Designing, Building, and Testing the Spin, Strip, and Stomp Mechanism for Pharmaceutical Tableting

by

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B.S. Mechanical Engineering, The American University in Cairo **(2015)**

Submitted to the Department of Mechanical on May **19, 2017** in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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Abstract

Nanofiber fabrication of pharmaceutical pills creates significant advantages over conventional techniques such as shorter pill dissolution times, airborne drug particulate matter elimination, and shorter liquid drying time, among many others. Therefore, the Novartis MIT Center for Continuous Manufacturing is prioritizing development of electrospinning techniques for producing nanofibrous pills. However, electrospinning pills still has a very low production rate compared to that of the current pharmaceutical techniques. Motivated **by** the need for an efficient and effective elecrospinning technique, we developed the "Spin, Strip, and Stomp Mechanism." This technique has successfully made pills of the required quality, designed with the goal of reducing the gap between the low production rates of nanofibrous pills and the high rates of the current pill making techniques.

Thesis Supervisor: Alexander Slocum

Title: Pappalardo Professor of Mechanical Engineering

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Chapter One: Introduction

"My interest is the problems that people say it is hard **&** can't be done, **I** say Oh! Opportunity!" Alexander Slocum

1.lMotivation

Since the development of the pharmaceutical industry in the mid-1800s in Germany [long history paper reference] up through the mid-1900s, long drug development timelines and relatively few varieties of drugs allowed manufacturers to create set manufacturing processes. Now, in stark contrast, with many new and unique drugs discovered daily, pharmaceutical manufacturers must upgrade their traditional facilities' layout to agile layouts, which accommodate large spectrums of formulations and batch sizes. This agile layout is known as "continuous manufacturing". Current pharmaceutical research, including the MIT Novartis Center of Continuous Manufacturing, is thus concerned with re-designing current pharmaceutical machinery and changing it from "batch" to "continuous" manufacturing. Continuous manufacturing is easer to scale up, more consistent, and more reproducible than batch processing **[1].**

1.2 Prior Art

The current technologies on the mechanical design side are the rotary tablet presses and the hot melt extrusion systems. The rotary tablet presses have a very high throughput, but they have many challenges as the tablets stickiness on the punch and lack of flexibility in changing the drug ingredients. It is thus hard to adapt the rotary tableting mechanism in a continuous manufacturing layout. The second technology, the hot melt extrusion, can be better integrated into a continuous manufacturing system, but it has different challenges such as high temperature requirements among others.

On the chemical design side, electrospinning was initiated using the needle technology, but it had a very low throughput. Many other technologies were patented afterwards, like the multiple needle, ferromagnetic, and bubble electrospinning [2, **3,** 4, **5, 6].** Also many different spinneret shapes were experimented with higher productivities, like the wire and the stepped pyramid spinnerets **[7, 8].**

1.3 Current Work

This work is about the novel machine designed here at the MIT Novartis Center, the "Spin Strip and Stomp" unique tableting mechanism. This machine is not just part of the continuous manufacturing system, but it is a solution to various problems in current machinery. Some of its numerous advantages are making pills with shorter dissolution times, reducing the number of processes to reach the final product, eliminating airborne drug particulate matter, and shortening the liquid drying time, among many others **[9].** This mechanism is unique in its quick and smooth flow from the electrospinning processing to the tablet pressing. The free-surface electrospinning design **by** the Rutledge group **[8]** will be adapted to a mechanism that pulls the mixture and presses it into a tablet form with the least operations in between.

"Think before you speak. Read before you think." Fran Lebowitz

2.1 Tablet Pressing Background

2.1.1 Tablet Pressing History

The word "Drug" originally derives from the Dutch/German word "droog" which means "dry". This is because medicines were historically obtained from dry substances. Drug research started in Europe during the second half of the 19th century. It evolved after the development of chemistry, biology, and immunology. Also the development of transportation (coal locomotion) and communication (telephones) facilitated its growth. Germany and England took the lead in the drug industry. "Merck and Bayer" was the first pharmaceutical company in Germany; it was founded in **1863 [10].**

The use of tablets was introduced in **1884 by** Burroghs Wellcome, under the tabloid trademark. Before then, medicine was sold in liquid or powder forms. The first pharmaceutical factory was built **by** Beecham Group in **1859.** The first pill-making machine was made **by** a physicist in Michigan in **1885.** This machine allowed for precision, mixed dosage, and standardization of large-scale production. The first patent for the "process of making pills" was filed **by** William Erastus Upjohn. The patent number in the **US** was 312041A. He started a company called "Upjohn pill and granule Company", which is today called Pfizer **[10].**

2.1.2 Tablet Pressing Fundamentals

Tablets are the most common form of dosage because of their stability, ease of manufacture, convenience for patients, and flexible dosing **[11,** 12].

In addition to the tablet's active pharmaceutical ingredient (API), excipients are needed to bulk it, facilitate its compression, or modify its biopharmaceutical properties. According to Sinka, there are many types of excipients used for various purposes like **[13]:**

- **1- Binders:** to assist granule and compact formation
- **2- Disintegrants:** to assist the tablet breakdown in the body's fluids.
- **3- Wetting agents: to** assist with the dissolution of hydrophobic APIs.
- 4- **Lubricants: to reduce** friction between powder and die.
- **5- Glidants: to assist** with the powder flow.
- **6- Fillers: to** provide controlled release of the API
- **7- Anti-oxidants:** to stabilize the API chemically.

According to Rybski, the manufacturing process of the tablets consists of four main steps [14]:

- **1- Weighing:** where the input materials are weighed.
- **2- Mixing:** where there are three different mixing stations: dry-mix, wet-mix, and granulation.
- **3- Compression:** where the granules and powders are pressed into tablet forms.
- **4- Packaging:** where the tablets are blistered and packaged.

This thesis studies the third step in the manufacturing processes above, which is the tablet compression process. At this step, the API and the excipients are already mixed and ready for compression. Historically, tablets have been pressed using the rotary tablet press, seen in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: the traditional rotary tablet press [15]

As seen in Figure **1,** the mixtures move from the left to the right side, the lower and upper compression rolls push the lower and upper punches towards each other to compress the powder mixture in between. The four main steps are: **(1)** the feed, (2) the precompression, **(3)** the main compression, and finally (4) the ejection **[13].**

Zooming into the contact area between the compression roll and the punch head, they would look as follows:

Figure 2: Schematic diagrams depicting the motion of punch head in relation with compression roll (a) and the graphical representation of compression profile with the associated compression parameters (b) [16, Figure 1].

Figure 3: punch geometry with head flat (HF) and head radius (HR) [16, Figure 2].

The geometrical profile of the punch, shown in Figure **3,** consists of the head flat (HF) and the head radius (HR). The head flat (HF) is the flat part of the punch, it makes contact with the compression roll and determines the dwell time. The head radius (HR) is the radius of the curved surface that blends middle section (HF) to the head thickness (HT), it allows for

smoother transition from the moving punch head to the compression cycle. The size of the compression roll affects the tablet pressing process **by** determining the rate and duration of applying the compression force **[16].**

The geometry of the punch determines the compression profile of the tablet, as seen in Figure 2. The compression profile is the variation of the compression force when the punch is in contact with the compression roll (contact time). It consists of three parts **[16]:**

- **1- Consolidation time:** when the punch head starts to contact the mixture with an increasing compression force.
- **2- Dwell time:** when the compression force is more than **90%** of its peak value.
- **3- Decompression time:** when the punch head starts moving away from the pressed mixture and the compression force decreases.

Other than the compression profile, the crucial machine settings were: **(1)** compression and pre-compresison forces, (2) press (turret) speed, **(3)** die feed frame speed, and (4) compression position in the die **[16].**

2.1.3 Tablet Pressing Parameters

The final properties of a tablet depend on the ingredients used, the mixing details, and the selection of pressing parameters **[13, 17].** This work is primarily concerned with the pressing parameters, because they would need to be incorporated in the machine's design. The two main tablet properties are: the strength and the disintegration of the tablet. The pressing parameters give different internal density distributions **[18].** These density distributions give different strengths and disintegrations. The lower the density, the lower the strength and the higher the disintegration and vice versa. The process is a compromise between the two main goals, which are having a tablet that has: **(1)** high strength for long shelf life, and (2) quick disintegration to release the API according to the patient's needs.

The mechanical strength is the pill's ability to resist breakdown and remain intact, while being soft enough for the API release **[17].** The strength primarily depends on the pill's density. This density depends on two factors: the particle size, and the pressing parameters **[19].** The particle size is determined in earlier manufacturing processes, but the pressing parameters could be controlled in this process. The higher the compression forces and the longer the dwell times give higher strength **[16].** Having a head flat punch increases the dwell time and thus gives higher strength **[16].** The compressing speed also affects the strength of the tablet **[13].** The standard diameteral loading test is carried out to determine the tensile strength, but in the case of chewable tablets, the bending test is also needed [20].

On the other hand, when the compression force increases, the disintegration time increases **[18,19].** The disintegration time also depends on the particle size distribution, internal density distribution, and the surface characteristics of the tablets **[11,13,18].** The compression force causes a reduction in porosity, and thus a linear increase in disintegration time **[11, 18].**

2.1.4 Challenges in current tablet pressing mechanisms

The most common problem observed during the rotary tableting operation is the punch sticking. During the powder processing process, they come into contact with each other and with the wall of the equipment, so they become electrostatically charged, or in other words, "Triboelectrified". This causes loss of time and money because of stopping the machine, sorting, and disposing incomplete tablets. The selection of powders with fast charge decay kinetics and tight control of environmental conditions helps reduce punch sticking problems, but APIs get more electrostatically charged than tableting excipients, and they are the main component that cannot be replaced [12].

2.1.5 Other Tablet Compression Designs

The other major tablet manufacturing technique beside the rotary tablet press is the hot melt extrusion. Its eight process steps are: **(1)** weighing, (2) blending, **(3)** hot melt extrusion, (4) cooling, **(5)** cutting, **(6)** forming, **(7)** coating, and **(8)** packaging. The solid molecular dispersions are made **by** a melt blending process, where the API and the polymeric excipient are melted, mixed, discharged, and cooled to form tablets or capsules, as seen in Figure 4.

Some of its benefits are: **(1)** the absence of solvents, (2) fewer processing steps, **(3)** and low manufacturing cost compared to the standard tablet production methods. It is also seen as a great candidate for continuous manufacturing because it is very efficient for tamper resistant formulations **[1].**

Figure 4: Hot melt extrusion process schematic [20, Figure 1].

2.2 Electrospinning Background

2.2.1 History

The phenomenon of electrospinning was first observed **by** William Gilbert in the **16th** century. At that time, he found out that when water is bought close to electrically charged wood, water will form a cone shape, and then droplets will start being ejected from this cone's tip [21].

The second major step in electrospinning discovery was **by** the physicist Charles Vernon Boys. In **1888,** Boys was designing a machine to measure the universal gravitational constant, and this machine apparatus needed a strong supporting fiber. He looked into existing fiber drawing techniques, and there were none at that time. So he designed his own setup where he was able to draw fibers from different melts to fulfill his experiment's requirements. At this time, he wrote the first worldwide paper describing the process of "nano-fiber manufacture" **[21].**

In **1902,** The first patent in electrospinning was filed **by** William James Morton **(US** Patent **705691)** under the name of "Method of Dispersing fluids". Some other major patents in the field is Formhals' 1934 and **1938** patents **(US** 1975504 **A** and **US** 2116942 **A)** with titles of "Process and Apparatus for preparing artificial threads" and "Method an Apparatus for the Production of fibers".

In 1964, Sir Geoffrey Ingram Taylor has worked on formulating the mathematical models for the shapes of the fluid droplets formed **by** electrical fields. This cone's shape is now known as a "Taylor cone" [21]. Afterwards, the electrospinning studies and its applications have grown exponentially starting with Reneker, Yarin, Wnek, Rutledge, and many others laying its fundamentals in the 1990s [22, **23,** 24, **25, 26, 27].**

2.2.2 Electrospinning Fundamentals

Electrospinning is the process of drawing fibers from a solution or melt phase to dry fibrous phase **by** electric forces. The process in controlled **by** "Electro-hydrodynamics"; which is the dynamics of electrically charged liquids. Firstly, velocity builds up under Coulomb drive, increasing the strain rate and building up stress. Secondly, viscoelastic relaxation reduces this stress, leaving more coulomb repulsion than viscoelastic drag forces. Thirdly, the motion of particles is dominated **by** the electric field, forming stretched jets pulled **by** this electric field's force minus the fluid's viscoelastic drag and surface tension **[28].** This Taylor cone, discovered **by** Sir Geoffrey Taylor in 1964, looks as seen in the figure below:

Figure 5: Taylor cones of polyethylene oxide at different flow rates [29, Figure 2].

The second phase in electrospinning is the instability phase; where the fibers experience bending and whipping due to the repulsive forces between them. The solvent evaporates leaving solid fibers due to the high surface area of the thinning jet. These fibers finally land on the grounded surface to form mats or other shapes and surfaces required **[30].**

In other words, if we want to sum up the electrospinning process in **5** points **[29],** these points will be:

- **1-** Fluid Charging
- 2- Formation of the cone jet
- **3-** Thinning of the study jet
- 4- Jet instabilities (caused **by** whipping)
- **5-** Collection of fibers.

This process is similar to the well-known process of electro-spraying, but the main difference between them is that the jet breaks down into droplets in electro-spraying and micro or nano-fibers in electro-spinning. This is due to the fact that electro-spinning starts from a much more dilute solution than that of electrospraying, so the polymer solute stops the breaking out of jets into droplets[31].

2.2.3 Electrospinning Fluid Parameters

The first fluid parameter affecting the electrospinning process is *the solution's concentration.* At a very low concentration, the result is beads not fibers due to insufficient entanglements **[32].** While at the correct concentration, round fibers could be drawn from the solution. After exceeding a specific concentration, these rounds fibers turn into flat ribbons **[32].**

The second governing parameter is *the solution's viscosity.* **If** it is too low, the fiber will not be continuous, and if it is too high, the jet shape will fail to eject. The spinning viscosities range from **1** to 215 poise, and the most successful range is between **1** and 20 poise according to Bhardwaj [34].

Thirdly, a high *molecular weight* is crucial to provide sufficient inter-chain connectivity and chain entanglements. Low molecular weight polymers are usually spun with a very low percentage of a high molecular weight polymer to engineer the desired shear thinning and reach the process's required elasticity **[27].** The molecular weight dispersion together with the solution's concentration (parameter **1)** will result in the process's required viscosity (parameter 2).

Fourthly, **by** reducing the *surface tension,* the fibers can be obtained with no beads. Having surface tension does not have any strict requirements or preferred values, but it determines the required range of electro-spinning parameters like the needed voltage and spinneret collector distance [34].

Conductivity of the polymer solution is the fifth parameter that is determined from the polymer's type and the solvent used. High electrical conductivity was found to decrease the fibers' diameter, and low values resulted in beads due to unsufficient elongation (paper **13).**

2.2.4 Electrospinning Process Parameters

The *electric field* is the driving force that moves the polymer solution from its source to the collecting surface. So the higher the electric field, the more the mass output. Since the equation of electric field is:

$$
Electric\ Field = \frac{Voltage}{Distance}
$$

Equation 1

Thus, either varying the voltage, the distance between the source and the collecting surface, or both, can change the electric field.

Figure **6** shows the relationship between *voltage* and percentage conversion of dope to nanofiber.

Figure 6: voltage versus fibers conversion rate [35, Figure 2].

According to this graph, the fiber conversion rate increases as the applied voltage increases until it reaches a certain point. After this point, the polymer dope has already had all the electrical driving force it needs to travel between its 2 points, so increasing the voltage more results in higher mass output in a certain time.

As stated in [34], researchers have argued whether higher voltage results in bigger or smaller fiber diameters, but the majority agreed that higher voltage would lead result in smaller diameter and quick evaporation [34]. Various setups give different relationships between voltage and mass output, so the direct relationship cannot be generalized, but it is certain that increasing the voltage increases the mass output.

Increasing the *distance* between the solution and the collecting surface results in a lower electric field and thus less fiber collected. Distance is also critical because if it is too close, the solvent would not have enough time to completely evaporate. Thus, the distance should be more than the minimal distance required for evaporation and less than the maximum distance that would result in the minimal electric field required.

Chakraborty's study on polycaprolactone (PCL) showed that the electrospinning process started at an *electric field* value of **0.3** kV/cm, then fiber diameter keeps decreasing until the field is 1.2 kV/cm. Higher electrical fields will add fiber size variability due to instabilities **[31].** But we have to note that these specific electric field values are for the materials that Chakraborty tested in his specific setup, these values would differ from one study to the other according to the materials and surrounding conditions.

Operating *temperature* is another important factor because as the temperature increases, the viscosity decreases, and thus the fiber diameter decreases [34].

The last parameter to be discussed is the operating *humidity.* At low humidity values, the volatile solvent will dry up very quickly [34]. Higher humidity will help discharge the polymer until the acceptable humidity range is exceeded. Then higher values will result in larger fiber diameters and low evaporation rates (12).

2.3 Electrospinning Setups

There are various configurations for electrospinning, they all have the same general components that could be run at many setups.

2.3.1 Electrospinning setup components

Figure 7: schematic diagram of the electrospinning setup [34, Figure 1]

The schematic shown above highlights the **3** basic components of the electrospinning setup. These **3** components are:

- **1)** *High voltage Source:* the big gap in electrical potential between the 2 points is the driving force that pulls the polymer from the solution to the fiber form.
- 2) *Spinneret:* this is the source of the fiber jets, and where the polymer solution starts forming Taylor cones and becomes fibers. Spinnerets exist in many different forms. The most basic form is the syringe shown above for the original needle electrospinning, but many other designs will be discussed later.
- *3) Collector:* this is the medium where the fibers are collected. It may be in the form of fiber mats or many other shapes. It is usually grounded so that the fibers will gets attracted to it because it is the lowest potential in the area.

2.3.2 Latest Innovations in Electrospinning setups

The basic electrospinning technique is the needle setup shown in the previous section. However, this single needle setup has a very low productivity rate and some

other restrictions. **A** lot of research has been done on more creative setups as using the multiple jets, pressured tubes and pyramid spinnerets, or performing coaxial, alternating current, melt, and bubble electrospinning.

