

**Drop-on-demand printing of personalised orodispersible films fabricated by precision
micro-dispensing**

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Abstract:

Personalised orodispersible films (ODFs) manufactured at the point of care offer the possibility of adapting the dosing requirements for individual patients. Inkjet printing was extensively explored as a tool to produce personalised ODFs, but it is extensively limited to dispensing liquid with low viscosity and the interaction between ink and edible substrate complicates the fabrication process. In this study, we evaluated the feasibility of using a micro-dispensing (MD) jet system capable of accurately dispensing viscous liquid to fabricate substrate-free ODFs on-demand. The model inks containing hydroxypropyl methylcellulose (HPMC) and paracetamol were used to prepare personalised ODFs by expanding the film area. Cast films were used as the control sample to benchmark the mechanical properties, disintegration time, and dosing accuracy of MD printed ODFs. Both the cast and printed film showed smooth surface morphology without any bubbles. No significant difference was found in the disintegration time of the MD printed films compared to the cast films. High precision in dosing by MD printing was achieved. The dose of paracetamol had a linear correlation with the dimension of the printed films ($R^2 = 0.995$). The results provide clear evidence of the potential of MD printing to fabricate ODFs and the knowledge foundation of advancing MD printing to a point-of-care small-batch manufacturing technology of personalised ODFs.

Keywords:

orodispersible film, personalised medicine, micro-dispensing, 3D printing, drop-on-demand, solid dosage form

1. Introduction

Orodispersible films have gained popularity in the last decade as an alternative solid dosage form to deliver medications orally (Musazzi et al., 2020). ODFs can rapidly disintegrate in the oral cavity without water which provides the unique advantage of ease the oral drug administration for patients who suffer from swallowing difficulties, primarily paediatric and geriatric or non-compliant patients (Gupta et al., 2020). ODFs can be single or multiple layers. The first prescription drug, ondansetron (Rapidfilm[®]), in the form of ODF, was approved in the EU in 2010 (Borges et al., 2015). Several prescription-only medications have been marketed subsequently, such as risperidone and fentanyl (Preis et al., 2015). The interest of ODFs is not only limited to mass production by pharmaceutical companies, but it has extended to small scale production of personalised medicine at the point of care to accommodate individual patient's clinical needs in dosing and drug combinations (Foo et al., 2018; Musazzi et al., 2018; Sandler and Preis, 2016).

A range of methods has been explored for centralised manufacturing ODFs in large batches with fix doses. Solvent casting is a common method discussed in the literature to prepare ODFs due to its simplicity (Hoffmann et al., 2011). Solvent casting is suitable for heat-sensitive APIs but suffering from the significant use of solvents and lengthy processes (long solvent evaporation). In addition, the casting method is not applicable for hydrolysis-sensitive APIs, and with limited drug load. Hot-melt extrusion is an alternative method to prepare ODFs (Morales and McConville, 2011). The polymer, APIs and other ingredients such as plasticisers are mixed inside an extruder with heating to form a homogenous mixture before being ejected through a die to form thin films (Karki et al., 2016). Hot-melt extrusion can improve the solubility of APIs with poor aqueous solubility by producing a solid dispersion, and no solvent is involved in the mixing process (Repka et al., 2005). However, disadvantages such as degradation of thermolabile APIs and limited polymer selections are associated with hot-melt extrusion (Low et al., 2013).

Additive manufacturing technologies have been explored as a class of new methods to produce ODFs, such as inkjet printing (Genina et al., 2013; Sandler et al., 2011; Wickström et al., 2015), semisolid extrusion 3D printing (Öblom et al., 2019), and fused deposition modelling 3D printing (Ehtezazi et al., 2018). These technologies provide flexibility in making ODFs with personalised drug doses to accommodate patient's needs and small-batch manufacturing at or close to the point of care, such as hospital pharmacies (Preis et al., 2015; Slavkova and

Breitkreutz, 2015; Trenfield et al., 2018). Inkjet printing is one of the printing technologies researched most extensively to produce ODFs with tailored doses (Scoutaris et al., 2016). Drop-on-demand inkjet printing technology can deposit picolitre droplets on the substrate with high precision and is the most discussed inkjet printing method in the literature for fabricating ODFs. In most literature, a commercial inkjet printer was used with a modified ink cartridge to dispense drug ink (Vuddanda et al., 2018). There are two methods reported in the literature to produce ODFs by inkjet printing. The most common method is to dispense drug-loaded ink on an edible supporting substrate, such as HPMC-based films (Planchette et al., 2016). The ink contains a drug with a viscosity modifier to facilitate the stable deposition of droplets onto the supporting substrate which is usually prepared by the solvent casting (Edinger et al., 2018b). The solvent in ink evaporates with time, leaving the drug molecules on the surface of the edible substrate. The printing is often repeated layer-by-layer to deposit enough APIs on the ODF. Printing APIs with unique patterns such as quick response (QR) codes containing information on patient details, medication, dosage, and batch details on HPMC film has also been attempted for quality assurance and tracking (Edinger et al., 2018a). A rare alternative approach is to directly print the ink containing polymer and drug onto the substrate to form ODFs (Cader et al., 2019; Sandler et al., 2011). The ink usually contains a film-forming polymer and a drug in a low concentration to maintain the viscosity within the printable range. Organic solvent or surfactants are often necessary to reduce the surface tension of the ink. For example, Cader et al. printed an ink containing polyvinylpyrrolidone, polysorbate 20, glycerol, thiamine hydrochloride in water on a PET substrate with appropriate droplets spacing to fuse all the droplets, resulting in a pore-less ODF (Cader et al., 2019).

However, inkjet printing has several significant limitations in fabricating ODFs. 1) Highly restricted low viscosity of the ink (below 20 mPa.s and surface tension in the range of 20-50 mN/m) to avoid nozzle blockage (Hutchings and Martin, 2013; Pardeike et al., 2011). 2) Low drug loading of inks, due to restricted viscosity, leading to large solvent content and long drying times. 3) Subsequently, thin layers of low drug content film were formed. For high dose formulations, multi-pass printing is usually required to deposit a sufficient amount of API on the ODFs. However, multi-pass printing results in a higher volume of solvent used and longer production time associated with longer printing time and solvent evaporation. 4) Interactions between drug ink and the edible supporting substrate increase the complexity of the ODFs printing. For example, Genina et al. studied the printing performance of rasagiline on different

substrates by inkjet printing and concluded that the selection of substrates could significantly impact the uniformity of printed dosage (Genina et al., 2013).

In this study, we investigated whether a piezoelectric micro-dispensing (MD) system can overcome some of the challenges faced by inkjet printing for ODF fabrication with personalised dose adjustment capability. MD enables precisely dispensing a range of low and high viscosity (up to 2,000,000 mPa.s) materials to produce droplets, beads, and lines at high speed (Vermes GmbH, 2020). There are two main types of MD printhead, the piezoelectric driven printhead and solenoid actuated printhead (Wong et al., 2009). The piezoelectric actuated printhead contains a piezoelectric tappet rod in the dispensing chamber to control liquid flow by moving upwards and downwards in response to electrical signals. The solenoid-actuated printhead relies on the magnetic field change to control the opening of the dispensing valve for liquid dispensing. Both systems require pneumatic control to push the liquid out of the orifice to form droplets and excel at different fabrication tasks (Wong et al., 2009). The main advantage of using MD for ODF fabrication is the capability to accurately dispense a low volume of viscous liquid without using an edible supporting substrate. Although to the best of our knowledge MD has not been reported for ODFs fabrication, it has been explored to fabricate tailored dose medications. Bonhoeffer et al. used a piezoelectric micro-dispensing system to dispense nanosuspension to placebo drug carriers (i.e. excipient filled capsules or placebo tablets) as a new concept to produce personalised solid dosage forms (Bonhoeffer et al., 2018).

This study reports the first use of MD as a single-step method to prepare personalised ODFs without edible supporting substrate. The aim is to demonstrate the fabrication of personalised ODFs by a MD system and understand the droplet fusions and film-forming properties as well as their impact on the disintegration behaviour of the printed ODFs. By using the preformulated polymer-drug ink delivered to the point of care, such as hospital pharmacies, on-demand manufacturing of ODFs could be done by MD systems. The preformulated ink contains hydroxypropyl methylcellulose (HPMC) as the model polymer and paracetamol as the model drug. HPMC, with the particular grade of Pharmacoat 606, is selected because of its excellent film-forming, rapid hydration and disintegration properties. Paracetamol is used as the model drug to demonstrate the dose adjustment capability of ODFs prepared by MD printing according to patients' clinical needs. A printing sequence was designed to produce ODFs with various doses by using an 'universal' ink (an ink with a fixed model drug concentration), but

only changing the film dimension. The solvent casting method was used as a control method to prepare ODFs for comparing the physical and mechanical properties, uniformity of drug content and disintegration of the ODFs. The proof-of-concept results of dose adjustment capability of MD printing indicates that the technology has the potential for not only point of care ODFs production in small batches, but also other liquid dispensing and coating applications for personalised medicine and device fabrications.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

Hydroxypropyl methylcellulose (HPMC) (commercial name as Pharmacoat 606) was kindly donated by Shin-Etsu (Niigata, Japan) and used as the film-forming polymer to fabricate the ODFs. Paracetamol and phosphate buffer saline (PBS) tablet pH 7.4 were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Gillingham, UK). Polyethylene terephthalate (PET) plastic film (KF26066) was purchased from Q-connect (Sheffield, UK) and used as the substrate for printing and casting ODFs. Milli-Q (Millipore, Merck, USA) ultra-pure water was used as the solvent. Listerine PocketPaks[®] breath strips (a pullulan-based oral film) were purchased from Johnson & Johnson (New Brunswick, USA). All materials were used without further processing. The model of the MD system used in this study is a Nanojet Piezo Valve NJ-K-4020 with an inner nozzle diameter of 200 μm . The MD system was purchased from Microdrop Technologies GmbH (Norderstedt, Germany).

