

1 **In vitro, ex vivo and in vivo evaluation of taste masked low dose acetylsalicylic acid**
2 **loaded composite wafers as platforms for buccal administration in geriatric patients**
3 **with dysphagia**

4 Smirna Farias¹, Joshua S. Boateng^{*1}

5 *School of Science, Faculty of Engineering and Science, University of Greenwich at Medway,*
6 *Chatham Maritime, Kent, UK, ME4 4TB*

7 *Correspondence: j.s.boateng@gre.ac.uk, joshboat40@gmail.com (Dr Joshua Boateng)

8 **Abstract**

9 This study reports the development and characterization of taste masked, freeze-dried
10 composite wafers for potential oral and buccal delivery of low dose aspirin (acetylsalicylic
11 acid) to prevent thrombosis in elderly patients with dysphagia. The wafers were formulated
12 by combining metolose (MET) with carrageenan (CAR), MET with chitosan (CS) at low
13 molecular weight or CAR with CS using 45 % v/v ethanol as solvent for complete
14 solubilization of acetylsalicylic acid. Each wafer contained 75 mg of acetylsalicylic acid and
15 sweetener (sucralose, stevia or aspartame) with a drug: sweetener ratio of 1:1 w/w. The
16 formulations were characterized for physical properties using texture analyzer (hardness and
17 mucoadhesion), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), X-ray diffractometry (XRD), Fourier
18 transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy, swelling capacity, and *in vitro* drug dissolution.
19 Further, permeation studies with three different models (Permeapad™ artificial barrier,
20 EpiOral™ and porcine buccal mucosa) using HPLC, cell viability using MTT assay and *in*
21 *vivo* taste masking evaluation using human volunteers were undertaken. The sweeteners
22 increased the hardness and adhesion of the wafers, XRD showed the crystalline nature of the
23 samples attributed to acetylsalicylic acid, SEM confirmed a compacted polymer matrix due to
24 recrystallized acetylsalicylic acid and sweeteners dispersed over the surface. Drug dissolution
25 studies showed that acetylsalicylic acid was rapidly released in the first 20 minutes and then
26 continuously over 1 hour. EpiOral™ had a higher cumulative permeation than porcine buccal
27 tissue and Permeapad™ artificial barrier, while MTT assay using Vero cells (ATCC® CCL-
28 81) showed that the acetylsalicylic acid loaded formulations were non-toxic. *In vivo* taste
29 masking study showed the ability of sucralose and aspartame to mask the bitter taste of
30 acetylsalicylic acid and confirm that acetylsalicylic acid loaded MET:CAR, CAR:CS and
31 MET:CS composite wafers containing sucralose or aspartame have potential for buccal
32 delivery of acetylsalicylic acid in geriatric patients with dysphagia.

33

34 **Key words:** *Acetylsalicylic acid; aspartame; buccal mucosa; drug permeation; geriatric*
35 *patients; sucralose; taste masking*

36

37 **1. Introduction**

38 The buccal region of the oral mucosa cavity offers an attractive route of
39 administration for systemic drug delivery. The oral cavity is highly acceptable by patient as
40 the mucosa is relatively permeable with a rich blood supply, it is robust and shows short
41 recovery times after stress or damage (Rathabone & Hadgraft , 1991). In addition, the oral
42 mucosa route bypasses first pass metabolism by delivering the drug directly into the
43 bloodstream. These factors make the oral mucosa a very attractive and feasible site for
44 systemic drug delivery (Shojaei, 1998). Further, there has been an increased interest in novel
45 drug delivery systems, over the past few decades, to improve safety, efficacy and patient
46 compliance and increase the product patent life cycle (Panda, et al., 2012). Fast dissolving
47 and sustained release lyophilized wafers and films are examples of formulations for oral and
48 buccal mucosa drug delivery and can be used for various classes of drugs (Peh & Wong ,
49 1999).

50 Acetylsalicylic acid (commonly referred to as aspirin) has anti-thrombin action, which
51 inhibits clot formation, thus reducing the rate of heart attacks and strokes. Such
52 administration for the purpose of reducing the clotting action of platelets, is referred to as
53 ‘low-dose aspirin’ (usually administered as a single tablet with 75mg of the drug).
54 Acetylsalicylic acid acts as an acetylating agent and causes an irreversible inhibition of
55 cyclooxygenase (COX)-1 which is an essential enzyme for the production of thromboxane A₂
56 (TxA₂) in the platelets and suppresses the generation of prostaglandin H₂, which is a precursor
57 of TxA₂. TxA₂ is a powerful stimulant of platelet aggregation and use of acetylsalicylic acid
58 inactivates these platelets (Hovens, et al., 2006). Advantages of acetylsalicylic acid over other
59 ‘blood thinners’ such as warfarin, include low cost, once-daily administration and no need for
60 dose monitoring (Mekaj, et al., 2015).

61 Low dose acetylsalicylic acid is recommended for people with heart or vascular
62 disease and patients who have had heart bypass surgery (British Medical Association, 2014)
63 and most people who suffer from these problems are older (geriatric) patients, who usually
64 also present with other chronic conditions. The impact of demographic ageing is likely to be
65 of major significance in the coming decades, due to low birth rates and higher life
66 expectancy. Older people generally require more prescribed medicines due to the presence of
67 multiple conditions such as dysphagia (difficulty in swallowing). This occurs when the
68 swallowing physiology changes with advancing age due to reduction in the muscle mass and
69 connective tissue elasticity, resulting in the loss of strength and motion. These changes

70 reduce the effective and efficient flow of materials, such as food and medications through the
71 upper aero digestive tract (Sura, et al., 2012).

72 Freeze-dried wafers are usually prepared by freeze-drying a polymeric solution or gel
73 in an appropriate solvent (usually water). Freeze drying of water-soluble polymers produces
74 shaped materials of highly porous nature that can be turned back to gels and solutions when
75 they come into contact with fluids such as saliva. Lyophilized wafers can easily be applied to
76 mucosa surfaces and they offer advantages over solid polymer gels and solvent cast films
77 (Boateng, et al., 2010). Semi solid polymer gels flow easily after application, while wafers
78 can maintain their swollen gel structure for a longer period and therefore longer residence
79 times (Matthews, et al., 2005) to allow for effective drug absorption.

80 Freeze dried wafers are preferred over chewable acetylsalicylic acid tablets because
81 the latter contains sorbitol which causes diarrhoea and flatulence. In addition the flavouring
82 agents present in chewable tablets may cause ulcers in the oral cavity and the prolonged
83 chewing may cause pain in the facial muscles which may increase the risk of poor adherence,
84 medication errors or reduced patient quality of life. This is because of a loss of muscle
85 strength in the mouth and throat regions, which makes it difficult for geriatric patients to
86 chew. Further, these chewable tablets also show fragile (poor mechanical strength) and
87 effervescent granular characteristics and therefore careful handling is required (Renu, et al.,
88 2015; (Farias & Boateng., 2018)).

89 This paper reports the formulation design and development of composite polymer
90 based lyophilized wafers, taste masked with sweeteners, for potential buccal delivery of
91 acetylsalicylic acid to geriatric patients and improved compliance from masking the bitter
92 taste of the drug. The formulations were initially characterized for their physico-chemical
93 properties (resistance to compression – ‘hardness’ and mucoadhesion), crystallinity, internal
94 and surface morphology and chemical interactions. Drug dissolution and permeation studies
95 using three different models (EpiOral™, porcine buccal tissue and Permeapad™ an artificial
96 buccal membrane) were performed for the optimized acetylsalicylic acid loaded and taste
97 masked wafers using HPLC and finally the *in vivo* taste masking of acetylsalicylic acid by
98 sucralose and aspartame was investigated using healthy adult human volunteers.

99

100 **2. Materials and methods**

101 **2.1 Materials**

102 Metolose (MET) grade type (60SH), viscosity (4000 cP) and MW (1261.4 g/mol) was
103 obtained as a gift from Shin Etsu (Stevenage, Hertfordshire, UK), gelatin from porcine skin,
104 MW (10000 g/mol), mucin from bovine submaxillary glands, MW (4000 kDa), MTT [3-(4,5-
105 dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5diphenyltetrazolium bromide] reagent, dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO)
106 and acetyl salicylic acid were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Gillingham, UK). Kappa
107 carrageenan [(CAR) (low viscosity grade NF 911, MW < 100,000Da, 25% sulfate esters,
108 stable at pH values > 3.8)] was obtained as a gift from IMCD Ltd (Sutton, UK), low
109 molecular weight chitosan (CS) with 95% degree of deacetylation and MW of 3000Da was
110 purchased from Qingdao Yuda Century Economy and Trade CO, Ltd (China), calcium
111 chloride, sodium chloride, sodium phosphate dibasic, magnesium chloride hexahydrate,
112 potassium carbonate hemihydrate and sodium phosphate monobasic monohydrate were
113 purchased from Fisher Scientific (Loughborough, UK). Sucralose, stevia and aspartame were
114 obtained from a local ASDA Supermarket (London, UK). Dulbecco's modified Eagle's
115 medium (DMEM), fetal bovine serum (FBS), penicillin, streptomycin and glutamine were all
116 obtained from Gibco (Paisley, UK). Pig cheeks were obtained from a local slaughterhouse
117 (Tunbridge Wells, Kent, UK). PermeapadTM was a gift from InnoME GmbH (Espelkamp,
118 Germany) and EpiOralTM ORL-200 buccal tissue kit was purchased from MatTek
119 Corporation (Ashland MA, USA).

120

121 **2.2 Formulation optimization**

122 The drug loaded (DL) wafers were prepared by freeze-drying solutions combining
123 MET with CAR and MET with CS in different weight ratios with each final wafer containing
124 75 mg of acetylsalicylic acid as previously reported (Farias & Boateng, 2018) and
125 subsequently taste masked using different ratios of sucralose (Suc), aspartame (Asp) and
126 stevia (Stev) as summarized in (Table 1). Then 1 g was poured into each well of a 24 multi-
127 well plate (diameter 15.5 mm) with 75 mg of acetylsalicylic acid per well. The freeze-drying
128 process was conducted using an automated lyophilization cycle on a Virtis Advantage XL 70
129 freeze-dryer (Biopharma Process Systems, Winchester, UK). In the freezing step the samples
130 were frozen to produce a required condition for low temperature drying (Nireesha, 2013).
131 The sample was cooled from room temperature to 5 °C for 40 minutes, 5 °C to -10 °C for 40
132 minutes, -10 °C to -55 °C for 120 minutes. An annealing process was integrated into the

133 freezing cycle to boost pore size distribution by increasing the temperature from -55 °C to -35
134 °C (2 hours), cooled back to – 55 °C (3 hours) and maintained for 1 hour, at a pressure of
135 200mTorr to assure uniformity. For the primary drying phase, the pressure was reduced to 50
136 mTorr, and temperature was increased from -55 °C to -20 °C (8 hours) and further increased
137 from -20 °C to -15 °C (10 hours). The secondary drying occurred at the same pressure as
138 primary drying with temperature raised from -15 °C to 25 °C over 12 hours 30 minutes to
139 remove the amount of water molecules that remained during primary drying (Okeke &
140 Boateng, 2016).

141

142 *Table 1. Polymeric solutions for preparing taste masked DL freeze-dried formulations in 100 ml aqueous ethanol (45 % v/v). The acetylsalicylic*
 143 *acid loading was such that each final wafer contained 75 mg of the drug.*
 144

Sample name	MET (% w/v)	CAR (% w/v)	CS (%w/v)	Polymer ratio	Acetylsalicylic acid (g)	drug: sweetener ratio	Total polymer excipient content in the solution (% w/v)
DL MET:CAR Suc 1	1.87	0.63	0.00	3:1	7.5	1:1	2.50
DL MET:CAR Asp 1	1.87	0.63	0.00	3:1	7.5	1:1	2.50
DL MET:CAR Stev 1	1.87	0.63	0.00	3:1	7.5	1:1	2.50
DL MET:CS Suc 2	3.00	0.00	1.00	1:3	7.5	1:1	4.00
DL MET:CS Asp 2	3.00	0.00	1.00	1:3	7.5	1:1	4.00
DL MET:CS Stev 2	3.00	0.00	1.00	1:3	7.5	1:1	4.00
DL CAR:CS Suc 3	0.00	1.00	3.00	1:3	7.5	1:1	4.00
DL CAR:CS Asp 3	0.00	1.00	3.00	1:3	7.5	1:1	4.00
DL CAR:CS Stev 3	0.00	1.00	3.00	1:3	7.5	1:1	4.00

145 **2.3 *In vivo* taste masking evaluation**

146 Aspartame and sucralose were used at a sweetener to drug ratio of 1:1 to mask the
147 bitter taste of acetylsalicylic acid in the optimized DL wafers, as outlined in Table 1. Twelve
148 healthy adult volunteers were recruited to take part in the taste masking assessments and were
149 provided detailed written information about the study, and they subsequently gave signed
150 informed consent with approval from the Ethics Committee of the University of Greenwich
151 (12 December 2017). The volunteers were expected to make a suitable judgment on the taste
152 of the wafers and give a written score. The wafers were placed on the tongue for 1 minute,
153 the volunteers recorded their score and the sample was spat out and the mouth washed
154 immediately with fresh drinking water. They subsequently responded to a questionnaire and
155 scored each wafer from (1-10), using the following criteria: 1 (bitter), 5 (bland or no taste)
156 and 10 (sweet). After collecting the results from the questionnaire, it was possible to identify
157 which sweetener (sucralose or aspartame) was able to better mask the bitter taste of
158 acetylsalicylic acid. As a control, commercially available chewable acetylsalicylic acid
159 tablets (Bayer 81 mg), available in orange flavor was also judged by the volunteers in order
160 to obtain a comparison of the formulated acetylsalicylic acid with a currently marketed
161 chewable acetylsalicylic acid tablet.

