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Electroactive biomaterials: Vehicles for controlled delivery of therapeutic agents for drug delivery and tissue regeneration

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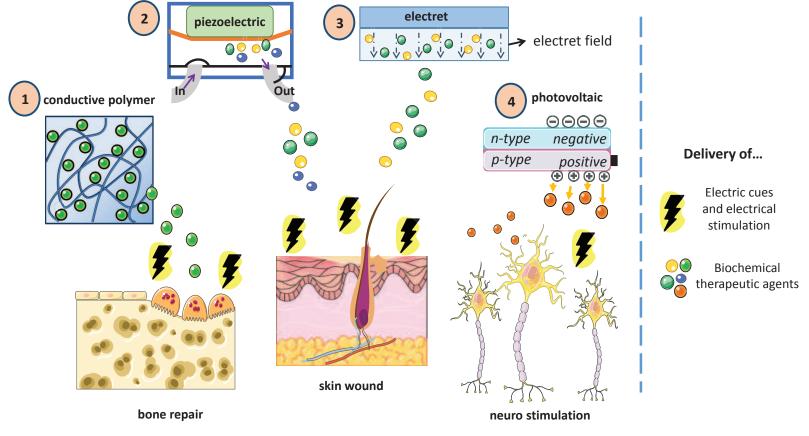
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Abstract: Electrical stimulation for delivery of biochemical agents such as genes, proteins and RNA molecules amongst others, holds great potential for controlled therapeutic delivery and in promoting tissue regeneration. Electroactive biomaterials have the capability of delivering these agents in a localized, controlled, responsive and efficient manner. These systems have also been combined for the delivery of both physical and biochemical cues and can be programmed to achieve enhanced effects on healing by establishing control over the microenvironment. This review focuses on current state-of-the-art research of electroactive-based materials towards the delivery of drugs and other therapeutic signalling agents for wound care treatment. Future directions and current challenges for developing effective electroactive approach based therapies for wound care are discussed.



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1 Electroactive biomaterials: Vehicles for controlled delivery of

2 therapeutic agents for drug delivery and tissue regeneration

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9 Abstract

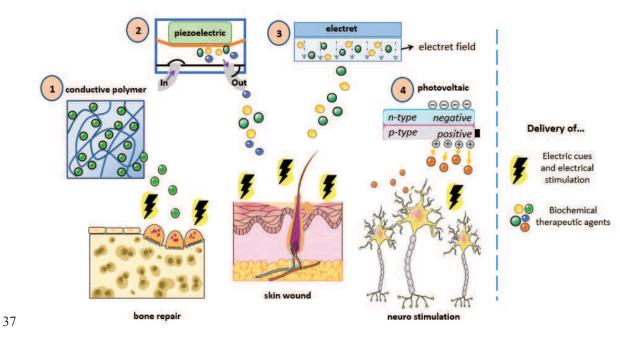
- Electrical stimulation for delivery of biochemical agents such as genes, proteins and RNA molecules amongst others, holds great potential for controlled therapeutic delivery and in promoting tissue regeneration. Electroactive biomaterials have the capability of delivering these agents in a localized, controlled, responsive and efficient manner. These systems have also been combined for the delivery of both physical and biochemical cues and can be programmed to achieve enhanced effects on healing by establishing control over the microenvironment. This review focuses on current state-of-the-art research in electroactive-based materials towards the delivery of drugs and other therapeutic
- 17 signalling agents for wound care treatment. Future directions and current challenges for developing
- 18 effective electroactive approach based therapies for wound care are discussed.

19 Keywords

20 Piezoelectrics; Conductive polymers; Photovoltaics; Electrets; Electric signals; Drugs; Wounds

21 Abbreviations: CP. conductive PPv. polypyrrole; PEDOT. polymers; polv(3.4-22 ethylenedioxythiophene); PANI, polyaniline; PLLA, poly(L-lactide); PVDF, poly(vinylidene 23 fluoride); PVDF-TrFE, poly-(vinylidenefluoride-co-trifluro-ethylene); PHB, polyhydroxy-butyrate; 24 HA, hydroxyapatite; BT, barium titanate; LNKN, lithium sodium potassium niobate; LN, lithium 1

25 niobate; PZT, lead zirconate titanate; ZO, zinc oxide; BNNT, boron nitride nanotubes; PV, 26 photovoltaic; NGF, neural growth factor; PSS, polystyrene sulfonate; PAA, poly(acrylic acid); BDNF, 27 brain-derived neurotrophic factor; ATP, adenosine triphosphate; PLGA, poly(lactide-co-glycolide); 28 GO, graphene oxide; PEG, poly(ethylene glycol); PCL, poly(ε -caprolactone); PPV, poly(p-29 phenylenevinylene); PAAM, polyacrylamide; NP, nanoparticle; PEI, poly(ethylene imine); TDD, 30 transdermal drug delivery; PTFE, polytetrafluoroethylene; PP, polypropylene; TMC, N- trimethyl 31 chitosan; PVT, photovoltaic therapy; NPVDs, photovoltaic based nanoparticle cells; MOFs, metal 32 organic frameworks; ES, electrical stimulation; SPAN, self-doped sulfonated polyaniline; PU, 33 polyurethane; KNN, potassium sodium niobate; ROS, reactive oxygen species; P3HT-PCBM, poly(3-34 hexylthiophene)-phenyl-C61-butyric acid methyl ester; PPy-PTh, polypyrrole-thiophene; PXDOP, 35 poly(3,4-alkylenedioxypyrrole); PFM, piezoresponse force microscopy



36 Graphical abstract

38

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Wound healing is a coordinated process relying on precise spatiotemporal mechanisms of action.

43 Significant progress has been made to identify specific signals (e.g. small molecules, cytokines,

44 growth factors, RNA interface, genes, cell-based therapies) of therapeutic benefit [1,2]. To this end,

45 there is great interest in applying these mechanisms to enhance and accelerate wound healing and

46 enable tissue repair that otherwise could not occur naturally. However, despite the advances made in

47 the field, wound regeneration continues to be a constant challenge for health-care professionals.

48 Injuries to healthy tissues are known to give rise to localized electric fields that play a key role in the

49 process of healing of these wounded tissues [3]. Both delivery of therapeutic drugs and electrical

50 stimulation therapies have been identified as essential tools to enhance the process of wound healing

51 [4–6]. Advances in the delivery systems of these therapeutics have been reviewed [7,8], however,

52 establishing control over their release and stimulus is challenging. To this regard, electroactive

53 biomaterials are gaining prominence and are the focus of the current review in the field of

54 therapeutics for drug delivery and tissue regeneration.

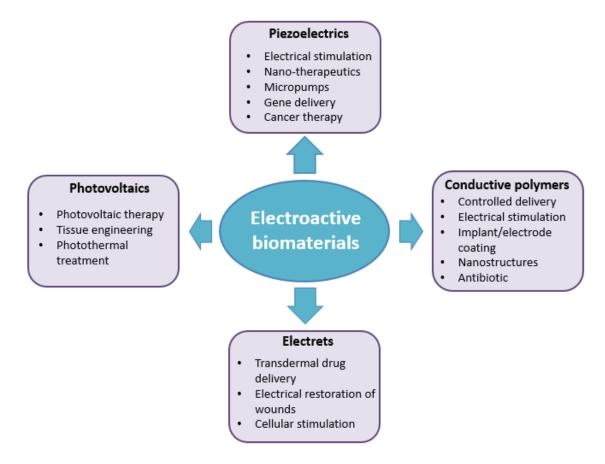
55 **2. Electroactive biomaterials and their modes of action**

The family of electroactive biomaterials (**Figure 1**) is considered a new generation of smart materials that allow direct delivery of electrical signals by control over the electric potential. They have the advantage that they can be combinatorially active (i.e. stimulatory to the tissues as well as triggering controlled/responsive release of therapeutics). Such systems provide clinicians and scientists with an alternative delivery mechanism in wound care, facilitating in turn the development of new therapeutic approaches for patients.

62 Electroactive biomaterials have the potential to have their chemical, electrical and physical properties

63 tailored for the specific needs of their application. The family of electroactive biomaterials includes

64 conductive polymers, piezoelectrics, photovoltaic materials, and electrets.



65

66 Figure 1 The family of electroactive materials and their applications

67 **2.1 Conductive polymers**

68 Conductive polymers (CP) are organic polymers that offer a compromise between the good electrical,

69 magnetic and optical properties of metals and the ease of processing and mechanical properties

associated with polymers [9–12]. Currently there are over 25 conductive polymer systems [9,10]. The

71 most widely researched of these are polypyrrole (PPy), poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene) (PEDOT)

and polyaniline (PANI) [9,10].

73 CPs are electrically conductive due to the ease with which electrons jump within and between their

polymer chains [13]. A key factor in this conductivity is the "dopant" [13–15]. Conductive polymers

75 are synthesized in an oxidized state and require a negatively charged (anion) molecule - the dopant -

to enter the polymer so that the polymer backbone can be stabilized [16]. This dopant is what

77 introduces a charge carrier into this system by removing or adding electrons from/to the polymer 4

78 chain, creating polarons or bipolarons. Polarons and bipolarons are loosely held, localized electrons 79 that are surrounded by a distortion in the crystal lattice. When an electrical potential is applied, the 80 backbone is disrupted by the movement of the dopant molecules in or out of the polymer. This allows 81 electrical charge to be passed through a polymer in the form of the above-mentioned polarons and 82 bipolarons [13–15,17]. Many of the CPs have been shown to be cell friendly, supporting the growth of 83 a large number of cell types and displaying good biocompatibility in animal models [13,18–22]. For 84 example, PPy has been demonstrated to support the growth, adhesion and differentiation of neural 85 [23,24], glial [25], endothelial [26,27] and bone cells [18,28], fibroblasts [29], keratinocytes [29] and 86 mesenchymal stem cells [30]. Similarly, PEDOT has been demonstrated biocompatible with neural 87 [31] and neuroblastoma cells [32], epithelial cells [13], and the L929 [33] and NIH3T3 fibroblasts cell 88 lines [13].

89 2.2 Piezoelectric materials

90 Since their discovery in 1880 by the Curie brothers, piezoelectric materials have found applications in 91 different fields such as energy harvesting, biomedical instrumentation, tissue engineering and drug 92 delivery [34–39]. These materials are capable of generating charges (i.e. electrical output) in response 93 to applied mechanical deformations (i.e. direct effect) and also deform in response to applied electric 94 fields (i.e. converse effect) [38]. This effect is attributed to their non-centrosymmetric 95 crystal/chemical structure, which is deformed on application of a force resulting in formation of a net 96 dipole leading to electric polarization [40]. Though these materials are inherently piezoelectric, the 97 dipoles are randomly oriented in the bulk of the material and need to be rearranged to enhance their 98 piezoelectric feature. The procedure used to carry out such rearrangement is termed poling and 99 involves the application of a high electric field at a specific temperature followed by cooling the 100 material under the same electric field [41]. A schematic of the poling procedures and representation of 101 direct and converse piezoelectric effects is shown in Figure 2.

