

# 1 Lyophilic matrix method for dissolution and release studies of nanoscale 2 particles

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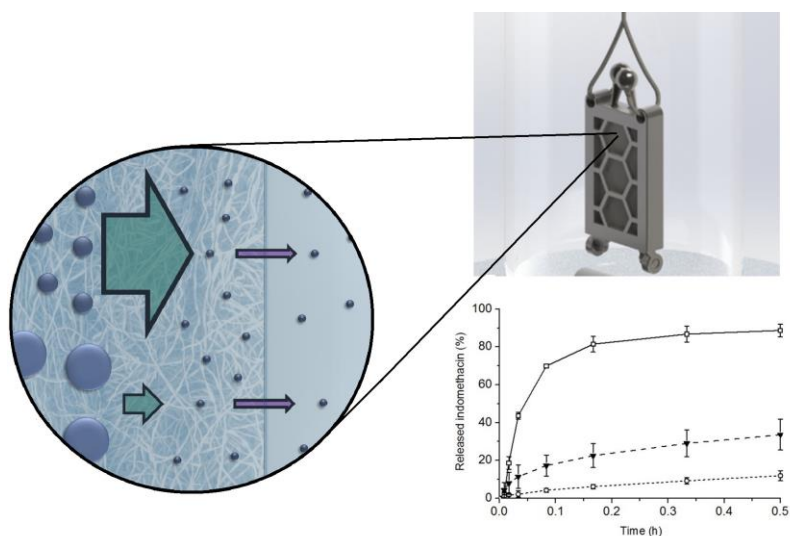
10 ‡ These two authors contributed equally.

## 11 *Highlights:*

- 12 • The lyophilic matrix (LM) method for dissolution and release studies of powders, nanoscale  
13 particles, and particulate systems is introduced.
- 14 • LM method avoids major issues encountered with current dissolution methods such as the  
15 membrane effect and dispersion of the non-dissolved particles.
- 16 • LM method permits rapid contact with the dissolution medium, enables separating the dissolved  
17 species from the non-dissolved particles, and clearly displays the different dissolution rate of different  
18 size particles.

## 19 **Abstract**

20 We introduce a system with a lyophilic matrix to aid dissolution studies of powders and particulate  
21 systems. This lyophilic matrix method (LM method) is based on the ability to discriminate between  
22 non-dissolved particles and the dissolved species. In LM method the test substance is embedded in a  
23 thin lyophilic core-shell matrix. This permits rapid contact with the dissolution medium while  
24 minimizing dispersion of non-dissolved particles without presenting a substantial membrane effect.  
25 The method produces realistic dissolution and release results for particulate systems, especially those  
26 featuring nanoscale particles. By minimizing method-induced effects on the dissolution profile of  
27 nanopowders, the LM method can overcome shortcomings associated with current dissolution test  
28 methods.

29 **Graphical abstract**

30

31 *Keywords:*

32 Dissolution; Dissolution rate; Drug release; Particulate systems; Nanoparticles; Lyophilic matrix  
 33 method

34 **1. Introduction**

35 The dissolution rate of a drug is a physico-chemical property to be determined and modified during  
 36 drug discovery and development [1, 2]. For example, reducing the particle size to the nanoscale  
 37 increases the dissolution rate and thus the bioavailability of poorly water-soluble drugs in classes II  
 38 and IV of the Biopharmaceutics Classification System [3-5]. The dissolution rate of nanoscale  
 39 particles correlate with the performance and quality of a formulation featuring nanoparticles [3].  
 40 Hence to assess the impact of nanonizing a poorly water-soluble drug, one needs reliable dissolution  
 41 rate data of nanoparticulate systems. Such data could allow one to predict realistic *in vitro* - *in vivo*  
 42 (IVIV)-correlation and facilitate determination of dose in animal experiments [6-8].

43 Current methods for investigating dissolution rates of nanoscale particles include the United States  
 44 Pharmacopoeia (USP) I (basket), II (paddle), and IV (flow-through) methods, as well as modifications  
 45 thereof, membrane diffusion methods (such as the dialysis methods), and sample and separate  
 46 methods (such as centrifugal ultrafiltration) [6, 7, 9-14]. Additionally, dissolution rates of  
 47 nanoparticles have been determined from tablets and admixtures using gel matrices [15, 16]. Often,  
 48 the measured values reflect features of the dissolution test device, equipment or method, rather than  
 49 the nanoparticle properties.

