# Predictive Identification of Co-formers

# <sup>2</sup> in Co-amorphous Systems

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## 10 Abstract

11 This work aims to understand the properties of co-formers that form co-amorphous

12 pharmaceutical materials and to predict co-amorphous system formation. A partial least

13 square – discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) was performed using known co-amorphous systems

14 described by 36 variables based on the properties of the co-former and the binding energy of

15 the system. The PLS-DA investigated the propensity to form co-amorphous material of the

- 16 active pharmaceutical ingredients: mebendazole, carvedilol, indomethacin, simvastatin,
- 17 carbamazepine and furosemide in combination with 20 amino acid co-formers. The variables
- 18 that were found to favour the propensity to form co-amorphous systems appear to be a

19 relatively large value for average molecular weight and the sum of the difference between 20 hydrogen bond donors and hydrogen bond acceptors for both components, and a relatively 21 small or negative value for excess enthalpy of mixing, excess enthalpy of hydrogen bonding 22 and the difference in the Hansen parameter for hydrogen bonding of the coformer and the 23 active pharmaceutical ingredient (API). To test the predictive power of this model, 29 24 potential co-formers were used to form either co-amorphous or crystalline two-component materials with mebendazole. Of these 29 two-component systems, the co-amorphous nature 25 26 of a total of 26 materials was correctly predicted by the model, giving a predictive hit rate of 90 %. 27

## 28 Keywords

- 29 Co-amorphous
- 30 Partial least squares discriminant analysis
- 31 Amino acids
- 32 Multi-variate analysis
- 33 Molecular descriptors

# 34 1. Introduction

- 35 A large proportion of newly discovered active pharmaceutical ingredients (APIs) display
- 36 poor solubility in the gastrointestinal fluids, which is likely to decrease their bioavailability
- 37 (Di et al., 2012; Kalepu and Nekkanti, 2015; Khadka et al., 2014; Savjani et al., 2012). To

38 improve the aqueous solubility of APIs, different formulation methods have been designed 39 including amorphous forms, which have no long-range crystallographic order and higher internal energy compared with their respective crystalline forms (Berry and Steed, 2017; 40 41 Healy et al., 2017; Khodadadi and Meesters, 2018; Williams et al., 2013). However, pure 42 amorphous APIs are often physically unstable and can crystallise as a result of increased 43 molecular mobility, especially when stored above their glass transition temperature or in 44 humid environments (Kissi et al., 2018; Rams-Baron et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2012). Methods to improve the stability of amorphous APIs include the formation of amorphous solid 45 46 dispersions and co-amorphous (COAM) materials (Karagianni et al., 2018; Ma and Williams, 47 2019; Van Den Mooter, 2012; Wu et al., 2018).

48 Amorphous solid dispersions are formed by (molecularly) dispersing an API in a (usually 49 amorphous) polymer such as polyvinylpyrrolidone and cellulose based polymers, which act 50 as an inactive stabilizer (Chavan et al., 2019; Nielsen et al., 2015; Vasconcelos et al., 2016). 51 Stabilization (even above the solubility limit of the API in the polymer) is caused by the 52 polymer increasing the glass transition temperature and forming intermolecular interactions, 53 which in turn result in reduced molecular mobility (Baghel et al., 2016; Frank and Matzger, 54 2018; Medarević et al., 2019). The main challenges with using amorphous solid dispersions 55 are their often high hygroscopicity (causing increased molecular mobility of the API), and the 56 usually large mass ratios of polymer to API (causing downstream formulation problems when 57 high API dosages are required) (Marsac et al., 2008; Rumondor et al., 2009; Tian et al., 58 2015).

59 COAM systems are formed by mixing an API with a low molecular weight compound called
60 a co-former, which is usually inactive but could also be another API (Gao et al., 2013;

