

Tunable drug release from blend poly(vinyl pyrrolidone)-ethyl cellulose nanofibers

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Abstract

The management of pain and inflammation arising from wounds is essential in obtaining effective healing rates. The application of a wound dressing loaded with an anti-inflammatory drug would enable both issues to be ameliorated, and the aim of this work was to fabricate such a dressing by electrospinning. Fibers comprising ethyl cellulose (EC) and poly(vinyl pyrrolidone) (PVP) loaded with naproxen (Nap) were developed to be used in the early stages of wound care. A family of PVP/EC/Nap systems was prepared by varying the PVP: EC ratio. In all cases, the products of electrospinning comprise non-woven mats of fibers which generally have smooth and cylindrical morphologies. The formulations exist as amorphous solid dispersions, and there appear to be intermolecular interactions between all three components. Adjusting the polymer ratios results in tunable drug release, and formulations have been produced which give zero-order drug release over 20 and 80h. The fiber mats generated in this work thus have great potential to be used as dressings for the treatment of wound pain and inflammation.

27 **Keywords:** Naproxen, wound dressing, electrospinning, poly(vinyl pyrrolidone), ethyl cellulose

28

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Pain arising from acute or chronic wounds has a highly detrimental impact on patients' quality of life
31 (Moffatt et al., 2002). Wound healing is often delayed by poor pain management, which leads to
32 stress and affects both the physical and psychological wellbeing of the patient (Moffatt et al., 2002;
33 Woo 2012; Vinklárková et al., 2015). Further, a number of chemical mediators (e.g. serotonin,
34 leukotrienes, histamine) are released from wounded tissues, and often lead to neurogenic
35 inflammation and enhanced sensitivity to pain (Julius and Basbaum, 2001). To reduce inflammation
36 arising from wounded tissue, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) are often prescribed
37 as they possess excellent analgesic activity and can bring about local pain relief if present at suitable
38 concentrations at the wound site. This can be a challenge with systemic administration, but when
39 applied topically NSAIDs can effectively relieve pain from wounds (Moffatt et al., 2002; Vinklárková
40 et al., 2015; Yurdasiper et al., 2018).

41

42 Naproxen (Nap) is a NSAID which gives analgesic, antipyretic and anti-inflammatory effects through
43 non-selective inhibition of the COX-1 and COX-2 enzymes. It is used to relieve inflammation,
44 swelling, and joint pain (Üstünda et al., 2011; Attia, 2009). Nap is a Biopharmaceutical Classification
45 System (BCS) class II drug, and hence its bioavailability is limited by its low propensity to dissolution
46 (Allesø et al., 2009). In addition, the efficacy of oral naproxen is limited by adverse side effects, such
47 as irritation and ulceration of the gastro-intestinal mucosa, nausea, and systemic toxicity (Huang et
48 al., 2012; Bushra and Aslam, 2010). In the case of wounds, topical delivery of Nap can be used to
49 avoid many of the side effects arising from the oral route. It can also extend the period of therapeutic
50 action at the wound site (Üstünda et al., 2011). However, one major drawback in the topical
51 application of drugs is the need to frequently remove and reapply the dressing or dosage form: such
52 handling can significantly exacerbate acute wounds. A better solution would be to have a dressing

53 comprising a smart fabric giving sustained release over a prolonged period of time, thus eliminating
54 the need for frequent changes in dressings and reducing inflammation during wound healing (Wang
55 and Windbergs, 2011).

56

57 To prepare smart fabric dressings, electrospinning can be employed. This is a versatile method of
58 preparing textiles with tunable properties, and is suitable for many applications (Wang and
59 Windbergs, 2011; Frenot and Chronakis, 2013; Ramakrishna et al., 2006; Bhardwaj and Kundu, 2010;
60 Farokhi et al., 2018). The primary components of the electrospinning apparatus consist of a syringe
61 attached to a metal needle (the “spinneret”), a high voltage power supply, and a metal collector. A
62 polymer solution is prepared in a volatile solvent, and loaded into a syringe. The solution is then
63 ejected through the spinneret towards the collector at a controlled rate, with a high voltage applied
64 between the two. This electric field causes repulsive charges to build up on the surface of the liquid
65 droplet at the tip of the needle, deforming the droplet into a conical shape (the Taylor cone). The
66 moment repulsive forces overcome the surface tension, a jet is ejected from the tip of the cone; this
67 subsequently narrows as the jet approaches the collector, resulting in the deposition of a mat of solid
68 fibers (typically with diameters on the nm scale) on the collector (Wang and Windbergs, 2011; Frenot
69 and Chronakis, 2013; Ramakrishna et al., 2006; Ahmed et al., 2015).

70

71 Electrospun fiber mats have high surface area to volume ratios, high levels of porosity, and can
72 incorporate high loadings of a functional component; this gives them applications in a number of
73 fields including water filtration, catalysis, sensing, biomedical applications and drug delivery (Wang
74 and Windbergs, 2011; Frenot and Chronakis, 2013; Ramakrishna et al., 2006; Bhardwaj and Kundu,
75 2010; Ahmed et al., 2015; Yu et al., 2013; Li et al., 2017; Kaassis et al., 2014; Quan et al., 2013; Tort
76 et al., 2017; Kamble et al., 2017). While in the simplest experiment only a single solution is processed,
77 resulting in monolithic fibers, it is also possible to work with multiple solutions at the same time,
78 giving materials with core/shell or other nanoscale architectures (Heydari et al., 2018; Zhao et al.,

79 2005; Yang et al., 2017). Scale up of the process is also possible (Démuth et al., 2016). Electrospun
80 fibers have been shown to have great potential in a range of areas of biomedicine, including wound
81 healing. For instance, Kataria et al. (2014) reported an electrospun ciprofloxacin-loaded poly(vinyl
82 alcohol) / sodium alginate formulation with high entrapment efficiency, extended drug release
83 kinetics, and potent activity in an *in vivo* rabbit study. Electrospun fibers have clear potential for
84 application in a range of settings in the clinic (Liu et al, 2018; Williams, Raimi-Abraham and Luo,
85 2018), and a Phase IIb clinical trial of an electrospun product for the treatment of mucosal lesions is
86 currently underway (<https://clinicaltrials.gov/ct2/show/NCT03592342>).

