

formulations as they fine-tuned the release of FD40 in comparison with that of F_{sol} , perhaps because the COL and COL/PEGDM pellets, which cannot permeate the membrane, caused the reservoir solutions to have lower FD40 concentrations, which, in turn, decreased the steepness of the FD40 gradient from the reservoir to the exterior PBS solution. Therefore, the F_{col} and F_{pel} formulations, as sustained drug-release systems, improved the ability to control FD40 release by limiting the rate of FD40 dissolution, with the membrane controlling the diffusion rate via the COL tunnels. Consequently, the release of a drug can be controlled by the COL concentration in the membrane and the drug formulation.

3.3. Release mechanism

To further characterize the FD40 diffusion mechanism, we determined the diffusion coefficients for FD40 through 0.8% (w/v) crosslinked collagen (D_c), PEGDM (D_p), TEGDM (D_t), and water (D_w). D_c , D_p , and D_t were calculated using the FD40 diffusion rates through the gels (Fig. S3), and D_w was calculated using the Stokes–Einstein equation [23]. Because D_c ($45.2 \mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$) was 1000 times larger than D_p ($0.045 \mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$) and was smaller than D_w ($67.9 \mu\text{m}^2/\text{s}$), it appears that FD40 diffused through interconnected COLs in the membranes. If the COLs in the membrane are not interconnected, dead-ends are probably present that would inhibit the rate of drug release to the outside. However, once the COL density increases above a permeation threshold ($>100 \text{ mg COL/ml}$), which was estimated by SEM as noted above (Fig. 2D–F), the COLs should be sufficiently interconnected that the number of dead-ends is reduced, and permeability is thereby increased. Because D_t was zero, FD40 cannot diffuse through the TEGDM reservoir, which enables unidirectional drug release.

3.4. In vitro BDNF release and bioactivity

To evaluate the release of the neurotrophic factor rhBDNF, capsules were filled with COLs that contained the protein and were tightly sealed with a membrane with a COL concentration of 0, 100, 300, or 500 mg/ml (Fig. 4A) presents the zero-order kinetic profiles found for rhBDNF release during a 6-week assay period. Apparently, the release kinetics of rhBDNF can be fine-tuned by varying the concentration of the COLs in a membrane in much the same manner as was found for FD40. Additionally, media that had been preincubated with capsules that contained rhBDNF induced the phosphorylation of mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) in RGC5 cells when incubated with those cells as shown by western

blotting of the cell extracts (Fig. 4B). BDNF is known to upregulate the expression of phosphorylated MAPK in retinal tissue [24]. In the present study, rhBDNF was found to phosphorylate MAPK in RGC5 cells in a dose-dependent manner by incubating the cells with media spiked with rhBDNF (Fig. 4C), which demonstrated that, when released from the capsule, rhBDNF retained its full activity.

Among the known neurotrophic factors, BDNF is the most potent survival factor for damaged retinal ganglion cells [10,25,26]. However, BDNF is currently administered to the retina by intravitreal or subretinal injections in PBS [26], adenovirus vectors containing the BDNF gene [26,27], or genetically modified cells that secrete BDNF [13,28]. Direct injections, however, result in extreme patient discomfort and complications arise caused by repeated injections or surgical procedures [2]. Because our capsule can contain various drug formulations, the encapsulation of the adenovirus vectors and the genetically modified cells might be possible and, as such, would represent a less invasive path than is currently available.

3.5. Implantation study

Our next challenge was to evaluate the capsule's ability to deliver a protein-type drug to the retina via the sclera. Capsules that had a reservoir ($2.6 \times 2.6 \times 0.6 \text{ mm}$) filled with F_{pel} were sutured to the sclerae of three rabbits' left eyes with 10-0 nylon (Fig. 5A). The capsules abutted the sclerae but did not penetrate the conjunctivae or adjacent areas. Fig. 5B shows a fluorescent image of FD40 within a capsule, and Fig. 5C shows the release of FD40 locally at the sclera but not at the conjunctiva. This unidirectional release should reduce drug elimination by conjunctival lymphatic/blood clearance, thereby resulting in more effective delivery to the retina [29]. One month after implantation, the capsules remained sutured and neither the PEGDM of the membranes (Fig. 5D) nor the reservoirs had eroded (Fig. S4). The COLs in the membranes also survived with little biodegradation (Fig. 5D), most likely because the collagen molecules were stabilized by chemical crosslinking [18]. Although the capsules were loosely covered with connective tissue by the end of the trial, they were easily removed from the implant site. Routine ophthalmological examinations showed no eye-related toxic effects. Intense FD40 fluorescence in the sclerae adjacent to the implantation sites was observed (Fig. 5E). Furthermore, FD40 had migrated to the retinal pigment epithelium (RPE) and adjacent regions (Fig. 5F), which indicated that transscleral delivery of FD40 to the retina had been achieved. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report that a macromolecule can be delivered to the