61 Newman et al., 2018; Shayanfar and Jouyban, 2013; Shi et al., 2019). The ratio of API to co-62 former can be relatively high which helps in the formation of high API dosage tablets (Jensen 63 et al., 2016b; Wang et al., 2019). COAM systems are similar to co-crystals with them both 64 containing two components, usually with one API and one co-former (Karimi-Jafari et al., 65 2018). The difference between co-crystals and COAM systems is that co-crystals are based 66 on a repeating three dimensional crystal lattice whereas COAM systems have no repeating 67 units and an amorphous structure (Newman et al., 2018). The physical stability of COAM 68 systems is usually higher than that of pure amorphous materials and COAM systems often 69 have improved dissolution characteristics compared to pure amorphous APIs (Löbmann et 70 al., 2013a; Löbmann et al., 2012b). COAM systems are stabilised, for example, by the 71 formation of hydrogen bonds,  $\pi$ - $\pi$  stacking and ionic bonds between the two compounds, as 72 shown by infrared spectroscopy (Löbmann et al., 2012a; Löbmann et al., 2013b). Methods to 73 produce COAM systems include co-melting, solvent evaporation and mechanochemistry 74 (Chavan et al., 2016). Co-melting involves melting the components followed by rapid cooling 75 to avoid nucleation and recrystallization (Hoppu et al., 2009; Knapik et al., 2015; Teja et al., 76 2015). A key challenge in co-melting is that some of the APIs or co-formers may thermally 77 degrade if kept at high temperatures for too long (Fan et al., 2019; Goodwin et al., 2018). Solvent evaporation involves dissolving the two components into a solvent or solvent mixture 78 79 followed by rapidly evaporating the solvent to prevent nucleation and recrystallization 80 (Ahmed Mahmoud Abdelhaleem et al., 2015; Yamamura et al., 2002). However, finding a 81 solvent or solvent mixture which can dissolve both the co-former and the API without one 82 component crystallising prematurely is a challenge (Mishra et al., 2018). Mechanochemistry 83 involves using mechanical stress to reduce crystallinity and induce intimate mixing (Chieng 84 et al., 2009; Hu et al., 2014). The conventional method used for mechanochemistry is milling. 85 A low temperature is preferred during milling to promote the formation of an amorphous

86 material by keeping the mixture below the glass transition temperature of the amorphous
87 system (Blaabjerg et al., 2017).

88 The possible co-formers used to form COAM systems are numerous but there is no clear 89 method of predicting whether a certain co-former will form a COAM system with a specific 90 API. Mizoguchi et al. (2019) linked the formation of COAM systems to the mixing enthalpy 91 and the difference in lipophilicity ( $\Delta log P$ ). This work used COSMOquick, a computational 92 program which uses the Conductor like Screening Model for Real Solvents (COSMO-RS) 93 method to derive charge density surfaces which describe each molecule and can be used to 94 calculate interaction energies with other components (Klamt, 2018). COSMOquick can be 95 used to screen for potential co-crystals and provides values for the Gibbs energy of mixing 96  $(\Delta G_{mix})$ , which determines whether mixing between potential co-crystal formers at constant 97 temperature and pressure is spontaneous, as well as the excess enthalpy of mixing, which is 98 the enthalpy released or absorbed upon mixing (Loschen and Klamt, 2015). Ueda et al. 99 (2016) performed a multivariate analysis of physiochemical variables of co-formers and 100 concluded that a range of these variables (crystallisation tendency, glass transition 101 temperature and molecular flexibility) contributed to COAM formation; however, this study 102 only used one API (naproxen) and a small number of co-formers (felbinac, flufenamic acid, 103 loxoprofen, ketoprofen, indomethacin, aceclofenac, indoprofen).

Meng-Lund et al. (2018) used a range of molecular descriptors to produce a PLS-DA model
to predict the likelihood of success of co-amorphisation between amino acids and an API.
The model used a dataset formed from 6 APIs and 20 amino acids from Kasten et al. (2016).
The variables used include physical properties, Hückel theory descriptors, subdivided surface
areas, atom counts, bond counts, pharmacophore feature descriptors, partial charge

descriptors, surface area, volume and shape descriptors. To test the model, one of the six APIs was left out of the model and used as a validation set. Out of the 20 systems in the validation set, 19 were correctly assigned. The model showed that polar amino acids were less likely to form COAM systems and non-polar side chains were more likely to form COAM systems. However, this model only investigated amino acid co-formers.

114 The current study aims to develop a method to improve the selection of co-formers to 115 formulate COAM systems. The previously reported COAM screen by Kasten et al. (2016) 116 was used to understand which variables affect the formation of COAM systems. Variables 117 used to describe the systems were obtained using COSMOquick to calculate properties that 118 describe the two-component systems and Pubchem to source physico-chemical variables to 119 describe the co-formers. The 36 variables from COSMOquick and Pubchem were used to 120 develop a partial least squares-discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) prediction method to identify 121 which co-formers are likely to form COAM systems.

