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1 **INNOVATIVE PHARMACEUTICAL APPROACHES FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF**  
2  
3 **INNER EAR DISORDERS**  
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1 **Abstract**

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3 The sense of hearing is essential for permitting human beings to interact with the environment and its dysfunctions can  
4 strongly impact on the quality of life. In this context, the cochlea plays a fundamental role in the transformation of the  
5 airborne sound waves into electrical signals, which can be processed by the brain. However, several diseases and external  
6 stimuli (*e.g.*, noise, drugs) can damage the sensorineural structures of cochlea, inducing progressive hearing dysfunctions  
7 until deafness. In clinical practice, the current pharmacological approaches to treat cochlear diseases are based on the almost  
8 exclusive use of systemic steroids. In the last decades, the efficacy of novel therapeutic molecules has been proven, taking  
9 advantage from a better comprehension of the pathological mechanisms underlying many cochlear diseases. In addition, the  
10 feasibility of intra-tympanic administration of drugs also permitted to overcome the pharmacokinetic limitations of the  
11 systemic drug administration, opening new frontiers in drug delivery to cochlea. Several innovative drug delivery systems,  
12 such as *in situ* gelling systems or nanocarriers, were designed and their efficacy has been proven *in vitro* and *in vivo* cochlear  
13 models. The current review aims to describe the art of state in the cochlear drug delivery, highlighting lights and shadows  
14 and discussing the most critical aspects still pending in the field.  
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24 **Keywords:**

25 Hearing, inner ear, cochlear dysfunctions, drug, nanocarrier, *in situ* gelling system  
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# 1 Introduction

The hearing is one of the most important senses of a human body, since it is strongly involved in the ability of humans to communicate each other. Airborne sounds are collected by a complex anatomical structure, the ear, and translated into electrical signals, which are sent to the occipital lobes of the brain to be processed. According to its anatomy, the ear is conventionally divided in three parts: the outer, middle and inner ear. The cochlea is the part of inner ear dedicated to the hearing; taking advantage from its snail-shell-like structure, it can convert the mechanical stimuli coming from the middle ear to electrical signals.

The cochlea functionality may be affected by external stimuli (*e.g.*, loud sounds), infections and diseases, which induce alterations of hearing (*e.g.*, tinnitus) and/or reduction of hearing capacity until hearing loss [1, 2]. However, few medicinal products are currently authorized for cochlear indication in humans [3, 4]. Efficacious drug concentration in the cochlea cannot be easily reached due to the ear anatomy. Similarly, the local drug administration through the outer ear cannot be provided, due to the vacuum space in the middle ear. To overcome this limitation, intra-tympanic and intra-cochlear injections are the only possibilities to locally administer therapeutics [4]. In this context, the most promising approaches to improve the drug concentration at the therapeutic site or to decrease the dose regimen appear *in situ* gelling systems, or nanosystems for delivering drugs and macromolecules. The need to develop drug delivery systems and novel techniques of administration by these routes is also associated with the identification of novel therapeutic candidates and the study of the cochlear drug distribution.

Based on these premises, the review describes the most critical features of the anatomy and physiology of the inner ear that should be taken in consideration during the design of drug delivery systems intended to be administered by the intra-tympanic route. The *in vitro* and *in vivo* efficacy of several drug substances and drug delivery systems in restoring the physiological functionality of cochlea are discussed based on the articles found in PubMed and Scopus databases. The analysis of information on cochlear implants, other medical devices and available diagnostic tools is outside the aim of the review. However, the reader can refer to other reviews available in literature [5, 6, 7, 8].

## 2 Anatomy of inner ear

The ear structure is conventionally divided in three parts: the outer, middle and inner ear (Figure 1). The outer ear is formed by the auricle, which is the external part of the ear, and the ear channel. Directly in contact with the external environment, this structure amplifies and directs the sound waves from the air to the tympanic membrane, also called eardrum. Placed as separation of the outer ear to the middle ear (*i.e.*, tympanic cavity), the eardrum is a complex membrane formed by three different tissue layers [9] It is enough flexible to vibrate when stimulated by the sound waves and to translate them in mechanical movements to three ossicles that are in the tympanic cavity: the *malleus*, the *incus* and the *stapes*. The function of these bones is to transfer the mechanical signals induced by the *tympanum* vibration to the oval window, one of the two openings between the middle and the inner ear. Since the oval window membrane (OWM) is smaller than the tympanic membrane, the vibrations induced by the ossicles movements result amplified when arrive in the inner ear. The cochlea is the part of the inner ear where the mechanical stimuli are translated into electrical signals and, then, sent through the auditory nerves to the occipital lobe of the brain for being processed. High frequencies are detected in the basal region of the cochlea

1 (max 20,000 Hz), whereas low frequencies (100 Hz) near to the *helicotrema*, which is the apical part of cochlea [10]. The  
2 cochlear system can absolve this complex function taking advantage from a snail-shell-like structure that includes three  
3 compartments: the *scala vestibuli*, the *scala media* and the *scala tympani*. The *scala vestibuli* is in direct contact to the  
4 OWM and is filled by perilymph, an extracellular fluid with a composition of electrolytes like plasma. The perilymph  
5 volume corresponds to the 90% of the total fluid space of cochlea ( $\approx 84 \mu\text{L}$ ) [11]. The *scala tympani* originates from the  
6 *scala vestibuli* near to the *helicotrema* and ends at the round window, the second opening of the inner ear to the cavity of  
7 middle ear. The *scala media* is located between the two other compartments and contains the organ of Corti, which is the  
8 sensory organ of the hearing. The *scala media* is separated from the *scala vestibuli* by the Reissner's membrane and from  
9 the *scala tympani* by the basal membrane. Unlike other cavities, the *scala media* is filled by endolymph, which differs from  
10 perilymph of the higher concentration of potassium ions and the lower of sodium [12]. The different composition of  
11 perilymph and endolymph guarantees a positive electric potential of 80-90 mV. The conservation of such electric potential  
12 is essential for the correct transduction of mechanical waves in electrical signals and is guaranteed by the negligible  
13 permeability of both the Reissner's and basal membranes and the existence of a sophisticated barrier between endolymph  
14 and blood given by the *stria vascularis* [13]. Indeed, the blood-cochlear barrier, which is likely the blood-brain barrier, is  
15 constituted by a continuous capillary endothelium characterized by tight junctions and no fenestrations. The organ of Corti  
16 located near the basal membrane of the *scala media*, is formed by the tectorial membrane, the supporting cells and the hair  
17 cells. The last ones are sensorial cells characterized by the presence of stereocilia in the apical surface and connected to  
18 nerve synapsis at the basal surface.