50 The main issues with the current methods include: dispersion of non-dissolved particles,  
51 hydrodynamics-induced variability, membrane effects caused by diffusion barriers (e.g. gelatin,  
52 filters, or dialysis membranes), clogging and breaking of filters, sensitivity to flow and location in the  
53 dissolution vessel, as well as migration of nanoparticles to interfaces (e.g. wetting issues, floating, or  
54 adhesion) [17-24]. The UPS methods were not designed for dissolution studies of nanoscale particles  
55 and thus produce unrealistic results [13, 17]. Dispersion and the consequent overestimation of  
56 nanoparticle dissolution rates in the USP I and II methods occur when the location of the particles is  
57 not fixed. In the USP IV method dispersion occurs when a too large filter pore size is used [6]. On  
58 the other hand, constraining diffusion of the dissolved species by membranes or encapsulation, leads  
59 to measurement of the quality of the diffusion barrier rather than the nanoparticle dissolution, and  
60 often to underestimating the dissolution rate [17, 19, 25, 26]. Using tablets or admixtures may alter  
61 the physical form of the drug during the tableting or mixing processes, and they may detach particles  
62 from the tablet surface during the dissolution process, or induces a diffusional barrier [15, 16].  
63 Accordingly, there is a need for new methods and devices for determining dissolution rates of  
64 nanoparticles.

## 65 **2. Materials and methods**

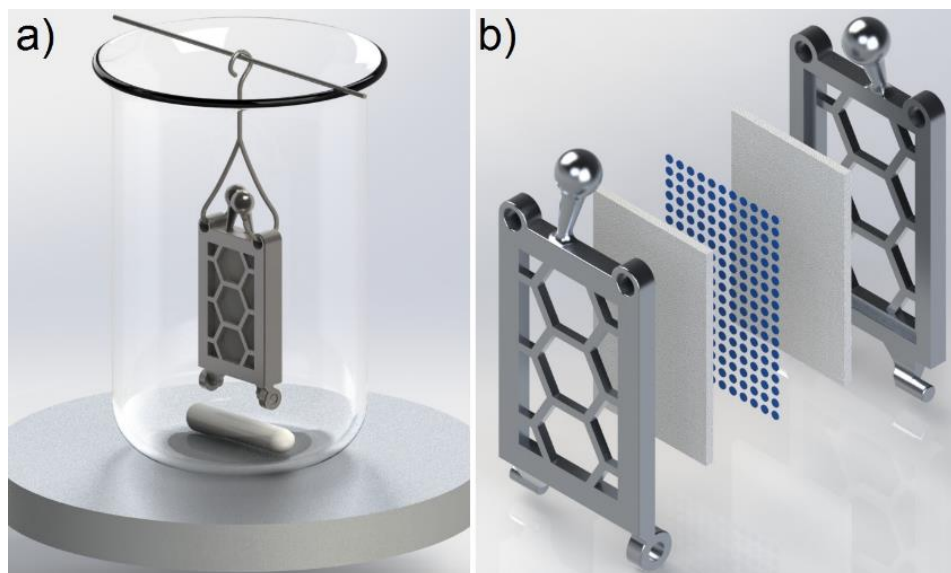
### 66 *2.1. Chemicals*

67 Indomethacin (Hawkins, USA) was used as poorly water-soluble model compound in the dissolution  
68 experiments and poloxamer 188 (BASF Co., Germany) was used as stabilizer. The chemicals used  
69 for preparing the media for the dissolution studies were monopotassium phosphate (Riedel-de Haën,  
70 Germany), sodium phosphate dibasic (Sigma-Aldrich, USA), and 5M sodium hydroxide (VWR  
71 Chemicals BDH Prolabo, EC). All chemicals employed in the experiments were of analytical grade  
72 and used as received.