162

163 **2.4 Physico-chemical characterization**

164 *2.4.1 Texture analysis*

165 Texture analyzer (HD plus, Stable Micro System, Surrey, UK) fitted with a 5 kg load
166 cell, was used to analyze the mechanical hardness (resistance to compression) and
167 mucoadhesion properties of the taste masked DL wafers as previously reported (Boateng &
168 Ayensu, 2014). Briefly, wafers ($n = 3$) were compressed in 3 or more places using a 2mm
169 diameter probe and the resistance to compression determined for each formulation. To
170 analyze the *in vitro* mucoadhesion behavior, each formulation was attached to an adhesive
171 probe (35 mm diameter). Gelatin solution [6.67% (w/v)], was allowed to set to a gel, and 500
172 μ l of simulated saliva (SS) at pH 6.8 ± 0.1 spread over the surface of the set gelatin.

173 The *ex vivo* mucoadhesion experiment was performed on taste masked DL wafers (n
174 = 3) to estimate the effect of SS on their adhesion profiles on porcine buccal tissue. The
175 samples were tested using the TA HD plus Texture Analyzer described above and the wafers
176 were attached to an adhesive probe (75 mm diameter) with double sided adhesive tape. An 88
177 mm diameter Petri dish containing buccal epithelium membrane of porcine tissue was used.

178 The wafers were positioned in contact with the epithelium for 60 seconds to provide optimal
179 contact before being detached (Khan et al., 2015).

180

181 2.4.2 Swelling capacity

182 The swelling capacity of the taste masked DL wafers was determined by immersing
183 each formulation into 5 ml of SS pH 6.8 ± 0.1 set at a temperature of $37 \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$ and
184 weighing the swollen wafer at predetermined time intervals. The swelling capacity was
185 determined for three replicates ($n = 3$) and calculated using equation 1.

$$186 \textit{Swelling index} = \frac{W_s - W_d}{W_d} \times 100 \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

187 where; W_d = dry weight of wafers; W_s = weight of wafers after swelling

188

189 The composition of various salts in 1L of SS was: 0.228 g of calcium chloride dihydrate,
190 1.017 g of sodium chloride, 0.204 of sodium phosphate dibasic, 0.061 g of magnesium
191 chloride hexahydrate, 0.603 g of potassium carbonate hemihydrate, 0.273 g of sodium
192 phosphate monobasic monohydrate and 1.000 g of submaxillary mucin. The pH was adjusted
193 to 6.8 ± 0.1 with phosphoric acid (Marques, et al., 2011).

194

195 2.4.3 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

196 The surface morphology of the gold coated taste masked DL wafers was analyzed
197 using a Hitachi SU8030 (Hitachi High-Technologies, Krefeld, Germany at an accelerating
198 voltage of 1 kV.

199

200 2.4.4 Pore analysis

201 The porosity of the wafers was measured using the solvent displacement method.
202 Ethanol was used as it fills the pores and wets the wafers without hydrating them, compared
203 to water which hydrates and eventually dissolves them. The taste masked DL wafers were
204 weighed, completely immersed in 10 ml ethanol, covered, and left to stand for 2 hours for
205 complete saturation. The saturated wafers were degassed to remove all air bubbles and the
206 wafers subsequently removed very quickly from the solvent and immediately weighed. The
207 porosity (%) was calculated using equation 2 (Okeke & Boateng, 2016).

208

209
$$P = \frac{V_p}{V_g} \times 100 = \frac{W_f - W_i}{\rho_e V_g} \quad \text{(Equation 2)}$$

210

211 where; V_p = pore volume

212 V_g = wafers geometrical volume

213 W_f = final weight of wafer

214 W_i = initial weight of wafer

215 ρ_e = ethanol density (0.789 g/cm³)

216

217 2.4.5 X-ray diffraction (XRD)

218 X-ray diffractograms of taste masked DL wafers were obtained using a D8 Advantage
219 X-ray diffractometer, by pressing the formulations before placing on the holder, mounting on
220 the sample cell and analyzed in transmission mode at diffraction angle range of 5° to 50° 2 θ ,
221 step size 0.04°, and scan speed of 0.4 s/step.

222

223 2.4.6 Attenuated total reflectance Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR)

224 ATR-FTIR spectra were obtained with a Perkin Elmer Spectrum instrument equipped
225 with a diamond universal ATR unit. The taste masked DL wafers were placed on the ATR
226 diamond crystal and force applied with a pressure clamp to allow suitable contact between
227 the samples and the diamond crystal. Spectra were recorded at a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ within
228 the range of 500-4000 cm⁻¹ with subtraction of background spectra before plotting, to allow
229 consistent absorbance of each sample. In addition, pure acetylsalicylic acid, aspartame,
230 sucralose and physical mixtures of the drug with each sweetener, were analyzed by placing a
231 small amount of the powder on the diamond crystal and the same process used for analyzing
232 wafers was followed.

233

234 2.4.7 In vitro drug release

235 Drug dissolution of taste masked DL wafers was performed using a Franz-diffusion
236 cell apparatus with its receptor compartment filled with 8 ml of SS pH 6.8 \pm 0.1. The system
237 was placed on a water bath at 37 °C and magnetically stirred (200 rpm). At predetermined
238 time intervals, 0.5 ml aliquots ($n = 3$) of the SS were withdrawn, filtered through a 0.45 μ m
239 cellulose acetate membrane, and analyzed using HPLC by following the method previously
240 reported (Farias & Boateng., 2018).

241 **2.5 Permeation studies**

242 Permeation studies were undertaken for DL wafers using three different model buccal
243 membranes; (i) *in vitro* EpiOral™ tissue culture membrane, (ii) *ex vivo* buccal tissue from pig
244 cheek, (iii) *in vitro* artificial membrane barriers (*Permeapad*™).

245

246 *2.5.1 EpiOral™ permeation studies*

247 EpiOral™ assay medium (MatTek, Ashland MA, USA) was pre warmed to 37 ± 0.1
248 °C for 30 minutes. Then, using a sterile technique, 0.3 mL/well of EpiOral™ assay medium
249 were pipetted into 4 wells of a 24 well plate and labelled 1hour equilibrium. The remaining
250 wells were labelled 30 minutes, 1, 2, 3 and 4 hours. The EpiOral™ samples were transferred
251 into the 30 minute labelled well, treated with 0.5 mL donor solution (SS pH 6.8 ± 0.1) into
252 which 15 mg of wafers was added with the mucoadhesive layer in contact with the apical
253 surface of the EpiOral™ buccal tissue and returned to the incubator. After 30 minutes, the
254 tissue was moved to the next time point until the total elapsed time (4 hours). 50 µL of the
255 receiver fluid was collected at predetermined time intervals and transferred to a vial for
256 HPLC analysis.

257

258 *2.5.2 Ex vivo permeation studies using pig cheek membrane*

259 The *ex vivo* permeation studies was performed using Franz diffusion cell. The Franz
260 diffusion cell is a simple, reproducible test for measuring the *in vitro* drug release from
261 formulations. The Franz cells consists of two primary chambers separated by a membrane of
262 defined diameter, which determines the transportation area. The formulation is applied to the
263 membrane via the top chamber (donor compartment). The bottom chamber (receptor
264 compartment) contains the fluid from which samples are taken at regular intervals for
265 analysis, which determines the amount of active drug per unit area that has permeated the
266 membrane at each time point.

267 *Ex vivo* permeation was performed by following previously reported method (Okeke
268 & Boateng, 2016) (Ayensu, et al., 2012). Briefly, buccal tissues from the cheek of pigs were
269 obtained from a local slaughterhouse (Tunbridge Wells, Kent, UK). After removal, the tissues
270 were immediately transferred into cold Krebs buffer (pH 6.8 ± 0.1) modified with sodium
271 carbonate, placed in sealed box filled with dry ice and quickly transported to the laboratory.
272 The buccal mucosa, with part of the sub mucosa, was immediately separated from the fat and
273 muscles using a sharp scalpel and the epithelium isolated from the underlying tissue. The

274 thickness of the sample was approximately 500 μm and the buccal mucosa was used within 2
275 hours (Patel, et al., 2012).

276 The prepared mucosal membrane was washed with SS at 37 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ and mounted between
277 the donor and receiver compartments of a Franz-type diffusion cell, with the epithelial side
278 facing the donor compartment to permit contact with the DL wafer (Attia, et al., 2004). 8 ml
279 of SS at 37 \pm 0.1 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ was placed in the receiver chamber with magnetic stirring at 250 rev/min
280 to provide uniform mixing. After an equilibration period of 30 min, 0.5 ml of SS was placed
281 in the donor compartment and 5 mg of the acetylsalicylic acid wafers was placed in the donor
282 chamber with the mucoadhesion layer in contact with the epithelial surface. The
283 compartments were held together by a cell clamp and sealed with parafilm to avoid
284 evaporation. At predetermined time intervals, aliquots (1 ml) were withdrawn from the
285 sampling port of the receiver compartment and replaced with the same amount of SS pH 6.8
286 \pm 0.1 also at 37 \pm 0.1 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ to maintain a constant volume for 2 hours. The sampled aliquots
287 were analyzed using HPLC ($n = 3$) and the % cumulative permeation plotted against time
288 (Khan, et al., 2015).

289

290 2.5.3 PermeapadTM permeation studies

291 PermeapadTM barriers were placed between the donor and receiver chambers of the
292 Franz-diffusion cells as described in previous studies (Bibi et al., 2015, 2016). The receiver
293 compartment contained (8 mL) of SS at 37 \pm 0.1 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ with magnetic stirring at 250 rev/min and
294 the donor compartment was filled with (1.5 mL) of SS and 5 mg of DL wafers. The
295 compartments were held together by a cell clamp and sealed with parafilm to avoid
296 evaporation. At predetermined time intervals, aliquots (1 ml) were withdrawn from the
297 sampling port of the receiver compartment and replaced with the same amount of SS pH 6.8
298 \pm 0.1 to maintain a constant volume for 4 hours. The sampled aliquots were analyzed using
299 HPLC ($n = 3$) and the % cumulative permeation plotted against time (Bibi, et al., 2015) (Bibi,
300 et al., 2016).

301 The permeation flux (J) across the EpiOralTM, pig cheek membrane and PermapadTM
302 was determined using equation 3.

$$303 \quad J = \frac{dQ}{dt} \cdot \frac{1}{A} \quad (\text{Equation 3})$$

304 where; J = steady state flux

305 dQ/dt = amount of drug permeated

306 A = effective diffusion area

307

308 **2.6 Cell viability (MTT assay)**

309 MTT assay on Vero cells was used to determine the cytotoxicity of pure MET, CAR,
310 CS, acetylsalicylic acid, and the various formulated wafers. Vero cells (ATCC® CCL-81™)
311 are adherent cells derived from the kidney of the African Green monkey (*Cercopithecus*
312 *aethiops*) and are one of the commonly used mammalian cell lines in cell biology,
313 microbiology and molecular biology (Ammerman, et al., 2008). The Vero cells were obtained
314 from the cell and tissue culture labs within the School of Science (Richardson Lab,
315 University of Greenwich, Medway) and stored at -80 °C. The cells were used to seed a
316 sterile, flat-bottomed 96 well tissue culture plate with Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium
317 (DMEM), fetal bovine serum (FBS) 10% (v/v), penicillin (100 units/mL), streptomycin (100
318 µg/mL) and glutamine 0.292 mg/mL. Two cultures (treated and control) were kept under
319 sterile conditions in a laminar hood and incubated at 37 °C in 5% (v/v) CO₂ for 24 hours
320 (Khan, et al., 2015). The controls only contained cells in growth media. The wafers and pure
321 compounds were initially weighed (~ 175mg) and placed in flow cabinet under UV light for
322 24 hours to sterilize. For the treated groups, the weighed sterilized samples were placed in 2.5
323 mL of growth medium and left in the incubator for 24 hours, and the extract was filtered
324 through 0.2 µm filter and collected into Eppendorf tubes.