2.2. Preparation of placebo and polymer-drug inks

Three concentrations of HPMC solutions (5%, 10% and 15% w/v) were prepared as the placebo ink to characterise the MD system. The polymer was dissolved in water with stirring at 50 °C using a magnetic stirring hot plate until all powder dissolved and allowed to degas overnight at ambient condition. The polymer-drug ink (HPMC 15% w/v, paracetamol 1.4% w/v) was prepared by dissolving all the dry ingredients into the water and followed the same procedure as the placebo ink. All resulting solutions were filtered by a glass fibre syringe filter with 5 μm pore size (OU-12915-33, Cole-Parmer GmbH, Wertheim, Germany) and allowed to settle down before printing.

2.3. MD printing system setup

The components of the MD system built in-house are shown in **Fig. 1**. The system consists of an air compressor to pressurise the ink reservoir, a computer to control the movement of the

motorised x-y translation stage (MTS-25, Thorlabs, USA) and design the printing sequence, a control unit to tune the dispensing parameters and to control supplied pressure to the liquid reservoir, a liquid reservoir and the MD printhead attached to a manual z-translation stage (PT1B, Thorlabs, USA).

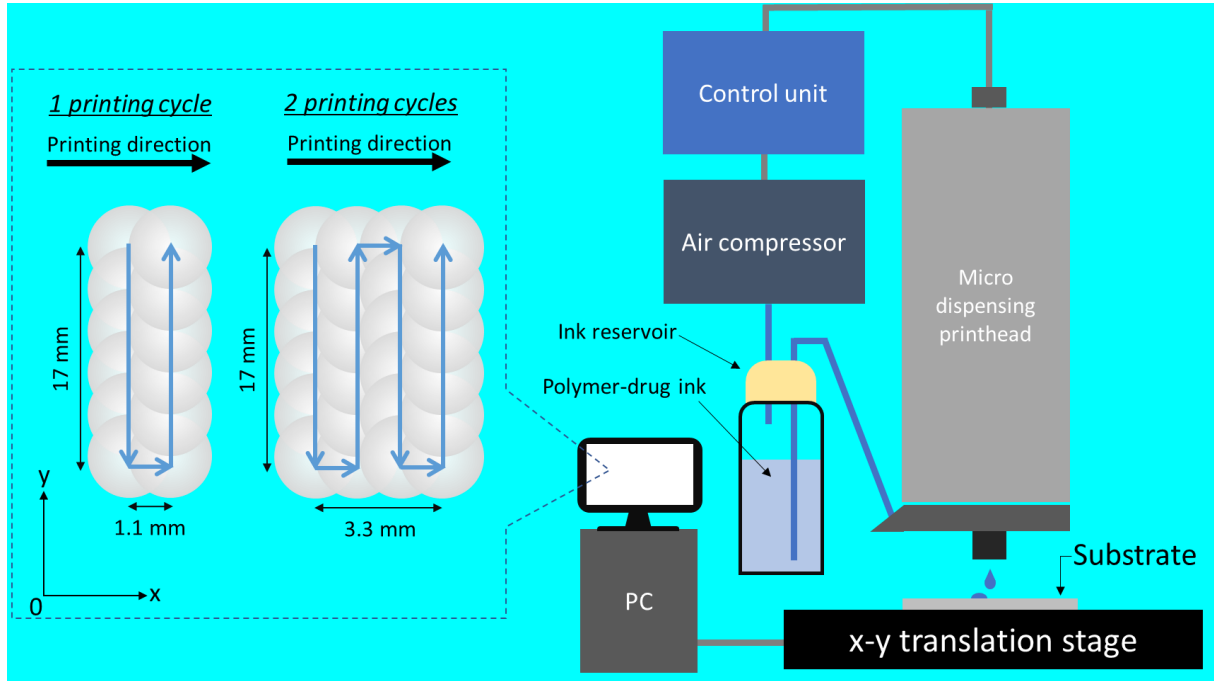


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of the MD system built in-house to print ODFs on-demand (droplets and components are not to scale) with exemplar printpath designs with 1 and 2 printing cycles.

Fig. 2 illustrates the dispensing mechanism of the piezoelectric MD printhead and the corresponding dispensing parameter. The applied voltage activates the movement of the tappet rod to break the liquid stream into droplets. The opening height indicates the tappet rod's relative distance from the nozzle, from 100 % as fully lifted and 0 % as no movement. The opening time is the time interval when the valve is fully open. The rising time and falling time are the time interval when the tappet rod is moving up and down, respectively. Delay time defines the idle time between each complete dispensing cycle. The detailed printing parameter optimisation is discussed in the Results section. The optimized printing sequence was designed using the Kinesis software (version 1.14.15, Thorlabs, USA).

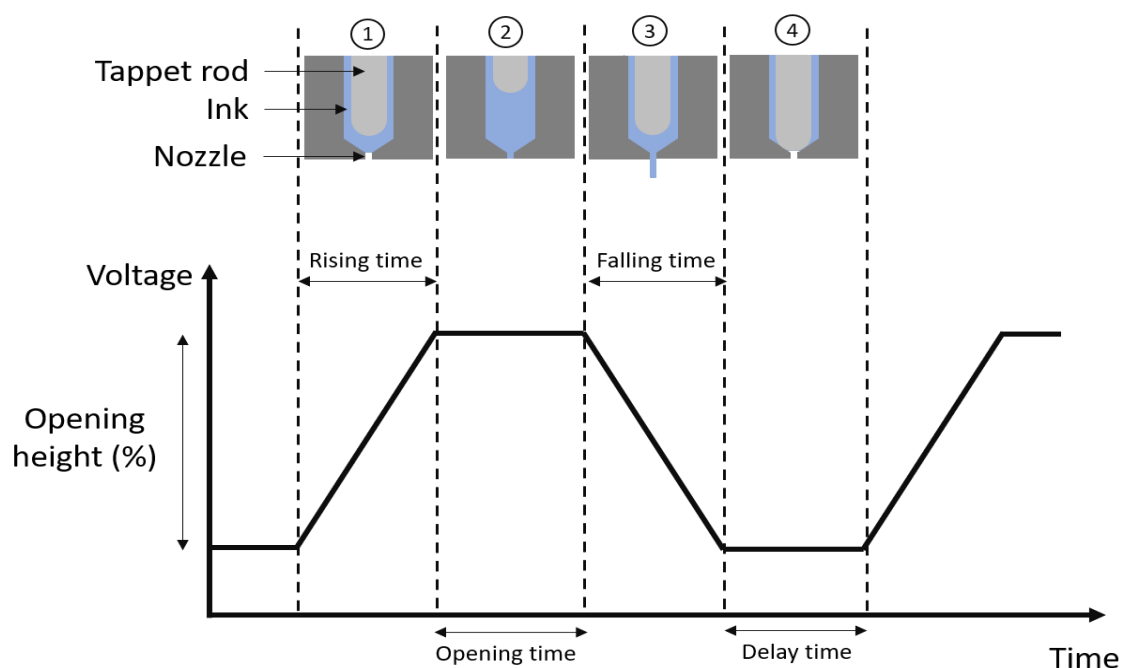


Fig. 2. The waveform of driving voltage for dispensing and the corresponding location of the tappet rod.

2.4. Physical properties of placebo and polymer-drug inks

2.4.1. Viscosity. The viscosity of polymer-drug ink was measured by a Discovery HR-2 rheometer (TA instrument, Delaware, USA) equipped with a 40 mm, 2° cone plate geometry. The method was set to be a flow ramp procedure from 0.1 to 60 s⁻¹ at 25 °C. The results were fitted to the Newtonian model to obtain the dynamic viscosity. Measurement was done in triplicate to calculate the average viscosity.

2.4.2. Density The density of the solutions was measured by a density meter DMA 4500M (Anton Paar GmbH, Graz, Austria) equipped with an oscillating U-tube. The measurement was done by injecting 1 ml of the sample into the system at 25 °C. The measurement was done in triplicate to obtain the average density.

