

Novel in situ gelling ophthalmic drug delivery system based on gellan gum and hydroxyethylcellulose: Innovative rheological characterization, in vitro and in vivo evidence of a sustained precorneal retention time

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1 Novel *in situ* gelling ophthalmic drug delivery system based on gellan gum

2 and hydroxyethylcellulose: Innovative rheological characterization, *in vitro*

and *in vivo* evidence of a sustained precorneal retention time

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21 Abstract

22 Achieving drug delivery at the ocular level encounters many challenges and obstacles. In situ gelling delivery systems are now widely used for topical ocular administration and recognized 23 as a promising strategy to improve the treatment of a wide range of ocular diseases. The 24 25 present work describes the formulation and evaluation of a mucoadhesive and ion-activated in situ gelling delivery system based on gellan gum and hydroxyethylcellulose for the delivery of 26 phenylephrine and tropicamide. First, physico-chemical characteristics were assessed to 27 ensure suitable properties regarding ocular administration. Then, rheological properties such 28 as viscosity and gelation capacity were determined. Gelation capacity of the formulations and 29 30 the effect of hydroxyethylcellulose on viscosity were demonstrated. A new rheological method was developed to assess the gel resistance under simulated eye blinking. Afterward, 31 mucoadhesion was evaluated using tensile strength test and rheological synergism method in 32 rotational and oscillatory mode allowing mucoadhesive properties 33 both of hydroxyethylcellulose to be point out. Finally, residence time on the ocular surface was 34 investigated in vivo, using cyanine 5.5 dye as a fluorescent marker entrapped in the in situ 35 gelling delivery systems. Residence performance was studied by non-invasive optical imaging 36 37 on vigilant rabbits, allowing eye blinking and nasolacrimal drainage to occur physiologically. 38 Fluorescence intensity profiles pointed out a prolonged residence time on the ocular surface region for the developed formulations compared to conventional eye drops, suggesting in 39 40 vitro / in vivo correlations between rheological properties and in vivo residence performances.

41

42 Keywords

43 Hydrogel, delivery system, ophthalmic, rheology, ocular residence time, optical imaging

44 45

1. Introduction

46 Ophthalmic drug delivery has raised a large interest over the last two decades. The 47 pharmaceutical market for ophthalmic products is on the rise, with more and more drugs and 48 medical devices in an increasing application number and yet, optimal drug delivery to the eye 49 is still a knotty challenge in many cases [1,2].

The eye is a complex and sensitive organ. Achieving high ocular bioavailability through 50 topical administration of active substances is a challenge as different mechanisms of 51 52 protection against external aggressions (e.g. its annexes: eyelids and tear film) tend to eliminate the drug upon topical administration. Pre-corneal efflux factors such as nasolacrimal 53 drainage and eye blinking significantly reduce absorption [3]. Indeed, under physiological 54 55 conditions, the lacrimal fluid (7 μ L) is completely renewed in five minutes and its secretion can reach a 400 µL/min rate in case of irritation [4]. The active substances are then 56 immediately diluted and subjected to rapid elimination of the ocular surface and conjunctival 57 cul-de-sac. In addition, the ocular surface is periodically washed by the eyelids blinking. 58 Furthermore, the blink rate exhibits a high interpersonal variability, averaging 20 blinks per 59 60 minute [5,6]. These physiological factors often lead to limited contact time between the administered product and the cornea, conjunctiva and sclera. The ocular bioavailability 61 following administration of liquid eye drop is rather low. Therefore, repeated administrations 62 63 are frequently required to obtain the expected therapeutic effect.

Over time and following scientific and technological advances, many pharmaceutical dosage forms have been developed to overcome these physiological hindrances and enhance ocular residence time. Preformed gels [7], ointments [8,9] and inserts [10,11] are the most described of them, and have proven increased ocular bioavailability. However, semi-solid and solid ophthalmic dosage forms often lead to patient discomfort due to high viscosities or irritations[12].

In situ gelling delivery systems are one of the most promising ophthalmic dosage forms [13]. 70 Instillation under liquid form allows an easy, safe and reproducible administration. Moreover, 71 preparation and production at the industrial level are facilitated as compared to solid and 72 73 traditional semi-solid forms. The major innovation of these smart hydrogels is related to a solution to gel phase transition, induced by different stimuli which can be found 74 physiologically on the ocular surface such as temperature, pH or ionic strength [14]. 75 76 Immediately after administration, in situ activated hydrogels undergo a phase transition leading to gelation of the product. Gelation provides new viscoelastic properties, limiting pre-77 78 corneal elimination and leading to prolonged residence time on the ocular surface. Recently, the use of biopolymers exhibiting mucoadhesive properties increased the residence time of *in* 79 situ gelling systems on the ocular surface [15]. Finally, prolonged residence time of the 80 81 hydrogels on the ocular surface allowed an increase in the local absorption of the active ingredients, leading to an improved bioavailability and therefore to a better efficacy. 82 Moreover, it has also been shown that the reduction of the pre-corneal elimination of in situ 83 activated hydrogels leads to a decrease of the systemic absorption and therefore to a reduction 84 of the side effects [16,17]. Hence, ophthalmic in situ gelling systems could potentially 85 improve the treatment of pathologies affecting the anterior segment of the eye and can be 86 considered as a new pharmaceutical strategy in the formulation of active ingredients with low 87 absorption at the ocular level. 88

The *in situ* gelling delivery systems presented here are based on gellan gum and hydroxyethylcellulose (HEC). The gelling capacity of gellan gum in the ocular environment has already been demonstrated and the enhanced residence time on the ocular surface was proven *in vivo* for several gellan gum based formulations [18–21]. The combination with

HEC was conceptualized to enhance its viscosity, mucoadhesion and release properties, while reducing polymer concentration. HEC is also well tolerated as compared to other cellulosic polymers and exhibits suitable viscosity and lubricant properties [12]. All formulations are preservative free, as a large number of eye drop preservatives (e.g. benzalkonium chloride) exhibit an important toxicity [22–26]. The growing number of publications on this topic, market trends and expectations of patients and practitioners show that this strategy has a real potential.