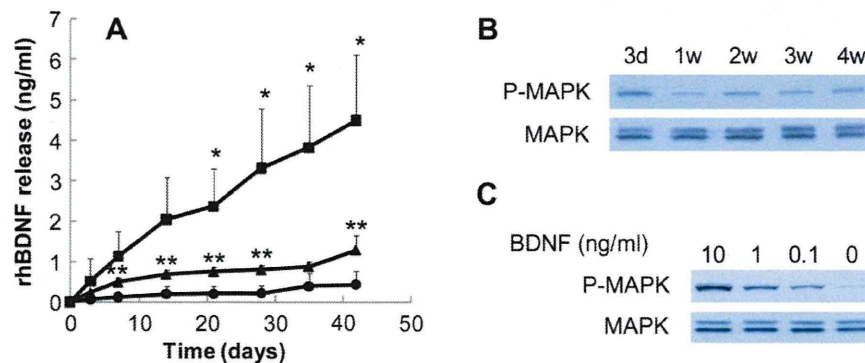


Fig. 4. Release of rhBDNF *in vitro*. (A) rhBDNF-loaded COLs in PBS were added to capsule reservoirs that sealed with a membrane with a COL concentration of 100 mg/ml (circles), 300 mg/ml (triangles), or 500 mg/ml (squares), and the release of rhBDNF was monitored using the reagents of a BDNF-ELISA kit. The release rate of rhBDNF through a PEGDM/COL membrane that contained 100 mg COL/ml was almost the same as one that contained no COLs. Means \pm SDs are shown. * $P < 0.05$ for 300 mg/ml vs. 500 mg/ml ** $P < 0.05$ for 100 mg/ml vs. 300 mg/ml. (B) Western blots of RGC5 cells extracts probed with antibody against phosphorylated MAPK (P-MAPK) and total MAPK. (C) The control study showed that rhBDNF could induce MAPK phosphorylation in RGC5 cells in a dose-dependent manner by incubating the cells with media spiked with rhBDNF.