19 When the sound waves induce the stapes movements, the generated perilymphatic waves transfer the vibrations to the basal  
20 membrane. The movement of the basal membrane determines the reduction of the gap between the hair cells and the tectorial  
21 membrane so that the deflection of stereocilia opens specific mechanical sensitive potassium ion channels in the apical part  
22 of the hair cells. The consequent depolarization and repolarization of hair cells permit the translation of the fluid wave  
23 movements into electrical signals, which are transferred through nerves to brain for being processed as sounds.

### 3 Cochlear diseases and cellular therapeutic targets

24 Considering the fine structures involved in the hearing process, several pathological mechanisms may cause an impairment  
25 on the functionality of cochlea. Indeed, infections [14], drugs [1], autoimmune diseases [15, 16], loud sounds [17 18], and  
26 other external stimuli [19] can affect its ability to transfer the mechanical signals induced by airborne sound waves and to  
27 process them in electrical stimuli.

28 Infections are the most common diseases of the outer and middle ear because they are connected to the external environment  
29 and the oral cavity via Eustachian tube, respectively. Otitis media is one of the most frequent disease in infants and children  
30 [14]. Taking advantages from the differences in anatomical angles of Eustachian tubes of infants and children with respect  
31 to adults, bacteria of the oral cavity can colonize the cavity of middle ear inducing an inflammatory response. Besides the  
32 inflammation symptomatology, pain and risk of eardrum perforation [14], the otitis media can also cause sensorineural  
33 hearing loss and an enlargement of endolymphatic spaces, the so-called endolymphatic hydrops [20]. These cochlear  
34 complications seem related to the permeation through the round window membrane (RWM) of molecules and bactericidal

1 agents that can be ototoxic [21]. Indeed, several drugs are demonstrated to induce temporary or permanent cochlear  
2 dysfunctions, resulting in hearing loss [1]. Aminoglycoside antibiotics (*e.g.*, streptomycin, gentamicin), nonsteroidal anti-  
3 inflammatory drugs (*e.g.*, salicylates), loop diuretics (*e.g.*, furosemide) and chemotherapy agents (*i.e.*, cisplatin and  
4 carboplatin) can alter the functionality of hair cells, although the toxic mechanism may vary according to the drug class.  
5 For instance, aminoglycoside antibiotics and cisplatin induce an imbalance in the reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the hair  
6 cell cytoplasm [22] and the activation of apoptosis pathways [23, 24]. The ototoxicity of furosemide is due to the interference  
7 with the enzymes involved in the ion transport in the *stria vascularis*, disrupting the barrier properties and altering the  
8 endolymph composition with a decrease of the endolymphatic potential [1].

9 The ROS balance can be also modified by stressful external stimuli, such as loud sounds and chronic noise exposure [17].  
10 High levels of noise weight on the mitochondrial respiratory process of hair cells, producing an excess of free radicals able  
11 to alter the cytoplasmic redox balance [25]. In addition, several evidences also suggested that high-frequency sounds impact  
12 negatively on the *stria vascularis* functionality [17, 26], inducing a decrease of the endolymphatic potential [18]. Besides  
13 the above-mentioned therapeutic targets, different types of ion channels resulted involved in the regulation of ionic fluxes  
14 around cochlea [12]. Potassium voltage-gated ion channels (*e.g.*, Kv3) and glutamate receptors are one of the most studied  
15 classes for restoring physiological electrical signaling from hair cells to neurons. Indeed, the former channels are directly  
16 involved in the repolarization of hair cells [27], whereas the latter ones are overstimulated in stressful conditions (*e.g.*, noise,  
17 drugs), inducing a massive calcium influx in neurons [28]. Moreover, nicotinic receptors can be potential candidates for  
18 limiting the toxic effects induced by noise [29]. Nicotinic cholinergic receptors, (*i.e.*,  $\alpha 9\alpha 10$  type) are present on the basal  
19 surface of hair cells, near to the synapses of the olivocochlear neurons. These neurons are involved in the amplification of  
20 sound signaling recorded by hair cells. They can positively modulate the sensitivity of hair cells for sounds, separating them  
21 from the background noise and protecting from loud sounds. The activation of  $\alpha 9\alpha 10$  receptors increases the intracellular  
22 calcium concentration, inducing the inhibition of hair cells [30]. The blockage of these receptors can also meliorate the  
23 control of tinnitus, which is an auditory phantom sensation of ringing in the ears recognized as one of the first clinical signs  
24 of damage of the cochlear system [31, 32].

25 The hearing process can be also affected by immune-mediated diseases [15, 16] and other pathologies with elusive etiology  
26 [2]. Among them, Ménière's disease affects both the vestibular and the cochlear part of inner ear. Its physiopathology seems  
27 to be related to the dysfunction in the endolymph homeostasis resulting in the endolymphatic hydrops [33]. The mechanical  
28 stress induced by the increase in endolymph volume is toxic for the organ of Corti, inducing sensorineural hearing loss and  
29 tinnitus. Although the etiopathological mechanism is still unclear, literature evidences suggest an abnormal reduction of  
30 endolymph clearance mediated by vasopressin [34]. Indeed, such a hormone controls in physiological conditions the water  
31 movements through the endolymphatic sac and the *stria vascularis* by the modulation of aquaporin expression due to the  
32 activation of vasopressin type 2 receptors [35, 36].