### 73 *2.2. Structure of the device*

74 The device used in the dissolution experiments comprised a lyophilic matrix, a cage, a vessel, and a  
75 mixing/heating plate (**Fig. 1**). The matrix has a core-shell structure comprising a core matrix, that  
76 contained the particles of the test substance, and a surrounding shell matrix. The matrix material of  
77 both core and shell matrices is cotton (100% cotton, Curatex GmbH, Germany). The shell matrix  
78 consists of four layers of water jet-pressurized cotton with a dry specific surface weight of  $5 \pm 0.2$   
79  $\text{mg}/\text{cm}^2$ . Cotton was selected as matrix material due to its unique properties; hollow cellulose fibers,  
80 high wet strength, inert nature, and substantial ability to absorb water-based media. The custom

81 designed stainless steel cages (depth 3 mm x height 26 mm x width 16 mm) were 3D printed with  
82 selective laser sintering (Mlab Cusing, Concept Labs, Germany). The cage maintained the desired  
83 matrix geometry and provided a fixed diffusion distance.



84

85 **Fig. 1.** a) LM method test setup and b) core-shell structure within the LM device, blue dots represent  
86 the core matrix containing the particles surrounded on all sides by the shell matrix and cage.

### 87 2.3. Characterization of the matrix

#### 88 2.3.1. Matrix-medium interaction

89 The cotton matrix was examined prior to, during, and after medium exposure with light microscopy  
90 (Leica DMLB, Leica Microsystems Wetzlar, Germany) with a magnification of 200 x, and prior to,  
91 and after medium exposure with scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Quanta™ 250 FEG, FEI Inc.,  
92 USA) with a magnification of 500 x, voltage of 5.00 kV, spot size of 3.0, sputter coated with a 5-nm-  
93 thick platinum layer (Q150T Quomm, Beijing, China). The water up-take properties of the matrix  
94 were investigated with a fast camera (1200 fps, Casio Exilim High-speed EX-FI1, Casio, Japan) and  
95 by weighing the matrix prior to and after exposure to the medium.

#### 96 2.3.2. Drug-matrixn interaction

97 The partitioning of the model compound between the matrix and medium was examined by partition  
98 coefficient and inverse partitioning coefficient studies. First, the retention of the model compound  
99 within the matrix was examined. This was done by partition coefficient tests, where the matrix  
100 containing 1 mg of bulk indomethacin was immersed in the medium, and collected after 22 hours.

101 The indomethacin retained in the matrix was determined by immersing the matrix into fresh medium  
102 for 22 hours. This procedure was conducted with three parallel experiments in pH 5.5 and pH 7.4  
103 phosphate buffer media [27] at  $37.0 \pm 0.5$  °C with a stirring rate of 180 rpm (IKA RT 15 P, IKA  
104 Werke GmbH & CO. KG, Germany). The concentration of the medium was determined after first  
105 and second immersion at time point of 22 h. The concentration of the samples was analyzed with high  
106 performance liquid chromatography (HPLC Thermo System Products, Agilent 1200 Infinity Series,  
107 Agilent Technologies, Germany), using a Discovery C18 column ( $4.6 \times 150$  mm, 5  $\mu$ m, Supelco,  
108 USA), 1.5 mL/min flow rate with a mobile phase consisting of 60:40 (V/V) acetonitrile (ACN) and  
109 0.2% orthophosphoric acid ( $H_3PO_4$ ) in water (MilliQ), operating at 30 °C with detection at 270 nm.  
110 The standard curve for indomethacin quantification was acquired from triplicate samples of  
111 indomethacin concentrations between 0.08 mg/L and 500 mg/L ( $R^2 = 0.999$ ).

112 Second, the partitioning of the dissolved species into the matrix was examined. This was done by  
113 inverse partition coefficient tests, where an empty matrix was inserted into medium with saturated  
114 concentration of the model compound. Test was conducted in triplicate in phosphate buffer media  
115 with pH of 5.5 and 7.4. The empty matrices were inserted into the medium every 5 minutes and the  
116 test run was 20 minutes. The concentration of the medium was monitored online using in-situ fiber-  
117 optic UV monitoring (Opt-Diss 410, Distek, Inc., USA) using probes with a path-length of 5 mm,  
118 exposure time of 44 ms (4 scans/data point) at an analytical wavelength of 320 nm.

119

## 120 *2.4. Drug release studies*

### 121 *2.4.1. Preparation and characterization of the particles*

122 A nanosized fraction, two sieved particle size fractions, and bulk indomethacin were tested with the  
123 LM method. Nanosuspension was prepared by milling with a Fritsch Pulverisette 7 Premium ball mill  
124 (Fritsch GmbH, Germany) to obtain particles for the experiments. Nanoparticles for the LM method  
125 were prepared of 2 g indomethacin suspended in solution containing 5.0 mL 0.24 g/mL poloxamer  
126 188 solution (60 wt% relative to the drug amount) and 5.0 mL water (milliQ), and by grinding at 850  
127 rpm in 5 cycles of 3 min using 60 g milling pearls (zirconium oxide, diameter 1 mm). The particle  
128 size distribution in the nanosuspension was determined with a Zetasizer Nano SZ (Malvern  
129 Instruments Ltd., UK).