The purpose of this study was to formulate and characterize a new *in situ* gelling system for 100 the delivery of phenylephrine hydrochloride and tropicamide. Nowadays, phenylephrine and 101 tropicamide are the two most used mydriatic active pharmaceutical ingredients. When 102 103 mydriasis induction is required, prior eye examinations or ophthalmic surgeries, two predominant therapeutic strategies are available. Either the association of two liquid eye drops 104 of phenylephrine and tropicamide (Neosynephrine[®] 10 % and Mydriaticum[®] 0.5 % 105 respectively) or a solid ocular insert (Mydriasert[®]) combining phenylephrine and tropicamide. 106 None of these two pharmaceutical dosage forms are optimal regarding topical ophthalmic 107 administration. On one hand, due to the high pre-corneal elimination of conventional eye 108 drops, the induction of mydriasis requires up to five drops in each eye. A five minutes interval 109 between each drop is also required, leading to 30 to 45 minutes of patient care time prior eye 110 111 surgery. On the other hand, the ocular insert must be administered by a trained medical staff and must be left in the conjunctival cul-de-sac for 30 to 45 minutes potentially leading to 112 patient discomfort and local irritations. A possible alternative to reduce patients discomfort 113 and increase the efficiency of treatments of the anterior segment of the eye could be in situ 114 gelling systems. 115

116 Therefore, we developed an *in situ* gelling hydrogel made of gellan gum and117 hydroxyethylcellulose for the delivery of tropicamide and phenylephrine.

The first part of this work focuses on the formulation and physicochemical characterization [27]. Then, gelling behavior, rheological and mucoadhesive properties were evaluated. A new rheological method was developed to assess the gel resistance under simulated eye blinking. Finally, residence time on the ocular surface was assessed *in vivo* in rabbit to corroborate the hypothesis of prolonged drug delivery and validate the developed rheological methods.

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124 **2.** Materials and methods

125 2.1. Materials

All the sol-gels were prepared using sterile water Versylene[®] purchased from Fresenius Kabi 126 France (Sèvres, France). Phenylephrine hydrochloride of European Pharmacopoeia grade was 127 a kind gift from Cheng Fong Chemical Co., Ltd. (Taipei, Taiwan). Tropicamide of European 128 Pharmacopoeia grade was a free sample from Tokyo Chemical Industry Co., Ltd. (Tokyo, 129 Japan). Deacylated gellan gum (Kelcogel[®] CG-LA) of pharmaceutical use grade was a free 130 sample from CP Kelco (Atlanta, GA, USA). Hydroxyethylcellulose (Natrosol® 250 M) was 131 generously provided by Ashland (Schaffhausen, Switzerland). Sodium citrate was purchased 132 from Cooper (Ponthierry, France). The porcine gastric mucin type II was purchased from 133 Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). The fluorescence probe (Cyanine 5) was synthetized in 134 our laboratory as described previously [28]. 135

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- 137 2.2. Differential scanning calorimetry

Each component was placed in aluminum pans and hermetically sealed. Differential scanning
calorimetry (DSC) and thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) of each individual component were
performed using a Perkin Elmer Diamond DSC at a heating rate of 10 °C/min between 25 and
200 °C.

Interaction analyses were done to assess the compatibility of phenylephrine hydrochloride
with tropicamide and selected excipients. Binary mixes were analyzed with the following
weight ratios: 1:3, 1:1 and 3:1.

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2.3. Preparation of formulations

147 The hydrogels were prepared on a volume basis. Concentrations of all the components 148 reported here are expressed as weight/volume percentages (% w/v). Gellan gum solutions were prepared by dispersing gellan gum (0.5 %) and sodium citrate (0.3 %) to a certain 149 150 volume of sterile water while stirring. The solutions were then heated to 80 °C allowing the hydration of gellan gum chains. The clear solutions obtained were then cooled to room 151 temperature. After volume adjustment of the water loss due to evaporation, the preparations 152 were sterilized by filtering aseptically through 0.22 µm sterilizing filter under a laminar flow 153 hood. 154

APIs stock solution containing HEC (0-0.71 %), phenylephrine (7.1%) and tropicamide (0.71%) in sterile water were prepared separately. After complete dissolution under magnetic stirring, the solution was filtered aseptically through 0.22 μ m sterilizing filter under a laminar flow hood. A certain volume of the sterile gellan gum solution was then added dropwise under vigorous stirring to the resultant mixture to obtain homogeneous, sterile, *in situ* gelling ophthalmic formulations of phenylephrine and tropicamide. Final concentrations are reported in table 1.

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2.4. Physicochemical characterization

Hereafter, the ophthalmic *in situ* gelling delivery systems previously prepared were characterized regarding the pH, osmolality and transparency to ensure a safe and non-irritant ocular administration and to maintain the patient's vision. Indeed, as an ophthalmic 167 formulation intended for topical use, the preparations should comply with preferable168 properties related to the physiology of the eye and ophthalmic delivery requirements [29,30].

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- 170 2.4.1. Transparency

The percent light transmittance in the visible light spectrum from 400 to 800 nm wavelength against water as a reference standard was measured using a Perkin-Elmer UV-Vis spectrometer Lambda 25. Measurements were done in triplicate and mean \pm SD value for each formulation was calculated.

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2.4.2. pH measurement

The pH of the formulations was measured using a Hanna HI 98240 pH meter. Prior measurement, the pH meter was calibrated using Mettler Toledo pH standards of 4.01 and 7.00 at 25 °C. The calibration was then validated using a pH standard of 6.86. All formulations were tested for pH in triplicate and the mean ± SD value was calculated.

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2.4.3. Osmolality

Osmolality of the formulations was tested using Roebling Automatic Osmometer type 13.
Prior to use, the apparatus was calibrated using distilled sterile water as blank (0 mOsm/kg)
and standard solution of 300 mOsm/kg. Measurements were done in triplicate and mean ± SD
value for each formulation was calculated.

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188 2.5. Rheological studies

All the rheological analyses were performed on an Anton Parr MCR102 Rheometer and all the data were analyzed using the Anton Parr RheoCompass software. The geometry was a stainless steel cone/plate (diameter 50 mm, angle 1 $^{\circ}$ and gap 100 μ m), which provided an homogeneous shear of the sample. The cone was equipped with a solvent trap to avoid
evaporation during measurement. Thanks to Peltier diodes which were placed in the lower
plate, it was possible to control the temperature with a precision of 0.1 °C.

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196 2.5.1. Viscoelastic behavior and gelation assessment

Viscoelastic behaviors of the *in situ* gelling systems were evaluated, before and after addition of simulated tear fluid (STF), at 25 and 35 °C respectively. Oscillatory experiments were carried out and the storage modulus G' and loss modulus G" were measured. These experiments were carried out under frequency and amplitude values which belonged to the viscoelastic linear regime where G' remained invariant and where the sample did not undergo structural modifications. The frequency was 1 Hz and the amplitude 0.1 %. All rheological results are the mean \pm SD of n=6 experiments.

