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# Comparison of fused-filament fabrication to direct compression and injection molding in the manufacture of oral tablets

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controlled drug release; oral tablets.

## 22 **Abstract**

23 Oral tablets are a convenient form to deliver active pharmaceutical ingredients (API) and  
24 have a high level of acceptance from clinicians and patients. There is a wide range of  
25 excipients available for the fabrication of tablets thereby offering a versatile platform for the  
26 delivery of therapeutic agents to the gastrointestinal tract. However, the geometry of tablets  
27 is limited by conventional manufacturing processes. This study aimed to compare three  
28 manufacturing processes in the production of flat-faced oral tablets using the same  
29 formulation composed of a polymer blend and caffeine as a model drug: fused-filament  
30 fabrication (FFF), direct compression (DC) and injection molding (IM). Hot-melt extrusion  
31 was used to convert a powder blend into feedstock material for FFF and IM processes, while  
32 DC was performed on the powder mixture. Tablets were produced with the same dimensions  
33 and were characterised for their physical and dissolution properties. There were statistical  
34 differences in the physical properties and drug release profiles of the tablets produced by the  
35 different manufacturing processes. DC tablets displayed immediate release, IM provided  
36 sustained release over 48 hours, and FFF tablets displayed both release types depending on  
37 the printing parameters. FFF continues to demonstrate high potential as a manufacturing  
38 process for the efficient production of personalized oral tablets.

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41 **Abbreviations**

42 3D, three-dimensional; API, active pharmaceutical ingredient; DC; direct compression;  
43 DSC, differential scanning calorimetry; FFF, fused-filament fabrication; HME, hot melt  
44 extrusion; HPLC, high-performance liquid chromatography; IM, injection moulding; MFI,  
45 melt flow index; MFR, melt flow rates; PCL, polycaprolactone; PEO, poly (ethylene  
46 oxide); PVP-VA, Kollidon VA64; RPM, revolutions per minute; SD, standard deviation;  
47 SEM, scanning electron microscopy.

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## 51 **1. Introduction**

52 Oral drug delivery is of great importance due to high patient compliance and acceptability as  
53 well as being suitable for a broad range of drug compounds (Qiu et al., 2017). After ingestion  
54 by the patient, oral tablets are exposed to severe conditions in which the drug must withstand  
55 the digestive process and penetrate through the gastrointestinal barrier to the bloodstream  
56 (Mitra et al., 2013). Conventional tablets are composed of powder blends of one or more  
57 active pharmaceutical ingredients (API) along with protective and functional excipients that  
58 undergo direct compression in single or multiple steps into compressed solid cylinders (Qiu  
59 et al., 2017). Compressed tablets can also have multiple layers to permit the independent  
60 delivery of multiple drugs (Vaithiyalingam and Sayeed, 2010). Several factors govern the  
61 successful production of a compressed tablet. Proper powder handling is essential as it is  
62 involved in every aspect of tablet production. Powder flow is dependent on interparticle  
63 interactions and decreases with increasing cohesiveness of the powder. Particle size is vital to  
64 overall tablet quality having influence over powder flow, compressibility, content and weight  
65 uniformity, drug release, and dissolution (Virtanen et al., 2010). Compactibility is defined as  
66 the ability of a powdered mixture under compression to form a stable tablet (Gad, 2007).  
67 Under compaction at high pressure powdered blends forms strong bonds between particles.  
68 A stable tablet will maintain such bonds during decompression, while unstable tablets will  
69 undergo cracking and crumbling due to elastic recovery (Hiestand, 1997). Due to these  
70 prerequisite properties for direct compression, less than 20% of drug compounds are suitable  
71 candidates for this type of tablet (Li et al., 2017).

72

73 **Direct compression as a manufacturing process for the production of tablets offers several**  
74 **advantages. Fewer processing steps and less equipment needed when compared to**  
75 **granulation processes as well as a heatless and dry production process, which increases**

76 product stability. The process also allows for the administration of all classes of therapeutic  
77 agents, except proteins and faster release rates than its wet granulated counterparts (Jones,  
78 2016). While direct compression is a well understood, highly repeatable process, it is limited  
79 in the type of tablet geometries it can generate. Most tablets are circular solid cylinders with  
80 either flat or convex faces, with or without edging. Tablet geometry is a factor that can be  
81 harnessed to produce oral tablets with unique properties since surface area and volume of an  
82 object is directly linked to shape. For example, donut-shaped oral tablets have demonstrated  
83 a zero-order release (Kim, 1995). Other issues is that therapeutic agents are not inherently  
84 compactable, so more excipients are required to produce reliable tablets, hence, limiting the  
85 drug loading achievable through this process (Jones, 2016). The comparison of drug dosage  
86 forms fabricated using hot-melt extrusion and direct compression is not new to the literature  
87 (Crowley et al., 2004; Liu et al., 2001; Loreti et al., 2014) and it is in the interest of this body  
88 of work to evaluate more innovative hot-melt processing techniques. Injection molding is a  
89 hot-melt extrusion based process that can readily produce complex parts to six-sigma  
90 accuracy and precision, and there is an established interest in the technology for the  
91 production of pharmaceutical dosage forms (Major et al., 2016; Quinten et al., 2009; Zema et  
92 al., 2012). It is a manufacturing process involving rapid mold filling under high pressure  
93 followed by rapid cooling and part ejection. The injection molding machine is composed of  
94 two main sections - a plasticizing unit that melts, conveys and injects thermoplastic material,  
95 and mold tooling which cools and shapes the molten thermoplastic into a part. In most  
96 instances, injection molding is combined with a twin-screw HME process as a first step in the  
97 production of pharmaceutical dosage forms (Boyd et al., 2014; Claeys et al., 2012; Desai et  
98 al., 2017; Major et al., 2013; Mc Conville et al., 2012; McConville et al., 2016, 2012; Quinten  
99 et al., 2012). Twin-screw HME provides for the better dispersion of API in the polymer  
100 matrix than what is provided by the single-screw in an injection molding machine

101 (Maniruzzaman et al., 2012). However, it is not a requisite to melt process formulations for  
102 injection moulding applications. The literature offers examples of direct feeding of powder  
103 blends for the manufacture of drug dosage forms via injection moulding (Cuff and Raouf,  
104 1999; Eggenreich et al., 2016), including continuous manufacturing processes (Mascia et al.,  
105 2013; Melocchi et al., 2015). The technology is also being investigated for tablet coating  
106 applications (Desai et al., 2018a, 2018b; Puri et al., 2018).