87

88 Perhaps most commonly, electrospun fibers have been used to accelerate the dissolution of poorly
89 water soluble drugs such as naproxen and ibuprofen (Yu et al., 2009). This can be very desirable to
90 give rapid relief of symptoms, but often a more complex drug delivery profile is required. A drug
91 delivery system (DDS) combining two polymers with different properties offers the potential to
92 deliver novel and tunable drug release profiles even from a single fluid electrospinning process
93 (Kaassis et al., 2014). Poly(vinylpyrrolidone) (PVP) is a US FDA approved biocompatible, non-toxic,
94 fast dissolving polymer that is widely used in drug formulations (Koczur et al., 2015; Illangakoon
95 et al., 2014; Fischer and Bauer, 2009). It has been investigated extensively for the preparation of fast-
96 dissolving electrospun materials containing for instance ibuprofen (Yu et al., 2009) or paracetamol
97 and caffeine (Illangakoon et al., 2014). For extended release times, insoluble polymers are typically
98 used. One such material is ethyl cellulose (EC), which has excellent biocompatibility and
99 hydrophobic properties, leading to sustained drug release (Yu et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2012; Ahmad
100 et al., 2013). Electrospun EC formulations have been prepared loaded with a number of drugs (e.g.
101 ketoprofen) (Huang et al., 2012). PVP and EC have also been electrospun together in a coaxial
102 experiment to give core-sheath fibers with tunable biphasic drug release properties (Yu et al., 2013).

103

104 In this work, we sought to use blends of PVP and EC to generate a family of electrospun fibers with
105 tunable drug release, through incremental variation of the polymer mass ratios. Combining the two
106 polymers both allows us to tune the drug release profile and also to produce fibers using a low
107 viscosity (4 cP) EC solution. Although coaxial electrospinning of PVP and EC has been reported
108 previously (Yu et al., 2013), this previous study used two separate solutions (one of EC, one of PVP)
109 rather than a blend and a complex coaxial electrospinning process was required to generate fibers.
110 The simple blend approach here is beneficial because it is much easier to scale up and translate to an
111 industrial setting. The materials were loaded with naproxen, and characterized in terms of their
112 morphology, physical form, and drug release properties. A wide range of drug release profiles are
113 seen from the PVP/EC formulations, which therefore have potential to be used as smart dressings for
114 the treatment of inflammation in early wound healing.

115

116 **2. Experimental details**

117 **2.1 Materials**

118 Polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP; average molecular weight 360,000 Da), ethyl cellulose (EC; 48% ethoxy,
119 4 cP), and phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Ltd. Naproxen
120 sodium was procured from Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc. All other chemicals used were analytical
121 grade, and water was doubly distilled before use.

122

123 **2.2 Preparation of neutral naproxen**

124 1 g of naproxen sodium was dissolved in 50 mL of 37% w/w aqueous HCl to convert the salt to its
125 acid form. The precipitate was washed with distilled water until blue litmus paper showed no change
126 in colour.

127

128

129

130 2.3 Preparation of electrospinning solutions

131 Solubility testing was initially carried out determine the most appropriate solvent in which to co-
132 dissolve all three components of the fibers (PVP, EC, and naproxen [Nap]). Ethanol was found
133 suitable for this, and thus selected for use owing to its low cost and low toxicity. PVP, EC and Nap
134 were co-dissolved in ethanol under magnetic stirring for 12 h at room temperature, to yield clear and
135 homogenous solutions with a total polymer concentration of 10% w/v and Nap concentration of 2.5%
136 w/v. The w/w component ratio of PVP to EC was varied as shown in Table 1, and a series of spinning
137 solutions prepared. Solution viscosity was measured using a Bohlin Gemini 150 rotational rheometer
138 (Malvern) at a shear rate of 199.1 s^{-1} .

139

140 **Table 1:** Details of the electrospinning solutions and fibers prepared in this work.

Formulation	Solution			Fiber product			
	PVP:EC ratio (w/w)	Nap (% w/v)	Viscosity (Pa) ^a	PVP (% w/w)	EC (% w/w)	Nap (% w/w)	Surface tension (mN) ^b
F0	3:2	-	0.236	60	40	-	27.2 ± 0.7
PVP/EC(4:1)	4:1	2.5	0.298	64	16	20	13.8 ± 4.6
PVP/EC(3:2)	3:2	2.5	0.182	48	32	20	27.9 ± 1.0
PVP/EC(1:1)	1:1	2.5	0.220	40	40	20	28.2 ± 1.3
PVP/EC(2:3)	2:3	2.5	0.250	32	48	20	28.7 ± 1.5
PVP/EC(1:2)	1:2	2.5	0.159	26.7	53.3	20	27.0 ± 1.0
PVP/EC(1:4)	1:4	2.5	0.137	16	64	20	26.4 ± 0.7

141 ^a At a shear rate of 199.1 s^{-1} . ^b This refers to the tension between the fiber mat and the Kibron probe.