2.5. Effects of MD printing parameters on the accuracy of dosing volume

The placebo inks were used to investigate the critical operational parameters of the MD printing that can affect the accuracy of the volume dispensed. The importance of understanding this is that the accuracy of the dispensing volume is directly linked to the accuracy of the drug dispensed into the ODFs. The one-factor-at-time approach was adopted. The rising time and falling time were set to the minimum value for ease of characterisation. The gravimetric method

was adopted from Bonhoeffer et al. to measure the change of dispensing volume against different dispensing parameters (Bonhoeffer et al., 2017). The dispensing volumes were measured when one of the four key operational parameters were altered, and the rest were kept constant. The investigated parameters include pressure, opening height, opening time and delay time. Within each experiment set, ten drops of the placebo ink were dispensed into a pre-weight glass vial containing dodecane as barrier liquid (to prevent evaporation) and the weight difference before and after dispensing was measured. The dispensing volume was calculated using the density equation, $\rho = m/v$, where ρ is the density, m is the mass and v is the volume. For each set of parameter changes, three independent sets of ten drops dispensing were performed and measured to examine the reproductivity of the tests. A light microscope FDSC196 (Linkam Scientific, Tadworth, UK) was used to observe the change of droplet morphology with different dispensing parameters.

2.6. Fabrication of ODFs

2.6.1. Cast ODFs: The cast ODF was prepared by casting 10 ml of the polymer-drug ink stated above onto the PET substrate by an adjustable film applicator 1117 / 100 mm (Sheen Instruments, Herefordshire, UK) set at 550 μ m gap height. The cast ODF was dried in an oven set at 30 °C for approximately 2 hours. The resulting film was cut into square films with 18 mm x 18 mm dimensions using a craft puncher before storing in a desiccator for further measurements.

2.6.2. MD printed ODFs: The optimised printing parameters were used to print ODFs. One printing cycle is defined as shown in **Fig. 1**. Once the dispensing started, the translation stage moved in the y-direction from the pre-set coordinate towards the zero point, followed by the movement to the x-direction. The translation stage moved back to the original y coordinate when the movement along the x-axis was completed. The print area of ODFs was increased by repeating the printing cycle in the x-direction. The ODFs were formed by depositing a specific number of droplets as one printing cycle onto the PET substrate using the optimised dispensing parameters reported in **Table 1**. It is worth noting that the frequency of droplet dispensing is not specified here. It is controlled by combining a range of operational parameters, including the raising, the falling, the opening and the delay time. These are discussed in the Result section. The dimension of ODFs was increased by repeating the printing cycles (1, 2, 4, 6 and 8) to expand the print area in the x-direction. The printing time for the 1, 2, 4, 6, and 8 cycles

are 16, 32, 65, 98 and 131 seconds, respectively. The printed ODFs were subsequently dried in a 30 °C oven for 2 hours before being stored in a desiccator.

2.7. Physical characterisation of cast and printed ODFs

2.7.1. Thickness: The thickness of 18 mm x 18 mm cast ODFs, printed ODFs and Listerine PocketPaks® films were measured by an electronic thickness gauge ET-3 (Rehder-dev, Greenville, USA). The measurement was performed at four corners and the centre of the film, except printed ODFs with one and two printing cycles due to the narrow dimension in width, three measurements at centre, top and bottom of the film were taken instead. Five samples of each type of film were measured and the average thickness was calculated.

2.7.2. Weight: The weight of printed ODFs with different printing cycles and cast ODFs were measured by the analytical balance XS205DU (Mettler Toledo, Leicester, UK) after the film was stored in the desiccator for 24 hours. The average weight was calculated by five samples from each type of film.

2.7.3. Surface morphology: The surface morphology of the printed and cast films was characterised by Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM). Film samples were cut and attached to a sample holder with carbon adhesive tape and sputter-coated with gold for 30 seconds and 2.2 kV at 55 mm and 5×10^{-2} mbar (Quorum Technologies, Lewes, UK). Images of cross-section and surface of printed and cast films were captured using a Gemini 300 series SEM (Zeiss, Germany).

2.7.4. Mechanical properties of ODFs

Four samples of the 18 mm x 18 mm MD printed ODFs and cast ODFs were subjected to mechanical testing using a Texture Analyser TA-XTplus (Stable Micro Systems, Godalming, UK) to determine the tensile strength and elongation at break. Listerine PocketPaks® films were used as the guide of film handling by comparison with the cast and printed films. The films were fixed between two clamps with a 1 cm gap using tensile grips A/TG (Stable Micro Systems, Godalming, UK). The clamps moved away from each other with 50 mm/min velocity until the film was torn. Tensile strength (N/mm^2) is defined as the maximum force required to break the film and calculated by Eq. (1).

$$\text{Tensile strength} = \frac{\text{force at break}}{\text{cross-sectional area of films}} \quad \dots \text{Eq. (1)}$$

Elongation at break (%) is defined as the ratio of length increased after fracture to the original length of the film as shown in the Eq. (2).

$$\text{Elongation at break} = \frac{\text{increased length at break}}{\text{original length}} \times 100 \quad \dots \text{Eq. (2)}$$

2.8. Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC)

Thermal measurement was conducted by using differential scanning calorimeter DSC 2500 (TA instrument, USA). All samples and raw materials were separately crimped in an aluminium pan. Paracetamol and HPMC were subject to the standard heat-cool-heat cycle at 20 °C/min heating and cooling rate. The film samples were cut to fit the aluminium pan and heated to 220 °C at 20 °C/min. All measurements were conducted with nitrogen as the purge gas with a 50 ml/min flow rate. The analysis was performed by TRIOS software (TA instrument, USA).

2.9. Thermogravimetric Analysis (TGA) for moisture content

A thermogravimetric analyser, TGA 5500 (TA instrument, USA), was used to evaluate the moisture content in the ODFs. Three samples (approximately 2.5 - 6 mg) from MD printed films with different printing cycles and cast film were measured. The films were placed on platinum pans and heated from 25 °C to 300 °C at a rate of 10 °C/min under a continuous flow of nitrogen (50 ml/min). The weight change between 25 °C to 100 °C is considered the loss of moisture from the film and analysed using TRIOS software (TA Instruments, USA).

2.10. Attenuated total reflection Fourier transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy

The distribution of paracetamol at different areas of the MD printed with eight printing cycles and the cast films and any potential drug-polymer interactions were studied using the ATR-FTIR spectrometer Vertex 70 (Bruker Optics Ltd, Coventry, UK) equipped with a golden Gate Attenuate Total Reflectance accessory (Space Ltd, Orpington, UK). Three random locations on each film were selected for measurement. The measurement was performed from the wavenumber range of 500 – 4000 cm⁻¹ at a resolution of 2 cm⁻¹ and 32 scans. The results were analysed using the OPUS software version 7.8 (Bruker Optics Ltd, Coventry, UK).

2.11. Drug content measurements of ODFs

The cast ODFs and MD printed ODFs were dissolved individually in 5 ml of PBS pH 7.4 and diluted accordingly to be quantified by the UV-Vis spectroscopy Lambda 35 (PerkinElmer, Massachusetts, USA). A calibration curve of paracetamol in PBS was built by measuring the concentration ranged from 1.5 µg/ml to 15 µg/ml at the λ_{max} of 244 nm. Five samples from printed films and cast films were used to calculate the average value.

2.12. Disintegration test of ODFs

A modified petri dish method was adopted to evaluate the disintegration time of MD printed and cast ODFs (Alhayali et al., 2019). A watch glass with a 10 cm diameter containing 2 ml PBS pH 7.4 was equilibrated in a shaking incubator (KS 3000 I control, IKA, Germany) set at 60 rpm and 37 ± 0.5 °C. The films were laid on PBS and recorded the time when the film started to disintegrate (Chonkar et al., 2016). The measurement was done in triplicate for all types of films.

2.13. Statistical analysis

The basic calculation was performed by Microsoft Excel® (Microsoft Office 365). The data analysis was performed using SPSS statistical program (SPSS 25, IBM, New York, USA). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey test were used to compare the thickness of ODFs at different locations. A statistical significance is considered when the p-value is lower than 0.05.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Effects of MD printing parameters on the accuracy of dosing volume

The placebo HPMC ink was used to determine the effect of dispensing parameters on dispensing volume. Briefly, the dispensing volume is influenced by the opening time (ms), applied pressure (kPa) and opening height (%), as illustrated in **Fig. 3**. The applied pressure must be sufficiently high to ensure the liquid has enough velocity to leave the nozzle and travel to the substrate. Low applied pressure does not dispense the ink because of the accumulation of fluid at the nozzle. Higher applied pressure increases the dispensing volume, but the effect on dispensing volume was less than the effect of the opening time. As seen in **Fig. 3A**, for all concentrations of HPMC in the ink the volume of the placebo ink dispensed was linearly proportional to the applied pressure. There is no linear correlation between dispensing volume and opening height (**Fig. 3B**). Air bubbles were observed in the droplets when the opening height was set to 100%, as shown in **Fig. 4**. Such an issue was mitigated by reducing the

opening height beyond 50%, but the dispensing volume decreased substantially at this level. The opening time is the most critical parameter to control dispensing volume. As seen in **Fig. 3C**, the opening time is highly linearly correlated with the dispensing volume for all three placebo inks tested. More importantly, compared to **Fig. 3A**, the sensitivity of the opening time to adjust the dispensing volume is much greater than the pressure. By changing the opening time from 10 ms to 200 ms, the dispensed volume of 5% HPMC ink can be changed from less than 20 μl to nearly 600 μl . The test range of delay time has a minimal impact on the dispensing volume as shown in **Fig. 3D**. The differences in viscosity of placebo inks accounted for the change in dispensing volume.