107

108 Among other technologies evaluated for the fabrication of oral tablets, there is fused-filament  
109 fabrication (FFF), a three-dimensional (3D) printing process that requires HME for the  
110 fabrication of thermoplastic filament feedstock (Alhnan et al., 2016; Feuerbach et al., 2018;  
111 Zema et al., 2017). A stepper motor feeds this filament to an extrusion head consisting of a  
112 liquefier (a heated chamber), and a nozzle that deposits molten polymer along a coordinate  
113 on the XYZ axis. In general, the range of materials available for non-medical FFF  
114 applications is limited, with only thirty materials available commercially compared to over  
115 three thousand for the other HME based processes like injection molding (Evans, 2016) and  
116 currently, no material has been made commercially available for the FFF of drug products.  
117 Researchers have two main approaches to creating drug-loaded filament - impregnation of  
118 commercial filament (Goyanes et al., 2015a, 2014; Tagami et al., 2017) and HME production  
119 of filament from FFF suitable materials like polyvinyl alcohol (Gioumouxouzis et al., 2017;  
120 Goyanes et al., 2016b, 2015c, 2015d; Melocchi et al., 2016) and polylactic acid (Goyanes et  
121 al., 2016a; Kempin et al., 2017; Melocchi et al., 2016; Wilson and Mills, 2015). Although  
122 several pharmaceutical grade polymers have been extensively evaluated for FFF applications  
123 in recent years, further work is required to sufficiently modify suitable polymers for the FFF  
124 process so that technology can be expanded to suit a broader range of both drug compounds  
125 and clinical indications. Recently we described the utilization of melt-blending to overcome

126 the inherent restrictions in the FFF process (Fuenmayor et al., 2018), and other researchers  
127 are investigating similar avenues (Alhijaj et al., 2016; Solanki et al., 2018). Despite the  
128 technical hurdles, there is a growing interest in the utilization of the technology for  
129 pharmaceutical applications (Jamróz et al., 2017; Norman et al., 2017; Prasad and Smyth,  
130 2016). Researchers have investigated the use of the process to make oral dosage forms such  
131 as tablets (Beck et al., 2017; Chai et al., 2017; Goyanes et al., 2015b, 2015c, 2014; Long et al.,  
132 2017; Okwuosa et al., 2016; Solanki et al., 2018; Verstraete et al., 2018), caplets (Goyanes et  
133 al., 2016b, 2015d), **among other more intricate geometries, compositions and functions**  
134 **(Genina et al., 2017; Maroni et al., 2017; Melocchi et al., 2015; Sadia et al., 2018)**. Other than  
135 the ready production of tablets with complex shapes, a primary driver for the technology is  
136 the possibility of the tailored dosage forms to enable the personalisation of treatment (Konta  
137 et al., 2017).

138

139 The purpose of this study was to directly compare FFF to both DC and IM in the production  
140 of flat-faced oral tablets. Tablets were successfully fabricated via all three manufacturing  
141 methods using the same formulation and drug loading. The produced tablets were  
142 characterized for their mechanical and thermal properties as well as drug release kinetics. A  
143 total of twelve different batches of tablets were obtained, ten batches of FFF tablets made  
144 with different printing parameters, one batch of DC tablets produced using standard  
145 compression parameters and one batch IM tablets produced using standard molding  
146 parameters. These batches of tablets were tested for their dimensional accuracy, weight  
147 variation, friability, hardness, surface morphology, thermal and melt-flow properties, drug  
148 content uniformity and API release kinetics using media simulating fasting stomach  
149 conditions.

150

## 151 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 152 *2.1. Materials*

153 Polycaprolactone (PCL) in powder form (Capa 6506, average  $M_w=50,000$ ) was obtained  
154 from Perstop (Cheshire, UK). Kollidon® VA64 (PVP-VA) was purchased from BASF  
155 Ireland (Cork, Ireland). Poly (ethylene oxide) (PEO) (average  $M_w=300,000$ ) in powder form  
156 was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (Arklow, Ireland). The model drug for dissolution studies  
157 was USP grade caffeine which was purchased from VWR International (Dublin, Ireland).  
158 Table 1 shows the formulation used in this study.

### 159 *2.2. Hot-Melt Extrusion*

160 All excipients were passed through a 450  $\mu\text{m}$  sieve to obtain equivalent particle sizes and  
161 then mixed for 15 minutes at 50 RPM using a Universal Motor Drive 400 (Pharmag GmbH,  
162 Hamburg, Germany) attached to a cube mixer. An MP19TC25 APV Baker 19 mm  
163 co-rotating twin screw extruder (Newcastle-under-Lyme, UK) equipped with a purpose-built  
164 filament forming die was used for the compounding of the filament. The filament die has a  
165 conical shaped cavity, narrowing away from the extruder finishing in a circular orifice  
166 (diameter 2.30 mm). The processing parameters are detailed in Table 2. The extruded  
167 materials were hauled off using a tilted conveyor air cooled Teflon® belt and a  
168 counter-rotating belt haul-off with sufficient speed to maintain a filament diameter of  $1.75 \pm$   
169  $0.15$  mm necessary for the FFF 3D printing process. The filament was granulated using a  
170 strand pelletizer SGS 50-E (Reduction Engineering Scheer, Ohio, USA) into 3 mm granules  
171 for injection molding. Figure 1 is a process flowchart detailing the flow of materials into the  
172 three different processes.