142

143 2.4 Electrospinning

144 The required solution was loaded into a 5.0 mL Terumo plastic syringe, which was attached to a metal
145 spinneret (internal diameter 0.61 mm, 20G). A syringe pump (KDS100, Cole-Parmer) was used to
146 dispense the solution at a flow rate of 1.0 mL/h. A FuG Elektronik HCP35-35000 power supply was
147 employed to apply a voltage of 16 kV (selected after a series of optimization experiments) between
148 the spinneret and a grounded collector located 20 cm away. The latter comprised a metal plate of 15
149 \times 20 cm covered with aluminium foil. Spinning was conducted at room temperature (ca. $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) for 5
150 h. The fiber mats produced were then removed from the collector and stored in a vacuum desiccator
151 at room temperature to remove any residual solvent.

152

153 **2.5 Fiber characterization**

154 *2.5.1 Morphology*

155 The fibers were visualized using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) on a FEI Quanta 200F
156 instrument. Prior to scanning, samples were gold sputtered to make them electrically conductive. The
157 images obtained were analyzed using the ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health). The fiber
158 diameters were measured at >100 locations for each sample to determine their mean size.

159

160 *2.5.2 Surface properties, physical form, and component compatibility*

161 Surface tension was determined using a Delta-8 instrument (Kibron), with samples measured at least
162 6 times. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) was carried out using a Q2000 instrument (TA
163 Instruments). Samples were loaded into sealed and pin-holed Tzero pans, and heated from 40 to 200
164 °C at 10 °C min⁻¹ under a flow of nitrogen (50 mL min⁻¹). X-ray diffraction (XRD) was undertaken
165 on Stoe STADI-P diffractometer supplied with Mo K α_1 radiation (0.7093Å; 50kV and 30mA).
166 Patterns were collected over the 2 θ range 2 to 30°. Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy
167 was performed on a Perkin-Elmer Spectrum 100 instrument, over the range 650–4000 cm⁻¹ at a
168 resolution of 1 cm⁻¹. Surface

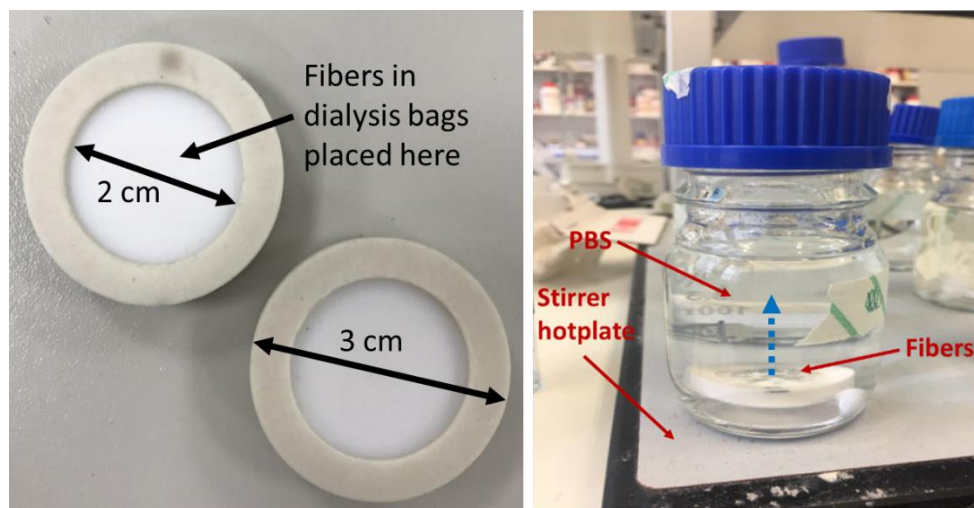
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170 *2.5.3 In vitro drug release*

171 A sample of ca. 10 mg was cut from each fiber mat and enclosed in dialysis tubing (molecular weight
172 cut-off 3,500 Da). The tubing was then sealed with plastic clips (Fig. 1). Once the dialysis bags are
173 sealed inside the clips only one side of the mat surface is exposed to the release media, which goes
174 some way towards mimicking release into a wound site. Each disk was immersed in 100 mL of PBS
175 at pH 7.4 and stirred at 110 rpm and 37° C. Aliquots (2 mL) were removed at regular intervals and
176 the release medium replenished with fresh preheated PBS. The Nap concentration in the aliquots was
177 quantified by UV spectroscopy (UV-Cary 100 instrument) at 230 nm. Where necessary, dilution with

178 PBS) of the aliquots was carried out to obtain absorption values in the linear region of the calibration
179 plot (0.2-0.7) absorption region. Experiments were performed in triplicate (n=3). A control
180 experiment was carried out using 2 mg of Nap.