Figure 8: chematic Diagram for multiple nozzle electrospinning (i) nozzles are in a 3x3 matrix (ii) nozzles are in a 9x1 matrix [2, Figure 1]

Theron has analyzed the multi-nozzle electrospinning shown in Figure **8** above. These multi-nozzles can be organized in different matrices as shown in the figure in order to increase the electrospinning rate or make multi-component blends of nano-fibrous mats. The main drawback of this technique is the repulsion between nozzles. But Theron's studies showed that the inter-nozzle distance should be at least **1** cm and studied repulsion patterns of different configurations **[31].**

Llorens studied co-axial electrospinning, which could be classified as a branch of the Theron's multi-nozzle electrospinning using only 2 nozzles. where an outer nozzle forms the shell while the inner nozzle forms the core. Physiochemical reactions, flow rates, concentrations, and hydrophilic-hydrophobic properties are coordinated to reach the required encapsulation **[3].**

Balogh tried out another setup using alternating current rather than direct current voltage source. He has prepared some poorly water-soluble drug (carvedilol), and claimed that using **25 kV AC** rather than **DC** increased the specific productivity and double the average thickness of the fibers [4].

Nagy has worked on solvent free melt electrospinning, which combines the advantages of solvent free and solution electrospinning. It was made for chemicals that have low solubility and cannot be spun in solution form. Its main advantages are having **100%** yield, being safer than organic solvent based solutions, avoiding solvent explosion, solvent residuals in fiber, and expensive solvent recovery. Its disadvantages is having a much bigger fiber size (250 compared to **0.7** micrometers) and high operating temperature (around **150** degrees Celsius) **[5].**

Figure 9: schematic diagram for the bubble electrospinning setup [7, Figure 3]

Another interesting setup is the bubble electrospinning. Navarro has carried out this analysis **by** placing an electrode inside the polymer solution and a gas tube feeding the reservoir from the bottom. Some polymer like Polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) would spin at higher speeds in this setup. Its regular spinning is too slow due to its insolubility and **highly** hydrophobic nature **[7].**

Figure 10: schematic of the pyramid spinneret free-surface electrospinning [7, Figure 2].

Jiang has discussed another novel setup using the stepped pyramid spinneret to perform free surface electrospinning **[26]. A** schematic of the setup is shown in Figure **10** above. This technology forms core-sheath fiber **by** feeding the solution from the syringe pump into the pyramid's center. The centrifugal force of the spinning pyramid assists the electrical force in forming jets of fibers. Some close up images of this pyramid spinneret can be seen in Figure 1 Ibelow.

Figure 11: close up images of the stepped pyramid spinneret [7, Figure 2].

Figure 12: schematic of the ferromagnetic electrospinning setup (a)magnetic liquid layer, (b) polymer solution layer, (c)collector surface, (d) submerged electrode, (e) high voltage source, (f) strong permanent magnet [36, Figure 1].

Adding ferromagnetic suspensions to the polymer solution is another way of supporting the Taylor cone formation and enhancing the spinning output. Yarin has discussed this 2-layer setup shown in Figure 12, the lower one is a ferromagnetic suspension and the upper is the polymer solution. Under his experimental conditions, he claimed that it avoid clogging problems and was twelve times more efficient than needle electrospinning **[36].**

Figure **13:** schematic of the porous pressurized tube electrospinning setup **[37,** Figure **3]**

Figure 14: view of ceramic porous tube from above **[33,** Figure **5]**

Another spinneret design studied **by** Donsunmu was the porous pressurized tube, shown in Figure **13** and Figure 14 above. These tubes were made of either polyethylene or ceramic, pressurized at 0.4-0.8 kPa to spin a polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) solution in ethanol. He found out that the mass production from the pressurized tubes was 250 times that of a single jet, and he claims that this is due to higher number of jets and larger fiber diameters **[37].**

2.3.3 Free-Surface Electrospinning

In our laboratory, the Rutledge group has done a lot of research on free-surface electrospinning, using another distinctive spinneret design. This spinneret is made of a set of thin wires wrapped around a spindle, as shown in Figure **15** below.

Figure 15: the spindle electrode with 2 wires [8, Figure 4].

This spinneret is placed in a polymer solution bath, where it rotates and the thin wires keep dipping in and out of the bath. The schematic of the whole system can be seen in Figure *15;* where the wire spindle is placed at the bottom, and the collection plate at the top. **A** small **DC** motor rotates, and a belt drive transmits this rotation to the wire spindle electrode. The wire electrode is connected to the high voltage power supply and the collection plate is grounded to receive the fibers.

Figure 16: schematic of the free-surface electrospinning apparatus (a) side view, parallel to spindle axis (b) front view, perpendicular to spindle axis [8, Figure 3].

In this setup, the liquid is subjected to gravity, surface tension, viscosity, and inertial forces. The gravitational force pulls down and the viscous force pulls up, resulting in a thin film of liquid entrained, as seen in the schematic in figure (x) below. In the figure part (a), the large circle is the wire end-on, the line is the fluid-air interface, and the small dots are micro-particles that are a little enlarged in this figure. This figure part (a) goes with the setup side view (a) in the previous figure. While the view of fluid jetting from the wire electrode in part **(b)** aligns with the setup's schematic front view, part **(b).**

Figure **17:** evolution of the surface profile (a) from the solution to the wire electrode **(b)** from the wire electrode to fiber formation **[38,** Figure **3].**

Figure 18: an isometric view of the wire electrode in the polymer bath [39, Figure 1].

As seen in Figure **18,** the polymer solution is in yellow (light print) and the bath and spinneret are in purple (dark print). As the spinneret rotates, we can observe the yellow droplets forming on the wires, then the jet thinning turns these droplets into fibers. These fibers are attracted to the ground collector on top, this why the fibers travel vertically upwards.

2.3.4 Application of Free- Surface electrospinning in this work

After reading in the literature about the electrospinning history, basics, and different setups, **I** have adapted the Rutledge group' s setup of free-surface electrospinning using a wire spindle electrode to fit my needs, and integrated it into my machine's full setup. More details about my electrospinning setup will be covered in the next chapter.

Chapter Three: Designing The Machine

"Precision Machine Design isn't about finding the low hanging fruit, it is about finding the low hanging rabbit, because you get the rabbit and the fruit!" Alexander Slocum

3.1 General Design of the Machine

3.1.1 Main Functional Requirements

The main functional requirement of our machine is to provide an automated pressing mechanism that extracts the pill's material from the electrospinning process and presses it into a pill shape with the fewest operations in between. The current nanofibers' pressing mechanisms have such a low production rate, while traditional pill pressing machines can produce up to **30** pills per second [41]. Therefore, our main requirement is to close the gap between these 2 production rates.

Figure 19: initial sketching of the project

This problem was approached **by** sketching the initial electrospinning setup with the final pill pressing setup, then coming up with different designs to connect these two mechanisms, as seen in Figure **19.** The functional requirements table of the whole spin, strip, and stomp mechanism was as follows:

Table 1: general functional requirements of the mechanism

3.1.2 Machine Components

This machine consists of three mechanisms with the following functions:

- **1-** The electro-spinning chamber:
	- → **Spins nanofibers from the polymer solution.**
- 2- The Mechanical press: 4 Presses the nanofibers into a **pill** shape.
- **3-** The sliding spinner:
	- **->** Slides nanofibers from mechanism **(1)** to mechanism (2).

As seen in Figure 20 below, the arrows show the material flow and the three boxes represent the three main mechanisms mentioned above.

Figure 20: the three main mechanisms of the machine

Throughout this process, the pill's materials are spun, stripped, and stomped. The first step, **spinning,** is where the fibers are drawn vertically upwards from the polymer bath to the spinning rod collector using the high electrical potential difference as their driving force. The second step, **stripping,** is where the fibers are stripped from the rod collector into the press's die cavity. The third step, **stomping,** is where the material inside the die cavity is pressed into the pill shape, creating our final product.

The starting point of the machine was the existing electrospinning setup in Rutledge lab [40], and the early prototyping of manually extracting and pressing the polymer into a pill **[9].** This initial analysis was the thesis project of a former colleague Nicholas Sondej, who was a Masters student in the Precision Engineering Research Group at MIT. This thesis combines both to make an automated mechanism. The early prototype gave us the following conclusions:

- **1-** It is not possible to spin the fibers directly inside the die cavity, but the second quickest way is to spin it on a body that goes into this cavity.
- 2- It is possible to spin the polymer to a collecting rod rather than the traditional flat plate collector.
- **3-** The collecting rod needs to spin to spread the polymer all around it, or else bulk fibers will form on one side.

All of these conclusions were used as building blocks for the functional requirements of the machine, and the challenges faced in the earlier design were taken into consideration during the whole design process. The bigger picture of the machine components was then re-imagined. Afterwards each part was further analyzed to design those **3** main machine components and put them all together.

3.2 Electrospinning Design

3.2.1 From flat plate collector to spinning rod collector

The electrospinning chamber in this machine was an updated version of the Rutledge Group setup shown in Figure 21 **[8]** and Figure 22. In this setup, the fibers were drawn from the polymer bath at the bottom using the rotating wire electrode. These fibers were then collected as a mat on the flat collector plate at the top.

Figure 21: schematic of the free-surface electrospinning setup (a) side view (b) front view [8, Figure 3]

Figure 22: electrospinning to a flat plate collector

The main change in our setup was replacing this flat plate collector with a spinning rod collector, spinning and collecting fibers around it like a cotton candy stick, as shown in Figure **23.**

Figure 23: a schematic of free-surface electrospinning with the spinning rod collector

Figure 24: free-surface electrospinning with the spinning rod collector

In order to accommodate this change from a flat plate collector to a spinning rod collector, we had *new functional requirements of:*

- **1-** Supporting the rod at its required height.
- 2- Grounding the spinning rod collector.
- **3-** Allowing the slippage of the spinning rod in its stationary housing.
- 4- Choosing insulating materials and avoiding sharp edges that may attract fibers onto it, to create an electrically neutral stand.

3.2.2 Stand Design

To fulfill functional requirement **(1),** a vertical stand made of a set of T- slotted aluminum frames was designed, as seen in Figure **26.**

Figure 25: side and top views of the stand's engineering drawing

Figure **26:** spinning rod collector support before and after insulation

The stand was initially made out of T-slotted aluminum because of its flexibility in geometrical changes. For example, if we decided to move the collector's position up or down, we could easily slide the structures against each other and securely fasten them at this position. The only drawback of the T-slotted aluminum was that it was electrically conductive. This problem was resolved **by** covering the whole structure with insulating tape, and adding further insulating layers with high curvature to cover the aluminum's sharp edges. As seen in Figure **26** above, the vertical stand was originally of a rectangular cross-section, but it is wrapped with an insulating layer. After some experimental trials, many fibers were attracted to the sharp edges, so another layer of insulation was added. This additional insulation makes it look more like a cylindrical stand with curved edges in all directions, getting rid of all the sharp edges.

This stand has three bottom legs to enhance its stability if it is subjected to any forces from the spinning rod collector. There are no forces in the fourth direction, so no additional leg was needed. Also the stand needs to be close to one of the walls, to be out of the way during fibers' electrospinning. So the wall side subjected to no forces was chosen as the no leg side, with the three legs spreading in the three other directions.

The force and moment that the stand needs to resist were as follows:

Force calculations:

$$
F_{sl} = \frac{T_{sl}}{R_{py}}
$$

Equation 2

Where F_{sl} is the sliding force that the rod collector slides in with, T_{sl} is the torque of the sliding motor at its driving speed, R_{py} is the radius of the belt's pulley that the motor rotates in order to slide the rod collector back and forth. The sliding torque was calculated in the sliding mechanisms section **3.3,** and the radius of the pulley was obtained from its manufacturing company, BrecoFlex.

Plugging our numbers of: $R_{py} = 20$ mm = 0.02 m Tsi= **273** Nmm **= 0.273** Nm

Gave a sliding force of: Fsi= **13.65 N** which is equivalent to the horizontal force that the stand needs to resist.

Moment Calculations:

The stand needs to resist the rotational moment around the tipping point of the stand on the ground. This is governed **by** the following equation:

$$
M_{tipping} = F_{sliding} * H_{rod}
$$

The tipping moment $M_{tipping}$ is equivalent to the rod's sliding force $F_{sliding}$ multiplied by the height of this rod above the ground H_{rod} .

Plugging our numbers of: Fshiding= **13.65 N**

Hrod= **370** mm **= 0.37** m

Gave a tipping moment of: Mtipping= **5.05** Nm which is equivalent to the moment that the stand needs to resist.

3.2.3 Conical Support design

To fulfill functional requirement **(3),** a conical shaped support was designed to guide the rod into its cavity in the support. This conical support has a through cavity slightly bigger than **3.25** mm **(1/8** inch) to fit our **3.25** mm **(1/8** inch) collector, in addition to a cone shaped entrance for the rod that goes from a diameter of **20.32** mm **(0.8** inches) to the diameter of the **3.25** mm through hole. This shape was made to accommodate any bending of up to **10** mm in the rod in all directions and guide it into its designated position.

Earlier Design:

The first conical support was made out of aluminum, and it had two main design features:

- **1-** The conical entrance narrowing down from 4/5 inch to the **1/8** inch hole.
- 2- Two **5/16** inch holes for the bolts that attach this conical support to the stand.

Figure 27: earlier conical support design

The conical support's design problems were:

- **1-** It was **not electrically insulating** even after surface insulation, **because it was made out of aluminum.** It still conducts electricity from the rod collector and electrifies the whole stand.
- **2- The pills were contaminated with metal.** This happens when the rod collector spins inside the **aluminum hole.** It wears some of the aluminum surface off, which then gets stripped with the polymer and stays with it.
- **3-** There was **no hole to insert the crocodile clip** of the ground wiring. So the wire was attached to the edge of the conical surface as shown in Figure **28** below. This made the wire very close to the rod collector, so a lot of fibers were always attracted to the wire.
- 4- The two bolts had **sharp edges,** so they attracted some fibers.

Figure 28: grounding wire clipping onto the conical support

Modified Design:

As discussed above, the three main problems of the first design were that:

- **1-** It is made out of aluminum
- 2- There is no hole for the grounding wire to be properly attached and out of the fibers way.
- **3-** The bolts' sharp edges would attract fibers.

So the three changes in the new design were:

- **1-** It is made out of polytetrafluoroethane (PTFE)
- 2- It has a special grounding setup out of the fibers way
- **3-** It has no exterior edges, because the bolts sink in their holes.

Figure 29: engineering drawing views of the modified conical shaped support (dimensions are in inches)

Figure 30: the modified conical shaped support

As seen in Figure **30** above, the new support was made out of PTFE. It had the special spring loaded brass grounding, which connected the spinning rod with the ground crocodile clip. The ground crocodile clip was attached to the back of the support, so it was totally out of the fibers' way. The two holes for the bolts were sinking rather than having their heads out of the structure.

3.2.4 The Spring loaded Brass Grounding

To fulfill functional requirement (2), a dynamic grounding system made of a springloaded brass ball, as shown in Figure **31,** was designed. Fibers will only attach to the collector if it was correctly grounded and if all of its surroundings were insulated and uncharged. **By** adding this component vertically into the conical support, its top end connected to the ground wiring and its bottom end was the ball pressing against the rod. Therefore, the rod collector kept spinning while touching this brass ball that was connected to the spring and the ground wiring to ground all the components.

Figure 31: the spring-loaded brass ball grounding

The material of this part was chosen to be brass because of its:

- **1- High electrical conductivity:** connecting the ground wiring to the spinning rod collector.
- **2- High wear resistance:** solving the problem of metal contamination **by** the earlier aluminum design

3.2.5 The scissor lift setup

Since the nature of the experiment might require changing the distance between the spinneret at the bottom and the collector at the top, the bottom spinneret was placed on a scissor lift, and the top part with more components was kept stationary. The top part also had to stay stationary because it had to be in parallel with other machine components; such as the press's die cavity and the sliding spinner.

Figure 32: the scissor lift setup

3.3 The Sliding Spinner Design

This mechanism has two main functions, as its name elaborates. The first function is spinning the collector rod inside the chamber to collect the fiber all around it like a cotton candy machine. The second function is sliding this rod into the press's die cavity to strip the polymer off the rod, then the rod slides out and the drug material stays inside the cavity. These two main functional requirements in addition to others are shown in

Table 2 below.

Table 2: functional requirements of the sliding spinner

3.3.1 Linear Actuator Design

3.3.1.1 Review of current linear actuators:

1- Air slider: it uses pneumatic power.

2- Hydraulic/Electro-hydraulic pistons: Because liquids are incompressible, a hydrauliccylinder can control precise uni- directional displacement of a piston. Advantages: rapid acceleration, large masses durability. Limitations: proper sealing required, oil change, maintenance, and polymer contamination issues. Its motion is less accurate motion than electromechanical. Applications: oil and gas, cranes, agriculture, concrete, snow control, mining, military, and almost all industries.

3- Mechanical actuators:

a) Screws:

i- Acme screw: it has large frictional losses, it is not used for high power, but for intermittent use (not for this application) **.Applications:** machine tool, vise, machine press, jack.

ii- Roller screw: it is a low friction precision screw, expensive complex mechanism for high precision, high speed, heavy load, long life, and heavy use applications (not for this application). **Applications:** motion and positioning in aerospace.

b) Wheel and axle:

i- Hoist: it lifts or lowers loads **by** drum/wheel lift. It could be operated manually, electrically, pneumatically. **Limitation:** only pull. **Applications:** construction and mining

ii- Winch: it works **by** winding rope in and out to control its tension. **Applications:** theatres' back-stage equipment, water and snow sports.

iii- Rack and pinion: it has a pinion attached to the driving motor and the rack that moves back and forth. It has reduction gears to reduce its high driving torque. **Applications:** stair lifts, steering, rack railways, and pipeline transport.

iv- Chain drive: it transmits mechanical power from one place to the other (like chain sprocket and roller chains). **Limitation:** only pull. **Applications:** bicycles and automotive.

v- Mechanical belt: it links 2 or more shafts mechanically from the source of motion to the required output. **Limitation:** only pull. Applications: linking gearboxes to machine driving shafts.

vi- Rigid chain actuator: it is the same idea of the rack and pinion, but with articulated racks. **Limitation:** only pull. **Applications:** windows, lifts, push-pull handling.

vii- Rigid belt actuator: it is a rack and pinion attached to a moving belt. **Limitation:** only pull. **Applications:** push-pull and lift applications

c) Cams: it is a rotating/sliding piece that transforms rotary to linear motion depending on the cam's geometry. **Limitation:** only push. **Applications:** repetitive motion that needs special speed, motion patterns.