### 122 2. Materials and Methods

123 2.1 Materials

124 Succinic acid was purchased from Avocado Research Chemicals (Heysham, UK). Glycine

125 (GLY) was purchased from BDH Chemicals Limited (Hull, UK). Carvedilol (CAR) was

126 obtained from Cilpa Ltd. (Mumbai, India). L-alanine (ALA), flurbiprofen, furosemide (FUR),

127 L-isoleucine (ILE), L-leucine (LEU), L-lysine (LYS), mebendazole (MEB) and L-tyrosine

128 (TYR) were purchased from Flourochem (Hadfield, UK). Indomethacin (IND) was purchased

129 from Hawkins Pharmaceutical group (Minnesota, USA). Urea was purchased from Lancaster

130 Synthesis (Lancaster, UK). Maleic acid was purchased from M&B Chemicals (London, UK).

131 3-aminobenzoic acid, 4-aminobenzoic acid, 4-aminosalicylic acid, 5-aminosalicylic acid, L-

132 arginine (ARG), ascorbic acid, L-asparagine (ASN), L-aspartic acid (ASP), 4,4'-bipyridine,

133 caffeine, catechol, L-cysteine (CYS), 2,4 dihydroxybenzoic acid, 3,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid,

134 fumaric acid, gallic acid, L-glutamine (GLN), L-glutamic acid (GLU), glycolic acid, L-

135 histidine (HIS), imidazole, isonicotinamide, ketoprofen, L-methionine (MET), nicotinamide,

136 oxalic acid, L-phenylalanine (PHE), phenazine, piperazine, piracetam, L-proline (PRO),

137 pyrogallol, salicylic acid, L-serine (SER), tartaric acid, theophylline, L-threonine (THR), L-

138 tryptophan (TRP) and L-valine (VAL) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Missouri, USA).

## 139 2.2 Mebendazole co-former screening

140 Ball milling was used to screen for potential COAM systems. A 1:1 molar ratio of API and co-former (total 100 mg), was placed into a 5 mL milling jar and premixed at a frequency of 141 142 30 Hz for 5 minutes without a mixing ball to homogenize the material. A stainless-steel ball 143 with a diameter of 5 mm was added and the mixture was milled at 30 Hz for 60 min. The 144 milling time of 60 min was selected due to it matching the original study the model was 145 produced from (Kasten et al., 2016). Milling was performed using a Mixer mill MM200, vibrational ball mill, from Retsch GmbH & Co. (Haan, Germany). The mixtures were 146 analysed by XRPD to assess crystallinity (see below). 147

## 148 2.3 Film casting mebendazole – gallic acid

A 1:1 molar ratio of mebendazole to gallic acid (63.5 mg: 36.5 mg), was dissolved in a
minimum amount of formic acid (approx. 10 mL). The solution was cast onto a petri dish and
the formic acid was left to evaporate. Once the mixture was dry, it was analysed by XRPD
(see below).

#### 153 2.4 X-ray powder diffraction (XRPD)

154 XRPD measurements were performed using a Bruker D8 X-ray diffractometer (Billerica,

155 Massachusetts) with CuKα radiation (1.54187 Å), and acceleration voltage and current of 40

156 kV and 40 mA, respectively. The samples were scanned in reflectance mode between  $2^{\circ}$  and

157  $35^{\circ} 2\theta$  with a scan rate of 0.067335° 2 $\theta$ /s and a step size of 0.026°.

#### 158 2.5 COSMOquick calculations

159 COSMOquick version 1.7 (COSMOlogic GmbH & Co. KG, Leverkusen, Germany) was used 160 to calculate the Gibbs energy of mixing  $(\Delta G_{mix})$ , excess enthalpy of mixing  $(\Delta H_{mix})$  and excess enthalpy of hydrogen bonding  $(\Delta H_{hb})$ , of the two-component system. For each component the 161 162 following variables were calculated and displayed in Table 1: the number of *Rotatable bonds*; 163 rotbsdmod, a general molecular flexibility parameter; M2, M3, M4, M5 and M6, the different 164 order sigma moments; the dielectric energy; the molecular COSMO volume; Macc1, Macc2, 165 Macc3 and Macc4, the different order sigma acceptor moments; Mdon1, Mdon2, Mdon3 and 166 Mdon4, the different order sigma donor moments; avratio, the surface-volume ratio based on 167 COSMO; ovality, the ratio of the molecular COSMO area to the area of a sphere with the 168 same volume as the molecule;  $\mu$ , the pseudo chemical potential of the pure solute;  $\delta d$ , the 169 Hansen parameter for dispersion;  $\delta p$ , the Hansen parameter for permanent dipole-dipole 170 interaction;  $\delta h$ , the Hansen parameter for hydrogen bonding. The difference between the API 171 and co-former values were calculated and used as the variables in the PLS-DA.