The STF was added at a 7:30 ratio corresponding to the ratio between the volume of the physiological tear fluid and the volume of the instilled formulation drops, the physiological volume of the tear fluid being 7 μ L and the average volume of an eye drop being 30 μ L [31]. The composition of STF is reported in table 2.

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2.5.2. Flow behavior and viscosity

Flow properties of the *in situ* gels mentioned previously were determined after addition of STF at 35 °C using a stress sweep. After 2 min of equilibration, the shear rate was increased gradually from 0.1 to 5000 s⁻¹ (upward curve). Then, the shear rate was maintained at 5000 s⁻¹ for 30 seconds and subsequently decreased gradually from 5000 to 0.1 s⁻¹ (downward curve). The results are the mean \pm SD of n=6 experiments.

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217 The viscosity curves were fitted according to the Cross equation, Eq. (1):

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$$\eta = \eta_{\infty} + \frac{\eta_0 - \eta_{\infty}}{1 + (C\dot{\gamma})^m}$$
(1)

where η represents the apparent viscosity at a given shear rate (mPa.s), $\dot{\gamma}$ is the shear rate (s⁻¹), η_0 is the zero-shear viscosity (mPa.s) and η_∞ is the infinite-shear viscosity (mPa.s). *C* is the Cross time constant (s) and the reciprocal, 1/C, gives a critical shear rate which is a useful indicator of the onset shear rate for shear thinning. The Cross constant *m* is dimensionless and corresponds to the measurement of the dependence degree of viscosity on shear rate in the shear-thinning region. A value of zero for *m* indicates a Newtonian behavior while values of *m* tending to one show an increasing shear thinning behavior [33].

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- 2.5.3. Gel resistance under simulated eye blinking
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2.5.3.1. Rotational measurements

This test was developed to predict the behavior of the preparation under eye blinking. To do 229 so, the preparations were exposed alternatively to a high shear rate of 5000 s⁻¹ for 1 second, 230 immediately followed by measurements at a low-destructive shear rate of 1 s⁻¹ for 1 min. The 231 high shear rate was chosen to simulate the eye blinking as it was shown that the physiological 232 233 eye blinking shear rate ranged between 3000 and 40 000 s⁻¹. The low shear rate was selected to assess the viscosity behavior during the inter-blinking period, when the eye is open. This 234 cycle was repeated ten times in a row to simulate ten blinking periods. The physiological 235 inter-blinking period lasts 5 to 7 seconds, but a 1 min interval was required to allow sufficient 236 precision of the measurement. Once again, this test was conducted after addition of STF. The 237 238 results are the mean \pm SD of n=6 experiments.

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241 2.5.3.2. Oscillatory measurement

The same test was conducted replacing the low shear rate measurement phase by oscillatory 242 243 measurements to predict the elastic behavior of the preparation under eye blinking. Thus, the preparations were exposed alternatively to a high shear rate of 5000 s⁻¹ for 1 second, 244 immediately followed by non-destructive oscillatory measurements at a frequency of 1 Hz 245 246 and amplitude of 1 % for 1 min. The oscillatory measurements were selected to assess the 247 elastic behavior during the inter-blinking period, when the eye is open. This cycle was repeated ten times in a row to simulate a ten blinking period. The physiological inter-blinking 248 249 period lasts 5 to 7 seconds, but a 1 min interval was required to allow sufficient precision of the measurement. Once again, this test was conducted after addition of STF. The results are 250 the mean \pm SD of n = 6 experiments. 251

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2.6. Bioadhesion: measurement of the mucoadhesive force

Evaluation of the mucoadhesive ability of the three formulations was performed using two complementary methods [34,35]. First, a tensile strength test was applied pointing out the surface interactions between the formulation and a mucin film acting as a biological substrate. Then, the rheological synergism method was used, showing the mucoadhesive effect due to internal interactions. These tests were run after addition of STF to assess the mucoadhesive capacity of the gelled formulations.

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2.6.1. Tensile strength test

The mucoadhesive capacity of the formulations was evaluated by measuring the force required to detach the formulations from a mucin film in a tensile test [28,36]. The measurements were performed on an Anton Parr MCR102 Rheometer and all the data were analyzed using Anton Parr RheoCompass software. The geometry was a stainless steel

plate/plate (diameter 50 mm and gap 100 µm). A 5 % (weight/weight) porcine gastric mucin 266 dispersion was previously prepared in sterile water. Mucin films were prepared directly on the 267 lower plate: The mucin dispersion (300 µL) was placed and spread homogeneously on the 268 plate. The plate was then heated for 3 min at 70 °C allowing the mucin dispersion to dry. 269 Then, the hydrogel (400 μ L) was carefully loaded on the lower plate, covering the mucin film. 270 After a contact of 1 min with the hydrogel with a force of 0.3 N, the upper plate was moved 271 upward at a constant speed of 10 mm/min until the complete break-up of the hydrogel. Six 272 replicate analyses were performed for each formulation at 35 °C, using a fresh sample and a 273 fresh mucin film in each case. The force of detachment as a function of displacement was 274 recorded by the software. Then, the maximum detachment force (F_{max}) was analyzed and 275 compared with the data obtained from the gel strength study without mucin film. The 276 difference between the two forces, ΔF_{max} , indicates the mucoadhesion capacity of the 277 hydrogel [28]. The results are the mean \pm SD of n=3 experiments. 278

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2.6.2. Rheological synergism

Viscosity

This method was originally described by Hassan and Gallo [37] and adapted to ophthalmic formulations to take into account the dilution due to STF [38,39]. The geometry was a stainless steel cone/plate (diameter 50 mm, angle 1 $^{\circ}$ and gap 100 μ m), which provided an homogeneous sample shear. The cone was equipped with a solvent trap to avoid evaporation during the measurement. Thanks to Peltier diodes which were placed in the lower plate, it was possible to control the temperature with a precision of 0.1 $^{\circ}$ C. All rheological results are the mean ± SD of n=6 experiments.

2.6.2.1. 289

Mucins (5 %, w/w) were dispersed in STF and then left to equilibrate overnight at 4 °C. The dispersion was then mixed with the formulations using the previous ratio of 30:7. The viscosities of the mucin dispersion, the three formulations and the formulations-mucin mixtures were then measured at 100 s⁻¹ and 35 °C with the rheometer. The viscosity due to mucoadhesion (η_b) was calculated by Eq. (2):

295 $\eta_b = \eta_t - (\eta_m + \eta_p)$ (2)

where η_t is the viscosity of the mixture, η_m is the viscosity of the mucin dispersion and η_p is the viscosity of the formulations. The mucoadhesive force was then calculated using the Eq. (3):

 $299 \quad F_b = \eta_b \times \gamma \tag{3}$

300 where γ represents the shear rate at which the viscosity value was calculated.