325 The cells in culture medium were exposed to the collected sample extracts and
326 incubated for 24 and 72 hours. For the former time period (24 hours), the cells were initially
327 incubated for 20 hours, then 10 µL of MTT stock solution was added to each well and
328 incubated for a further 4 hours. For the latter incubation period (72 hours), the cells were
329 initially exposed to new set of samples for 68 hours, 10 µL of the MTT stock solution was
330 added to each well and the plate incubated for a further 4 hours, bringing the total incubation
331 time to 72 hours. The contents of the plates (24 and 72 hours) were decanted and 100 µL of
332 DMSO was added to each well, incubated at room temperature for 30 minutes and the
333 absorbance read on a Multiscan EX Micro-plate photometer (Thermo Scientific, Essex, UK)
334 at optical density (OD) of 540 nm. Data obtained was expressed as percentage cell viability
335 ($n = 3$) for all the samples tested (Khan, et al., 2015).

336

337 **2.7 Statistical analysis**

338 Statistical analysis was carried out to compare the results using two tailed student t-
339 test with 95% confidence interval (p -value < 0.05) as the minimum level of significance. All
340 the experiments were carried out in triplicates with mean and standard deviation.

341

342 **3. Results and discussion**

343 Table 2 shows the porosity (%) of taste masked DL wafers relative to total polymer content in
344 the original gels and polymer ratios. The results demonstrated that taste masked DL
345 formulations containing sucralose were more porous than those with aspartame. However,
346 there were no significant differences ($p > 0.05$) between the same formulation containing
347 sucralose and aspartame. Formulations containing CS (DL CAR:CS Asp 3 and DL MET:CS
348 Asp 2) showed lower porosity of 55 ± 5 % and 49 ± 4 % respectively, compared with the DL
349 MET:CAR Suc 1 formulation, which showed a porosity of 65 ± 3 %. The porosity results are
350 confirmed by the SEM images in section 3.6, which showed that taste masked DL MET:CAR
351 Suc 1 appeared more porous than the DL MET:CS Suc 2 and DL CAR:CS Suc 3 wafers,
352 which were more compact. The porosity of the taste masked DL wafers was lower when the
353 hardness results from section 3.3.1 were higher. This is due to the addition of the sweeteners
354 which formed a compressed solid resulting in smaller pores and therefore, slowed down the
355 penetration of solvent within the taste masked drug loaded wafer. This also affected swelling
356 capacity as the DL MET:CAR taste masked formulations were able to swell more while the
357 DL MET:CS and DL CAR:CS formulations which were less porous showed a lower swelling
358 capacity in section 3.5, due to the compacted polymer structure, decreasing the water ingress
359 (hydration) and subsequently % swelling capacity.

360 *Table 2: Mechanical properties, porosity (%) and in vitro and ex vivo mucoadhesive profiles of taste masked DL wafers in simulated saliva (SS)*

361 *Three replicates were performed for each sample (mean \pm SD, n = 3).*

Taste masked formulations	Hardness (N)	Porosity (%)	In vitro mucoadhesion			Ex vivo mucoadhesion		
			PAF (N)	TWA (mJ)	Cohesiveness (mm)	PAF (N)	TWA (mJ)	Cohesiveness (mm)
DL MET:CAR Suc 1	26.16 \pm 3.04	65 \pm 3	0.21 \pm 0.11	0.12 \pm 0.10	0.96 \pm 0.09	0.37 \pm 0.15	0.42 \pm 0.08	6.62 \pm 1.54
DL MET:CAR Asp 1	22.96 \pm 4.45	63 \pm 4	0.12 \pm 0.05	0.05 \pm 0.03	0.81 \pm 0.12	-	-	-
DL MET:CS Suc 2	20.00 \pm 3.09	59 \pm 2	0.12 \pm 0.11	0.03 \pm 0.03	0.83 \pm 0.19	-	-	-
DL MET:CS Asp 2	18.38 \pm 1.02	49 \pm 4	0.05 \pm 0.04	0.02 \pm 0.01	1.00 \pm 0.14	0.25 \pm 0.13	0.42 \pm 0.12	5.14 \pm 0.81
DL CAR:CS Suc 3	18.79 \pm 6.22	56 \pm 2	0.17 \pm 0.10	0.03 \pm 0.00	1.18 \pm 0.07	-	-	-
DL CAR:CS Asp 3	10.35 \pm 3.07	55 \pm 5	0.03 \pm 0.01	0.01 \pm 0.00	1.09 \pm 0.21	0.15 \pm 0.10	0.93 \pm 0.18	11.53 \pm 0.81

362

363 Compared with the blank DL (non-taste masked) wafers (BDL), previously reported
364 (Farias & Boateng, 2018), it can be observed that the BDL MET:CAR and BDL MET:CS
365 showed higher porosity of 82 ± 12 and 75 ± 7 % respectively. This confirms both the
366 hardness and SEM results which showed that the pores originally present before loading of
367 sweeteners were largely filled with excess sweetener as well as recrystallized acetylsalicylic
368 acid after freeze-drying.

369

370 **3.4 *In vivo* taste masking evaluation**

371 To improve patient adherence to medication, proven methods for reduction and
372 inhibition of bitter taste have resulted in improved palatability of these formulations
373 (Kleinert, et al., 1993). Taste is a function of sensation by the taste buds in the mouth and for
374 formulations intended for geriatric, non-cooperative and bed ridden patients, the main
375 challenge is to mask the taste of bitter drugs, to enhance patient acceptability and to ensure
376 they will receive the optimal therapeutic dose of their medication (Momin, et al., 2012).
377 Some of the methods employed in taste masking include coating of bitter drug particles with
378 coating agents such as starch, polyvinyl pyrrolidone, gelatin, ethyl cellulose (Gowthamarajan,
379 et al., 2004). Microencapsulation is a process of applying thin coating to small particles of
380 solids, droplets of liquids and dispersions using coating agents such as gelatin and povidone.

381 Another commonly used method is to add sweeteners, as they impart a sweet taste
382 that is highly preferred by geriatric and paediatric patients (Mennella, et al., 2011) and was
383 the method of choice in this study. Taste-masked formulations can be challenging to develop,
384 and the best method is often dictated by the physicochemical properties and taste profile of
385 the drug (Vesey, 2018). Taste masking by amino acids, sweeteners and flavours is the most
386 simple and oldest technique for improving taste characteristic of active ingredients within
387 formulations. The sweeteners and flavours overcome the unpleasant taste by occupying the
388 taste buds and therefore preventing direct sensation of the bitter taste of the drug of interest,
389 long enough to allow effective therapeutic dosing (Karolewicz, 2016). The aim of the taste
390 masking study was to solicit judgement of human volunteers about the taste of the optimized
391 DL wafers (CAR:CS, MET:CS and MET:CAR) loaded with sucralose or aspartame, to help
392 in the selection of the most suitable formulations for the target (geriatric) patient group. The
393 participants were required to choose a number between 1 and 10, in which 1 was (bitter) 5
394 (bland or no taste) and 10 (sweet) and scores for each formulation by the 12 volunteers are
395 summarised in Table 3.

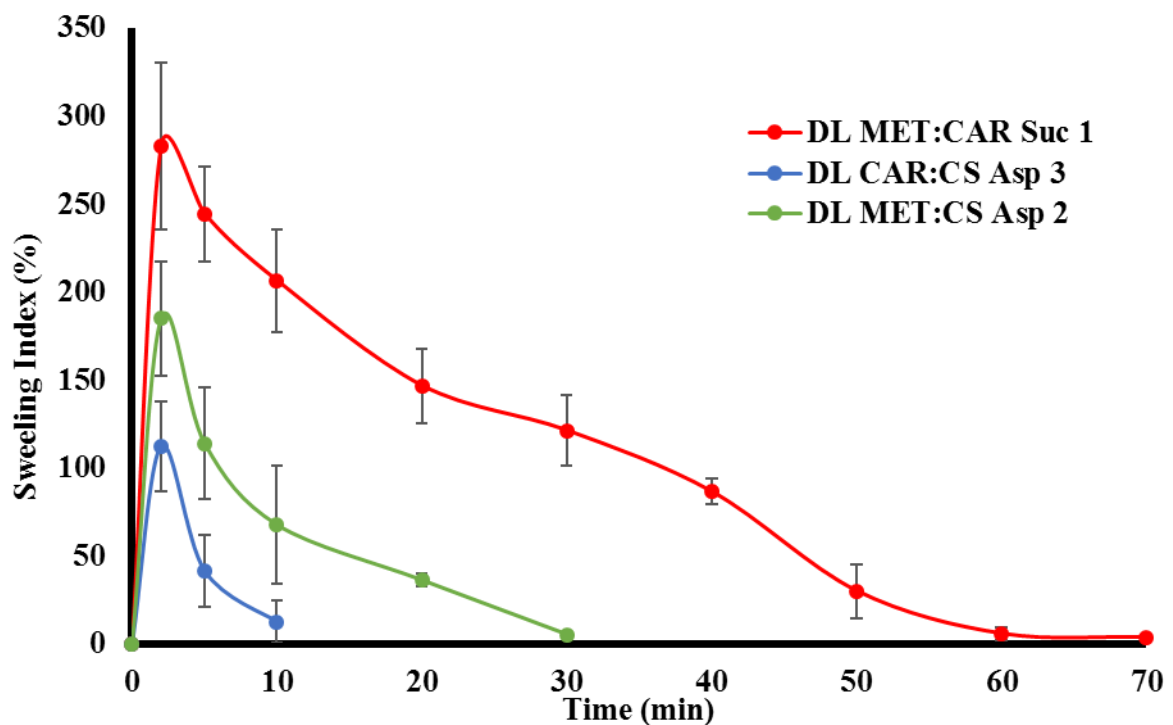
396 *Table 3. Results of in vivo taste masking study showing the selected optimized samples*
 397 *and the scores per taste category (i.e. bitter, bland, and sweet) for each formulation as*
 398 *judged by the volunteers. Scores from 5 to 10 (bland – sweet) were considered as having*
 399 *masked the bitter taste.*

Sample	Formulations	Number of volunteers giving a particular score									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Scores	Bitter			Bland			Sweet			
A	DL MET: CAR Suc 1			1		1	2	3	4	1	
E	DL CAR: CS Asp 3	1	2	2	1	2	3				1
F	DL MET: CS Asp 2	1	1	2	1	1	3	2			1
Bayer	Commercial chewable acetylsalicylic acid (Aspirin) tablet (orange flavour)			1		4	3	3	1		

400
 401 The *in vivo* taste masking evaluation were performed on 3 optimized formulations and
 402 showed that sucralose and aspartame were able to mask the bitter taste of acetylsalicylic acid
 403 in the DL MET:CAR Suc1, DL CAR:CS Asp 3 and DL MET:CS Asp 2, respectively.
 404 Overall, the formulations containing DL MET:CAR and MET:CS showed more palatability
 405 and acceptance because according to Amelian and Winnicka, MET also possesses appropriate
 406 properties to be used for effective taste masking (Amelian & Winnicka, 2017). At the
 407 molecular level, the drug-polymer complex with aspartame or sucralose exhibited significant
 408 taste-masking, as confirmed in the taste assessment by volunteers. As a result of the *in vivo*
 409 taste masking evaluation, further characterizations were performed on the DL MET:CAR
 410 Suc1, DL CAR:CS Asp 3 and DL MET:CS Asp 2. The volunteers also judged a
 411 commercially available chewable acetylsalicylic acid with orange flavour to compare with
 412 the results for the formulated wafers. Though the commercially available chewable
 413 acetylsalicylic acid was largely accepted, some volunteers judged it as bitter or bland, and
 414 this might be due to taste receptors being different for each person.
 415

416 3.5 Swelling capacity

417 The swelling capacity of DL MET:CAR Suc 1, DL CAR:CS Asp 2 and DL MET:CS
418 Asp 3 are shown in Figure 1. The % swelling capacity for (DL MET:CAR 3:1 Suc) was
419 observed to be 283 ± 47 %. The high rate of swelling is related to the total percentage
420 polymer content (by weight), as they were prepared from 2.5% w/v gels while the other taste
421 masked formulations, were prepared from 4.0% w/v gels with the latter being more dense due
422 to the higher total polymer content after freeze-drying. DL MET:CS Asp 2 wafers showed a
423 swelling capacity of 185 ± 33 %. The results showed that MET in the formulations made the
424 wafers more stable, thus they had longer duration of swelling of about 30 to 70 minutes,
425 before disintegrating, compared to the DL CAR: CS Asp 3 formulations. This is because
426 MET acts as a stabilizer for the wafers (Shin Etsu Chemical, 2005). DL CAR:CS Asp 2 wafer
427 was able to maintain its structural integrity for 10 minutes, after which it disintegrated
428 because of excessive absorption of water molecules. Compared to our previously reported
429 study (Farias & Boateng, 2018) of DL formulations without any sweeteners, the taste masked
430 DL wafers showed lower swelling capacity. This could be due to the increased hardness and
431 brittleness of the taste masked DL wafers because of the compact and denser solid matrix that
432 resulted in wafers with smaller pores and therefore, less capacity for water ingress (Kianfar,
433 et al., 2014).