### 173 *2.3. Fused-Filament Fabrication*



174 A MakerBot Replicator 2X (Makerbot® Industries, New York, USA) 3D printer was used  
175 for the production of FFF tablets. The optimal printing conditions of the blend were  
176 determined via preliminary trials and kept constant at: extrusion speed (10 mm/s), extruder  
177 temperature (150 °C), printing bed temperature (50 °C), extruder travel speed (50 mm/s),  
178 number of shells (1), roof and floor thickness (0.5 mm), layer height (0.2 mm) and the raft  
179 and support options turned off. Three different printing parameters were varied to evaluate  
180 the effect on the drug release and tablet properties. Four different values were chosen for the  
181 infill percentage (25 %, 50 %, 75 % and 100 %) and layer height (0.1, 0.2, 0.3 and 0.4 mm).  
182 Four infill patterns (linear, diamond, moroccanstar and hexagonal) were considered. Generic  
183 FFF values were set at 25 % infill with a linear pattern and 0.2 mm layer height. The  
184 breakdown of different printed tablets is displayed in Table 3. The three-dimensional design  
185 for the tablet was created using SolidWorks® 2014 (Dassault Systèmes, Waltham, USA) and  
186 saved as an STL extension format (Figure 2a). The STL file was opened using the monitor  
187 and remote control software suite MakerBot Desktop version 3.5 (Makerbot® Industries,  
188 New York, USA).

#### 189 *2.4 Injection Molding*

190 Injection molding was carried out on an Arburg™ Allrounder 370 E (Arburg GmbH,  
191 Germany) equipped with an Arburg™ 170 injection unit. The required temperature profile  
192 was established on the Arburg™ Allrounder 370 E injection molding by means of 5  
193 temperature controllers placed along the length of the barrel with an additional controller  
194 used to regulate the temperature at the nozzle. The shot size was determined at a stroke of 22  
195 mm based on the total volume of material necessary per shot to fill all runners, gates and part  
196 cavities, values that were obtained via SolidWorks® plastics flow simulator (Dassault  
197 Systèmes, France). The injection molding parameters (Table 4) were optimised for the  
198 formulation prior to tablet production. A mold was specifically designed to produce tablets

199 with exact geometry the FFF and DC tablets. Solidworks plastics add-on was used to  
200 evaluate the efficiency of different mold designs. Figure 2b depicts the three-dimensional  
201 drawing and front view of the final mould design used in this work. Two insert molds were  
202 manufactured via SLA printing on a Viper SI2 SLA® system (3D systems GmbH,  
203 Darmstadt, Germany) using Somos® GP Plus 14122 (DSM Functional Materials,  
204 Netherlands) as a feedstock material for the manufacture of the mold, using a resolution of  
205 0.1 mm. The mold was introduced into a full stainless steel cavity mold, which has two  
206 orifices that serve as slots for the attachment of small insert molds.

### 207 *2.5 Direct Compression*

208 The tablet press used was a manual laboratory hydraulic press (Specac Limited, UK) capable  
209 of 15 tons of pressure. The die was a hardened stainless steel evacuable pellet die Specac  
210 GS03000 (Specac Limited, UK) that produces tablets with a diameter of 13 mm.  
211 Approximately 500 mg of powder formulation was accurately weighed on a Sartorius  
212 analytical balance (Sartorius, Germany) and fed into the die. This amount of material was  
213 demonstrated to produce tablets with a height of 4 mm during preliminary trials. The die and  
214 plunger were put on top of the powder, and a 5-ton pressure was applied to the mixture for 30  
215 sec.

### 216 *2.6. Melt Flow Indexing*

217 Melt flow indexing (MFI) was performed to evaluate the rheological properties of the  
218 material. The melt flow rates (MFR) were measured using a Zwick Roell Cflow extrusion  
219 plastometer with a 2 mm orifice die. All testing was performed with a fixed weight of 2.16 kg  
220 following the guidelines of the ASTM standard D1238-13. The temperature range for the test  
221 extended from 110 °C up to 160 °C in 10 °C increments.

## 222 2.7. Differential Scanning Calorimetry

223 Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) was employed for thermal characterization of  
224 material blends and fabricated tablets, using a TA Instruments DSC 2920 Differential  
225 Scanning Calorimeter (Dublin, Ireland). Samples weighed between 8 – 12 mg and were  
226 placed in non-hermetical aluminium pans, which were crimped prior to testing with an empty  
227 crimped aluminium pan for reference. Each sample was subjected to a heating cycle to  
228 remove thermal history consisting of a ramp from room temperature to 300 °C at a rate of 10  
229 °C/min. This was followed by a cooling cycle down to 0 °C at a rate of 5 °C/min. Data  
230 recording was activated, and the temperature was ramped at a rate of 10 °C/min until 300 °C  
231 was reached.

## 232 2.8 Scanning Electron Microscopy

233 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed on a Mira SEM (Tescan Oxford  
234 Instruments, UK) using a range of magnifications to evaluate the surface morphology of the  
235 tablets and drug using the secondary electrons function. Tablets from the three different  
236 manufacturing processes were snap broken through the transversal plane and cross-sectional  
237 areas put under the microscope along with powder from caffeine that was left placed in an  
238 oven at 140 °C for 12 min to simulate the thermal conditions that the drug withstand during  
239 the HME process. As a first step, the samples were placed on an aluminium stub and were  
240 gold coated using Baltec SCD 005 sputter coater (BAL-TEC GmbH, Germany) for 110 sec at  
241 0.1 mBar vacuum before observation.

## 242 2.9. Tablet Hardness

243 Each formulation underwent tablet hardness testing according to USP <1217> using a  
244 Schleuniger Pharmatron Model 6D Tablet Tester (Solothurn, Switzerland). The tablets were

245 selected at random with each tablet being placed into the hardness tester and the maximum  
246 force-to-break (Newton) was measured. The mean  $\pm$  standard deviation for each formulation  
247 was calculated.