4- Piezo-electric actuators:

It depends on the special material properties that expand when voltage is applied to it. Very high voltage gives very small expansion. **Advantage:** extreme fine positioning. Limitations: short range of motion and hysteresis problems in repeatability.

5- Electro-mechanical Actuators:

Controlling one of the mechanical systems discussed above to a motor controlling their motion, this could be: a) Stepper motor, **b) DC** brush, c) **DC** brushless, **d)** Induction motor, e) Linear motor.

3.3.1.2 Initial sketching of the overall machine:

Figure **33** below shows the thought process of connecting the three machine components: the sliding spinner, the press, and the electrospinning chamber.

Figure 33: connecting the three mechanism components

Figure 34 and Figure **35** below show the sketches and the SolidWorks of the spinning slider's movement between its two positions.

The Two positions of sliders. Position 9 Pres Stider E spig Position 3 RAS $\overline{\text{M}}$ \overline{u} \circ \overline{C} Stoder Espin

Figure 34: a sketch of the sliding spinner's two positions

Figure 35: SolidWorks motion of the sliding spinner's two positions

3.3.1.3 Linear actuator initial design requirements:

Narrowing down the functional requirements of the machine, and adding some quantitative requirements, more specific functional requirements would be:

- **1)** Move a 0.125 inch rod horizontally in both directions
- 2) Fit into the press hole open/closed positions
- **3)** Self rotation of the rod (while electrospinning)
- 4) Move between the two positions (electrospin and out of the press)
- **5)** Have rigid supports and casing for safety
- **6)** Avoid having reactive parts in the electrospinning high voltage area
- **7)** Choose a rod material that does not react with the polymer
- **8)** Make sure the polymer will not rip off while entering the die cavity
- **9)** Fit in a 0.25 inch hole
- **10)** Have a total length that is slightly more than the total length of electrospinning and press assemblies.
- **11)** Have a motor fixturing/mounting space.
- 12) Have supports (bearings or rollers) on both sides and in between mechanisms.
- **13)** Have high linear speed and low rotational speed.

Forces applied on the mechanism:

There are three kinds of forces applied on this mechanism: **(1)** the weights of its components, (2) torsional moment, and **(3)** horizontal forces.

(1) The weights of the components include:

- **1. 1/8** inch rod
- 2. The rod's mounting
- **3.** The attached polymer (aboutlOmg, could be neglected)
- 4. Two motors and their motor mounts
- **5.** The vertical force from the press's pressure
- **6.** The press assembly (it should be attached directly to supports, but there might be partial load)

(2) The torsional moment comes from the positions of the two motors' with respect to the center.

(3) The horizontal forces are:

- **1.** The rotary piston's **90** degrees motion
- 2. The slider's horizontal motion and braking force

Forces on sliders $\omega_{\rm H}$ FB FB NUM rod holder while braking Fe: force exerted by Du : weight of the holder WH: weight of the notaer
vw H: friction between holder & slider slider & comprents divided on 4 supporting legs Fores on press table: W re an $\frac{1}{4}$ $\overline{\omega_{52}}$ $-$ of p 4 FC = compression force of press FMP = horizontal force component of mini-piston rotation $w_{\beta} = w_{eq}$ ht of rollers W3152 = weight components divided on supports (1,5)

Figure **36:** sketches of forces applied on the mechanism

Desired accuracy and stiffness:

The function of this mechanism is to hold the rod in both positions. The accuracy should result in:

- **1-** Sliding the rod back to the exact electrospinning spot each time, to get consistent amount of polymer and produce reliable pills.
- 2- Sliding the rod beyond the two strippers so that they won't slam and close over it. This should be accompanied **by** extra safety distance travelled.

Solution (1): Since the rod is about 20 cm, 99% reliability means ± 0.2 cm or \pm 2mm deflection, and **95%** reliability means **1** cm or **10** mm deflection.

Solution (2): Since the rod's diameter is 0.125 inches and the hole is **0.197** inches, the maximum deflection could approximately be **0.072** inches.

Required stiffness:

The maximum deflection of a cantilever beam is governed **by** the equation:

$$
Definition = \frac{FL^3}{3EI}
$$

Equation 3

Where (F) is the applied force, **(E)** is the modulus of elasticity, **(I)** is the moment of inertia, and (L) is the length of the beam.

Using and approximate number of **(k = 0.072** in **= 0.1825** cm), these parameters **(E, I,** and L) need to be chosen to give the allowable maximum deflection.

Structural loop:

The estimated dimensions of the mechanism are:

Rod travel distance:

Slider Mechanism Length:

Table 3: the mechanism's estimated dimensions

The structural loop is three times the sum of distances each axis might travel. This machine has one axis, and the distance travelled is the total length of the electrospinning and press assemblies. This gives a total length is 120 cm, so the structural loop is **360** cm.

To size the moving carriage, initial calculations were carried out for two possible geometries, a rectangular rube cross-section, or a C-shaped tube cross section.

For the rectangular and **C-** shaped tube cross-section, the outer dimension calculation was:

$$
Outer\ Dimension = \frac{1}{5} * total\ length
$$

Equation 4

Plugging the numbers in gives:

$$
Outer\ Dimension = \frac{1}{5} * 120\ cm = 24\ cm
$$

The wall thickness calculation was:

Wall thickness $=$ $\frac{1}{20}$ $*$ 0uter dimension

Equation 5

Plugging the numbers in gives:

Wall thickness =
$$
\frac{1}{20} * 24 \text{ cm} = 1.2 \text{ cm}
$$

The assumptions on proportions were that the height would be **10** cm, to match the 24 cm outer dimension calculated using Equation 4 above.

Using the initial sizing above, and assuming the mechanism will be machined out of aluminum. The volume and density calculations would give a beam mass of **12.75 kg.** The natural frequency of the beam structure, assuming it is fixed on both ends, would look as seen below (column 4 in Table 4):

Table 4: natural frequency calculation of the beam

3.3.1.3.4 Geometric error budget:

An estimation of the mechanism's geometric error budget looks as follows:

Table 5: geometric error budget

As seen in Table **5** above, the most influential factors on the mechanism's error are the geometric errors and the thermal errors. This is because the mechanism is supposed to have high speed, which might drive the temperature higher. On the other hand, the deflection and process errors have minimal effects because the mechanism is relatively light and small. The sliding rod is **1/8** inches in diameter and the transported mass of polymer is **10** milligrams, so minimal deflections are expected.

3.3.2 Sliding mechanism selection

3.3.2.1 Comparison of five design strategies

These are some sketches for the different design strategies considered:

1 Sketch of stategiess Bachdord States a - Ar slder de la provincia de la provincia del provincia de la provincia de la provincia de la provincia de la provincia - Two-Red Sliders Can be har zontal or vertical wheels

d- Flat support slider: Plat stider \sim fferent nod diameters inside each other

Figure **37:** sketches of different sliding design strategies

A comparison between these designs is in this table:

Table 6: comparison of the slider's five design strategies

The comparison between the errors of these five mechanisms in the 3-axis looks as follow:

Table 7: comparison between the errors of the five design strategies

From the comparison above, the two top choices were the ball screw or the two-rod slider.

3.3.2.2 Narrowing down to two design strategies

On the power source side, the electrically controlled actuator was chosen over the pneumatic one because of its motion accuracy and variable speed control. This means that design **(1)** in Table **6** was excluded. The electric actuator could be used to trigger the velocity of the slider at different stages, especially in the initial testing phase that needs quick accommodation to design changes.

On the sliding mechanism side, out of the five concepts above, design **(5)** was excluded because meshed rods will have complications with polymer sticking, and design (4) was excluded because it will produce more errors because of its low height and low moment of inertia. The remaining designs are designs (2) and **(3),** the ball screw and the two-rod slider.

^Amore detailed functional requirements table for the two-rod slider design looks as **follows:**

Table 8: updated functional requirements table for the two-rod slider

The functional requirements table for the ball screw would be the same as Table **8** except for number 4:

Table 9: updated functional requirements table for the ball screw

After a more detailed risk analysis, we have the following three risks:

1) Rod/hole misalignment: it could make the rod hit the die cavity's sides rather than get into the hole.

Countermeasureà Using extra roller/guiders to keep it on the way and planning minimal error in my error budget

2) Polymer left behind: it could happen is the rod and hole are misaligned while the rod slides back from electrospinning

Countermeasurea Designing a cone shaped hole entrance. This will enhance the polymer flow and have minimal polymer loss.

3) Polymer left overs: it will affect the accuracy and repeatability of the mechanism **Countermeasurea Having a** sweeper around the rod before going back to electrospinning. This should get off any polymer remains and decrease errors

Some numerical calculations of these risks gave:

Design. Clearance = 3.175mm All. Height incr/dec = 1.59 mm 3.17 M is alignment Δ (Z -axis) If middle rod shifts up for 0.90 $0.7mm$: <u>cror Height = $0.\frac{7}{103} \approx 44\frac{1}{10}$ </u> 2.3^{me} Ha All * The problem is not anly in the height error, but the attached polymer on the rod cold probably not fit into the whole =7 Assuring polymer thickness is 1mm, so through the top 0.9 mm passed from the 1 mm thickness, which lookas follows! will to.1mm cut-off $H = 20cm = 200m$ 1 mm 3.175mm \forall of polymer = $\pi r_s^2H - \pi r_s$ + $= 20075 (4.1752 - 3.1752)$ $= 4618$ mm² $56r$ $9 = 45° = 0.785$ rad $\frac{60 \text{ rad}}{5.000 \text{ s}} = 2 \left(\frac{5.135}{2} \right) 0.385 = 2.03 \text{ mm}$ **5wl'** A circular sector = $\frac{R^2}{2}(b-sin\theta) = (5.175)^2 + 0.785$ 785 $= 0.26$ mm²

 t sections 27.47 - r enor in pills $\frac{\sqrt{26st}}{\sqrt{66t}} = \frac{52.4}{4618} = \frac{4.133}{4}$ Misalignment 2 (Y-axis) Sine polymer is circularly wrapped around the rod, any
Slight motion in the y-direction will have the Rod-Hde Assemb actual **NOW** designed Location location is eligament 3 (Y-Zaxis mix) A-mix of the 2 errors accuring S Rod-Hole $2d$ S Phymer Assembly *er-* $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\frac{1}{2}}\sqrt{1-\frac{1}{2}}\sqrt{1-\frac{1}{2}}}}$ 业 designed bougher! Rocation \mathbb{R}^3

Figure **38:** numerical calculations of the polymer/hole accuracy risk

These preliminary calculations showed the effect of the Y or Z-axis errors on the accuracy of the pills' masses. The shape of polymer lost would be more circular but it was linearized to ease of calculations for first order estimates.

Comparing other user centered aspects of the two mechanisms gives:

Table 10: user centered comparison between the two top designs.

It has been decided to move further with the two-rod slider because it will be home made in MIT's hobby shop, it will be more flexible for future design changes, and more alignment components will be added to increase its precision and accuracy.

3.3.3 Driving Mechanism of the linear actuator

The numerical requirements of the mechanism were as follows:

Table 11: numerical requirements of the mechanism

The two top choices for the driving mechanism were:

- **1) A** belt drive.
- 2) **A** ball screw.

To compare the two systems, their stiffness, rpm, and torque was analyzed. The mechanism with the maximum stiffness, minimal rpm and torque should be the best fit.

The stiffness was calculated using this equation:

$$
\text{Fixed-fixed} \qquad \frac{1}{k} = \frac{1}{k_s} + \frac{1}{k_N} + \frac{1}{k_{B1} + k_{B2}} + \frac{1}{k_{H1} + k_{H2}}
$$

Equation 6

For ball screw:

Table 12: stiffness calculation of the ball screw

For belt drive:

Table 13: stiffness calculation of the belt drive

The stiffness of the belt drive system appears to be much lower than the ball screw due to the low stiffness of neoprene belt compared to high stiffness of the hardened alloy steel of the screw.

To calculate the torque and rpm requirements, the estimated volumes of the components and their material's density would be used to calculate the total weight of the sliding components. After having the weights, the forces needed to slide these weights using the belt or the screw would be calculated as follows:

Ball Screw Sizing, Torque, and RPM:

Ball Screw Torque and RPM:

Table 14: ball screw sizing

Belt Dimensioning, Torque and RPM:

Table 15: belt sizing

From the results in Table 14 and Table **15** above, the rpm and torque comparisons would be:

RPM: for travelling at 20 cm/s, the ball screw needs to operate at **950 rpm** while the belt only needs **50 rpm** (Almost 20 times less)

Torque: for the given rpms above, the Torque required **by** the ball screw is **4.66** Nm and the belt needs only **0.27** Nm (Almost **17** times less)

The conclusion from this analysis would be proceeding with a belt driven system rather than a ball screw because:

- **1-** The belt needed less rpm and less torque (almost 20 times less).
- 2- Due to reason **(1),** the belt mechanism would need a smaller motor and less power to drive the system
- **3-** The high accuracy of the ball screw was not a hard requirement for this slider.
- 4- The ball screw would have higher accumulated error in the error budget because the system would be heavier, having more deflection in the long travel distance.
- **5-** The ball screw would be an over-design for this application, in terms of motor sizing and required accuracy.

Further risks analysis

After choosing the belt driven mechanism, further risks specific to this design were analyzed in Table **16** below:

Table 16: risks of the belt drive design

For risk **(1),** counter measures 1,2, and **3** would be used. For risk (2), counter risk **(3)** would be used. For risk **(3),** counter risks **1** and 2 would be used. For risk (4), counter risk 1,2, and **3** would be further studied below to choose the most appropriate option. These three options are:

- **1-** The meshing gears/coupling
- 2- The motor attachment to complementing rod.
- **3-** The separate spin motor assembly on the electrospinning chamber's side.

The meshing gears/coupling design would look as follows:

Figure 39: the meshing gears/coupling design

Attaching a motor to complementing rod would look as follows:

Figure 40: motor attachment to a complementing rod

The separate spin motor assembly on the electrospinning side would look as follows:

Figure 41: the separate spin motor assembly design

As seen in Figure 41, the separate spin motor assembly is the box with the letter M at the rightmost side of the assembly and the sliding motor is the box with the letter M on the leftmost side of the sketch. After comparing the three spinning ideas, shown in Figure **39,** Figure 40, and Figure 41 above, the meshing gears/coupling design was chosen, because it has the least components and it keeps all the electrical controls in one side for ease of assembly, control, and safety.

3.3.3.3 Belt design calculations

After sizing the belt components, we will use their power and torque requirements to pick the most appropriate sliding motor.

The power and torque requirements look as follows:

 \tilde{k}

 $\widetilde{\mathcal{R}}$

Table **17:** torque and power requirements for the sliding motor

The analysis in Table **17** showed that a motor with a minimum torque and power of **0.18** Nm and **2.73** W is needed. **A** Nema17 motor with the following characteristics looks like a good fit:

Table 18: Nema 17 motor characteristics

This motor has a holding torque of 0.45 Nm and the torque requirement is **0.18** Nm, so it should be a good match.

This motor's frequency was then compared to the natural frequency of the mechanism to make sure they will not resonate. The natural frequency was calculated using the equation below:

$$
\omega_n = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}
$$

Equation 7

Table 19: the mechanism's natural frequency

The calculation in Table **19** showed that the natural frequency of the mechanism is much higher than the planned speed, so the motor should be stiff and stable enough.

Clamp Design:

The belt was purchased from BrecoFlex, so the following options from BrecoFlex' s catalogue were reviewed to choose the most appropriate clamp:

Aluminum Plate Dimensions -XL, L, H

Table 20: BrecoFlex clamps dimensions

The clamp's dimensions P, F, **D,** B, **A, S,** and **C** are shown in Figure 42 below:

Figure 42: BrecoFlex clamp geometry

Belt clamp (L) was chosen because it fitted into belts of widths between 1.41 and 1.54 inches, and our required width was **1.5** inches. Its total length **(A)** was **3.01** inches and its height **(S)** was **0.59** inches. Using these dimensions to calculate the volume, and comparing this volume to the density of aluminum gave a clamp mass of 0.046 **kg.**

Bearings Design:

Figure 43: sketching the required bearings

To size the four roller bearings on the pulley's shafts, the following calculations were carried out:

Table 21: sizing of the shaft's roller bearings

For the current loading, choosing the smallest bearing of inner diameter **3** mm would have a factor of safety of **18,** but a bigger bearing was chosen to match the motor's shaft diameter of **5** mm and be easier to assembly. This bigger bearing has a safety factor of 40.

For the two roller bearings between the polymer rod and the sliding box, an analysis using the MiTCalc software gave the following output:

Table 22: sizing of the rod and sliding box's roller bearings

The only load on these bearings was the mass of the rod, which was very low. Using the smallest SKF bearing, of inner diameter **3** mm, would have a factor of safety of 450.

The rotational speed of **60** rpm was used above was a higher estimate of the expected speed of **10** rpm. The accurate number would be found out through further electrospinning experimentation, but it should be between those two values.

The spinning mechanism's design:

This mechanism needs to allow the rod to slide and rotate inside the system, an initial sketch of the components looked as follows:

Figure 44: sketching the spinning mechanism

The loading on those thrust bearings was used to size them as shown below:

Bearings	
geometry:	
Bearing $ID =$	SKF taper roller bearing ID 1
D in $(mm) =$	15
D out (mm) =	42
Width $(mm) =$	13

Table 23: sizing the thrust bearings

The bearings' capacity was compared to their loading to calculate the expected bearing life

as seen below:

Table 24: bearing life calculation

This bearing life table shows that the chosen bearings have a very long expected life of more than **5,000,000** hours each, and that the bearing with the shortest life is the pulley's shaft one.

Structure design:

The required dimensions of the belt's structure are:

Table 25: dimensions of the belt's structure

The forces applied on these structures looked as follows:

Figure 45: sketch of the forces applied on the structure

The estimated values of these forces would be:

Table 26: values of forces applied on the structure

The deflection of wood versus steel structures were calculated using MitCalc software, and this was the software's output:

Table 27: deflections of various structural loading using steel versus wood

The results in Table **27** have shown that the best location for the supports is **50** mm on the inside of the actuator's edges. This gives only **0.003** mm deflection when the belt clamp is in the middle, halfway, or even close to the edges. The other observation is that steel always had less deflection than wood, so it is a better candidate material for the structure.