434
435 *Figure 1. Swelling profiles of taste masked acetylsalicylic acid loaded wafers (DL MET:CAR*
436 *Suc 1, DL CAR:CS Asp 3 and DL MET:CS Asp 2) in SS. It was determined for three*
437 *replicates (mean \pm SD, n = 3) and calculated using equation 1.*

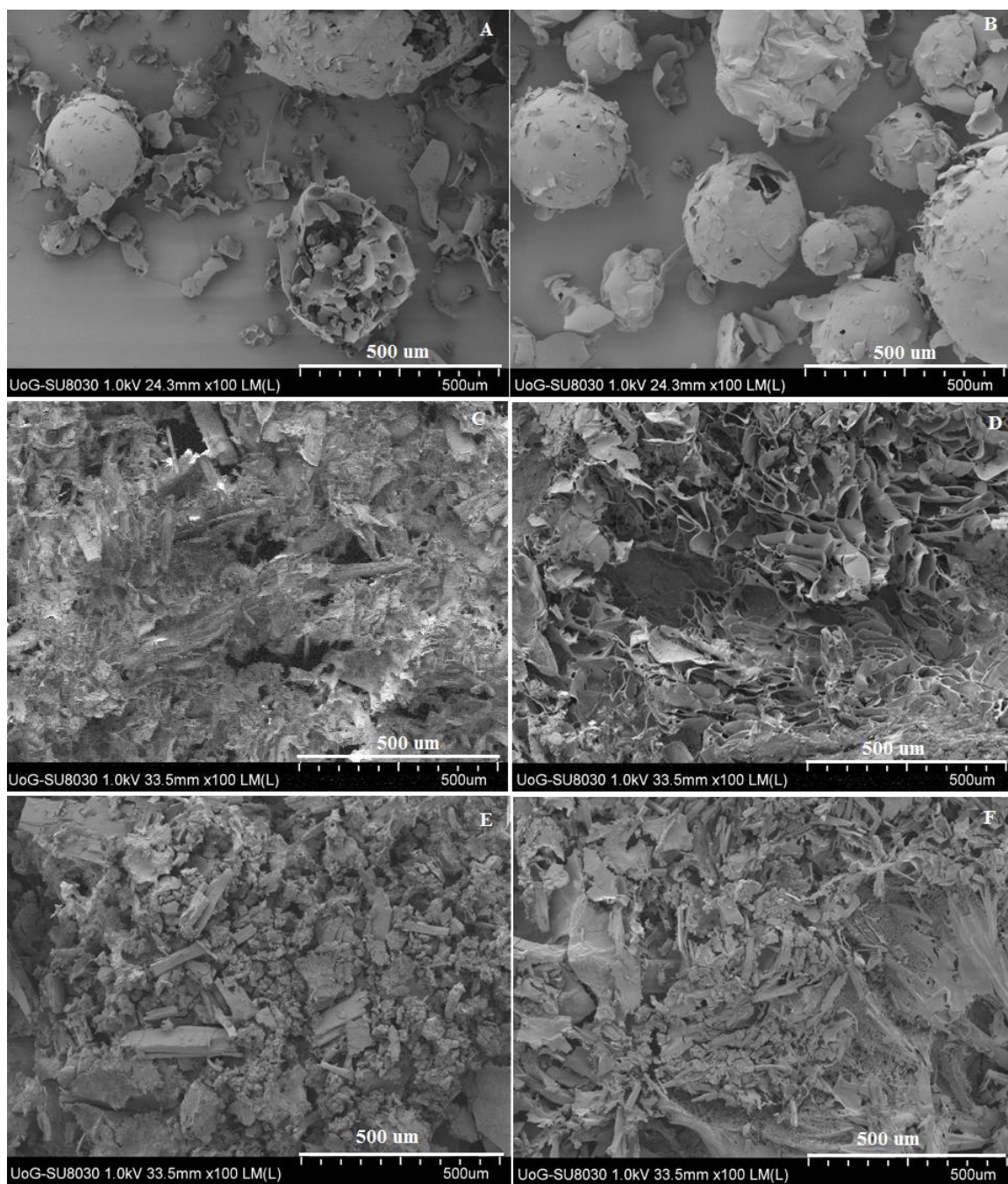
438 The maximum swelling capacity (%) of the taste masked DL wafers occurred within 2
439 minutes compared to the DL wafers without sweeteners as previously reported (Farias &
440 Boateng, 2018). The reason for the rapid water ingress in the former is because of the high
441 water solubility of both sweeteners. When compared with results in PBS (Farias & Boateng,
442 2018), the swelling capacity values were lower in SS which can be attributed to the difference
443 in ionic strength of the media which plays an important role in the swelling profile of porous
444 formulations such as wafers (Peh & Wong, 1999).

445

446 **3.6 Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)**

447 Figure 2 (a) and (b) shows the surface morphology of the sweeteners' (aspartame and
448 sucralose) crystals. The morphology of acetylsalicylic acid crystals have been previously
449 reported (Farias & Boateng., 2018). It was observed that the aspartame and sucralose crystals
450 were similar as they are mainly composed of maltodextrin and the particles seem to be fused
451 with each other, thus forming larger clusters with no uniform size or shape (Singh, et al.,
452 1993). Figure 2 (c to e) shows the surface morphology of representative taste masked DL
453 wafers (DL MET:CAR Suc 1, DL CAR:CS Asp 3 and DL MET:CS Asp 2).

454



455
 456 *Figure 2. SEM images showing surface morphology of (A) aspartame, (B) sucralose, and*
 457 *internal porous structure of (C) BDL MET:CAR (DL only wafer) (D) DL MET:CAR Suc 1,*
 458 *(E) DL CAR:CS Asp 3 and (F) DL MET:CS Asp 2.*

459
 460 The taste masked DL wafers showed a very compact matrix structure with crystals of
 461 excess acetylsalicylic acid and maltodextrin distributed over their surfaces, which is a major
 462 reason for the high hardness values described in section 3.1 above. The small pores in these
 463 taste masked DL formulations is attributed to the thicker walls formed due to polymer- drug
 464 interaction (Farias & Boateng, 2018) and addition of sweetener. The SEM images confirm
 465 the swelling capacity results in section 3.5, with the DL MET:CAR Suc 1 able to swell more

466 due to being more porous, and thus exhibiting faster rate of water ingress and hydration,
467 compared to DL MET:CAR Asp 2 and DL CAR:CS Asp 3.

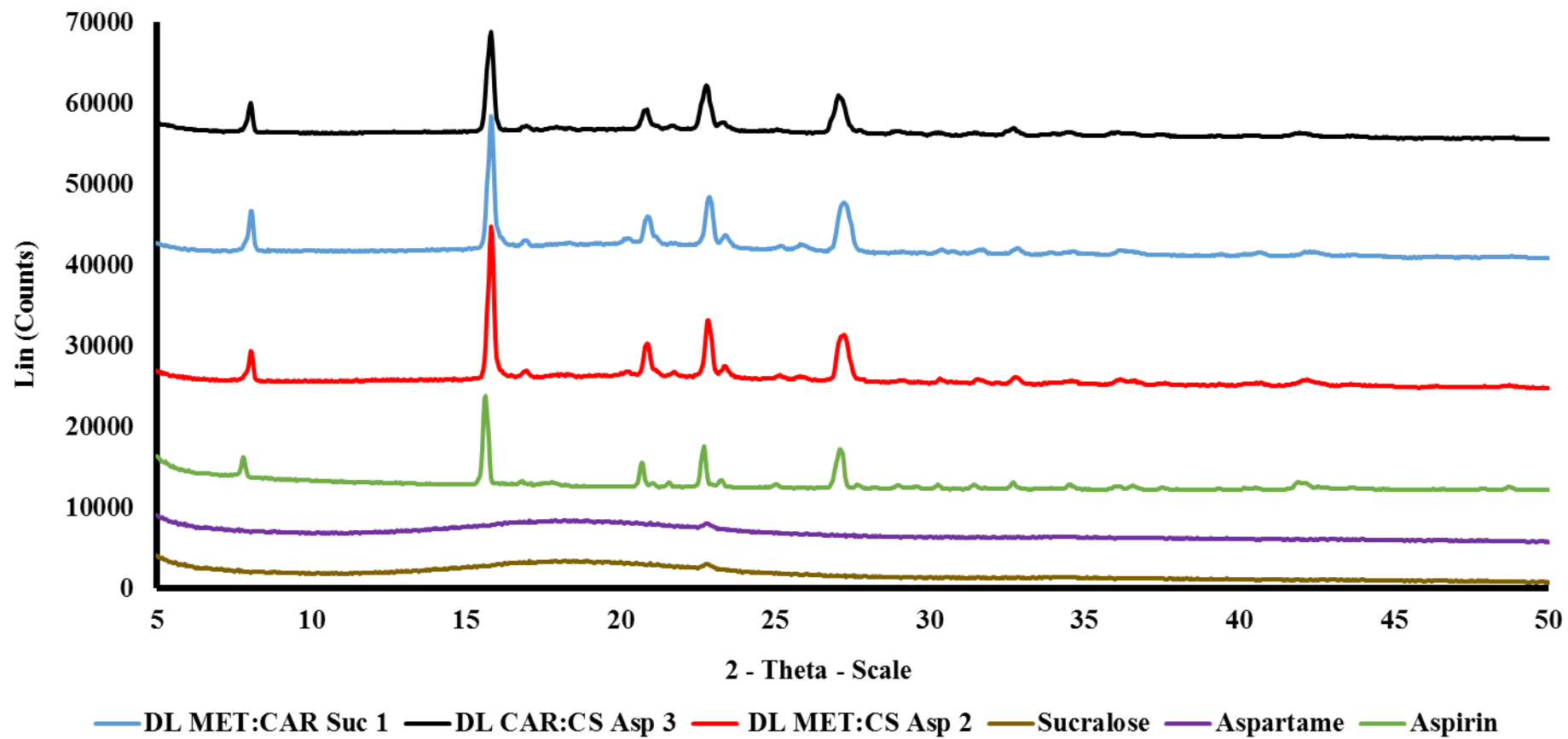
468

469 **3.7 X-ray diffraction (XRD)**

470 The transmission diffractograms of acetylsalicylic acid, sucralose, aspartame, and
471 representative taste masked DL formulations (DL MET:CAR Suc 1, DL MET:CS Asp 2 and
472 DL CAR:CS Asp 3) are shown in Figure 3. The results confirm the amorphous nature of the
473 sweeteners (sucralose and aspartame) demonstrated by the broad peak at 2θ of 15° and 25° .
474 Acetylsalicylic acid showed its crystalline nature with the presence of sharp peaks at 2θ of
475 15° , 20° , 23° and 27° . The crystalline peaks from acetylsalicylic acid can be observed at the
476 same 2θ positions of 15° , 20° , 23° and 27° in the diffractograms of the taste masked DL
477 formulations (DL MET:CAR Suc 1, DL MET:CS Asp 2 and DL CAR:CS Asp 3) suggesting
478 that the addition of sweeteners did not change the crystallinity of the acetylsalicylic acid
479 within the wafers.