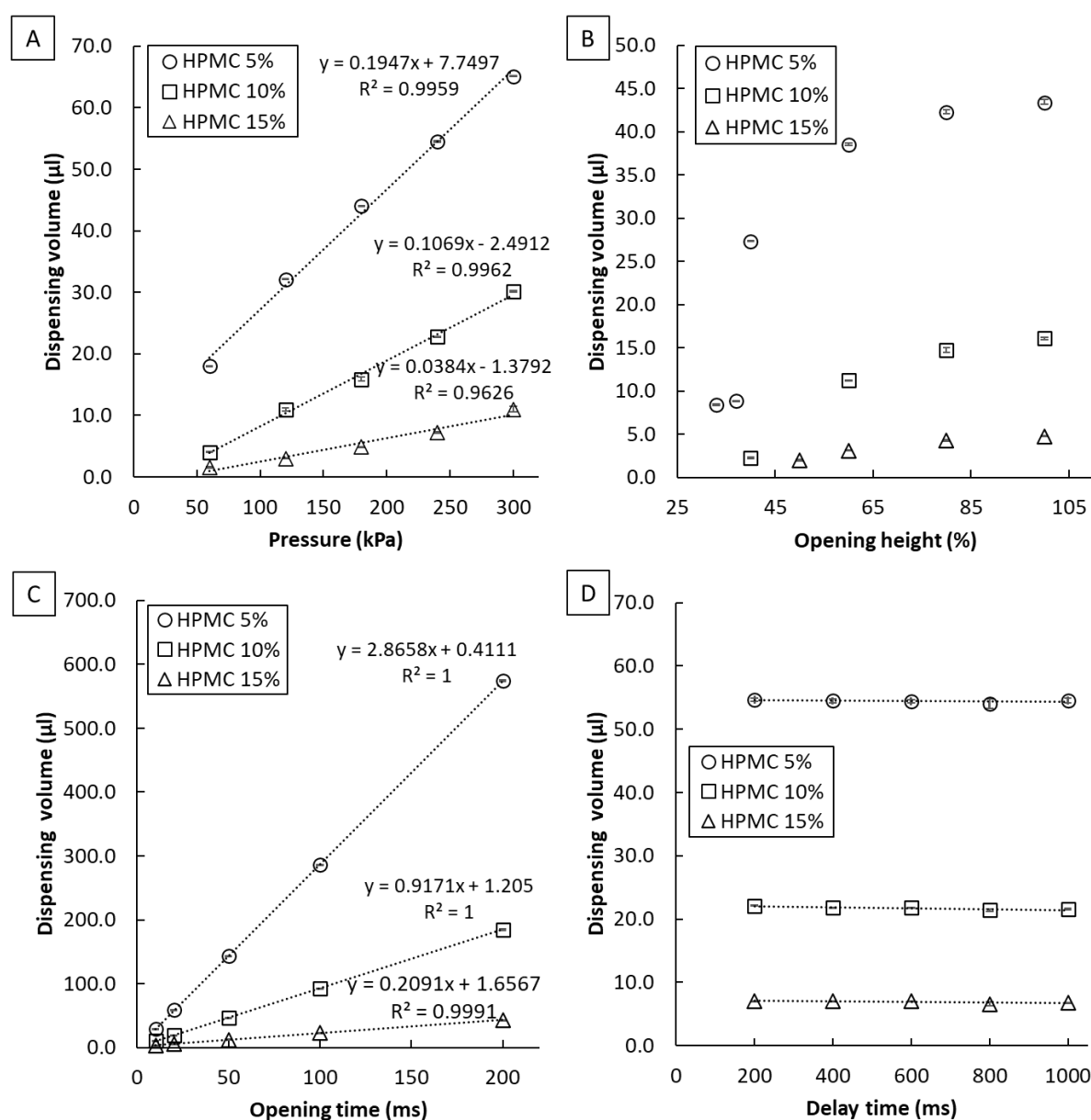


Fig. 3. The correlations between dispensing volume of the placebo HPMC ink and (A) pressure; (B) opening height; (C) opening time and (D) delay time. For each graph, only the defined parameter was changed. The rest of the operational parameters remained constant.

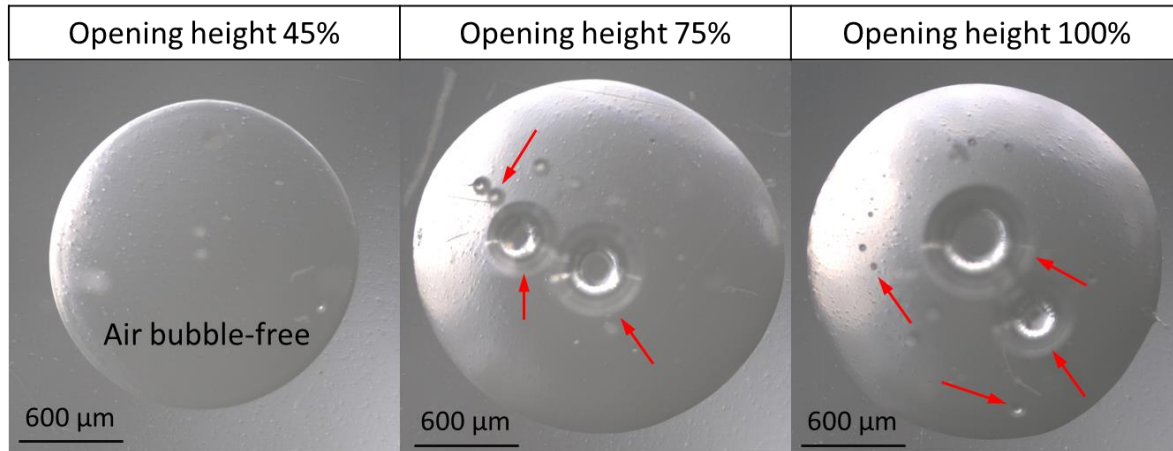


Fig. 4. Example microscopic images of the droplet of the placebo HPMC ink containing air bubbles (highlighted by arrows) dispensed at different opening heights.

3.2. MD printing parameter optimisation for drug loaded ODF fabrication

Following the investigation into the effects of individual printing parameters on the dispensing volume, the printing parameter optimisation using the polymer-drug ink (HPMC 15% w/v, paracetamol 1.4% w/v) was performed. The nozzle-substrate distance was set as low as possible to expand the operational range for other dispensing parameters (Bonhoeffer et al., 2017). The rising time and falling time were set to the minimum value for the ease of optimisation. The opening height was first adjusted to produce droplets free of bubbles to ensure bubble- and defect-free films. The pressure was adjusted to ensure the droplet had sufficient velocity to leave the nozzle without splashing when it landed onto the substrate. Once these were optimised, the opening time was optimised to allow the dispensing of droplets with diameters of 1.65 mm so that the overlapping of droplets forms a straight line with 18 mm in length. Finally, the delay time was adjusted according to the movement speed of the x-y translation stage (2.4 mm/s) to control the degree of overlapping of droplets. The optimised printing parameters adopted to print ODFs are shown in **Table 1**.

Table 1. Optimised printing parameters for printing drug loaded ODFs by the MD system

Pressure (kPa)	295
Opening height (%)	45

Opening time (ms)	14
Rising time (ms)	0.5
Falling time (ms)	0.3
Nozzle substrate distance (mm)	3
Delay time (ms)	350

3.3. Ink characterisation

The main advantage of MD in comparison to inkjet printing is the capability to dispense viscous ink. The viscosity of the ink has a direct impact on droplet spreading on the substrate and drug distribution. A highly viscous solution can reduce its spreading on the PET substrate and thus achieve a higher quantity of drug per area. The high ink viscosity also enables single-pass printing to fabricate ODFs with sufficient thickness and drug load. This is a major challenge for direct inkjet printing of ODFs. The measured dynamic viscosity of 15% w/v HPMC placebo ink was 813.92 ± 1.72 mPa.s. The dynamic viscosity of the polymer-drug (15% w/v HPMC and 1.4% w/v paracetamol) ink was 818.32 ± 4.45 mPa.s as shown in **Table 2**. The polymer-drug ink behaved as a Newtonian fluid since the shear stress and shear rate showed a linear relationship. There is no statistical difference between the placebo and polymer-drug ink ($p = 0.223 > 0.05$).