Putting these design details together gave an updated **CAD** drawing for the mechanism that looked as follows:

Figure 46: proposed SolidWorks CAD for the linear actuator design

This solid works model gave us a lot of insights about additional parts and calculations to be carried out. Some of the improvements are:

- **1-** Motor support box needs to be at the same height as the pulley box.
- 2- Detailed design of the driving shaft that connects the motor to the pulley needs to be re-assessed.
- **3-** The inside diameter of the pulley of **50** mm and the motor shaft diameter of5 mm needed a coupling with a huge variation in the radius.

Some of the additional parts to be designed were:

- 4- Designing the shaft on the other side, which connects the pulley center and the side bearings.
- **5-** Sizing of the belt housing (long rectangular box) relevant to the belt's pulley boxes (2 side boxes) to account for load distribution on both and leave spaces on the sides for the linear axis end of travel braking.
- **6-** Analyzing different geometries for the belt clamp to slide on this housing so that it

is in contact with the belt, but at the same time the belt is sealed inside to protect it from dust.

- **7-** Designing the kinematic coupling as an additional box on top of one of the side boxes. It would have higher electrical safety if it is at the same side of the sliding motor, or it will have less vibrational effects if it is on the other side of the sliding motor.
- **8-** Redesigning the side boxes to accommodate any limitations of the kinematic coupling design.

3.3.4 CAD modeling

As discussed in the early analysis stage, it has been decided to choose:

- *An electromechanically driven system* over pneumatic and hydraulic because it is cleaner, simpler, and easily controlled at this early prototyping stage.
- *^Abelt driven system* over a lead screw because it needs less power, less rpm, and is more suitable for my high-speed application.
- *^Sdouble rod slider system* because it is cheap and flexible in changing sizing and designs.
- *^Aspur gear spinning* mechanism because it needs fewer parts than kinematic coupling and would work with misalignments better than bevel gears.

Moving to the **CAD** modeling stage, the belt components (from BrecoFlex) were placed with the auxiliary components (from McMaster)and the rest of the machined components. This **CAD** model will keep evolving until the final sizing and design is reached.

Design 1:

Figure 47: 1st CAD Design

This first design, shown in Figure 47, was made to show the whole system. It had a flat middle slider and a carriage rolling on four wheels. The spinning engagement method was a kinematic coupling. It still does not have specific parts like its shaft and its spur gears. It has been decided to remove the kinematic coupling and spin the rod directly with spur gears because it is simpler and more flexible. The rolling wheels have also been switched to linear bearings on two sliding rods because they have better sliding engagement and less error.

Design 2:

Figure 48: 2nd CAD design

After changing the spinning mechanism to a direct gear mesh and the sliding mechanism to the two-rods mechanism, as seen in Figure 48. We began thinking about a carriage design that provides the required stiffness and weight. This could be a box, a C-section, or two flat plates. After evolving the design to this stage, we decided that we did not need this whole box sliding back and forth, but we could design a smaller and flatter carriage. We also started getting concerned with the alignment to make sure the rails would be straight enough.

Design 3:

Figure 49: 3rd CAD Design

In the **3rd** design, shown in Figure 49, we decided to use t-slotted aluminum structures as a base to give us the required straightness. We were not sure how wide it should be, and how it should be mounted to the structure. We were also not sure how it would interfere with the guiding rails and the belt's motion. We changed the carriage to a C-section and added the spinning motor mounts.

Design 4:

Figure 50: 4th CAD Design

In the **4th** design, we managed to wrap the belt mechanism around the **1.5** inch t-slotted aluminum structure, as shown in Figure **50.** Thus, the bottom half of the belt was in the aluminum's bottom slot. But we still had to calculate the most efficient spacing between the sliding rods and the belt system and find the optimum shape of the carriage having minimum number of parts and maximum stiffness.

Design 5:

Figure 51: 5th CAD design

The carriage design was updated, as seen in Figure **51.** It was re-designed so that the carriage and the linear bearings' housing were merged to be one part. The pulley was also changed for a bigger one of 40 mm hub diameter rather than **30** mm. This bigger pulley helped move the carriage upwards, and move the sliding rails downwards. Then the belt and the rails were all in line, to avoid any motion errors. We have also enhanced the motor's housing from two parallel sheets to a U-section giving it more stiffness and less weight.

Design 6:

In the 6th design, the carriage was compacted to be a smaller piece and reduce the machining time. The sides of the square shaped carriage were also removed because it was too much weight to be pulled back and forth. The heights of motor mounts were also adjusted accordingly, to fit the required gear mesh with the new carriage design.

Design 7:

Figure 53: 7th CAD Design

In this semi-final design, Slocum's concept of reciprocity (flip the part if you are not so happy with it!) was used:

$$
\frac{1}{\circledcirc}=\; \circledcirc
$$

Equation 8

The gear and the linear bearings were flipped to be almost in line. The output rod was also flipped to be under the top support rather than above it, which brought it closer to the linear bearings. In the final design, the motor support was changed to a rectangular tube, the spinning motor's mount was meshed into the top support, and the linear bearing support was moved below the top support for ease of assembly.

3.3.5 Final design components

Figure 54: a real image of the sliding spinner mechanism

An **electro-mechanical mechanism** was chosen over a pneumatic one due to its higher positional accuracy and variable speed control, as discussed in earlier sections. For the driving mechanism, a **belt driven mechanism,** was found to be the most appropriate because it would require the minimal motor requirements. The sliding Motor (Part **9)** was attached to the pulley's shaft (part 12) using a coupling. This shaft rotates the pulleys (part 14), moving the belt (part **11)** accordingly. These components are visible in Figure **⁵⁵** below.

No. **Part** Sliding Mechanism: **¹**T slotted Aluminum 2 | Side supports **3** Flexure bearing 4 Carriage **7 10 5** Rails 5 6 58 58 **6** Polymer rod 11 **7** Driving gear **8** Driven gear **9** Sliding Motor **10** Spinning Motor 12 **11** Belt **j** 2 **1 1 9 9** 12 Pulley's shafts **13** Pulley 14 | Belt Clamp **15** Spinning Motor Mount

Figure 55: The sliding spinner's parts

For the sliding mechanism, we have chosen the **double sliding rails** (part **5)** because the **CNC** machine could monitor its precision and straightness, and because it was easy to manufacture in the MIT machine shop. Those sliding rails were mounted on the side supports (part 2) and machined on the **CNC** mill with a precision of **0.001** inches. To ensure straightness of the rails, the mechanism was mounted on T-slot aluminum structure (part **1)** because of its precise straightness is 0.0125" per foot of length and its commercial availability. Additional flexure bearings (part **3)** were mounted on the side supports (part 2) for more precise straightness. On these sliding rails (part *5),* the carriage (part 4) slides on self-aligning linear bearings with a misalignment capability of **0.5-.** This carriage is moving the polymer rod (part **6)** back and forth into and out of the electrospinning chamber.

3.3.6 Design equations

The sliding motor's design was governed **by** the equation: $T_{sl} = F_{sl} * R_{pv}$

Equation 9

Equation 10

where T_{sl} is the sliding motor's torque requirement, F_{sl} is the sliding force, and R_{py} is the radius of the belt's pulley. Fsi can be calculated **by:**

$$
F_{sl} = (\mu_{slb} * W_{sl}) + F_{str}
$$

where F_{sl} is the sliding force; W_{sl} is total weight of the sliding components including the carriage, its attached gears, and couplings; F_{str} is the force with which the strippers press on the rod.

Substituting these numerical values in Equation **10:**

Table 28: sliding forces calculations

$$
F_{sl} = (0.003 * 17.66) + 0.858 = 0.91 N
$$

Multiplying this force **by** the pulley's radius of 40 mm, gave the following torque:

$$
T_{sl} = 0.91 * 0.04 = 0.036 Nm
$$

This torque is much less than the Nema **17** motor's capacity of 0.45 Nm, so this calculation verified that the Nema **17** motor was a good fit for the design.

Spinning Mechanism:

Figure 56: The filleted gears coupling (a) driving gear (b) driven gear (c) driving and driven gear meshed

The polymer rod needs to spin only when it is at the rightmost position of the slider, when the rod is fully contained in the electrospinning-chamber. The most traditional way of spinning the polymer rod would have been to install a spinning motor in the carriage (part 4) that moves back and forth with the mechanism. However, we did not go with this design because firstly the electrical wiring would be dangling and unsafe, and secondly the wires' movement back and forth would shorten their lifespan and need higher maintenance. Thus, the spinning motor (part **10)** was fixed on the top of the rightmost side support (part 2) to connect to the carriage (part 4) that carries the polymer rod (part **6)** using a kinematic coupling. We have excluded bevel gears because they need high

positional accuracy, and we did not want to increase the design complexity using a special kinematic coupling design. We made a unique design **by** adding rounded teeth to a spur gear, as shown in Figure **57.** The design was re-iterated, **3D** printed, and tested four times to come up with the most appropriate shape of fillets to assist the meshing between the two gears in case of a slight misalignment.

Figure 57: Spur Gear with rounded teeth and extended hub

Making these gears out of **ABS** plastic had the advantage of isolating the polymer rod from the rest of the metallic components to ensure the polymer rod is properly grounded in the electrospinning chamber. This isolation was done **by** extending the gear's hub and attaching the bearings to the outside of the squeeze collars on the hub, such that the metal bearings would not touch the polymer rod at all. The spinning motor sizing is governed **by** this relationship:

$$
T_{sp} = F_{sp} * R_{driven}
$$
 Equation 11

where T_{sp} is the spinning torque required, R_{driven} is the radius of the driven gear, and F_{sp} is the force required to spin the polymer rod inside the electrospinning chamber.

$$
F_{sp} = W_{gr} + W_{rod} + W_{cp} + W_{poly}
$$

Equation 12

where W_{gr} is the weight of the driven gears, W_{rod} is the weight of the polymer rod, W_{cp} is the weight of the coupling attaching the gear on the polymer rod, and W_{poly} is the weight of the polymer collected. This equation assumes that the fit between the rod and its grounding support is a clearance fit, so it is frictionless.

Plugging in the values gave:

Table 29: spinning motor calculations

The mass of 0.04 **kg** translates to a force of **0.39 N,** multiplying this force **by** the **1.5** cm radius of the driven pulley, as mentioned in Equation **11** gave:

 $T_{sp} = 0.39 * 0.015 = 0.006$ *Nm*

Equation 13

The resulting value from Equation **13** was used to pick a motor with a higher torque capability that the torque needed. The Nema **17** motor's capacity was 0.45 Nm, so this calculation verified that this motor was a good design fit.

3.4 Mechanical Press Design

3.4.1 The press's main functional requirements

The main functional requirements of the press were as follows:

Table 30: the press's functional requirements

As shown in Table **30** above, the press had four main functions: receiving the polymer, stripping it off the rod, pressing it, and ejecting it. The main goal of this design was to use the least number of steps changing the polymer from a fibrous form to a pill form. In the upcoming section, we would discuss how to receive, strip, press, and eject the pill with almost the same mechanism. This would help increase the production rate of the nanofibrous pills and make it closer to the current pill pressing techniques.

3.4.2.3 Stripper's design:

3Stripper's functional requirements:

The stripping mechanism was designed to:

- **1)** Accommodate the rod collector's rotation during electrospinning
- 2) Surround the rod collector tightly, to help slide it out and keep the polymer in.
- **3)** Act as the bottom of the die cavity during the pressing process.

Strippers' design process:

The stripper assembly was designed as an independent module **by** Slocum and Rojas that could independently tested and additional features for versatility of incorporating with the rest of the machine. At the time of designing and manufacturing the unit, we were evaluating an array of designs for the other elements to simplify the existing design. As shown in Figure **58,** the stripping mechanism consisted of four elements: compression block, sliders, slider mount, and actuation system (air cylinders). The compression block served to collect the spun material of a rod (not shown).

Figure 59: strippers' assembly view two

Stripper's final design:

Figure 60: the strippers' mount

This mount consisted of three main parts: the outside mount, stripper one, and stripper two. The outside mount was made of stainless steel, and the strippers were made of brass to apply pressure on the rod and strip the polymer off without wearing out. The inner geometry of the strippers formed a **1/8** inch hole to contain the polymer rod, and the outer lips constrained its linear motion to stop at the required position. During the first step, to strip the polymer off the rod, the lip of stripper one is at its maximum position around the die cavity. During the second step, stripper one contracted back and stripper two went all the way in until its lip touched the die cavity. In this case, the bottom of the cavity was fully blocked to press the pill into its required shape. The third step was when stripper two retracted back, so the press went down again to eject the pill out of the machine.

3.4.2 Die cavity design

3.4.3.1 Die cavity's functional requirements

The die cavity had two main functional requirements:

1) Collecting and containing the stripped polymer when in the horizontal position **(1)**

2) Receiving the punch in its cavity to press the pill when in vertical position (2)

Figure 61: the two positions of the die cavity

Figure **61** above shows these two positions. In position **(1),** the cavity is horizontal and the rod spins inside to collect the polymer during the electrospinning process. It also stays horizontal during the stripping step, where the 2 strippers close on the rod so the rod slides out leaving the polymer inside the cavity. In position (2), the cavity is vertically aligned to allow the piston to slide in and press the pill into its shape and then it slides in again to eject it when the strippers are open.

3.4.3.2 Die cavity's design process

The die cavity rotates relative to the side supports through shafts on either side which are fixed to the side supports. These shafts interface with the die cavity through oil-embedded bronze bushings, which were selected because they would be able to support the maximum load of the compression piston, which could not be supported **by** standard plastic bushings.

Figure 62: forces applied on the bronze bushings

F A

Equation 14

$$
\sigma = \frac{F}{\frac{1}{4} * \frac{\pi D^2}{4}}
$$

Equation 15

The value *'A* used in Equation **15** was the assumed fraction of the area of the bushing that is the contact region. Running this equation for the applied force showed that nylon bushings would fail.

The oil embedded into the bushing lubricates the shafts connected to the die-cavity, decreasing the friction between the two components when the die cavity rotates. The holes inside of the bushings were expanded **0.005"** to account for potential misalignment of the two shafts caused **by** misalignment of the two side supports.

3.4.3.3 Die cavity's final design

Figure 63: the die cavity

This die cavity was made out of anodized aluminum to avoid metal contamination of the pill's material. It has two journal bearings fitting in its two side holes. Their function is mounting this die cavity on the side supports (part **7** in Figure **66)** to restrict its movement to pure rotation. The hole on top serves as the polymer rod inlet when the cavity is horizontal, and it serves as the die cavity where the pill material is pressed when it is vertical. It also has four threaded holes at the bottom to attach the strippers' mount to this die cavity piece.

3.4.3 Punch Assembly design

In designing the punch assembly; punch, bearings, and pneumatic piston, the following functional requirements were first taken into consideration:

3.4.4.1 Punch's functional requirements:

The main requirements for the punch assembly were to:

- **1)** Press the polymer into a pill shape
- 2) Eject the pill out of the assembly
- **3)** Accommodate the rotating die cavity's design **by** designing a special housing for it, as shown in Figure 64.

Figure 64: designing punch length for die cavity rotation

3.4.4.2 Punch's design process:

The piston used for the punch was chosen based on the 2,000 pounds force used to make commercially available tablets compressed from powder. The maximum air pressure output from the source used to originally test the compression system was **100** psi, which translated to a force of **1590** lbs. from the piston. While this is less than the **2,000 pounds** used commercially earlier, this is still significantly less than the predicted force required to compress electrospun material into a tablet. The cylinder is also still small enough to be able to test the effect of different compression forces on the tablet shape with good resolution for differences in input pressure of **5.** The stroke length of the piston was **15"** to provide ample travel length for the punch even if the length of the die cavity were changed.

The rotary shafts which allow both the die cavity and rotary piston to rotate are fixed to the side support through commercially available machinable shaft collars which are bolted to the side supports. These were chosen for their simplicity, low cost, flexibility in case the shaft diameter was increased, machinability, and commercial availability.

Since the side supports could not both be machined at the same time, all holes were designed with proper tolerancing based off of the milling machines that were used to make sure that none of the rotary shafts would bear load. This would be especially important for the shafts connecting the die cavity to the supports.

3.4.4.2 Punch's final design:

The punch's length was designed such that when it retracts, the cavity can freely rotate **90** degrees, and when it goes into the cavity, it goes all the way through to eject the pill. In other words, the distance between the piston and the die cavity was slightly more than the length of the die cavity to perform these two functions, as observed in Figure **61.**

The die punch (part 2 in Figure **66)** was made of stainless steel. It had an outer diameter of $\frac{1}{4}$ inches as it goes into a $\frac{1}{4}$ inches die cavity with a clearance tolerance. It was attached to the pneumatic piston using a threaded coupling, which goes through its $44-20$ threading.

3.4.4 CAD modeling

A machine design group was hired early to design an integrated unit. Dr. Rojas was hired to evaluate the existing design, consider the manufacturability, and evaluate the modularity of the unit. Figure *65* shows the design where a slider carriage moved via a belt drive along a mounted rod. The slider carriage interacted with an anchoring mechanism to hold the device where the fibers were compressed.

Figure 65: Prior design

The design was considered to be too complex and with too many parts. **A** modular design was adopted where each module can be independently tested. The mechanism for the press mechanism also needed the versatility to be integrated with the design in Figure *65.*

3.4.5 Final design components

Figure 66: the mechanical press components labeled

The press design consists three main assembles; the punch, the die cavity, and the strippers. The three functional requirements of this piece are: **(1)** Stripping the polymer off the rod, (2) Rotating the die cavity **90** degrees, and **(3)** Pressing the polymer into a pill shape and ejecting it.

3.4.6 Design equations

Press Sizing:

This press is designed to process the polymer coming from the electrospinning chamber. It takes the polymer collected on the rod, and strips it into the die cavity. So the die cavity was sized according to the following equation:

$$
L_{cavity} = 0.25 * L_{pr}
$$

Equation 16

where L_{pr} is the length of the polymer collected on the rod. After the polymer is stripped, it shrinks according to: **(1)** the speed of stripping, (2) the stripping force, and **(3)** the material being stripped. The length of the stripped polymer during our experimentation was about **5%** to **10%** of the polymer length, so the cavity was designed to be approximately **25%** of the polymer length to be in the safe side if any other material or stripping conditions were used.

After the cavity's size was determined, the length of the punch going into this cavity was calculated **by:**

$$
L_{punch} = L_{cavity} + L_{eject}
$$
 Equation 17

where L_{punch} is the length of the punch, L_{cavity} is the length of the die cavity, and L_{eject} is the additional distance that the punch travels beyond the cavity to eject the pill.