130 The bulk indomethacin was divided into two fractions using a sieve with an eye size of 125  $\mu$ m  
131 (Fritsch GmbH, Germany). The particle size of the bulk powder and the two fractions were  
132 determined from SEM images (see section 2.3.1.) ( $n = 300$ , ImageJ freeware, National Institutes of

133 Health, USA). The bulk powder and the two fractions were each mixed with poloxamer 188 (60 wt%  
134 relative to the drug amount) to achieve physical mixtures with components identical to the  
135 nanosuspension.

#### 136 2.4.2. Dissolution experiments

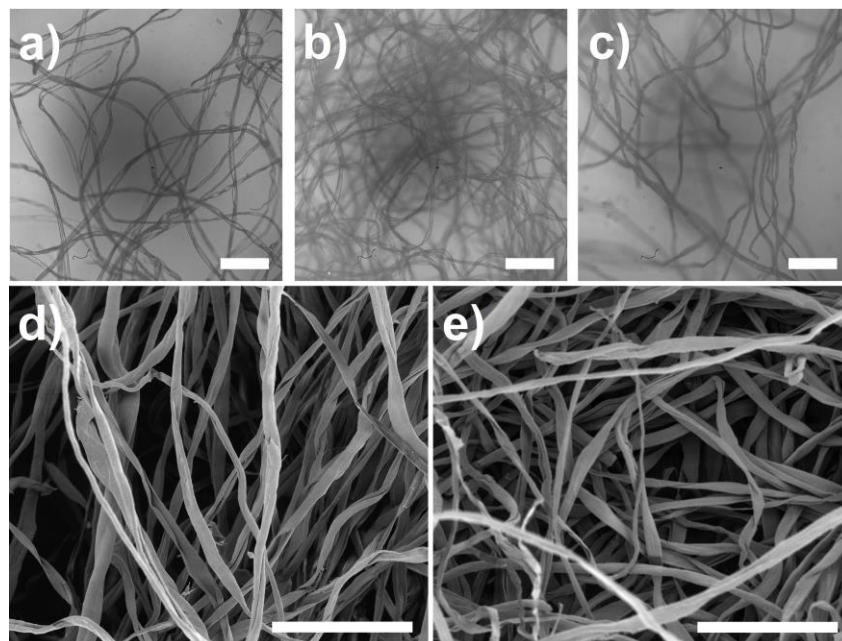
137 The test substances (corresponding to 400  $\mu\text{m}$  of indomethacin) were distributed within the core  
138 matrix, the nanosuspension was distributed wet and left to dry. The core matrix was then placed in  
139 the matrix holder. Dissolution tests were conducted in triplicate for nanoparticles, bulk powder, and  
140 the two particle size fractions in pH 5.5 phosphate buffer medium [27] and for nanoparticles and bulk  
141 powder in pH 7.4 phosphate buffer medium [27]. All tests were performed under sink conditions in  
142 100 mL of dissolution medium at  $37.0 \pm 0.5$  °C using a stirring rate of 180 rpm (IKA RT 15 P, IKA  
143 Werke GmbH & CO. KG, Germany). The stirring rate and the geometry of the matrix were optimized  
144 with preliminary experiments. Aliquots of 1 mL, subsequently replaced with the same volume of  
145 fresh medium, were taken at 12 time points: 30 s, 1 min, 2 min, 5 min, 10 min, 30 min, 1 h, 2 h, 3 h,  
146 4 h, 6 h, and 22 h. The samples were analyzed with HPLC as described in section 2.3.2. Cumulative  
147 release of indomethacin and standard deviation in three parallel samples were determined for each  
148 experiment.