#### 248 *2.10. Tablet Friability*

249 In order to determine the physical integrity of tablets, an auto-friability tester PTF E/ER  
250 (Pharma Test Apparatebau GmbH, Hainburg, Germany) was utilised. Following the USP  
251 standard 32-NF 27, tablets were laid in a sieve and using a soft brush; any dust was removed  
252 from them. Then tablets were weighted until their combined weight was equal or greater than  
253 6.5 g and introduced into a drum rotated at a speed of  $25 \pm 1$  RPM for 4 min. Tablets were  
254 removed and brushed again to remove any dust and reweighed. The loss in the weight of the  
255 tablet is the measure of friability and was calculated by dividing the loss in weight by the  
256 initial weight and multiplying in it by a 100:

$$257 \quad \text{Percentage friability (\%)} = \left( \frac{\text{Loss in weight}}{\text{Initial weight}} \right) \times 100 \quad (1)$$

#### 258 *2.11. Drug Release Studies*

259 Dissolution testing of tablets ( $n = 6$ ) was performed on Distek dissolution system 2100B with  
260 a Distek temperature control system TCS 0200B (Distek Inc., USA) according to USP  
261 Dissolution Apparatus I. The dissolution media (900 mL per vessel) was 0.2 M hydrochloric  
262 acid, pH 1.2 ( $37 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$ ) to mimic the stomach conditions during fasting with the stir rate  
263 being 50 RPM. At predetermined time intervals, 5 mL was withdrawn from each vessel and  
264 replaced with pre-heated media. The withdrawn samples were filtered through 0.45  $\mu\text{m}$  filter  
265 and drug release determined at 272 nm by performing UV spectroscopy using a Shimadzu  
266 UV-1280 UV-VIS spectrophotometer which was blanked with a solution of the buffer and  
267 dissolved polymers, accordingly to the formulation being tested in order to secure the

268 detection of caffeine. The dissolution profile was observed from a plot of time versus  
269 absorbance.

### 270 *2.12. High-Performance Liquid Chromatography*

271 High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) was used to determine the content  
272 uniformity of caffeine abiding by the standard USP 28 Uniformity of Dosage units. Ten  
273 tablets per manufacturing process were randomly selected, weighed and dissolved in 5 mL of  
274 chloroform. The solution was then mixed with methanol until 50 mL was obtained. The  
275 solutions were centrifuged and injected into HPLC grade vials using a syringe equipped with  
276 Nylon 66 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  filters. The HPLC equipment was a Waters 1515 Isocratic HPLC pump  
277 which was connected to an in-line vacuum degasser, Waters 717plus Autosampler and a  
278 Waters 2487 Dual Absorbance Detector. The data were collected and integrated using  
279 Empower® Version 2.0 software. The column was a Luna C18(2), 5  $\mu\text{M}$ , 150 x 4.6 mm,  
280 equipped with a precolumn Security Guard Cartridge C18, 4.0 x 3.0 mm, (Phenomenex Inc.,  
281 UK). The mobile phase consisted of water:methanol:glacial acetic acid (69:28:3), which was  
282 vacuum filtered through a Nylon 66 0.2  $\mu\text{m}$  filter (Agilent Technologies, Ireland). The flow  
283 rate of the mobile phase was 2.0 mL/min with an injection volume of 10  $\mu\text{L}$ .

### 284 *2.13. Statistical Analysis*

285 Data handling and analysis were performed using GraphPad Prism 5 (GraphPad Software  
286 Inc., UK). Test data was inputted into the software, and mean, and standard deviation values  
287 were calculated for replicate sets of data. The significance threshold was set at 0.05. Error  
288 bars represent standard deviation unless otherwise specified in the figure caption. The mean  
289 values are presented in the figures in the results section. Multiple comparisons among

290 subgroups were performed using a Bonferroni post-hoc test to differentiate drug release  
291 curves.

## 292 **3. Results and Discussion**

### 293 *3.1 Manufacturing observations*

294 This work aimed to directly compare FFF 3D printing of flat-faced oral tablets with the  
295 well-established DC approach and a second HME based manufacturing process IM. The  
296 same formulation was used for all three processes, and physical, thermal and dissolution  
297 properties of the resulting tablets were compared. We previously described the  
298 development of this formulation (Fuenmayor et al., 2018) as we set about modifying the  
299 properties of Kollidon ® VA64 (vinylpyrrolidone-vinyl acetate copolymer) to increase  
300 printability for FFF. By melt-blending with PCL and PEO, we were able to decrease  
301 filament brittleness and stiffness sufficiently to print complete batches of flat-faced tablets.  
302 Each polymer in this ternary blend has previously been used for the fabrication of oral  
303 tablets (Diaf et al., 2012; Eyjolfsson, 2015; Kim, 1998; Ma et al., 2013) but to the best of  
304 our knowledge not as a blend. Pestle and mortar were implemented to balance size  
305 distribution and reduce the particle size of the powder formulation. A 450 µm sieve was the  
306 smallest that could be used successfully. The powder blend was mixed to improve  
307 homogeneity and stored in an oven at 40 °C overnight before processing to remove  
308 moisture.

309

310 For the fabrication of DC tablets, 500 mg powder mix was fed into a compression die to  
311 produce each tablet. The resulting tablets were coarse in appearance and to the touch.

312 Particle size distribution for PCL and PEO is 98% < 600  $\mu\text{m}$  and 96% < 841  $\mu\text{m}$   
313 respectively while caffeine particles are mostly below 420  $\mu\text{m}$  in size (95%). The particle  
314 size differences between powders can result in a polydisperse and moderately coarse  
315 formulation in which PVP-VA is relatively smaller in particle size (15% < 50  $\mu\text{m}$  2% > 250  
316  $\mu\text{m}$ ), resulting in a mixture with poor fluidity and compactability due to variations on the  
317 particle size distribution (Eyjolfsson, 2015; Yajima et al., 1996). Only one batch of DC  
318 tablets was produced using standard compression parameters to compare to the FFF  
319 tablets.