#### 33 **4 Pharmacokinetics in cochlea and route of administrations**

34 The topical and systemic administration of drugs in the cochlea presents several criticisms due to the peculiar anatomical  
35 and histological structures. Indeed, the local drug administration in outer ear results only effective for treating diseases of  
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1 the outer and middle ear, without reaching therapeutic drug concentrations in cochlear compartments (*e.g.*, perilymph,  
2 endolymph) due to the presence of the vacuum of tympanic cavity. The systemic administration presents some issues in the  
3 drug distribution. Firstly, the distribution volume of cochlea is limited in comparison to the other physiological  
4 compartments, requiring an increase of the administered dose to reach efficacious levels in the *scala media*. Secondly, the  
5 blood-perilymph barrier given by the *stria vascularis* can also limit the drug distribution in the cochlea [13]. Large and  
6 highly charged molecules cannot permeate this barrier, especially in the case of positive charged molecules due to the  
7 endolymph potentials [13]. Therefore, the design of a local drug delivery systems is highly desired [5]. Intracochlear drug  
8 delivery systems are intended to be injected directly into the cochlear fluids bypassing the absorption step, but their design  
9 is critical due to the risk of perilymph leakage from the injection hole and the possible access to the cerebrospinal fluid [37].  
10 Conversely, the intra-tympanic administration seems to be more promising because of the drug product is deposited in the  
11 tympanic cavity near to the RWM niche. Although RWM seems to be the main gate of access of drugs to the cochlea from  
12 the middle ear, some studies suggested that drug amount could also reach the cochlea via OWM [5, 38]. Thus, it is worthy  
13 of underline that an intra-tympanic drug delivery system should be designed in order to improve the resistance time in the  
14 tympanic cavity and to facilitate the drug permeation process through RWM or OWM [5]. Analogously to the eardrum, the  
15 RWM is formed by three layers: an outer epithelium in contact with the middle ear cavity, a connective layer and a squamous  
16 epithelium facing the inner ear [21]. The OWM has a similar histology as well. Despite its complex structure, some studies  
17 conducted *in vivo* on animal models suggested that RWM acted as semipermeable membrane. Traces of different types of  
18 drugs (*e.g.*, antibiotics, toxin, albumin, anesthetics), or micro- and nano-particles could be found in the cochlear fluids after  
19 an intra-tympanic injection [39-42]. The overall results suggested that several physical or chemical proprieties of molecules  
20 or particles could influence the permeation through the RWM via intercellular pathways. The higher the particle size (or the  
21 molecular volume), the lower the penetration rate; whereas cationic molecules seem to permeate through the RWM better  
22 than anionic ones [41, 43]. In addition, recent published evidences suggested that drug/nanosystem permeation process  
23 could be also promoted by endocytosis pathways at the surface of epithelial layer of RWM or OWM [5]. Once a molecule  
24 or a particle is in the perilymph, it can reach all the cochlear compartments by passive diffusion through the perilymphatic  
25 fluid and partitioning through the cochlear tissues in the different *scala*. For a more complete description of the  
26 pharmacokinetic model of cochlea, the reader is invited to refer to works of Salt and co-workers [4, 44].

## 45 **5 Therapeutic molecules**

46 The gold standard in the clinical management of cochlear diseases remains the intra-tympanic or systemic administration  
47 of steroids [44, 45]. Dexamethasone is currently recommended in the treatment of several diseases, such as Ménière's  
48 disease [45], endolymphatic hydrops [46], tinnitus [47] and sudden sensorineural hearing loss [3]. However, the efficacy of  
49 both local and systemic steroids in treating cochlear diseases is still matter of debate in medical community, since it has not  
50 always supported by extensive and univocal clinical evidences [3, 48, 49].

51 In the last decades, many efforts were made to propose strategies for preventing the ototoxicity induced by drugs and  
52 regenerating the sensorial and supporting cells functionality. Table 1 and Table 2 report the proof-of-efficacy of investigated  
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1 drugs in *in vitro* and *in vivo* models, respectively. For an in-depth analysis of the patents recently published on the topic,  
2 the reader is invited to refer to work of Nguyen and co-workers [6].  
3  
4 The better comprehension of etiopathological mechanism underlying cochlear dysfunctions opened new frontiers in  
5 cochlear treatments. Since the drug ototoxicity was mainly induced by the generation of ROS, the effectiveness of several  
6 antioxidant agents was tested *in vitro* [50-52] and *in vivo* on animal models [53-59] and human patients [60, 61]. For  
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8 example, the local or systemic administration of resveratrol or N-acetylcysteine was demonstrated to protect both from  
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10 drug-ototoxicity in animals (*e.g.*, rats, guinea pigs and zebrafishes) [53, 54] and from noise and loud sounds [55]. However,  
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12 the mechanism of action of antioxidants is not only limited to a direct effect on cochlear cell lines, as evident in the case of  
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14 D-methionine and sodium thiosulfate: they prevented the cisplatin-induced ototoxicity, altering the cisplatin  
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16 pharmacokinetics other than restoring the redox balance in cochlear system [57, 58, 61, 62].  
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18 Besides antioxidants, other molecules were proposed to prevent the ROS mediated- and noise-mediated injuries [6, 63-67].  
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20 So and colleagues showed *in vitro* that flunarizine, a T-type calcium channel blocker, could increase the survival of organ  
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22 of Corti cells exposed to cisplatin, inhibiting the influx of calcium ions and the lipid peroxidation induced by ROS generation  
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24 and mitochondrial permeability transition [68]. Moreover, molecules able to modulate the function of ion channel were also  
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26 investigated to restore the physiological electrolytes equilibrium in hair cells and neurons [6]. Activators of Kv3 channels  
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28 were proposed for treating hearing loss since they are involved in the repolarization of hair cells. Inhibitors of such class of  
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30 voltage-gated ion channel were studied to treat tinnitus. Molecules able to modulate the activation of nicotinic cholinergic  
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32 and glutamate receptors were also matter of investigation due to their possible implication on electrical current transmission  
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34 both in olivocochlear fibers and cochlear hair cells. Boffi and co-workers demonstrated that ascorbic acid acted *in vitro* as  
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36 a partial agonist of  $\alpha 9\alpha 10$  nicotinic cholinergic receptors [69]. Ketamine, a well-known anesthetic drug, resulted effective  
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38 in reducing the overactivation of N-ethyl-D-aspartate receptors, limiting the toxicity in auditory neurons due to their  
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40 overstimulation [6]. Another therapeutic strategy investigated for restoring the fitness of neuronal synapsis was the  
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42 administration of growth factors to cochlea. Indeed, as shown by Suzuki and colleagues, intra-tympanic delivery of  
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44 neurotrophin 3 could regenerate the neuronal connections with hair cells after synapses loss due to high sounds exposure  
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46 [70].  
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48 The activation or inhibition of several intracellular metabolic pathways (*e.g.*, Akt/Nrf-2, PI3K, ATM-Chk2-p53) also  
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50 provided a better resistance of hair cells to damages [71-73]. For instance, the expression of NADPH oxidases was positive  
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52 regulated by noise and the inhibition of their expression might be used as potential therapeutic management of cochlear  
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54 damages [74]. In this context, the intra-tympanic administration of a short interfering RNA (siRNA) could reduce the  
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56 expression of the NOX3 isoform of NADPH oxidase in cells of both organ of Corti and *stria vascularis* exposed to cisplatin  
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58 [75]. Moreover, Du and colleagues highlighted that it was possible to regenerate the damaged hair cells using siRNA able  
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60 to inhibit the expression of gene *HES1* [76]. *HES1* resulted involved in the down-regulation of the gene *ATOHI*, which  
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62 encode for a transcription factor involved in differentiation of hair cell. Considering the potential applications in cochlear  
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64 cell regeneration, many efforts were made for identifying new therapeutic candidates in modulating *ATOHI* activation [6].  
65  
66 One of the most promising drug class for the promotion of hair cell regeneration are the inhibitors of  $\gamma$ -secretase, a protein  
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68 involved in the activation of an inhibitory pathways of *ATOHI*. In addition, the use of complementary DNA (cDNA) was