181



182

183 **Fig. 1:** Digital photographs of the dissolution discs used in this study. The image on the left shows
184 the discs and their dimensions, and that on the right the complete release set-up. The dotted line on
185 the right indicates the drug release direction.
186

187 3. Results and discussion

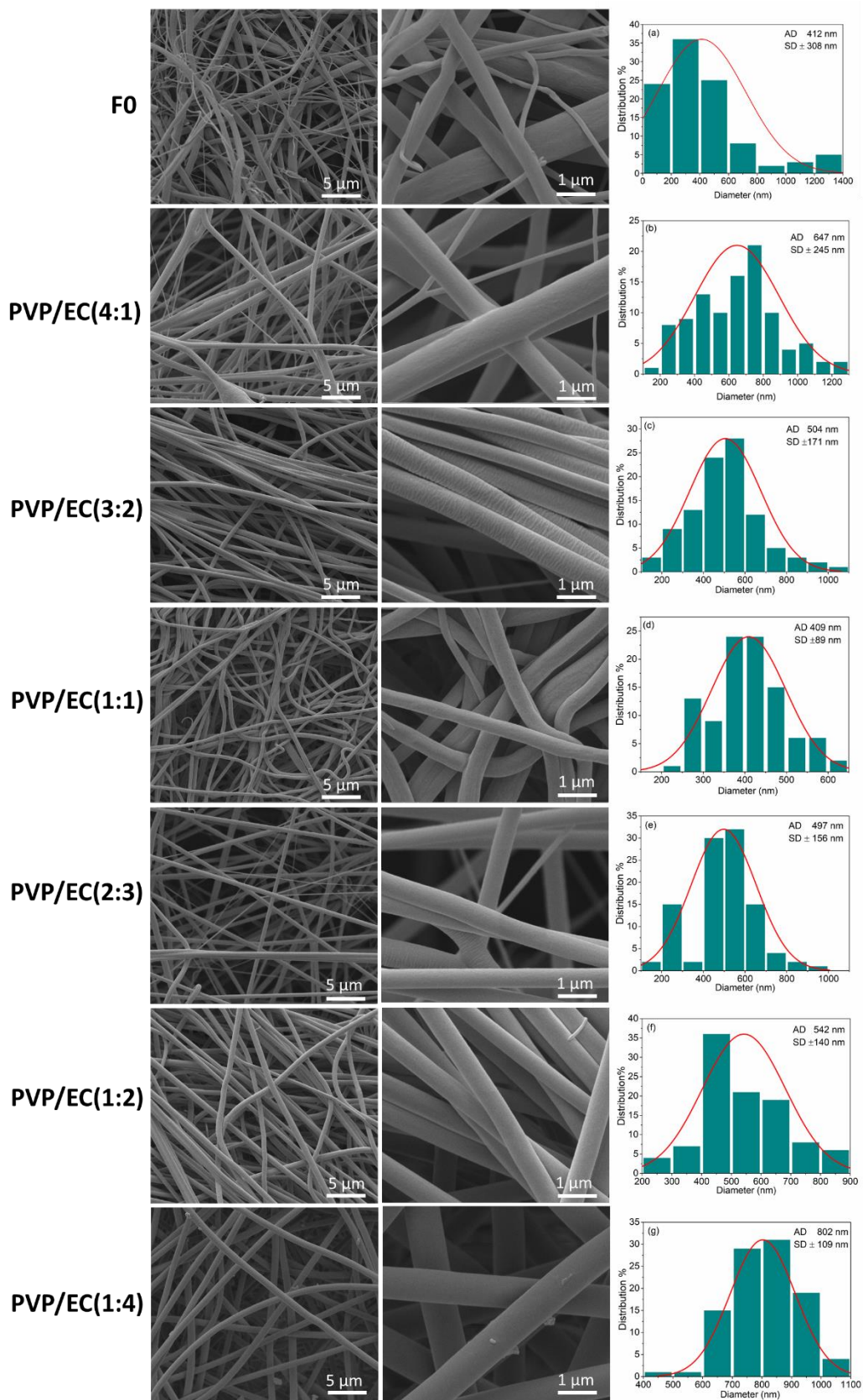
188 3.1 Fiber morphology and surface properties

189 Fibers were successfully produced in all cases, and in general have smooth and cylindrical
190 morphologies (Fig. 2). The blank F0 formulation gave fibers with a rough surface, two apparent size
191 populations, and a mean diameter of 412 ± 308 nm. The drug-loaded fiber series PVP/EC(4:1) to
192 PVP/EC(1:4) showed gradual morphological changes with the variation of the PVP: EC ratio. The
193 PVP/EC(4:1) formulation possessed a range of fiber diameters with the mean diameter lying at $647 \pm$
194 245 nm. Two distinct populations of fibers can be seen, one with much greater diameter than the
195 other. When the PVP : EC ratio was reduced to 3:2 w/w the fibers showed more uniformity in their
196 diameter (505 ± 171 nm), but there are wrinkles visible on the fiber surfaces. The PVP/EC(1:1) system
197 (1:1 w/w ratio) appeared similar, but with more curvature noted and reduced wrinkling. PVP/EC(1:1)
198 has a slightly smaller diameter than PVP/EC(3:2) at 409 ± 89 nm. PVP/EC(2:3) showed two

199 significant fiber populations, similar to PVP/EC(4:1), and mean diameters of 497 ± 156 nm. The
200 PVP/EC(1:2) fibers are smooth and cylindrical, with diameters of 542 ± 140 nm. PVP/EC(1:4) also
201 contains smooth and cylindrical fibers, but with markedly higher diameters (802 ± 109 nm). There
202 are also some small particles visible on the fiber surfaces. Overall, although it is clear that the polymer
203 ratio does affect the fiber size and size uniformity, there are no clear trends in the data. It appears the
204 solutions of medium viscosity give the narrowest fibers (Fig. S1, Supplementary Information).

205

206 The surface tension of the fibers was also determined (Table 1). Other than the PVP/EC(4:1)
207 formulation, which has a markedly lower surface tension than the other samples owing to its very
208 high PVP content, the values are essentially identical for all the samples.



