

# How vial geometry variability influences heat transfer and product temperature during freeze-drying

Bernadette Scutella, Stéphanie Passot, Erwan Bourlés, Fernanda Fonseca,

Ioan-Cristian Trelea

# ► To cite this version:

Bernadette Scutella, Stéphanie Passot, Erwan Bourlés, Fernanda Fonseca, Ioan-Cristian Trelea. How vial geometry variability influences heat transfer and product temperature during freeze-drying. Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences, 2017, 106 (3), pp.770-778. 10.1016/j.xphs.2016.11.007 . hal-01465155

# HAL Id: hal-01465155 https://hal.science/hal-01465155v1

Submitted on 10 Feb 2017

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1	How vial geometry variability influences heat transfer and product
2	temperature during freeze-drying
3	
4	Authors: BERNADETTE SCUTELLA <sup>1,2</sup> , STEPHANIE PASSOT <sup>1</sup> , ERWAN BOURLES <sup>2</sup> ,
5	FERNANDA FONSECA <sup>1</sup> , IOAN CRISTIAN TRELEA <sup>1</sup>
6	
7	<sup>1</sup> UMR GMPA, AgroParisTech, INRA, Université Paris Saclay, 78850 Thiverval-Grignon,
8	France
9	<sup>2</sup> GSK Vaccines, Rixensart, Belgium
10	

11 **ABSTRACT:** Vial design features can play a significant role in heat transfer between the shelf and the product and, consequently, in the final quality of the freeze-dried product. Our 12 objective was to investigate the impact of the variability of some geometrical dimensions of a 13 set of tubing vials commonly used for vaccine production on the distribution of the vial heat 14 transfer coefficients  $(K_v)$  and its potential consequence on product temperature. Sublimation 15 tests were carried out using pure water and eight combinations of chamber pressure (4 to 50 16 17 Pa) and shelf temperature (-40 °C and 0 °C) in two freeze-dryers.  $K_{\nu}$  values were individually determined for 120 vials located in the center of the shelf. Vial bottom curvature depth and 18 19 contact area between the vial and the shelf were carefully measured for 120 vials and these data were used to calculate  $K_{\nu}$  distribution due to variability in vial geometry. At low 20 21 pressures commonly used for sensitive products (below 10 Pa), the vial-shelf contact area appeared crucial for explaining  $K_v$  heterogeneity and was found to generate, in our study, a 22 product temperature distribution of approximately 2 °C during sublimation. Our approach 23 provides quantitative guidelines for defining vial geometry tolerance specifications and 24 25 product temperature safety margins.

26

Keywords: Freeze drying/lyophilization; amorphous; drying; vaccines; distribution; vial heat
transfer coefficient; sublimation rate; vial design; inter-vial heterogeneity

29

30

#### 32 INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, freeze-drying is an essential and valuable preservation method to ensure the longterm stability of the growing list of biopharmaceuticals such as antibodies, hormones, vaccines, therapeutics peptides and proteins. This method makes it possible to remove the majority of water at temperatures far below 0 °C (usually between -40 °C and -20 °C) by sublimation, the phase transition from ice to water vapor.<sup>1</sup>

Due to the really low temperature and pressure typically used, freeze-drying remains a time 38 consuming process often difficult to control and scale-up. The US Food and Drug 39 Administration has recently proposed a new regulatory philosophy to manage product 40 quality: the Quality by Design (QbD) initiative. Quality will be no more tested into the 41 42 product but designed into the process. The QbD approach is based on pre-defined quality targets and on a deep understanding of how formulations and process interact to influence 43 critical quality attributes of pharmaceutical products.<sup>2</sup> In contrast to tablets, products intended 44 to be freeze-dried are conditioned in their final packaging system (vial or syringe) before the 45 process.<sup>3</sup> The vial thus directly influences the freeze-drying process and impacts final product 46 quality.<sup>4,5</sup> Furthermore, since the capacity of a manufacturing freeze-dryer can easily reach 47 100 000 vials, ensuring uniform product quality attributes (potency of the active ingredient, 48 residual moisture content, visual aspect of the freeze-dried cake) within the entire batch 49 represents a real challenge. Any variation in the design of the packaging system or other 50 51 parameters could result in product quality variation.

<sup>52</sup> Product temperature is a key process parameter governing an important critical product <sup>53</sup> quality attribute, the visual aspect of the freeze-dried cake, which in turn could influence the <sup>54</sup> residual moisture, the stability of the active ingredient and the reconstitution time.<sup>6</sup> During <sup>55</sup> the process the product temperature should be maintained below a critical value <sup>56</sup> corresponding to the glass transition temperature in amorphous product.<sup>3,7</sup> However, the

57 product temperature profile cannot be directly controlled and depends on the process operating parameters (i.e., shelf temperature, chamber pressure) and on the heat transfer 58 through the container (e.g., vial).<sup>4,7,8</sup> Knowledge of the heat transfer characteristics of the vial 59 and the uniformity or non uniformity of this property within vial arrangement inside a freeze-60 dryer is thus essential to be able to predict final quality of the product batch. Several authors 61 have reported that the heat transfer rate between the shelf and the product is dependent on the 62 vial position on the shelf.<sup>4,5,9–12</sup> Pikal et al.<sup>5</sup> showed that the vials located at the periphery of 63 the shelf exhibited sublimation rates 15% higher than vials located in the center. This 64 phenomenon, referred to as "edge effect", has been ascribed to additional heat transfer by 65 radiation from walls and doors.<sup>4,5,8,9,11</sup> The higher heat flow rate of these periphery vials 66 could lead to product collapse due to increased product temperatures during the primary 67 drying phase. Furthermore, Pisano et al.<sup>10</sup> recently observed a normal distribution in the vial 68 heat transfer coefficient evaluated for vials located in the center of the shelf. 69

The design of the vial also strongly influences the heat transfer efficiency between the shelf 70 and the product.<sup>4,5,7,12–15</sup> Considering that the vials are placed directly on the shelf, the heat 71 flow transferred to the product can be described by three parallel mechanisms: conduction 72 from the shelf surface to the vial via points of direct contact between the vial bottom and the 73 shelf, conduction through the vapor entrapped in the vial bottom concavity and radiation.<sup>5,8,12</sup> 74 Heat transfers via contact conduction and conduction through the gas are influenced, 75 respectively, by the dimension of the contact area between the shelf and the vial and the 76 depth of bottom curvature in which the gas is entrapped.<sup>5,8,12</sup> Several studies<sup>13,16,17</sup> have 77 demonstrated that the vial bottom curvature limits the heat transfer and, thus, the sublimation 78 flow rate that determines the duration of the primary drying. The concavity of the vial bottom 79 limits the direct surface contact between the vial and the shelf, accounting for most of the 80 resistance to conductive heat transfer.<sup>14,16</sup> In pharmaceutical freeze-drying conditions, contact 81

conduction is more efficient than gas conduction, and an increase in the contact area leads to
a significant increase in the total heat transfer.<sup>5,14</sup>

Our objective was to quantitatively investigate the role of vial geometry distribution on heat transfer heterogeneity and subsequently on product quality by predicting product temperature distribution during the primary drying step induced by variability in vial dimensions. Proposing an approach to understand how vial design and operating conditions interact to influence product quality is completely in the scope of the QbD approach.