1 also investigated to repair genetic dysfunction of hair cells. As an example, intracochlear injection of adenovirus AAV  
2 loaded with cDNA of *WHRN* demonstrated to be effective in restoring the physiological structure of stereocilia of hair cell  
3 in a mouse model [77]. However, such a therapeutic solution might be effective only if the sensorial cells resulted only  
4 damaged, not destroyed. Since cochlear tissue was not able to restore by itself, the transplantation of stem cells was recently  
5 studied to find solutions applicable also in the case of total disruption of hair cells [78]. In this optic, the both embryonic  
6 and pluripotent stem cells were proposed and investigated for replacing damaged hair cells, supporting cells and spinal  
7 ganglion neurons [79-81]. Starting from the demonstration that embryonic stem cells could recreate *in vitro* the 3D structure  
8 of sensorial epithelium of inner ear [79], several studies demonstrated the feasibility of stem cell transplantation via  
9 intracochlear injection in different animal models [81]. Although most of the studies showed a good viability and  
10 differentiation of stem cells after delivery, several criticisms remain on the round. Firstly, the targeting of the injected cells  
11 at the damaged part of the tissues is challenging as well as the regeneration of the complex structure of organ of Corti *in*  
12 *vivo*. Secondly, the current technologies are not able to targeting the differentiation of stem cells to preserve the  
13 physiological difference in morphological cellular organization in the different part of cochlea [78].

## 24 **6 Drug delivery systems**

25 Even if the last decades were characterized by a growing interest to individuate novel therapeutics and technological  
26 approaches in the attempt to overcome the biopharmaceutical limitations of cochlea, relatively few information is available  
27 in literature. It mainly concerns the design of hydrogels, nanocarriers and their combinations. The most significant *in vitro*  
28 and *in vivo* proof-of-efficacy of drug delivery systems are summarized in [Table 1](#) and [Table 2](#), respectively.

### 34 *6.1 Hydrogels*

35 Although the intra-tympanic administration results more effective than systemic administration, the biodistribution in the  
36 cochlea is strongly influenced by clearance from the RWM surface. Indeed, it significantly reduces the drug residence time  
37 of a drug at the adsorption site, as demonstrated in the case of the intra-tympanic application of methylprednisolone [82].  
38 In order to minimize the formulation wash-out from RWM, hydrogels formulations made of several natural polymers  
39 appeared particularly interesting even if the administrable volume is limited (max 0.4-0.6 mL) [6, 83-87]. The efficacy of  
40 this approach was demonstrated in case of hyaluronic acid hydrogel, which could be effective in controlling the delivery of  
41 dexamethasone in cochlea of guinea pigs after intra-tympanic administration [88]; as well as in the case of chitosan-based  
42 hydrogels containing dexamethasone and gentamicin [89, 90]. Moreover, hydrogels made of gelatin or cross-linked porcine  
43 type1-collagen were effective to deliver proteins, such as insulin-like [83, 86] and hepatocyte growth factors [85].  
44 However, in all these cases, the hydrogel viscosity has to be properly evaluated and selected on the basis of a compromise  
45 between the improvement of the resistance time at RWM niche and the injection in the tympanic cavity by a needle lower  
46 than G22 [5]. To overcome these limitations, *in situ* gelling systems, namely injectable formulations that form a macroscopic  
47 gel at the site of injection after a stimulus, have been investigated. Engleder *et al.* designed a thermosensitive hydrogel  
48 containing triamcinolone acetonide, taking advantage from the ability of poloxamer 407 to modify its viscosity as function  
49 of the temperature [87]. Such a formulation was a solution at room temperature, but it became a gel within few minutes



1 after RWM deposition due to the higher temperature of body (*i.e.*, around 37°C). Moreover, Yu and co-workers showed  
2 that the cochlear distribution of dexamethasone could be significantly improved using a time-sensitive hydrogel made of  
3 regenerated silk and polyethylene glycol (PEG) [84]. Such a hydrogel maintained the sol form enough to be intra-tympanic  
4 injected before the sol-gel transition occurred.  
5

6 Besides the criticisms related to injectability, the technological properties of a hydrogel formulation should be also  
7 rationalized to minimize any side effects after deposition in the tympanic cavity. Indeed, some evidences in literature  
8 suggested that the intra-tympanic hydrogels could induce temporary decrease in hearing functionality, particularly when an  
9 excessive volume of hydrogel was injected in the tympanic cavity [91]. Such side effect was mainly due to a direct  
10 interference of hydrogel with the movements three ossicles and, in general, the auditory function was recovered within 7-  
11 10 days because of formulation wash-out from the middle ear [92].  
12