320

321 An HME twin-screw compounding process converted the powder formulation into a  
322 suitable feedstock for FFF (extrudate filament strand) and IM (pelletized extrudate  
323 filament < 3 mm). HME was performed at temperatures below the melting temperature of  
324 caffeine (235°C), and therefore the drug should have remained in the crystalline state  
325 unless solubilized by the molten polymer blend. Addition of drug during extrusion did  
326 not affect extruder torque (Fuenmayor et al., 2018), and melt flow indexing of the polymer  
327 blend did not change on drug addition and remained around 10.5 g/10min  $\pm$  0.02 at 150°C.  
328 Melt flow index data had also previously indicated that FFF nozzle temperature should be  
329 set to least at 150°C (Fuenmayor et al., 2018) or higher for this polymer blend formulation  
330 as the optimal MFI value for FFF layer deposition should be +10 g/10min (Wang et al.,  
331 2018). The nozzle temperature was kept constant throughout printing of all ten batches of  
332 FFF tablets with only the specific printing parameters changing between batches.



333 Extrudate filaments were pelletized and then gravity fed to the injection molding machine  
334 to mold tablets using a temperature profile similar to HME at first. However, this resulted  
335 in short-shots which can be attributed to too low a melt temperature (Moayyedian et al.,  
336 2017). A subsequent trial at higher temperatures (Table 4) produced tablets with excellent  
337 surface finish and dimensional accuracy.

### 338 *3.2 Physical appearance*

339 Flat-faced tablets were produced via FFF with different printing parameters to understand  
340 the effect of each variable on physical and dissolution properties. Infill percentage defines  
341 the inner density of a 3DP part. Infill pattern is the layer deposition arrangement during  
342 printing. FFF parts are built by depositing horizontal layers of molten material on top of  
343 each other, and the thickness of such layers is called layer height. Figure 3 displays the  
344 inner structure of FFF tablets with different infill patterns and infill percentages. Figures  
345 3a-d display parts fabricated using increasing infill percentages (25%, 50%, 75% and  
346 100% respectively) and it is clear the reduction of empty space inside parts as the  
347 percentage increases. The diamond infill pattern (Figure 3e) had inner walls meeting at a  
348 90°-degree angle. Tablets with a hexagonal infill pattern (Figure 3f) had the thickest inner  
349 walls out of the four infill patterns used in this study. The moroccanstar infill pattern  
350 (Figure 3g) was composed of a succession of irregular eight-sided stars and octagons. The  
351 linear infill pattern (Figure 3h) had a geometrical organization of inner walls similar to the  
352 diamond infill pattern, but the space between them was smaller due to a denser distribution  
353 of lines.

354

355 The surface morphology differences between the three different processes are evident from  
356 SEM scans presented in Figure 4. DC tablets (Figures 4a-c) had a coarse surface with no  
357 clear phase differentiation, and on higher magnification (Figure 4b) monoclinic caffeine is  
358 apparent. Sponge-like surfaces appear to be engulfing these drug crystals, and it is assumed  
359 that it corresponds to PEO domains (Fuenmayor et al., 2018). Figures 4d-f depict the  
360 cross-sectional area of an FFF tablet with 25% infill and 0.2 mm layers. The crisscrossing  
361 of deposited layers and the space between them is observable in this picture, and the  
362 presence of crystalline caffeine more homogenously distributed. Spongy domains in FFF  
363 tablets are observed in Figure 4f with a more pronounced colour difference than those in  
364 Figure 4b for the DC tablet. The cross-sectional area of tablets fabricated using 100% infill  
365 (FFF4) are depicted next (Figures 4g-i). Here it is observable the difference in material  
366 density when compare to FFF1 with a compact solid structure, however, evidence of  
367 horizontal layer deposition is found in Figure 4g. Drug crystals are only observable when  
368 closely inspecting Figure 4i and there seems to be a more chaotic distribution of the  
369 material phases when compared to other samples. The SEM images of the IM tablets are  
370 displayed in Figures 4j-l. Drug crystals are present but are not as pronounced as those  
371 found in the FFF1 and DC tablets, and the crystals are more evenly distributed than in the  
372 other three tablets. Figures 4m-o are images of the unprocessed caffeine powder, which  
373 shows a less pronounced monoclinic structure compared to the processed caffeine within  
374 the tablets, which have more a needle-like appearance, particularly in the FFF tablets.

375 Conclusions about the inner morphological structure of the tablets can be drawn based on  
376 these images. Compressed tablets depend on particle bonding and area of contact, plastic  
377 deformation and tensile properties to guarantee physical integrity and a successful  
378 production process (Jivraj et al., 2000). Differences in particle size, agglomeration and  
379 poor tensile properties could explain the observed lack of surface homogeneity for Figures  
380 4a-c. Conversely, during melt processing, polymer chains are disentangled by means of  
381 heat and shear forces (Li et al., 2014), and they are rearranged while the material melt is  
382 cooling down which results in a more homogenous continuous inner structure as  
383 observable in Figures 4d-i.

384

### 385 *3.3 Physical properties*

386 The variations in weight between FFF samples were evaluated, and the results are  
387 presented in Figure 5. Infill percentage had a greater influence on tablet weight, and this is  
388 to be expected since infill percentage increases the amount of material deposited. However,  
389 there was no significant difference in the weight of 75% (FFF3) and 100% (FFF4) infill  
390 tablets ( $p < 0.01$ ). For the infill pattern, only linear (FFF1) and moroccanstar (FFF5) had no  
391 significant difference in their weight ( $p < 0.01$ ), while tablets produced with different layer  
392 heights showed no significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) difference between the four tablets (FFF1, FFF8,  
393 FFF9 and FFF10). The weight comparison of tablets produced using different  
394 manufacturing methods is presented in Figure 6. The differences in tablet weights are  
395 significant ( $p < 0.01$ ). The higher weight of IM tablet is a consequence of parts produced

396 using this technique having a considerably higher density (Rothen-Weinhold et al., 1999).  
397 FFF tablets have a greater free volume within the inner structure due to the infill percentage  
398 used for their fabrication (25%). Even the FFF4 tablet with the highest infill (100%)  
399 produced in this study had a lower weight than the IM tablet, which is an indication of the  
400 matrix porosity differences between samples produced using these methods (Verstraete et  
401 al., 2018).