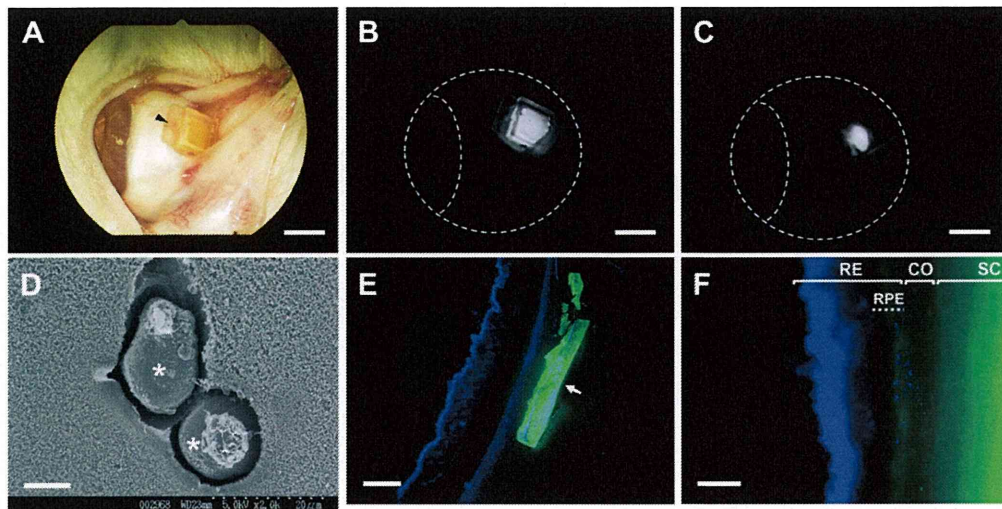


Fig. 5. Episcleral implantation of a capsule. (A) Image of a capsule sutured to the sclera of a rabbit eye 3 days after implantation. An arrowhead indicates the suture site. Fluorescent images around the sclera (B) immediately before and (C) after removal of the capsule 3 days after implantation. Fluorescence is visible as the white areas. (D) SEM image of a COL (asterisks) in the membrane of a used capsule that was removed 1 month after implantation. The COLs were not biodegraded. (E, F) The distribution of FD40 (green) in the retina and sclera around the implantation site 3 days after implantation (arrow: capsule). Cell nuclei were stained with 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (blue). FD40 reached the retinal pigment epithelium. Abbreviations: sclera (SC), retinal pigment epithelium (RPE), choroid (CO), and retina (RE). Bars: 4 mm (A, B, and C), 10 μ m (D), 400 μ m (E), and 100 μ m (F).

retina via a reservoir-based transscleral drug-delivery system, although quantification of the drug distribution still needs to be done. Proteins, as large as 50–75 kDa, penetrate into the choroid/RPE upon periocular injection [30]. Therefore, it may be possible to also deliver BDNF by the transscleral route. Given that the distribution of FD40 was somewhat concentrated at the RPE and adjacent regions, our device may be effective especially for lesions that surround the RPE. The capsule could also be used to deliver anti-angiogenic drugs, e.g., Lucentis and Macugen (for the treatment of age-related macular diseases) [31], to a lesion, e.g., the choroidal neovascular membrane, because delivery by this route will be less invasive and safer than are conventional intravitreal injections. Our non-biodegradable capsule should therefore be suitable for the transscleral delivery of protein-type drugs that require chronic suppressive-maintenance therapy over several weeks or months.

In summary, our capsule design incorporates features, outlined below, that have been absent from intraocular drug-delivery implant systems previously developed. First, the drug release kinetics can be controlled by changing the drug formulation and/or the membrane COL density so that the initial and final bursts are suppressed, which extends the release period. Second, the capsule is a scleral implantable device. To date, two ocular drug-delivery systems, Vitrasert [32] and Retisert [33], which are intravitreal sustained-release implants of ganciclovir and fluocinolone acetonide, respectively, have been marketed. Although these devices release the drugs at relatively constant rates, they must be surgically implanted in and later removed from the vitreous, which may cause complications or patient discomfort. Our capsule can be implanted and removed almost noninvasively by minor surgery. Third, most transscleral drug-delivery systems are designed to deliver low molecular weight drugs; however, ours appears able to deliver drugs of much greater molecular weights, i.e., protein-type drugs. Recent clinical trials and research have shown that many proteins are effective as drugs [9]. However, none of the available devices can deliver protein-type drugs in a controlled-release manner to the retina. Our capsule can be easily modified to accommodate different release rates for protein-type drugs by altering the membrane COL composition and/or drug formulation. Although this report demonstrated the release of only FD40 and BDNF, it should be

possible to load and release low molecular weight drugs, protein-type drugs, and even drugs produced by encapsulated cells. The capsule thus has great potential for use in biomedical applications. Our future work will focus on preclinical animal studies to further assess the safety and effectiveness of the capsule.

4. Conclusion

This study reports the design and testing of a transscleral drug-delivery system that is implantable in the episclera and allows for controlled release of BDNF or other protein-type drugs with zero-order kinetics. Our microfabricated capsule consists of a drug reservoir sealed with a controlled-release membrane that contains interconnected COLs, which are the routes for drug permeation. The drug release kinetics can be controlled by changing the drug formulation and/or the membrane COL density so that the size of the bursts is reduced, which extends the release period. The capsule is designed to contain various drug formulations and dosages, allowing for a wide range of biomedical applications. The device thus has great potential as a conduit for continuous, controlled drug release.