13 In addition, hydrogels were also studied as vehicles for intra-cochlear transplantations of stem cells and gene therapy [37,  
14 93]. Since the intra-cochlear injection required the use of needle of smaller diameter (*e.g.*, G30-G36), the formulation  
15 viscosity resulted even more critical in comparison to intra-tympanic one. However, hydrogel might be more advantageous  
16 than solution for preventing the pressure fall in the inner ear due to the RWM perforations, with the risk of an efflux of  
17 cerebrospinal fluid through the cochlear aqueduct. Indeed, as demonstrated by Plontke and co-workers, the use of hyaluronic  
18 or poloxamer 407 hydrogels preserved the amount of fluorescein that was retained in perilymph of guinea pigs, taking  
19 advantage from their ability to seal the RWM perforation [37].  
20

21 Finally, hydrogels found applications as coating of cochlear implants to prevent the fibrous tissue growth with a consequent  
22 worsening of the hearing functionality [94-97]. To avoid this possible side effect, steroid-loaded hydrogels made of  
23 poloxamer 407 were demonstrated to control the release of dexamethasone and prevent fibrous tissue growth in guinea pig  
24 model [95]. The use of modified alginate hydrogels was also proposed as coating of cochlear implant to effectively improve  
25 its biocompatibility and *in vivo* performances of the medical device [97].  
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## 28 6.2 Nanocarriers

29 The diffused interest for the therapeutic applications of nanotechnology has also driven the research to novel drug delivery  
30 systems intended for both intra-tympanic and intra-cochlear administration. Considering the ability of nanoparticles to  
31 control and target the drug release, polymeric nanoparticles [40, 98-106], lipid nanocapsules [107, 108], cubosomes [109],  
32 polyplexes [110, 111], metallic core nanoparticles [38, 112-115], liposomes [43, 116-118] and lipoplexes [119] were  
33 investigated *in vitro* and *in vivo* as drug-delivery systems or imaging agents.  
34

35 Although the high sensitivity of cochlear structures for external insults, such nanocarriers seem almost safe [107, 109]. As  
36 an example, the study of the impact of polymeric nanoparticles, made of poly(D,L lactide-co-glycolide) (PLGA) and poly( $\epsilon$ -  
37 caprolactone)-poly(ethylene glycol) di-block (PCL-PEG), on the *in vitro* cell viability revealed that such nanocarriers were  
38 not toxic for both organ of Corti and *stria vascularis* cell lines [101]. This result was in agreement with the data provided  
39 by Yoon and co-workers on the biocompatibility of different types of oligoarginine-conjugated nanoparticles [103]. *In vivo*  
40 evidences seem to confirm the biocompatibility of polymeric nanocarriers, since they did not alter significantly the auditory  
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1 functionality of animal models [40, 116]. Analogously, the direct injection of cationic liposomes into guinea pig cochlea  
2 did not cause any inflammation or cytotoxic event [119].  
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4 Beside the safety profile, another attribute that should be considered as critical is the biodistribution of nanosystems. In fact,  
5 if the biodistribution of nanosystems in the cochlea is poor after systemic administration, the intra-cochlear injection is not  
6 easy to perform and only few evidences are reported regarding the efficacy of the drug delivery systems administered by  
7 such a route. As an example, Wareing and co-workers demonstrated the feasibility to use cationic liposomes for gene  
8 transfection in the cochlear tissue as an alternative to the viral vectors [119]. Indeed, although non-selectively, these  
9 nanocarriers could deliver exogenous gene to the spiral limbus, the spiral ganglia and to the organ of Corti after a direct  
10 injection into the inner ear. Besides these promising results, however, the intra-tympanic administration of therapeutics  
11 remains the most promising alternative [100].  
12

13 Therefore, the ability of nanocarriers to permeate RWM becomes the most relevant critical issue to assure suitable drug  
14 concentration at the therapeutic site. As demonstrated by Ge *et al.* in chinchilla model, PLGA nanoparticles containing  
15 superparamagnetic iron oxides nanoparticles (SPION) could permeate the RWM and distribute in almost all cochlear  
16 compartments [106]. Aggregated clusters of nanoparticles were detected in the perilymph fluid and endolymphatic sac near  
17 to the organ of Corti. A similar cochlear distribution was also confirmed for other polymeric nanosystems tested in different  
18 animal models [40, 105, 109] and for lipid vesicles. The studies conducted by Zou *et al.* revealed the presence of intact  
19 vesicles in the perilymph after intra-tympanic injection and demonstrated that their permeation through the middle inner ear  
20 barriers was size dependent; it was higher for liposomes smaller than 100 nm [43]. In another study, the same research  
21 group concluded that RWM was the major pathway for liposome entrance into the inner ear and that liposomes could be  
22 retained in cochlea within 6 days after *in vivo* intra-tympanic administration [118]. Moreover, liposomes labelled with  
23 contrasting agent were traced by magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) after intra-cochlear and intra-tympanic administrations  
24 in rats and their distribution in the cochlea was observed within 1 hour [117]. Increasing the injected volume, distal portions  
25 of the inner ear were also reached by the functionalized nanoparticles, suggesting also a potential exploitation of these  
26 systems for vestibular drug delivery.  
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28 Besides the obvious applications as imaging tools when loaded in polymeric nanoparticles or liposomes, SPION could be  
29 effectively used for promoting the permeation of drug through the RWM. As an example, Du and co-workers showed that  
30 the permeation of dexamethasone was two-time increased when SPION-loaded polymeric nanoparticles were used as drug  
31 carriers in presence of a magnetic field [115]. However, although such interesting biopharmaceutical performances and the  
32 possible application in theragnosis, the reduced biodegradability of SPION and the subsequent risk of side effect due to a  
33 prolonged biopersistence in cochlea resulted factors that might limit their future applications in humans as therapeutics  
34 [120].  
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36 The potentialities of drug-loaded nanocarriers in preventing cellular damages induced by ototoxic drugs or for cellular  
37 specific targeting were also demonstrated in several preliminary *in vivo* investigations [111]. Cai *et al.* showed that PLGA  
38 nanoparticles could be effectively used to load and intra-tympanic administer different active components present in extract  
39 of *salvia miltiorrhiza* and *panax notogineng* [104]. Moreover, Sun and co-workers demonstrated that dexamethasone loaded  
40 nanoparticles, made of poly(lactic acid) (PLA)-PEG, could effectively manage adverse effects of cisplatin, regardless they  
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1 were systemically or locally administered [97, 98]. PLA-PEG nanoparticles resulted more effective than free-drug solution  
2 to reduce the degeneration of both hair cells and *stria vascularis*, inflammation processes and auditory dysfunctions in  
3 Guinea pig models. In addition, after intra-tympanic administration, they could improve the drug residence time in the  
4 perilymph, suggesting nanocarriers could be advantageously proposed also to reduce the drug regimen [99].