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302 2.6.2.2. Oscillatory measurements

Here, the values of the elastic moduli (G') measured at 35 °C were used to evaluate the interactions between the formulations and the mucin dispersion [40]. The interaction was calculated as Δ G' using Eq. (4):

306
$$\Delta G' = G'_t - (G'_p + G'_m)$$
 (4)

where G'_t is the elastic modulus of the mixture, and G'_p and G'_m represent respectively the elastic modulus of the formulation and the mucin dispersion. Herein, Δ G' referred to as the mucoadhesive interaction term, is the elastic component interpreted as the interaction between the formulation and the mucins. In this study, the elastic modulus of the mucin dispersion was negligible, Eq. (4) was therefore simplified to Eq. (5):

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313
$$\Delta G' = G'_t - G'_p$$
 (5)

The frequency was 1 Hz and the amplitude 0.1 %. These experiments were carried out under a stress value which belonged to the viscoelastic linear regime where G' remained invariant and where the sample did not undergo structural modifications.

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319 2.7. *In vivo* evaluation of ocular residence time

This animal research project was authorized by Ministry of higher education and research, in conformity with the regulations of Committee on Ethics in the care and use of laboratory animals, with the reference Apafis #14792. Male New-Zealand albino rabbits were purchased from CEGAV (France). The *in vivo* experiments were performed in non-anesthetized rabbits kept in restraining boxes. Their heads were free of movements so that normal eye blinking, head and eye movements were allowed during the experiments.

In situ gels were prepared by adding 0.014 % of Cyanine dye 5.5 to obtain suitable 326 fluorescence intensity [28]. One drop of preparation was carefully administered into animal's 327 328 conjunctival cul-de-sac with a plastic transfer pipette. The contralateral eye was treated with a control solution containing the same amount of fluorescent probe. Prior administration, the 329 fluorescence intensity of the in situ gels and the control solution were measured with a 330 microplate fluorimeter Infinite F200 PRO (Tecan, France) and no significant difference was 331 found (from 39087 ± 449 to 40358 ± 997). The weight of the drops from different 332 333 formulations as well as control solution was measured, and no significant variations were found (from 28.6 \pm 0.8 µg to 30.1 \pm 1.2 µg). A flexible scale was placed on the rabbit cheek, 334 and pictures of both eyes were recorded using Fluobeam[®], provided by Fluoptics (Grenoble, 335 336 France). A laser was used to visualize the fluorescence signal. Acquisitions were performed immediately after administration (reference image) and until three hours after formulations 337 administration. 338

Formulations A, B and C were compared with the control solution (phenylephrine 5 %, tropicamide 0.5 % and cyanine dye 0.014 % in sterile water). The kinetic data of fluorescence intensity was obtained by analyzing the images by open source processing program Image J [41]. Fluorescence intensity was measured selecting the ocular surface area only to avoid bias due to gel deposits on the edges of the eyelids and around the eyes. Results are mean \pm SD of n = 3 experiments, made on three different rabbits. Each rabbit had a minimum of 48 hours washout period between two experiments.

At the end of the protocol, rabbits were placed in foster care by an approved association, nosacrifice was needed.

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349 2.8. Statistical analysis

The statistical significance of the obtained values was analyzed using one-way ANOVA and multiple T-tests (p < 0.05) (Statgraphics centurion 18, Statgraphics Technologies, inc., The plains, VA, USA).

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354 3. Results and discussion

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356 3.1. Physicochemical characterizations

In addition to the unique rheological features of *in situ* gelling delivery systems, sol–gels intended for an ophthalmic use should meet the same requirements as conventional ophthalmic forms. The formulations must have optimal pH, clarity, and osmolality. The optimal pH for an ophthalmic formulation is near the physiological pH (7.0–7.4), although formulations with a pH from 4.0 to 8.0 shall be administered [29]. The formulation should also be isotonic to avoid irritation upon administration. Clarity is particularly important for sol-gels that are intended to remain in contact with the ocular surface. Indeed, the optical absorption in the visible wavelength range [42] or transmittance [30,43] has to be explored to
ensure that light is able to pass through the gel and that the vision of the patient is not altered.
The pH and osmolality values for each formulation are shown in table 3.

The three formulations exhibited similar pH and osmolalities. With pH values between 6.45 367 and 6.50 the pH were slightly acidic but close enough to neutrality and in the range of suitable 368 369 pH for ophthalmic use. Regarding the osmolality, values from 430 to 440 mOsm/kg were 370 found. At first glance, these results show a relatively large gap from isotonicity (300-320 mOsm/kg). However, these high osmolality values are almost only due to the high proportion 371 of phenylephrine hydrochloride in the formulations, which is required to reach a therapeutic 372 mydriasis. It was shown that the osmolality of the commercially available mydriatic eye drop 373 containing 10 % of phenylephrine hydrochloride was above 900 mOsm/kg. Therefore, while 374 being relatively higher than physiological osmolality, the osmolalities of the formulations 375 proposed here have been reduced by two fold compared with mydriatic eye drops used in 376 377 routine.

The transmittance in the visible light spectrum was then measured. Results are shown in figure 1. The percent light transmittance of the three formulations was above 90 % over the entire visible domain making them appropriate for ophthalmic use. Besides, the increase of HEC concentration revealed a slight decrease in the transparency which may be attributed to the intrinsic properties of the polymer.

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3.2. Differential scanning calorimetry

Heating DSC curve of phenylephrine hydrochloride showed a single endothermic peak at 141.1 °C with no mass loss detected with TGA. This peak was identified as the fusion peak of phenylephrine hydrochloride (Fig. S1A). Regarding tropicamide, a single endothermic peak at

96.1 °C was detected on the heating DSC curve, with no mass loss on the TGA analysis. This
peak was identified as the fusion peak of tropicamide (Fig. S1B).

The analysis of the binary mixes showed no significant differences in the peaks of PHE and TPC, as well as in the excipient's peaks. Therefore, no interactions between PHE, TPC and the excipients were evidenced (Tab. S1).