Table 2. *Physical properties of placebo and polymer-drug inks*

Formula	Viscosity (mPa.s)	Density (g/ml)
HPMC 5% w/v	32.58 ± 1.65	1.009 ± 0.001
HPMC 10% w/v	202.18 ± 2.62	1.020 ± 0.001
HPMC 15% w/v	813.92 ± 1.72	1.031 ± 0.001
HPMC 15% + paracetamol 1.4% w/v	818.32 ± 4.45	1.031 ± 0.010

3.4. Thickness and surface morphology of drug loaded ODFs

Fig. 5A demonstrates the locations of measurements for the thickness of ODFs. The thickness of 18 mm x 18 mm drug loaded ODFs prepared by solvent casting, MD printing (with eight printing cycles) and Listerine PocketPak[®] films is shown in **Fig. 5B**. The average (taking into consideration of corners and centres of the films) thickness of cast films and MD printed films were 60.12 ± 1.67 μ m and 51.24 ± 8.8 μ m, respectively. The thickness of Listerine PocketPak[®] films is 45.64 ± 1.04 μ m. In terms of the evenness of the thickness across the films, the cast

films and Listerine PocketPak[®] films showed even thickness throughout the film ($p = 0.932 > 0.05$ and $p = 0.508 > 0.05$, respectively); whereas the MD printed films showed uniform thickness at the corners ($p = 1 > 0.05$) with an elevated centre ($p = 0.0001 < 0.05$) (**Fig. 5B**). The marketed product, Listerine PocketPak[®] films, is used as the benchmark to assess the film quality, since it shows high consistency in the thickness of the entire film. The results on this film obtained by us agree with other reported results (Preis et al., 2014). The higher evenness of the film thickness of the cast film is because the cast films tested were cut from the centre of a large parent film. The cast parent films had significantly thinner edges than the centres, thus only the central areas were used. For the MD printed films, the thicknesses of the edges and centres are the true representation of the properties of the film directly after manufacturing. So the data quoted here represents the properties of the films they would be used in practice and are not accurate representations of the intrinsic material properties but are those of whole films.

It was observed that the drying of the MD printed drug loaded ODFs originated from the edge of the film and emerged slowly towards the centre. The possible cause of the higher thickness of the centre of the MD printed ODFs in comparison to the corners may be explained by the lateral spreading of the wet film, as illustrated in **Fig. 5C**. As defined by the printpath design, there is a degree of overlap between individual droplets. After deposition, this leads to rapid coalescence or fusion of adjacent droplets to form the liquid ‘pool’ and cause opposing flow in the centre. However, at the edges, there is mainly lateral spreading of the droplets deposited at the outer edge leading to formation of a thinner layer of liquid than the centre prior to solidification via drying. The large parent film prepared by the casting method also exhibited lateral spreading, resulting in nonuniform thickness with thinner edges and a thicker centre. However, the cast films used as the controls were cut from the centre of the parent film using an 18 mm x 18 mm craft punch, thus exhibited good consistency of the thickness of the corners and the centres.

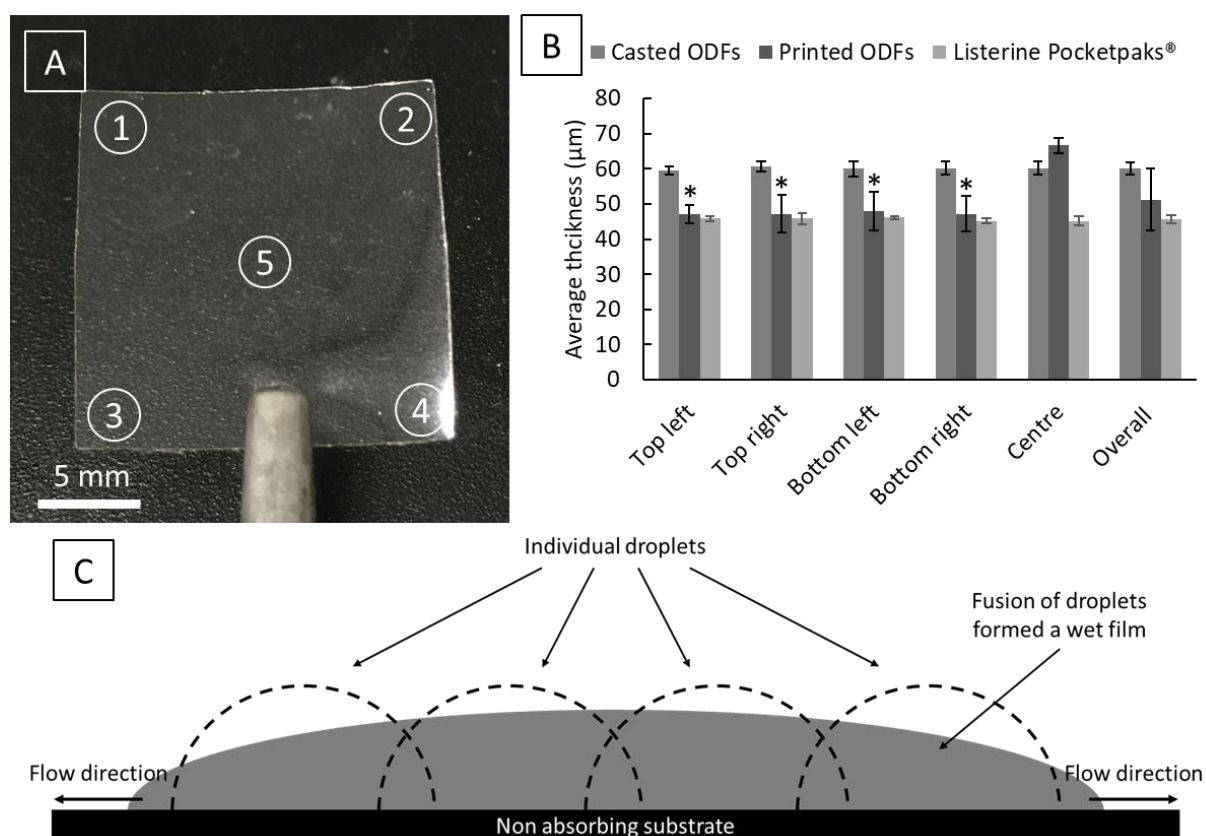


Fig. 5. (A) An exemplar drug loaded ODF prepared by casting method to show the location of measurement; (B) the thickness of 18 mm x 18 mm cast, MD printed drug loaded ODFs (with eight cycles) and Listerine PocketPak® films at different locations. Asterisks refer to a statistically significant difference ($p = 0.0001 < 0.05$) with the thickness at the centre; (C) graphic illustration of the drying and ODF film formation processes of the partially overlapped droplets deposited by MD.

3.5. Surface morphology of MD printed drug loaded films

The texture of drug loaded ODFs can affect patients' acceptance to some extent. The film should show a homogenous surface or colour to demonstrate its quality (Wasilewska and Winnicka, 2019). As discussed earlier, ODFs prepared by inkjet printing often require the printing of drug containing inks onto a pre-prepared edible substrate film. This poses the risk of substrate malformation because of the printing process (Scoutaris et al., 2016). It is often attributed to the high proportion of solvent used in inkjet printing ink to control viscosity. The solvent can solubilise the substrate film upon contact, leading to an uneven substrate surface after multi-pass printing. The MD uses a single-pass printing approach to fabricate ODFs to reduce the risk of poor surface texture associated with overprints. The surface properties of cast and MD printed drug loaded ODFs are shown in **Fig. 6**. The MD printed ODFs demonstrated

a smooth surface (**Fig. 6A - D**), indicating the overlapping of droplets were sufficient to allow the complete fusion of adjacent droplets to form a homogenous film. The cross-sectional images of printed ODFs show homogeneous distribution of materials. Similar surface morphology was also observed from the cast film (**Fig. 6E - H**). A layered appearance is observed in some of the cross-sectional images of the MD printed ODFs, but not in others. Thus, we believe the appearance of the layering is due to the artefacts caused during the cutting process of the films.