402 As for the tablets physical integrity, all FFF tablets retained their full weight after the  
403 friability test. Only DC tablets failed the friability test, and this again could be explained  
404 through the differences in particle size of components. Future studies should modify the  
405 formulation for the compression of tablets or achieve a more homogenous particle size  
406 distribution to improve the compactability of the formulation. Results of tablet hardness for  
407 FFF tablets are depicted in Figure 7. Infill percentage seems to have the most substantial  
408 effect on tablet hardness, with FFF3 (75%) and FFF4 (100%) exceeding the maximum  
409 limit of the test. There was no significant difference between these tablets and FFF2 (50%).  
410 Layer height again had no significant effect on tablet hardness. Infill pattern had a  
411 significant effect on tablet hardness. The more symmetrical patterns of linear (FFF1),  
412 hexagonal (FFF6) and diamond (FFF7) provided greater resistance to the compression  
413 forces. The irregular inner geometry of the moroccanstar (FFF5) could explain its poorer  
414 mechanical performance since more regular lattice-type structures have a greater  
415 load-bearing capacity (Rosen et al., 2006). Tablet hardness of the three different  
416 manufacturing processes can be found in Figure 8. The IM tablets failed to deform or break

417 during this test, while the DC tablets needed 176.73 N to break and crumbled apart during  
418 testing. Although FFF tablets had the lowest hardness value, they only deformed during  
419 testing and did not chip or break apart.

#### 420 *3.4 Thermal properties*

421 Figure 9 shows the DSC thermograms for tablets manufactured using three different  
422 manufacturing processes. A single melting peak is observed for all polymer blends  
423 followed by a relaxation of around 100 °C which corresponds to the PVP-VA glass  
424 transition. The temperatures of the transitions observed in Figure 9 are reported in Table 5.  
425 The presence of separate transitions in a ternary blend formulation would suggest only  
426 partial miscibility between the excipients (Mofokeng and Luyt, 2015), and further data in  
427 our previous study of this polymer blend formulation would suggest this to be the case  
428 (Fuenmayor et al., 2018). The presence of caffeine was observed for DC tablets by a small  
429 melting peak at 240 °C but was not observed for the FFF and IM tablets. The absence of a  
430 DSC peak could be because the drug was more evenly dispersed in the polymer matrix (as  
431 shown by the SEM images) or even partially solubilized during HME (Alshahrani et al.,  
432 2015; Huang and Dai, 2014). Another possibility could be the creation of a solid  
433 amorphous dispersion during the melt-processing stage of this project (Sarode et al., 2013).

#### 434 *3.5 Drug release*

435 Figure 10 shows the drug content uniformity for FFF, DC and IM tablets. DC tablets had a  
436 118.0 % drug content when compared to the label claim with a standard deviation of 16.6

437 %. Thus, failing to pass the USP uniformity of content test. Conversely, both FFF and IM  
438 tablets passed the test with drug contents of 103.9 % (SD = 8.7 %) and 98.2 % (SD = 5.7 %)  
439 respectively. The content uniformity difference between DC tablets and the other two  
440 tablet types is related to the better drug dispersion and enhanced mixing due to the  
441 twin-screw HME processing step before both IM and FFF tablet manufacture  
442 (Maniruzzaman et al., 2012; Thiry et al., 2015). The powder formulations were carefully  
443 handled and mixed before the DC process, but there is a possibility for the mixture not to be  
444 homogenous, due to the large variation in particle size of the ingredients, causing  
445 variations in the actual content of DC tablets. The HME processing step can be added prior  
446 to direct compression to improve drug content uniformity. Compressed tablets have  
447 previously been formed from the milled powder or granules of melt-extruded blends  
448 (Andrews et al., 2008; Lakshman et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2001; Verstraete et al., 2016a).  
449 Similarly, Baronsky-Probst et al. (Baronsky-Probst et al., 2016) described the production  
450 of tamper-resistant prolonged release tablets made by the direct compaction of  
451 melt-extruded rods.

452

453 The influence of FFF parameters and manufacturing processes on the drug dissolution  
454 properties of oral tablets in fasted stomach conditions was evaluated *in vitro*. Layer height  
455 influence on drug delivery is shown in Figure 11. Tablets produced with 0.3 mm (FFF9)  
456 and 0.4 mm (FFF10) layer heights released 88% and 92% drug content after 24 hrs  
457 respectively. This prolonged release of the drug is hypothesized to be related to the

458 permeability and porosity of tablets. Reducing the layer height creates a more tortuous  
459 arrangement over the same volume, slowing the rate of media flushing through the dosage  
460 form, thus delaying the drug release (Crowley et al., 2004). Tablets manufactured using 0.2  
461 mm (FFF1) layers provided slower release with only 45% released after 8 hrs. The  
462 difference in drug release for all three groups was not significant after the 8 hrs time point  
463 ( $p > 0.05$ ), which is due to the release media having imbibed into the tablets negating the  
464 differences in permeability and porosity, while FFF9 and FFF10 were not significantly  
465 different from each other ( $p > 0.05$ ) over the 48 hrs.

466

467 Drug release properties for tablets fabricated using different infill patterns is presented in  
468 Figure 12. There was no clear difference between the three infill patterns in the first 8hrs.  
469 Linear (FFF1), moroccanstar (FFF5) and diamond (FFF7) did not display a significant  
470 difference in drug release up to 8 hrs. After this point, there was a clear divergence between  
471 linear (FFF1) and the moroccanstar (FFF5) and diamond (FFF7) tablets, with the linear  
472 (FFF1) tablets releasing more than 90% of their drug content after 48 hrs while the other  
473 two tablets released just over 70% in the same time. Release from the hexagonal (FFF6)  
474 tablet was not significantly different to the diamond (FFF7) tablet.

475

476 Infill percentage has previously been demonstrated to have an inverse relationship to drug  
477 release (Verstraete et al., 2018), and similar results were obtained during this study (Figure  
478 13). A higher infill percentage will decrease the inner porosity of tablets which in return

479 will decrease the permeability of the media. Samples fabricated using 75% infill (FFF3)  
480 had the slowest release rate with only 26% drug content released after 8 hrs, while 50%  
481 infill tablets (FFF2) released 32% of drug content at this time point. After 24 hrs drug  
482 release for these tablets increased to 50% for 75 % infill (FFF3) and 61% for 50 % infill  
483 (FFF2).