209

210

Fig. 2: SEM images of the PVP/EC/Nap nanofibers, together with their size distributions.

211

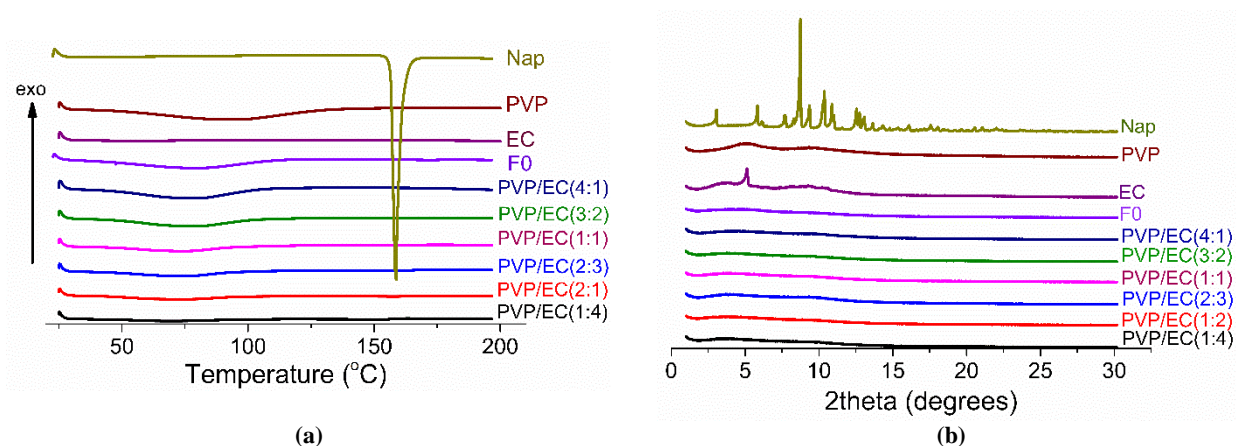
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213 3.2 *Physical form*

214 DSC and XRD were employed to characterize the physical form of Nap in the six electrospun
215 formulations. DSC thermograms are shown in Fig. 3a. The DSC thermogram of pure naproxen
216 exhibits a sharp melting endotherm at 159.4 °C, in good agreement with the values reported for
217 neutral naproxen in the literature (Hadi et al., 2014). The raw drug material is hence crystalline.
218 Neither pure PVP nor EC show any fusion peaks or phase transitions in their DSC traces, indicating
219 their amorphous nature. In the case of PVP, a broad endotherm arising from water loss can be seen
220 ranging from ca. 50 to 150 °C. Similarly to PVP, the fibers show only broad endotherms (between ca.
221 80 and 120 °C) consistent with water loss, and no melting events can be seen. This can be attributed
222 to Nap being present in the amorphous form in the fibers (Yu et al., 2009; Yu et al., 2013). The glass
223 transition temperature is not always clear, but in most of the systems there is a T_g visible between 150
224 and 175 °C (Fig. S2). The water loss endotherm can be seen to decline in intensity as the EC content
225 of the fibers increases, and is much more obvious in the case of PVP/EC(4:1) than PVP/EC(1:4).

226
227 XRD patterns are presented in Fig. 3b. The pure Nap powder displays numerous sharp reflections in
228 its pattern. This confirms the crystalline nature of the pure drug (Akduman et al., 2014). The
229 diffraction patterns of PVP and EC comprise a diffuse background with broad halos and no Bragg
230 diffraction. The neat polymers are therefore amorphous, as reported in the literature (Yu et al., 2013;
231 Trivedi et al., 2015). The drug-free F0 fibers do not show any Bragg reflections, as expected given
232 the amorphous nature of both constituent polymers. Similarly, the drug-loaded fibers PVP/EC(4:1)
233 to PVP/EC(1:4) display only the broad haloes typical of amorphous materials. Therefore, it can be
234 concluded that Nap is dispersed in the fibers in an amorphous state, which concurs with the DSC
235 observations. Similar findings have been reported in several previous studies on electrospun
236 formulations (Yu et al., 2009; Akduman et al., 2014). During electrospinning the solvent is evaporated
237 at a rapid rate, leading to very quick solidification of the initial solution. This means that the Nap
238 molecules do not have time during drying to organize themselves into the regular arrangement of a

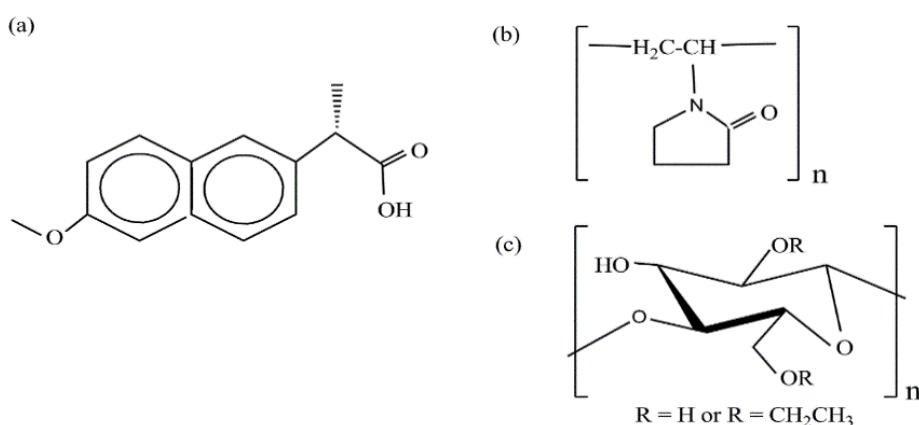
239 crystal structure, and thus electrospinning generally gives amorphous products with random
240 arrangements of molecules similar to that present in the solution state (Yu et al., 2013).