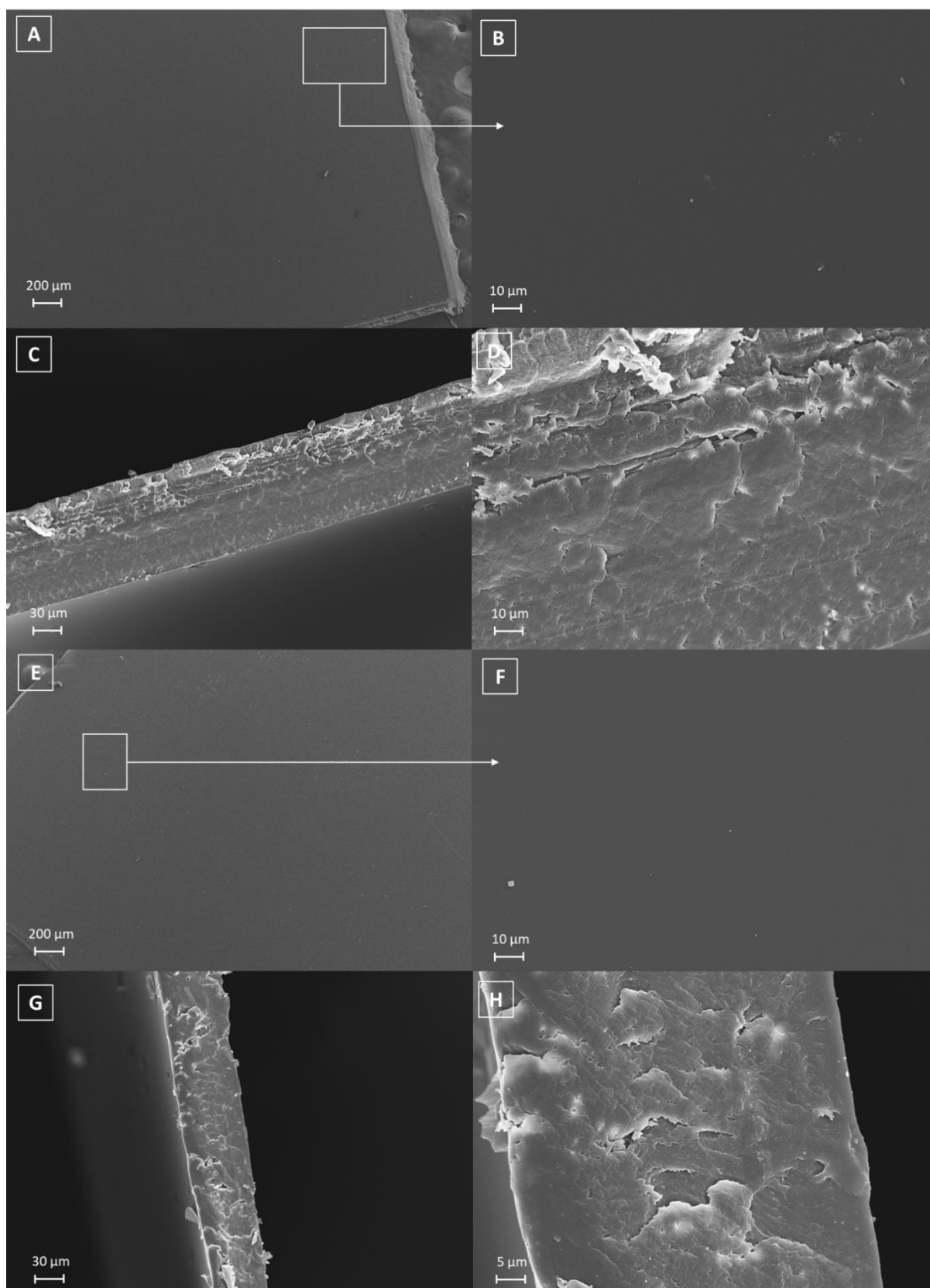


Fig. 6. Representative SEM images of the drug loaded ODFs prepared by MD printed with low (A, C, E, G) and high (B, D, F, H) magnifications (with 8 printing cycles) (A & B: surface, C & D: cross-section) and by casting (E & F: surface, G & H: cross-section).

3.6. Physicochemical characterisation of the drug loaded ODFs

Table 3. shows the measured physicochemical properties of MD printed and cast ODFs. A range of printing cycles, between one to eight, were used to produce the films and investigate the correlation between the number of printing cycle and mechanical properties (section 3.7), film weight, film thickness and drug content (section 3.8), and disintegration behaviour (section 3.9). All printed films were set to have a fixed length of 18 mm and the film width and the overall film area were expanded by increasing the number of printing cycles. It is worth noting that although the width of the film is increasing in a linear fashion with the number of the printing cycles, the films with one printing cycle proportionally are wider in width (averagely 2.7 mm) than other films. The film thickness of the films printed using two to eight printing cycles are relatively consistent. The film thickness of the film printed with one printing cycle is significantly thinner than the others. It is noted that the width of the films printed with one printing cycle is averagely 2.7 mm. This correlates well with the proportionally wider (in width) of the film printed with 1 printing cycle than others. Eight printing cycles provide a film with a dimension of 18 mm x 18 mm which is comparable to the cast films, thus used for further mechanical testing. The data demonstrated that the dimension and drug dose of the MD printed films is freely adjustable by altering the number of printing cycles.

Table 3. Physical characterisation, concentration and disintegration time of drug loaded ODFs prepared by MD printing and casting (n=5)

Printing cycle(s)	1	2	4	6	8	Cast
Print time(s)	16	32	65	98	131	-
Film dimension:						
Width (mm) x	2.7 x 18.0	4.6 x 18.0	9.4 x 18.0	13.6 x 18.0	18.0 x 18.0	18.0 x 18.0
Length (mm)						
Film weight ± SD (mg)	2.98 ± 0.34	5.88 ± 0.35	10.30 ± 0.34	14.46 ± 0.21	18.86 ± 0.08	23.34 ± 0.55
Film thickness (µm)	40 ± 2	49 ± 6	49 ± 10	50 ± 7	51 ± 9	60 ± 2
Paracetamol content ± SD (µg)	235.17 ± 24.25	453.22 ± 28.88	775.78 ± 53.19	1115.90 ± 16.46	1372.20 ± 16.27	1779.74 ± 46.56
Moisture content (%) ± SD	2.82 ± 0.79	2.46 ± 0.40	2.63 ± 0.23	3.16 ± 0.39	2.20 ± 0.74	2.93 ± 0.07

Disintegration						
time	19.0 ± 4.0	28.7 ± 5.5	26.0 ± 5.3	30.7 ± 3.1	29.0 ± 3.6	30.0 ± 3.6
± SD (s)						

TGA was used to determine the moisture content of printed and cast films, as shown in **Table 3**. The MD printed films show a range of moisture content from 3.16 to 2.2%, while there is 2.93% moisture in the cast films. The moisture content of ODFs could impact the crystal state of the API and the mechanical properties of ODFs. The low moisture content that remained in the ODFs was likely due to the hygroscopic nature of HPMC. A small quantity of moisture also can act as a plasticiser and provide flexibility to the film. Since the ODFs prepared by MD is on-demand and expected to be administrated within a short time, the influence of moisture on the quantity of ODFs is less concerned.

The physical state of the model drug in the drug loaded ODFs was characterised using a range of analytical methods. The DSC results shown in **Fig. 7** shows a sharp endothermic melting peak of crystalline paracetamol powder at 171.9 °C and a glass transition temperature (T_g) of pure HPMC at 133.3 °C. The lack of paracetamol melting from the DSC results of the MD printed and cast ODFs indicated paracetamol was in amorphous state. As the T_g of amorphous paracetamol is 23 °C (Sibik et al., 2014), the drug would plasticise the polymer and the T_g of the HPMC-paracetamol dispersion ODF is expected to be below 133 °C. The broad peak at about 90 °C from the thermogram of printed and cast ODFs reflects the presence of moisture in the ODFs. The moisture contents could further reduce the T_g of the ODFs to a temperature range that overlaps with the broad moisture loss peak. It may explain the absence of the T_g of the ODF.

The ATR-FTIR data of the drug loaded MD printed with eight printing cycles and cast films, the reference raw materials and their physical mixture are shown in **Fig. 7B**. The characteristic peaks of Form I paracetamol have been well characterised by other literature (Al-Zoubi et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2002) and the obtained IR spectrum of paracetamol matches the reported data. The pure HPMC shows characteristic peaks at 3449 cm^{-1} (O-H stretching), 2903 cm^{-1} (C-H stretching), 1453 cm^{-1} (C-H scissoring), 1374 cm^{-1} (O-H bending) and 1053 cm^{-1} (C-O stretching). The spectrum of the physical mixture is a simple sum of the spectra of crystalline paracetamol and HPMC. The broadened characteristic crystalline paracetamol peaks at 3321 cm^{-1} (N-H stretching) and 3108 cm^{-1} (O-H stretching) in the spectra of cast and MD printed

films indicate that paracetamol is in its amorphous state and consistent with molecular dispersion (Qi et al., 2008). The shift of peak from 1505 cm^{-1} (aromatic ring mode) to 1514 cm^{-1} in cast film and MD printed film has been reported previously and is consistent with the molecular dispersion of the drug in the polymer (Wang et al., 2002). No apparent shifts of HPMC characteristic peaks are observed; thus, minimal drug-polymer interaction is indicated. Three random locations on the cast and MD printed ODFs were examined by ATR-FTIR to access the evenness of drug distribution. The relative intensities of the peaks at 1514 cm^{-1} were used as the signature peaks of the concentration of paracetamol contents. There is no significant difference observed in the spectra of different locations within the films (data not shown), indicating paracetamol are evenly distributed in the printed films with eight printing cycles.