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6 To improve the effectiveness of nanocarriers in delivering drug to the therapeutic site, the performances of ligand-  
7 functionalized nanoparticles were also investigated. Yoon and colleagues demonstrated that arginine-rich peptides improved  
8 the permeation of dexamethasone-loaded polyplexes in cochlear cells, inducing gene expression and anti-inflammatory  
9 effect [103]. Accordingly, another cell-penetrating peptide (*i.e.*, PepFect6) resulted effective in favoring the escape of  
10 siRNA loaded polyplexes from the endosomal compartment after cellular uptake in cochlear organotypic culture [110].  
11 Starting from these interesting results on polyplexes, the surface of PCL-PEG nanoparticles was functionalized by a nerve  
12 growth factor-derived peptide, demonstrating to favor the *in vitro* target to the cells involved in the neuronal signaling [111].  
13 Conversely, other cell-penetrating peptides appeared ineffective in targeting lipid nanocapsules as demonstrated by  
14 Glueckert and co-workers [106]. Nevertheless, the same authors suggested that antibodies for tyrosine kinase B receptor  
15 can effectively improve the *in vitro* biodistribution and interaction of functionalized silica nanoparticles with positive cell  
16 lines in cochlear cell lines [106].

### 27 6.3 Nanocarrier-loaded hydrogels

28 Despite the encouraging results obtained *in vitro* by nanocarriers and the feasibility of their safe administration through the  
29 intra-tympanic route, their residence time in the tympanic cavity remained a critical issue as well as conventional solutions.  
30 Thus, to solve this limitation and the possible safety issues related to the administration of too large volume of hydrogel,  
31 the combination of these delivery systems seems a very promising strategy. Indeed, the addition of a nanocarrier can solve  
32 the issues related to drug loading of the hydrogel, resulting in a significant reduction of the administered volume and in the  
33 prolongation of therapeutic drug concentrations in the cochlea, even when the formulation is washed-out from the middle  
34 ear cavity [116]. Conversely, the viscosity of the hydrogel can improve the resistance time of loading nanosystems in the  
35 tympanic cavity. As a consequence, the nanocarrier can benefit by the increase of the resistance time that favors the partition  
36 in the OWM or RWM. Although few information is available in literature, some interesting results can be found on the  
37 topic [116, 121]. El Kechai and co-workers demonstrated the feasibility of a nanocarrier-loaded hydrogel formulation for  
38 intra-tympanic administration [122]. Liposomes were loaded in a hyaluronic hydrogel and their composition and  
39 concentration were rationalized to obtain a final semi-solid preparation with suitable viscosity and elasticity to be injectable.  
40 The optimized formulation was used to delivery dexamethasone in cochlea via intra-tympanic injection. The use of a high  
41 viscous hyaluronic acid hydrogel as vehicle permitted to prolong the formulation persistence in the middle ear up to 30  
42 days. When dexamethasone-loaded plain hydrogel (150 $\mu$ L) was injected in tympanic cavity, drug concentrations were  
43 detectable in perilymph up to 15 days. Conversely, when liposome-loaded hydrogel was used, the sustained delivery of  
44 dexamethasone was prolonged up to 30 days, even if the volume deposited in the RWM niche was three-time lower. Indeed,  
45 the results showed that a smaller fraction of intact liposomes in the perilymph, where a great amount of them was retained  
46 in the RWM, forming a depot able to sustain the drug release [116]. It also permitted to reach perilymphatic drug  
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1 concentrations that were very close to the therapeutic level without any negative effects on the hearing functions. Similar  
2 results were observed using chitosan hydrogel as vehicle for liposomes [121]. After deposition of hydrogel in the RWM  
3 niche, liposomes could diffuse in perilymph and reach the hair cells in mouse model.  
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## 7 **Conclusion**

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9 The better knowledge of the etiopathological mechanisms underlying cochlear diseases and the development of procedures  
10 for the intra-tympanic drug administration permitted attributing possible new therapeutic indications for well-known active  
11 compounds. Indeed, beside the widely use of steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, antioxidants and other substances were  
12 demonstrated to be *in vivo* effective to prevent the degeneration of organ of Corti cells after exposure to several toxic  
13 stimuli, providing a proof-of-concepts of their clinical use in humans.  
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16 Nevertheless, several issues related to the biopharmaceutical limitations of cochlea still remain on the round. Indeed, since  
17 the intra-tympanic injection is invasive and requires specialized medical personal, the frequency of drug administration  
18 should be minimized, taking however into account that a continuous fluid drainage from the tympanic cavity exists and may  
19 limit the drug residence time at the RWM surface. Moreover, the permeation of the drug through the RWM has to be assured  
20 to guarantee its distribution within the cochlea. Among the proposed technological approaches to overcome these issues,  
21 the development of nanocarriers-loaded hydrogels appears the most promising. However, the impact of physicochemical  
22 properties of vehicles on their injectability, residence time and permeation of nanocarriers through RWM should be further  
23 investigated. Moreover, a better characterization of the biopharmaceutical performances and stability of nanocarriers in the  
24 cochlear fluids is highly desirable because of many evidences suggested their tendency to aggregate after cochlear  
25 biodistribution.  
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28 Among the studied nanocarriers, the liposomes appear maybe as the most attractive nanocarriers both for intracochlear and  
29 intratympanic injection. Indeed, their high biodegradability, low toxicity and antigenicity, along with their relatively easy  
30 metabolism *in vivo* are advantageous attributes to sustain their intracochlear/intratympanic application. Moreover, they  
31 can encapsulate different kind of therapeutics (*i.e.*, steroids [123], chemotherapy drugs [124] and nucleic acids [125, 126])  
32 with very different physicochemical properties (hydrophilic, lipophilic and amphipathic molecules). In addition, recent  
33 literature evidences suggested that liposome penetrated RWM, forming drug reservoir that could extend the drug release. It  
34 may be also underlined that liposome properties can be easily modulated in terms of dimension, surface charge and fluidity  
35 to optimize the permeation performances through the RMW membrane and distribution in cochlear *scala*. Moreover, the  
36 liposomal surface can be properly coated with targeting agents to promoting active permeation through RWM and cellular  
37 targeting.  
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## 53 **Conflict of interest Statement**