484

485 Figure 14 shows the cumulative drug release for the tablets produced using the three  
486 different manufacturing processes. DC tablets had burst release characteristics with 95% of  
487 drug content present in the media after 6 hrs. The FFF tablet provided a more sustained  
488 release with 38% and 80% released after 6 and 24 hrs respectively. After 48 hrs the FFF  
489 tablet released 92% drug content. The IM tablet would be considered an extended-release  
490 tablet displaying the slowest drug release (64% after 48 hrs) for samples evaluated in this  
491 study. During HME, materials are softened and/or melted while having to withstand high  
492 shear forces. This generates high pressures compacting the mixture and intertwining the  
493 molecular chains of the polymers creating a highly tortuous structure and reducing the  
494 porosity of the materials (Crowley et al., 2004; Rubio and Ghaly, 1994; Zhang et al., 2001)  
495 This combination of factors explain the sustained release displayed by the tablets produce  
496 via FFF and IM. IM had the highest weight of all samples produced, which suggest a highly  
497 dense matrix (Rothen-Weinhold et al., 1999). In work by Verstraete et al. (Verstraete et al.,  
498 2018, 2016a, 2016b), it was demonstrated the higher porosity of IM tablets when compared  
499 to FFF tablets. The increased porosity accelerates the drug release via two methods, the



500 first is facilitating access of dissolution media through the tablet (González-Rodríguez et  
501 al., 2003) and the second is by enhancing the diffusion of solubilized drug molecules  
502 (Nerurkar et al., 2005).

503

504 The differences in porosity are observable when comparing SEM scans of FFF tablets  
505 versus IM counterparts (Figure 4d, Figure 4g and Figure 4j). In Figure 4d, there is an  
506 abundance of free space as a result of the geometrical pattern used for depositing the  
507 material as well the thickness of horizontal layers used in the building process. Figure 4j in  
508 contrast, displays a more compact and multifaceted surface morphology, resembling a  
509 single wall of material instead of an arrangement of individual layers. Samples  
510 manufactured using 100% infill are dense and solid, and when comparing images of FFF4  
511 versus IM tablets, the resemblance in their wavelike surface finish is appreciable.  
512 Nonetheless, as we increased the magnification of the images, the differences in their  
513 material density and porosity start arising. A quick glance of Figure 4l, when compared to  
514 Figure 4i, shows a more robust wall of material to prevent ingress of the dissolution media  
515 into the samples, thus slowing the diffusion of the drug. It is worth mentioning, that DC  
516 tablets dissolved fully in the media while all melt-processed tablets held their physical  
517 shape and had a mass loss of 30% from their initial weight before dissolution,  
518 corresponding to the hydrophilic portions of the formulation (data not shown).

519

520

521 Using the same formulation but different processing methods produce different drug  
522 release profiles. However, there is evidence that the hot-melt processes delay drug release  
523 (Zhang et al., 2001). The influence of FFF parameters and manufacturing processes on the  
524 in vitro drug dissolution properties of oral tablets was tested in fasting stomach conditions.  
525 Figure 11 to Figure 13 demonstrate that different FFF parameters did affect the drug  
526 release properties. As for infill patterns, there was no significant difference between FFF5  
527 (morrocanstar) and FFF7 (diamond); and FFF1 (linear) did not display a significant  
528 difference in its drug release up to 8 hr. Although FFF6 (hexagonal) had a more rapid  
529 release during the first 8 hr, the total amount released was similar to that of FFF5 and FFF7  
530 (data not shown), and only FFF1 delivered more than 90% of its drug content after 48 hrs.  
531 Only the linear infill pattern provided significantly different drug release to the other infill  
532 patterns.

533

534 There were three different drug release profiles for the tablets across manufacturing  
535 processes. A burst release was observed for DC tablets, while a more controlled drug  
536 release was observed for tablets fabricated using melt processing methods. During the melt  
537 processing step needed to prepare samples for FFF and IM, materials are softened and/or  
538 molten while being subjected to shear along the barrel. The process generates high  
539 pressures compacting the mixture and intertwining the molecular chains of the polymers  
540 creating a highly tortuous structure and reducing the porosity of the materials when  
541 compared to samples obtained via compression (Crowley et al., 2004; Rubio and Ghaly,

542 1994; Zhang et al., 2001). This phenomenon is observable via SEM images of the  
543 cross-sectional area of tablets as well in the improved physical properties of the tablets  
544 when in comparison to DC tablets. This combination of factors explains the extended  
545 release kinetics displayed by the tablets produce via FFF and IM.

546

## 547 **4. Conclusions**

548 New manufacturing technologies are being harnessed by the pharmaceutical industry to  
549 produce solid dosage forms. Hot-melt extrusion has been a key enabling technology to  
550 enhance drug solubility and bioavailability. Two HME based processes - injection molding  
551 and fused-filament fabrication are gaining interest as they both offer a means of producing  
552 complex dosage forms that cannot be readily made through more conventional means. This  
553 present study has clearly demonstrated tablets of the same physical dimensions and  
554 formulation can have very different physical and dissolution properties based on how they  
555 are produced. Each process has their advantages and disadvantages. DC has low capital  
556 investment and can better handle thermally labile drug compounds, but as we have  
557 demonstrated the excipients must have the correct powder properties to produce tablets  
558 within the USP limits. The substantially higher capital investment IM process readily  
559 manufactures complex shapes to tight tolerances, and we have also shown the process  
560 produces densely packed oral tablets with highly dispersed API with extended-release  
561 profiles. Although, a much slower process than both DC and IM, the 3D printing process  
562 fused-filament fabrication has demonstrated a greater ability to control drug release and  
563 tablet properties through simple adjustment of the printing parameters. By modifying layer  
564 height and infill percentage, it was possible to modify 24 hr drug release from 92% down to  
565 50% without any changes to infrastructure, formulation or equipment. This kind of  
566 flexibility could make 3D printing process the key enabling technology for the  
567 modification of drug dosage forms for personalized treatment.