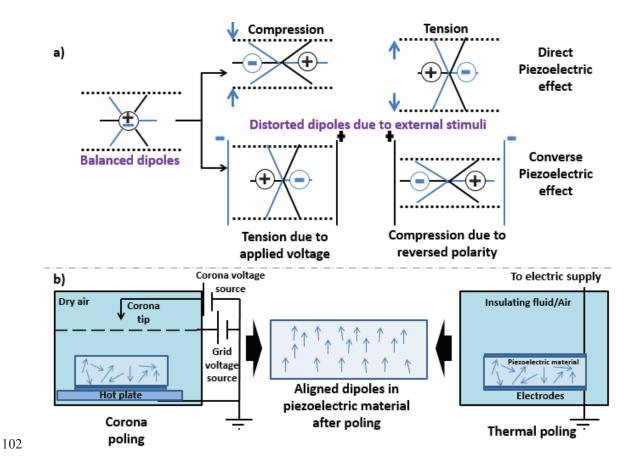


Figure 2 a) Direct and converse piezoelectric effect mechanisms and b) types of poling procedures to
 maximize piezoelectricity

105 Piezoelectric materials can be based on synthetic polymers or ceramics, naturally occurring materials

106 or hydrogel systems (a list of piezoelectric materials is shown in **Table 1**). These materials can be

- 107 fabricated into macro-, micro or nano- level structures and consequently be used for efficient and
- 108 controlled release of drugs and therapeutic agents. The potential applications of these materials in the
- 109 field of medicine require considerable attention of the scientific community.
- 110 Table 1 Piezoelectric materials and their classifications

Polymers	Ceramics	Others
Poly(_L -Lactide) (PLLA)	Hydroxyapatite (HA)	Diphenylalanine
Poly-(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF)	Barium titanate (BT)	Collagen

Poly-(vinylidene fluoride-co-trifluro	Lithium sodium potassium	Boron nitride nano tubes
ethylene) (PVDF-TrFE)	niobate (LNKN)	(BNNTs)
Polyhydroxy-butyrate (PHB)	Lithium niobate (LN)	Silk
	Lead zirconate titanate (PZT)	
	Zinc Oxide (ZO)	

111

112 **2.3 Electrets**

Electrets are dielectric materials capable of retaining quasi permanent electrical charge or dipole
polarisation which is not destroyed over time [42,43]. The process of fabricating electrets is similar to

115 the poling process of piezoelectric materials by which the material is charged at a constant voltage. A

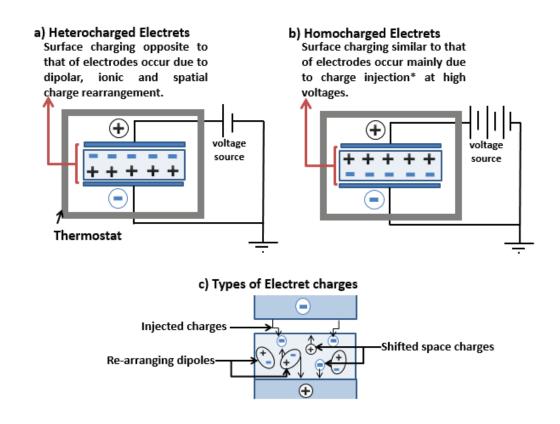
dielectric material is sandwiched between electrodes, heated to softening temperature and a direct

117 current electric field is applied and maintained while the material is cooled to room temperature [44].

118 Based on the type of charges developed on the surface of the electret, they can be classified into two

119 types (i) homocharged and (ii) heterocharged [45]. The different types of electrets and the charges

120 associated with their formation are shown in **Figure 3**.



121

122 Figure 3 Types of electrets: (a) heterocharged and (b) homocharged (*injected charges are those

123 which get deposited on the material surface from the surrounding electrode); and (c) charge carriers

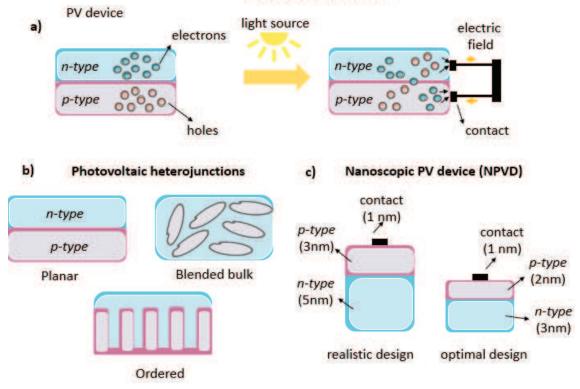
124 involved during the formation of electrets

125 **2.4 Photovoltaic materials**

- 126 Photovoltaics (PV) is the process of converting light into electrical power by using semiconductor
- 127 materials that are able to absorb and trap light while exciting a charge carrier to a higher energy state,
- 128 creating an electron flow: light absorption creates electron-hole pairs, and electrons and holes
- respectively migrate to opposite electrodes [46] (Figure 4a).
- 130 Essentially, a PV device (Figure 4a) consists of two regions, an *n*-type dope region and a *p*-type dope
- region, respectively featuring an excess of electrons and a deficit of electrons (i.e. holes), and the
- 132 presence of contacts [47,48]. When both components come into contact, the excess of electrons flow
- 133 from the *n*-type dope region into the *p*-type dope region, creating an electric field in between.

134 While PV devices can be found in many forms, these can be classified into three main types. The 135 simplest PV device consists of an electron donor and an electron acceptor sandwiched together into a 136 thin film (single or double layer) for the charge carrier to be allowed to diffuse through the junction 137 (Figure 4b) [49]. However, the thinner the film the less amount of light it can entrap. The previous 138 shortcoming can be addressed by mixing the electron donor and electron acceptor components into a 139 blend (Figure 4b) [50], enhancing carrier diffusion. These PV devices generally consist of composite 140 blends mixing semiconductor nanoparticles with conjugated polymers [51-54], where one functions 141 as an electron donor and the other as an electron acceptor [52]. Blending semiconductor nanoparticles 142 with conjugated polymers combines the easy processability and low cost of the polymer with the high 143 charge mobility of the nanoparticle, which may include spherical, rod-like or branched organic and 144 inorganic particles such as CdSe, ZnO, PbS, fullerene derivatives or single-walled nanotubes [55-57]. 145 The performance of the composite can be enhanced in terms of light absorbance, charge separation or 146 charge transport, which depends on the choice of the conjugated polymer and the processing condition 147 [58,59]. However, the size and shape of the nanoparticle is also key: branched morphologies exhibit 148 higher efficiencies compared to the use of nanorods or quantum dots [50], and small dimensions (i.e. 149 large surface area to volume ratio) improve energy absorption and emission owning to high optical 150 density [52]. An alternative to the PV blend device format is for a conjugated polymer to be inserted 151 into a porous inorganic network as an ordered heterojunction-like structure (Figure 4b) [60]. Electron 152 transport is facilitated this way as the interface between the polymer and the inorganic component is 153 mainly governed by the dimension of the nanostructure particle, these interfaces can be chemically 154 controlled to assist charge separation or block charge recombination across the donor-acceptor 155 interface [60].

Photovoltaic mechanism



156

157 Figure 4 Photovoltaic mechanism: a) conventional photovoltaic cell where electron-hole pairs

158 migrate to opposite electrodes upon photo stimulation and electric current is produced; b) photovoltaic

159 cells depicting the schematics of a planar heterojunction, a blended bulk heterojunction and an

160 ordered heterojunction; c) model of a conceptual nanoscopic photovoltaic device depicting realistic

161 and optimal design dimensions

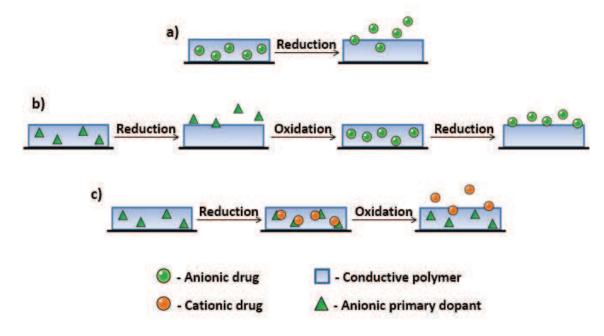
162 **3. Electroactive biomaterials as drug delivery systems**

163 **3.1 Electrochemically controlled drug delivery based on CPs**

- 164 CPs have been investigated as potential candidates for drug delivery systems since as early as the
- 165 1980s, when Zinger and Miller demonstrated that glutamate and ferrocyanide can be released from
- 166 polypyrrole films through the application of an electric potential [61].

167 **3.1.1 Drug loading and release mechanisms for CPs**

- 168 Drug delivery systems based on CPs exploit the polymers' ability to be electrically switched between
- an oxidized and a reduced state, resulting in the uptake or expulsion of charged molecules from the
- 170 bulk of the polymer [62–64]. A wide range of solutions have been developed based on this
- 171 phenomenon for the loading and controlled delivery of both positively and negatively charged and
- 172 neutral drug compounds [62,65–67]. Amongst others, dexamethasone [68], heparin [69], dopamine
- 173 [70], naproxen [71], neutrophin-3 [72], and neural growth factor (NGF) [22,31] have all been
- 174 successfully bound and released from conductive polymers.
- 175 Loading of the drug compound can be performed in a number of ways depending on the type of the
- 176 drug (Figure 5): small anionic compounds can be loaded through one-step immobilization (Figure
- 177 **5a**), as dopants during the polymer synthesis process [65,73,74]. This is the simplest method;
- 178 however, if the drug molecule interferes with the polymerization process, the created material will
- 179 suffer from low conductivity and drug loading capacity, and unfavourable mechanical properties [65].