480

481



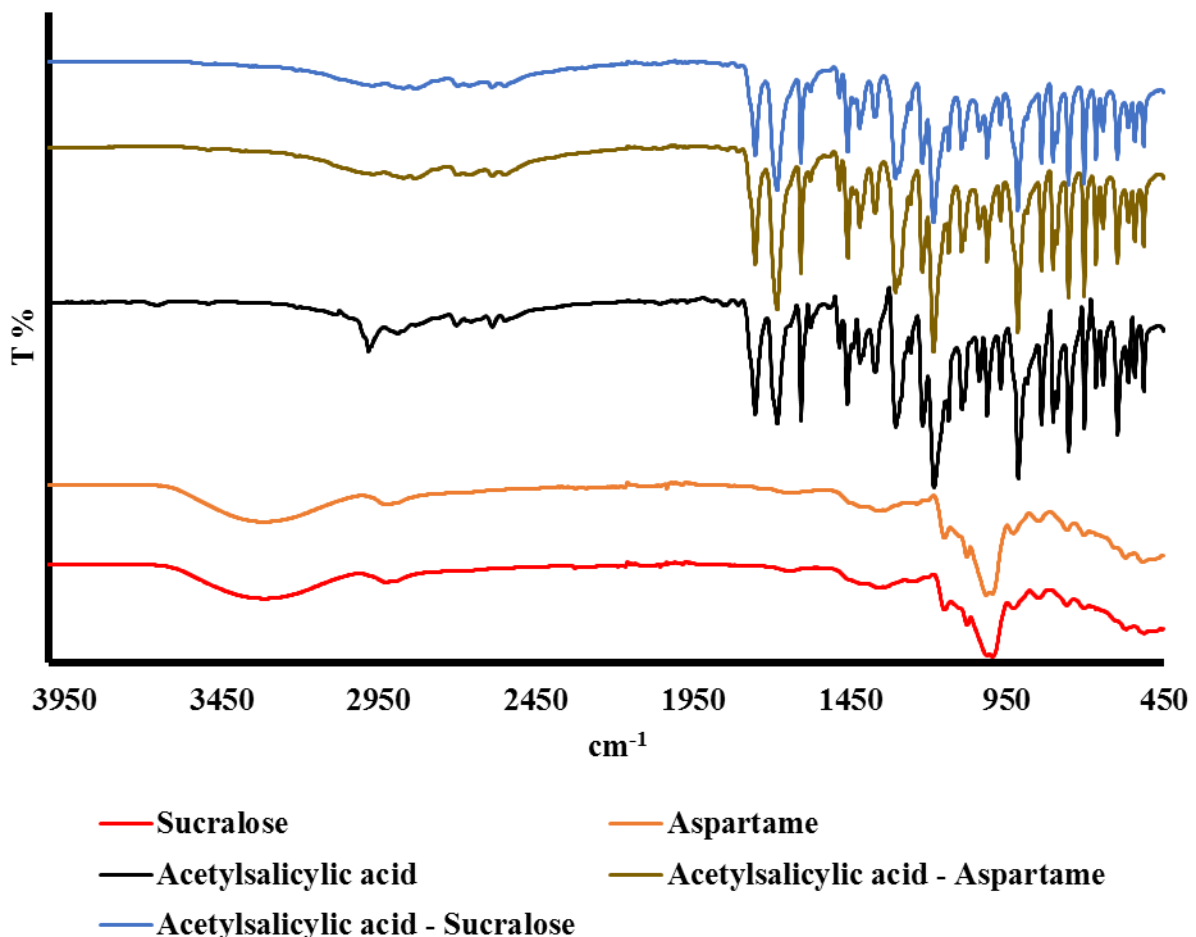
482

483

484 *Figure 3. XRD-transmission diffractograms of acetylsalicylic acid, sucralose, aspartame and taste masked DL formulations (DL MET:CAR Suc*
485 *1, DL MET:CS Asp 2 and DL CAR:CS Asp 3.*

486 **3.8 Attenuated total reflectance – Fourier transform infrared (ATR-FTIR)**

487 Figure 4 (a) shows the ATR-FTIR spectra of pure sucralose, aspartame,
488 acetylsalicylic acid and physical mixtures of acetylsalicylic acid with aspartame and
489 acetylsalicylic acid with sucralose. Sucralose is manufactured by the selective chlorination of
490 sucrose, in which three of sucrose's hydroxyl groups are substituted with chlorine atoms.
491 Dextrose and maltodextrin are used as bulking agents and are the major components of the
492 sweetener. The IR spectrum contains a broad band near 3258 cm⁻¹ due to the hydrogen
493 bonded hydroxyl (O-H) groups in the structure. There are C-H symmetric and asymmetric
494 stretching bands between 2800 and 3000 cm⁻¹ and a series of bands between 1200 and 650
495 cm⁻¹ which are the result of vibration of the C-O, C-C and C-O-H groups of the sugar. The
496 spectrum of aspartame was similar to that of sucralose as the major components of both
497 sweeteners is maltodextrin.



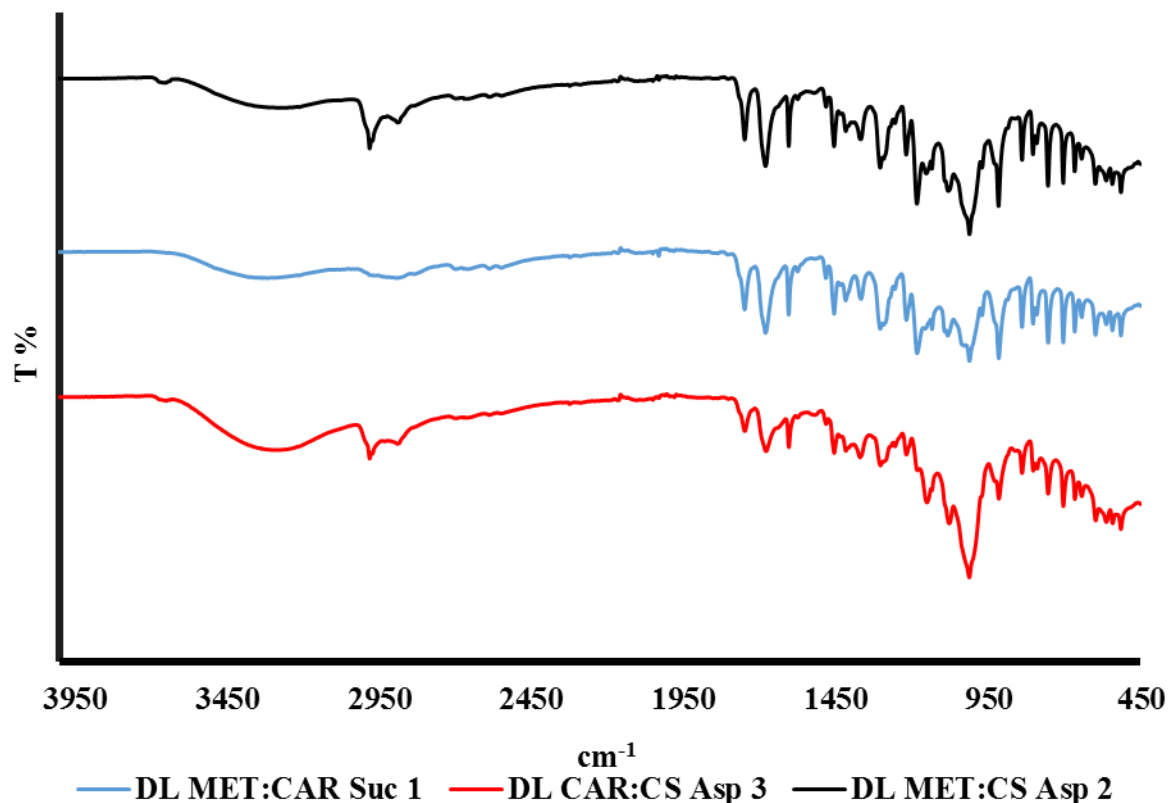
498
499

500 *Figure 4a. ATR-FTIR spectra of pure acetylsalicylic acid, sucralose, aspartame, and physical*
501 *mixtures of acetylsalicylic acid with the two sweeteners.*

502

503 The IR spectra of acetylsalicylic acid which has three functional groups, a benzene
504 ring (aromatic group), a carboxylic acid (COOH) group and an ester (R-C=O-O-R) group is
505 also shown in Figure 4a. The broad and wide peak from 2500 to 3300 cm^{-1} represents the
506 carboxylic acid (COOH) part of the molecule. The aromatic functional group is represented
507 by the sharp peak for the C-H stretch around 1710-1780 cm^{-1} , a medium peak around 1500-
508 1700 cm^{-1} and a carbonyl C=O group stretch around 1710-1780 cm^{-1} . The ester group is
509 represented by a C=O stretch at 1735-1750 cm^{-1} .

510 Figure 4 (b) shows the ATR-FTIR of taste masked DL formulations (DL MET:CAR
511 Suc 1, DL MET:CS 1:3 Asp 2 and DL CAR:CS Suc 3). It can be observed that there was
512 interaction of acetylsalicylic acid with the polymers as well as with the sweeteners by the
513 2500 cm^{-1} to 3300 cm^{-1} band representing the COOH group. This interaction is shown by the
514 shifting of the peaks to a high wavenumber and the reduced peak intensity between 1710 –
515 1780 cm^{-1} (aromatic group) for acetylsalicylic acid. The bands at 1223 cm^{-1} and 843 cm^{-1}
516 were attributed to O-S-O symmetric vibration and the band at 925 cm^{-1} demonstrated the
517 existence of C-O-C of the 3,-anhydro-D-galactose for CAR. The bands around 3389, 1036
518 cm^{-1} were related to O-H and C-O stretch.



519

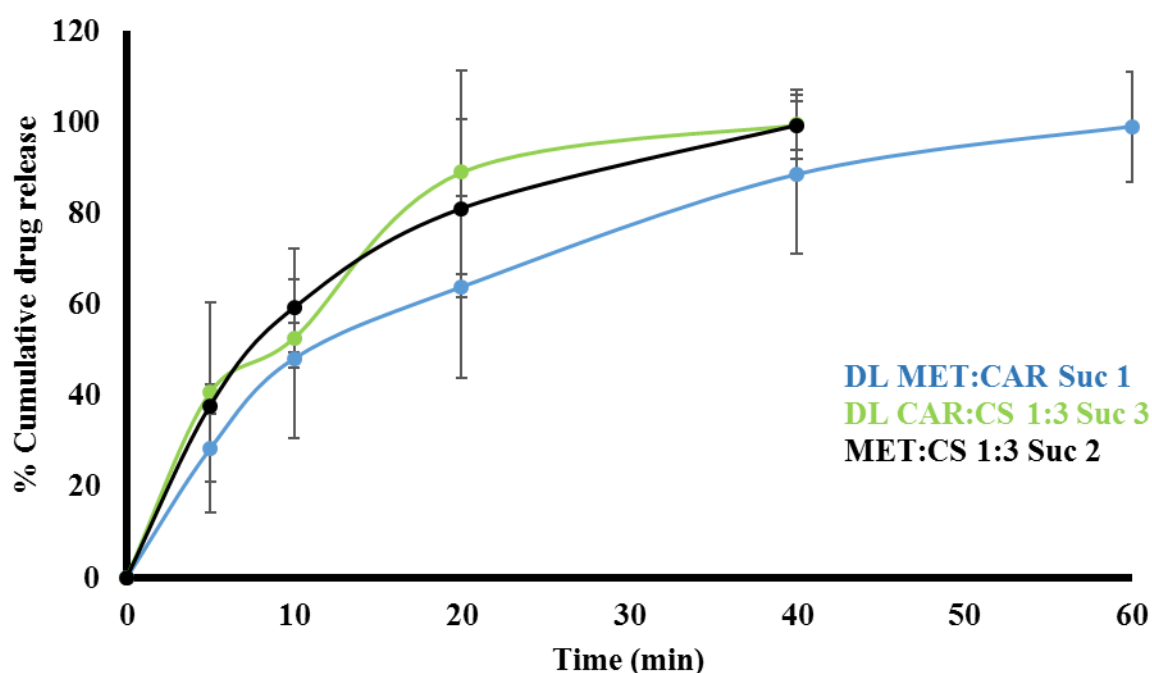
520 *Figure 4b. ATR-FTIR spectra of taste masked DL formulations (DL MET:CAR Suc 1, DL*
521 *MET:CS Asp 2 and DL CAR:CS Asp 3).*

522 The intense band at 1625 cm^{-1} was related to the deformation of hydrogen bond in
 523 water and described as water deformation band (Farias & Boateng, 2018). The interaction is
 524 also confirmed by the presence of C-H symmetric and asymmetric stretching bands between
 525 2800 and 3000 cm^{-1} and a series of bands between 1200 and 650 cm^{-1} which is a result of
 526 vibration of the C-O, C-C and C-O-H groups of the sugars (dextrose and maltodextrin)
 527 present in the sweeteners within the taste masked DL formulations.

528

529 3.9 *In vitro* drug release

530 The drug dissolution study was carried on samples that were optimized from the *in-*
 531 *vivo* taste masking evaluation using SS at $\text{pH } 6.8 \pm 0.1$ as observed in Figure 5.



532

533 *Figure 5. Drug dissolution profiles of selected optimized taste masked DL formulations (DL*
 534 *MET:CAR Suc 1, DL MET:CS Asp 2 and DL CAR:CS Asp 3) in SS at $\text{pH } 6.8 \pm 0.1$ (mean \pm*
 535 *SD, n = 3).*

536

537 The mean percent released was 63.9 %, 89.1 % and 81.1 % for DL MET:CAR Suc 1,
 538 DL CAR:CS Asp 3 and DL MET:CS Asp 2 respectively, in the first 20 minutes. The DL
 539 MET:CAR Suc 1 wafers achieved maximum release of 99.1 % in 60 minutes, while the DL
 540 CAR:CS Asp 3 and DL MET:CS Asp 2 wafers achieved maximum release of 99.5 and 99.3
 541 % respectively in 40 minutes. DL MET:CAR Suc wafers were able to release the drug for a
 542 longer period. This is due to the MET in the formulations which helps to increase the
 543 viscosity and density of the formulations, thus slowing drug diffusion and release. When

544 comparing the taste masked DL formulations with the BDL formulations with no sweeteners
545 from previous studies (Farias & Boateng, 2018), it can be observed that the % release in SS
546 increased with the addition of sweetener. For example, DL MET:CAR Suc 1 had a percent
547 release of 63.9 % at 20 minutes and the respective BDL formulation had a percent release of
548 14.5 %. Addition of sweetener in the formulation enhanced the rate of drug release from the
549 polymeric systems and this is because sucralose and aspartame are highly water soluble
550 materials which allowed a faster ingress of dissolution medium into the wafers and
551 subsequent rapid hydration, swelling and drug diffusion from the swollen matrix and its
552 subsequent erosion.