Then the distance between the piston and the die cavity was determined **by** the equation:

$$
L_{piston.cavity} = L_{punch} + L_{gap}
$$
\nEquation 18

where L_{piston.cavity} is the distance between the piston and the cavity, L_{punch} is the length of the punch, and L_{gap} is the distance between the end of the punch and the die cavity when the punch is fully retracted. This distance was used to determine the size of the side supports (part **7)** shown in the press components Figure **66** earlier. Then the total length of the press mechanism is then determined **by:**

$$
L_{press\ total} = L_{piston} + L_{side\ supports} + L_{strippers}
$$
 Equation 19

where L_{press total} is the total vertical length of the press assembly, L_{piston} is the length of the press's piston (part **1** in Figure **66),** Lside supports is the length of the side supports (part **7** in Figure 66), and L_{strippers} is the length of the strippers' assembly.

However, this whole press assembly could not be placed on a surface, it has to be placed on a structure to lift it up and align the polymer rod between the three mechanisms; electrospinning, the sliding spinner, and the press. The critical alignment point was having the polymer rod slide in between the three mechanisms precisely. This was done **by** aligning the polymer rod (part **6** in the sliding spinner assembly), the die cavity (part **3** in the press assembly), and the end support (in the electrospinning chamber) in one line.

Structure:

The structure of the machine was made out of **1.5** inches t-slotted aluminum framing. The main functional requirements of this structure are providing the required alignment and stiffness to the mechanism. The critical alignment point was having the sliding spinner, the die cavity (part **3** in the press assembly), and the electrospinning's end support in one line. This would make the polymer rod slide in between mechanisms precisely. The stiffness had to provide enough stability to accommodate the movements of the pressing and sliding parts. The height of the structure was determined from the height of the polymer rod above the electrospinning spinneret, so the die cavity and the spinning slider mechanism held the polymer rod at this height of 42 cm.

As seen in Figure **67** below, the total width of the structure was **192.1** cm, the total height was **82** cm, and the width was **50** cm. The box on the right was the electrospinning chamber, the middle structure was for the press, and the rightmost structure was for the sliding spinner.

Figure 67: Engineering drawing of the machine's structure

Chapter Four: Building The Machine

"Knowing is not enough, we must apply. Willing is not enough, we must do." Bruce Lee

4.1 Electrical Controls

4.1.1 Stepper Motors for the sliding spinner

There were two stepper motors in the sliding spinner setup, the sliding motor and the spinning motor.

The Spinning Motor:

The spinning motor (part **10** in the sliding spinner assembly) used was Nema **17 (17HS13-** 0404S) purchased from Stepper online Motors **&** Electronics. Nema **17** has a holding torque of **0.26** Nm, a step angle of **1.8',** drawing a current of 0.4 **A** at 12 V.

The function of this spinning motor was to spin the polymer rod collector inside the electrospinning chamber. It required a very low torque because it just spins the mass of the polymer rod, the gear, the coupling, and the attached polymer, which did not exceed 40 grams.

Figure 68: Nema 17 stepper motor

Figure 69: Nema 17 stepper motor's dimensions

The Sliding Motor:

The sliding motor (part **9** in the sliding spinner assembly) was a High Torque/Speed Nema 34 *(34HS59-5004S).* It was also purchased form the same manufacturer. It has the same phase angle, but a holding torque of **13** Nm, drawing a current of **5A** from a **60V** power supply. The function of this sliding motor was to retract the rod back from the electrospinning chamber. It had to resist the strippers' high pressure (around **15** Psi) and the frictional force of the sticky polymer on the rod, so the required torque was of a much bigger value.

Figure **70:** Nema 34 Stepper Motor

Figure **71:** Nema 34 Stepper Motor's dimensions

4.1.2 Stepper Motors'Additional Hardware

The spinning motor, Nema **17,** was controlled **by** a Big Easy driver (ROB **12859)** connected to our main Arduino Mega, both purchased from Sparkfun.

Figure 72: Big Easy Driver (ROB 12859)

Figure 73: Arduino Mega

The sliding motor, Nema 34, was controlled **by** a **MA860H** stepper motor driver and **S 350-60 60V** switching power supply purchased from Stepper Online Motors and electronics.

Figure 74: MA860H Microstep Driver

Figure 75: S 350-60 60V Switching Power Supply

4.1.3 Electrospinning Spinneret Motor

Figure 76: Small DC Motor for Spinneret Rotation in the bath

In the electrospinning chamber, the wire electrode spins at a very low speed and torque. The function of this spinning mechanism is to continuously dip the wire in the polymer solution to get more solution and form droplets that are easy to spin into nanofibers. **A** small **6V** 20 rpm **DC** gearbox motor purchased from Zheng was used. Its specifications are shown below:

Figure 77: sketch of DC motor's specifications

The equation for the voltage input versus the rpm output was:

y = 3.0944x-.5549

where (y) was the rpm and (x) was the voltage input. Thus, 1V gave 2.5rpm.

4.1.4 Electrospinning High Voltage Power Supply

Figure 79: High Voltage Power Supply for Electrospinning

The applied voltage for the electrospinning process was controlled **by** the Gamma High voltage power supply shown in Figure **79.** Its model number was (model RR40-1.5) and the applied voltage ranged from 34 to 42 kV.

4.1.5 Pneumatics Power Supply

The power supply used for the pneumatics' controls was a **DC** regulated power supply from **TENMA,** shown in Figure **80.** Its model number was **72-6626.** Its function was operating the switches of the pneumatic controls. It provided a voltage of **15** Volts, and a current of less than **I** Ampere at all times.

Figure **80:** pneumatic control's **power supply**

4.2 Pneumatic Controls

There were four pneumatic pistons in this mechanism: the press's piston, the rotary piston, and the two strippers' pistons.

Main Pressure source:

The main pressure was supplied **by** a Porter Cable **C2002** compressor. It had a capacity of **150** Psi, flow rate of **2.6 SCFM,** and a volume of **6** gallons.

Figure 81: Porter Cable C2002 Compressor

The values shown in Table **32** below were the pressure distribution from the main source into its three uses: the pressing piston, the rotary piston, and the strippers' pistons. These values were found to be the most appropriate after multiple experimentations and trials.

Table 32:table of pressure distribution

Press's Piston:

The press's piston (part **(1)** in the press assembly) had a model number of **D160SENC SL5** RAl. It was purchased from Motion Controls **LLC.** It had a bore of 4.5 inches, a rod diameter of 1 inch and a maximum pressure rating of **250** Psi.

Rotary Piston:

The rotary piston (part (4) in the assembly) of model number **UM** % x 4-M was purchased from **Phd** Inc, and its model number is **11417362-01.** Its function was to rotate the die cavity **90** degrees, from its horizontal position to its vertical position.

Strippers' Pistons:

The function of these two pistons was to push the two strippers back and forth.

Their cylinders were purchased from Bimba Manufacturing. When these two strippers moved back and forth, they formed three different positions, and gave three functions mentioned in Table **33** below.

Table 33: The 3 different positions of the strippers

The visual representation of the strippers' three positions looks as follows:

Figure 82: stripper's position one

Figure 83: stripper's position two

Figure 84: stripper's position three

4.3.1 Re-building the electrospinning chamber:

As discussed in the electrospinning design chapter three, the chamber was an adaptation of an existing chamber design in the Rutledge group [40]. The main change was replacing the flat plate collector with a spinning rod collector. This rod added three extra parts to the system: **1)** the conical support, 2) the stand, and **3)** the spring-loaded grounding. The stand was made out of t-slotted aluminum framing, and the spring-loaded grounding was made **by** sticking the brass ball to the spring using Loctite. **All** of these components were readily purchased from McMaster. The only machined part was the conical support.

The two iterations of the machined conical support, shown in Figure **85** and Figure **86,** were made using a **CNC** lathe purchased from South Western Industries, model TRAK DPMSX2. The main cubical body was trimmed into the required sizing using an end mill. The holes were drilled **by** regular drill bits, and the cone shape was drilled using a countersink tool.

Figure 85: the 1st iteration of building the conical support

Figure 86: the 2nd iteration building the conical support

The engineering drawing used for building the 2nd iteration of building the conical support was as follows:

Figure 87: engineering drawing views of the modified conical shaped support (dimensions are in inches)

 $\bar{\sigma}$

4.3 The sliding spinner building process

4.3.1 Gears' 3D Printing

The gears for the spinning mechanism were **3D** printed as shown below:

Figure 88: 1st gear design with 3D printing supports

Figure 89: 1st gear design after removing 3D printing supports

The first design, shown in Figure **88** and Figure **89,** had a major problem in the amount of support material needed for **3D** printing. Removing this support material damaged the piece most of the time. The gear's hub was oversized compared to the gear itself, this was because it had to fit a bolt and have some skin around it. Also fitting a bolt and a nut in the gear's hub left the gear's rotation unbalanced because the bolt was relatively heaver than the gear itself. Thus, we had to re-iterate the design process to solve these challenges.

In the second iteration, the gear's hub design was changed from a U-shaped clamp to a squeeze collar. Then a shaft collar could be attached to it, having smaller size and higher rotational stability.

Figure 90: 2nd gear design

The squeeze collar hub design worked well, but the fillet geometry was still not at the right angle. As seen in the bigger gear in Figure **90,** there was still a small flat surface at the end of the gear's fillet. This flat surface made the gears bump and break if they slid into each other.

In the 3rd gear design, shown in Figure 91, the gear's teeth were fully rounded with no flat surface. Now the smaller gear could easily mesh in and out without any problems.

Figure 91: 3rd gear design

4.3.2 Most critical module for carriage & spinning design

Before building the designed belt for the sliding spinner, an initial carriage was designed and tested using an air slider. This helped analyze the performance of the sliding and the spinning mechanisms. For this prototype, some parts were purchased and others were made.

Parts purchased:

1- Carbon fiber rod

- 2- **1/8** inches bearings
- **3-** U-section carriage

Parts made:

- **1-** Gears: they were both **3D** printed
- 2- Carriage: it was made **by** drilling holes for bearings and mounting bolts on the milling machine in the hobby shop. The engineering drawing of the part can be seen in Figure **92** below.

Figure **92:** carriage engineering drawing

 $\bar{\kappa}$

3- Motor mount: it was used to connect the spinning motor to the end of the pneumatic slider. Figure **93** shows the engineering drawing used for its machining.

Figure 93: motor mount engineering drawing

Testing Challenges:

1- The first problem was that the rod was too flimsy, swinging up and down too much. The deflection was a lot more than the calculated one. This might have happened because the carbon fiber purchased from McMaster was not as stiff as the numbers used for calculations.

> *Solution: Looking into more materials, thicker rods, thicker bearings holding the rod, and more guiders for the rod.*

2- The second problem was the gears' meshing force. Whenever the gears turned, their radial force pushed the other gear away, separating from each other and stopping the spin.

> *Solution: Also adding the guiders at the end of the slider and straightening the rod would help in keeping the rod in place.*

3- The third problem was the positioning of the gear relevant to the carriage. In the earlier design, the gear was slightly far from the carriage, so it had a lot of bending, as seen in Figure 94 below, due to Saint Venant's principle.

> *Solution: keeping the gear at a minimal distance from the carriage or even touching it, to avoid any bending.*

Figure 94: Gear's is bending as a result of no adhering to

As seen in Figure 94, the meshing was not successful as a result of not adhering to Saint Venant's principle. The solution is reciprocity, using Slocum's design equation of:

 $\frac{1}{2}$ =

When the gear was turned around, the hub moved to the outside and the gear moved closer to the support bearing. This minimized the bending effect and solved gear misalignment problems.

4.3.3 Machining the sliding spinner components

Most of the components were machined on the **CNC** TRAK DPMSX2. Some of the flat components were water jetted like the flexural bearings and the top supports.

Figure 95: machining the side supports (Part 1

Figure **96:** machining the carriage (Part 4H)

The engineering drawings of some of the parts look as follows:

Figure **97:** engineering drawing

Figure **98:** Motor L- sectional mount engineering drawing (Part **5G)**

Figure **99:** Flexure supports engineering drawing (Part 4E)

Figure **100:** Side supports engineering drawing (Part **IC)**

Figure **101:** Carriage engineering drawing (Part 4H)

4.3.4 *Final Bill of Materials*

The final bill of materials for the sliding spinner is:

Table **34:** The sliding spinner's bill of materials

4.3.5 Manufacturing processes for the mechanism

Most of the parts above were bought from McMaster and BrecoFlex, with exception of these parts machined in the MIT hobby shop:

Table **35:** the manufacturing processes for the sliding spinner's parts

4.3.6 Building the press mechanism

Building the strippers assembly:

The die cavity was made from aluminum **6061** stock material. The minimum length of the cavity was designed with Saint-Venant's principle of characteristics dimensions in mind, thus it had to be at least **10** pill diameters in length. The additional length was to allow for additional features like threaded holes, clearance holes, and a pair of horizontal slits on the die cavity that could serve as a known gripping region for integrating the module with the rest of the machine. The maximum length of the die cavity was dictated **by** the length of a standard **'/4"** drill bit. The

operation for the die cavity reservoir had to be drilled and reamed without removing the part from the mill. The reaming operation should be done with an over/under reamer set thus allowing for at least 0.002" clearance for the compression process. The threaded mounting holes on the square face of the die cavity were used to join the strippers' assembly to it via four **8-32** screws.

The strippers' assembly was also made from aluminum **6061** extrusions, selected for readability. One material consideration was that the strippers and strippers' mount could not both be made from aluminum, as it would have lead to galling between the rubbing surfaces. The static frictional coefficient between two dry aluminum surfaces was between **1.05** and *1.35.* **A** pocket on the strippers' assembly held the pair of strippers in place. The width of the pocket was dictated **by** the size of the rod diameter that collects the fibers as shown in Figure 102. The raised regions on the strippers' assembly were to provide enough material for the threaded connection for the actuators.

Figure **102 Process for specifying geometry of components**

The die cavity and strippers' assembly (Figure **103)** allowed for interchanging the components as the design evolves with minimal impact on the rest of the structure. **If** for some reason we needed to modify the internal hole of the die cavity we had the versatility to change components in the module.

Figure 103: Die cavity and strippers' assembly

The strippers' assembly and the die cavity were machined at the same time to maintain the same alignment and thickness of the parts. The center hole that strips the fiber material was pre drilled and reamed prior to machining off the excess material; this process guaranteed a vertical

smooth hole (especially with a low feed rate and pecking). Cutting the same geometry with a small end mill had the potential to create a tapered geometry where fibers could collect.

Figure 104: Fabrication of the matching sliders

The brass strippers had three configurations: **1)** completely open for spinning, 2) partially closed for material stripping, and **3)** fully closed for compaction. When the strippers were in the fully opened configuration (Figure **105)** their blades were fully retracted and the rod with the fiber material could be easily introduced into the mechanism with minimal alignment. Upon actuating both cylinders, the strippers closed to the material-stripping configuration (Figure **106).** After the fiber material was stripped off the rod, the rod was removed from the mechanism in the process of pulling the rod to strip off the fiber material. With the rod out of the way, the strippers were actuated to configuration three fully closed for compaction.

The height of level two had to be at least two to three rod diameters for alignment.

the strippers' assembly. The image on the right shows the three-layer slider geometry

Figure **106:** Strippers **A** and B in the material stripping configuration. The image on the left shows the strippers compressed concentric with the die cavity. The image on the right shows the strippers joined without the stripper's assembly.

The strippers had three levels of geometry each with its own purpose, Figure **107.** The first level consists of an over lapping region that keep the strippers aligned along the z-axis. When the strippers are in their fully retracted position level **I** of stripper **A** is always in contact with the bottom surface of stripper B level 2. The rod with the spun fiber enters the die cavity and passes between the strippers' blades. As the strippers start to close before the start of the fibrous region of the rod, the "V" shape of stipper **A** level one starts to pre-align the rod concentric with the bore of the die cavity. With increasing closure the level 2 of strippers **A** and B continue aligning the rod and create a concentric seal around the rod.

In the second configuration, level **3** of stripper **A** makes contact with the side of the die cavity acting as a hard stop. To achieve configuration 2, the pneumatic cylinder **A** is pressurized higher than the pneumatic cylinder B. Once the rod is completely out of the mechanism, cylinder B is pressurized higher than cylinder **A;** thus reaching the fully closed compaction configuration. To achieve configuration **3,** stripper B level **3** contacts the side of the die cavity. Both of the interior surfaces of level **3** strippers **A** and B are curved to create a Hertizian contact between the surfaces.

Figure **107** Stripper (Slider) levels

The actuation of the strippers is done with double acting pressure cylinders, which can be quickly actuated.

Machining the side supports:

Once the side supports were cut to the required specifications, standard drilling and reaming operations were done to both to meet the required tolerances and locations of holes. The side supports were each made from solid C-channel. Since the C-channel had tapered inner faces on the legs, these were machined down so that mounting bolts could properly interface with the legs.

The machinable shaft collars for the rotary shafts connecting to the rotary piston were not machined, they were just purhased with the correct shaft diameter. The shaft collars for the rotary shafts connecting to the die cavity were machined so that there was a sliding fit between the shaft and collar when the collar was completely loose. This guaranteed that a tight fit could be created when the **shaft collar** was tightened.

Machining the rotary piston's auxiliary parts:

Most of the auxiliary parts for the rotary piston were machined directly from stock so that they would interface properly with the rotary piston. The stopper was positioned properly **by** first putting the punch in its tablet compression orientation into the die cavity, so that the die cavity was held vertically. The stopper was then placed so that it was in **full** compression mode. This process guaranteed the die chamber would repeatedly settle into the correct location.

The Press's **bill** of materials:

The bill of materials of the purchased parts looked as follows:

The final bill of materials of the press assembly looked as follows:

Table 36: bill of materials for the press assembly

 $\hat{\mathcal{A}}$

4.3.7 Machine Assembly

Assembly challenges:

One of the challenges while assembling the sliding spinner was aligning the shaft's shoulders in between the supports. The shaft's shoulder should have been **1.5** inches wide, but it was off **by** around **0.125** inches. Adding a spring on one side, as shown in Figure **108,** solved this problem. The spring acted as a shoulder for one of the bearings and stopped it from wobbling right and left.

