Local drug delivery to the entire cochlea without breaching its boundaries

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GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

SUMMARY

The mammalian cochlea is one of the least accessible organs for drug delivery. Systemic

administration of many drugs is severely limited by the blood-labyrinth barrier. Local

intratympanic administration into the middle ear would be a preferable option in this case and

the only option for many old and newly emerging classes of drugs but it leads to base-to-apex

drug concentration gradients that are orders of magnitude and well outside the therapeutic

windows. Here we present an efficient, quick, reliable and simple method of cochlear pumping,

through large amplitude, low-frequency reciprocal oscillations of the stapes and round window

that can consistently and uniformly deliver drugs along the entire length of the intact cochlea

within minutes without disrupting cochlear boundaries. The method should facilitate novel

ways of approaching the treatment of inner ear disorders since we have overcome the challenge

of delivering of therapeutics along the entire length of the cochlea.

KEYWORDS: cochlea, round window, drug delivery, intratympanic administration, cochlear

pumping

INTRODUCTION

Reliable, efficient and uniform drug delivery to the cochlea remains an unsolved challenge and is a major barrier to the prevention or treatment of inner ear disorders. The mammalian cochlea is one of the least accessible organs for drug delivery (Salt and Plontke, 2009; Rivera et al., 2012; El Kechai et al., 2015; Hao and Li, 2019). Systemic administration of many drugs, notably the most frequently used corticosteroids and aminoglycoside antibiotics, is severely limited by the blood-labyrinth barrier (Salt and Hirose, 2018). Direct injection into the cochlea is limited by the requirement for surgery for access and does not guarantee uniform drug delivery along the cochlea.

Several potential therapeutic compounds to treat inner ear disorders are under clinical investigation. This comprises old and newly emerging classes of drugs and therapies including corticosteroids, local anaesthetics, antioxidants, apoptosis inhibitors, neurotransmitters and their antagonists, monoclonal antibodies, growth factors, signalling pathway regulators and genetic material (see Devare et al., 2018; Hao and Li, 2019). A recent review identified 43 biotech companies currently pursuing experimental compounds for inner ear therapy (Schilder et al., 2019). All such efforts are, however, restricted by our inability to reliably deliver such compounds into the cochlea.

Intratympanic administration of drugs (Schuknecht, 1956) relies on their remaining in contact with the round window (RW) (a membranous opening in the bony wall of the cochlear into the middle ear) long enough to allow their diffusion into the perilymph of the scala tympani (ST). The ability of drugs to pass through the RW does not, however, guarantee their effective distribution along the cochlear spiral. Drug distribution in the ST is limited by the low flow rate of perilymph within the cochlea and by cochlear geometry. The longitudinal flow of perilymph in the cochlea has been shown to be relatively slow, if present at all (Ohyama et al., 1988), and drug distribution in the perilymph is dominated by passive diffusion. Passive

diffusion along the ST is, however, constrained because the cochlea is a relatively long and

narrow tube with a cochlear cross-section that decreases gradually from the RW at the base to

the apex.

Direct measurements of the distribution of marker ions and contrasting agents (Saijo and

Kimura, 1984; Salt and Ma, 2001; Haghpanahi et al., 2013), corticosteroids (Hargunani et al.,

2006; Plontke et al., 2008; Grewal et al., 2013; Creber et al., 2018) and antibiotics (Imamura

and Adams, 2003; Mynatt et al., 2006; Plontke et al., 2007) or measurements of the

physiological effects of drugs (Chen et al., 2005; Borkholder et al., 2010) have demonstrated

that the concentration of substances applied to the RW is much higher in the cochlear base than

in the apex.

A large number of methods, including intracochlear administration, cochleostomy and

canalostomy, have been proposed for solving the problem of uniform drug distribution along

the cochlea but only two current strategies address this problem without breaching the

boundaries of the intact cochlea (e.g. see El Kechai et al., 2015). The first strategy relies on

retaining drugs in contact with the RW to allow drug diffusion into the cochlea apex. Notable

examples of devices designed for this purpose include Microwicks, osmotic pumps etc.

Hydrogel-based drug delivery systems also allow retention of therapeutics in the middle ear in

contact with the RW. The problem with this strategy is that retention of drugs at the RW leads

to their establishing steady-state concentration gradients along the cochlea which depend on

the relationship between diffusion and clearing (Salt and Ma, 2001; Sadreev et al., 2019), but

the base-to-apex gradients can still be very pronounced.

The second strategy, although relatively non-invasive to the cochlea, requires development of

more complex drug formulations. The technique employs drug loaded nanoparticles, which

could be used to take advantage of anatomical and cellular feature of the cochlea which enable

drug uptake through routes and pathways other than the ST route (Buckiová et al., 2012;

Glueckert et al., 2018). Magnetically driven, drug-loaded magnetic nanoparticle can also be

actively distributed along the entire cochlea (Ramaswamy et al., 2017).