181 **Figure 5** Mechanisms of drug loading and release in CPs: a) one-step loading of anionic drug; b)

182 three-step loading of anionic drug; and c) loading of cationic drug

183 This limitation of the one-step methods can be overcome through the use of the more elaborate three-184 step method [11,65,67,74]. The three-step method (Figure 5b) separates the synthesis and drug 185 loading processes, allowing both to be carried out with optimal parameters. First, the polymer is 186 synthesized using an ideal anionic "primary" dopant. Following synthesis, a reducing potential is 187 applied flushing out the primary dopant. Afterwards, the desired medicinal compound can be 188 incorporated into the polymer by reversing the potential. A great benefit of this method is its 189 application to the loading of large anionic compounds. However, if the process of removing the 190 dopant and incorporating the drug are inefficient, drug loading capacity will be limited [65]. 191 In a comparison of the one-step and three-step methods, post-synthesis loading has been shown to 192 produce the highest loading for ciprofloxacin, while incorporation during synthesis provided the 193 highest loading for quercetin [74]. This difference was due to quercetin crystallizing on the surface of 194 the polymer when introduced post-synthesis and the subsequent matrix conditioning steps removing it 195 [74]. Cationic drugs require a modified version (Figure 5c) of the three-step method [63,67,73–75]. 196 Here, the polymer is synthesized with a large primary anionic dopant that, due to its size, is 197 immobilized inside the polymer matrix during synthesis. Following this, the application of a reducing 198 potential to the polymer results in the positively charged drug entering the material to maintain 199 electroneutrality. This method was successfully applied to the loading and release of dopamine [70] 200 and chlorpromazine [64], using poly(styrene-sulfonate) (PSS) and melanin as the dopant respectively. 201 It has also been adapted to the loading of the neutral drug, N-methylphenothiazine, relying on the 202 hydrophobic-hydrophilic interaction between the drug and an anionic "host" molecule, β-203 cyclodextrins [76]. 204 Anionic drugs can be released with the application of a reducing - negative – potential, while cations 205 can be unbound by either the removal of a negative potential or the application of an oxidizing -

- 206 positive potential [67,77,78]. The required voltage, generally speaking, depends on the reduction
- 207 potential of the polymer [79]. In published studies, reported applied values range between 0.6 and 2 V
 - 12

208	[62,63,73,80-82]. A higher potential results in faster release [83-85]. For example, -2 V releases
209	fluorescein from nanoporous PPy films 3-4 times faster than -1.5 V [81]. A similar trend was
210	observed during the co-release of fluorescein and dexamethasone from PPy sponges, where -2 V
211	produced a two-fold release rate compared to -0.5 V [82]. On the other hand, too high potentials can
212	result in the destruction of the bound drug compound through oxidation or hydrolysis, as it was
213	observed in the case of dopamine above -0.6 V [63], and neural growth factor above 3 V [86].
214	Switching to the opposite polarity can help maintain the drug inside the polymer matrix by
215	counteracting diffusion [83,85,87,88]. However, this does not apply to every case as during the
216	release of the cationic compound acetylcholine from PEDOT:PSS both +1 V and -1 V produced a the
217	same release profile [73].
218	The method of delivering the potential is also important: different drug release profiles have been
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219220221222	observed depending on whether pulsed potential, pulsed current or cyclic voltammetry was applied [66]. In another study, potentiodynamic stimulation generated higher drug release efficiency than potentiostatic stimulation [65]. Cyclic voltammetry has been stated as the most efficient method for stimulation [11], also allowing greater control over release speed through the setting of different scan

The chemical environment can also have a profound effect. The release of insulin from PPy-gold nanoparticle composites has been observed to be pH-sensitive with the release slowing down at low pH [85]. The co-application of an electric potential further increased this sensitivity [85]. A strange relationship was noted between pH and the effect of the electric potential in the case of safranin release from PPy-poly-(acrylic acid) (PPy-PAA) hydrogel composites. At pH 6.4, a potential of +0.4 V enhanced release, while -0.4 V helped block diffusion. On the other hand, at pH 3.8 the exact opposite was seen with -0.4 V promoting release, and +0.4 V preventing it [93]. In contrast to these pH dependent responses, the release of aspirin from PPy-montmorillonite composites was insensitive
to whether it was performed at pH 3.4, 7.4 or 11.4 [94]. Chemistry alone can be used to propagate the
release of the drug compounds. Hydrazine and alkaline medium was able trigger the release of
adenosine triphosphate (ATP) from PPy membranes, albeit to a lesser extent compared to an electrical
potential [95].

238 **3.1.2** Polypyrrole (PPy) and poly-(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene) (PEDOT)

239 PPy and PEDOT are members of the polyheterocycles family of conductive polymers, and have been

almost predominantly the CP of choice for drug delivery applications [13,85,96,97]. PPy and PEDOT

films have been used, for example, for the release of chlorpromazine [64], dexamethasone [68,79,98],

neurotrophin-3 [66,99,100], risperidone [88,101,102], brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF)

243 [103], adenosine triphosphate (ATP) [95], dopamine [63], acetylcholine [73], methotrexate [83],

betulin [104], quercetin and ciprofloxacin [74]. However, this section will focus on the more advanced
drug delivery solutions that have been developed in recent years based on these two polymers.

For many applications, simple CP films alone do not provide sufficient drug storage capacity [89].

247 The use of micro- and nanostructures can provide a solution to this by offering greater volume and

surface area for drug binding. One such structure was created from PPy nanowires, where the micro-

and nanogaps between the wires served as reservoirs for the binding of ATP and dexamethasone [89].

250 Micro- and nano-tubes consisting of a drug laden inner core of bacterial cellulose [80], PLLA or

251 poly(lactide-*co*-glycolide) (PLGA) [105] and an outer shell of PEDOT have also been fabricated.

252 Sponge-like structures can be created by polymerising PPy around sacrificial nano- or microbeads that

are then later removed. Such nanostructures have been used for the release of rhodamine B [106],

dexamethasone [82,107], fluoroscein [81,82], chlorpromazine [92], and risperidone [91]. The

255 nanoporous PPy structure provided a capacity nine times greater compared to conventional PPy films

in the case of fluorescein [81], and four times greater in case of risperidone [91]. Brush-like structures

257 were generated by depositing PPy on top of aligned carbon nanotube surfaces for the delivery of 14 258 neurotrophin-3, possessing a surface area ten times higher than a film [108]. A similar approach was 259 used for the enhanced binding and release of dexamethasone and penicillin [109]. A petal-like 260 structure was achieved through polymerising PEDOT on top of single-wall carbon nanotubes 261 immobilized on a gold surface [110]. Compared to neat PEDOT this material possessed improved 262 conductivity, charge capacity and drug release rate [110]. Furthermore, it was able to resist three 263 times longer the degradation effects (e.g. delimitation and cracking) of cycling the CP through its 264 redox states during electrical stimulation [110]. Carbon nanotubes have been used in an alternative 265 approach by Luo *et al.* as containers for drug molecules [111]: PPy was electropolymerized on the 266 open ends of dexamethasone loaded carbon nanotubes, providing a seal on the ends of the nanotubes 267 that could be opened with electrical stimulation [111].

268 Nanocomposites offer an additional solution to improving drug-loading capacity. Graphene oxide

269 (GO) has been successfully combined with PPy to generate a composite material with twice greater

270 dexamethasone binding capacity than PPy alone, a linear release profile up to 400 stimulations, and

271 no passive drug diffusion [112]. GO has been used in combination with PEDOT to deliver

272 dexamethasone in a smart coating for orthopaedic implants [113]. An interesting new approach in CP

composites is the use of clay particles, such as palygorskite [114] and montmorillonite [94], that lend

their large specific surface area to the composite material.

275 PPy and PEDOT have been combined with hydrogels, that are themselves important drug delivery

tools, made from PAA [93,115], poly(lactic-*co*-glycolic acid)-*co*-poly(ethylene glycol) (PLGA-PEG)

[78], alginate [116], and xanthan [117]. These blends combine the high electrical conductivity and

electrically and chemically switchable properties of CPs, with the high swelling ability, excellent

small molecules diffusivity, and good biocompatibility of hydrogels [93,115].

280 Ge *et al.* used microfabrication to construct a PPy based microchip with 36 independent electrodes.

281 This novel device is able to supply multiple drugs at the same time or sequentially over multiple days,

282 while offering greater control over doses then simple PPy films [77]. The same authors have also 15 created a very interesting self-activating system by turning the CP based drug release system into a

284 galvanic cell. Magnesium was coated onto one side of a PPy coated porous cellulose film.

285 Submerging the film into a NaCl solution resulted in the magnesium oxidizing, which in turn resulted

in the reduction of the PPy, releasing the bound ATP [118]. This created a flexible, lightweight and

- 287 partially-biodegradable device that does not require an external power source to operate [118]. Similar
- solutions have been developed by coating magnesium onto PPy nanowires containing ATP [119], and
- 289 depositing PEDOT/GO onto biodegradable magnesium substrate [113].

In order to overcome limitations that might arise from limited drug loading capacity, the molecular weight of the medicinal compound, or the drug-dopant interference, a drug binding method based on biotin-streptavidin coupling has been proposed [86,120]. This technique was successfully used for the binding and release of molecules both directly attached to the polymer [86] or coated on the surface of intermediating gold nanoparticles [120].

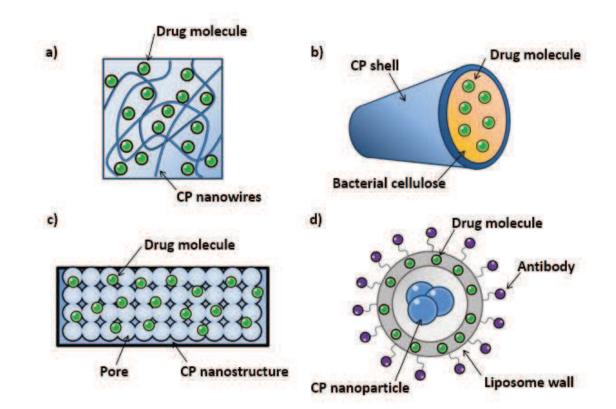


Figure 6 Examples of advanced CP based drug delivery solutions: a) nanowires [89]; b) microtubes
[80]; c) nanoporous structures [106]; and d) nanoparticles [121]

Nanoparticles have also been fabricated out of CPs (Figure 6). An encapsulation efficiency of 95%

299 was achieved when loading ketoprofen inside PPy-iron oxide nanoparticles [122]. PPy nanoparticles 300 with the capability to release both at acidic and basic pH have been engineered, enabling their use in a 301 wide range of tissue environments, including the pH 1-3 of the stomach and the pH 7-8 of the colon 302 [123]. These PPy nanoparticles have also been immobilized in a calcium alginate hydrogel for the 303 sustained pH dependent release of the anti-inflammatory drug piroxicam [123]. In a recent study, a 304 targeted nanocarrier system was developed for chemotherapy, where rapamycin was bound in a 305 liposome wall formed around PPy nanoparticles. The liposome was coated with Herceptin® 306 (trastuzumab) that binds specifically to the HER2/neu receptor expressed by breast cancer cells, 307 enabling target cell specific cellular uptake. Exposing the target area/cells to an 808 nm laser heated 308 up the particles, releasing rapamycin and triggering apoptosis [121].

309 A very different drug release mechanism was engineered by Jeon et al. [124], instead of the

310 electrostatic binding and release, a delivery system exploiting the mechanical swelling and contraction

311 of PPy was fabricated. PPy pores were polymerized on top of anodized aluminium oxide membranes

312 [124]. The PPy pores could be opened and closed through the application of an electrical potential,

releasing on demand the bovine serum albumin contained in a reservoir situated on one side of the

314 membrane [124]. The created device possessed a very fast response time in the range of 10 s, and a

315 capacity only limited by the reservoir behind the aluminium oxide membrane [124].