### 149 3. Results and discussion

#### 150 3.1. Properties of the matrix

##### 151 3.1.1. Matrix-medium interaction

152 No visual changes were detected in the size, topology, and morphology of the cotton fibers as the  
153 matrix was exposed to dissolution medium, nor did the structure of the cotton change after drying  
154 (**Fig. 2**). When immersed into medium, the cotton matrix was wetted in  $0.31 \text{ s} \pm 0.10 \text{ s}$ . The matrix  
155 withdrew medium approximately 23 times its weight. The result of these two experiments indicate  
156 that the particles within the matrix are exposed to the medium immediately after immersion. The  
157 volume of the matrix increases when exposed to medium. However, microscope studies indicated  
158 that the single fibers do not swell when immersed into the medium.



159

160 **Fig. 2.** Light microscope images of the cotton shell matrix a) prior to dissolution medium exposure,  
161 b) exposed to medium, and c) after medium exposure. SEM images of the cotton d) prior to medium  
162 exposure, and e) after medium exposure. Scale bars correspond to 200  $\mu\text{m}$ .

### 163 3.1.2. Drug-matrix interaction

164 No retained indomethacin was found in the matrix after first 22 hours of in the partition coefficient  
165 tests. The concentrations obtained were below the detection limit (0.08 mg/L) of the HPLC method.  
166 This indicates that > 99.2 % of indomethacin is released from the matrix and the dissolved species is  
167 not significantly retained within the matrix. The inverse partition coefficient test showed no  
168 detectable (detection limit: \_\_\_\_\_) change in concentration when the matrix was immersed into the  
169 medium with dissolved indomethacin. This indicates that the matrix does not absorb dissolved  
170 indomethacin from the dissolution medium.

171 As shown in the characterization tests, the matrix is practically inert and has little effect on the total  
172 quantity of indomethacin released (**Table 1**). As the pH has no effect on the partition coefficient, we  
173 conclude that at least with indomethacin - a weak acid ( $\text{pK}_a$  4.5) - the change in the pH of the medium  
174 causes no adsorption onto the fibers. The partitioning coefficient studies were conducted only in  
175 regard to the dissolved species. The possible adhesion is not considered to be an issue, since the non-  
176 dissolved particles are intended to remain within the matrix.

177 **Table 1**

178 Summary of the investigated properties of the matrix.

Property	Experiment	Result
Intake of medium	Weighing	23 x weight of the matrix
Wetting time	Fast camera tests	$0.31 \pm 0.10$ s
Impact of medium on morphology	Imaging	no impact
Adsorption of dissolved species to matrix (from particles)	Partition coefficient	> 99.2 %
Adsorption of dissolved species to matrix (from media)	Inverse partition coefficient	< ___ %