54 Umberto M. Musazzi, Silvia Franzè and Francesco Cilurzo declare that they have no conflict of interest.  
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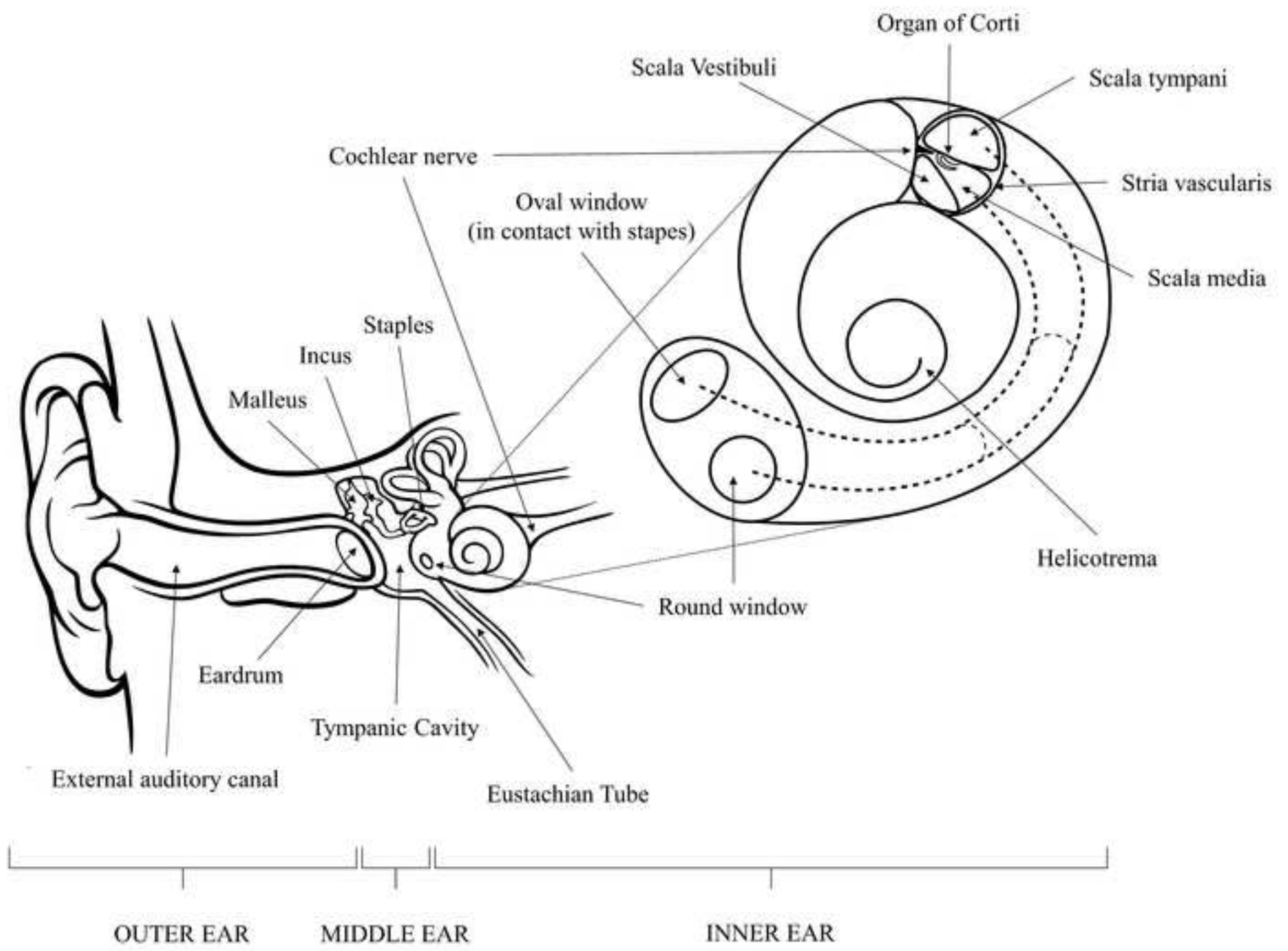


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**Table 1** – Studies supporting the efficacy of drugs and drug delivery systems in *in vitro* models of cochlear cell lines.

<b>Drug/Delivery System</b>	<b>Toxic agent</b>	<b><i>In vitro</i> models</b>	<b>Main results</b>	<b>Ref.</b>
$\alpha$ -tocopherol succinate	Cisplatin	Organ of Corti cells	Pre-treatment $\alpha$ -tocopherol succinate protected was protective against cisplatin-induced cytotoxicity	[52]
Flunarizine	Cisplatin	Organ of Corti cells	Flunarizine was protective against cisplatin toxicity, inhibiting lipid peroxidation and mitochondrial membrane permeability transition	[68]
siRNA-loaded lipofection vectors or PLGA nanocarriers	Neomycin	Cochlear tissue explant	The down-regulation of HES1 mediated by siRNAs promote the regeneration of hair cells	[76]
L-ascorbic acid, N-acetylcysteine, apocynin	Neomycin	Zebrafish larvae	All the tested molecules prevent neomycin-induced ototoxicity, decreasing the ROS generation in neuromasts	[59]
<b>Mesenchymal-like stem cells</b>	Gentamicin	Organ of Corti explant from neonatal rats	Restoration of spiral ganglion neurons	[80]
N-acetyl-cysteine	Cisplatin	Rat auditory air cells and neurons	L-N-acetyl-cysteine was protective against cisplatin toxicity	[51]
Peanut sprout extract	Cisplatin	Organ of Corti cells	Peanut sprout extract protects from cisplatin-induced cytotoxicity by activating the antioxidant effects via the Akt/Nrf-2 pathway	[73]
Resveratrol	Gentamicin	Organ of Corti cells	Resveratrol was protective against gentamicin toxicity	[50]
Sodium thiosulfate	Carboplatin	LX-1 human small cell lung carcinoma cell	Sodium thiosulfate blocked carboplatin cytotoxicity	[62]
<b>Rolipram-loaded lipid nanocapsules</b>	<b>Cisplatin</b>	<b>Postnatal mouse cochlea culture</b>	<b>The drug-loaded nanocarrier could partially rescue the apoptosis induced by cisplatin</b>	<b>[108]</b>