316 **3.1.3 Other conductive polymers**

The field of CP based drug delivery is dominated by PPy and PEDOT. However, there are examples of other CPs being applied, including degradable electroactive copolymers synthesized from oligoaniline and PEG or poly(*ɛ*-caprolactone) (PCL) blocks. The resultant materials were found to be degradable *in vitro*, supported the adhesion of human dermal fibroblasts, and successfully delivered

321 dexamethasone with potential cycling between 0.7 V and -0.5 V [125]. Oligoaniline has also been 322 combined with oligoalanine to form electroactive supramolecular polymers for the delivery of 323 dexamethasone phosphate [126]. Poly(*N*-methylpyrrolylium) poly(styrenesulfonate) was successfully 324 used as a cation exchanger for the binding and the release of dopamine [70]. The conductive polymer 325 poly(p-phenylenevinylene) (PPV) has been applied in combination with polyacrylamide (PAAM) to 326 create a hydrogel with a tailorable release profile. The presence of PPV in the hydrogel delayed the 327 release of salicylic acid in the first three hours, and this blocking effect could be extended to above 328 fifteen hours with the application of a 0.1 V anodic potential. Release could be triggered with the 329 application of a cathodic potential, the rate increasing with greater electric field strength. The release 330 profile could be further optimised by varying the crosslinking density, and the size of the drug and the 331 pores in the hydrogel [127].

332 3.2 Piezoelectrically active materials for drug delivery

333 The piezoelectric principle of some materials has been researched in the field of drug delivery; for

instance, in the fabrication of micropumps to treat diseases such as diabetes, with direct effects on

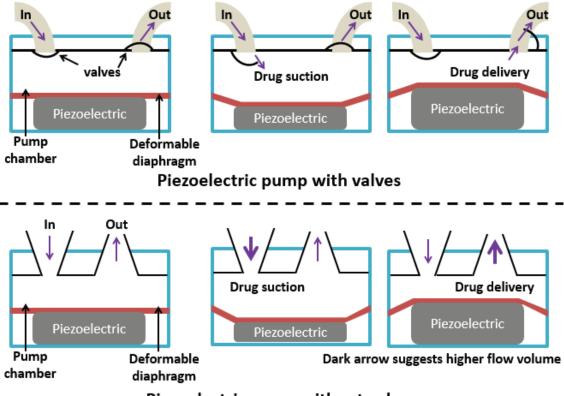
tissue healing [128–132], or in the development of hybrid composite scaffolds made out of

piezoelectrically active materials [133–135].

337 **3.2.1 Drug release mechanism on piezoelectric based materials**

The use of the piezoelectric mechanism for driving micropumps for drug delivery is common due to various advantages such as low power consumption, wide range of frequency operation, a rapid signal response and the ability of piezo actuators to be integrated in microsystems with ease [136]. Micropumps are preferred drug delivery systems as they provide better control, precision, accuracy and reliability than other drug delivery methods such as oral, injectable, nanoparticle based delivery or others [137]. Primarily localized delivery of insulin in diabetic patients has been explored using micropumps alongside some other lesser researched fields [138]. A schematic of the working

principle of different types of piezoelectric micropumps for drug delivery is shown in Figure 7.



346

Piezoelectric pump without valves

Figure 7 Schematic of working principle of piezoelectric micropumps with or without valves, based
on deformable piezoelectric based diaphragms that regulate drug suction and delivery

349 PZT based actuators are the most commonly utilized piezomaterials over the past three decades to 350 fabricate micropumps for controlled release of drugs [34,137,139]; piezoelectric micropumps with 351 and without valves have been studied extensively [137,140]. In 2014, Wei et al. reported the design 352 and fabrication of a valve-less piezoelectric micropump which was screen printed on a substrate using 353 multiple layers of different materials [141]. These pumps printed on flexible substrates have possible 354 applications in wearable smart fabric devices for drug/bactericide delivery. The absence of valves in 355 the micropumps makes their design and fabrication process simpler and also, they are less prone to 356 clogging and require lower voltages of operation [136,141]. A drive frequency of 3 kHz was used to 357 achieve a maximum flow rate of 38 μ L/min. Different designs reported for valve-less pumps have 358 been well optimized for higher delivery rates (i.e. flow rates) and better reliability [136,142].

359 However, successful operation of valve-less micropumps depends on the efficiency of the flow 360 rectification process of the proposed design [140]. The presence of valves in micropumps ensure 361 precise control over the flow rate, direction and stability, and makes them more reliable than valve-362 less designs [143]. Modifications to different parts of the micropump such as vibrating mechanisms 363 and valve design can be made to improve the performance [143–145]. Wang et al. proposed the use of 364 a folding vibrator system in combination with check valves and compressible spaces [143]. A 365 minimum stable flow rate of 160 μ L/min was obtained using a low drive voltage. The study clearly 366 suggests that highly efficient micropumps can be fabricated if proper design considerations are made. 367 To ensure successful implantation of these micropumps, it is important to use biocompatible 368 components to design them. However, the non-degradability of these pumps limits their use as 369 invasive procedures may be required for implantation and removal of these pumps after the function 370 has been served.

371 Advances in microfluidics and nanofabrication technologies have enabled the miniaturisation of 372 implantable drug delivery systems [146,147]. Piezoelectric based micropumps could be worn as 373 dermal patches, smart wearables or implanted within the body with a power source to achieve 374 delivery of desired drug profiles. This approach of administering drugs in a controlled manner is 375 encouraging, with some of these implantable pumps commercially available. However, the use of 376 drug-loaded implants/scaffolds is a more promising solution. Through the use of drug-loaded 377 scaffolds, an efficient delivery of drugs can be ensured and the repair process enhanced due to the 378 presence of localized electrical environments set up by the electroactive scaffolds [148,149]. 379 However, controlling the adsorption and release behaviour of drugs through external stimuli has been 380 explored [150].

Piezoelectric materials have been used to develop hybrid composite scaffolds for the release of drugs
and genes [133–135]. In 2010, Ciofani *et al.* reported the use of BTNPs dispersions in glycol-chitosan
to form complexes with a widely used chemotherapy drug, doxorubicin, to enhance its delivery to
cells and improve treatment efficiency [134]. Similar to this study, Suh *et al.* reported on increased

385 cellular uptake of BTNPs coated with polyethylenimine (PEI) [133]. Both studies highlight the use of 386 BTNPs as vectors without any mentions of the role of the piezoelectric properties and their possible 387 role in altering delivery of genes or drugs. On similar lines, a more recent study published in 2016 388 highlights the use of BNNTs for delivery of fluorescent probes and drugs such as curcumin, a potent 389 anti-inflammatory, anti-microbial and anti-oxidant wound-healing agent [135]. Curcumin was shown 390 to be entrapped within the nanotubes through characterisation by transmission electron microscopy 391 imaging [135]. In another study, He et al. reported loading of electrospun fibrous PVDF membranes 392 with antibacterial drug enrofloxacin for treating dermal injuries [151]. The drug release profile 393 observed was similar to that desired for wound healing processes [151]. In this study, it was 394 mentioned that the enrofloxacin was present in large portions on the outer surface of the fibres and 395 diffusion was the main driving mechanism of drug release [151]. However, the contribution of the 396 piezoelectric effect towards drug loading and release was not studied in any of these works and 397 remains to be explored.

398 **3.3 Electret mediated delivery of drugs**

399 Electrets for drug delivery mainly come in the form of patches and are mainly limited to transdermal

400 delivery. They can carry different values of surface potentials depending on the amount of surface

401 charges retained. These can subsequently give rise to electrostatic fields and microcurrents which can

402 assist in the process of wound healing and transdermal drug delivery (i.e. TDD, a process of

403 administrating drugs/therapeutic agents through intact skin) [152,153].

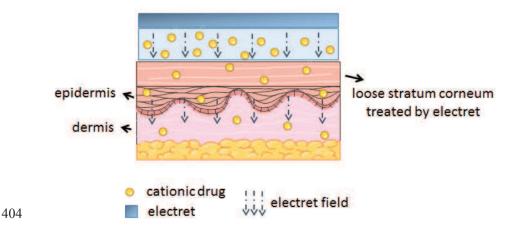


Figure 8 Transdermal drug delivery system based on electrets

406 Research reported over the last two decades have shown that the electrical fields generated by 407 electrets based on polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) and polypropylene (PP) are capable of altering the 408 permeability of skin and promote transdermal delivery of drugs [154-156] (Figure 8). Regulation of 409 the electret state of the skin, arrangement and fluidity of lamellar lipids and structure of proteins in the 410 stratum corneum (the outermost layer of skin considered to be the main barrier for TDD), leading to 411 formation of wide gaps have been shown to be the key mechanisms for improvement of TDD 412 [154,155,157–159]. Cui et al. performed several studies using PP electrets prepared by film casting 413 technique, combined with different chemical enhancers (that promote TDD by altering skin structure) 414 for different types of drug formulations [158,160,161]. In one of the studies, it was observed that 415 electrets of various surface potentials alone enhanced the permeation of meloxicam, a low molecular 416 weight drug (< 1 kDa), more than the chemical enhancer on its own [161]. However, in case of 417 cyclosporine A, a drug with higher molecular weight (> 1 kDa), electrets alone of different surface 418 potentials were not able to achieve similar levels of drug permeation as the chemical enhancer [160].

419 Similar results were obtained in a study by Murthy et al. which showed that Teflon electrets were

420 unable to enhance delivery of high molecular weight drugs [162]. To this regard, a novel approach has

- 421 been suggested by Tu *et al.* to address the issue of delivering high molecular weight drugs [158]. The
- 422 study shows that using drug loaded *N* trimethyl chitosan nanoparticles (TMC NPs) in combination

423 with PP electret films enhances transdermal delivery of protein drugs, thanks in part to the 424 mucoadhesive ability of chitosan to be absorbed across mucosa epithelia. The results obtained in the 425 studies are promising, showing that the skin permeation to protein drugs and nanoparticles is 426 increased with the increase of surface voltage of positively charged electrets, and gradually decreases 427 with an increase of surface voltage of negatively charged electrets. However, there are factors that 428 require optimization for success of such systems. In particular, the nature, sign and magnitude of the 429 surface potential of the electret, the type of drugs and the type of nanoparticles are all equally 430 important to be analysed [158]. Also, it is important to assure that the surface charge of the electrets is 431 not shielded by moisture or other contaminants [162].

432 **3.4 Targeted drug delivery using photovoltaic materials**

433 One of the main goals of drug delivery systems is to minimize the exposure of the drug to healthy

434 tissues while achieving an appropriate therapeutic dosage concentration in the wound site.

435 Photovoltaic materials have recently started to gain attention in therapeutic applications as a way to

436 control the release of specific drugs when the charge intensity or polarity of the material changes upon

437 external light stimulation (i.e. near infrared or laser source, 650 - 900 nm wavelength). This is known

438 as photovoltaic therapy (PVT), where positively and negatively charged drugs can be loaded onto the

439 surface of a PV device (either on *n-type* or *p-type* doped regions) by means of electrical attraction (i.e.

440 negative or positive) and be released to target sites via electrical repulsion upon light initiation

441 (**Figure 9**).