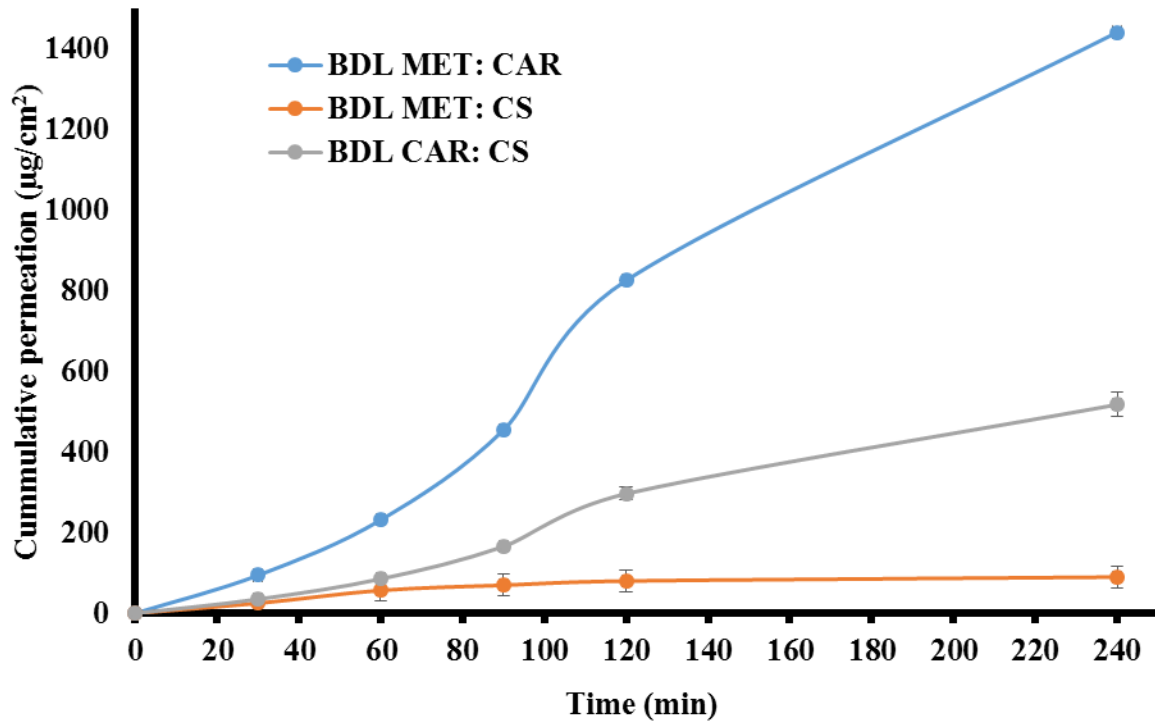
553 The observed drug release period appears to be a relatively long time for buccal
554 absorption. However, once the wafer becomes fully hydrated, it is expected to form a flowing
555 gel, which will then be mixed with saliva and the patient can unconsciously swallow more
556 readily. This is an important advantage for geriatric patients with dysphagia, who will
557 typically struggle to swallow solid or even semi solid formulations. Since acetyl salicylic acid
558 is stable in the gastric acid, eventual swallowing is not expected to be a limitation.

559

560 **3.10 Permeation studies**

561 *3.10.1 EpiOral™ permeation studies*

562 EpiOral™ has been previously used in the permeation studies of lyophilized thiolated
563 chitosan xerogels for buccal delivery of insulin (Boateng, et al., 2014). In their study the
564 permeation parameters of insulin for the optimized drug loaded chitosan xerogels through the
565 EpiOral™ was determined. Another study which used the EpiOral™ was reported by Giovino
566 and co-workers, who developed an integrated buccal delivery system combining chitosan
567 films impregnated with insulin loaded PEG-b-PLA nanoparticles (Concetta, et al., 2013).
568 EpiOral™ was also used by Brian Keyser and colleagues, for the development of 3D human
569 oral tissue model for oral permeation of smokeless moist snuff (Keyser, et al., 2018). The
570 cumulative permeation curves of the optimised taste masked DL wafers using EpiOral™
571 buccal tissue are shown in Figure 6. The permeation flux (J) of acetylsalicylic acid released
572 from the optimised wafers are shown in Table 4.



573
574

575 *Figure 6. Cumulative permeation curve of optimized DL wafers using EpiOral™ buccal*
576 *tissue (n = 3, ±SD).*

577

578 The highest cumulative permeation within 4 hours and permeation flux (J) was
579 observed for BDL MET: CAR wafer with the maximum cumulative permeation of 1440 ±
580 1.0 µg/cm² and permeation flux (J) of 360 ± 0.3 µg/cm²/h. The BDL MET: CS wafers
581 demonstrated the lowest cumulative permeation and permeation flux within 4 hours, with a
582 maximum cumulative permeation of 90 ± 2.7 µg/cm² and permeation flux (J) of 22.4 ± 6.7
583 µg/cm²/hr which were significantly different (*p* < 0.05) from the other two formulations. Due
584 to the high cost of EpiOral™ tissue and associated budgetary constraints for the current
585 research, it was not possible to test permeation for the corresponding taste masked
586 formulations, therefore, both sets of optimized formulations (taste masked and non-taste
587 masked wafers) were further tested for permeation using cheaper *ex vivo* porcine model and
588 artificial buccal membrane barriers (Permeapad™) which was freely donated.

589

590

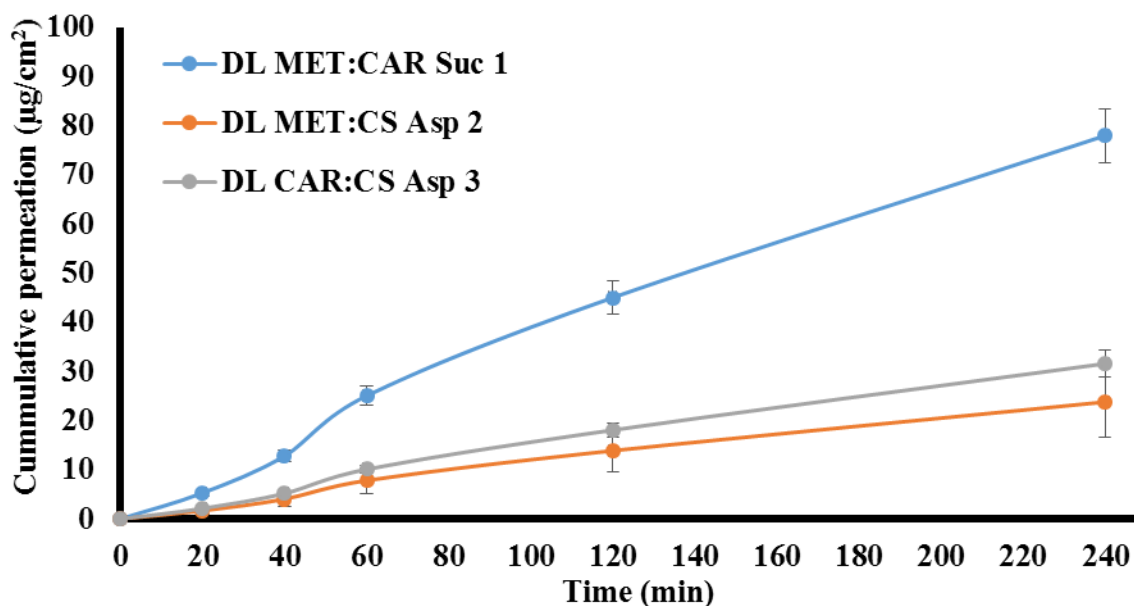
591 Table 4. Permeation flux (J) for optimized DL wafers from porcine tissue, PermeapadTM and
 592 EpiOralTM buccal tissue.

	Formulation	Flux (J) ($\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{h}$) (mean \pm SD, n = 3)
EpiOralTM	BDL MET: CAR	360.0 \pm 0.3
	BDL MET: CS	22.4 \pm 6.7
	BDL CAR: CS	129.3 \pm 7.5
Porcine tissue	DL MET:CAR Suc 1	19.5 \pm 1.4
	DL CAR:CS Asp 3	7.9 \pm 0.7
	DL MET:CS Asp 2	5.9 \pm 1.9
PermeapadTM	DL MET:CAR Suc 1	14.7 \pm 1.5
	DL CAR:CS Asp 3	18.0 \pm 5.1
	DL MET:CS Asp 2	9.1 \pm 0.5

593

594 3.10.2 Ex-vivo permeation studies

595 The cumulative permeation curve of the optimized taste masked DL wafers using
 596 porcine buccal tissue are shown in Figure 7 and the permeation flux (J) values are shown in
 597 Table 4. The taste masked DL wafers in general showed a significantly ($p < 0.05$) lower
 598 cumulative permeation than the corresponding BDL (non-taste masked) formulations. The
 599 highest cumulative permeation and permeation flux (J) was shown for DL MET:CAR Suc 1
 600 with the maximum cumulative permeation of $78.0 \pm 5.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ within 4 hours and
 601 permeation flux (J) of $19.5 \pm 1.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{h}$ while the lowest cumulative permeation and
 602 permeation flux (J) was shown for optimized taste masked DL MET:CS Asp 2 with the
 603 maximum cumulative permeation of $24 \pm 7 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ within 4 hours and permeation flux (J) of
 604 $5.9 \pm 1.9 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{h}$.



605

606

607 *Figure 7. Cumulative permeation curve of optimized taste masked DL wafers using porcine*
 608 *buccal tissue (n = 3, ±SD).*

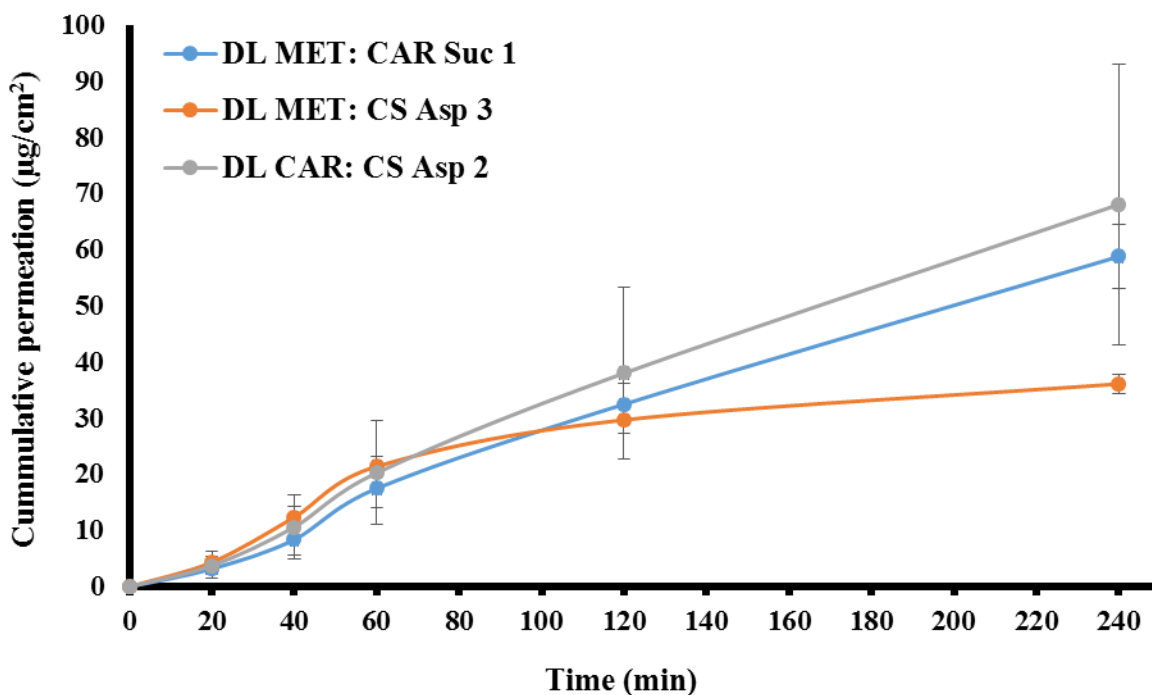
609

610 3.10.3 Permeapad™ permeation studies

611 The cumulative permeation curves of the optimized taste masked DL wafers using
 612 Permeapad™ are shown in Figure 8 and the permeation flux (J) of acetylsalicylic acid are
 613 shown in Table 4. The highest cumulative permeation within 4 hours and the permeation flux
 614 (J) was observed for DL CAR:CS Asp 2 wafers with the maximum cumulative permeation of
 615 $59 \pm 6 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ and permeation flux (J) $14.7 \pm 1.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{h}$ for DL MET:CAR Suc 1.