172 Table 1: The definitions of all the variables used to find the PLS-DA model.

Variable	Definition
∆G <sub>mix</sub>	Gibbs energy of mixing.

$\Delta H_{hb}$	Excess enthalpy of hydrogen bonding.
$\Delta H_{mix}$	Excess enthalpy of mixing.
∆log P	The difference between the log of the octanol/water partition coefficient of the API and the co-former
AV. log P	The average value of the log of the octanol/water partition coefficient of the API and the co-former
ΣHBC <sub>self</sub>	The sum of the difference of hydrogen bond donors to hydrogen bond acceptors for the individual components, for both the API and co-former. To represent the hydrogen bonding present in the individual components.
<b>ΣΗΒC</b> API-COF	The sum of the difference of hydrogen bond donors to hydrogen bond acceptors for the mixed components, for both the API and co-former. To represent the hydrogen bonding between the two components.
AV. TM	The average melting point of the two components.
Δ ΤΜ	The difference of the melting point of the co-former and the API.
AV. MW	The average molecular weight of the API and the co-former.
ΔMW	The difference of the molecular weights of the API and the co-former.
AV. TPSA	The average topological polar surface area of the API and the co- former.
∆TPSA	The difference between the topological polar surface area of the API and the co-former.
∆rotatable bonds	The difference between the number of rotatable bonds of the co-former and the API.
∆rotbsdmod	The difference between the general molecular flexibility parameter of the co-former and the API.
ΔM2	The difference between the second order sigma moments of the co- former and the API.
Δ <i>M</i> 3	The difference between the third order sigma moments of the co- former and the API.
ΔΜ4	The difference between the fourth order sigma moments of the co- former and the API.
ΔΜ5	The difference between the fifth order sigma moments of the co-former and the API.

Δ <i>M</i> 6	The difference between the sixth order sigma moments of the co- former and the API.
∆Dielectric energy	The difference between the number of rotatable bonds of the co-former and the API.
∆volume	The difference between the dielectric energy of the co-former and the API.
∆Macc1	The difference between the first order sigma acceptor moments of the co-former and the API.
∆Macc2	The difference between the second order sigma acceptor moments of the co-former and the API.
∆Macc3	The difference between the third order sigma acceptor moments of the co-former and the API.
∆Macc4	The difference between the fourth order sigma acceptor moments of the co-former and the API.
∆Mdon1	The difference between the first order sigma donor moments of the co- former and the API.
∆Mdon2	The difference between the second order sigma donor moments of the co-former and the API.
∆Mdon3	The difference between the third order sigma donor moments of the co- former and the API.
∆Mdon4	The difference between the fourth order sigma donor moments of the co-former and the API.
∆avratio	The difference between the surface-volume ratio based on COSMO of the co-former and the API.
∆ovality	The difference between co-former and the API of the ratio of the molecular COSMO area to the area of a sphere with the same volume as the molecule.
Δμ	The difference between the pseudo chemical potential of the pure solute of the API and the co-former.
$\Delta(\delta d)$	The difference between the Hansen parameter for dispersion in $MPa^{0.5}$ of the API and the co-former.
Δ(δρ)	The difference between the Hansen parameter for permanent dipole- dipole interactions in MPa <sup>0.5</sup> of the API and the co-former.

The difference between the Hansen parameter for hydrogen bonding in MPa<sup>0.5</sup> of the API and the co-former.