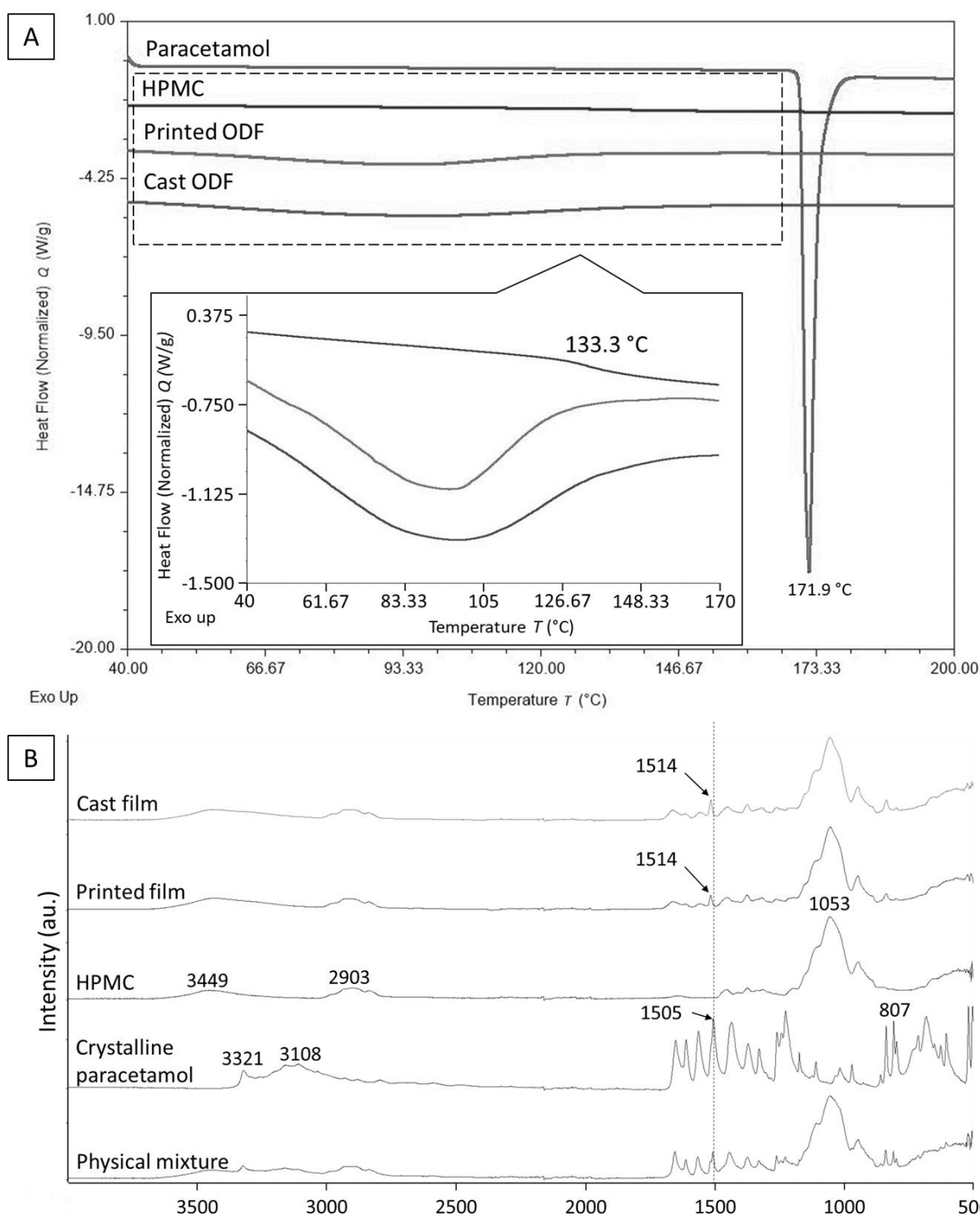


Fig. 7. (A) DSC thermograms and (B) ATR-FTIR spectra of the raw materials, the cast drug loaded ODFs and MD printed drug loaded ODFs with eight printing cycles.

3.7. Mechanical properties of drug loaded ODFs

The ODFs have to be strong enough to be handled during the manufacturing process, the packaging process and the administration to patients (Wasilewska and Winnicka, 2019).

Literature suggested that ODFs with a tensile strength higher than 2 N/mm² and an elongation at break of more than 10 % are preferable to demonstrate good handling properties (Visser et al., 2015). However, there is no official specifications on such parameters are available. Therefore, in this study, the commercially available Listerine PocketPaks[®] ODFs was used as the benchmark comparison to assess the handling properties of the ODFs prepared by MD printing and casting. As Listerine PocketPaks[®] ODFs is a marketed product and is produced commercially, we assume the product provide sufficient mechanical properties for production, packaging and handling.

Fig. 8 shows the mechanical test of MD printed and cast drug loaded ODFs in comparison to the Listerine PocketPaks[®] ODFs. It is worth noting that for MD printed films the break points were mostly close to the contact point with the clamps, whereas for the cast films, some broke in the middle and others broke close to the contact point with the clamps. The likely cause of the breaking points of the MD printed films being closer to the clamps is the lower thickness of the edges than the centres, as illustrated in **Fig. 5B**. The tensile strength and elongation at break for Listerine PocketPaks[®] films were 29.29 ± 2.39 N/mm² and 0.99 ± 0.14 %, respectively; both parameters were statistically significantly lower than the cast ($p = 0.008 < 0.05$. and $p = 0.001 < 0.05$) and MD printed ODFs ($p = 0.008 < 0.05$. and $p = 0.001 < 0.05$). Although the Listerine PocketPaks[®] use pullulan as the main film-forming polymer, the thickness of Listerine PocketPaks[®] films are very similar to the MD printed films (see **Fig. 5B**). As the film thickness has a significant effect on the mechanical properties, it is reasonable to direct compare the mechanical properties of the MD printed film and Listerine PocketPaks[®]. The results imply that the MD printed drug loaded ODFs have better handling properties than Listerine PocketPaks[®] ODFs. The tensile strength of the 18 mm x 18 mm MD printed ODFs and cast ODFs were 60.39 ± 7.43 N/mm² and 53.27 ± 2.19 N/mm² respectively, which shows no statistical difference ($p = 0.115 > 0.05$). The percentage elongation for the MD printed ODFs and cast ODFs were 2.50 ± 0.47 % and 7.00 ± 1.51 %, respectively, showing a significant statistical difference ($p = 0.001 < 0.05$). The difference seen in the elongation between cast and MD printed drug loaded ODFs could be due to the difference in the uniformity in thickness of the films made by the two methods. The cast films have highly uniform thickness because they were cut from the centre of a large parent film, whereas the MD printed films were individually printed with no wastage, but the edges of the films that are directly in contact with the clamps of the texture analyser sample holder were thinner than the centres of the films, and therefore offered a lower cross-sectional area.

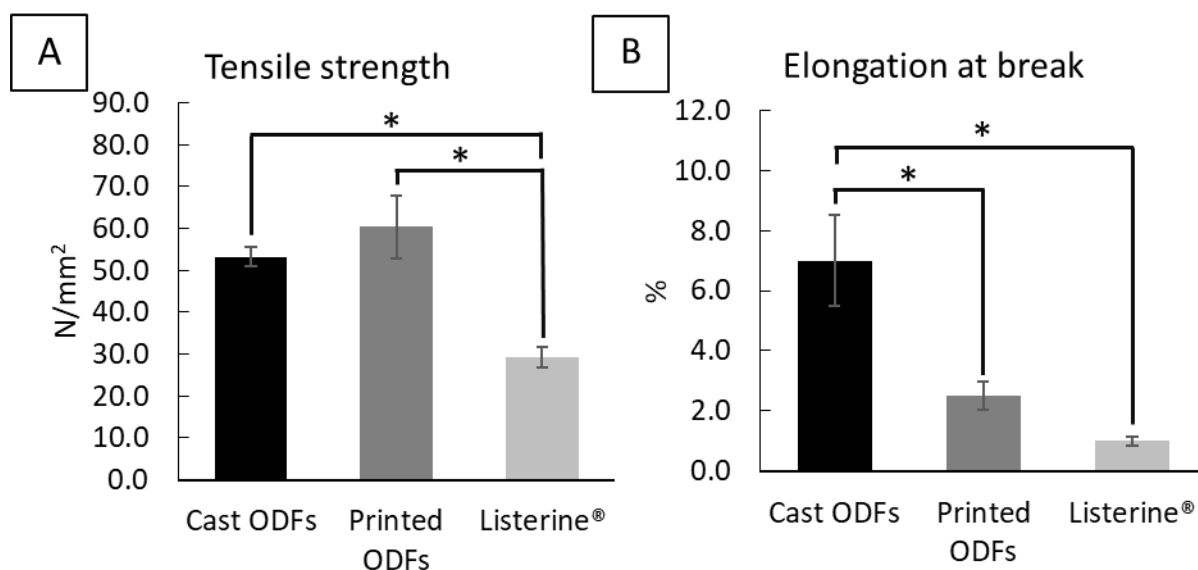


Fig. 8. Mechanical properties of drug loaded ODFs prepared by casting and MD printing, and Listerine PocketPak® films: (A) tensile strength measurements and (B) elongation (%) at break. Asterisks refer to a statistically significant difference with cast film.