Figure 108: spring loading the driving shaft

The sliding spinner assembly process:

The assembly steps for the three sub-assemblies and the final assembly are shown below:

The motor-side supports sub-assembly:

- **1-** Mount the sliding motor **(2A)** to its square tube housing **(2D)** using 4 M3 bolts **(2C),** using a 2.5 mm hex screw.
- 2- Mount the belt pulley **(1A)** on its driving shaft (1F) using the 2 M3- 25 mm pulley screws **(1D).** Make sure each bolts rests on a flat side of the shaft.
- **3-** Insert 0.25" spring **(1E)** on one of the shoulders around this pulley.
- 4- **Add** the two 0.25"bearings (1B) on both ends of the pulley's shoulders.
- **5-** Rest the pulley-shaft assembly between the two side supports **(1C)** without further tightening.
- **6-** Place the motor L-section mount **(5G)** on the motor-side top support **(51)** all on top of the 2 side supports **(1C)** and the pulley shaft assembly loose in between. Then squeeze the 2 side supports closer to each other and mount the four $\frac{1}{4}$ -20 bolts, using a **3/16** Hex key, through the all pieces to live in the threaded hole inside the side supports.
- **7-** Place the flex coupling (2B) on the sliding motor's shaft inside the motor's housing. Then mount the motor's housing **(2D)** to the side supports **(1C)** using the four '4-20 screws **(2E) by** a **3/16** Hex Key.
- **8-** Press fit the Teflon **1/8"** linear bearing **(6A)** into its housing (6B).
- **9-** Mount the bearing's housing (6B) to the motor-side top support **(5I)** and spin motor L-section **(5G)** using the M4 bolts **(6C)** and nuts **(6D) by** a **3** mm hex key.

The driven shaft supports sub-assembly:

- 10-Mount the second belt pulley **(3A)** on its driving shaft **(3F)** using the 2 M3- 25 mm pulley screws **(3D).** Make sure each bolts rests on a flat side of the shaft.
- 11-Insert 0.25" spring **(3E)** on one of the shoulders around this pulley.
- **12-Add** the two 0.25"bearings (3B) on both ends of the pulley's shoulders.
- 13-Rest the pulley-shaft assembly between the two side supports **(3C)** without further tightening.
- 14-Place the top support **(3E)** over the 2 side supports **(3C),** squeeze them together and mount four 4-20 flat top bolts **(3F)** using a big flat key.
- 15-Place one of the flexure supports (4E) on each of the 2 side supports **(IC)** and **(3C)** assemblies using M4 bolts (4G) **by** a **3** mm hex key. Do not tighten the bolts so much yet.

The sliding carriage sub-assembly:

- 16-Place the 4 linear bearings (4B) in their holes in the carriage (4H), then place one **3-** 48 bolt (4C) with 2 washers (4D) and screw them with a 2 mm Hex Key.
- 17-Place the small gear **0.5"** bearings (5L) on the small gears' hubs (5B) and then add the **3/8"** collar **(SC)** on the rest of the hub. Repeat for the 2 small gears.
- 18-Slide the **1/8"** carbon fiber rod **(SA)** into both gears. Make sure you orient the gears in the directions shown in the assembly picture.
- 19-Tighten the **3/8"** collars **(SC)** onto the carbon fiber rod **(SA)** using a 2.5 mm Hex Key.
- 20-Place the 2 sliding rods (4A) into their designated holes in the side supports **(1C),** then through the carriage's linear bearings (4B), and then through the other side supports **(3C).**
- 21-Place the **8** drops in **80-20** fasteners (40) in their designated spots in the **80-20** Aluminum structure (4N).
- 22-Slide the **80-20** structure (4N) in between the 2 side supports' sub-assemblies.
- 23-Wrap the belt (41) around the pulleys into the bottom slot of the **80-20** and its slot in the carriage.
- 24-Align the clamp (4J) with the belt and the carriage holes, then tighten the four **10- 32** bolts (4K) and nuts (4L) using a cross key.

Final alignment and spinning mechanism:

- 25-Place the **80-20** fastening bolts (4P) in their holes and start aligning them with their drop-in fasteners in there. Make sure the side supports are horizontal and straight on the ground, and that the 2 side supports on each are aligned well together, then pull the 2 side supports apart to the desired belt tension and tighten the **80-20** bolts (4P) using a cross key.
- 26-Slide the carriage back and forth to feel the tightness or smoothness of the mechanism and tighten the shafts accordingly.
- 27-After you reach the desired vertical alignment location of the sliding rods, tighten the flexure supports (4E) top M3 bolts and nuts (4F) using a 2 mm hex key.
- 28-Tighten the bottom M4 bolts (4G) using a 3mm hex drive accordingly.
- 29-Place the four **3/8"** clamps **(SC)** on the outside of the sliding rods (4A) using a 7/64 Hex Key.
- 30-Slide the carriage towards the spinning motor direction to observe the correct required height of the big driving gear **(5D).**
- 31-Mount the spinning motor (5F) to its L-section **(5G)** according to this desired gear height. You will need to screw four M3 **(5H)** bolts using a 2mm hex key.
- 32-Place the big driving gear **(5D)** on the spinning motor (5F) shaft.
- 33-Place the 12 mm **ID** shaft collar **(SE)** on the big gear (SD)'s hub and tighten it using a **3** mm Hex key.
- 34-Test your sliding and spinning mechanism and make sure to re-tighten the relevant bolts if any misalignments are observed.

The Bolts types and keys required were:

Table 37: Bolts and nuts needed for sliding spinner's assembly

The press assembly process:

- **1-** Attach the piston-punch coupler (part 1B) to the pneumatic piston (Part **1A) by** threading it in.
- 2- Attach the punch (part **IC)** to the piston-punch coupler (1B) **by** threading it in.
- **3-** Attach the rotary piston (part 2J) to the rotary piston mount (part 2K) using the steel ball joint (part **2Q).**
- 4- Attached the rotary piston mount (part 2K) to the die cavity (part **2A)** using the piston mount-die cavity bolts (part 2L).
- **5-** Place the rotary piston shafts (2M) and bushings **(2N)** into their holes in the rotary piston (2J).
- **6-** Place the rotary piston mount (2K), shafts (2M), and bushings **(2N)** in their hole in the side supports **(1D).**
- **7-** Place the die cavity rotary shafts (2B) and bushings **(2C)** into their holes in the die cavity **(2A).**
- **8-** Place the die cavity **(2A),** the die cavity rotary shafts (2B), and bushings **(2C)** in their hole in the side supports **(1D).**
- **9-** Attach the side supports **(1E)** to the pneumatic piston **(1A) by** screwing the Piston-Side Support bolts **(1E)** through the side supports and into the pneumatic piston's threaded holes.
- **10- Add** the die cavity's collars **(2D)** around the die cavity's rotary shafts (part **2D)** and lock them in using the collars' bolts **(2E).**
- **11-Add** the rotary piston's collars (20) around the rotary piston's shafts (part 2M) and lock them in using the collars' bolts (2P).
- 12-Place the strippers (part 2H) into their housing (part 2F) with the stripping pneumatic pistons (21).
- 13-Attach the stripper's assembly (2H, 2F, and 21) to the die cavity **(2A)** with the stripper- die cavity bolts **(2G).**
- 14- Attach the stopper bar **(3A)** to the side supports **(1D)** using their bolts (3B).
- **15-Add** the spring plunger **(3C)** into the stopper bar **(3A)** using its threading, and fix its position to align with the die cavity's perfectly vertical position.

Full machine assembly process:

The sliding spinner is then attached and bolted to its structure, and the press assembly is also bolted to its structure. The main constraint afterwards was to align the rod in the sliding spinner in the same horizontal level as the die cavity in the press structure. This is when the t-slotted aluminum frames were very useful in sliding the structures up/down and side to side very easily until the perfect position was achieved.

4.3.8 Machine Re-design

After some pills were made, as seen in Figure **109,** their two main problems were:

- **1)** Uneven and Bulging shape
- 2) Metal contamination

Figure 109: first batch of pills

To solve problem one, the pill's bulging shape, the following actions were taken:

- **1-** Testing different pressing pressures to find the one that gave the best pill shape. *Conclusions: less than 10 Psi does not give flat surfaces and more than 25 Psi make the edges curl up.*
- 2- Machining the die cavity's bottom chamfer, because it was one of the reasons the pill's bottom bulged out.

Figure 110: the die cavity 's chamfers

As seen in Figure **110** above, there is a bottom chamfer opposite to the top visible chamfer. This chamfer was machined off to have a completely flat bottom surface. *Conclusion: the bulging effect became less, but it was still there at a minimal level due to the small gap between the moving strippers and the die cavity.*

3- After machining the chamfer off, the pills still had minimal bulging. This was due to the clearance tolerance between the strippers and the die cavity at the spot shown in Figure **111.** This tolerance had to be of a clearance fit to allow the movement of the strippers back and forth, but the effect of pressing forces on them was not estimated correctly in the design of the original strippers.

Conclusion: Initial designs for spring-loading the strippers upwards were analyzed, but they were not carried forward due to the time limitations of the project.

Figure 111: strippers/die cavity gap

To solve problem 2, the metal contamination, the components touching the polymers were analyzed one **by** one:

1) The spinning rod collector:

The two important characteristics in choosing the material for the rod collector were high electrical conductivity and high wear resistance. First, an **aluminum rod** was used, but it stripped off a lot of metal with the polymer. Secondly, a **carbon** fiber rod was used, and its pills had no metal contamination, but the productivity was very low due to its low electrical conductivity. Thirdly, 17-4 **PH hardened** steel was used, but it still stripped off a lot of steel with the polymer, and had lower productivity due to the steel's low electrical conductivity. Finally, **anodized aluminum** was used. It had much better electrical conductivity and it did not strip off any of metal with the polymer.

2) The conical support:

As discussed earlier in the electrospinning chamber design section, there were two conical support designs. The first design was made out of aluminum, but some aluminum wears off while the rod spins in its hole. The second design was made out of Polytetrafluroethane (PTFE), so the metal wear and pill contamination problem **by** this piece was resolved.

3) The die cavity:

While running the machine's first trials, there were many misalignments between the punch and the cavity. This made the punch scratch the cavity's sides and strip some metal off. Anodizing this aluminum die cavity enhanced its wear resistance and resolved this problem.

4) The punch:

It was made out of stainless steel. After running many experiments, it was observed that it did not add any metal contamination to the pills. Thus, the material did not need any changes, because it was not subjected to any wear or high forces.

5) The strippers:

Brass was chosen over steel and aluminum for this model, because it has higher wear resistance and it is easy to manufacture. But some of the brass chipped off and appeared in some pills. The industrial prototype is intended to have ceramic strippers, because ceramic has a much higher wear resistance. Ceramic was not used in this prototype because it is hard to manufacture and it is not flexible if any design changes were needed.

A third problem was observed while running the machine. This problem was that the sliding motor was too small for the torque required. Thus, a bigger motor with more torque had to replace the Nema **17** motor used. The first calculations of the spinning motor were carried out using the equations:

$$
T_{sl}=F_{sl}\ast R_{py}
$$

Equation 21

where T_{sl} is the sliding motor's torque requirement, F_{sl} is the sliding force, and R_{py} is the radius of the belt's pulley. F_{sl} can be calculated by:

$$
F_{sl}=(\mu_{slb}*W_{sl})+F_{str}
$$

Equation 22

where F_{sl} is the sliding force; W_{sl} is total weight of the sliding components including the carriage, its attached gears, and couplings; F_{str} is the force with which the strippers press on the rod

Plugging in the numbers gave a sliding torque of **0.036** Nm, which was much less than the motor's capacity of *0.45* Nm. But after starting the experimental work, it was observed that the force with which the polymer sticks to the rod was the most dominant force, and it was not included in the earlier analysis, so Equation 22 had to be updated to Equation **23 by** adding the polymer's force as follows:

$$
F_{sl} = (\mu_{slb} * W_{sl}) + F_{str} + F_{poly}
$$

Equation 23

where F_{poly} is the frictional force with which the polymer sticks to the rod.

$$
F_{sl} = 0.858 + F_{poly}
$$

Studying the exact force exerted **by** the polymer needed further analysis and experimentation. In the interest of time, the motor was oversized to ensure the system would function.

A sudden rotation of the die cavity was observed every time a pill was pressed. This was the fourth main problem encountered. This bent the punch so many times, as seen in Figure 112 below:

Figure 112: the bent punch challenge

After carrying out the test multiple while changing different parameters, it was concluded that it phenomenon was due to the high pressure difference between the pressing piston **(50** Psi) and the rotary piston (20 Psi). Every time the press's punch goes down, it sucks **50** Psi out of the compressor. To recover those **50** Psi, it quickly sucks the 20 Psi holding the rotary piston in place. Thus, the rotary piston rotates and bends the punch.

Part Name	Pressure [psi]
Main Pressure	100
Pressing Piston	50
Rotary Piston	20
Strippers' Piston	15

Table 38:table of pressure distribution

This challenge was resolved **by** connecting the high pressure tubing (of the pressing piston) to one of the compressor's outputs, and the low pressure tubing (of the rotary and strippers pistons) to the other compressor's output. This separated the high pressure from the low pressure and avoided any interference between them.
4.4 Chemical preparations

4.4.1 Polymer solution preparation

In the previous work **by** Indrani Bhattacharyya [40], two kinds of solutions were tested: poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA) dissolved in water, and poly (vinyl pyrrolidone) (PVP) dissolved in ethanol. This work proceeded with PVA in water because water is safer than ethanol, especially in environments where the chamber is open from some sides with parts moving in and out. The chemicals were purchased from Sigma Aldrich.

The chemicals and their percentage added **by** weight were as follows:

- **1-** 20wt% PVA (Mowiol **4-88)** (Mw ~ **31,000)**
- 2- 1.5wt% High desnity PVA (146-186kDa)
- **3-** Deionized **(DI)** water

The materials looked as seen in Figure **113** below:

Figure 113: polymer materials used

High density PVA was added to the Mowiol **4-88** because it is directly correlated to higher productivities and better fiber quality[27,30]. The tools used to prepare the samples were: a college B **1302** scale, a thermoscientific magnetic heater and stirrer, and sealed glass laboratory bottles. **All** the laboratory materials were purchased from VWR. The samples were prepared in batches of **300** mL. This quantity makes **10** experiments, as the polymer bath is fills up using **30** mL. The mix was composed of:

Table 39: Quantities used for mixing PVA in water

The steps for preparing this sample were as follows:

- **1-** Fill the bottle with **300** grams of **DI** water.
- 2- Place the bottle over the heater and stirrer, with the magnetic stirrer placed inside the bottle.
- **3-** Turn the stirring on to **500** rpm and heat to **90** degrees Celsius.
- 4- Start adding the measured weights of PVA and high density PVA gradually
- **5-** Keep the mixture on the heater and stirrer overnight until the solution is completely clear.

4.4.2 Polymer and API mix preparation

The Active pharmaceutical ingredient (API) used in this experimentation was Fenofibrate. Fenofibrate is a drug used to treat high levels of cholesterol for diabetes patients. Eletrospinning nanofibers has the great advantage of quick drug release, which is **highly** needed in lowering the levels of cholesterol for diabetes patients. In the previous work of Indrani Bhattacharyya, **2.3%** and 12.% weights of Fenofibrate were dissolved in the PVA solution [40]. In this work, the same percentages were used to have comparable results.

The *2.5%* weight Fenofibrate mix was composed of:

Table 40: Quantities used for mixing 2.5% Fenofibrate and PVA

The **12.5%** weight Fenofibrate mix was composed of:

Table 41: Quantities used for mixing 12.5% Fenofibrate and PVA

The steps for preparing this sample were as follows:

- **1-** Place the specified quantity of the PVA solution on the magnetic heater and stirrer.
- 2- Turn the stirring on **500** rpm and heat to 40 degrees Celsius (to avoid reaching Fenofibrate degradation temperature.
- **3-** Start adding the measured weights of Fenofibrate and to the mixture gradually.
- 4- Keep the mixture on the heater and stirrer overnight until the solution is of a cloudy white color with no particulate suspension.

Immediately before electrospinning, suspensions were mixed with IKA 24 ULTRA-TURRAX using a coarse rotor stator generator to confirm dispersion.

4.5 Pill Pressing Process

The pill pressing process is carried out in the 11 steps mentioned below:

1- Sliding Spinner moves forward

2- The gears engage and start spinning the polymer rod

3- Polymer Electrospinning

4- Stripper one closes

5- Stripper two closes

6- Collector Moves backward and the polymer is stripped off the rod, from the outside it looks like:

From the inside, this is how the stripping process looks like:

7- Stripper one opens:

So stripper two is fully closed:

This is the interior view of the polymer locked inside, and the fully closed position of stripper two to become base for the pressing process:

8- Die cavity **90** degrees anti-clockwise rotation

VERTICAL **DIE** CAVITY

VERTICAL **DIE** CAVITY

9- Press goes down to press the pill

10-Stripper two opens

From the inside, opening stripper two would look like this:

11-Pill Ejection

An inside look of the ejection looks like:

The pill is ejected in its receiver that looks as follows:

12-Die cavity **90** degrees clockwise rotation: to re-align the mechanism horizontal and restart the process again.

The methods of carrying out each of the previous steps were as follows:

 \mathcal{L}_{max}

Table 42: The methods for the pill **pressing steps**

 \sim

Chapter Five: Testing & Results

"The joy of discovery is certainly the liveliest that the mind of man can ever feel." Claude Bernard

5.1 Electrospinning Parameters experiments

5.1.1 Flat plate collector results

Some of the main parameters affecting the electrospinning output are: voltage, spinneret's rpm, and the spinneret-collector distance. Before designing the updated electrospinning setup, some experiments were carried out in the previous setup. These experiments assisted us in sizing the new chamber and giving a feel of the expected output from the process.

Throughout all the experiments, the temperature was *25* degrees Celsius, the relative humidity was kept constant at 20% and the same amount of polymer solution **(30** mL) was spun for **7** minutes.

¹"t Variable: Spinneret-Collector Distance:

Keeping the voltage constant at 40 **kV,** and the spinneret's at *2.5* **rpm, the** collected data looks as follows:

Distance [cm]	Productivity [mg/cm/min]
28	0.481
25	1.424
23	1.455
20	3.127
18	3.613
15	9.011

Table 43: spinneret- collector Distance and productivity

The distance versus productivity relationship looks as follows:

Figure 114: Graph of Distance Vs. Mass Output

As seen in Figure 114, the productivity at a distance of **15** cm is much higher than the trend. This is probably due to immature wetting of fiber.