173

 $\Delta(\delta h)$ 

#### 174 2. 6 Partial least squares – discriminant analysis

175 Partial least squares – discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) was performed using SIMCA V.16 176 (Umetrics, Umeå, Sweden) to plot 36 variables for each combination of API and co-former 177 (Brereton and Lloyd, 2014; Sadeghi-Bazargani et al., 2010). The 36 different variables 178 plotted were  $\Delta G_{mix}$ ,  $\Delta H_{mix}$ ,  $\Delta H_{hb}$ ,  $\Delta log P$ , AV.log P,  $\Sigma HBC_{self}$ ,  $\Sigma HBC_{API-COF}$ , AV.TM,  $\Delta TM$ , 179 AV.MW,  $\Delta MW$ , AV.TPSA,  $\Delta TPSA$ ,  $\Delta Rotatable bonds$ ,  $\Delta rotbsdmod$ ,  $\Delta M2$ ,  $\Delta M3$ ,  $\Delta M4$ ,  $\Delta M5$ , 180 Δ*M*6, Δ*Dielectric energy*, Δ*volume*, Δ*Macc1*, Δ*Macc2*, Δ*Macc3*, Δ*Macc4*, Δ*Mdon1*, Δ*Mdon2*, 181  $\Delta M don3$ ,  $\Delta M don4$ ,  $\Delta avratio$ ,  $\Delta ovality$ ,  $\Delta \mu$ ,  $\Delta (\delta d)$ ,  $\Delta (\delta p)$  and  $\Delta (\delta h)$  (Table 1). The data was 182 scaled using unit variance. Each system was assigned as either COAM or not COAM (any 183 crystalline material present) as determined by Kasten et al. (2016) based on analysing the 184 mixture by XRPD after ball milling for 60 minutes. The PLS-DA was fitted using two latent 185 variables and all 36 variables. The quality of the model was assessed using an internal cross-186 validation procedure which involved leaving one out using seven cross-validation groups.

The prediction ability of the model was assessed by checking the predicted values of COAM formation of the 120 API-amino acid dataset and comparing the values with the experimental results. The prediction gives a predicted numerical value with a value closer to one being COAM and a value closer to zero being not COAM. The prediction of the model was also assessed by using a dataset of 29 co-formers paired with mebendazole. The predicted values for the mebendazole-co-former dataset were compared with the experimental values to determine the prediction ability. Variable selection was used to reduce the number of variables from 36 to 7 based on
optimising the number of correctly predicted samples for the API-amino acid dataset. The
final model was produced in JMP Pro 15 to view the equation used to assign the COAM
value (Equation 1) (JMP, Version Pro 15. 1989-2020).

198 Predicted COAM value 199  $= (-0.123 \times \Delta H_{hb}) + (-0.136 \times \Delta H_{mix}) + (-0.00350 \times \Sigma HBC_{self})$ 200  $+ (0.00297 \times AV.MW) + (-0.00176 \times \Delta TPSA) + (0.0105 \times \Delta \mu)$ 201  $+ (-0.0441 \times \Delta(\delta h)) + (-0.204)$ 

Equation 1: The equation to describe the relation of the seven key variables to the predicted COAM value. All numbers have been rounded to 3 significant figures. A value closer to one indicates the system should be COAM and a value closer to zero indicates it should not be COAM.

## 206 3. Results and Discussion

207 3.1 Correlation of  $\Delta H_{mix}$  and  $\Delta log P$  with co-amorphisation

208 The COAM systems used in this screen were experimentally identified by Kasten et al.

209 (2016) and the responses listed in supplementary materials Table S1 indicate which systems

210 formed COAM materials after 60 min of ball milling. The APIs used were carvedilol (CAR),

- 211 furosemide (FUR), indomethacin (IND) simvastatin (SIM), carbamazepine (CBZ) and
- 212 mebendazole (MEB). Previous research on theoretical descriptors for the prediction of the
- formation of a COAM system identified two indicators ( $\Delta H_{mix}$  and  $\Delta log P$ ) using a
- 214 combination of APIs with other APIs or sugars to screen for COAM systems using
- 215 differential scanning calorimetry (Mizoguchi et al., 2019). The  $\Delta H_{mix}$  was calculated using

216	COSMOquick and the $\Delta log P$ was sourced from Pubchem; it was found that COAM systems
217	form with a $\Delta log P$ below 6 and a negative $\Delta H_{mix}$ and a clear divide between the COAM
218	systems and the crystalline systems was observed. When the $\Delta H_{mix}$ and $\Delta log P$ for the
219	API/amino acids systems tested by Kasten et al. (2016) were plotted against each other the
220	same clear divide was not evident (Figure 1). The data indicates that COAM materials tend to
221	form in systems with a lower value of $\Delta log P$ and a negative $\Delta H_{mix}$ . However, many
222	combinations break these trends; a few COAM systems form with a $\Delta log P$ above 6 and
223	many systems with a $\Delta log P$ below 6 remain crystalline. Furthermore, COAM systems form
224	with positive values of $\Delta H_{mix}$ . To further assess the prediction ability for COAM formation of
225	the two variables a range of 29 different co-formers (supplementary materials Table S2) were
226	paired with mebendazole and analysed using the two variables. The 29 different co-formers
227	were then ball milled with mebendazole to determine whether they formed COAM mixtures
228	and the results were compared with the predicted trends. Figure 2 shows that all the systems
229	including COAM and not COAM have a $\Delta log P$ below 6 suggesting $\Delta log P$ is not a good
230	predictor of COAM material formation. Figure 2 also shows that the majority of the 29
231	systems have negative values of $\Delta H_{mix}$ but not all the systems are COAM and there is no clear
232	divide between COAM and not COAM systems. Using these two variables to predict the
233	formation of co-amorphous API-co-former systems was insufficient suggesting that more
234	variables were required to predict the propensity to form COAM systems.