241 **Fig. 3:** (a) DSC thermograms and (b) XRD patterns of the formulations and raw materials. The
242 peak at 5° in the EC pattern is an artefact from the experimental set-up.
243

244 3.3 Component compatibility

245 To obtain high-quality and stable amorphous composites compatibility among the components (PVP,
246 EC and Nap) is of crucial importance. This was investigated through FTIR analysis. The chemical
247 structures of the components are given in Fig. 4. Nap, PVP and EC have free hydroxyl groups and
248 carbonyl groups which can form proton donor-proton receptor interactions. Therefore, it can be
249 assumed that hydrogen-bond interactions may occur within the Nap-loaded PVP/EC nanofiber
250 formulations (Yu et al., 2013).



251

252 **Fig. 4:** Chemical structures of (a) Nap, (b) PVP, and (c) EC.

253 IR spectra are shown in Fig. 5. For blank PVP, the characteristic peaks of C=O and C-N stretching
254 appear at 1651 and 1284 cm⁻¹ respectively (Yu et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2013). EC

255 shows characteristic peaks at 1052 and 1375 cm^{-1} , indicating C-O-C stretching and -CH bending,
256 respectively. Bands at 2972 and 2870 cm^{-1} arise from -CH stretching vibrations. These peaks are
257 observed in all the fiber formulations without any significant changes in peak positions (Akduman et
258 al., 2014). With the increase in EC content moving from PVP/EC(4:1) to PVP/EC(1:4), the intensity
259 of the peak at 1052 cm^{-1} was observed to increase, while bands attributable to PVP (1660 – 1674 cm^{-1})
260 decline in intensity. The C=O peak of PVP increases in wavenumber (from 1658 – 1674 cm^{-1}) as
261 the amount of EC in the system rises, which might indicate H-bonding between EC and PVP and/or
262 PVP and Nap.

263

264 Nap has vibration bands at 1726 cm^{-1} from C=O stretching, at 1227 cm^{-1} from C–O–C- stretching, at
265 1394 cm^{-1} due to CH_3 bending, and at 1604 cm^{-1} from aromatic C=C vibrations (Hadi et al., 2014;
266 Akduman et al., 2014; Hadi et al., 2015; Akbari et al, 2015). The C=O and C=C stretches of Nap are
267 visible in the spectra of all the drug-loaded fibers, with slight shifts in position to 1606 cm^{-1} and 1723-
268 1727 cm^{-1} . This both confirms the presence of Nap in the formulations and the likely presence of H-
269 bonding interactions with the two polymers (Akduman et al., 2014).

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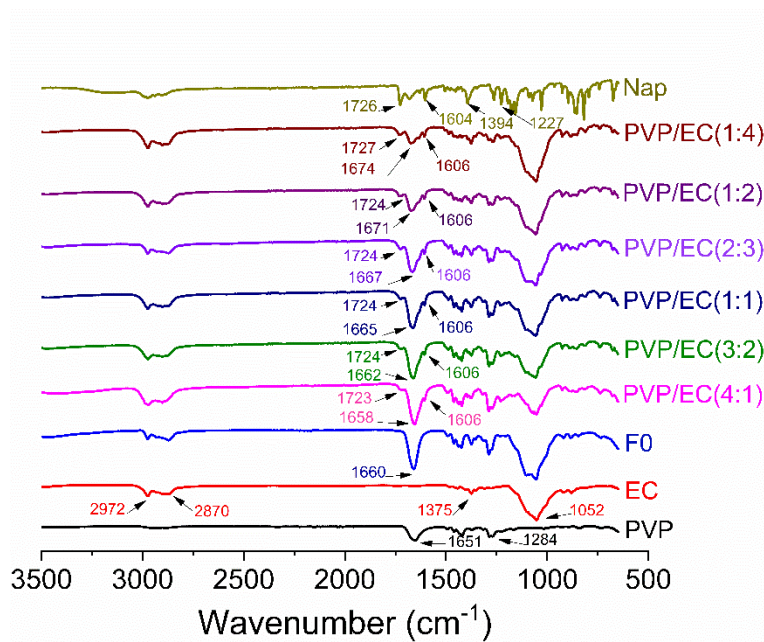


Fig. 5: FTIR spectra of the fibers and raw materials

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273

274

275 3.5 *In vitro drug release*

276 Nap shows a UV absorbance peak at 230 nm when dissolved in PBS at pH 7.4. The amount of Nap
 277 released from the fibers was hence determined by UV spectroscopy, using a calibration curve $A =$
 278 $0.3381C + 0.014$ ($R^2 = 0.9956$), where C is the concentration of Nap (mg/L), and A is the solution
 279 absorbance at 230 nm (linear range 0.6 – 2 mg/L). The *in vitro* drug release profiles of the six
 280 formulations are depicted in Fig. 6. A control experiment was performed using 2 mg of pure Nap, but
 281 no release was detected under these experimental conditions owing to its poor solubility. It is clear
 282 that the fiber formulations offer clear advantages over the pure drug, accelerating release to give a
 283 range of profiles under the experimental conditions used in this work. While the pure drug could not
 284 usefully be applied to a wound site to yield a therapeutic effect, the fibers could.