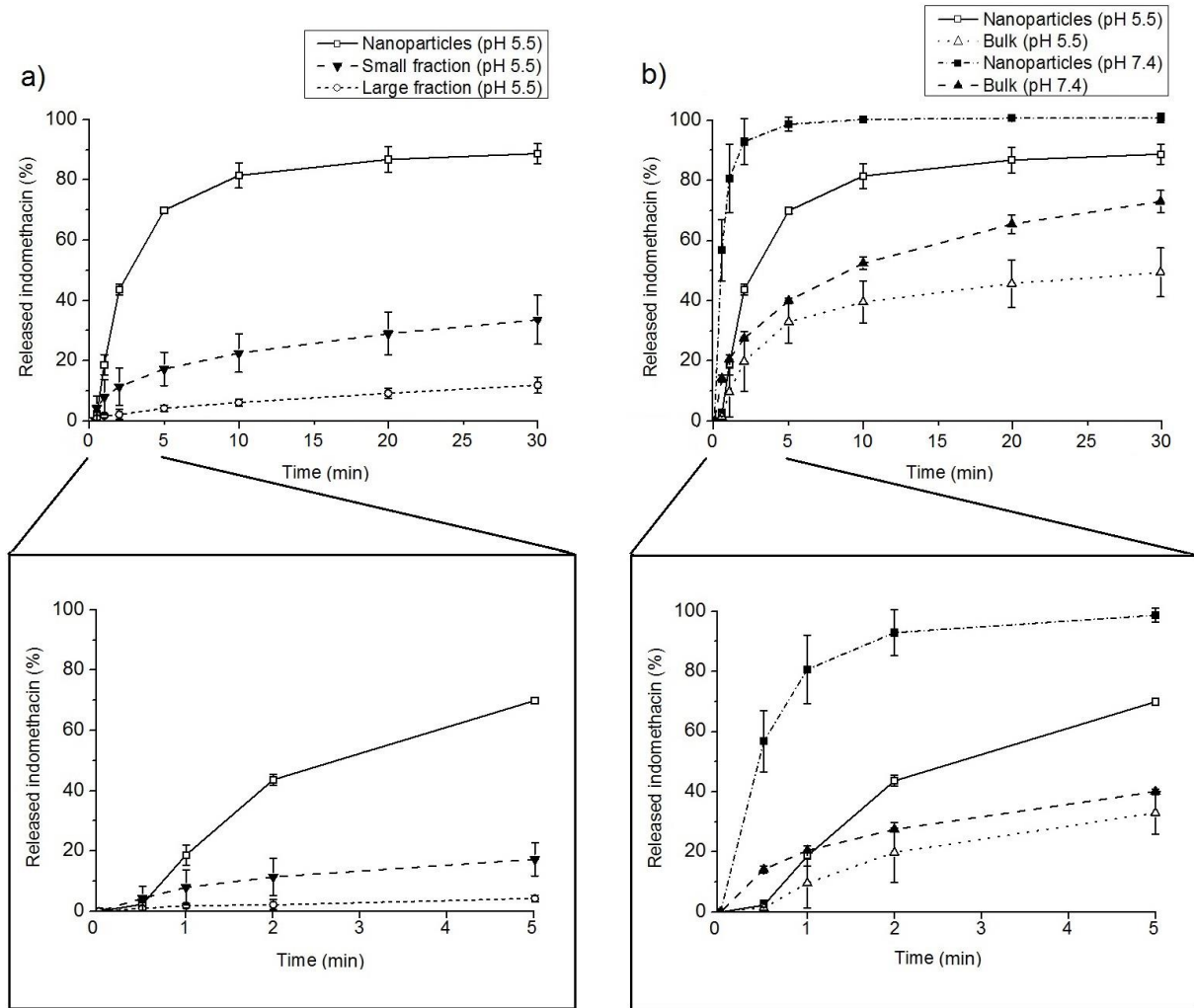
179 *3.2. Drug release studies*180 *3.2.1. Particle size*

181 The average size of the nanoparticles was  $424 \text{ nm} \pm 236 \text{ nm}$ , and of the bulk powder  $20.3 \text{ } \mu\text{m} \pm 30.0$   
 182  $\mu\text{m}$ , featuring size range of  $1 \text{ } \mu\text{m} - 272 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$ . The average size of the small fraction was  $17.4 \text{ } \mu\text{m} \pm$   
 183  $11.6 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$ , and of the large fraction  $22.1 \text{ } \mu\text{m} \pm 21.8 \text{ } \mu\text{m}$ .

184 *3.2.2. Dissolution rate*

185 Differences in dissolution rate as function of particle size and pH were evident in the dissolution  
 186 profiles obtained with LM method. **Fig. 3** shows the cumulative release of indomethacin nanoparticles,  
 187 small and large size fraction in pH 5.5, and nanoparticles and bulk indomethacin in pH 7.4 up to 30  
 188 min. The short lag times indicated rapid wetting of the samples and absence of any significant  
 189 membrane effect. Monotonously increasing dissolution profiles and constant standard deviations  
 190 indicate that the variation between aliquots is moderate, i.e. that no substantial withdrawal of particles  
 191 occurred during sampling. The method was accurate with small sample quantities and differences  
 192 between the dissolution rates were detected within 5 minutes from the start of the experiment as seen  
 193 in the dissolution profiles.