Excluding this extreme point, the data would be:

Table 44: corrected spinneret- collector distance and productivity

Figure **115:** graph of distance vs. productivity corrected

After calculating the electric field using the distances above and the 40kV applied. The data would be:

Table 45: electric field and productivity due to varying distance

Figure **116:** Electric Field Vs. productivity due to varying distance

Figure **116** looks like the reciprocal of Figure **114** because the electric field equation is:

$$
Electric field \left[\frac{kV}{m}\right] = \frac{Applied \; Voltage \, [kV]}{Spinneret \; Collectron \; distance \, [m]}
$$

Equation 24

² "d Variable: Applied Voltage:

Keeping the distance constant at 20 cm, and the spinneret's at *2.5* rpm, the data collected looks as follows:

Table 46: applied voltage, electric field, and productivity

The graph of the applied voltage versus productivity looks as follows:

Figure 117: Applied voltage vs. productivity

Figure 118: Electric Field vs. productivity due to varying voltage

The relationship between the voltage, electric field, and productivity looks almost linear, as shown in Figure **117** and Figure **118.** They are also showing a similar trend because they are directly proportional, as shown in Equation 24.

Comparing the Electric field versus mass output relationship obtained from changing the distance to the one obtained **by** changing the voltage gives the following graph:

Figure 119: Electric Field vs. productivity due to varying distance & voltage

Figure 120: Zoomed out Electric Field vs. productivity due to varying distance & voltage

In concept, both graphs follow the same shape of a third degree polynomial. But the voltage experiment is more reliable and trusted because it is more accurate to change the voltage digital reading than manually changing the distance of the scissors lift and trying to get an accurate vertical measurement. The distance experiments also showed the fact that at lower electric fields, the mass output is almost stabilized at a very low mass, and then it boosts so much at higher values.

3rd Variable: Spinneret's RPM:

The motor used for the spinneret's rotation was inherited from the early setup with the following equation to transform the input voltage to RPM:

$$
Y = 3.0944x - 0.5549
$$

Equation 25

Where (Y) is the rpm and (x) is the applied voltage, which means that 1 Volt gives *2.5* rpm, and all the voltage values would translate to rpm values as follows:

Voltage	RPM
0.4	0.683
0.6	1.302
$0.8\,$	1.921
1.0	2.540
1.1	2.849
1.4	3.778
1.7	4.706

Table 47: Voltage to RPM translation

The temperature, humidity, solution quantity, and time were kept constant at the same values above. While keeping the voltage constant at 40 **kV,** and the distance at 20 cm, the collected data for different RPM looks as follows:

RPM	Productivity [mg/cm/min]
0.683	0.811
1.302	2.462
2.540	3.020
2.849	3.127
3.778	3.429
4.706	2.785

Table 48: Spinneret's RPM and productivity

Figure 121: spinneret's RPM vs. productivity

As seen in Figure 121, the mass output keeps increasing with the increase in RPM until around 4 RPM and then it decreases again. Also the values from 2 to 4 RPM are very close, so this window should be the most appropriate for high output.

5.1.2 Spinning rod collector results

The same experiments carried out **by** the flat plate collector setup were repeated using the spinning rod collector's setup. The parameters tested were: voltage, spinneret's rpm, the spinneret-collector distance, and the collector's rpm.

Throughout all the experiments, the temperature was **25** degrees Celsius, the relative humidity was kept constant at 20% and the same amount of polymer solution **(30** mL) was spun for 20 minutes.

¹ ^tVariable: Spinneret-Collector Distance:

Keeping the voltage constant at **40 kV, collector's rpm at 60, and the spinneret's rpm at** *2.5,* the collected data for productivity at different voltages looks as follows:

Table 49: Distance, electric field, and productivity for the spinning rod collector

Each experiment was repeated three times and the average was calculated to graph the data for productivity at different distances.

122: distance vs. productivity for the spinning rod collector

Translating this distance into electric field gives the following:

Figure 123: electric field vs. productivity by varying the distance for the spinning rod collector

² "d Variable: Applied Voltage:

Keeping the distance constant at 20 cm, the collector at **60** rpm, and the spinneret at **2.5** rpm, the data collected looks as follows:

Table SO: Voltage, electric field, and productivity for the spinning rod collector

Each experiment was repeated three times and the average was calculated to graph the data for productivity at different voltages.

Figure 124: voltage vs. productivity for the spinning rod collector

Figure 125: electric field vs. productivity by varying the voltage for the spinning rod collector

³ rd Variable: Spinneret's RPM:

Keeping the voltage constant at 40 **kV,** distance at 20 cm, and collector's rpm at **60,** the productivity was collected three times for each spinneret rpm, and the average productivity from these experiments looked as follows:

Spinneret' RPM	Average Productivity [mg/min/cm]
0.68	0.24
0.99	1.03
1.30	1.80
1.61	1.98
2.54	2.24
2.85	2.46
3.78	2.6
4.09	2.2
4.71	1.86

Table 51: spinneret's rpm *vs.* **productivity for the spinning rod collector**

Graphing the data for productivity at different spinneret rpm gives:

Figure 126: spinneret's rpm vs. productivity for the spinning rod collector

⁴ th Variable: Collector's RPM:

Keeping the voltage constant at 40 **kV,** distance at 20 cm, and spinneret's rpm at *2.5,* the data collected for different collector rpm looks as follows:

Table 52: collector's rpm vs. productivity for the spinning rod collector

Graphing the data for productivity at different collector rpm gives:

Figure 127: collector's rpm vs. productivity for the spinning rod collector

Zooming out of

Figure 127 and adding the mean output of **1.98** mg/cm/min, the graph would look like:

Figure **128:** collector's rpm vs. productivity for the spinning rod collector with its mean

Adding the control limits of **3** standard deviations more or less, shows that the output is inside the control limits as seen below:

Collector's rpm *Vs.* Productivity

Figure 129: collector's rpm vs. productivity for the spinning rod collector with its control limits

Looking at the graph in Figure **129,** it could be observed that changing the collector's rpm does not really affect the productivity. The productivity is randomly distributed around the value of **[1.98** mg/cm/min] at different rpms.

When regressing the productivity on the collector's rpm, it was found that there was no significant association (correlation) between the two variables $(r = 0.12, p-value = 0.7392)$. The p-value showed that the hypothesis that productivity measures were the same could not be rejected. The correlation coefficient of 0.12 (very close to zero), so there is no significant relationship between the two variables.

```
Call:
lm(formula = prod4 \sim crpm)Residuals:
    Min 1Q Median 3Q Max
-0.30292 -0.16929 0.03318 0.10750 0.29201
Coefficients:
            Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>ItI)
(Intercept) 1.9327922 0.1547976 12.486 1.58e-06 
crpm 0.0002511 0.0007283 0.345 0.739
---Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1
Residual standard error: 0.21 on 8 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.01464, Adjusted R-squared: -0.1085
F-statistic: 0.1189 on 1 and 8 DF, p-value: 0.7392
> cor.test(prod4,crpm)
       Pearson' s product-moment correlation
data: prod4 and crpm
t = 0.34477, df = 8, p-value = 0.7392
alternative hypothesis: true correlation is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
 -0.5505731 0.6974871
sample estimates:
      cor
0.1209977
```
Figure 130: t-test computations for the collector rpm and productivity relationship

5.1.3 Comparison of the flat plate and the spinning rod collectors:

The analysis below was performed for polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) mixtures with no active pharmaceutical ingredient (API), to be comparable to the flat plate collector results.

Comparing the effect of varying electric field (distance dependent) on the productivities of both the flat plate collector and the spinning rod collector gives:

Table **53:** electric field (distance dependent) vs. productivity of the flat plate and spinning rod collectors

Figure **131:** graph of the electric field (distance dependent) vs. productivity of the flat plate and spinning rod collectors

Comparing the effect of varying electric field (voltage dependent) on the productivities of both the flat plate collector and the spinning rod collector gives:

Table 54: electric field (voltage dependent) vs. productivity of the flat plate and spinning rod collectors

Figure **132:** graph of the electric field (voltage dependent) vs. productivity of the flat plate and spinning rod collectors

Comparing the effect of varying the spinneret's rpm on the productivities of both the flat plate collector and the spinning rod collector gives:

Table **55:** spinneret's rpm vs. productivity of the flat plate and spinning rod collectors

Figure 133: graph of the spinneret's rpm vs. productivity of the flat plate and spinning rod collectors

As seen in Figure 14, Figure **15,** and Figure **133,** the productivity of the flat plate collector was higher than the productivity of the spinning rod collector at all the experiments done for the three main variables (voltage, distance, and spinneret's rpm). This could be due to the higher grounded surface area of the circular flat plate collector compared to the smaller grounded surface area of the spinning rod. Further comparisons and analysis could be done in this area to quantify the difference in these productivities more accurately.

Figure 134: graph of the applied electric field vs. productivity of the flat plate and spinning rod collectors

The spinning rod's surface area was:

Spinning Rod's Surface Area		
Radius [mm]	1.6	
Length $\lceil \text{mm} \rceil$	400	
Surface area [mm^2]	3927	

Table S6: spinning rod's surface area calculation

The flat plate collector's surface area was:

Table S7: spinning rod's surface area calculation

The ratio between the surface area of the two collectors would be:

$$
Surface Area Ratio = \frac{Flat \, plate \, collector's \,Surface \, Area \, [mm^2]}{Spinning \, rod \, collector's \, Surface \, Area \, [mm^2]}
$$
\nEquation 26

Plugging the values in Equation **26** gives:

 \sim \sim

Surface Area Ratio =
$$
\frac{14,314}{3,927}
$$
 = 3.645

The ratio between the productivities of both collector types was calculated using the following equation: *mg*

Productivity Ratio =

\n
$$
\frac{Flat\ plate\ collector's\ productivity\ [\frac{min}{cm}]}{Spinning\ rod\ collector's\ productivity\ [\frac{min}{cm}]} \text{Equation 27}
$$

Placing these productivity ratios from different experiments in one table gives:

Table 58: productivity ratios from different experiments

Thus, observing that the surface area ratio is *3.645* and the productivity ratio of **1.52,** we could claim that there might be a relationship between the two variables. In other words, when the surface area increases **by** around **3.645** times, the productivity increases **by** around **1.52** times.

5.1.4 Comparing the results to the literature

Since the setup was an adaptation of Bhattacharyya's previous setup, it is viable to compare this machine's output to Bhattacharyya's previous output [40].

Compiling various electric fields with different spinneret rpm together gave the following data:

Table 59: Productivity at different spinneret rpms and voltages

Graphing the rpm and voltage data in the above table looked as shown:

Figure **135:** productivity at different spinneret rpms and voltages

Figure **136:** productivity at different spinneret rpms and voltages of 40 kV (square), 42.5 kV (circle), 45 kV (triangle), and **50** kV (diamond) [40, Figure **9]**

Since Bhattacharyya's working distance was **25** cm [40], these four voltages translates to electric fields of: **160, 170, 180,** and 200 kV/m. Whereas this machine's working distance was 20 cm, which translates to electric fields of **170, 185,** and 200 kV/m.

Comparing the productivities of both machines would give:

Table 60: comparison of the current and the previous productivity

According to the data in Table **60,** the productivity of the current machine is about **5-6** times the productivity of the previous machine. This could be due to the following reasons:

- **1-** The spinneret collector distance of the current machine was 20 cm, while the distance in the previous machine was 25 cm.
- 2- Fibers were spun for **7** minutes in the current machine, and for 20 minutes in the previous machine [40]. Even though the productivity is in grams per minute, but the productivity changes with time. The first minute's productivity is not as the last minute's productivity. Thus the average productivity becomes different if it is spun for **7** minutes versus 20 minutes.

5.2 Statistical Analysis of the machine's reliability

5.2.1 General statistical analysis of the data

After making *350* pills using this machine, the repeatability and reliability of the data for the three dosage types: zero, *2.5%,* and *12.5%* was analyzed, using R Studio software. The aggregated data of the **350** pills looked as follows:

 $\ddot{}$

 $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$

 $\sim 10^7$

 $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$

$\mathbf 0$	326	0.142	0.905
$\overline{0}$	327	0.115	0.541
$\boldsymbol{0}$	328	0.045	0.793
$\boldsymbol{0}$	329	0.096	0.829
$\boldsymbol{0}$	330	0.067	0.887
0	331	0.156	0.747
$\boldsymbol{0}$	332	0.056	0.826
$\boldsymbol{0}$	333	0.152	0.899
$\mathbf 0$	334	0.029	0.655
$\bf{0}$	335	0.077	0.741
0	336	0.101	0.898
$\bf{0}$	337	0.071	0.771
0	338	0.039	0.817
$\boldsymbol{0}$	339	0.134	0.805
$\boldsymbol{0}$	340	0.038	0.833
$\boldsymbol{0}$	341	0.126	0.742
$\boldsymbol{0}$	342	0.057	0.838
$\boldsymbol{0}$	343	0.106	0.853
$\boldsymbol{0}$	344	0.076	0.915
$\overline{0}$	345	0.136	
$\boldsymbol{0}$	346	0.062	0.860
$\mathbf 0$	347	0.118	0.877
$\mathbf 0$	348	0.029	0.410
$\overline{0}$	349	0.13	
$\overline{0}$	350	0.068	0.895

Table 61: masses and densities of the 350 pills made

The table for the statistical analysis for the first **55** pills made looked as follows:

 $\ddot{}$

Table 62: mean and variance of the zero dosage pills

These first **55** pills were made at keeping all the variables constant (pressure, voltage, distance, spinneret and collector rpms) to test the repeatability of the mechanism. Comparing these results to the industry needs, their accepted variation is between 0.2% and **0.6%.** This is according the "Guidance to the Industry of Power Blends and Finished Dosage Units" [42]. While according to Lahdenpaa, the weight coefficient of variation could be up to **1% [19].**

As seen above, the variation in mass, volume, height, and density was around 12-14%, while the pharmaceutical standards allowed only 0.2% to **0.6%.** The current variation was much more than the targeted variation because no precision mass measurement mechanism was installed, the polymer was just electrospun for a specific timing. The 12% variation in mass was due to the randomness of the electrospinning process, and fibers diffusion around the chamber and on its walls.

The current precision of mass output was challenging because:

- **1-** The mass of the polymer was around **95** milligrams, so it needed very accurate instrumentation.
- 2- The collecting rod was continuously rotating, so it was hard to measure the deflection of the rod resulting from mass change.
- **3-** The thickness of the polymer on the collector rod was not uniform along the rod, so it was hard to calculate the polymer mass from its thickness using laser beam technologies.

5.2.2 Comparison of different drug doses

The box plots comparing the masses of the three types of pills looked as follows:

Figure 137: boxplot of the masses vs. pills' dosage

The values of the statistics shown in the boxplot in Figure **137** were as follows:

Table 63: statistical analysis of the pills' masses

As seen in the boxplot in Figure **137** above, it appears that the *2.5%* dosage of fenofibrate had the highest average mass productivity, followed **by** the *12.5%* dosage, and then the zero dosage. This agrees with the previous literature that discussed how the active pharmaceutical ingredient (API) is more electrostatically charged than the polymer [43]. This makes the productivity of fibers with API always higher than the productivity of fibers with no API. The variation of the masses around their mean was expected to be that high **(73%, 29%,** and **30%)** because these pills were made at different voltages, distances, and rpms. Changing these variables gave a wide spectrum of high and low mass outputs. For the *2.5%* and *12.5%* dosage, the electrospinning parameters were not varied as much, but the variability was in the applied pressure, density, and dissolution.

The boxplot of the densities of the three different types of pills was as follows:

Figure 138: boxplot of the densities vs. pills' dosage

The values of the statistics shown in the boxplot in Figure **138** looked as follows:

Table 64: statistical analysis of the pills' densities

As seen in the boxplot in Figure **138** above, the mean density of the zero dosage was higher than that of the *2.5%* and *12.5%* dosage. Their means were *0.935* grams/cm3 for the zero dosage, followed by 0.764 grams/cm³ for the 2.5 dosage, and 0.757 grams/cm³ for the 12.5 dosage. This followed the same trend of their theoretical densities, where the density decreased as the dosage increased, due to the lower density of the API. These theoretical densities were **1.269** grams/cm3 for the PVA, compared to **1.267** grams/cm³ for the *2.5%* API **,** and *1.258* grams/cm 3 for the **12.5%** API. The low and zero values of the density were from the earlier tests where fibers were spun and analyzed without pressing. The variation in density for the *2.5%* and the *12.5%* dosage was 41% and 49%. Tt was much higher than the **27%** variation in zero dosage because most of these tests were made at different pressures to analyze the relationship between their density and dissolution.

5.2.3 Statistical Quality Control Charts

To analyze the repeatability of the mechanism, quality control charts of the mass output were studied, and they looked as follows:

X-bar Control Chart for Pill Mass (Zero Dosage)

Figure 139: X-bar control chart for pill mass (zero dosage)

As seen in Figure **139** above, the process was under statistical control around its mean value of **0.078** grams, and there were zero points beyond the upper or lower control limits for the **232** zero dosage pills made. It can also be noted from the control chart in Figure **139** above that the first *55* pills are much closer to the mean, this is because they were made at the exact same conditions. The variability in the output increased afterwards because the experimental variables (voltage, rpm, pressure, and distance) were changed and tested.

The control chart for the **2.5%** dosage looked as follows:

X-bar Control Chart for Pill Mass (2.5% Dosage)

Figure 140 above showed that the process was not under statistical control, there were 24 out of **52** pills outside the control limit. There are two types trends in the mass, the very high output around **0.14** and the lower output of **0.08** grams. Looking back into the experimental setup details, it was noted that the group of low mass pills (from pill number **19** to 42) were the only pills made in the morning out of the **300** pills. They were also made on a sunny day, so even if the temperature control reading was the regular **25** degrees Celsius, the sun was still shining on the machine, and the higher temperature makes the electrospinning process less efficient. This observation was noted, and all the other pills were then made at nighttime, at the same conditions of earlier batches. The other factor that affected this productivity was the grounding mechanism; the spring-loaded grounding was not properly attaching the rod collector to the ground. This spring-loaded ground was then re-evaluated and attached in the correct position and worked efficiently in the subsequent trials.