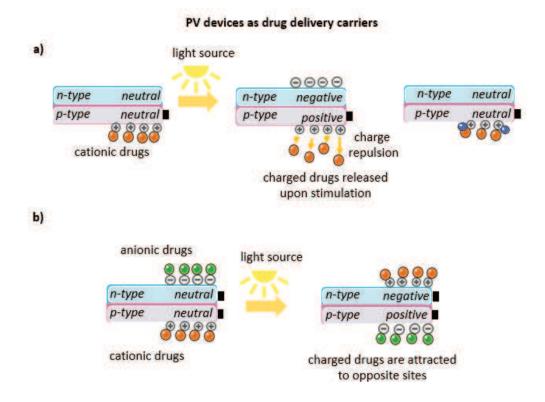
442 To date, PV devices have not been extensively research for drug delivery applications and scarce

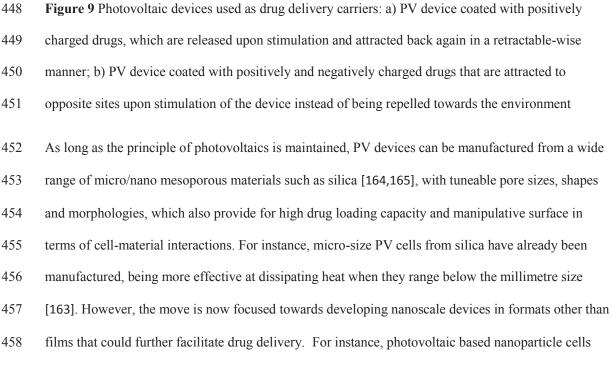
443 examples are found in the literature. The proof of concept dates back to 2013 when Bhuyan *et al.*

demonstrated that negatively charged bovine serum albumin and positively charged poly-L-lysine,

445 attached to the positive and negative sides of a PV cell respectively, were released upon external

446 photo stimulation [163].





- (NPVDs) have already been envisioned with designs theoretically functional [166], and have been
- 460 produced from silica, gold and silver materials [167]. However, it is important to target the

24

sequestration of these NPVDs as drug carriers to the wound site (Table 2), and an optimal size of
around 6 nm (*n-type* thickness of 3 nm, *p-type* thickness of 2 nm and contact thickness of 2 nm) is
required for them to be successfully used as delivery carriers to ensure maximum renal filtration.
Based on the current technology, the realistic achievable NPVD size is 9 nm (*n-type* thickness of 5
nm, *p-type* thickness of 3 nm and contact thickness of 1 nm), though, with an 8 nm glomerular pore
size [166] (Figure 4c). The activation of these NPVDs remains in the near infrared, and any drug can
theoretically be transported.

468 **Table 2** Size dimensions of nanoparticles regarding their target site and route of excretion

Target tissue	Size particle	Excretion route
Any	3 – 10 nm	Renal filtration [168]
Liver and brain tissue	10 – 30 nm	Phagocyte system [169]
Lung and inflamed tissues	30 – 80 nm	Phagocyte system [170]
Liver and spleen	> 80 nm	Hepatobiliary excretion [169]

469

470 **3.4.1 Drug loading and release on photovoltaic based materials**

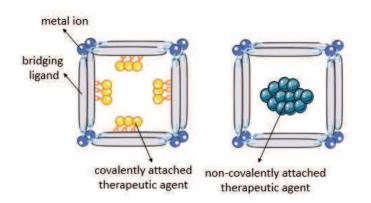
471 Two hypothetical mechanisms of action have been proposed regarding PVT, mainly drug 472 retractability and contact to *p-type* region. In the drug retractability mechanism [166] (Figure 9a), a 473 PV device in neutral state is coated with a positively charged drug on the *p*-type region. Upon 474 stimulation, positive and negative charges form in the *p*-type and *n*-type regions respectively, and the 475 presence of a contact in the *p*-type region allows positive charges to interact with the environment and 476 repel the positively charged drug in the material. When stimulation ceases, both the *p*-type and *n*-type 477 regions return to their neutral state attracting the drug and any other charged molecules from the 478 environment, thus, controlling timing and duration of the drug-environment interactions in a back and 479 forth of neutral and charging cycles and reducing the impact of any side effects. In the contact to p-480 type region mechanism [166], contacts are only applied on the *p*-type region of the device. While 481 contacts can be applied to both the *p-type* and *n-type* regions for higher drug capacity (i.e. positively 25

482 charge drugs adsorbed onto the *p-type* and negatively charged drugs adsorbed onto the *n-type*

- 483 regions), there is a chance that upon stimulation of the device the negatively and positively charged
- 484 drugs will be attracted to opposite regions upon initial repulsion (Figure 9b). This limits drug
- 485 interaction at the desired site of action, but can be easily solved by removing the contact from the *n*-
- 486 *type* region so that negative charges do not interact with the environment. In this sense, higher drug
- 487 delivery efficacy is achieved at the expense of a reduced drug capacity.

488 **3.4.2 Metal organic frameworks as photovoltaic devices in wound care**

- 489 Metal organic frameworks (MOFs) are highly porous network materials consisting of metal ions
- 490 linked together by organic bridging ligands [171,172]. MOFs were first proposed as an alternative
- 491 new controlled drug delivery system back in 2004 [173] due to their combined high pore volume,
- 492 regular porosity, and tuneable organic groups within the framework that allow easy modulation of the
- 493 pore size and makes them more competitive as therapeutic containers [174–178] than conventional
- 494 pore materials (Figure 10). Since then, several studies on the use of MOFs as delivery vehicles of
- 495 molecular therapeutics (i.e. antimicrobial metal ions [179] or homeostasis regulators such as copper
- 496 [180]) and gaseous therapeutics (i.e. nitric oxide [181]) for skin wound treatment have emerged in the
- 497 form of hydrogel systems [182–184].



- 499 **Figure 10** Schematic representation of a metal organic framework (MOF) structure used as a delivery
- 500 carrier

Although MOFs are mainly non-conductive, the use of structural doping or short inorganic and conjugated organic bridging ligands in their structures can extend their potential to be used as PV devices [185–187]. PV-based MOF systems have been thoroughly reviewed by Kaur *et al.* [188]. In this sense, there is growing interest in combining the capabilities of MOFs with the PV effect for these devices to be used as therapeutic delivery carriers to promote and enhance skin regeneration.

506 4. The stimulatory response of electroactive materials in wound healing

507 Electrical stimulation (ES) alone has been shown beneficial for the treatment of wounds and injuries. 508 ES has been shown to aid the re-epithelisation of skin and corneal wounds; to enhance angiogenesis; 509 and to promote the migration of fibroblasts, keratynocytes and epithelial cells [189–195]. ES's ability 510 to induce re-innervation [196,197] and increase skin blood flow [198] aids in the healing of wounds. 511 ES can show significant antibacterial effects, for example, it has been demonstrated to reduce the 512 number of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus colonies by over 87% both in vitro and in vivo 513 [199]. Furthermore, ES has been successfully used in the treatment of diabetic ulcers [200]; and nerve 514 damage in sciatic nerve [201] and spinal cord injury models [202]; and as an osteoinductive tool in 515 treating normal and non-union fractures, osteoporosis and osteoarthrosis [203–207]. ES's ability to 516 manage pain is also an important consideration [208,209]. Transcutaneous ES has been shown as to 517 be a non-invasive, drug-free alternative in managing acute and chronic pain [208], in one example 518 reducing pain scores by 38% and drug consumption by 25% [209].

519 **4.1 Stimulatory response of CPs in tissue repair**

520 The use of CPs in the treatment of injuries ranges from conduits [210] and injectable particles [211]

521 for the repair of nerve damage, to tissue engineered solutions [212] and biosensing devices [213].

522 Most of the wound healing techniques developed from CPs utilize their antibacterial properties [214-

- 523 218]. Wound covering fabrics produced from PPy and PANI have been shown to decimate
- 524 populations of *E. coli*, *E. agglomerans*, *B. subtilis* and *S. aureus* [214,217,218]. The antibacterial
- 525 effect of CPs have been attributed to the excessive positive charge and oxidizing potential of the

526 polycationic backbone of the polymer disrupting the cell wall and interfering with bacterial

527 respiration; and to the electron donor-acceptor character of CPs hindering bacterial adhesion and

528 blocking biofilm formation [214,216,217]. The effect has also been demonstrated to be a result of the

529 polymer itself, and not due to the oxidising agent or dopant used during the synthesis of the CP [216].

530 Their already strong bactericidal effect has been enhanced through the binding and release of silver

531 nanoparticles [215] and the antibacterial drug ciprofloxacin hydrochloride [87].

532 When used synergistically, ES and CPs have been shown to activate dermal fibroblasts and promote 533 the expression of TGF β_1 and other key factors that drive cell proliferation, differentiation,

534 inflammation response, keratinocyte migration and extra-cellular matrix production [219]. Human

535 dermal fibroblasts cultured on PPy-PDLLA composite membranes displayed enhanced proliferation

s36 when stimulated with a direct current [220]. Comparably, ES delivered through nanofibres of PANI

537 blended with PLLA-co-PCL was observed to increase the growth and adhesion of NIH-3T3

538 fibroblasts [221]. Stimulating human skin fibroblasts on PPy/PLLA membranes resulted in greater

viability and mitochondrial activity [222]. A tenfold increase in the secretion of interleukin-6 and

540 interleukin-8, two cytokines important for wound repair and the growth of new blood vessels, was

541 reported when exposing skin fibroblasts on conductive PPy and degradable PLLA composite

scaffolds to an electrical stimulus [223]. The delivery of ES through conductive polymers can be

543 useful for the formation of new blood vessels: human umbilical vein endothelial cells stimulated with

544 200-400 mV/cm on PANI-coated PCL fibres exhibited highly enhanced viability and adhesion [224].

545 Subjecting PC12 nerve cells to ES through PPy scaffolds resulted in the formation of greater numbers

of longer neurites [225,226]. Nerve stem cells displayed a similar behaviour, extending more neurites

547 when stimulated on a PLLA/PANI scaffold [226], and enhanced proliferation and neurite outgrowth

on PANI-PCL/gelatin substrates [227]. ES and conductive scaffolds have been combined with stem

- cell based therapies: the pre-stimulation of human neural progenitor cells on PPy scaffolds before
- transplantation improved functional outcomes in rat stroke models [228]. Bone formation was

551 successfully promoted by stimulating rat bone marrow stromal cells on PPy films; resulting in the up-28

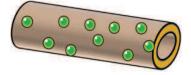
- regulation of osteogenic markers, accelerated cell differentiation, and improved calcium deposition
- and matrix mineralization [229]. The delivery of 200 µA of direct current for 4 hours for 21 days
- increased the calcium deposition by 100% in human adipose-derived mesenchymal stem cells
- 555 cultured on PPy-PCL substrates [230]. Similarly, marrow stromal cells and MC3T3-E1 pre-osteoblast
- cells displayed significantly increased mineralisation when stimulated on self-doped sulfonated
- 557 polyaniline (SPAN)-based electrodes [231].

558 **4.2 The piezoelectric mechanism in tissue regeneration**

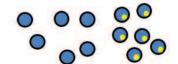
- As previously stated, ES therapy has been well established as an important cue for enhancing the
- 560 process of wound healing in different tissues [232,233] by governing cellular behaviour and tissue
- response. Piezoelectric materials in the form of scaffolds and NPs (Figure 11) have been used to
- administer this cue efficiently to cells with great therapeutic potential in treating cancer, bone injures
- 563 and neural disorders [37,40,234–239].