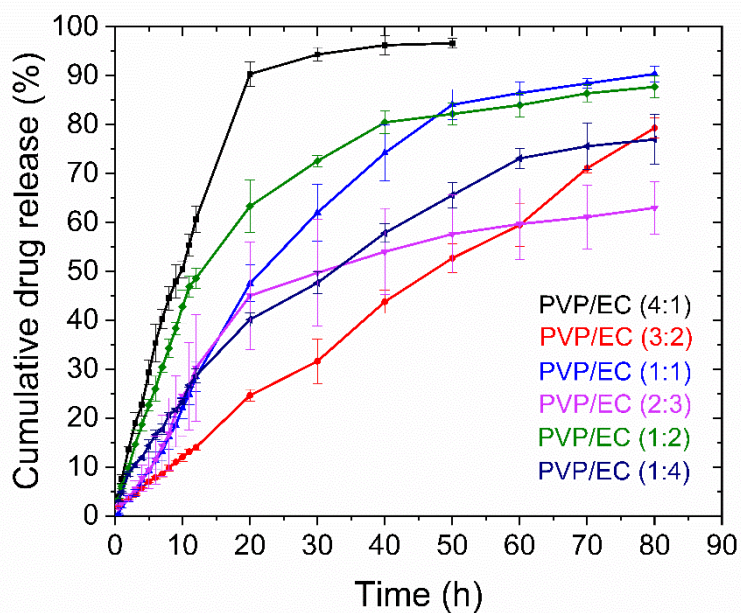


Fig. 6: *In vitro* drug release profiles. Data are shown as mean \pm S.D. (n =3).

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286

287

288 The PVP/EC(4:1) formulation, which has the highest PVP content, showed the fastest release of Nap
 289 (90% Nap released in the first 20 h). This can be ascribed to the hydrophilicity of PVP; when the
 290 content of EC was increased the release of Nap was retarded due to the hydrophobicity of EC. These
 291 results are in agreement with the findings of Huang et al. in their work with tri-layered PVP/EC
 292 meshes (Huang et al., 2012). However, it is clear from Fig. 6 that there is no clear trend in the data in
 293 terms of how drug release varies with the PVP/EC content. It is interesting though that two of the
 294 formulations provide approximately zero-order drug release profiles: PVP/EC(4:1) gives linear
 295 release over 20 h, while PVP/EC(3:2) gives linear release over 80 h. PVP/EC(4:1) might be useful in
 296 applications where Nap release is needed only for a short period (acute wounds), while PVP/EC(3:2)
 297 could be utilized for chronic wounds where administration of Nap might be required for a longer
 298 period of time. Zero order release has been seen previously from electrospun fibers, but only by using
 299 complicated multi-liquid processes such as triaxial and modified triaxial electrospinning (Yu et al.,
 300 2015; Yang et al., 2017). Here, we achieve such a release profile with a simple blend system, which
 301 will be much more amenable to industrial applications and scale-up.

302

303 The zero order model is defined by the equation

304
$$Q_t = Q_0 + k_0 t$$

305 where Q_t is the amount of drug dissolved in time t , Q_0 is the initial amount of drug in the solution ($Q_0 = 0$) and k_0 is the zero order release constant. The fits of the zero order model to PVP/EC(4:1) and PVP/EC(3:2) are summarized in Table 2, with the graphical plots in Fig. 7.

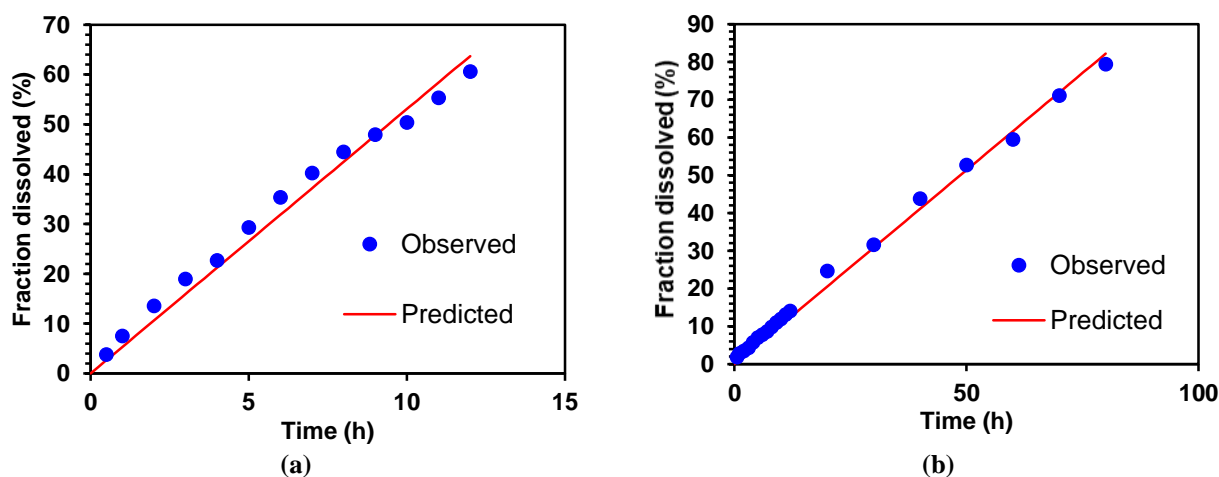
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309 **Table 2:** Kinetic parameters calculated using the zero-order model.