Removing the low- productivity points from the control chart above gave the following:

X-bar Control Chart for Pill Mass (2.5% Dosage)

Figure 141 showed that the process was under statistical control around its mean value of **0.137** grams, and there were only two points beyond the upper or lower control limits for the 24 pills analyzed. **A** repetitive trend of increasing mass output could be observed twice; from pill **I** to **9,** and **13** to 24. It could be correlated to the fact that the same solution was used to make a batch of 12 pills; pill **I** to 12, and pill **13** to 24. When the same solution was used repetitively. The spinneret accumulated some of the polymer on its wiring and spun more fibers.

Figure 141: Corrected X-bar control chart for pill mass (2.5% dosage)

The control chart for the **12.5%** dosage looked as follows:

X-bar Control Chart for Pill **Mass (12.5% Dosage)**

Figure 142 above showed that the process was under statistical control around its mean value of **0.09** grams, and there was only **I** point beyond the control limits for the 45 pills made with **12.5%** dosage. But a repetitive trend of increasing mass outputs could be observed 4 times on this graph; from pill 2 to **9, 10** to **17,** 20 to **27,** and **28** to **39.** Each batch of those 4 trends was done using one solution. It could be correlated to the fact that the same solution was used over and over again, so the spinneret accumulated some of the polymer on its wiring and spun more fibers. This observation did not exist in the zero dosage because its solution was less viscous. Because it was less viscous, it did not stick to the wire spinneret but it would drop into the solution bath. This problem could be solved in the future **by** either changing the solution- or cleaning the wire spinneret before each run.

5.3 Microstructures of fibers and pills

The structure of the electrospun fibers before pressing looked as follows:

After pressing these fibers, the pill's structure looked as follows from the top:

Figure 144: fibers view from the top of the pill

Zooming into the surface of the pill's structure, the structure looked as follows:

Figure 145: zoomed in view from the top of the pill

Zooming out of the surface of the pill's structure, the structure looked as follows:

Figure 146: zoomed out view from the top of the pill

This circle in Figure 146 was expected because it was the edges of the stripped polymer (seen in Figure 147) pressed into the flat pill shape.

Figure 147: the stripped polymer before pressing

Structure of the pill's side:

It is important to note that the pill was cut sideways using a razor, so structures might look more stretched than their natural shape. The side view of the fibers' structure looks as follows:

ers view from the side of the pill
Figure 148: fibers view from the side of the pill

Zooming into the side of the pill, the structure looks as follows:

^w Figure 149: zoomed in view from the side of the pill

The diameter of the fibers before pressing had an average of 0.2 to **0.3** micrometers, as seen below:

Figure 150: fiber diameter before pressing

The fiber diameter after pressing still had an average of 0.2 to **0.3** micrometers between as shown below:

Figure 151: fiber diameter after pressing

Looking at the fiber diameter from the side view gave the same value of 0.2 to **0.3** micrometers on average, as seen here:

Figure 152: side view of the fiber diameter after pressing

These **SEM** images show that the fiber diameter stayed between 0.2 and **0.3** micrometers before and after pressing, as seen in Figure **150,** Figure **151,** and Figure **152.** This means that our mechanism did not loose the fibers fine nanostructure in the process. This was one of the main milestones of the project, to have a mechanism that pressed the fibers without changing their fine structure. This fine structure meant that the pill still had their advantages of high dissolution among others. These dissolution profiles would be discussed in more details in the next section.

5.4 Pressure, density, and dissolution profiles of the pills

5.4.1 Theoertical versus Experimental densities

Firstly, the maximum theoretical densities of the pills were calculated using the powder densities from the suppliers' data sheet. Using this density data from the supplier (Sigma Aldrich) and the percentage weight of each component in the mix, the total densities of each mix were calculated as follows:

For the Polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) mix:

Table 65: PVA density calculation

For the *2.5 %* fenofibrate and PVA mix:

Table 66: 2.5% fenofibrate and PVA density calculation

For the *12.5%* fenofibrate and PVA mix:

Table 67: 12.5% fenofibrate and PVA density calculation

Secondly, the three types of pills were then pressed with different pressures ranging from zero Psi to **50** Psi, the resulting pills' densities were as follows:

For PVA (polyvinyl alcohol) pills, the results for the **6** pills made were:

Table 68: data for PVA pills

For *2.5%* fenofibrate and PVA pills, the results of the **68** pills pressed were:

Table 69: data for 2.5% fenofibrate and PVA pills

For **12.5%** fenofibrate and PVA pills, the results for the 45 pills made were:

 \mathcal{L}_{max} , \mathcal{L}_{max}

Table 70: data for 12.5% fenofibrate and PVA pills

5.4.2 Pressure and Density Relationships

The graphs for pressure versus density for each of the pill types looked as follows:

Figure 153: graph of applied pressure vs. density for PVA

Figure 154: graph of applied pressure vs. density for 2.5% fenofibrate in PVA (the bars show minimum and maximum values)

Figure 155: graph of applied pressure vs. density for 12.5% fenofibrate in PVA (the bars show minimum and maximum values)

The graphs in **Figure 153, Figure 154,** and **Figure 155** showed that the density increases at a decreasing rate until it became constant starting from **25** Psi. This data agrees with Riipi's

work showing that the density and the strength of tablets increased at low forces until it remained constant after a specific point **[18].**

Figure 156: effect of compression force on the crushing strength of erythromycin acistrate tablets (18, Figure 1)

Noting that Riipi's work was done for different chemicals, his graph of the force versus strength showed the same shape as our pressure (directly proportional to the force) and density (directly proportional to the crushing strength).

5.4.3 Pressure and Solidity Relationships

After looking at the data with its error bars in Figure **153,** Figure 154, and Figure **155.** The average of each data point was calculated for further analysis:

Table 71: average data for 2.5% fenofibrate pills

Table 72: average data for 12.5% fenofibrate pills

Graphing the log values of the density versus the log values of the pressure looked as follows:

Figure 157: graph of logarithmic values of applied pressure vs. density for 2.5% (The square legend) and 12.5% (The circular legend) fenofibrate in PVA

A value of 1 was added to all the density log values in Figure **157** to make them positive. Figure *157* showed that the maximum density of the *2.5%* mix was less than that of the *12.5%,* which means that the *2.5%* mix was less compressible, even though it had a higher theoretical density. Transforming these density values to solidity gave the following:

Figure 158: graph of log of the applied pressure vs. solidity for 2.5% (The square legend) and 12.5% (The circular legend) fenofibrate in PVA

Looking at the pressure versus solidity graph without log transformations:

30-

~20-

<10-

0-

Figure **159:** graph of the applied pressure vs. solidity for **2.5%** (The square legend) and **12.5%** (The circular legend) fenofibrate in PVA

0.00 0.25 **0.50 0.75 1.00** Solidity [%]

Changing the scaling of the x-axis and the **y-** axis to a logarithmic scale gave:

Figure **160:** log scaled graph of the applied pressure vs. solidity for **2.5%** (The square legend) and **12.5%** (The circular legend) fenofibrate in PVA

It could be noted from Figure *158,* Figure **159,** and Figure **160** that the *12.5%* always had higher density and solidity than the *2.5%* dosage. The log scaled graph of the applied pressure versus the solidity, shown in Figure **160** could be compared to Choong's model [44], which looked as **follows:**

Figure 161: Choong's model of stress versus solidity [44, Figure 9]

Comparing the experimental graph in Figure **160** to Choong's graph in Figure **161** , it could be noted that they had the same trend[44]. The experimental data was fitted into a power law equation, which made it similar to Van Wyk's model [44] in Equation **28** below:

$$
\sigma_{\rm zz} = k E \big(\phi^3 - \phi_0^3\big)
$$

Equation 28

where σ_{zz} is the relating transverse stress, and Φ is the solidity.

According to Choong, the power of the solidity (n) could have 2 different values; n=3 for **3D** random fiber network and *n=5* for planar random fiber network. Fitting the experimental data to a **3rd** degree polynomial gave the following graph:

Figure **162:** fitting the logarithmic scaled graph of solidity vs. pressure

Figure **162** showed that the experimental data is a good fit with a **³ rd** degree polynomial, following Van Wyk's model in Choong's work.

5.4.4 Density Correction Experiment

To get accurate density values of the pill, the mass of the metal contamination had to be subtracted from the total mass. To quantify the mass of this metal, a vacuum flask test was carried out, as seen in Figure **163:**

Figure 163: vacuum flask setup

During this test, five pills were firstly dissolved in water, because the polyvinyl alcohol dissolved and the metal contamination stayed as seen in Figure 164 below:

Figure 164: pill dissolves in water & metal contamination residues stay visible

This solution with metal contamination was then poured into the vacuum flask setup, and the weight of the filter paper, shown in Figure *165,* was measured before and after the metal addition.

Figure 165: filter with metal contamination

The vacuum setup test showed that the mass of the metal (from **5** pills) was about **0.001** grams. This means that metal contamination in each pill weighted about 0.0002 grams. This was in the order of 0.2 milligrams, and our masses were around **100** milligrams. So it was decided that the mass difference due to metals contamination was negligible because it is about 0.2% of the total mass.

5.4.3 Friability test:

After preparing many pills, some of them were taken to the friability tester where the pills are rotated in the drum seen in Figure **166** to see how much powder mass is lost. The testing protocol performed **by** my colleague Bhattacharyya was exactly followed 1401. **5** pills were loaded to the ERWEKA friability tester TAR 220 and rotated **100** times at a speed of **25** rpm.

Figure 166: friability testing machine

The cycle looks as shown in Figure **167** and Figure **168.** There is a lip in the rotating drum that cycles the pills up, as shown in Figure **167.** When they reach the top of the drum, they fall down to the bottom of the drum, as shown in Figure **168.** This drop is what tests the pill's capability of maintaining a long shelf life with no mass loss in transport. The results showed that there was zero mass lost during the experiment.

Figure 167: holding the pills upward during the friability test

Figure 168: dropping the pills downward during the friability test
5.5 Dissolution profiles for various applied pressures

5.5.1 Dissolution Results

After making 120 pills and pressing them with different pressures, their dissolution profiles were analyzed using an Agilent Varian VK **7025** dissolution bath and a Cary **50** Bio **UV** spectrophotometer, seen in Figure **169.**

Figure 169: dissolving the pills in the UV spectrophotometer

The analysis was performed according to the standard **USP** method for **FEN** using dissolution apparatus II filled with **1000** mL of **0.05M SDS.** The paddle speed was **50** rpm and the solution temperature was maintained at **37 EC.** Measurements were made in situ for up to **6** hours using submersible probes, at 292nm, connected to the spectrophotometer **by** fiber optic cables, enabling measurement of UV-Vis spectra directly in the liquid media. Due to the low density of the tablets relative to the media, Japanese **USP** grade sinkers purchased from **QLA,** were used throughout the dissolution examination.

Figure 170: USP grade sinkers

Known standards of fenofibrate in the media were measured prior to the start of the experiment and fell within *5%* of the claimed content. Only aesthetically acceptable tablets that were devoid of any visible defects were used for dissolution testing. **A** sample size of at least *5* tablets was measured for one dissolution profile, with the average being reported.

Figure 171: un-pressed mix and pills pressed at different pressures

The pressures by which the pills were pressed were: 0, 2, 5, 7, 10, 15, 20, 25, and 50 Psi. The time for **80%** dissolution for both the *2.5%* and the *12.5%* fenofibrate looked as follows:

Table **73: 80%** dissolution times for 2.5% fenofibrate

Table 74: **80%** dissolution times for **12.5%** fenofibrate

Plotting some of the dissolution profiles of the **2.5%** fenofibrate:

Figure **172:** dissolution profiles of some of the 2.5% fenofibrate pills

Plotting all of the dissolution profiles of the **2.5%** fenofibrate:

Figure **173:** dissolution profiles of all of the 2.5% fenofibrate pills

Plotting some of the dissolution profiles of the **12.5%** fenofibrate:

Figure 174: dissolution profiles of some of the 12.5% fenofibrate pills

Plotting all of the dissolution profiles of the **12.5%** fenofibrate:

Figure 175: dissolution profiles of all of the 12.5% fenofibrate pills

Comparing the dissolution profiles of un-pressed **12.5%** versus the *2.5%* fenofibrate gave:

Figure 176: comparison of the dissolution profiles of un-pressed 12.5% versus 2.5% fenofibrate

Figure **176** above showed that the *12.5%* dosage dissolved almost twice as fast as the *2.5%* dosage did. **80%** of the high dosage dissolved in almost 12 minutes and **80%** of the low dosage dissolved in about **22.5** minutes. Comparing the dissolution profiles of *12.5%* versus the *2.5%* fenofibrate pressed at *5* Psi gave:

Figure 177: comparison of the dissolution profiles of 12.5% versus 2.5% fenofibrate pills pressed at 5 Psi

Comparing the dissolution profiles for pills pressed at *5* Psi showed that the *12.5%* dosage dissolved faster than the *2.5%* dosage, but the difference between their profiles was less. It took around **62** minutes to dissolve **80%** of the high dosage, compared to around **68** minutes to dissolve **80%** of the low dosage.

Plugging the time for **80%** dissolution against different pressures applied would give:

Figure 178: graph of 80% dissolution time versus applied pressures for 2.5% and 12.5% dosage

As seen in Figure **178** above, the dissolution time for **80%** of the drug varies at low pressures; from zero to **10** Psi, then it becomes constant at higher pressures. This phenomenon is directly related to the density, as the density varies a lot at low pressures, then after **15** Psi, it becomes almost constant density, having a constant dissolution time. Also the *12.5%* dosage had a quicker dissolution than the *2.5%* at all times, as observed in previous figures (Figure **176** and Figure **177)** too.

5.5.2 Comparing the results above to the literature

The results above have shown that **80%** of the mass of the un-compressed fibers dissolved in 10-20 minutes. **If** the fibers are compressed at *5* Psi, this **80 %** dissolution times goes up to **60** minutes. **If** the fibers are further compressed with any pressure between **15** and **50** Psi, their density saturates at about 1.0 grams/cm^3 for the 2.5% and 1.1 grams/cm^3 for the 12.5% fenofibrate. Since the densities remained almost the same at this pressure range, the **80%** dissolution times also remained the same, at approximately **90** minutes.

The previous work done **by** Indrani Bhattacharyya for 20% fenofibrate showed that the uncompressed fibers dissolved in about **7** minutes [40]. Comparing her previous data to the current data supports the conclusion that increasing the percentage of fenofibrate decreases the dissolution time. The current **2.5%** fenofibrate mix dissolved in 22 minutes, the *12.5%* dissolved in 12 minutes, and the previous 20% mix dissolved in only **7** minutes.

Chapter Six: Conclusions and Future Work

"If you don't see the book you want on the shelf, write it." Beverly Cleary

Conclusions

On the mechanical side, we could conclude that this mechanism was successful in making nanofibrous pills, maintaining their small fibrous size, and high dissolution rate. This thesis has taken the project from the level of carrying out each of the three steps (spin, strip, and stomp) separately, to the level of transforming the material from a polymer solution to a tablet **by** pressing one button. The most important functional requirements and design parameters to build the machine were thoroughly studied. Some of these functional requirements were aligning the rod between the mechanisms, sliding it at the required speed, and spinning it with a safe grounded simple mechanism, among others. The anticipated risks versus the actual challenges were also discussed. Some of the anticipated ones were designing a bigger die cavity to avoid loosing any polymer, while the actual challenge was the exact opposite. The challenge was that the polymer was too sticky to strip off the rod, no material was ever lost, but it actually needed a bigger sliding motor to strip it off. This challenge among many others, like the pressure distribution and the dynamic grounding, were from the interesting findings in this project. These would be from the important factors to consider while taking this research further. It is hard to directly compare the output of this mechanism to the existing machinery like the rotary tablet press and the hot melt extrusion because it is very different and unique in its application for continuous manufacturing layouts.

On the chemical side, there were five main sections of findings: electrospinning parameter's studies, statistical quality control studies, fibers' microstructure studies, pressure and solidity studies, and dissolution profiles' studies. From the first study, it was found out that the parameters affecting the electrospinning's output were the applied voltage, distance between electrodes, and spinneret's rpm. The exact relationships between each parameter were plotted against productivity, and the collector's rpm was found to have no effect on output. From the second study, it was found that the process was under statistical control, but there were trends of increasing output when the solution was re-used, and trends of decreasing output if the machine was run under the exposure of sunlight. From the third study, it was found out the pressing the fibers maintained their nanosize of 0.2 to **0.3** micrometers. From the fourth study, it was found that the solidity increased when higher pressures were applied, following Choong's model [44], and It that the *12.5%* fenofibrate was more compressible than the *2.5%* fenofibrate in PVA at all conditions. From the fifth study, the dissolution profiles were graphed and it was found out that the low pressures of *2,5,* and **7** Psi had the quickest dissolution, then after exceeding **15** Psi the dissolution profile was almost the same, also the *12.5%* fenofibrate always had a faster dissolution than the *2.5%* fenofibrate dosage.

Future Work

On the mechanical side, this machine has proven to be a successful mechanism for making nanofibrous pharmaceutical pills with few processing steps. However, it is still a prototype of the idea and some further modifications would be needed before industry could use it. The first modification would be making the die cavity, strippers, and the punch out of ceramic rather than aluminum, because the final batch of pills still had some metal remains in them. The second modification would be adding a mass measurement system to pull the rod collector once it has collected the required mass of the pill. Since electrospinning is a random process and fibers float around in the chamber attracting to all the surroundings, it is hard to have the *0.5%* variability to meet the pharmaceutical standards [42]. Some suggestions for this mechanism might be adding a force sensor; whenever the mass is added to the rod, it would slightly deflect pushing this sensor with the specified mass/force. Another design suggestion is adding a laser sensor to pull the rod when a specific volume or thickness is accumulated it. Also the collected mass is usually in the range of **10** milligrams, so it needs high precision measurement devices to control it.

On the chemical side, a general study about the electrospinning parameters, pill's statistical control, nanofibrous microstructures, pressure/density relationships, and dissolution profiles was performed. But these results were hardly comparable to the literature because each electrospinning chamber runs at different conditions and gives different output. It could be comparable when more studies are performed on similar machineries in the future. The data in this study could be expanded **by** many ways: **1)** Changing the materials (API percentage, and polymer mixtures), 2) Changing the setup (chamber shape and size), **3)** Exploring different lengths, shapes, and materials for the collector surface, 4) Changing the range of parameters tested (expanding to more voltages or distances and compare their output, or narrowing down to a smaller pressure ranges and comparing their dissolution profiles), *5)* Adding the mechanical control mechanisms suggested above and analyzing the differences in the output and productivity.

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