Tubular structure



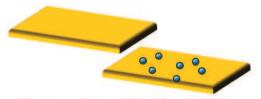
Hollow conduit with NPs/drugs



Nanoparticles with/without drug/bioactive agent loading



Random/align fibres with NPs/drugs



Membrane films with/without NPs/drugs



Porous scaffold

565 Figure 11 Examples of different piezoelectric based scaffolds

566 Piezoelectric polymers as nerve guidance channels were reported by Aebischer et al. in the late 20th 567 century [240–242]. Compelling in vivo results obtained by use of PVDF and its copolymers in these 568 studies affirmed the role of electrical charges in the process of nerve repair. However, research in the 569 following years was more focussed on deciphering the mechanisms through which electrical 570 stimulation influences nerve cell behaviour [243,244]. The field has gathered growing interest of the 571 scientific community in the last few years. To this regard, BN, ZO and BT piezoelectric nanomaterials 572 that have been fabricated in various forms including: nanotubes, nanowires and nanospheres, 573 providing greater surface area to volume ratio for better cell-material interactions [245,246]. BNNTs 574 and BTNPs have shown promising results for wireless neuronal stimulation. For instance, Ciofani et 575 al. used BNNTs and BTNPs in two different studies using different neuronal like cell lines [237,247]. 576 The piezoelectric nanomaterials stimulated by ultrasound generated potentials in the range of 0.07 to 577 0.19 mV [247] that contributed to greater neurite sprouts by a 30-fold increase compared to the 578 controls after treatment [237]. Other than piezoelectric nanoparticle systems, scaffolds based on 579 piezoelectric materials have been explored for nerve regeneration [238,247–252]. In a series of studies 580 by Lee et al., electrospun piezoelectric membranes of PVDF-TrFE were fabricated and different cell 581 lines were tested for neuroregenration capability [250,253,254]. The effect of fibre alignment and 582 piezoelectricity on neurite extension of dorsal root ganglion neurons was assessed, and it was reported 583 that cell growth and neurite extension was well-supported by annealed and aligned fibres that also 584 exhibited the greatest piezoelectric effect [250]. These results were confirmed by another study which 585 reported that PVDF electrospun scaffolds with controlled alignment and physical properties were best 586 suited for survival and differentiation of monkey neural stem cells [252]. Both in vivo and in vitro 587 results obtained were supportive of the use of piezoelectric conduits for repairing nerve injuries 588 [250,253,254]. Unlike these studies in which the initiation of the piezoelectric mechanism of the 589 scaffold relies on the cellular interactions and natural animal movements, several studies have 590 reported on externally simulating the effect using ultrasound or vibrating waves [248,249,255].

591 Piezoelectric electrospun PVDF and BTNPs nanocomposite membranes with and without external
592 mechanical stimulation have also been studied in recent years for nerve tissue engineering
593 applications [251,256].

Similar studies conducted by Ciofani *et al.* with BNNTs and BTNPs enhanced gene expression and cytokine production by stimulating osteoblasts, myoblasts and fibroblasts in comparison to controls [235,236,239,257]. However, such non-invasive techniques using piezoelectric nanoparticles to deliver the electrical therapy to wounds and injuries is relatively new and requires extensive research before clinical applications are approved [238].

599 Piezoelectric scaffolds have been used as wound patches for dermal injuries to electrically stimulate 600 the injury site ensuring enhanced recovery through improved cellular response. The presence of piezo 601 receptors on cells and their role in controlling cell behaviour to enhance wound healing corroborates 602 the use of piezoelectrics to stimulate cell response [258,259]. The piezo receptors on cells are 603 activated when cells undergo mechanical deformation in response to an injury or otherwise, this 604 deformation activates ionic channels consequently leading to generation of electrical signals which 605 assist in intracellular signalling and hold great physiological importance [258,259]. A study by Ying et al. focused on exploiting the piezoelectric property of PVDF electrospun scaffolds blended with 606 607 polyurethane (PU) for treatment of skin wounds [260]. These were deformed in a controlled manner, 608 and enhanced migration (to the scratched area of scaffolds in a wound healing assay) and adhesion of 609 fibroblasts were observed when compared to non-deformed samples [260]. A more recent study 610 published in 2017 by Bhang et al. reported ZO based piezoelectric dermal patches [261]. The study 611 included in vitro and in vivo results supporting the promotion of wound healing through generation of 612 optimum levels of electric potentials ranging from 300-900 mV. These electric potentials enhanced 613 dermal fibroblast activity and lead to the upregulation of biochemical factors such as CD68 protein 614 and vascular endothelial growth factor contributing towards improved wound healing [261]. Tan et al. 615 observed that potassium sodium niobate (KNN) based piezo ceramics show surface selective 616 antibacterial activity [262]. They observed that reactive oxygen species (ROS) were formed around

617 the piezoelectric ceramic surfaces as a result of microelectrolytic activity. The formation of ROS

around the cathode surface was higher and led to significant antibacterial activity, while the ROS

619 levels generated remaining safe for mammalian cells. This study suggests that inherently antibacterial

- 620 scaffolds can also be manufactured using piezoelectric materials.
- 621 The most prominent use of piezoelectric materials as scaffolds has been found in the field of bone
- tissue engineering [36,37]. Use of piezoelectric materials for bone repair application ensures that the
- 623 electrical stimulation therapy is delivered to the injury area effectively. Piezoelectric materials are
- 624 capable of restoring the electrical microenvironment around the injury site and can generate electrical
- signals which can alter cellular behaviour [263,264]. Piezoelectric polymers such as PVDF, PVDF-
- 626 TrFE, PLLA, PHB alongside piezoelectric ceramics including BT, LN, LNKN, HA have been
- 627 assessed for their osteogenic capability [36,37,148]. In particular, the last two years have seen a rise in
- the number of publications in this area and the promising results obtained point towards a clinical
- solution to the problem of orthopaedic regeneration [148,234,264–269].
- 630 Control over the amount of electrical stimulation delivered by nanoparticles or scaffolds has been
- established by controlling the uptake of NPs by cells (specific amount of NPs), or a material with
- optimized piezoelectric characteristics to generate physiological levels of potentials in response to
- 633 deformation. To mechanically stimulate the piezoelectric materials *in vitro* and consequently study the
- 634 effect of piezo characteristics on drug release, different strategies such as deformable cell culture
- 635 plates or ultrasound should be utilized, while in the case of scaffolds implanted *in vivo*, the same can
- achieved through the natural movement of the animal. It must be noted that different stimulation
- 637 mechanisms such as ultrasound, bending and others are capable of inducing different responses and
- the choice of methodology should depend on the type of application desired.

639 4.3 Electrets as exogenous stimulators for wound healing

640 Other than the use of electrets as transdermal delivery of drugs, electrets have been found useful as

641 exogenous electrical stimulators in terms of wound healing in several tissues such as bone and skin

642 [270]. The first studies on the use of electrets for healing of dermal wounds dates back to the 1990s 643 [152]. In an *in vivo* study conducted in pigs, it was found that the treatment of skin wounds using 644 PTFE electrets enhanced the growth of epithelial cells and accelerated the process of wound healing 645 [152]. Though the results obtained in this study were compelling, there has not been considerable 646 amount of research for fabricating electret based wound dressings. On the other hand, HA based 647 electrets have gathered significant attention in the past decade, not only for skin but also for bone 648 tissue engineering [270–273]. Nakamura et al. fabricated wound dressings based on silk fibroin and 649 HA electrets and tested their dermal healing capability in vitro and in vivo [274,275]. It was observed 650 that cellular migration and angiogenesis was promoted by the presence of charged HA in wound 651 dressings. Chitosan and HA based electret membranes have also been reported for bone healing 652 applications [272,276]. While chitosan electrets show stable surface charges [277,278], HA electrets 653 have exhibited accelerated bone bonding rate and osteogenic gene expression in vivo [279–281]. In 654 this regard. Ou *et al.* showed that heat treated chitosan electrets showed superior charge storage 655 stability, with *in vivo* studies exhibiting their enhanced osteogenic potential as guided bone 656 regeneration membranes [276]. In a similar study by the same group, the relatively poor mechanical 657 properties of chitosan was enhanced with negatively charged HA into a composite electret membrane 658 [272]. Their results showed that electret composite membranes based on chitosan and HA could 659 promote osteoblast proliferation and differentiation *in vitro*, with potential clinical applications as a 660 new strategy for such electret based scaffolds. The nerve healing potential of electrically charged 661 electrets have also been reported on poled PVDF [241,282], PTFE [283] and PLGA [284] polymers in 662 the form of film conduit scaffolds, suggesting the potential of electret guides prepared by electrical 663 poling for peripheral nerve regeneration.

664 **4.4 Photovoltaic mediated tissue response**

665 Strategies are emerging for the use of photovoltaic-based materials as carriers of electrical stimuli for

tissue regeneration. For instance, in 2015 Lorach et al. demonstrated that subretinal array implants

with 70 μm-wide photovoltaic pixels were able to provide highly localized stimulation to retinal33

668 neurons in rats, and that the electrical receptive fields recorded were similar in size to the natural 669 visual receptive ones [285]. This opens up the possibility to using photovoltaic arrays as functional 670 restoration wireless devices that can safely elicit and modulate cellular responses, not only on the 671 retina [286–288] but on other tissues as well [289]. A similar strategy can be envisioned to facilitate 672 wound healing rates [290,291], which may serve as a promising modality for controlling and treating 673 various skin diseases and disorders. To this regard, the usefulness of delivering specific electrical 674 signals for enhanced wound healing is demonstrated by its ability to induce re-epithelization of skin 675 wounds by enhancing angiogenesis, blocking edema formation or promoting migration and 676 proliferation of various skin cells (i.e. fibroblasts, keratinocytes and epithelial cells) [189–191]. 677 Photovoltaic based materials such as poly(3-hexylthiophene)-phenyl-C61-butyric acid methyl ester 678 (P3HT-PCBM) have also been proposed as optical modulators of cellular activity based on their 679 photothermal effect upon light stimulation [292]. Light absorption generates different photo-excited 680 states in the material that release thermal energy into the living cells of the environment, and such 681 photoexcitation could be useful into developing new platforms for cell control by light to promote 682 wound healing [293–295]. To this regard, electrospun photovoltaic based P3HT/PCL fibres were 683 shown to significantly increased proliferation, extracellular matrix secretion and favour cell 684 morphology of fibroblasts into the characteristic spindle shape upon light stimulation *in vitro* using 685 white light-emitting diodes within the range of visible light (390–750 nm) [296].

5. Future perspectives on the use of electroactive biomaterials in drug delivery and tissue regeneration

Future CP-based drug delivery systems will see the use of biodegradable variants of CPs [125,126] that degrade at the end of their useful lifetime and clear from the patient's body without the need for removal surgery. Such polymers have already been developed by combining polypyrrole-thiophene (PPy–PTh) [297] or quaterthiophene [298] with degradable ester linkages. New CP materials will be created to become more resilient to the structural damage and conductivity loss caused by repeated redox switching. A good example of one such promising material is poly(3,4-alkylenedioxypyrrole) 694 (PXDOP) [299]. Novel approaches based on the co-delivery of multiple medicinal compounds,

695 injectable CP microcapsules, or micro- and nano-porous structures are currently of great interest and

696 will see wider application [14,300,301]. Also of great interest are CP based drug delivery systems that

697 are self-regulating, i.e. release drug compounds in response to changes in mechanical, biological

698 chemical and/or electrical conditions in their vicinity, without the need for an external power source,

and will likely be developed in the future [14,67].