Acknowledgments

This study was supported by the Takeda Science Foundation, the Research for Promoting Technological Seeds from the Japan Science and Technology Agency, and the Tohoku University Exploratory Research Program for Young Scientists, and was partially supported by Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research B (20310070) and for Scientific Research on Priority Areas (21023002, 17659542, 18659508) from the Ministry of Education, Science, and Culture, Japan. Supporting information is available online or from the corresponding author.

Appendix

Figure with essential color discrimination. Fig. 4 of this article have parts that are difficult to interpret in black and white. The full

color image can be found in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.biomaterials.2010.11.006.

Appendix. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found online at doi:10.1016/j.biomaterials.2010.11.006.

References

- [1] Hughes PM, Olejnik O, Chang-Lin JE, Wilson CG. Topical and systemic drug delivery to the posterior segments. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev* 2005;57:2010–32.
- [2] Geroski DH, Edelhauser HF. Transscleral drug delivery for posterior segment disease. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev* 2001;52:37–48.
- [3] Ranta VP, Urtili A. Transscleral drug delivery to the posterior eye: prospects of pharmacokinetic modeling. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev* 2006;58:1164–81.
- [4] Ambati J, Adamis AP. Transscleral drug delivery to the retina and choroid. *Prog Retin Eye Res* 2002;21:145–51.
- [5] Olsen TW, Edelhauser HF, Lim JJ, Geroski DH. Human scleral permeability. Effects of age, cryotherapy, transscleral diode laser, and surgical thinning. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 1995;36:1893–903.
- [6] Myles ME, Neumann DM, Hill JM. Recent progress in ocular drug delivery for posterior segment disease: emphasis on transscleral iontophoresis. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev* 2005;57:2063–79.
- [7] Kunou N, Ogura Y, Yasukawa T, Kimura H, Miyamoto H, Honda Y, et al. Long-term sustained release of ganciclovir from biodegradable scleral implant for the treatment of cytomegalovirus retinitis. *J Control Release* 2000;68:263–71.
- [8] McHugh AJ. The role of polymer membrane formation in sustained release drug delivery systems. *J Control Release* 2005;109:211–21.
- [9] LaVail MM, Unoki K, Yasumura D, Matthes MT, Yancopoulos GD, Steinberg RH. Multiple growth factors, cytokines, and neurotrophins rescue photoreceptors from the damaging effects of constant light. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 1992;89:11249–53.
- [10] Di Polo A, Aigner LJ, Dunn RJ, Bray GM, Aguayo AJ. Prolonged delivery of brain-derived neurotrophic factor by adenovirus-infected Muller cells temporarily rescues injured retinal ganglion cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 1998;95:3978–83.
- [11] Adamus G, Sugden B, Shiraga S, Timmers AM, Hauswirth WW. Anti-apoptotic effects of CNTF gene transfer on photoreceptor degeneration in experimental antibody-induced retinopathy. *J Autoimmun* 2003;21:121–9.
- [12] Faktorovich EG, Steinberg RH, Yasumura D, Matthes MT, LaVail MM. Photoreceptor degeneration in inherited retinal dystrophy delayed by basic fibroblast growth factor. *Nature* 1990;347:83–6.
- [13] Abe T, Yoshida M, Yoshioka Y, Wakusawa R, Tokita-Ishikawa Y, Seto H, et al. Iris pigment epithelial cell transplantation for degenerative retinal diseases. *Prog Retin Eye Res* 2007;26:302–21.
- [14] Kalachandra S. Influence of fillers on the water sorption of composites. *Dent Mater* 1989;5:283–8.
- [15] Hashimoto M, Kaji H, Nishizawa M. Selective capture of a specific cell type from mixed leucocytes in an electrode-integrated microfluidic device. *Biosens Bioelectron* 2009;24:2892–7.