In the present study, only vials located in the center of the shelf and surrounded by other vials 89 90 in the same conditions were considered so as to avoid any heterogeneity due to the additional border heat transfer. The analysis of the heterogeneity was conducted in terms of vial heat 91 transfer coefficient  $(K_{\nu})$  distributions. Based on theoretical analysis,<sup>5,8,12</sup> attention was 92 focused on the role of two vial dimensions, the bottom curvature depth and the contact area 93 between the bottom vial and the shelf. Two shelf temperatures (-40 °C and 0 °C) and six 94 chamber pressures (4, 6, 9, 15, 40 and 50 Pa) were tested in two freeze-dryer pilot plants of 95 similar shelf emissivity to assess the impact of these operative parameters on the heat transfer 96 heterogeneity among central vials. Finally, as example of practical application of our work 97 for assessing the pharmaceutical product quality, the impact of the central vial  $K_{\nu}$  variability 98 on product temperature was evaluated. Product temperature distributions for a 5 % sucrose 99 solution were calculated from the simulated  $K_{\nu}$  distributions based on the vial geometry for 100 several operating conditions. 101

102

#### **103 MATERIALS AND METHODS**

104 Materials

Siliconized glass tubing vials (3 mL) were provided by Müller + Müller (Holzminden,
Germany). These vials are routinely used in commercial manufacturing. Distilled water was
used throughout the experiments.

108 Two pilot scale freeze-dryers differing mainly by their size, the type of valve connecting the109 drying chamber to the condenser and their age were used for this study:

- a LyoVac GT6 (Finn-Aqua Santasalo-Sohlberg SPRL, Brussels, Belgium), referred to as
 LYO A. It included 5 shelves with an area of 0.14 m<sup>2</sup> each, a distance between shelves of 56
 mm, a drying chamber volume of 0.061 m<sup>3</sup> and a butterfly valve between the chamber and
 the condenser.

- an Epsilon 2-25D (Martin Christ Gefriertrocknungsanlagen GmbH, Osterode am Harz,
Germany), referred to as LYO B. It included 7 shelves with an area of 0.27 m<sup>2</sup> each, a
distance between shelves of 55 mm, a drying chamber volume of 0.38 m<sup>3</sup> and a mushroom
valve between the chamber and the condenser.

The pressure in the freeze-dryer chamber was monitored by a capacitive manometer. Since it was not technically possible to install thermocouples in the drying chamber of the two freezedryers, Tempris wireless sensors (IQ Mobil Solution GMbH, Holzkirchen, Germany) were positioned in the bottom center of selected vials (Figure 1) to record ice temperature during the experiments. The obtained signal was used to define the sublimation starting point.

123

#### 124 Ice sublimation experiments

All experiments were performed using a 1.8 mL fill volume of distilled water (filling height:
11 mm). No stopper was inserted into the vial neck. The middle shelf was fully covered by
filled vials for all runs, corresponding to a total of 540 vials in LYO A and 950 vials in LYO
B. Bottomless trays were used.

129 The vials were quickly loaded on the pre-cooled shelf at -50°C. The presence of a dry laminar flow in front of the freeze-dryer door made it possible to control the air relative humidity and 130 thus to limit condensation on the shelves. After a freezing step of 2 hours, the pressure was 131 decreased and the shelf temperature was increased by 1 °C/min. Experiments were carried out 132 at 4, 6, 9, 15, 40 and 50 Pa with a shelf fluid inlet temperature of 0 °C, and at 4 and 6 Pa with 133 a shelf fluid inlet temperature of -40 °C. The run performed at 0 °C and 6 Pa was repeated 134 three times. The cycles were run long enough to dry up to 20-25 % of the initial fill volume. 135 Subliming a larger quantity of ice could lead to loss of contact between the vial and the ice, 136 137 introducing uncertainty in the analysis.

The sublimation rate  $\dot{m}$  was measured gravimetrically for each vial and calculated as the 138 mass loss divided by the period of sublimation. A total of 100 vials, placed in the centre of 139 140 the shelf and surrounded by other vials in the same conditions, were individually weighed before and after the experiment on a precision scale ( $\pm 0.001$  g; Mettler Toledo, Zaventem, 141 Belgium). Sublimation time was measured from the moment when shelf temperature 142 exceeded product temperature, meaning that there was a net heat flux from the shelf towards 143 the vials. The arrangement of the weighed vials within the shelves is shown in Figure 1 for 144 the two freeze-dryers. 145

146

### 147 Measurement of emissivity of the vial and of the shelf

Emissivity measurements were performed by Themacs Ingénierie (Champs sur Marne, France). The glass vial emissivity was determined using a Fourier transform infrared spectrophotometer (Frontier, Perkin Elmer, Roissy, France) equipped with a Pike<sup>©</sup> integrant sphere (Pike Technologies, Fitchburg, WI, USA). The measured emissivity varied from 0.78 to 0.80 within the range of temperatures tested (from -48 °C to 27 °C). Thus, a constant value 153 corresponding to the average observed product temperatures (between -48 to -24 °C) was
154 used in the data analysis, as reported in Table 1.

The shelf emissivity was measured using the emissometer EM-2, making it possible an in situ measurement.<sup>18</sup> The emissivity value of the shelves of LYO B was  $0.18 \pm 0.06$  (Table 1). Measurements were carried out on several pilot and production freeze-dryers and shelf emissivity values in the range of 0.18-0.3 were obtained. Considering the relative standard deviation of the method (0.06), the measured values are in agreement with values reported in literature.<sup>5</sup>

161

## 162 Dimensional analysis of a batch of vials

163 The dimensions of 120 vials were precisely measured by the specialized company 164 Precis&Mans (Le Mans, France) using the micrometer Mitutoyo 3D (Mitutoyo Europe 165 GmbH, Neuss, Germany). The following geometrical parameters were determined with a 166 precision of 0.003 mm: the inner and outer bottom radius and the maximum bottom curvature 167 depth. These values were used to calculate additional vial dimensions: outer and inner vial 168 bottom area, vial shelf contact area ( $A_c$ ) (named radius-based contact area in Table 1) and 169 mean bottom curvature depth (l) (Appendix).

Furthermore, the vial-shelf contact area was also estimated using the imprint method 170 proposed by Kuu et al.<sup>17</sup> and Hibler et al.<sup>4</sup> The vials were gently placed on an inkpad and then 171 on a sheet of white paper. ImageJ v.1.49 software (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, 172 MD, USA) was used for the determination of the vial-shelf bottom contact area in pixels from 173 the imprint images. The scale factor of pixels in mm<sup>2</sup> was determined by evaluating the 174 number of pixels of a black shape of known area and was equal to 0.0153 mm<sup>2</sup> pixel<sup>-1</sup>. The 175 mean value and the relative standard deviation of these geometrical dimensions are reported 176 177 in Table 1. The two methods used for evaluating the vial-shelf contact area gave similar mean values: 16.7 mm<sup>2</sup> for the imprint method and 17.8 mm<sup>2</sup> for the dimensional analysis. However, the coefficient of variation of these methods appeared different and significantly higher for the imprint method (23.9 % versus 12.0 % for the dimensional analysis). The values of contact area determined using this latter method were selected for the analysis considering that this method better accounts for intimate contact between vial and shelf.