Formulation	k_0 (h^{-1})	R^2
PVP/EC(4:1)	5.01	0.9667
PVP/EC(3:2)	1.03	0.9935

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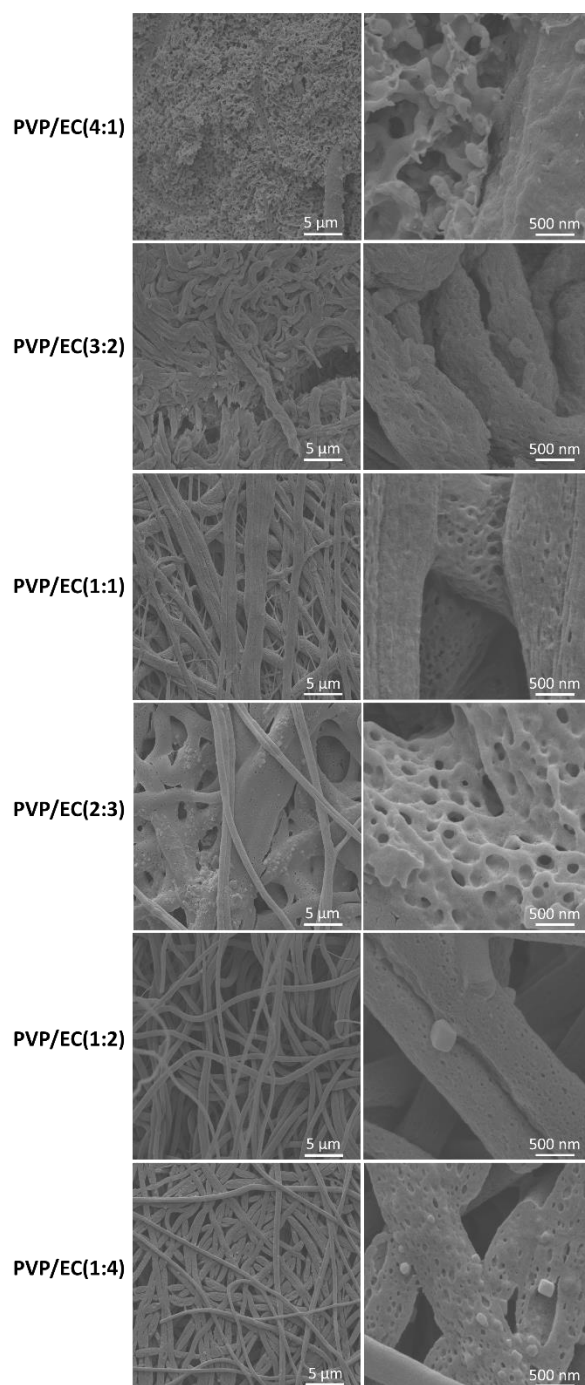


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313 **Fig. 7:** Fits of the zero-order model to (a) PVP/EC(4:1) and (b) PVP/EC(3:2).

314

315 To gain further insight into the release mechanisms, SEM images were obtained of the fiber mats
316 after the end of *in vitro* studies (Fig. 8).



317

318

Fig. 8: The morphology of the fibers after *in vitro* drug release studies.

319

320 PVP is readily dissolved in water, as is apparent from all the SEM images in Fig. 8. The formulation
 321 with highest PVP content, PVP/EC(4:1), has completely lost its fibrous structure after drug release,
 322 and resembles an irregular film shape arising from the remaining (insoluble) EC. In all the other
 323 formulations, fibers can still be observed in the SEM images, but these have become porous as a result
 324 of the PVP dissolving and Nap being freed into the release medium. As the EC content rises, the fiber

325 morphology after drug release is increasingly clear, and while merging of fibers is visible for
326 PVP/EC(3:2) and PVP/EC(1:1) individual fibers remain with the PVP/EC(1:4) material. There
327 appear to be no clear correlations between the release profiles and the post-release fiber morphology.
328 The images do however indicate there are different patterns of drug/polymer distribution in the
329 different fibers. The residual material will comprise EC and any drug trapped within it. In the case of
330 PVP/EC(3:2), there are large pores visible, suggesting that there were large areas of the fibers which
331 were very PVP-rich and dissolved away. This might explain why there appear to be two distinct
332 phases of release from this material: one rapid from the PVP-rich zones, and one slow from the EC
333 zones. Some drug remains trapped in the EC regions of the fibers, which is why this system gives the
334 lowest overall release percentage. Except for PVP/EC(4:1), the SEM images of the other fibers are
335 more similar, showing evenly distributed but small pores. This might indicate a more homogeneous
336 mixing of PVP and EC in these formulations.

337

338 **4. Conclusions**

339 Monoaxial electrospinning was used in this work to prepare blend nanofibers of
340 poly(vinylpyrrolidone) (PVP) and ethyl cellulose (EC) loaded with naproxen. The fibers are generally
341 found to be smooth and cylindrical, with diameters ranging from 647 to 802 nm. X-ray diffraction
342 and differential scanning calorimetry verified that the fibers comprised amorphous solid dispersions,
343 and IR spectra revealed the presence of intermolecular interactions between the polymers and drug.
344 *In vitro* dissolution tests showed that it is possible to tune the drug release behavior of the fibers
345 through the PVP: EC mass ratio, albeit not in a predictable fashion. Both the PVP/EC(4:1) and
346 PVP/EC(3:2) formulations could provide zero order release profiles, the former over 20h and the
347 latter over 80h. The fibers generated in this work thus have great potential in the treatment of pain
348 and inflammation arising from wounds. Further, the EC/PVP system offers a simple platform which
349 can be used to obtain tunable zero-order drug delivery systems, something which can usually only be
350 achieved from much more complex formulation routes.

351

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