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3.3. Rheological studies

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3.3.1. Viscoelastic behavior and gelation assessment

Oscillatory experiments were mainly used to determine whether the formulations were in a 396 liquid or a gel state. The higher the G' value is, the more pronounced the elastic character is. 397 398 Conversely the higher the G'' value is, the more pronounced the viscous properties are. To extrapolate, one may consider that when the G' value is higher than the G' value, the 399 preparation exhibits a viscous-dominant (i.e. liquid-like) behavior. Inversely, when the G' 400 401 value is higher than the G" value, the preparation exhibits an elastic-dominant (i.e. solid-like) behavior. Afterwards, the tangent of the phase angle, a useful quantifier of the presence and 402 extent of elasticity in a fluid can be calculated as: $tan\delta = G''/G'$. Thus, a viscous (liquid-like) 403 state is observed when $\tan \delta > 1$. A gel (solid-like) state is observed when $\tan \delta \le 1$. Beyond 404 this critical gelation point, preparations do not necessarily appear as a cohesive and self-405 406 supporting gel but may appear as a fluid gel also referred as "weak gel" in the literature. This phenomenon occurs particularly with gellan gum based gels [21] and this behavior is highly 407 sought regarding the ocular administration. 408

409 Storage modulus (G'), loss modulus (G'') and tangent of the phase angle (tanδ) values in
410 presence or absence of simulated tear fluid (STF) are reported in table 4.

Before addition of STF, the three formulations exhibited a liquid-like behavior with very low values of storage and loss moduli and tangents of the phase angle values greater than 1. The liquid-like behavior before administration is a prerequisite for *in situ* gelling delivery systems allowing a free flow and ability to form drops. Thus, formulations A, B and C are suitable for an easy, safe and reproducible administration to the eye.

After addition of STF, formulations A, B and C underwent a liquid / gel transition. Indeed, the storage moduli were increased by 30 folds and tangents of the phase angle shifted to values below 1. As reported in the literature [44], these measurements assessed the *in vitro* gelation due to ionic interactions between gellan gum chains and mono and divalent cations of the tear fluid. Therefore, formulations A, B and C should exhibit an *in situ* gelation following administration to the eye.

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3.3.2. Flow behavior and viscosity

In situ gels presented a shear-thinning behavior (Fig. 2). Viscograms were fitted with the Cross model with good correlation coefficient values (A: $R^2 > 0.986$, B: $R^2 > 0.998$, C: $R^2 > 0.997$). A constant viscosity was obtained for very low shear rates, and then the viscosity decreased with the increase of the shear rate. η_0 , η_∞ and *m* values are reported in table 5, as well as the viscosity at 5000 s⁻¹ which represent the viscosity under the shear of the eyelid.

From the Cross equation, no significant differences were shown between η_{∞} values and η_0 values were in the same order of magnitude. Contrariwise, significant differences in the viscosity at 5000 s⁻¹ were observed between formulation A, B and C. Thus, the three formulations exhibited similar values of η_{∞} and η_0 but different shear-thinning behaviors with different viscosity values over the stress sweep in the range of 0.1 to 5000 s⁻¹. These differences were highlighted with the Cross constant, formulation A being significantly more shear-thinning than formulations B and C with a greater *m* value. Formulation A displayed a non-thixotropic behavior shown by the significant overlay of
downward and upward curves (Fig. 2A). On the contrary, formulations B and C exhibited a
thixotropic behavior shown by a significant gap between the downward and upward curves
(Fig. 2B and 2C).

The three formulations exhibited flow behaviors and viscosities suitable for ocular 440 administration. On one hand, formulation A exhibited a very low viscosity under high shear 441 rates but recovered almost instantly when the deformation stopped. On the other hand, 442 formulations B and C presented higher viscosities under high shear rates followed by a 443 delayed and incomplete recovery at rest. The shear-thinning behavior presents real advantages 444 for formulations intended to remain on the ocular surface. It allows a high viscosity at rest, 445 when the eye is open, and a low viscosity under the shear of the eyelid, thus avoiding 446 irritation and discomfort. 447

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3.3.3. Gel resistance under simulated eye blinking

In order to complete the previous observations, two rheological experiments were developed.
Formulations were submitted to a series of simulated eye blinking (i.e. high shear rate
interspersed by rest periods) to predict the rheological behavior over time on the ocular
surface.

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3.3.3.1. Rotational measurements

The first test allowed viscosity measurements during the inter-blinking intervals. At each simulated blinking, the viscosities reached a minimum due to the shear-thinning behavior and then recovered during the inter-blinking periods (Fig 3).

459 The results were in accordance with the flow behavior and thixotropy study. Also, the order of 460 magnitude of the viscosity at 1 s⁻¹ was the same than previously observed. As a non-

thixotropic hydrogel, viscosity of formulation A attained a plateau at its original value almost instantly during rest periods conducting to a steady viscosity all along the ten cycles of simulated blinking. Contrarily, as thixotropic hydrogels, viscosities of formulations B and C recovered without reaching the plateau during the inter-blinking intervals. This delay resulted in a slight loss of viscosity at each blinking. Thus, after two cycles, formulations B and C exhibited lower viscosities than formulation A which was the less viscous formulation originally.

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3.3.3.2. Oscillatory measurements

The second test allowed the measurement of storage (G') and loss (G'') moduli during the inter-blinking intervals. The parameter tan δ was used to assess the gel state of the formulations. At each simulated blinking, tan δ reached a maximum, due to the partial deconstruct of the tridimensional network of the gel, and then recovered during the interblinking periods (Fig 4).

Formulation A exhibited a tan $\delta < 1$ all along the ten cycles. Thus, the gel network resisted to the high shear of the simulated blinking and formulation A remained at a gel state.

Formulation B also remained at a gel state all along the ten cycles except at the moment of high shear rate where tan $\delta \le 1$. Thus, it could be eliminated from ocular surface as a liquid at the moment of the blinking.

480 Formulation C exhibited a tan $\delta < 1$ for the rest period of the first two cycles. Then, the gel 481 network was dismantled as tan $\delta > 1$ and the formulation was at a liquid state.

Thus, the elimination rate of the ocular surface of formulation C should be higher than formulation's B, itself higher than formulation's A. Therefore, formulation A exhibited the more suitable rheological properties to enhance the residence time on the ocular surface. 485

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3.4. Bioadhesion: measurement of the mucoadhesive force

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3.4.1. Tensile strength test

488 The maximum detachment forces of hydrogels (F_{max}) were measured and compared in the 489 presence and in the absence of mucin film. The results are presented in figure 5. When 490 comparing F_{max} values with mucin to those without mucin, here expressed as ΔF_{max} , a 491 significant increase was observed for all the formulations (p < 0.001).