183

#### **184 THEORY AND DATA ANALYSIS**

# 185 Evaluation of the vial heat transfer coefficient $K_v$ based on experimental data

As widely reported in literature,<sup>4,5,8,12</sup> the vial heat transfer coefficient  $K_v$  was calculated using the following equation:

188

$$K_{v} = \frac{\dot{Q}}{A_{b}(T_{s} - T_{b})} = \frac{\Delta H \, \dot{m}}{A_{b}(T_{s} - T_{b})}$$
 Equation 1

190

where  $\dot{Q}$  is the heat flow received by the vial,  $A_b$  is the outer vial bottom area,  $T_s$  is the average temperature between the inlet and outlet shelf fluid temperatures,  $T_b$  is the bottom product temperature,  $\Delta H$  is the latent heat of sublimation and  $\dot{m}$  is the sublimation rate.

Since it was not possible to implement thermocouples in the freeze-dryer pilot plant to have a precise measurement of the product temperature,  $T_b$  was theoretically determined as:

196

197  $\dot{Q} = \frac{\lambda_{ice}}{L_{ice}} A_{in} (T_b - T_i)$  Equation 2

198

199 where  $\lambda_{ice}$  is the ice thermal conductivity,  $A_{in}$  is the inner bottom area of the vial,  $L_{ice}$  is the 200 ice thickness and  $T_i$  is the ice-vapor interface temperature. The ice thickness was estimated as the mean between the initial and final ice thickness values (calculated using the amounts ofinitial and sublimed ice).

No stopper and pure water were used in this study in order to assume that the partial pressure of vapor at the sublimation interface was equal to the chamber pressure. The temperature at the ice-vapor interface  $T_i$  was thus calculated as a function of the interface pressure  $P_i$  using the Clausius-Clapeyron relation:<sup>19</sup>

207

208

$$T_i = \frac{6139.6}{28.8912 - \ln(P_i)}$$
 Equation 3

209

The  $T_b$  value calculated was compared to the product temperature value given by the Tempris probe and an excellent agreement between experimental and theoretical data was observed.

212

#### 213 Theoretical description of the vial heat transfer coefficient $K_v$

The main objective of this work was to quantify the impact of vial dimensions distribution on heat transfer variability and its resulting consequence on product temperature. To this end, the vial heat transfer coefficient need to be theoretically expressed in function of specific vial dimensions.

218 The vial heat transfer coefficient  $K_{\nu}$  can be described as the sum of three contributions:<sup>5,8,12</sup>

219

220 
$$K_v = K_c + K_g + K_r$$
 Equation 4

221

where  $K_c$  represents the thermal contact conduction between the shelf and the vial *via* the direct contact area,  $K_g$  the thermal conduction through the gas entrapped in the vial bottom curvature and  $K_r$  the thermal radiation between the vial and the top and bottom shelves.

227 Heat transfer by thermal contact conduction  $K_c$ 

The expression of  $K_c$  has been discussed in the literature by only a few authors.<sup>16,17</sup> Kuu et al.<sup>17</sup> proposed an evaluation of this parameter and showed that the larger the contact area is, the larger the value of the contact conduction coefficient will be. Thus,  $K_c$  can be assumed to be proportional to the contact area ( $A_c$ , evaluated by the imprint test method) through an empirical constant ( $C_1$ ):

233

235

236 Heat transfer by conduction through the gas  $K_g$ 

The coefficient  $K_g$ , representing the contribution of the conduction through the gas in  $K_v$ , can be expressed as:<sup>5,12</sup>

 $K_c = C_1 A_c$ 

239

240  $K_g = \frac{C_2 P_C}{1 + \frac{C_2 l}{\lambda_{amb}} P_C}$  Equation 6

241

where  $P_c$  is the chamber pressure,  $\lambda_{amb}$  is the molecular conductivity of the water vapor at ambient pressure, l is the mean vial bottom curvature depth calculated as reported in the Appendix, and the coefficient  $C_2$  is equal to:

245

246 
$$C_2 = \Lambda_o \frac{\alpha_c}{2-\alpha_c} \left(\frac{273.15}{T_{gas}}\right)^{0.5}$$
 Equation 7

247

where  $\Lambda_o$  is the free molecular heat conductivity of the gas at 0 °C,  $T_{gas}$  is temperature of the gas participating to heat conduction, calculated as average between the product temperature

Equation 5

at the sublimation interface and the shelf temperature values,<sup>12</sup> and  $\alpha_c$  is the accommodation coefficient.

252 *Heat transfer by thermal radiation*  $K_r$ 

The heat transfer by radiation between the shelf and the vial  $\dot{Q}_r^{shelf}$  can be described by the Stephen-Boltzmann equation:<sup>5,8,20</sup>

255

$$\dot{Q}_r^{shelf} = A_r \mathcal{F} \sigma \left(T_s^4 - T_b^4\right)$$
 Equation 8

257

where  $A_r$  is the area exposed to the radiation from the shelves to be considered equal to the vial bottom area  $A_b$ ,  $\mathcal{F}$  is the visualization factor and  $\sigma$  the Stephan-Boltzman constant. After mathematical rearrangement, Equation 8 can be expressed as:

261

262 
$$\dot{Q}_r^{shelf} = A_r \mathcal{F} \sigma \left(T_s^4 - T_b^4\right) = A_b \mathcal{F} \sigma (T_s + T_b) (T_s^2 + T_b^2) (T_s - T_b) \text{ Equation 9}$$

263

264 Thus, the heat transfer coefficient  $K_r$  for thermal radiation can be defined as:

265

266 
$$K_r = \mathcal{F} \sigma (T_s + T_b)(T_s^2 + T_b^2)$$
 Equation 10

267

During the process, central vials are affected by two different radiative heat transfer contributions: between (i) the shelf below the vial and the vial bottom, and (ii) the shelf above the vial and the top of the vial.<sup>5,8,12</sup> Hence, the visualization factor will be the sum of two terms:

- 273  $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{F}_b + \mathcal{F}_{top}$  Equation 11
- 274

The visualization factor at the bottom of the vial  $\mathcal{F}_b$  can be evaluated considering the definition proposed by Bird et al.<sup>20</sup> and Pikal<sup>8</sup> for the heat transfer by radiation between parallel surfaces:

278

279

$$\mathcal{F}_b = \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{1}{e_v} - 1\right) + \left(\frac{1}{e_s} - 1\right)}$$
 Equation 12

280

where  $e_v$  and  $e_s$  are the emissivities of the vial and shelf, respectively.