Here we demonstrate that cochlear pumping, through pressure oscillations in the ear canal at

frequencies low enough to avoid damage to the cochlear sensory apparatus, can consistently

and uniformly deliver drugs along the entire length of the intact cochlea within minutes without

disrupting cochlear boundaries.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Cochlear pumping at low frequencies does not cause elevation of hearing thresholds

When inaudible low-frequency air pressure oscillations are presented at the ear canal, they are

transmitted to the stapes which causes back and forth cochlear fluid movements through the

scala vestibuli (SV) and ST coupled via helicotrema (Graphical Abstract). The RW works as a

pressure relief valve during these movements and moves in counter phase with the stapes

because the cochlear bony wall and fluid are poorly compressible. The low-frequency pressure

changes within the cochlea are, however, shunted by the helicotrema and do not, cause

stimulation of the sensory apparatus. In fact, shunting of low-frequency perilymph flow, which

occurs for example during middle ear muscle reflex, thereby preventing cochlear

overstimulation, is the previse role of the helicotrema (von Békésy, 1960). The high-frequency

slope of the helicotrema mechanical filter is not, however, infinitely steep (6 dB/octave in

guinea pigs and 12 dB/octave in humans (Marquardt et al., 2007)) and the choice of CP

frequency for drug delivery is critical to prevent cochlear damage. In our experiments, low-

frequency air pressure oscillations applied to the ear canal at 4 Hz, which caused large

amplitude (~ 80 µm peak-to-peak) stapes displacement, did not elevate the threshold of the

compound action potential (CAP) of the auditory nerve (Figure 1A).

FIGURE 1. Effect of the CP on the neural responses in the absence and presence of salicylate on the RW.

(A) CAP threshold curves in the presence of the CP alone. Pressure oscillations at 4 Hz that caused ~ 80 µm peak-to-peak stapes displacement were applied to the ear canal during 5 minutes before each non-zero time point plotted and the CAP thresholds were measure during the following 5-minute interval without cochlear pumping. The legend indicates the cumulative pumping time for each curve. Solid black line indicates mean ± SD for all 7 curves, each representing a different cumulative pumping time.

(B) A representative examples of CAP threshold elevation when the same pumping protocol as in (A) was used after the application of 5 µl of 100 mM salicylate solution to the RW at time zero and recovery of the thresholds after washing out the salicylate. The frequency of the pure tone acoustic stimulation used for eliciting the CAP is indicated in the figure legend for each curve.

Cochlear pumping promotes even distribution of drugs along the cochlear spiral

The ability to distribute drugs uniformly along the entire cochlea spiral using relatively large,

low-frequency periodic displacement of fluid in the ST and SV (Graphical Abstract) was

demonstrated in our experiments with application of salicylate to the RW. Salicylate readily

passes through the RW (Borkholder et al., 2014; Sadreev et al., 2019). To monitor salicylate

diffusion along an intact guinea pig cochlea *in vivo*, we utilized the suppressive effect of

salicylate on cochlear amplification via block of the outer hair cell somatic motility (Russell

and Schauz, 1995; Hallworth, 1997). We measured elevation of the CAP thresholds caused by

salicylate at different frequencies, which, due to cochlear tonotopicity, corresponds to different

distances from the RW (Greenwood, 1990).

FIGURE 2. Comparison of the efficiency of the CP technique and passive diffusion in the distribution of salicylate along the cochlea.

Pooled data for experiments with CP (red symbols, 5 preparations) and passive diffusion (black symbols, 5 preparations (Sadreev et al., 2019). Pressure oscillations at 4 Hz were applied to the ear canal during 5 minutes before each red non-zero time point plotted to cause large-amplitude (~ 80 µm peak-to-peak) stapes movement and the CAP thresholds were measure during the following 5-minute interval without pressure oscillation. Frequency of acoustic stimulation is indicated within each panel. 5 µl of 100 mM salicylate solution was applied to the RW at time zero. Solid red lines indicate mean CP data and solid black lines indicate 5-point running averages for passive diffusion data. Grey lines near the horizontal axis indicate statistically significant (p < 0.05, unpaired t-test) differences between data for the CP and passive diffusion within consecutive 10-minute intervals. Some of the passive diffusion data have been presented before (Sadreev et al., 2019).