This indicated a positive interaction between hydrogels and mucin which was coherent with data found on the mucoadhesive properties of gellan gum and HEC in the literature [45]. Therefore, hydrogels could be retained by interacting with the mucin associated to the ocular surface, leading to enhanced ocular retention time.

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3.4.2. Rheological synergism

The mucoadhesive force of a formulation can be determined by a simple method which depends on the evaluation of the "rheological synergism" existing when mixing mucoadhesive polymers with mucin dispersions [46].

The mucoadhesive interaction term $\Delta G'$ was found positive for all three formulations indicating a synergism on the elasticity of the gels and therefore, a positive interaction between hydrogels and mucin. The G' and $\Delta G'$ values are summarized in table 6. $\Delta G'$ values of formulations B and C containing HEC, were significantly higher than formulation's A, clearly exhibiting the strong effect of HEC on the mucoadhesion properties of hydrogels. $\Delta G'$ of formulations A, B and C are reported in figure 6A.

507 The mucoadhesive forces were positive for all three formulations. Positive mucoadhesive 508 forces are due to viscosity synergisms in the mixtures indicating a mucoadhesive interaction between hydrogels and mucin. The viscosity and mucoadhesive force values are summarizedin table 7.

Viscosities of bioadhesion were significantly different between formulations A, B and C (Fig.
6B). Formulation C was more mucoadhesive than formulation B, itself more mucoadhesive
than formulation A. Again, the increase in the concentration of HEC was related to the
increase of the mucoadhesive properties.

515 The three evaluation methods described above are complementary as they enlighten different aspect of mucoadhesion, which is a complex phenomenon [47,48]. More than ten different 516 types of mucins are expressed on the ocular surface [49]. Two main categories are 517 distinguished: the mucins associated to the membrane (i.e. cornea) as MUC1, MUC4 and 518 519 MUC16 [50,51] and secreted mucins, dispersed in the tear fluid, like MUC2 and MUC5A. On one hand, tensile strength test highlighted the surface interaction between hydrogels and the 520 mucin films. This method could be related to the first category of mucin as the interaction 521 522 involved an interface, mucin film mimicking the cornea. On the other hand, rheological synergism involved a liquid phase interaction and could be related to the second category of 523 mucin secreted in the tear fluid. 524

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3.5. *In vivo* evaluation of ocular residence time

Fluorescence intensity of formulations A, B and C containing cyanine 5 dye were compared with the control solution of PHE and TPC containing the same concentration of cyanine after administration on non-anesthetized rabbits. The impact of the addition of the dye on physicochemical properties of the formulations was assessed rheologically. No significant changes were shown on the viscosity and the gel resistance under simulated eye blinking.

The evolution of the fluorescence intensity normalized by the initial fluorescence signal is plotted on figure 8. As we can see, there was a significant difference between the control

solution and the hydrogel formulations. As expected, the control solution was almost 534 completely eliminated during the first 10 minutes following administration [1]. Formulations 535 A, B and C showed a significantly higher retention of the fluorescent probe in the corneal 536 537 region in comparison with the reference solution. During the first 10 minutes, a large variability was observed. It was probably due to the large volume of product instilled. Indeed, 538 as said above, the volume of tear fluid on the ocular surface is about 7 µL. Here, the drop 539 volumes were about 30 µL, resulting in a fast elimination of the surplus either by nasolacrimal 540 drainage or by lacrimation. As we can see, a significant amount of in situ gel was found on 541 the rabbit cheeks and eye contour (Fig. 7). Also, at the initial period, rabbits showed no sign 542 543 of stress or discomfort due to administration. No increase in the blinking frequency was noted, confirming the limited volume capacity of the conjunctival cul-de-sac and ocular 544 surface as the main factor for elimination [52]. The prolonged residence time on the ocular 545 546 surface region is illustrated on figure 7.

After 20 minutes all the *in situ* gels tended to exhibit a slow decrease in signal intensity from
the corneal region. After 3 hours, around 20 % remained on the rabbit's ocular surface, which
suggested good resistance of the hydrogel formulations on ocular surface.

550 Area under curve (AUC) were calculated and showed a significant difference between in situ gelling formulations and the control solution (p < 0.05) (Tab. 8). Formulation A exhibited the 551 most prolonged residence time on the ocular surface which was coherent with in vitro gel 552 resistance studies and previous studies on the importance on gelation versus viscosity 553 554 enhancement [19]. Even though, no significant differences were shown between formulations due to large variability of in vivo experiments. Nevertheless, these results are promising as 555 556 experiments were conducted on vigilant rabbits meaning that in situ gels were submitted to physiological eye blinking which is known to promote a fast elimination. 557

In the literature, a substantial amount of *in vivo* experiments are dedicated to preclinical 558 studies on the residence performance of ophthalmic in situ gelling delivery systems 559 [43,53,54]. Due to the low amount and transparency of the *in situ* gels, visual evaluation is 560 delicate to carry out. In this context, various imaging methods are used [27]. The 561 incorporation of a fluorescent marker provides accurate information about in situ gel's 562 behavior in vivo [28]. Using a portable camera allowed relatively easy measurements and 563 therefore, the animals could be kept vigilant. The imaging technique was non-invasive, and no 564 565 sacrifice was needed to analyze the fluorescence intensity. As compared to gamma scintigraphy technique, which is often used to study the performance of ophthalmic 566 hydrogels, the physical incorporation of the marker used in our study was easier and safer to 567 realize. 568

Despite the significant increase in AUC and fluorescence intensity remaining after 3h (Tab. 569 570 8), formulations A, B and C exhibited biphasic clearance patterns usually observed with liquid 571 solutions [55], contrariwise with observations made by Rupenthal et al. [56] and Meseguer et al. [57] showing constant elimination rate for polymeric formulations. This could be due to 572 the very low concentration of polymer used, which results in "liquid-like" gels also called 573 weak gels [21]. Indeed, concentration of gellan gum was decreased by more than 3 fold 574 compared with other studies. Still, in situ gelling delivery systems presented in this study 575 576 exhibited a promising retention time on the ocular surface suggesting that elasticity (i.e. storage modulus (G')) would play a leading role over other parameters such as viscosity or 577 mucoadhesion in a certain extent. 578