616 Optimized DL MET:CS Asp 2 wafers demonstrated lowest cumulative permeation within 4
 617 hours and permeation flux (J), with a maximum cumulative permeation of $36 \pm 2 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ and
 618 permeation flux (J) $9.1 \pm 0.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{h}$.

619



620
621

622 *Figure 8. Cumulative permeation curve of optimized taste masked DL wafers using*
623 *PermeapadTM artificial barrier (n = 3, ± SD).*

624

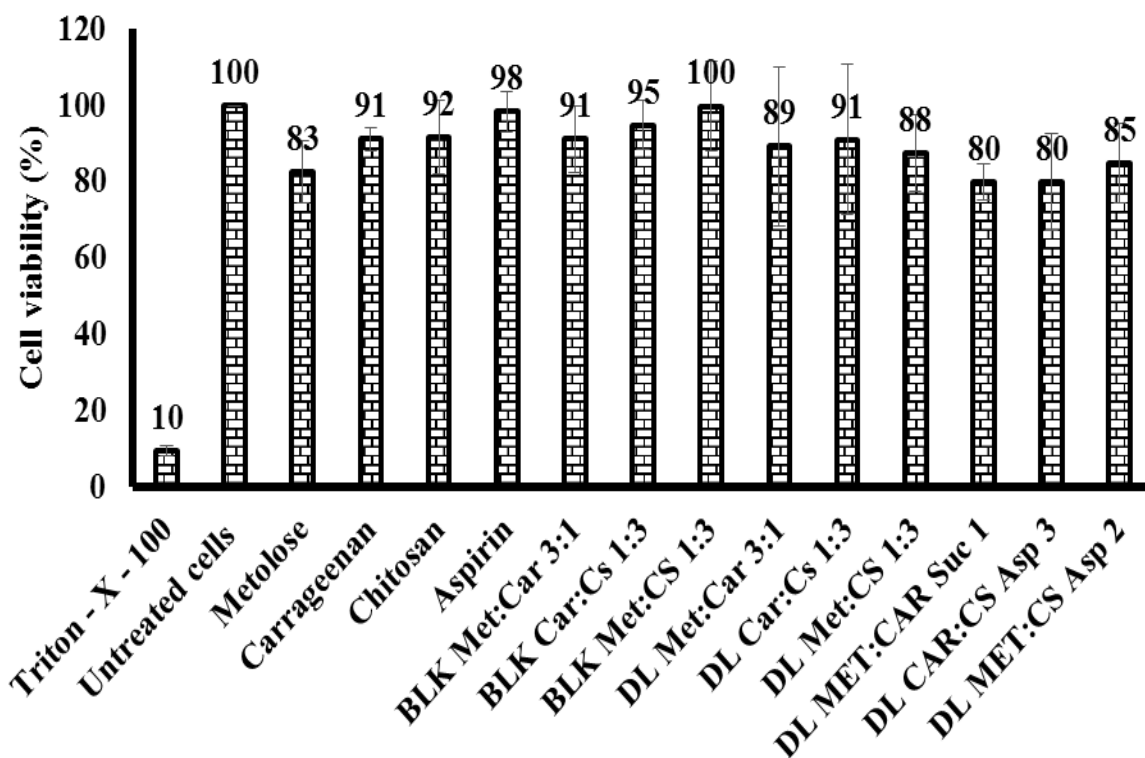
625 Generally, the rates of hydration, swelling, release of acetylsalicylic acid from the
626 formulations and mucoadhesion played a role on the permeation flux via the three different
627 permeation models employed (EpiOralTM, porcine buccal tissue and PermeapadTM artificial
628 buccal membrane). EpiOralTM buccal tissue demonstrated a higher flux than porcine buccal
629 tissues which can be attributed to fatty tissues beneath the porcine buccal mucosa tissue. On
630 the other hand, PermeapadTM artificial barrier demonstrated a lower flux than porcine and
631 EpiOralTM buccal tissues. Though PermeapadTM demonstrated lower cumulative permeation
632 than the other buccal permeation models tested, the results indicated that PermeapadTM is well
633 suited as a cheap alternative for fast and reliable preliminary prediction of passive drug
634 permeability (Bibi, et al., 2015). Moreover, the investigated biomimetic barrier has been
635 proven to maintain its functionality over time and in different pH environments (di Cagno, et
636 al., 2015), making it a useful addition to the *in vitro* permeation testing tool kit. The reason
637 for the low permeation and permeation flux (J) in the taste masked DL formulations is
638 confirmed by the SEM results in section 3.6, which showed that the taste masked DL wafers
639 were more compacted with crystals of excess acetylsalicylic acid and maltodextrin distributed
640 over their surfaces, blocking the wafer pores.

641

642 **3.11 MTT assay**

643 There are many factors involved in determining the successful and safe application of
 644 polymers as drug carriers in humans, with toxicity being an important factor (Khan, et al.,
 645 2016). Tissue viability was assessed using 3-[4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-ul]-2,5 diphenyl
 646 tetrazolium bromide (MTT) cytotoxicity testing for pure polymers, acetylsalicylic acid,
 647 optimized BLK and DL formulations previously reported in (Farias & Boateng, 2018) and the
 648 taste masked acetylsalicylic acid loaded formulations. This is a reduction assay where yellow
 649 MTT is reduced to purple formazan primarily by the action of enzymes which are located
 650 inside the mitochondria of the viable cells (Koschier, et al., 2011). Figure 9 shows the
 651 respective cell viability data for the samples described when exposed to Vero cells as
 652 measured by MTT assay after 24 hours. Triton-X-100 (positive control) killed 90% of cells
 653 compared with untreated cells (negative control) after 24 hours of exposure. Data for 72
 654 hours incubation are not shown as they were similar to that after 24 hours, which is a more
 655 ideal exposure time for buccal delivery.

656



657

658 *Figure 9. MTT assay results, showing cell viability of pure polymers and pure drug, BDL*
 659 *loaded formulations (non-taste masked), their respective blank (no acetylsalicylic acid*
 660 *loaded) wafers, taste masked DL wafers, Triton-X-100 and untreated cells (mean ± SD, n =*
 661 *3) after 24 hours of incubation.*

662

663 The results show a clear profile of the cytotoxicity of the pure materials, and the various
664 formulations on adherent mammalian cells with greater than 70% cell viability in all cases.
665 This confirms that the pure polymers, pure acetylsalicylic acid and the drug released from the
666 taste masked DL wafers were non-toxic and can be employed for geriatric drug delivery
667 (Moritz, et al., 2014). This study confirms that acetylsalicylic acid poses no physical threats
668 to endothelial cells when used for potential buccal application in geriatric patients compared
669 with the known toxic Triton-X-100.

670 In addition to MTT cell viability testing, mucosal irritation caused by formulations
671 meant for local application to the buccal mucosa is important. However, the wafers were
672 designed and formulated using well known and FDA approved mucoadhesive GRAS
673 (generally regarded as safe) polymers of high viscosity with greater flexibility and optimum
674 chain length to avoid mucosal irritation. Among the various mucoadhesive drug delivery
675 systems, buccal wafers and films are better than oral gels due to relatively longer residence
676 time, more flexibility to cover the buccal mucosa and better comfort (Semalty, et al., 2010).
677 Furthermore, the neutral environment of the mouth allows for administration of acidic drugs
678 such as acetylsalicylic acid (Ribeiro Costa, et al., 2019). The salivary pH varies from 5.5 to
679 7.0 and the wafers produced would therefore not be expected to produce any local irritation to
680 the mucosal surface upon application (Kassem, et al., 2015). However, this will require
681 further investigation in the future in the form of mucosal irritation test, to confirm it
682 definitively.

683

684 **4. Conclusions**

685 The functional properties of taste masked DL wafers for geriatric delivery, have been
686 characterized. Wafers comprising sucralose and aspartame showed higher hardness compared
687 to their corresponding non-taste masked wafers which was reflected in the SEM, swelling
688 capacity and porosity results. However, adding the sweeteners increased the rate of release
689 compared to the BDL formulations. Both sucralose and aspartame showed similar effect in
690 masking the bitter taste of acetylsalicylic acid while MET:CAR and MET:CS wafers showed
691 more palatability and acceptance because of MET's known taste masking properties. The
692 wafers showed enough drug permeability after release of acetylsalicylic acid through
693 EpiOral™, porcine buccal tissues and artificial Permeapad™ membrane, which is expected
694 to ensure therapeutic bioavailability and therefore a potentially useful alternative to oral
695 tablets. MTT assay showed that all the wafers were safe for continuous attachment in the
696 cheek region and therefore suitable for geriatric patients. Taste masked DL formulations (DL

697 MET:CAR Suc 1, DL CAR:CS Asp 3 and DL MET:CS Asp 2) are very promising systems
698 for the delivery of low dose acetylsalicylic acid to geriatric patients with dysphagia.

699

700 **Conflict of interest**

701 The authors report no conflict of interest

702

703 **References**

704 Amelian, A. & Winnicka, K., 2017. Polymers in pharmaceutical taste masking applications.
705 *Polimery* , 62(6), pp. 417-496.

706 Ammerman, N. C., Beier-sexton, M. & Azad, A. F., 2008. Growth and maintenance of vero
707 cell lines. *Curr. Protoc. Microbiol* , pp. 1-10.

708 Aslam, M. & Vaezi, M. F., 2013. Dysphagia in the Elderly. *Gastroenterology and*
709 *Hepatology*, 9(12), pp. 784 - 795.

710 Attia, M. A., El-Gibaly, I., Shaltout, S. E. & Fetih, G. N., 2004. Transbuccal permeation:
711 anti-inflammatory activity and clinical efficacy of piroxicam formulated in different gels. *Int.*
712 *J. Pharm*, 276((1-2)), pp. 11-28.

713 Ayensu, I., Mitchell , J. C. & Boateng, J. S., 2012. Development and Physico-mechanical
714 Characterisation of Lyophilised Chitosan Wafers as Potential Protein Drug Delivery Systems
715 via the Buccal Mucosa. *Colloids and Surfaces B: Biointerfaces*, Volume 91, pp. 258-265.

716 Barley, J., 2009. Basic Principles of Freeze Drying. *SP Scientific* , Volume 1, pp. 1-14.

717 Bibi, H. A., di Cagno, M., Holm, R. & Bauer-Brandl, A., 2015. Permeapad™ for
718 investigation of passive drug permeability: the effect of surfactants, co-solvents and
719 simulated intestinal fluids (FaSSIF and FeSSIF). *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*,
720 Volume 493, pp. 192-197.

721 Bibi, H. A., Holm, R. & Bauer-Brandl, A., 2016. Use of Permeapad for prediction of buccal
722 absorption: A comparison to in vitro, ex vivo and in vivo method. *European Journal of*
723 *Pharmaceutical Sciences*, Volume 93, pp. 399-404.

724 Boateng, J., 2017. Drug Delivery Innovations to Address Global Health Challenges for
725 Pediatric and Geriatric Populations (Through Improvements in Patient Compliance). *Journal*
726 *of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, Volume 106, pp. 3188 - 3198.

727 Boateng, J. S. et al., 2010. Characterisation of freeze-dried wafers and solvent evaporated
728 films as potential drug delivery systems to mucosal surfaces. *Int J Pharm*, Volume 389, pp.
729 24-31.

730 Boateng, J. S. & Ayensu, I., 2014. Preparation and characterisation of laminated thiolated
731 chitosan-based freeze-dried wafers for potential buccal delivery of macromolecules. *Drug*
732 *Dev Ind Pharm*, 40(5), pp. 611-618.