Salicylate did not cause elevation of the CAP threshold responses for frequencies below 5 kHz,

which corresponds to about 45% of the total cochlear length from the base, when it diffused

through the cochlea passively (Sadreev et al., 2019). The calculated gradient of base-to-apex

salicylate concentration was about 13 orders of magnitude. When, however, placement of

salicylate solution on the RW was followed by cochlear pumping, i.e. by 5-minute cycles of

large-amplitude (80 µm peak-to-peak), low-frequency (4 Hz) stapes movements caused by

pressure oscillations in the ear canal, the CAP threshold was elevated throughout the entire 1

kHz - 30 kHz frequency range tested (Figures 1B, 2A-F, 3). This corresponds to about 75% of

the total cochlear length from the base (Greenwood, 1990). Partial recovery of the CAP

thresholds after washing out salicylate from the RW (Figure 1B) provided confirmation that

the integrity of the sensory cells was preserved and the threshold elevation after joint salicylate

application and CP was not caused by the low-frequency pressure oscillations (Figure 1A).

The technique had no observable influence, compared to passive diffusion, on responses to RW

salicylate application for locations close to the RW at the base of the cochlea (27 kHz, Figure

2A). Cochlear pumping, however, led to more rapid threshold elevation for locations which

were distal and apical to the RW, even if the maximal threshold elevations were similar for

both experimental paradigms (15 kHz, Figure 2B). The threshold elevation saturated after 4-5

cycles of stimulation even for the low frequencies of the most apical locations (Figure 1B, 2E-

F) where passive diffusion produced no effect. Smaller threshold elevations at low frequencies

were due only to the reduced contribution of cochlear amplification to cochlear responses at

these frequencies (Sadreev et al., 2019, Robles and Ruggero, 2001) and, in fact, reached almost

maximal possible elevations for those frequencies (Figure 3).

A stapes displacement of 80 µm in our experiments corresponds to 1.6 mm linear displacement

of the fluid in the apical parts of ST, because in guinea pigs the apical ST cross-sectional area

is almost 20 times smaller (Thorne et al., 1999) than the stapes area (Sim et al., 2013) and both

the cochlear bony wall and fluid are poorly compressible. Therefore, while salicylate effect in

the most apical 25% of the cochlear length was not measured due to poor hearing sensitivity

of guinea pigs below 1 kHz, most of the fluid in this region was replaced by fluid from more

basal regions during a single cycle of cochlear pumping. Hence, estimates of salicylate

distribution derived for the basal regions are valid for the most apical 25% of the cochlea.

FIGURE 3. Comparison of frequency dependence of the CP and passive diffusion effects.

Frequency dependence of the CAP threshold elevation after 60 minutes of salicylate application during cochlear pumping (35 minutes of the total pumping time) (mean±SD, n=5) and its comparison with the frequency dependence for passive diffusion (mean±SD, n=5). Open circles show maximal increase of the CAP thresholds after complete block of the cochlear amplifier (Sadreev et al., 2019). Data for passive diffusion have been partially presented before (Sadreev et al., 2019).

Tentative physical mechanisms of drug mixing and distribution during cochlear pumping

The cochlear bony wall and fluid are poorly compressible. The poor compressibility results in

the fluid volume velocity along the SV and ST to be the same. Consequently, fluid linear

displacement and velocity are much higher in the narrow apical parts of the scalae than at the

base. Specifically, the apical ST cross-sectional area in guinea pigs is almost 20 times smaller

than in the basal cochlear region (it is almost 6 times smaller in humans) (Thorne et al., 1999).

This proportional increase in the fluid displacement and velocity will facilitate distribution of

a drug, which originally diffuses through the RW and oval window into the cochlear base,

along the entire cochlea.

The larger fluid linear velocity at the apex is still not sufficient to cause turbulent mixing of

drugs. Due to the small diameter of the cochlear scalae, the fluid flow along them is dominated

by fluid viscosity (i.e. it occurs at low Reynolds numbers). Thus, the fluid flow is laminar even

over uneven inner surface (Cervo et al., 2013) of the scalae and turbulent mixing will not

contribute to uniform drug distribution. However, the cochlear helical structure (Graphical

Abstract) should lead to additional drug mixing due to the formation of Dean vortexes (e.g.

Nivedita et al., 2017) and to chaotic mixing/advection, both transversal and longitudinal,

observed for laminar fluid flows in helical pipes (Jones et al., 1989; Nguyen, 2011), which can

be further facilitated by periodic changes of the flow direction (Ottino and Wiggins, 2004).

Therefore, under specific condition of cochlear stimulation, these mechanisms may well be

major factors contributing to the mixing and distribution of drugs along the ST and SV.

The tentative physical principles which govern the uniform distribution of salicylate along the

cochlea are universal and should be valid for the distribution of an arbitrary substance,

including nanoparticles, in the human cochlea. Salicylate was used in these initial experiments

because of its well-documented physiological effect which allows estimation of the drug

distribution along the intact cochlea without sampling perilymph. It was also used because it

challenged the CP method. Salicylate is a difficult drug to distribute along the cochlea because

it is cleared rapidly from the ST (Sadreev et al., 2019). It is anticipated that drugs, which are

better retained in the ST, will be redistributed along the cochlea even more quickly and

efficiently (Salt and Ma, 2001; Sadreev et al., 2019).