Figure 1. Relationship between the formation of COAM systems from Kasten et al. (2016),

- 237  $\Delta H_{mix}$  and  $\Delta log P$ . Green markers indicate COAM systems were formed and red markers
- 238 indicate not COAM systems. The red dotted line is the expected boundary line between
- 239 COAM and not COAM systems (Mizoguchi et al., 2019).



Figure 2. Relationship between the formation of COAM systems of mebendazole with 29 co-242 formers,  $\Delta H_{mix}$  and  $\Delta \log P$ . Green markers indicate COAM systems were formed and red 243 markers indicate not COAM systems were formed. The red dotted line is the expected 244 245 boundary line between COAM and not COAM systems based on previous research by 246 Mizoguchi et al. (2019). Abbreviations of the coformers are as follows: 2,4-dihydroxybenzoic acid (2,4-DHBA), 3,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid (3,5-DHBA), 3-aminobenzoic acid (3-ABA), 247 248 4,4'-bipryidine (BIPY), 4-aminobenzoic (4-ABA), 4-aminosalicylic acid (4-AS), 5-249 aminosalicylic acid (5-AS), ascorbic acid (ASCA), caffeine (CAF), catechol (CATEC), 250 flurbiprofen (FLURB), fumaric acid (FUMA), gallic acid (GALA), glycolic acid (GLYA), 251 imidazole (IMID), isonicotinamide (INICO), ketoprofen (KETO), maleic acid (MALA),

- 252 nicotinamide (NICO), oxalic acid (OXA), phenazine (PHENA), piperazine (PIP), piracetam
- 253 (PIRA), pyrogallol (PYROG), salicylic acid (SALCA), succinic acid (SUCA), tartaric acid
- 254 (TARTA), theophylline (THEO), and urea (UREA).

255 3.2 PLS-DA

To improve the prediction of COAM systems, 34 additional variables were selected to 256 describe the properties and interactions of the two components and combined with  $\Delta H_{mix}$  and 257  $\Delta log P$ . These 36 variables (Table 1) were used to produce a PLS-DA model to understand 258 259 which variables affect COAM system formation. Variable selection was then used to reduce the initial 36 variables to seven key variables. Variable selection was performed by removing 260 261 variables one after the other and checking the effect on the prediction ability of the model for 262 the API amino acid data set; if the variable had no effect it was removed and if the prediction 263 ability was reduced it was retained. The variables selected describe differences between the 264 API and co-former allowing the model to be applied to systems where the API and co-former cannot be easily defined, such as systems formed from two APIs. The final PLS-DA model 265 266 includes the seven descriptors (Table 1):  $\Delta H_{hb}$ ,  $\Delta H_{mix}$ ,  $\Sigma HBC_{self}$ , AV. MW,  $\Delta TPSA$ ,  $\Delta \mu$  and  $\Delta(\delta h)$ . The goodness of fit is R<sup>2</sup>Y = 33.0 %, R<sup>2</sup>X = 47.8 % and the goodness of prediction is 267  $Q^2 = 29.0$  % based on two latent variables. Latent variables are variables which cannot be 268 measured and are inferred from mathematical models. 269

270 3.3 Model

The score scatter plot of the PLS-DA model for the API amino acid systems (Figure 3) shows a division between COAM and not COAM systems with COAM systems appearing more in the top right quadrant. The dotted line in Figure 3 shows the predicted separation for visualization purposes between the COAM and not COAM systems. The not COAM systems

- 275 occur on the left of the plot and mainly in the bottom left quadrant. Equation 1 shows the
- 276 relationship of each variable to the overall prediction.



