'Dose' for Dry Powder Inhalers: The
 Challenge of Correlating In-Vitro Dose Delivery Results with Clinical Efficacy
 [Internet]. 2017 [cited 2018 Jul 12]. Available from:
- 4 https://www.americanpharmaceuticalreview.com/Featured-Articles/337338-Defining-
- 5 the-Dose-for-Dry-Powder-Inhalers-The-Challenge-of-Correlating-In-Vitro-Dose-
- 6 Delivery-Results-with-Clinical-Efficacy/.
- 7 [57] Arpagaus C, Schafroth N, Meur M. Laboratory scale spray drying of lactose: A review
 8 [Internet]. 2010 [cited 2018 Jul 13]. Available from:
- 9 https://www.buchi.com/en/content/laboratory-scale-spray-drying-lactose-review.

10