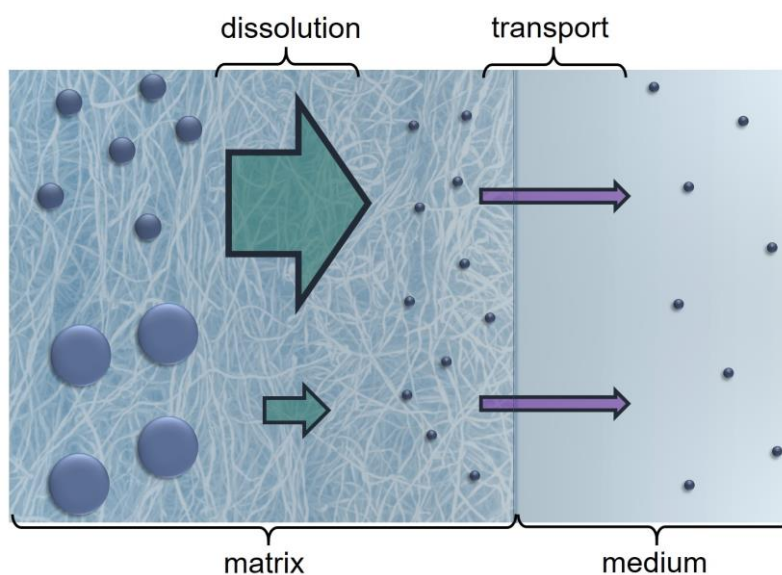


194

195 **Fig. 3.** Cumulative release (%) of indomethacin a) nanoparticles, small fractions and large fraction in  
 196 pH 5.5 up to 30 min and 5 min at  $37.0 \pm 0.5$  °C, b) nanoparticles and bulk in pH 5.5 and 7.4 up to 30  
 197 min and 5 min at  $37.0 \pm 0.5$  °C. Error bars are standard deviations of three parallel measurements.

### 198 3.3. Principle of the LM method

199 The key factor of the LM method is its ability to separate non-dissolved particles from dissolved  
 200 species and its ability to prevent dispersion of the particulates without presenting a significant  
 201 membrane effect. The dissolved species exit the matrix, whereas the non-dissolved particles remain  
 202 within the matrix (**Fig. 4**).



203

204 **Fig. 4.** Dissolved species (small spheres) diffuse promptly into the medium, whereas the diffusion  
 205 velocity of the non-dissolved species (medium size and large spheres) is lower. Smaller particles  
 206 (medium size spheres) dissolve to form the dissolved species faster than larger particles (large  
 207 spheres).

208 Instead of dispersing the particles into the dissolution medium or exchanging the medium through a  
 209 barrier, the matrix fixes the position of the non-dissolved particles and brings the medium to the  
 210 particles. In the LM method the particles are dissolved from a stationary point in a semi 2-dimensional  
 211 system under sink conditions. The efficient intake of medium, the concentration gradient, and the  
 212 mild convection induced in the vessel drive the dissolved species out of the matrix. The matrix does  
 213 not a form a separate compartment in the dissolution vessel and the lack of interaction between the  
 214 cotton fibers and the model compound ensures that the dissolved species is not trapped in the matrix.

215 The dissolution of the particles within the matrix is initiated as the matrix absorbs medium. The whole  
 216 particle population is wetted nearly simultaneously. The dissolution rate depends on the active surface  
 217 area of the particles as described by the Nernst-Brunner equation and the radius and particle curvature  
 218 as described by the Gibbs-Kelvin equation [28-30]. The equations predict that small particles dissolve  
 219 faster than large ones.

220 Results produced by the LM method do neither overestimate the dissolution rates nor do they induce  
 221 substantial lag times. The ability to produce realistic dissolution data supports early formulation  
 222 development, which is valuable for evaluation of advantages gained by particle size reduction and  
 223 nanonization. Small sample-to-sample variation enables producing reliable results with small inter-  
 224 or intra-laboratory variation. Thus, it can be inferred that dissolution testing with lyophilic matrices  
 225 produces realistic estimates of dissolution rates of nanoscale particles. Further studies are needed to

226 prove the universal applicability of the LM method and to assess the dissolution rate for different  
227 substances as well as to verify the IVIV-correlation.

#### 228 **4. Conclusions**

229 The LM method developed in this study is suitable for determining dissolution rates of particulate  
230 systems, especially of nanoscale particles. The method features short lag time, small sample-to-  
231 sample variation, and monotonously increasing dissolution profiles. It was capable to discriminate  
232 the dissolution rates of the tested particle size fractions. The inert cotton matrix used enables release  
233 studies without any substantial membrane effect, avoiding dispersion of the non-dissolved particles,  
234 and providing rapid wetting of the sample.

#### 235 **Acknowledgements**

236 J. Pessi and S. Svanbäck acknowledge the Drug Research Doctoral Program funding of the Faculty  
237 of Pharmacy, University of Helsinki. The authors thank the Electron Microscopy Unit of Institute of  
238 Biotechnology, University of Helsinki, for providing laboratory facilities, Mr. Heikki Räikkönen for  
239 technical support, and Ms. Anu Piipponen, Ms. Sanna Sistonen and Ms. Charlotte Roels for help with  
240 the practical work in the laboratory.

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