277



285 The loading plot (Figure 4) shows how each variable is related to COAM formation. The 286 variables closest to the COAM response are linked to COAM formation and the variables 287 closest to the not COAM response are linked to not COAM formation. The two variables 288  $\Delta TPSA$  and  $\Delta \mu$  are located roughly in the middle between the COAM and not COAM point 289 and therefore, do not appear to influence the COAM formation to a strong degree, however, 290 when they are removed the prediction ability of the model is reduced. The variables related to 291 COAM formation, therefore, appear to be a relatively large value of AV. MW and  $\Sigma HBC_{self}$ , 292 and a relatively small or negative value of  $\Delta H_{mix}$ ,  $\Delta H_{hb}$ , and  $\Delta(\delta h)$ . A large AV.MW seems to 293 correlate with COAM formation possibly due to slower diffusion which would inhibit 294 recrystallization. A large value of  $\Sigma HBC_{self}$  correlates with COAM formation, which is 295 expected due to molecules that do not have a similar number of hydrogen bond donor atoms 296 and hydrogen bond acceptor atoms are unlikely to form as strong crystal structures and may 297 be more likely to interact with the other component (Corpinot and Bučar, 2019). A negative value of  $\Delta H_{mix}$  favours COAM formation, as expected since negative values indicate that the 298 299 mixed system has a lower free energy state due to stronger attractive forces between the 300 mixed molecules compared to the individual component interaction. A negative value  $\Delta H_{hb}$ 301 also favours COAM formation which is due to stronger hydrogen bonding between the mixed 302 molecules when compared with the individual components. A small  $\Delta(\delta h)$  seems to favour 303 COAM formation suggesting molecules with similar hydrogen-bonding potential are more 304 likely to interact and stabilise a COAM system.



305

Weights on LV1, 28.2 %

Figure 4. PLS-DA loading weights scatter plot of the latent variables (LV) 1 and 2. The
responses are shown with orange circles and the variables with blue circles. The responses
show how the two groups are related to the variables.

309 The score plot (Figure 3) shows the two clusters of COAM and not COAM samples overlap 310 to some degree. Overall, the misclassification table (which shows if the prediction matches 311 the experimental result) (Table 2) of the 120 API – amino acid dataset shows that 81 % of the 312 data points are correctly placed, suggesting the PLS-DA model is successful at modelling the 313 amino acid data. Out of the 23 misplaced systems, 18 are close to the separation line and five 314 are very far from the separation line, these five systems are MEB with LYS, LEU and ILE, 315 SIM with LYS, and IND with HIS. The MEB with LYS, LEU and ILE and SIM with LYS 316 systems were shown by Kasten et al. (2019) to have a low stability and underwent

crystallisation within a few weeks suggesting the model helps identify stable COAM systems.
The fifth system furthest from the separation line was IND with HIS which was not COAM
by milling, however a study by Jensen et al. (2016a) showed IND with HIS system was coamorphous when spray dried, this suggest the model could be valid for other co-amorphous
production methods.

Table 2. Misclassification table showing the percentage of correctly assigned observations of the 120 API-amino acid combinations. Fisher's probability of  $4.7 \times 10^{-8}$ .

Model	Members	Correct	Not COAM	COAM
Not COAM	84	90.48%	76	8
COAM	36	58.33%	15	21
Total	120	80.83%	91	29

324 3.5 Prediction of co-amorphous formation by mebendazole with 29 co-formers

325 To test the applicability of the PLS-DA model (Figure 3, Figure 4) to other non-amino acid systems, a new dataset of 29 different co-formers with mebendazole was used. Mebendazole 326 327 was selected due to it forming a range of both of COAM and not COAM systems with the 328 amino acids; therefore, it was expected to form a range of both co-amorphous and not COAM 329 systems with other co-formers. The 29 co-formers were selected on the basis of being small 330 molecules capable of forming a range of different hydrogen-bonding motifs. The model was 331 applied to predict the classification of the mebendazole co-former mixtures and the prediction 332 was compared to experimental data. The misclassification table (Table 3) shows that overall, 333 86 % of the samples were predicted correctly and only four of 29 mixtures were predicted 334 incorrectly. The score plot of the predicted scores (Figure 5) shows a clear divide between

- 335 systems that were COAM and systems that were not COAM, with only a slight overlap of the
- two clusters.



Figure 5. Score scatter plot of the predicted scores for the mebendazole-co-former

339 combinations. COAM samples are shown in green, not COAM samples are shown in red.

- 340 The hollow circles indicate samples which have been predicted incorrectly. The blue dashed
- 341 line shows the predicted separation line for visualization purposes.
- Table 3. Misclassification table showing the percentage of correctly assigned observation of
- 343 the 29 MEB-co-former combinations. Fisher's probability of  $1.8 \times 10^{-4}$ .