Considering vials located in the centre of the shelf and surrounded by other vials in the same conditions, it is possible to assume that (i) the vial area exposed to the top shelf is much smaller than the area of the shelf and (ii) the vial top does not receive radiations from the side walls of the chamber. Thus, the visualization factor between the top of the vials and the shelf  $\mathcal{F}_{top}$  can be estimated equal to the emissivity of the vial:<sup>5,8</sup>

- 287
- 288

 $\mathcal{F}_{top} = e_v$  Equation 13

289

In agreement with the literature, the visualization factor at the vial top (equal to 0.78; Table
1) is higher than the one at the vial bottom (equal to 0.16; Table 1).<sup>5</sup>

292

#### 293 Dependence of the vial heat transfer coefficient on vial geometry

Equations 4, 5 and 6 were combined to highlight the dependence of  $K_v$  on the contact area ( $A_c$ ), and bottom curvature depth (l):

296

297 
$$K_{\nu} = C_1 A_c + K_r + \frac{C_2 P_c}{1 + \frac{l}{\lambda_{amb}} C_2 P_c}$$
 Equation 14

299 The term  $K_r$  was calculated from Equations 10-13 for each experimental condition.

Coefficients  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  were determined by fitting Equation 14 in a least-squares sense to experimental  $K_v$  values determined by the gravimetric method. Calculations were performed with Matlab R2014b software equipped with the Statistics Toolbox (The Mathworks Inc., Natick, MA, USA). The bottom curvature depth l and contact area  $A_c$  were evaluated from dimensional analysis of the vial and imprint test, respectively.

305

## 306 Calculation of $K_v$ distributions based on vial geometry

Two vial dimensions influence heat transfer: the contact area  $(A_c)$  and the mean bottom 307 curvature depth (l). The absence of correlation between the two geometrical dimensions l and 308  $A_c$  was verified by calculating the correlation factor together with its statistical significance 309 (p-value > 0.5). It was thus possible to independently evaluate the impact of those parameters 310 on  $K_{\nu}$ . Using Equation 14, three  $K_{\nu}$  distributions based on vial dimension variations were 311 312 simulated: (i) curvature-based (l in Equation 14); (ii) contact area-based ( $A_c$  in Equation 14); and (iii) their combination. The curvature-based  $K_{\nu}$  distribution was obtained by evaluating 313 Equation 14 with the 120 measured values of the mean bottom curvature depth (l), while the 314 contact area was maintained constant at its mean value. The contact area-based  $K_{\nu}$ 315 distribution was obtained by evaluating Equation 14 with the 120 measured values of the 316 imprint-based contact area  $(A_c)$ , whereas the bottom curvature depth was maintained constant 317 at its mean value. Plugging both measured l and  $A_c$  values into Equation 14 gave the 318 combined contact area and curvature-based  $K_{\nu}$  distribution. The calculation was repeated for 319 all the studied chamber pressures and shelf temperatures. Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests were 320 performed on the simulated  $K_v$  distributions, establishing that the sample data were consistent 321 with a normal distribution at a 0.05 significance level. 322

# 324 Simulation of the product temperature distributions using the $K_v$ distribution

Product temperature distributions were obtained from the calculated contact area and curvature-based  $K_{\nu}$  distribution. The product temperature was calculated for a 5 % w/w sucrose solution, considering a shelf temperature of -25°C and four chamber pressures (4, 6, 9, 15 Pa). Pressure at 40 and 50 Pa were not considered because the product temperature exceeds the glass transition temperature of the product at such high pressure (i.e., -32 °C for a 5 % w/w sucrose solution).<sup>21</sup> In the case of a real product, the mass flow rate can be expressed as reported by Pikal et al.<sup>5</sup>:

332

333 
$$\dot{m} = \frac{(P_i - P_c) A_{in}}{R_p}$$
 Equation 15

334

where  $R_p$  represents the area-normalized product resistance. The value of  $R_p$  used for this simulation is reported in Table 1 and was considered for a dried layer thickness of 0.5 cm.<sup>21</sup> To simulate the product temperature distribution, the non-linear system composed of Equations 1-3 and 14-15 was solved for each pair of measured *l* and  $A_c$  values. Chi-square goodness-of-fit tests were performed on the product temperature distributions, demonstrating that the simulated data were compatible with a normal distribution at a 0.05 significance level.

342

#### 343 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 344 Impact of equipment on $K_v$

Vial heat transfer coefficient  $K_v$  of 100 vials located in the centre of the shelf was experimentally determined for different chamber pressures (4 to 50 Pa), shelf temperatures (-40 °C and 0 °C) and freeze-dryers (LYO A and LYO B). Figure 2 illustrates the evolution of the average value of  $K_v$  with pressure. Equation 14 was fitted with the experimental data and the resulting coefficients  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are presented in Table 2 for the data obtained in LYO A, LYO B and their combination. The accommodation coefficient  $\alpha_c$  was also calculated from Equation 7, considering an average value of the gas temperature obtained under the different operating conditions tested ( $T_{gas} = -35$  °C). The obtained values of the accommodation coefficient appear to be in agreement with data in literature.<sup>8</sup>

In Table 2, LYO A and LYO B exhibited a similar value of the  $C_1$  coefficient that is related to the contact area coefficient  $K_c$  (Equation 5), but distinct values of the  $C_2$  coefficient that is related to  $K_g$  (Equation 6). LYO B exhibited a slightly higher accommodation coefficient then LYO A, probably due to a different finish of the freeze-dryer shelf material.

When considering pressure values lower than 10 Pa (Figure 2), the  $K_v$  values obtained in the 358 two freeze-dryer appeared similar. This result was confirmed also by Pisano,<sup>12</sup> who reported 359 no significant difference in  $K_v$  value of central vials processed in a pilot and manufacturing 360 freeze-dryer at a pressure of 10 Pa. For pressure value higher than 10 Pa, the influence of 361 freeze-dryer configuration became significant with slightly higher values obtained in LYO B 362 (Figure 2). At 50 Pa, the  $K_v$  value was approximately 8% higher in LYO B than in LYO A. 363 Considering the different values of  $C_2$  coefficient, the  $K_v$  difference between freeze-dryers at 364 high pressure can thus be ascribed to the increased rate of heat transfer through the gas over 365 the total heat flow. However, the physical origin of the differences in the pressure-dependent 366 component of  $K_{\nu}$  remains unclear. Possible hypotheses include: (i) differences in the shelf 367 surface finish that could induce differences in the gas-shelf heat transfer through the 368 accommodation coefficient<sup>8</sup> (Equation 6-7) as well as (ii) differences in the gas convection 369 conditions, a mechanism responsible for a small part of the pressure-dependent heat 370 transfer.<sup>22</sup> These results suggest that small differences between devices might become more 371 apparent at high pressures. When considering only vials not exposed to edge effect a cycle 372 373 designed with low operating pressure (below 10 Pa) could therefore be more suitable for safe

scale-up. However the behavior of the edge vials located at the periphery of the shelf or in
contact with metallic band need also to be considered and some elements were recently
proposed by Pikal et al.<sup>11</sup> to investigate the impact of the freeze-dryer configuration.