- 733 Boateng, J. S., Mitchell, J. C., Pawar, H. & Ayensu, I., 2014. Functional characterisation and
 734 permeation studies of lyophilised thiolated chitosan xerogels for buccal delivery of insulin.
 735 *Protein & Peptide Letters*, 21(11), pp. 1163-1175.
- 736 Brighton, T. A. et al., 2012. Low-dose aspirin for preventing recurrent venous
 737 thromboembolism. *The New England Journal of Medicine*, 367(21), pp. 1979-1987.
- 738 British Medical Association, 2014. Aspirin to prevent blood clots. *British Medical
 739 Association and Royal Pharmaceutical Society*.
- 740 Campo, V. L., Kawano, D. F., da Silva Jr, D. B. & Carvalho, I., 2009. Carrageenans:
 741 Biological properties, chemical modification and structural analysis - A review.
 742 *Carbohydrate Polymers*, Volume 77, pp. 167-180.
- 743 Concetta, G., Ayensu, I., Tetteh, J. & Boateng, J. S., 2013. An integrated buccal delivery
 744 system combining chitosan films impregnated with peptide loaded PEG-b-PLA nanoparticles.
 745 *Colloids and Surfaces B: Biointerfaces*, Volume 112, pp. 9-15.
- 746 di Cagno, M., Bibi, H. A. & Bauer-Brandl, A., 2015. New biomimetic barrier Permeapad™
 747 for efficient investigation of passive permeability of drugs. *European Journal of
 748 Pharmaceutical Sciences*, Volume 73, pp. 29-34.
- 749 Farias, S. & Boateng, J. S., 2018. Development and functional characterization of composite
 750 freeze dried wafers for potential delivery of low dose aspirin for elderly people with
 751 dysphagia. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, Volume 553, pp. 65-83.
- 752 Gala, U. & Chauhan, H., 2014. Taste masking techniques in the pharmaceutical industry.
 753 *Search American Pharmaceutical Review*.
- 754 Gowthamarajan, K., Kulkarni, G. T. & Kumar, M. N., 2004. Pop the Pills without Bitterness -
 755 Taste-Masking Technologies for Bitter Drugs. *Resonance*, pp. 25-32.
- 756 Haeria, AnNisaa, N. & Isriany, I., 2015. Characterization and dissolution test of aspirin-
 757 nicotinamide cocrystal. *International Journal of Pharm Tech Research*, 8(1), pp. 166-170.
- 758 Ho, L. & Brighton, T., 2002. Warfarin, antiplatelet drugs and their interactions. *Aust Prescr*,
 759 14(4), pp. 81-85.
- 760 Hovens, M., Snoep, J., Tamsma, J. & Huisman, M., 2006. Aspirin in the prevention and
 761 treatment of venous thromboembolism. *Journal of thrombosis and haemostasis*, Volume 4, pp.
 762 1470-1475.
- 763 Jorge, K., 2003. *Soft Drinks, Chemical composition*, s.l.: Encyclopedia of Food Sciences and
 764 Nutrition.
- 765 Karolewicz, B., 2016. A review of polymers as multifunctional excipients in drug dosage
 766 form technology. *Saudi Pharmaceutical Journal*, Volume 24, pp. 525-536.
- 767 Kassem, M. A. A., ElMeshad, A. N. & Fares, A. R., 2015. Lyophilized sustained release
 768 mucoadhesive chitosan sponges for buccal bupirone hydrochloride delivery: formulation and
 769 in vitro evaluation. *AAPD PharmaSciTech*, 16(3).

770 Keyser, B., Rowe, J., Weidman, R. & Fields, W., 2018. *Development of a 3D human oral*
771 *tissue model for oral permeation of smokeless moist snuff*. s.l., TSRC.

772 Khan, S., Boateng, J. S., Mitchell, J. & Trivedi, V., 2015. Formulation, characterisation and
773 stabilisation of buccal films for paediatric drug delivery of omeprazole. *AAPS PharmSciTech*,
774 pp. 1-11.

775 Khan, S., Trivedi, V. & Boateng, J., 2015. Functional physico-chemical, ex vivo permeation
776 and cell viability characterisation of omeprazole loaded buccal films for paediatric drug
777 delivery. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, Volume 500, pp. 217-226.

778 Khan, S., Trivedi, V. & Boateng, J., 2016. Functional physico-chemical, ex vivo permeation
779 and cell viability characterisation of omeprazole loaded buccal films for paediatric drug
780 delivery. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, Volume 500, pp. 217-226.

781 Kianfar, F., Antonijevic, M. D., Chowdhry, B. Z. & Boateng, J. s., 2011. Formulation
782 Development of a Carrageenan Based Delivery System for Buccal Drug Delivery Using
783 Ibuprofen as a Model Drug. *Journal of Biomaterials and Nanobiotechnology*, Volume 2, pp.
784 528-595.

785 Kianfar, F., Ayensu, I. & Boateng, J. S., 2014. Development and physico-mechanical
786 characterisation of carrageenan and poloxamer-based lyophilised matrix as a potential buccal
787 drug delivery system. *Drug Dev. Ind. Pharm*, 40(3), pp. 361-369.

788 Kleinert, H. D., Baker, W. R. & Stein, H. H., 1993. Orally bioavailable peptide like
789 molecules: a case history. *Pharm. Technol*, 17(3), pp. 30-36.

790 Koschier, F., Kostrubsky, V., Toole, C. & Gallo, M. A., 2011. In vitro effect of ethanol and
791 mouthrinse on permeability in an oral buccal mucosal tissue construct. *Food Chem*, 49(10),
792 pp. 2525-2529.

793 Kulkarni, U. et al., 2010. Porcine buccal mucosa as in vitro model: effect of biological and
794 experimental variables. *J. Pharm. Sci*, 99(3), pp. 1265-1277.

795 Marques, M. R. C., Loebenberg, R. & Almukainzi, M., 2011. Simulated Biological Fluids
796 with Possibel Application in Dissolution Testing. *Dissolution Technologies*, pp. 15-28.

797 Matthews, K. H. et al., 2005. Lyophilised wafers as a drug delivery system for wound healing
798 containing methylcellulose as viscosity modifier. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*,
799 Volume 289, pp. 51-62.

800 Mekaj, Y. H., Daci, F. T. & Mekaj, A. Y., 2015. New insights into the mechanisms of action
801 of aspirin and its use in the prevention and treatment of arterial and venous
802 thromboembolism. *Therapeutics and Clinical Risk Management*, Volume 11, pp. 1449-
803 1456.

804 Mennella, J., Lukasewycz, L., Griffith, J. & Beauchamp, G., 2011. Evaluation of the Monell
805 forced-choice, paired-comparison tracking procedure for determining sweet taste preferences
806 across the lifespan. *Chem Senses*, 36(4), pp. 345-355.

807 Momin, M., Rathod, S. & Kar, S., 2012. Taste masking techniques for bitter drugs- an
808 overview. *International Journal of Pharmacy and Technology*, 4(2), pp. 2100-2118.

809 Moritz, S., Wiegand, C. & Wesarg, F., 2014. Active wound dressings based on bacterial
810 nanocellulose as drug delivery system for octenidine. *International Journal of*
811 *Pharmaceutics*, Volume 471, pp. 45-55.

812 Nireesha, G., 2013. Lyophilisation/Freeze Drying - A Review. *International Journal of Novel*
813 *Trends in Pharmaceutical Sciences*, 3(4), pp. 87-98.

814 Nireesha, G. R. et al., 2013. Lyophilisation/Freze drying - A Review. *International Journal of*
815 *Novel Trends in Pharmaceutical Sciences*, 3(4), pp. 87-98.

816 Nunn, T. & Williams, J., 2005. Formulation of medicines for children. *Br. J. Clin.*
817 *Pharmacol*, 59(6), pp. 674-676.

818 Okeke, O. C. & Boateng, J. S., 2016. Composite HPMC and sodium alginate based buccal
819 formulations for nicotine replacement therapy. *Internation Journal of Biological*
820 *Macromolecules*, Volume 91, pp. 31-44.

821 Okeke, O. C. & Boateng, J. S., 2016. Composite HPMC and Sodium Alginate Based Buccal
822 Formulations for Nicotine Replacement Therapy. *International Journal of Biological*
823 *Macromolecules*, Volume 91, pp. 31-44.

824 Pairatwachapun, S., Paradee, N. & Sirivat, A., 2016. Controlled release of acetylic acid from
825 polythiophene/carrageenan hydrogel via electrical stimulation. *Carbohydrate Polymers*,
826 Volume 137, pp. 214-221.

827 Panda, B., Dey, N. & Rao, M., 2012. Development of Innovative Orally Fast Disintegrating
828 Film Dosafe Forms: A Review. *Jornal of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Nanotechnology*,
829 5(2), pp. 1666-1674.

830 Parkash, V. et al., 2011. Fast disintegrating tablets: Opportunity in drug delivery system.
831 *Journal of Advanced Pharmaceutical Technology and Research*, 2(4), pp. 223 - 225.

832 Parkash, V. et al., 2011. Fast Disintegrating Tablets: Opportunity in Drug Delivery System.
833 *Journal of Advanced Pharmaceutical Technology and Research*, 2(4), pp. 223-235.

834 Park, H. & Robinson, J. R., 1985. Physico-chemical properties of water insoluble polymers
835 important to mucin/epithelial adhesion. *J Controlled Release*, Volume 2, pp. 47-57.

836 Patel, V. F., Liu, F. & Brown, M. B., 2012. Modelling the oral cavity: In vitro and in vivo
837 evaluation of buccal delivery systems. *J. Controlled Release*, 161(3), pp. 746-756.

838 Patrignani, P., Filabozzi, P. & Patrono, C., 1982. Selective cumulative inhibition of platelet
839 thromboxane production by low-dose aspirin in healthy subjects. *J Clin Invest*, 69(6), pp.
840 1366-1372.

841 Patrono, C. et al., 2004. Platelet-active drugs: the relationship among dose, effectiveness, and
842 side effects. *The Seventh ACCP Conference on Antithrombotic and Thrombolytic Therapy -*
843 *Chest*, 126(3 (Suppl)), pp. 234S-264S.

844 PBM, 2006. *Guidance for Medication Assessment in Patients with Swallowing (Dysphagia)*
845 *or Feeding Disorders*, s.l.: Pharmacy Benefits Management-Strategic Healthcare Group.

846 Peh, K. K. & Wong, C. F., 1999. Polymeric Films as Vehicle for Buccal Delivery: Swelling,
847 Mechanical and Bioadhesive Properties. *Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Science*,
848 Volume 2, pp. 53-91.

849 Peh, K. K. & Wong, C. F., 1999. Polymeric films as vehicle for buccal delivery: swelling,
850 mechanical and bioadhesive properties. *Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Science*,
851 Volume 2, pp. 53-91.

852 Prasad, K., Kaneko, Y. & Kadokawa, J., 2009. Novel gelling systems of kappa-, iota- and
853 lambda-carrageenans and their composite gels with cellulose using ionic liquid. *Macromol.*
854 *Biosci*, 9(4), pp. 376-382.

855 Rathabone, M. & Hadgraft, J., 1991. Absorption of drugs from the human oral cavity. *Int J.*
856 *Pharm*, Volume 74, pp. 9-24.

857 Renu, Dahiya, J., Jalwal, P. & Singh, B., 2015. Chewable tablets: A comprehensive review.
858 *The Pharma Innovation Journal*, 4(5), pp. 100-105.

859 Ribeiro Costa, J. S., de Oliveira Cruvinel, K. & Oliveira-Nascimento, L., 2019. A mini-
860 review on drug delivery through wafer technology: formulation and manufacturing of buccal
861 and oral lyophilizates. *J Adv Res*, Volume 20, pp. 33-41.

862 Sano, M. et al., 1999. Relationship between Solubility of Chitosan in Alcoholic Solution and
863 Its Gelation. *Chem. Pharm. Bull.*, 47(7), pp. 1044 - 1046.

864 Sattar, M., Sayed, O. M. & Lane, M. E., 2014. Oral Transmucosal Drug Delivery Current
865 Status and Future Prospects. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, Volume 471, pp. 498-
866 506.

867 Semalty, A., Semalty, M. & Nautiyal, U., 2010. Formulation and evaluation of mucoadhesive
868 buccal films of Enalapril Maleate. *Indian J Pharm Sci*, 72(5), pp. 571-575.

869 Shimoyamada, M. et al., 1994. Freezing and Eutectic Points of an Aqueous Amino Acid
870 Solution Containing Ethanol, and the Effect of Ethanol Addition on the Freeze Concentration
871 Process. *Bioscience, Biotechnology, and Biochemistry*, 58(5), pp. 836 - 838.

872 Shin Etsu Chemical, 2005. *Metolose*, s.l.: Shin Etsu Chemical Co., Ltd.

873 Shojaei, A. H., 1998. Buccal mucosa as a route for systemic drug delivery: a review. *J Pharm*
874 *Pharmaceut Sci*, 1(1), pp. 15-30.

875 Shojaei, A. H., 1998. Buccal Mucosa as a Route for Systemic Drug Delivery: A Review.
876 *Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, 1(1), pp. 15-30.

877 Singh, K. K., Robison, D. J. & Pathak, Y. V., 1993. Morphological characterization of
878 maltodextrin derivatives using scanning electron microscopy. *Cells and Materials*, 3(1), pp.
879 45-50.

880 Smart, J., 2005. The basics and underlying mechanisms of mucoadhesion. *Adv Drug Deliv*
881 *Rev*, Volume 57, pp. 1556-1565.

882 Sriamornsak, P., Wattanakom, N., Nunthanid, J. & Puttipipatkachorn, S., 2008.
883 Mucoadhesion of pectin as evidence by wettability and chain interpenetration. *Carbohydrate*
884 *Polymers*, 74(3), pp. 458-467.

885 Sura, L., Madhavan, A., Carnaby, G. & Crary, M. A., 2012. Dysphagia in the elderly:
886 management and nutritional considerations. *Clinical Interventions in Aging*, Volume 7, pp.
887 287-298.

888 Vesey, C., 2018. Bitter to Better: Formulation strategies for effective taste masking. *Tablets*
889 *and Capsules*, pp. 1-5.

890 Zia, K. M. et al., 2017. A review on synthesis, properties and applications of natural polymer
891 based carrageenan blends and composites. *International Journal of Biological*
892 *Macromolecules*, Volume 96, pp. 282-301.

893

894