**Table 2** – Studies supporting the efficacy of drugs and drug delivery systems in *in vivo* animal models.

Drug	Delivery System	Disease/toxic agent	<i>In vivo</i> model	Administration route	Main results	Ref.
Coenzyme Q10 + multivitamin supplement	Solution	Cisplatin	Rats	Oral	Coenzyme Q10 and multivitamin seem to be synergic in protecting from the cisplatin-induced ototoxicity	[63]
Dexamethasone	Solution	Endolymphatic hydrops	Humans	Intra-tympanic	Dexamethasone provided efficacy in the treatment of contralateral and ipsilateral delayed endolymphatic hydrops.	[46]
Dexamethasone	Nanocarrier (PLA-PEG)	Cisplatin	Guinea pigs	Intra-peritoneal	The loading of dexamethasone in PEG-PLA nanoparticles could enhance the drug protective efficacy against cisplatin-induced ototoxicity	[98]
Dexamethasone	Nanocarrier (PLA-PEG)	Cisplatin	Guinea pigs	Intra-tympanic	Nanoparticles improve the drug penetration through local RWM and significantly protected the hair cells and auditory function from cisplatin toxicity	[99]
Dexamethasone + melatonin	Solution	Tinnitus	Humans	Intra-tympanic	Dexamethasone plus melatonin was efficient in improvement of idiopathic unilateral tinnitus.	[47]
Dexpanthenol	Solution	Cisplatin	Rats	Intra-peritoneal	Dexpanthenol was effective in preventing cisplatin ototoxicity	[64]
D-methionine	Solution	Cisplatin	Guinea pigs	Intra-venous	D-methionine reduced the AUC of cisplatin and was protective against cisplatin-ototoxicity	[58]
Garlic derivatives	Solution	Gentamicin	Rats	Intra-peritoneal	Garlic derivatives seemed to attenuate the aminoglycoside-induced hearing loss.	[65]
Ginkgo biloba extract 761	Not reported	Cisplatin	Human	Oral	Ginkgo biloba extract was protective for cisplatin ototoxicity	[61]
Hepatocyte growth factor	Hydrogel (gelatin)	Noise	Guinea pig	Intra-tympanic	Gelatin hydrogel loaded with hepatocyte growth factor significantly reduced the noise exposure-caused ABR threshold shifts and the loss of outer hair cells in the basal portion of the cochleae.	[85]
Insulin-like growth factor-1	Hydrogel (collagen)	Noise	Rats	Intra-tympanic	Local insulin-like growth factor-1 application through the biodegradable hydrogel protected cochleae from noise trauma in comparison to control.	[83]
Insulin-like growth factor-1	Hydrogel (gelatin)	Transient cochlear ischemia	Mongolian gerbils	Intra-tympanic	Local application of insulin-like growth factor-protected cochleae from ischemic injury	[86]

Melatonin	Solution	Cisplatin	Rats	Intra-tympanic	Melatonin was effective in preventing cisplatin ototoxicity	[66]
N-Acetylcysteine	Solution	Cisplatin	Guinea pig	Intra-tympanic	N-Acetylcysteine was protective against cisplatin ototoxicity	[56]
Neurotrophin 3	Solution	Noise	Mice	Intra-tympanic	Regeneration of pre- and postsynaptic elements at the hair cell/cochlear nerve interface	[70]
NOX3 siRNA	Not reported	Cisplatin	Rats	Intra-tympanic	siRNA reduced the expression of NOX3 isoform of NADPH oxidase, inhibiting the ROS generation induced by cisplatin and protecting cochlear systems from its toxic effect.	[75]
Oxytocin	Solution	Cisplatin	Rats	Systemic/intra-tympanic	Oxytocin was protective against cisplatin after both systemic and intra-tympanic administration	[67]
PFT- $\alpha$	Solution	Cisplatin	Mice	Intra-tympanic	The p53 inhibitor PFT- $\alpha$ prevented negative effect of cisplatin-induced ototoxicity	[72]
Resveratrol	Solution	Cisplatin	Rats	Intra-peritoneal	Resveratrol was protective against cisplatin-ototoxicity	[54]
Resveratrol	Solution	Noise	Rats	Oral	Resveratrol was protective against acoustic trauma	[55]
Resveratrol	Solution	Cisplatin	Rats	Intra-peritoneal	Resveratrol was protective against cisplatin-ototoxicity	[53]
Sodium thiosulfate	Solution	Carboplatin	Humans	Intra-venous	Delayed sodium thiosulfate was effective in protecting against carboplatin-induced hearing loss	[60]
Sodium thiosulfate	Solution	Cisplatin	Rats	Intra-peritoneal	Sodium thiosulfate was protective against cisplatin in a time-dependent manner	[57]
Sodium thiosulfate	Solution	Carboplatin	Guinea pigs	Intra-peritoneal	Delayed administration of sodium thiosulfate resulted effective in reducing cochlear toxicity of carboplatin	[62]
Stem cells	Solution	Neomycin	Guinea pigs	Intra-cochlear	Transplanted stem cells were observed at cochlear basal membrane. No difference in auditory brainstem were observed before and after transplantation.	[81]
WHRN cDNA	Adeno-associated virus (AAV8)	Non-syndromic deafness model	Neonatal mice	Intra-cochlear	Gene therapy improves hair cell stereocilia morphology and increase hair cell survival	[77]