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571

572 **Transparency declarations**

573 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

574

575

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875 **Figure Captions**

876 **Fig. 1.** Process flow chart detailing the different process steps and flow of materials in  
877 this study.

878 **Fig. 2.** CAD design of a flat-face plain tablet for (a) fused-filament fabrication (b)  
879 injection molding (scale 1:2).

880 **Fig. 3.** 3DP PCL samples of different infill percentages and patterns, (a) 25% infill, (b)  
881 50% infill, (c) 75% infill, (d) 100% infill, (e) Diamond, (f) Hexagonal, (g) Moroccanstar,  
882 (h) Linear. 25% infill was used for all different infill patterns. **Scale bars represents 1 mm**  
883 **for Figure 3 (c) and Figure 3 (d), for the rest, the bar represents 10 mm.**

884

885 **Fig. 4.** SEM images of the three tablets and the model drug used in this study at two  
886 different magnifications: (a) DC tablet, mag: 100X; (b) DC tablet, mag: 250KX; (c) DC  
887 tablet, mag: 1KX; (d) FFF1 (25% infill) tablet, mag: 100X; (e), FFF1 (25% infill) tablet,  
888 mag: 250X; (f) FFF1 (25% infill) tablet, mag: 1KX; (g) FFF4 (100% infill), mag: 100X; (h)  
889 FFF4 (100% infill), mag: 250X; (i) FFF4 (100% infill), mag: 1KX; (j) IM tablet, mag:  
890 100X; (k) IM tablet, mag: 250X; (l) IM tablet, mag: 1KX; (m) Caffeine, mag: 250X; (n)  
891 Caffeine, mag: 1KX; (o) Caffeine, mag: 2.8KX. Scale bars represent, from left to right, 500  
892  $\mu\text{m}$ , 200  $\mu\text{m}$  and 50  $\mu\text{m}$  respectively for all rows of images above except caffeine images  
893 (Fig 4 (m), (n) and (o)). Scale bars on Fig 4 (m), Fig 4 (n) and Fig 4 (o) represent 200  $\mu\text{m}$ .  
894 50  $\mu\text{m}$  and 20  $\mu\text{m}$ .

895

896 **Fig. 5.** Weight uniformity mean values for all FFF tablets (n = 10).

897

898 **Fig. 6.** Weight uniformity mean values for tablets manufactured using three different  
899 production methods (n = 10).

900

901 **Fig. 7.** FFF tablet hardness (N) values represented in Newton with standard deviation (n =  
902 11).

903

904 **Fig. 8.** Tablet hardness values in Newton across three different manufacturing processes (n  
905 = 11).

906

907 **Fig. 9.** Overlaid DSC thermograms of the model drug caffeine and tablets manufactured in  
908 this study.

909

910 **Fig. 10.** Uniformity of drug content for tablets manufactured using three different  
911 production methods. Horizontal lines represent the  $\pm 15\%$  threshold for drug content  
912 tolerance (n=10).

913

914 **Fig. 11.** Cumulative caffeine release over 48hr in HCl 1.2 pH, 0.2M media for different  
915 tablets produced via 3DP with different layer heights and 25% linear infill. FFF1: 0.2 mm,  
916 FFF9: 0.3 mm, FFF10: 0.4 mm.

917

918 **Fig. 12.** Cumulative caffeine release over 48 hrs in HCl 1.2 pH, 0.2M media for different  
919 tablets produced via 3DP with different infill patterns at 25% infill and 0.2 mm layer  
920 height. FFF1: linear, FFF5: Moroccanstar, FFF7: Diamond.

921

922 **Fig. 13.** Cumulative caffeine release over 48 hrs in HCl 1.2 pH, 0.2M media for different  
923 tablets produced via 3DP with different linear infill percentages and 0.2 mm layer height.  
924 FFF1: 25% infill, FFF2: 50% infill, FFF3: 75% infill.

925

926 **Fig. 14.** Cumulative caffeine release over 48 hrs in HCl 1.2 pH, 0.2M media for different  
927 tablets produced via three different manufacturing processes using the same formulation.

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**Table 1.**

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Formulation profile used in the production of all three tablet types.

942

The values represent the composition by weight as a percentage

943

(w/w)

PVP-VA (%)	Caffeine (%)	PCL (%)	PEO (%)
28.5	5.0	57.0	9.5

944

945



946

**Table 2.**

947

Temperature profile in Celsius (°C) for twin-screw compounding HME process to produce filament.

Zone 1 (°C)	Zone 2 (°C)	Zone 3 (°C)	Zone 4 (°C)	Zone 5 (°C)	Zone 6 (°C)	Flange (°C)	Die (°C)
80	90	100	110	120	130	140	140

Screw speed: 80 RPM, Feeding rate: 0.4 kg/hr.

948

949

950

**Table 3.**

951

Different 3D printing parameters used in this body of work for the fabrication of tablets.

Tablet Name	Infill Percentage	Infill Pattern	Layer Height
FFF1	25 %	Linear	0.2 mm
FFF2	50 %	Linear	0.2 mm
FFF3	75 %	Linear	0.2 mm
FFF4	100 %	Linear	0.2 mm
FFF5	25 %	Moroccanstar	0.2 mm
FFF6	25 %	Hexagonal	0.2 mm
FFF7	25 %	Diamond	0.2 mm
FFF8	25 %	Linear	0.1 mm
FFF9	25 %	Linear	0.3 mm
FFF10	25 %	Linear	0.4 mm

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**Table 4.**

Injection molding manufacturing profile used in this work.

	Zone 1	Zone 2	Zone 3	Zone 4	Zone 5	Nozzle
Temperature (°C)	30	120	130	140	150	160

Holding time (sec): 6.5; Cooling time (sec): 60; Holding Pressure (bar): 200; Injection Pressure (bar): 450;  
Back Pressure (bar): 15.

956  
957

958 **Table 5**

959 Observed transitions on DSC thermographs the model drug caffeine and the three different oral tablets

Sample	Glass transition (°C)	Melting (°C)
FFF	108.66	66.27
IM	108.10	63.89
DC	-	66.55   214.85   240.73
Caffeine	-	240.89

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