377

## 378 Impact of chamber pressure and shelf temperature on $K_v$

As reported in the literature and shown in Figure 2, chamber pressure had a strong impact on 379  $K_v$ .<sup>4,5,8,12,13,15</sup> The vial heat transfer coefficient increased approximately four times between 4 380 and 50 Pa. At the vial bottom, the presence of the curvature limits the intimate contact 381 between the shelf and the vial and create an empty space between the shelf and the vial that 382 acts as an insulator.<sup>13,16,17</sup> At very low pressures typically used in the process, the heat 383 transfer contribution by gas convection is usually neglected,<sup>11</sup> whereas the contribution of gas 384 conduction has to be considered. This heat transfer mechanism, represented by the coefficient 385  $K_q$ , is dependent on the chamber pressure and increases when increasing pressure, as shown 386 in Equation 6.<sup>5,8,12,15</sup> Figure 3 shows the relative contributions of  $K_c$ ,  $K_r$  and  $K_g$  on the total 387  $K_v$ , calculated using the set C of the fitting coefficients reported in Table 2. The  $K_c$  and  $K_r$ 388 contributions go from about 30 % at 4 Pa to 10 % at 50 Pa, whereas the  $K_g$  contribution goes 389 from about 25 % at 4 Pa to 80 % at 50 Pa. 390

A moderate effect of shelf temperature on  $K_v$  was expected theoretically due to  $K_r$  (Equation 10) and to  $K_g$  through the gas temperature (Equations 6-7). Figure 4a displays the influence of shelf temperature on  $K_v$ . Differences in  $K_v$  values due to temperature remained within the standard deviation when considering pressure values lower than 10 Pa and when the contribution of  $K_g$  in the total  $K_v$  is moderate (around 25 %, Figure 3).

In order to clarify the impact of the shelf temperature, the contributions of the single coefficients  $K_c$ ,  $K_r$  and  $K_g$  on  $K_v$  were calculated for two shelf temperatures (25 °C and -25 °C) and three chamber pressures (4, 6 and 50 Pa), as show in Figure 4b. The contact

conduction coefficient  $K_c$  does not depend on the shelf temperature (Equation 5) and thus has 399 a constant contribution in  $K_{\nu}$  for all the temperatures tested. The radiative coefficient  $K_{r}$ 400 depends on the third power of the shelf temperature and increases by about  $1 W m^{-2} K^{-1}$ 401 between -25 °C and 25 °C for all pressures considered. The gas conduction coefficient  $K_g$ 402 depends on the gas temperature and decreases by 0.1-0.2  $W m^{-2} K^{-1}$  at low pressures (4-6 403 Pa) and by 1.1  $W m^{-2} K^{-1}$  at 50 Pa, between the two considered values of shelf temperature. 404 When increasing shelf temperature, the increase of  $K_r$  is partly compensated by the decrease 405 of  $K_g$ . These results confirm that the dependence of  $K_v$  on the shelf temperature is negligible, 406 especially if compared with the role played by the chamber pressure. Pisano et al.<sup>12</sup> and 407 Hottot et al.<sup>23</sup> reported similar  $K_v$  values for different shelf temperature conditions. 408

409

## 410 Inter-vial heat transfer heterogeneity and the role of vial dimensions

Figure 5 presents the experimentally observed distributions of the vial heat transfer 411 coefficient data of central vials at six chamber pressures. Since temperature- and equipment-412 induced variations were minor, data obtained in LYO A and B and for the two shelf 413 temperatures were merged. A significant variability in the  $K_{\nu}$  values evaluated for central 414 vials was observed, the standard deviation increasing with pressure from 0.84 to 415 2.46  $W m^{-2} K^{-1}$ . The values of standard deviation corresponded to coefficient of variation 416 comprised between 4 and 8 % depending on the operating conditions. The measurement error 417 associated to the determination of  $K_{\nu}$  was evaluated as the sum of the individual 418 measurement accuracy of each parameter entering in the calculation of  $K_{\nu}$  (Equation 1). The 419 measurement uncertainty was estimated to be ~ 1 %. This value is in agreement with the 420 value reported by Pikal et al.<sup>5</sup>, who reported an uncertainty value of  $\sim 1.2$  %. The 421 measurement uncertainty alone did not allow to completely explain the variability of the  $K_v$ 422

data. An external factor responsible for inter-vial heat transfer heterogeneity had thus to beconsidered.

Attention was focused on the container: the geometrical difference among the vials was 425 426 considered as a possible source of the heat transfer heterogeneity. This variability in the vial dimensions can be due to production limits and could change as a function of the container 427 model and provider. For the tested vial set, the coefficient of variation was approximately 428 27.7 % for the mean bottom curvature depth (l) and 23.9 % for the imprint-based contact area 429  $(A_c)$ . Hence, the effect of the variability of these geometrical dimensions on  $K_v$  was evaluated 430 as proposed in the Theory and data analysis section using the set of coefficients C reported in 431 Table 2. 432

Figure 6 displays the simulated distributions of  $K_{\nu}$  based on the vial bottom dimensions. 433 These distributions showed a trend and range of  $K_{\nu}$  values similar to the experimental ones. 434 At low pressure,  $K_v$  variability is almost completely due to the contact area variability. The 435 importance of the contact area on the  $K_v$  value was also confirmed by Pikal et al.<sup>5</sup> and 436 Cannon et al.<sup>16</sup> Regarding the vial bottom curvature, the importance of its variability 437 increased when the pressure rose. This is due to the coefficient  $K_a$  that plays a major role in 438 the total value of  $K_{\nu}$  at 40 and 50 Pa, as shown in Figure 3. The role of the bottom curvature 439 dimension was previously investigated by Brülls and Radsmuson<sup>15</sup> and Cannon et al.<sup>16</sup> Brülls 440 and Radsmuson<sup>15</sup> have shown that the bottom curvature has an impact on the heat transfer 441 only at chamber pressures higher than 30 Pa. This conclusion was confirmed by Cannon et 442 al.<sup>16</sup>, who found that bottom curvature had little impact when considering low pressure (< 27 443 Pa). Our results agree with these conclusions,<sup>15,16</sup> confirming that the variability of the 444 bottom curvature depth has to be taken into consideration only if cycles at high chamber 445 pressure are performed (> 30 Pa). 446

Figure 7 displays the coefficient of variation of the experimental and calculated 447  $K_{\nu}$  distributions at different pressures. For the experimental distributions, the coefficient was 448 calculated as an average between the LYO A and B datasets. The trend of the observed 449 coefficient of variations for both experimental and simulated  $K_{\nu}$  distributions decreased from 450 approximately 9 % to 4 % when increasing the chamber pressure. The variability of the 451 experimental  $K_{\nu}$  distributions is completely explained by the geometrical variability at low 452 pressures (i.e., 4, 6 Pa), whereas at higher pressures, the experimental coefficient of variation 453 454 appears to be slightly higher than the one calculated based on vial geometry. It is thus possible that other sources of variability should be taken into consideration, for example 455 convection in the drying chamber could play a role if higher pressures are considered.<sup>22</sup> 456

These considerations can guide the selection of the container as a function of the variability of the vial dimensions. The results obtained show that at low chamber pressure (i.e., 4, 6, 9, 15 Pa), it is important to assess the variability of the contact area between the vial and the shelf, whereas for cycles performed at high pressure (i.e., 40, 50 Pa), the variability of the bottom curvature depth becomes a relevant parameter. Consequently, for pharmaceutical processes that are usually carried out at pressures lower than 10 Pa, the contact area needs to be taken into account more than the bottom curvature depth.