700 The area of piezoelectric polymers and ceramics for tissue engineering applications has been 701 researched extensively in the last decade [37], and they have shown great potential for use in the field 702 of controlled therapeutics. The capabilities of these materials for delivery of electric cues and essential 703 drugs to the damaged wound have been studied independently. However, the correlation between the 704 two processes and the mechanism through which the release of drugs can be affected due to the 705 piezoelectric characteristics (varying surface charge and potential of the material) remains to be 706 explored. While significant progress has been made towards improving wound healing, the current 707 research in the area is focused on the use of synthetic polymers or ceramics, and there is recent 708 interest in developing piezoelectric hydrogels and controlled (bio)degradable piezoelectrics [302– 709 304]. There is a need for developing strategies for loading piezoelectric materials with different 710 hydrophobic and hydrophilic drugs and studying their release kinetics in vitro and in vivo. The 711 challenge is to fabricate a smart bio-active scaffold with combined capability. A drug-loaded 712 piezoelectric scaffold with tuneable release of drug or composites based on piezomaterials might be 713 utilized for this purpose. Emerging strategies are focused on developing bioreactors to mimic in vivo 714 conditions and explore the mechanical stimulation of the material to provide suitable electric cues and 715 drug profile release before these therapies can be translated from the bench to the market. A new 716 generation of bioreactors is needed to achieve a deep knowledge of the transduction effects of these 717 materials on specific cells. Indeed, piezoelectric characteristics of different biological systems and 718 biomaterials have been studied using piezoresponse force microscopy (PFM) [305,306], a technique 719 to study the material characteristics at the nanoscale and obtain a better understanding of the

mechanisms by which the physiological processes are affected [307]. Nevertheless, as discussed in
this review, piezoelectric materials have independently been used for delivery of drugs or electrical
stimulation of cells and tissues, and amalgamating these two approaches is promising.

723 There is limited literature on the use of electrets for dermal, bone and neural healing applications, and 724 considerable amount of research is still required to confirm their usage for TDD or wound dressings. 725 Though these materials have been found useful for TDD, there has been little mention of how the 726 release behaviour of specific drugs can be controlled. Some electrets also possess piezo properties 727 [308], however, their combined role on release behaviour of drugs is still to be explored. Combining 728 their capability for TDD and altering cellular behaviour is a promising area of research. Electrets also 729 present unique capability of being used for fabrication of smart electronic skins [309], and while the 730 typical format is in the form of films, there is significant research scope for developing novel electret 731 hydrogel dressings. However, the ability to permanently store charges on these other formats might 732 pose challenging.

733 PV-based devices present significant challenge in preparing assemblies of particles that result in 734 continuous but separate conduction paths for electrons and holes [310], and further formulation 735 optimization is required to improve efficiency of light entrapment in these devices. For instance, 736 surface plasmon resonance, metal-particle scattering and surface structuring techniques have been 737 studied as new alternatives to enhance light trapping in PV devices [311–313]. On the other hand, 738 most PV systems to date come in the format of films [54], which is useful for wound dressings. PV 739 systems in the form of gels and hydrogels have been developed as well [314]. However, these systems 740 should also be developed towards other formats such as porous sponges, fibres, rods or spherical 741 structures [50,315] for the purpose of facilitating drug delivery at the wound site. To this regard, 742 Labastide et al. have envisioned organizing n-type and p-type moieties into separate spherical 743 nanoparticles and arranging them into stable superlattices whose structure is defined by the 744 nanoparticle radii [310]. Further research on PV-based MOFs should be carried out; existing systems

745 have proven poor performances and their capability as photovoltaic based delivery carriers for wound 746 healing has not been tested yet. Extensive research towards attaching and releasing drugs or other 747 therapeutics from PV cells in the most efficient way is needed both in vitro and in vivo clinical 748 applications before this technology can be translated from the bench to the market. Another issue to 749 bear in mind is degradability and cytotoxicity of the existing PV materials. In this sense, surface 750 modification is a factor to take into account for enhanced delivery efficiency, and pharmacokinetics of 751 the therapeutic loaded PV based device is an important step that demands full investigation to 752 estimate their actual performance. Although important improvements need to be taken care of before 753 clinical applications are a reality, there might be a bright future in their application as delivery 754 systems for wound treatment.

755 **6. Conclusions**

756 Controlled delivery of drugs and electrical stimulation are promising approaches for enhanced wound 757 healing of damaged tissues, which are well demonstrated by conductive polymers, electrets, 758 piezoelectric and photovoltaic based materials. The capability of conductive polymers and 759 piezoelectrics as multi-tasking scaffolds is well supported by the encouraging results presented, while 760 electrets and photovoltaics are still new to the field of research. Electroactive biomaterials have been 761 found useful for treating injuries to tissues such as skin, bone and nerve. However, clinical translation 762 for wound healing is achievable after thorough attempts are made to overcome the limitations 763 presented by individual systems. There is a need to amalgamate different electroactive systems, such 764 as piezoelectrics and CPs to eliminate the need of an external stimulation device to attain desired 765 outcomes. 766 The field of electroactive biomaterials for release of therapeutic agents is growing. There are 767 challenges and limitations in the translation of these new therapeutic approaches that remain to be 768 answered, such as safety, cost, and efficacy of treatment and degradability of the material. It is safe to

769 predict that as our understanding of electroactive materials improves along with technological

37

- advancements in scaffold fabrication, therapeutic encapsulation and drug release, the near future will
- see electroactive based techniques become a standard practice for wound regeneration.

772 **Competing interests**

- 773 The authors declare no potential conflicts of interests with respect to the research, authorship and/or
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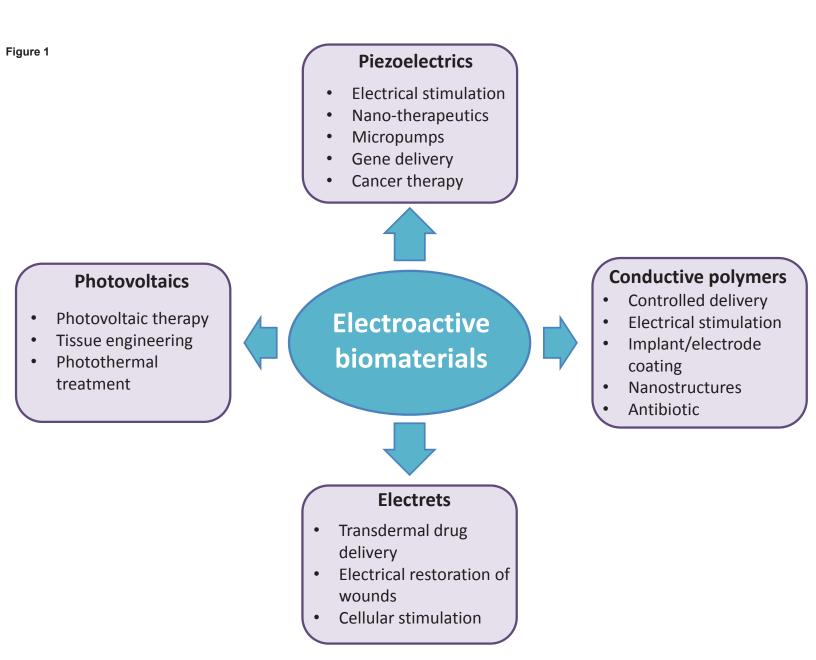
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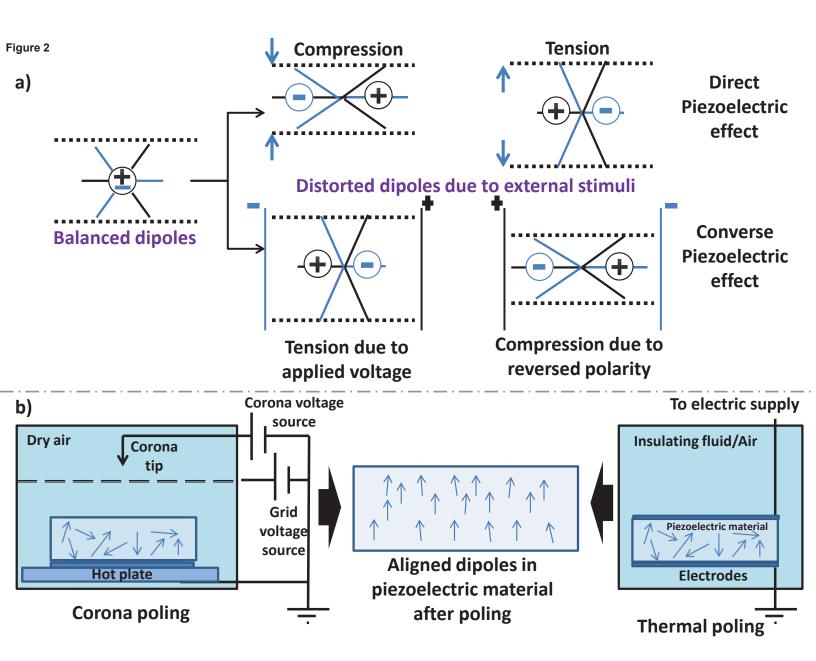
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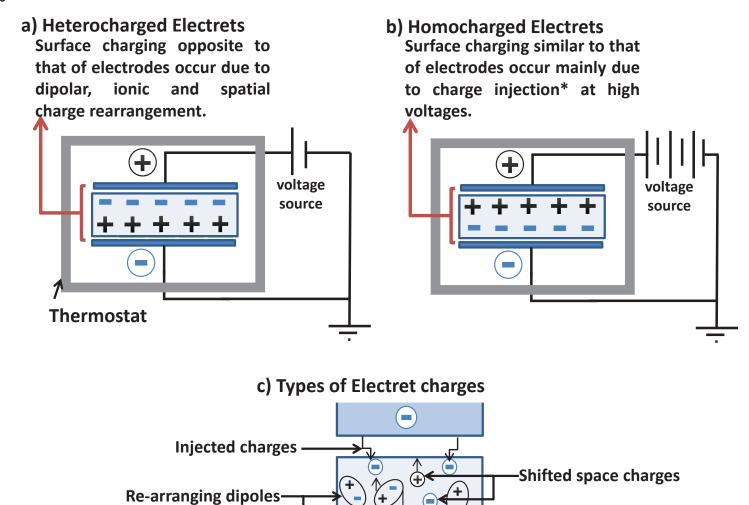
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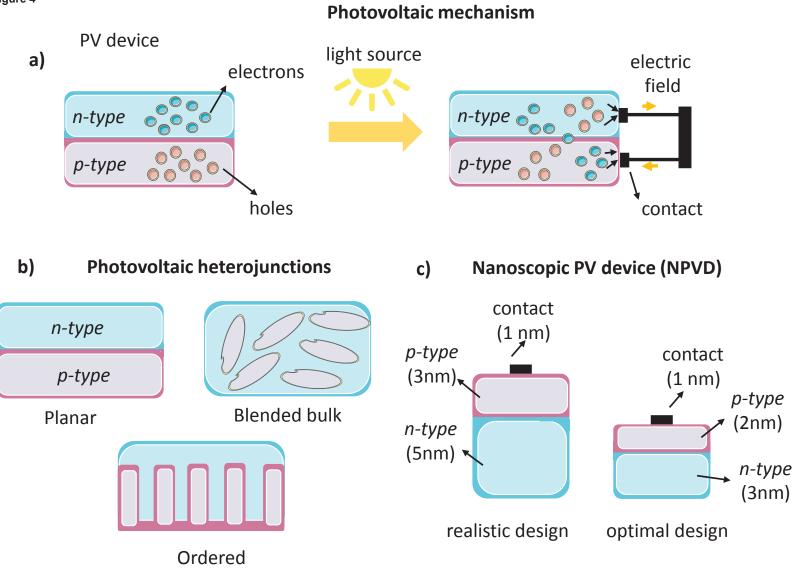
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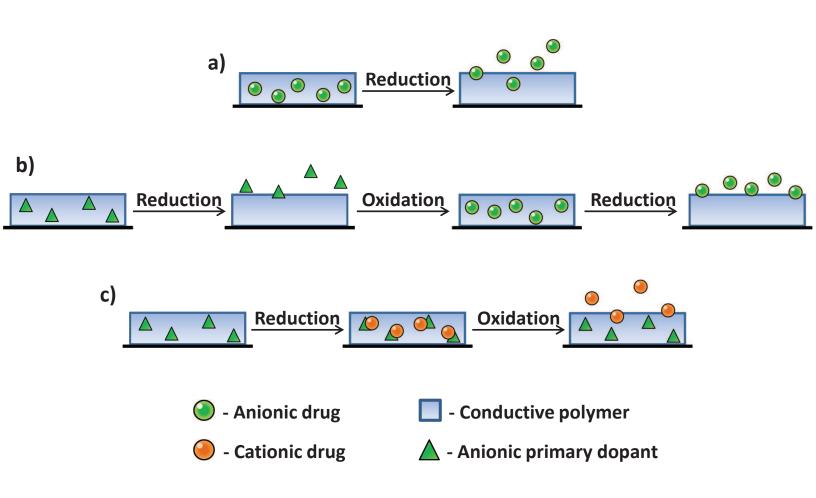