Not COAM	17	88.24%	15	2
COAM	12	83.33%	2	10
Total	29	86.21%	17	12

The four samples that were predicted incorrectly were MEB combinations with theophylline, 344 345 3-aminobenzoic acid, maleic acid and gallic acid, with predicted COAM values of 0.43, 0.52, 346 0.40 and 0.86, respectively. The COAM values indicate how close the prediction is to 347 assigning the system as COAM or not COAM with a value above 0.5 indicating COAM and 348 a value below 0.5 indicating not COAM. Three of the samples had COAM values close to the 349 cross over point at 0.5, suggesting they were close to being predicted correctly and may have been misplaced by one or two variables having extreme values. Theophylline appears to be 350 351 incorrectly predicted due to the system having a relatively high value of  $\Delta H_{mix}$  and  $\Delta H_{hb}$ 352 compared to the other systems. 3-aminobenzoic acid was misplaced due to a relatively 353 small/negative  $\Delta H_{mix}$  and  $\Delta H_{hb}$  and a small  $\Delta(\delta h)$ . Maleic acid is misplaced due to a small 354 MW. The gallic acid system is the furthest away from the crossover line between COAM and 355 not COAM systems, suggesting it should be COAM. The mebendazole gallic acid system 356 was investigated using film casting which resulted in a COAM system, this suggests the 357 model is not limited to system produced by only ball milling. Film casting was selected because it involves a thermodynamic pathway with the initial solution containing no 358 359 crystalline material compared to ball milling which is a kinetic pathway involving the 360 disruption of the crystal lattice (Karagianni et al., 2018). Therefore, film casting is likely to 361 help the formation of a co-amorphous system if the initial crystalline material is too stable to 362 be broken down by ball milling. With the mebendazole gallic acid system now being classed 363 as COAM the misclassification table improves and the correct prediction percentage is now 364 90 % (Table 4). The model now shows an even clearer divide between the two clusters with

365 only a few outliers which are close to the cross over line. Film casting was not used to test

366 other systems due to other co-amorphous formation methods usually producing a similar

- 367 result (Karmwar et al., 2011; Lim et al., 2016).
- 368 Table 4: Misclassification table showing the percentage of correctly assigned observations of
- 369 the 29 MEB-co-former combinations after gallic acid was confirmed as being COAM by film
- 370 casting. Fisher's probability of  $2.4 \times 10^{-5}$ .

Model	Members	Correct	Not COAM	COAM
Not COAM	16	93.75%	15	1
COAM	13	84.62%	2	11
Total	29	89.66%	17	12

371

# 372 4. Conclusion

373 Known COAM systems formed with APIs and amino acid co-formers were analysed to 374 identify properties of the co-former that correlate with COAM material formation (Kasten et al., 2016). A range of 36 variables was used to describe the properties of the API-amino acid 375 376 systems and a multivariate PLS-DA was used to create a prediction model. The initial 36 377 variables were reduced to seven variables including  $\Delta H_{hb}$ ,  $\Delta H_{mix}$ ,  $\Sigma HBC_{self}$ , AV. MW,  $\Delta TPSA$ , 378  $\Delta \mu$  and  $\Delta(\delta h)$ . The model predicts 81 % of the API-amino acid systems correctly. The model 379 was tested using a dataset of mebendazole with 29 different co-formers and 90 % of the 380 systems were correctly predicted. Overall, the model can predict the potential COAM

formation of a range of co-formers significantly expanding its applicability beyond therelatively limited set of amino acid co-formers.

383 CRediT authorship contribution statement

### 384 Luke I. Chambers: Conceptualization, Methodology, Validation, Formal analysis,

- 385 Investigation, Resources, Data curation, Writing Original Draft, Visualization, Project
- 386 administration. Holger Grohganz: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing Review &

387 Editing, Supervision. Henrik Palmelund: Validation, Investigation, Writing – Review &

388 Editing. Korbinian Löbmann: Conceptualization, Writing – Review & Editing, Supervision.

389 Thomas Rades: Conceptualization, Writing – Review & Editing, Supervision. Osama M.

390 Musa: Supervision, Funding acquisition. Jonathan W. Steed: Conceptualization, Writing –

391 Review & Editing, Supervision.

## 392 Conflicts of interest

393 The author declares no conflicts of interest.

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