464

# 465 Impact of $K_v$ heterogeneity on the product temperature distribution within a batch of 466 vials located in the centre of the shelf and not exposed to edge effect

In the case of freeze-drying, product temperature is one of the most important critical quality parameters. During the process, product temperature must be maintained close to a limit value (i.e., glass transition temperature for amorphous products,  $T_g$ ) in order to optimize the process time but not to exceed it so as to guarantee the visual aspect of the cake and the product quality. 472 The vial-to-vial heat and mass transfer heterogeneity during the sublimation step causes variability in the product temperature. Considering a constant and fixed value of mass 473 transfer resistance, it would be interesting to estimate the product temperature distribution 474 475 during the primary drying step resulting only from the variability in vial geometry. Product temperature distributions were thus evaluated considering the contact area and curvature-476 based  $K_{\nu}$  distributions. For this analysis, a 5 % w/w sucrose solution was considered, 477 processed at -25 °C and four different pressures (4, 6, 9 and 15 Pa). Relevant data concerning 478 product resistance and glass transition temperature (-32 °C) were found in the literature.<sup>21</sup> As 479 480 expected, product temperature increased from 4 Pa to 15 Pa because of the higher value of the vial heat transfer coefficient and higher ice sublimation temperature. 481

The variability of the product temperature was estimated to be approximately 0.9 °C at 15 Pa and as large as 2.2 °C at 4 Pa, considering  $\pm$  3 times the standard deviation that includes 99 % of the vials (Figure 8). A practical implication of these results is that, at the low pressures commonly encountered in vaccine freeze-drying, a temperature safety margin of approximately 2 °C has to be considered with respect to cycles designed on the basis of an average  $K_{\nu}$  value and to vials not exposed to edge effect.

Vials located at the periphery of the shelf (i.e., edge vials) receive additional heating due to 488 the radiation from the chamber walls and the contact with the metallic guardrail. Thus, edge 489 vials present a higher sublimation rate and a higher product temperature respect central vials.<sup>5</sup> 490 Tang et al.<sup>24</sup> reports that the temperature difference between edge vials and central vial can be 491 up to 2 °C at a shelf temperature of 20 °C and up to 4 °C at -30 °C for a chamber pressure of 492 about 10 Pa. Depending on the operating conditions of the process, the safety product 493 temperature margin resulting from variability in vial dimensions could be in the same order 494 of magnitude than the safety margin imposed by the "edge effect". 495

#### 497 **CONCLUSIONS**

Implementation of the Quality by Design initiative require a precise definition of the 498 acceptable range for all product and process variables ensuring the fulfillment of the critical 499 500 quality attributes of the final product. The impact of any variation of these variables on the final quality need to be quantified in advance. In this work, the effect of the variability of 501 geometrical dimensions observed within a batch of vials (i.e., contact area between the shelf 502 and the vial and the mean bottom curvature depth) on product quality was explored. The 503 product quality was evaluating by predicting the product temperature knowing the vial heat 504 transfer coefficient  $K_{\nu}$ . An original approach was proposed to calculate  $K_{\nu}$  distribution based 505 on geometrical dimensions when considering a batch of vials located in the center of the shelf 506 not exposed to any edge effect. The impact of freeze-dryer configuration and operating 507 conditions was also considered. When considering low pressure (< 10 Pa), commonly used 508 for freeze-drying biopharmaceuticals, the influence of freeze-dryer configuration and shelf 509 temperature on heat transfer characteristics can be neglected and  $K_{\nu}$  distribution is 510 completely explained by the contact area distribution. Furthermore the variability of vial 511 dimension results in the definition of a product temperature safety margin of 2 °C. However, 512 additional sources of variability need to be included in QbD approach. In particular, a study 513 focused on the variability between edge and central vials and its role in cycle scale-up is 514 presently ongoing. 515

516

## 517 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank Benoit Moreau and Yves Mayeresse (GSK Vaccines) for
reviewing this manuscript and Vincent Ronsse (technician) and Alain Philippart (operator)
(GSK Vaccines) for their help in the data acquisition.

#### 522 CONFLICT OF INTEREST

Erwan Bourlés is an employee of the GSK group of companies. Bernadette Scutellà
participated in a postgraduate PhD program at GSK Vaccines. Stephanie Passot, Fernanda
Fonseca and Ioan Cristian Trelea report no financial conflicts of interest.

## 526 FUNDING

This work was funded by GlaxoSmithKline Biologicals S.A., under a Cooperative Research
and Development Agreement with INRA (Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique)
via the intermediary of the UMR (Unité Mixte de Recherche) GMPA (Génie et
Microbiologie des Procédés Alimentaires) at the INRA Versailles-Grignon research center.

531

#### 532 AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

Bernadette Scutellà, Stephanie Passot, Erwan Bourlés, Fernanda Fonseca and Ioan Cristian Trelea were involved in the conception and design of the study. Bernadette Scutellà and Erwan Bourlès acquired the data. Bernadette Scutellà, Stephanie Passot, Erwan Bourlès, Fernanda Fonseca and Ioan Cristian Trelea analyzed and interpreted the results. All authors were involved in drafting the manuscript or revising it critically for important intellectual content. All authors had full access to the data and approved the manuscript before it was submitted by the corresponding author.

541	APPENDIX
542	The evaluation of the mean bottom curvature depth $l$ was performed from geometrical
543	considerations on the semi-spherical calotte at the vial bottom, as represented in Figure A.
544	The bottom curvature depth depends on the radius of the vial bottom as follows:
545	
546	$l(r) = R_c - a(r)$ Equation A1
547	
548	where $R_c$ is the radius of the calotte and $a(r)$ is the distance between the shelf and the vial
549	bottom, measured normal to the vial bottom:
550	
551	$a(r) = \sqrt{(R_c - l_{max})^2 + r^2}$ Equation A2
552	
553	$R_c$ can be calculated as a function of the maximum bottom curvature depth $l_{max}$ and the inner
554	vial bottom radius $R_i$ :
555	
556	$R_c^2 = R_i^2 + (R_c - l_{max})^2$ Equation A3
557	
558	The area-mean bottom curvature depth can be defined as the integral of $l(r)$ on the calotte,
559	divided by the area:
560	
561	$l = \frac{1}{A} \int l(r)  dA \qquad \text{Equation A4}$
562	
563	The relevant area for heat transfer by gas conduction is:
564	
565	$A = \pi R_i^2 \qquad \qquad \text{Equation A5}$

and the area element:

 $dA = 2\pi r dr$  Equation A6

571 Combining Equations A1-A6, *l* was calculated as:

573 
$$l = \frac{2}{R_i^2} \int_0^{R_i} (R_c - \sqrt{(R_c - l_{max})^2 + r^2}) r \, dr$$
 Equation A7

#### 576 **REFERENCES**

597

- Jennings TA. 1999. Lyophilization: introduction and basic principles. Englewood, CO:
   Interpharm Press.
- 579 2. Nail SL, Searles JA. 2008. Elements of quality by design in development and scale-up of
  580 freeze parenterals. Biopharm Int 21(1):44–52.
- 581 3. Franks F. 1998. Freeze-drying of bioproducts: putting principles into practice. Eur J
  582 Pharm Biopharm 45:221–229.
- 4. Hibler S, Wagner C, Gieseler H. 2012. Vial Freeze-Drying, part 1: New Insights into
  Heat Transfer Characteristics of Tubing and Molded Vials. J Pharm Sci 101(3):1189–
  1201.
- 5. Pikal MJ, Roy ML, Shah S. 1984. Mass and heat transfer in vial freeze-drying of
  pharmaceuticals: role of the vial. J Pharm Sci 73(9):1224–1237.
- 588 6. Johnson R, Lewis L. 2011. Freeze-drying protein formulations above their collapse
  589 temperatures: possible issues and concerns. Am Pharm Rev 14(3):50–54.
- 590 7. Hibler S, Gieseler H. 2012. Heat transfer characteristics of current primary packaging
  591 systems for pharmaceutical freeze-drying. J Pharm Sci 101(11):4025–4031.
- 592 8. Pikal MJ. 2000. Heat and mass transfer in low pressure gases: applications to freeze
  593 drying. In Drugs and the Pharmaceutical Sciences 102:611–686.
- 9. Rambhatla S, Pikal MJ. 2003. Heat and mass transfer scale-up issues during freezedrying, I: atypical radiation and the edge vial effect. Aaps Pharmscitech 4(2):22–31.
- 596 10. Pisano R, Fissore D, Barresi AA, Brayard P, Chouvenc P, Woinet B. 2013. Quality by

design: optimization of a freeze-drying cycle via design space in case of heterogeneous

drying behavior and influence of the freezing protocol. Pharm Dev Technol 18(1):280–
295.

- 11. Pikal MJ, Bogner R, Mudhivarthi V, Sharma P, Sane P. 2016. Freeze-Drying Process
  Development and Scale-Up: Scale-Up of Edge Vial Versus Center Vial Heat Transfer
  Coefficients, Kv. J Pharm Sci doi:10.1016/j.xphs.2016.07.027.
- 12. Pisano R, Fissore D, Barresi AA. 2011. Heat Transfer in Freeze-Drying Apparatus. In:
- Dos Santos Bernardes MA ed., Developments in Heat Transfer 91-114. Rijeka, Croatia:
- InTech. Available from: http://www.intechopen.com/books/developments-in-heattransfer/heat-transfer-infreeze-drying-apparatus.
- 13. Nail SL. 1980. The Effect of Chamber Pressure on Heat Transfer in the Freeze Drying of
  Parenteral Solutions. PDA J Pharm Sci Technol 34(5):358–368.
- 14. Ybema H, Kolkman-Roodbeen L, te Booy MP, Vromans H. 1995. Vial lyophilization:
  calculations on rate limitation during primary drying. Pharm Res 12(9):1260–1263.
- 611 15. Brülls M, Rasmuson A. 2002. Heat transfer in vial lyophilization. Int J Pharm 246(1612 2):1–16.
- 613 16. Cannon A, Shemeley K. 2004. Statistical evaluation of vial design features that influence
  614 sublimation rates during primary drying. Pharm Res 21(3):536–542.
- Kuu WY, Nail SL, Sacha G. 2009. Rapid determination of vial heat transfer parameters
  using tunable diode laser absorption spectroscopy (TDLAS) in response to step-changes
  in pressure set-point during freeze-drying. J Pharm Sci 98(3):1136–1154.
- 618 18. Monchau JP, Marchetti M, Ibos L, Dumoulin J, Feuillet V, Candau Y. 2014. Infrared
  619 Emissivity Measurements of Building and Civil Engineering Materials: A New Device
- 620 for Measuring Emissivity. Int J Thermophys 35:1817-31.
- 19. Trelea IC, Passot S, Fonseca F, Marin M. 2007. An Interactive Tool for the Optimization
  of Freeze-Drying Cycles Based on Quality Criteria. Dry Technol 25(5):741–751.
- 623 20. Bird RB, Stewart WE, Lightfoot EN. 1960. Transport phenomena. New York, NY: John
  624 Wiley & Sons.

- 625 21. Konstantinidis AK, Kuu W, Otten L, Nail SL, Sever RR. 2011. Controlled nucleation in
  626 freeze -drying: Effect
- and primary drying rate. J Pharm Sci 100(8):3453–3470.
- 628 22. Ganguly A, Nail SL, Alexeenko A. 2013. Experimental Determination of the Key Heat
- Transfer Mechanisms in Pharmaceutical Freeze-Drying. J Pharm Sci 102(5):1610–1625.
- 630 23. Hottot A, Vessot S, Andrieu J. 2005. Determination of mass and heat transfer parameters
- during freeze-drying cycles of pharmaceutical products. PDA J Pharm Sci Technol 59(2):
  138–153.
- 633 24. Tang X, Nail SL, Pikal MJ. 2006. Evaluation of manometric temperature measurement, a
- 634 process analytical technology tool for freeze-drying: Part I, product temperature
- 635 measurement. AAPS PharmSciTech 7(1):E95–E103.

### 638 FIGURES

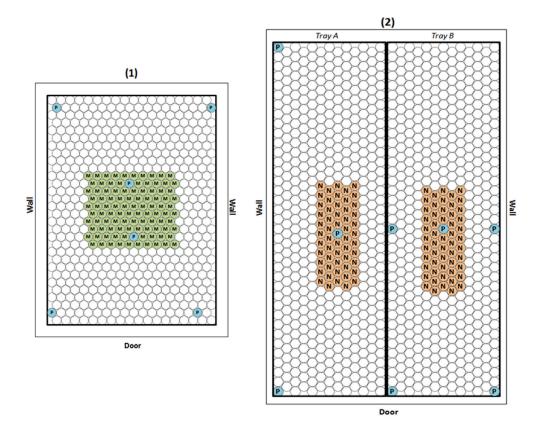
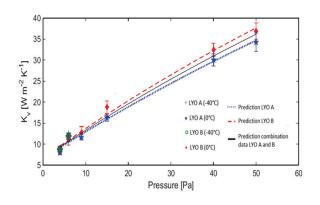
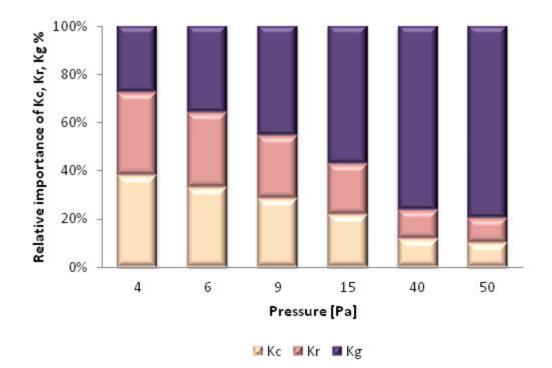


Figure 1. Vial arrangements in (1) LYO A and (2) LYO B. Gravimetrically-analyzed vials
are marked with the letters M and N for LYO A and B, respectively. Vials in which wireless
temperature probes were located are marked with the letter P. All vials were filled with 1.8
mL of pure water.