- [16] Lin-Gibson S, Bencherif S, Cooper JA, Wetzel SJ, Antonucci JM, Vogel BM, et al. Synthesis and characterization of PEG dimethacrylates and their hydrogels. *Biomacromolecules* 2004;5:1280–7.
- [17] Weber LM, He J, Bradley B, Haskins K, Anseth KS. PEG-based hydrogels as an in vitro encapsulation platform for testing controlled beta-cell microenvironments. *Acta Biomater* 2006;2:1–8.
- [18] Nagai N, Kumasaka N, Kawashima T, Kaji H, Nishizawa M, Abe T. Preparation and characterization of collagen microspheres for sustained release of VEGF. *J Mater Sci Mater Med* 2010;21:1891–8.
- [19] Meier MM, Kanis LA, Soldi V. Characterization and drug-permeation profiles of microporous and dense cellulose acetate membranes: influence of plasticizer and pore forming agent. *Int J Pharm* 2004;278:99–110.
- [20] Vogelaar L, Lammertink RG, Barsema JN, Nijdam W, Bolhuis-Versteeg LA, van Rijn CJ, et al. Phase separation micromolding: a new generic approach for microstructuring various materials. *Small* 2005;1:645–55.
- [21] Grinberg O, Binderman I, Bahar H, Zilberman M. Highly porous bioresorbable scaffolds with controlled release of bioactive agents for tissue-regeneration applications. *Acta Biomater* 2010;6:1278–87.
- [22] Yoon JJ, Park TG. Degradation behaviors of biodegradable macroporous scaffolds prepared by gas foaming of effervescent salts. *J Biomed Mater Res* 2001;55:401–8.
- [23] Brandl F, Kastner F, Gschwind RM, Blunk T, Tessmar J, Gopferich A. Hydrogel-based drug delivery systems: comparison of drug diffusivity and release kinetics. *J Control Release* 2010;142:221–8.
- [24] Klocker N, Kermer P, Weishaupt JH, Labes M, Ankerhold R, Bahr M. Brain-derived neurotrophic factor-mediated neuroprotection of adult rat retinal ganglion cells in vivo does not exclusively depend on phosphatidylinositol-3'-kinase/protein kinase B signaling. *J Neurosci* 2000;20:6962–7.
- [25] Permet V, Di Polo A. Synergistic action of brain-derived neurotrophic factor and lens injury promotes retinal ganglion cell survival, but leads to optic nerve dystrophy in vivo. *Brain* 2006;129:1014–26.
- [26] Mansour-Robaey S, Clarke DB, Wang YC, Bray GM, Aguayo AJ. Effects of ocular injury and administration of brain-derived neurotrophic factor on survival and regrowth of axotomized retinal ganglion cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 1994;91:1632–6.
- [27] Martin KR, Quigley HA, Zack DJ, Levkovitch-Verbin H, Kielczewski J, Valenta D, et al. Gene therapy with brain-derived neurotrophic factor as a protection: retinal ganglion cells in a rat glaucoma model. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci* 2003;44:4357–65.
- [28] Harper MM, Adamson L, Blits B, Bunge MB, Grozdanic SD, Sakaguchi DS. Brain-derived neurotrophic factor released from engineered mesenchymal stem cells attenuates glutamate- and hydrogen peroxide-mediated death of staurosporine-differentiated RGC-5 cells. *Exp Eye Res* 2009;89:538–48.
- [29] Robinson MR, Lee SS, Kim H, Kim S, Lutz RJ, Galban C, et al. A rabbit model for assessing the ocular barriers to the transscleral delivery of triamcinolone acetonide. *Exp Eye Res* 2006;82:479–87.
- [30] Demetriades AM, Deering T, Liu H, Lu L, Gehlbach P, Packer JD, et al. Transscleral delivery of antiangiogenic proteins. *J Ocul Pharmacol Ther* 2008;24:70–9.
- [31] Wong TY, Liew G, Mitchell P. Clinical update: new treatments for age-related macular degeneration. *Lancet* 2007;370:204–6.
- [32] Sanborn GE, Anand R, Torti RE, Nightingale SD, Cal SX, Yates B, et al. Sustained-release ganciclovir therapy for treatment of cytomegalovirus retinitis. Use of an intravitreal device. *Arch Ophthalmol* 1992;110:188–95.
- [33] Jaffe GJ, Martin D, Callanan D, Pearson PA, Levy B, Comstock T. Fluocinolone acetonide implant (Retisert) for noninfectious posterior uveitis: thirty-four-week results of a multicenter randomized clinical study. *Ophthalmology* 2006;113:1020–7.