3.8. Drug content uniformity in MD printed ODFs

The relationship between the dispensed drug within the MD printed ODFs and the number of printing cycles ranging from 1 to 8 is shown in **Fig. 9A**. The number of printing cycles showed a highly linear relationship with the amount of paracetamol loaded into the ODFs with an excellent correlation coefficient ($R^2 = 0.995$). When the drug quantity in **Table 3** being converted into percentage (% w/w) drug loading (drug content/dry film weight x 100%), with changing the number of printing cycles, the paracetamol loading concentration (% w/w) of the MD printed ODFs remained relatively constant, ranged from 7.89 to 7.27 % w/w. Taking the paracetamol concentration in cast ODF (7.63% w/w) as the benchmark, the concentration difference is less than 0.36%. According to the literature, the drug content uniformity of ODFs is suggested to be within 85 – 115% of the average drug content (Ph.Eur. 2013, Dixit and Puthli, 2009). The drug contents of all MD printed ODFs fall well within this range. This result indicates a low inter-drop volume variance of the MD printing process. The high accuracy in drop volume and the reproducibility of the printing allows the MD printing to be used as a small-batch manufacturing process to produce ODFs with adjustable doses by simply changing the number of printing cycles.

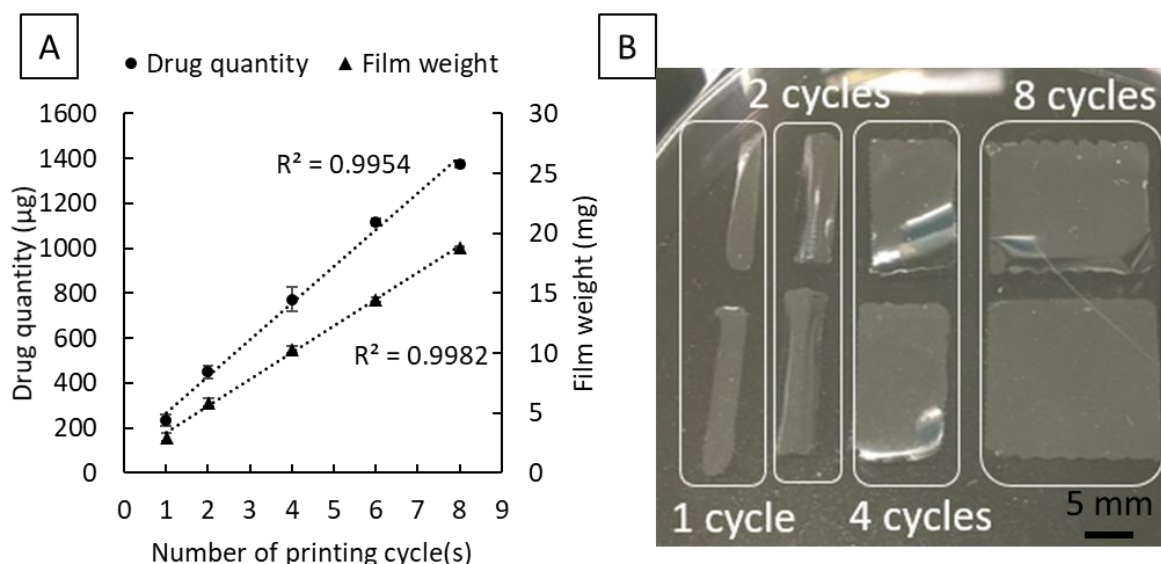


Fig. 9. (A) The correlations between the drug loading and the overall film weight of the ODFs prepared by MD printing with the numbers of printing cycles; (B) digital photography of the MD printed ODFs with different printing cycles.

3.9. Disintegration behaviour of drug loaded ODFs prepared by MD printing

The disintegration times of drug loaded ODFs prepared by casting and MD printing are reported in **Table 3**. The disintegration time of the MD printed films (8 printing cycles) and the cast films are 29.0 ± 3.6 s and 30.0 ± 3.6 s, respectively. There is no statistical significance exhibited by the MD printed (8 printing cycles) and the cast films. When comparing the disintegration time among different printing cycles, the results show no statistical difference either by One-way ANOVA test. Disintegration time is one of the critical factors to be considered in the manufacturing of ODFs. However, there is no specific monography for the disintegration time for ODF film. The monography of oral dispersible tablets was adopted as a guide. The European Pharmacopeia suggested 3 minutes as the target disintegration time (Ph.Eur., 2013). The FDA stated that oral dispersible tablets' disintegration time is lower than 30 s in water (FDA, 2008). The printed ODFs were able to fulfil the criteria set by European Pharmacopeia. It has been reported in the literature that the thickness of ODFs can significantly affect the disintegration time (Zhang et al., 2018). Although the overall thickness of the drug loaded ODFs prepared by MD printing (8 printing cycles) and casting showed a statistical difference, it may not be significant enough to show a significant difference in disintegration time. The fast disintegration led to rapid and complete dissolution of the film within 5 minutes with 100% drug release.

The number of printing cycles is independent of the disintegration time which is the time taken for the film to disintegrate, but not completely dissolve. This is likely because the film thickness of all the MD printed films remained mainly between 50 - 60 μm (data not shown). Although the film dimension increases with printing cycles, the thickness of the film is likely to be the dominating factor for controlling the disintegration time of the film.

3.10. Analysis of MD printing as a manufacturing method for drug loaded ODFs

The concept of individualised medicine was suggested to benefit patients by delivering an appropriate amount of API to avoid adverse side effects and improve patient compliance. The data presented in this study suggested that a MD system could fit well to the point-of-care production of personalised medicine on-demand model for ODFs products. The major advantages of MD printing over inkjet printing are being able to operate on viscous liquid formulations and produce substrate-free ODFs. ODFs prepared by inkjet printing require an edible substrate to absorb the drug ink (Genina et al., 2013; Sandler et al., 2011), which is unnecessary for ODFs prepared by MD. Absorption kinetic and thermodynamic changes according to the solvent used in ink and the substrate, increasing the manufacturing process's complexity (Sandler et al., 2011). Inkjet printing ink formulation containing low polymer concentration with high drug concentration is a strategy to overcome low drug loading per drop (Vuddanda et al., 2018). However, the high risk of drug recrystallisation over time in the course of printing should not be ignored in such liquid formulations with high drug loading. The accumulation of drug crystals and small nozzle used for inkjet printhead increases the likelihood of nozzle blockage, which is less likely for the MD since a bigger nozzle is used to deposit viscous ink. MD can also dispense lipid-based formulations such as emulsion to enhance the drug loading of poorly water-soluble drugs in ODFs, which is another advantage compared to inkjet printing.

In terms of the feasibility of the manufacturing process, first, the polymer-drug inks with fixed drug concentrations could be centrally prepared in pharmaceutical manufacturing plants with GMP standards. The standardised inks can be distributed to the point of care manufacturing sites, such as hospital pharmacies, to be printed by a MD system in a clean environment to produce tailored doses of ODFs on-demand for patients. Scaling up the manufacturing would be possible by using multiple print heads simultaneously to increase the production volume.

4. Conclusion

Overall, on-demand additive printing of fast dissolving ODFs with various doses of paracetamol was demonstrated by the MD system. A viscous polymer-drug ink was used to enable single-pass printing to fabricate ODFs with sufficient thickness for good handling. The dose of paracetamol in ODFs was adjustable linearly by printing ODFs with different printing cycles to change the print area. The deposition of droplets was sequenced to have sufficient overlapping to produce solid ODFs. The surface morphology of printed ODFs was comparable to the cast ODFs, showing a smooth surface without any bubbles. Although the mechanical properties of printed ODFs were statistically different from the cast film, the disintegration time was similar for both fabrication methods. The MD system is designed for depositing viscous liquid with high accuracy, which is suitable for fabricating tailored dose ODFs on-demand. The MD system can avoid issues such as blocked nozzle and recrystallisation of API, which can be an issue for ODFs prepared by inkjet printing. The results of this study demonstrated that the MD printing is an accurate liquid dispensing method for viscous fluids, and it has a wider range of potential applications beyond ODFs manufacturing, such as in personalised liquid dispensing and coating of devices.

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