**Figure 2.** Vial heat transfer coefficient  $(K_v)$  values vs. chamber pressure  $(P_c)$ . The markers refer to the  $K_v$  average values measured in LYO A and B at -40°C and 0°C. The lines correspond to the values calculated with Equation 14 with the data obtained from LYO A, B and their combination. Error bars represent standard deviations.

650



651

Figure 3. Relative importance of the heat transfer coefficients by contact conduction  $(K_c)$ , radiation  $(K_r)$  and conduction through the gas  $(K_g)$  as percentages of the total heat transfer coefficients  $(K_v)$ . Average values of the contact area  $(A_c)$  and mean bottom curvature depth (l) were considered in this calculation. The set of coefficients C (Table 2) was used to evaluate  $K_c$  and  $K_g$ .

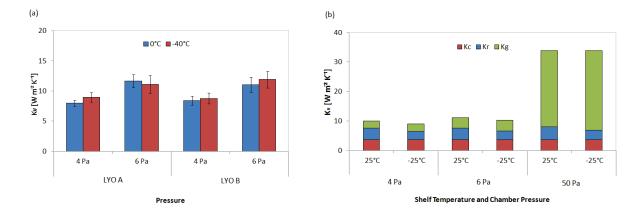


Figure 4. Influence of the shelf temperature on the vial heat transfer coefficients  $K_v$ .  $K_v$ values were evaluated at different shelf temperatures and chamber pressures (a) from experimental data obtained in LYO A and B and (b) from the coefficients  $K_c$ ,  $K_r$  and  $K_g$ , calculated using Equations 5, 6 and 10.

658

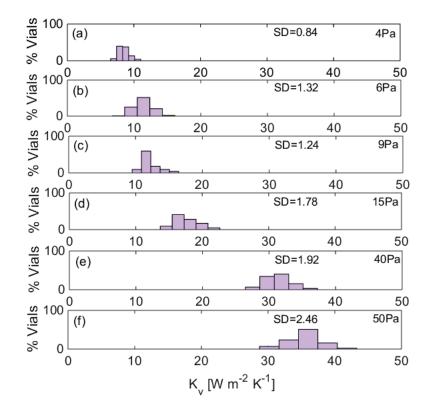
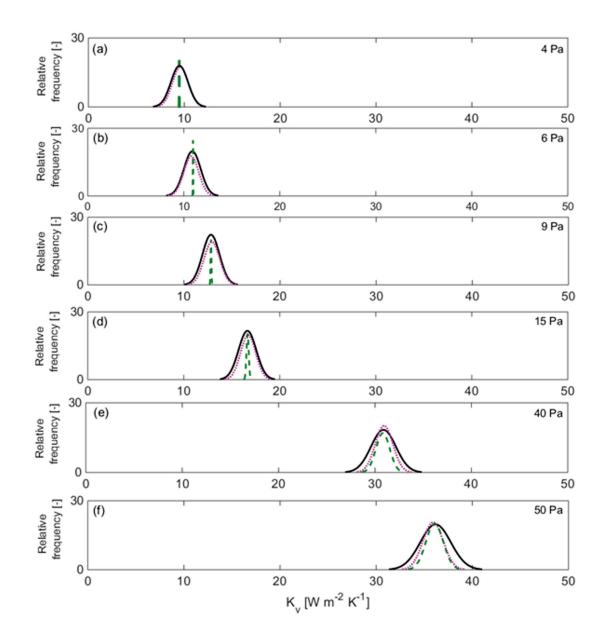
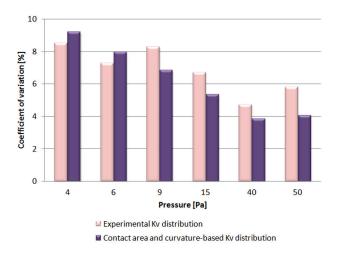


Figure 5. Experimentally-measured distribution of the vial heat transfer coefficients at 4 Pa
(a), 6 Pa (b), 9 Pa (c), 15 Pa (d), 40 Pa (e) and 50 Pa (f). Data of LYO A and LYO B at
different shelf temperatures (0°C and -40°C) were combined.

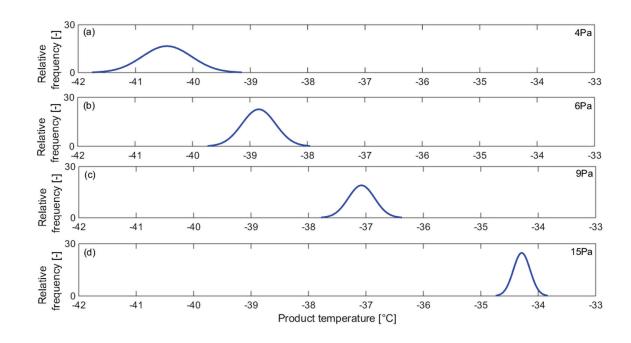


**Figure 6.** Calculated  $K_{\nu}$  normal distributions: curvature-based (dashed green line – –), contact area-based (dotted red line - - -) and combined curvature and contact area-based (solid black line —) at 4 Pa (a), 6 Pa (b), (c) 9 Pa (c), 15 Pa (d), 40 Pa (e) and 50 Pa (f).



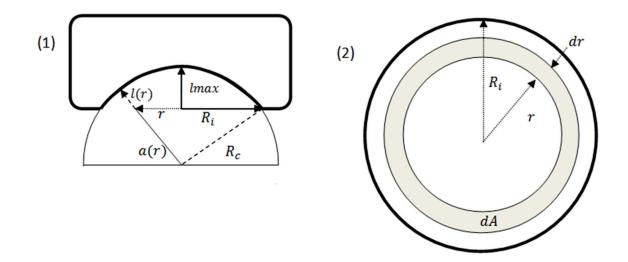
674

Figure 7. Coefficients of variation of experimentally-measured  $K_v$  distribution (LYO A and B; light bars) and calculated (combined contact area and curvature-based)  $K_v$  distribution (dark bars) and at different pressures.



679

Figure 8. Product temperature distributions obtained from the contact area and curvaturebased distribution for a 5 % w/w sucrose solution processed at a shelf temperature of -25 °C
and four chamber pressures: (a) 4 Pa, (b) 6 Pa, (c) 9 Pa and (d) 15 Pa.





**Figure A.** Side (1) and top (2) view of the vial bottom represented as a semi-spherical calotte.