579

580 **4.** Conclusion

In this study, novel in situ gelling delivery systems containing a combination of 582 phenylephrine hydrochloride and tropicamide were developed. All in situ gelling delivery 583 systems exhibited suitable physico-chemical properties for ophthalmic use. Appropriate 584 585 viscosities and in situ gelation capacities were demonstrated, along with shear-thinning behavior favorable to ocular administration. A new method to characterize rheological 586 behavior under simulated eye blinking was developed and showed significant differences in 587 the resistance of the gels. The addition of HEC enhanced the viscosity while decreasing the 588 gels resistance to shear stress. Also, HEC reinforced the mucoadhesive properties of the 589 formulations. Subsequently, ocular residence time was assessed in vivo, giving insights on the 590 importance of each parameter. Indeed, the ocular residence time resulted in a combination of 591 the effects individually assessed in vitro. 592

593 These new formulations are promising alternatives to conventional eye drops regarding their 594 capacity to enhance residence time on the ocular surface for more than 3 hours, and therefore the drug bioavailability. Moreover, these innovative delivery systems could improve the 595 596 treatment of several affections of the anterior segment of the eye. An enhanced bioavailability would lead to a better efficacy of the treatment while allowing a decrease in the frequency of 597 administrations and therefore, in the quantity of drug administered. Also, several studies on in 598 situ gelling delivery systems have shown reduced side effects with a decreased absorption at 599 600 the systemic level. Finally, these delivery systems are an added value to drugs, making it possible to best meet patients and practitioners needs, to improve medical care and hence, 601 patient compliance. 602

603

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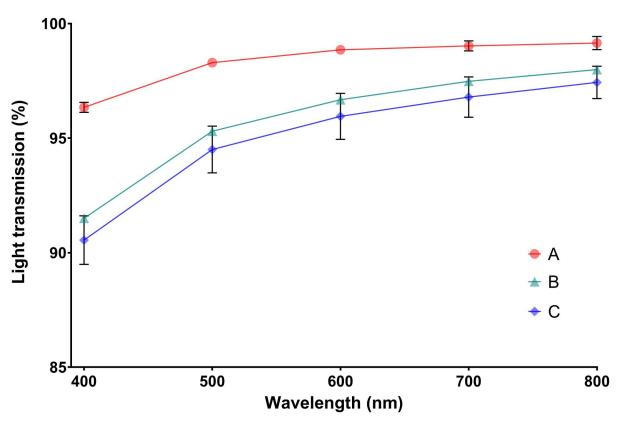
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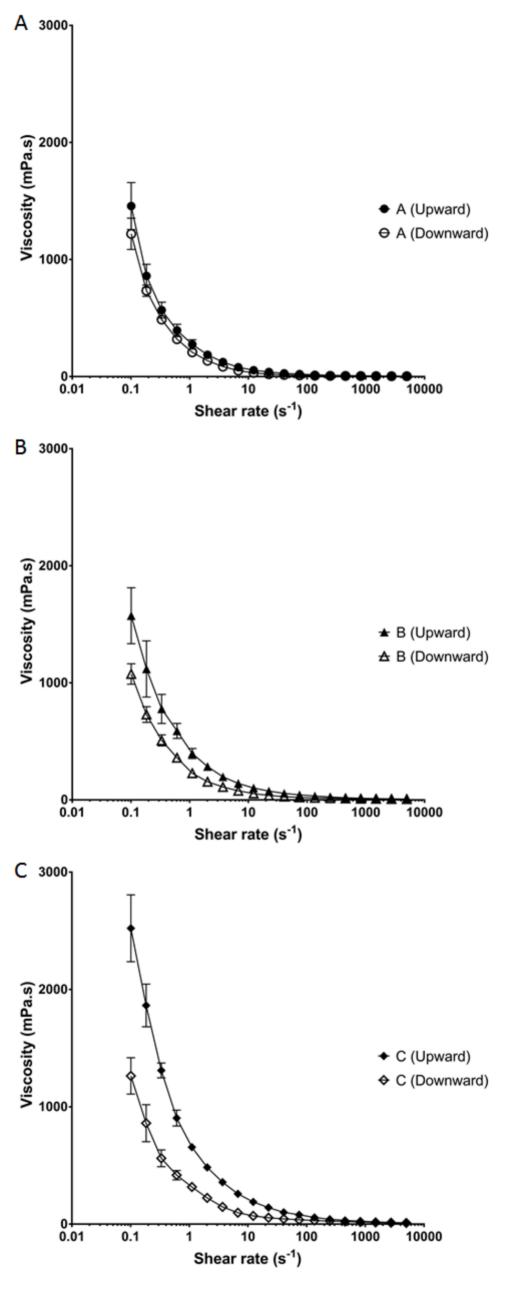
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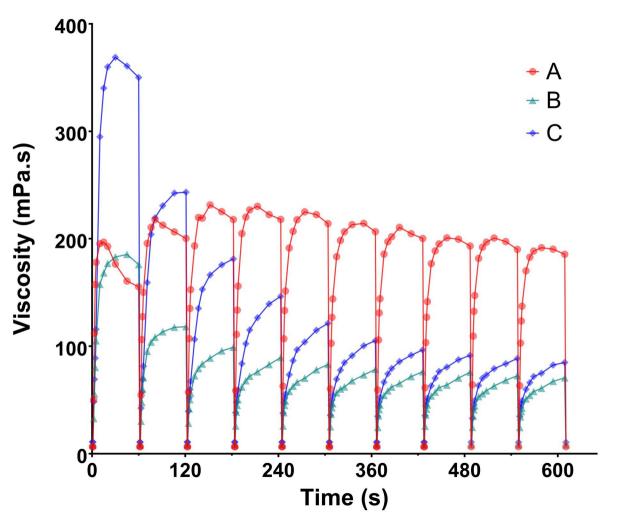
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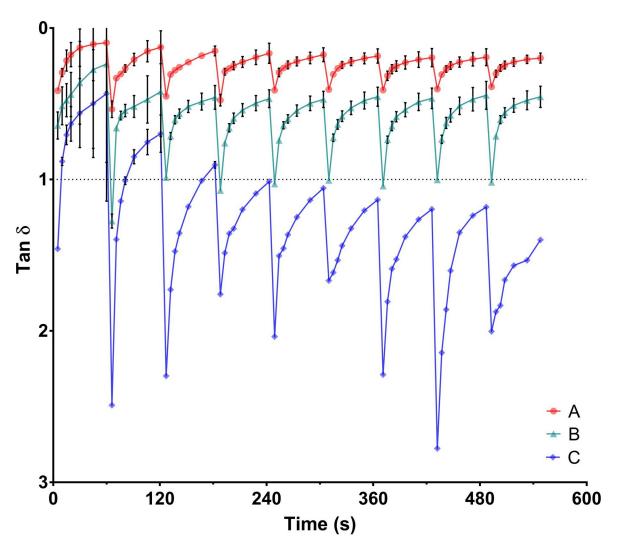
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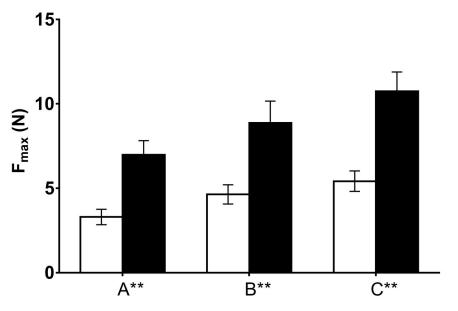
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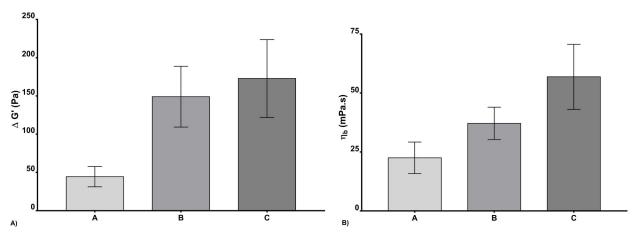