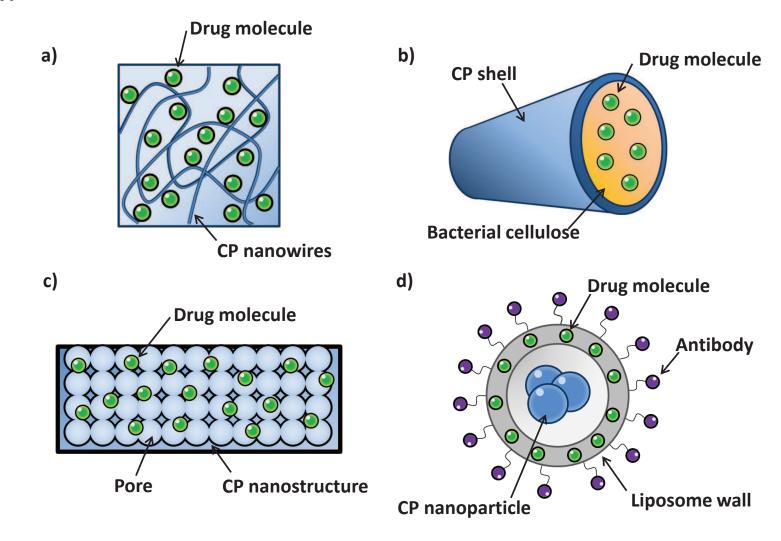
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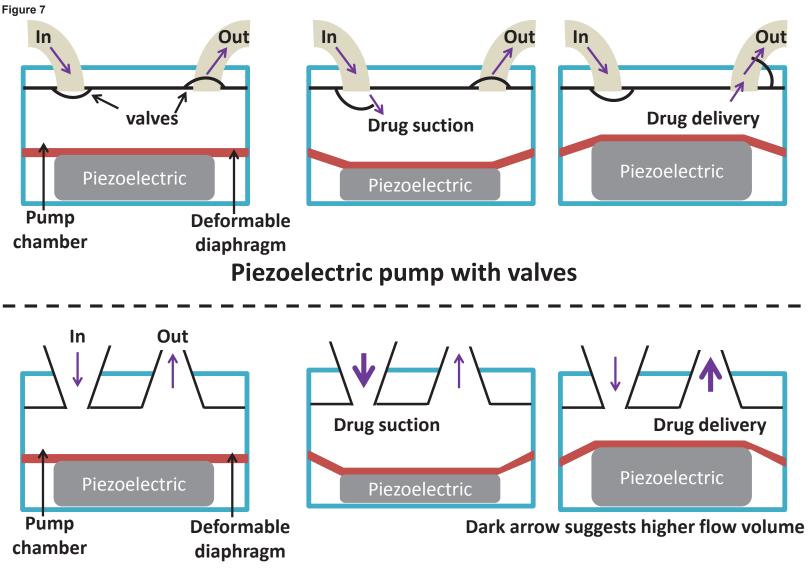




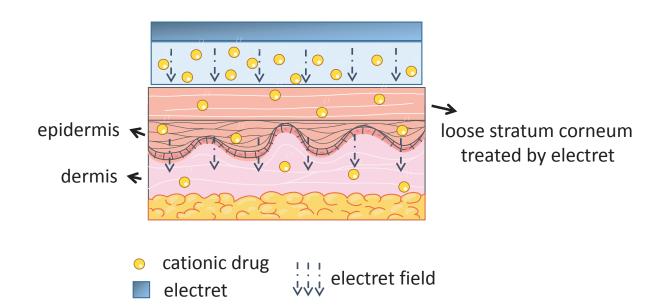




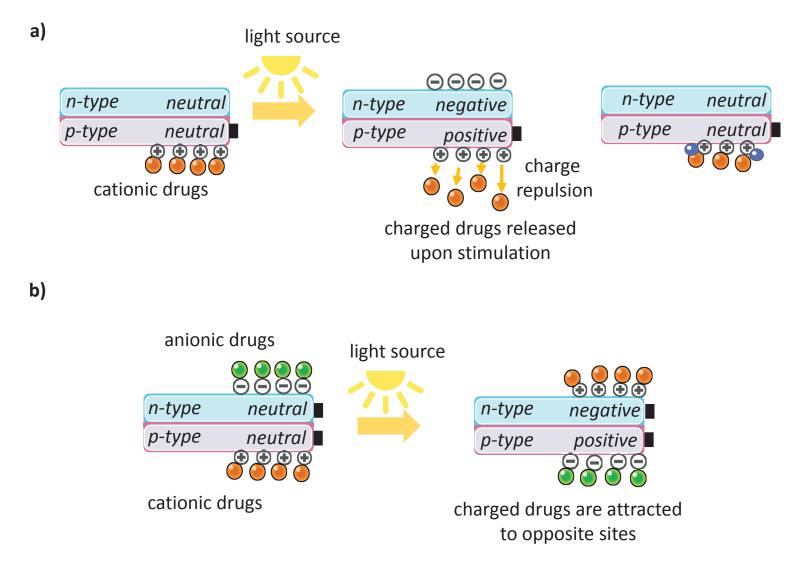




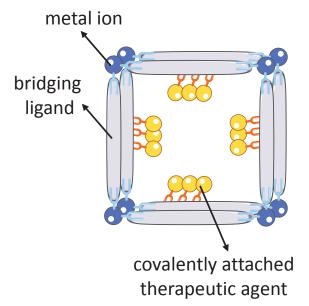
Piezoelectric pump without valves

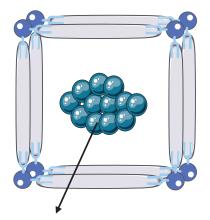


PV devices as drug delivery carriers

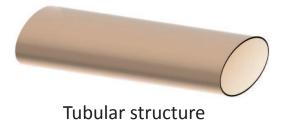


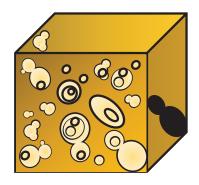
Metal organic framework (MOF) structure





non-covalently attached therapeutic agent





Ceramics	Others
Hydroxyapatite (HA)	Diphenylalanine
Barium titanate (BT)	Collagen
Lithium sodium potassium	Boron nitride nano tubes
niobate (LNKN)	(BNNTs)
Lithium niobate (LN)	Silk
Lead zirconate titanate (PZT)	
Zinc Oxide (ZO)	
	Hydroxyapatite (HA) Barium titanate (BT) Lithium sodium potassium niobate (LNKN) Lithium niobate (LN) Lead zirconate titanate (PZT)

Target tissue	Size particle	Excretion route
Any	3 – 10 nm	Renal filtration [165]
Liver and brain tissue	10 – 30 nm	Phagocyte system [166]
Lung and inflamed tissues	30 – 80 nm	Phagocyte system [167]
Liver and spleen	> 80 nm	Hepatobiliary excretion [166]

Figure legends

Figure 1 The family of electroactive materials and their applications

Figure 2 a) Direct and converse piezoelectric effect mechanisms and b) types of poling procedures to maximize piezoelectricity

Figure 3 Types of electrets: (a) heterocharged and (b) homocharged (*injected charges are those which get deposited on the material surface from the surrounding electrode); and (c) charge carriers involved during the formation of electrets

Figure 4 Photovoltaic mechanism: a) conventional photovoltaic cell where electron-hole pairs migrate to opposite electrodes upon photo stimulation and electric current is produced; b) photovoltaic cells depicting the schematics of a planar heterojunction, a blended bulk heterojunction and an ordered heterojunction; c) model of a conceptual nanoscopic photovoltaic device depicting realistic and optimal design dimensions

Figure 5 Mechanisms of drug loading and release in CPs: a) one-step loading of anionic drug; b) three-step loading of anionic drug; and c) loading of cationic drug

Figure 6 Examples of advanced CP based drug delivery solutions: a) nanowires [89]; b) microtubes [80]; c) nanoporous structure [106]; and d) nanoparticle [121]

Figure 7 Schematic of working principle of piezoelectric micropumps with or without valves, based on deformable piezoelectric based diaphragms that regulate drug suction and delivery

Figure 8 Transdermal drug delivery system based on electrets

Figure 9 Photovoltaic devices used as drug delivery carriers: a) PV device coated with positively charged drugs, which are released upon stimulation and attracted back again in a retractable-wise manner; b) PV device coated with positively and negatively charged drugs that are attracted to opposite sites upon stimulation of the device instead of being repelled towards the environment

Figure 10 Schematic representation of a metal organic framework (MOF) structure used as a delivery carrier

Figure 11 Examples of different piezoelectric based scaffolds

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