ETHICS STATEMENT

All procedures involving animals were performed in accordance with UK Home Office regulations with approval from the University of Brighton Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Body.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

A.L., N.Z., Y.Y. and I.R. conceived and designed the study. A.L. performed the experiments. A.L. and I.S. analyzed experimental results. All authors contributed to analysis and discussion of the results. A.L. and I.R. wrote the manuscript with contribution from all authors.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

A.L., N.Z. and Y.Y. are inventors on a United Kingdom Patent Application No. 1908260.1 submitted by The University of Brighton that covers method and device for substance delivery to the inner ear. N.Z. is employed by the company Otophysica Ltd, Uckfield, UK. The remaining authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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METHODS

Animals

Animal preparation and signal generation and recording have been described elsewhere

(Burwood et al., 2017). Briefly, pigmented guinea pigs of similar weight (350-360 g) and both

sexes were anaesthetised with the neurolept anaesthetic technique (0.06 mg/kg body weight

atropine sulphate s.c., 30 mg/kg pentobarbitone i.p., 500 μl/kg Hypnorm i.m.). Additional

injections of Hypnorm were given every 40 minutes. Additional doses of pentobarbitone were

administered as needed to maintain a non-reflexive state. The heart rate was monitored with a

pair of skin electrodes placed on both sides of the thorax. The animals were tracheotomized

and artificially respired with a mixture of O_2/CO_2, and their core temperature was maintained

at 38°C with a heating blanket and a heated head holder. All procedures involving animals

were performed in accordance with UK Home Office regulations with approval from the

University of Brighton Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Body.

Signal generation and recording

The middle ear cavity of the ear used for the measurements and salicylate application was

opened to reveal the RW. Compound action potentials (CAPs) of the auditory nerve in response

to pure tone stimulation were measured from the cochlear bony ridge in the proximity of the

RW membrane using Teflon-coated silver wire coupled to laboratory designed and built

extracellular amplifier (James Hartley). Thresholds of the N1 peak of the CAP at different

frequencies which corresponds to different distances from the cochlear base (Greenwood,

1990) were estimated visually using 10 ms pure tone stimuli at a repetition rate of 10 Hz.

For acoustic stimulation sound was delivered to the tympanic membrane by a closed acoustic

system comprising two Bruel and Kjaer 4134 ½" microphones for delivering tones and a single

Bruel and Kjaer 4133 ½" microphone for monitoring sound pressure at the tympanum. The

microphones were coupled to the ear canal via 1 cm long, 4 mm diameter tubes to a conical

speculum, the 1 mm diameter opening of which was placed about 1 mm from the tympanum.

The speculum was sealed in the ear canal. The closed sound system was calibrated in situ for

frequencies between 1 and 50 kHz. Known sound pressure levels were expressed in dB SPL re

2×10^{-5} Pa.

All acoustic stimuli in this work were shaped with raised cosines of 0.5 ms duration at the

beginning and at the end of stimulation. White noise for acoustical calibration and tone

sequences for auditory stimulation were synthesised by a Data Translation 3010 board at 250

kHz and delivered to the microphones through low-pass filters (100 kHz cut-off frequency).

Signals from the acoustic measuring amplifier (James Hartley) were digitised at 250 kHz using

the same board and averaged in the time domain. Experimental control, data acquisition and

data analysis were performed using a PC with programmes written in MATLAB (MathWorks,

MA).

Salicylate application

5 μl of 100 mM sodium salicylate solution in Hanks' Balanced Salt Solution were placed on

the RW using pipettes. The solution was removed from the RW using paper wicks to observe

the wash out effect.

Generation of pressure oscillations in the ear canal

348 A modified mouse ventilator MiniVent Type 845 (Hugo Sachs Elektronik, March, Germany)

349 was used to generate oscillating air pressure in the ear canal. Output of the ventilator was

350 connected and sealed to the closed acoustic system. The stroke frequency (4 Hz) and stroke

351 volume (150 µl) were the same for the all experiments reported. The stroke volume was

352 maximized to achieve maximum stapes displacement limited only by the crista stapedius.

Recording of stapes vibrations

354 Stapes vibrations were recorded using a CLV-2534 laser vibrometer (Polytec GmbH,

355 Waldbronn, Germany). The laser beam was focussed onto the stapes head. The output voltage

356 from the vibrometer was low-pass filtered at 100 kHz, with a sensitivity of 5 mm/s/V. Stapes

357 displacement was found by integrating the velocity responses off-line.