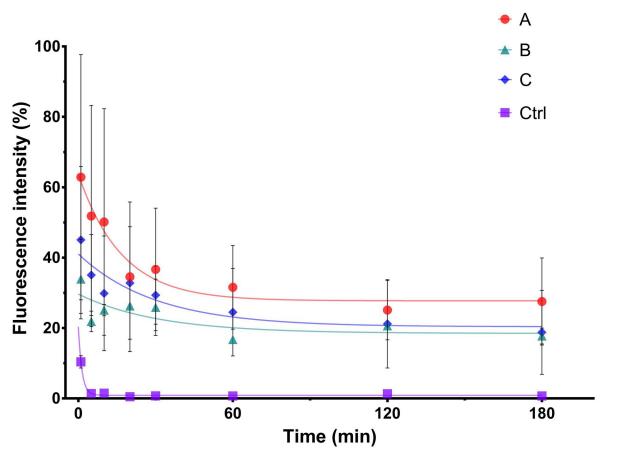




Without mucinWith mucin



	In situ gel	Control solution
t _{1min}		and the second s
t _{5min}		1 .
t _{10min}		
t _{20min}		
t _{30min}		
t _{60min}	1	4.
t _{120min}	1	4
t _{180min}	Constant of the	5 mm



	Gellan gum (% w/v)	Hydroxyethylcellulose (% w/v)	Sodium citrate (% w/v)	Phenylephrine (% w/v)	Tropicamide (% w/v)
Α	0.15	0	0.09	5.0	0.5
В	0.15	0.25	0.09	5.0	0.5
С	0.15	0.5	0.09	5.0	0.5

Composition	of the <i>i</i>	in situ	gelling	deliverv	systems
			00		~

Simulated Tear Fluid composition [30,32]

	Mass (g)
Sodium chloride	0.670
Sodium bicarbonate	0.200
Calcium chloride	0.008
Magnesium chloride	0.005
Potassium chloride	0.138
H ₂ O	98.979

pH and osmolality values

	pH	Osmolality (mOsm/kg)
Α	6.46 ± 0.02	438.3 ± 2.1
В	6.49 ± 0.02	438.7 ± 5.0
С	6.50 ± 0.01	434.3 ± 5.0

Values of G', G'', tan δ and description of the viscoelastic behavior before and after gelation in presence or absence of simulated tear fluid (STF)

	Storage modulus,	Loss modulus,	Tangent of the	Viscoelastic
	G' (Pa)	G'' (Pa)	phase angle, tanð	behavior
Α	0.117 ± 0.023	0.217 ± 0.011	1.855	Liquid-like
В	0.422 ± 0.081	0.574 ± 0.056	1.360	Liquid-like
С	0.622 ± 0.091	1.122 ± 0.071	1.804	Liquid-like
A + STF	17.545 ± 1.061	2.262 ± 0.366	0.129	Weak gel
B + STF	14.036 ± 1.723	2.283 ± 0.348	0.163	Weak gel
C + STF	18.154 ± 3.403	3.468 ± 0.631	0.191	Weak gel

	η_0 (mPa.s)	η at 5000 s ⁻¹ (mPa.s)	η_{∞} (mPa.s)	Cross constant m
Α	108613 ± 14	3.9 ± 0.2	3.2 ± 0.5	0.66 ± 0.04
В	81164 ± 8	7.4 ± 0.2	4.3 ± 0.5	0.56 ± 0.02
С	105085 ± 20	10.9 ± 0.6	4.8 ± 0.4	0.52 ± 0.03

Table 5
Values of η_0 , η at 5000 s ⁻¹ , η_{∞} , and m obtained from Cross model

	G't (Pa)	G' _m (Pa)	G' _p (Pa)	ΔG' (Pa)
Α	61.99 ± 12.22	0.08 ± 0.08	17.55 ± 1.02	44.44 ± 13.24
В	163.01 ± 38.00	0.08 ± 0.08	14.04 ± 1.71	148.97 ± 39.71
С	190.90 ± 47.46	0.08 ± 0.08	18.15 ± 3.35	172.75 ± 50.81

Values of mucoadhesive interaction term $\Delta G'$ obtained from Eq. (5)

Viscosity of bioadhesion and force of bioadhesion values obtained from Eq. (2) and (3) respectively

	$\eta_t (mPa.s)$	$\eta_{m}\left(mPa.s\right)$	$\eta_{P}\left(mPa.s\right)$	$\eta_b(mPa.s)$	F _b (mPa)
Α	43.89 ± 4.17	5.78 ± 1.31	15.60 ± 1.21	22.51 ± 6.69	2251
В	71.97 ± 4.10	5.78 ± 1.31	29.07 ± 1.47	37.12 ± 6.88	3712
С	122.34 ± 7.81	5.78 ± 1.31	59.68 ± 4.67	56.88 ± 13.79	5688

	AUC _{0-180min} (% min)	Fluorescence intensity after 3h (%)
Α	5567 ± 755	27.5 ± 12.4
В	3659 ± 151	17.7 ± 2.3
С	4325 ± 791	18.8 ± 11.9
Control solution	190 ± 51	0.7 ± 0.3

Table 8AUC and fluorescence intensity remaining 3 hours after instillation

