Development of Injectable Hydrogels for Chronic Disease Treatment

Divya Chauhan

Independent Researcher

Himachal Pradesh, India

ABSTRACT

Injectable hydrogels have emerged as promising biomaterials for the treatment and long-term management of chronic diseases due to their tunable physicochemical properties, high biocompatibility, and minimally invasive application. These hydrogels offer a unique combination of mechanical support, localized drug delivery, and cell encapsulation potential, making them ideal candidates for applications ranging from diabetes and arthritis to cardiovascular and neurodegenerative disorders. This manuscript explores the design, development, and deployment of injectable hydrogels within the chronic disease treatment paradigm. It examines naturally derived and synthetic hydrogel systems, critical crosslinking strategies, drug release mechanisms, and in vivo performance, particularly in sustained release therapies and cell-based treatments. The literature highlights hydrogels based on alginate, chitosan, hyaluronic acid, PEG, and Pluronic F127, each of which demonstrates unique properties in terms of responsiveness and degradation. Finally, this paper outlines key advances in hydrogel customization to target-specific disease environments and discusses limitations related to scalability, biodegradation rate control, and regulatory concerns.

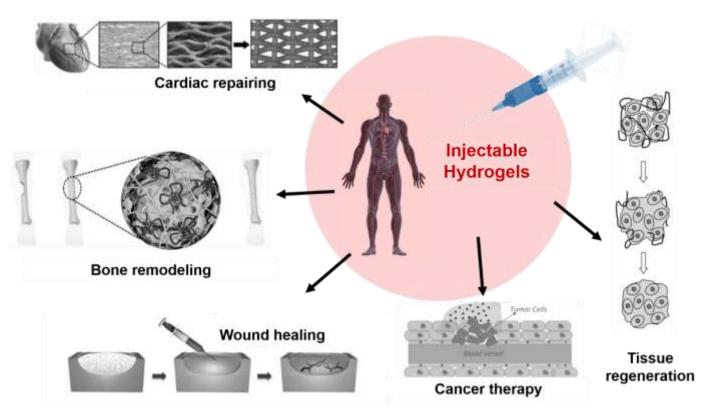
KEYWORDS

Injectable hydrogels, chronic disease, drug delivery, biomaterials, biocompatibility, tissue engineering, sustained release, hydrogel scaffolds, natural polymers, synthetic polymers

INTRODUCTION

Chronic diseases such as diabetes mellitus, osteoarthritis, cardiovascular disease, and certain cancers present persistent health challenges that require sustained, localized treatment strategies. Conventional systemic drug

administration often results in limited bioavailability at the target site, necessitating higher doses and increasing the risk of systemic side effects. Injectable hydrogels, three-dimensional polymeric networks that can transition from a liquid to a gel phase under physiological conditions, have emerged as effective biomaterials for minimally invasive therapeutic applications.



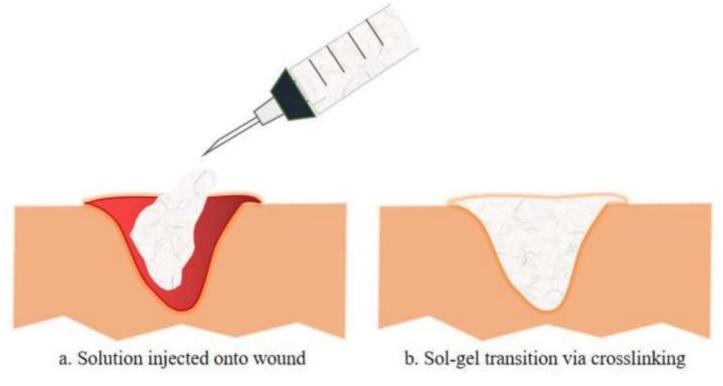
Source: https://www.mdpi.com/1424-8247/15/3/371

These hydrogels can be tailored to deliver bioactive agents, modulate inflammatory responses, and provide structural support for damaged tissues. The unique capability of injectable hydrogels to be delivered via syringe without requiring surgical implantation offers tremendous advantages in clinical practice. Once injected, these hydrogels rapidly undergo gelation in situ, forming a stable matrix that can entrap cells, proteins, and drugs for sustained delivery.

The appeal of injectable hydrogels in chronic disease treatment lies in their modularity—researchers can customize their mechanical strength, degradation profile, and biological responsiveness according to the needs of specific diseases. For instance, in the case of osteoarthritis, a hydrogel may serve as both a lubricant and a scaffold

for cartilage regeneration. In contrast, for diabetic patients, a hydrogel might function as a depot for insulin or glucose-sensitive molecules.

This manuscript provides a comprehensive review of the state-of-the-art in injectable hydrogel development for chronic disease management, with an emphasis on hydrogel composition, crosslinking methods, and application-specific designs developed up to 2013.



Source: https://www.mdpi.com/2227-9059/9/5/527

LITERATURE REVIEW

The development of injectable hydrogels is deeply rooted in the evolution of biomaterials that prioritize patient comfort, targeted delivery, and biofunctionality. The foundation of injectable hydrogels relies on two main classes of materials: **natural polymers** and **synthetic polymers**, each with specific benefits and limitations.

Natural Polymers

1. Alginate-Based Hydrogels: Alginate, derived from brown seaweed, has been extensively studied due to its gentle gelation in the presence of divalent cations like Ca²⁺. Lee and Mooney (2001) highlighted the suitability of

alginate hydrogels in islet transplantation for diabetes treatment, where the material encapsulated pancreatic islet cells to maintain function while shielding them from immune attack.

2. Chitosan: A deacetylated derivative of chitin, chitosan offers biocompatibility and mucoadhesiveness. Injectable formulations utilizing temperature- or pH-sensitive chitosan have shown promise in delivering antiinflammatory drugs for arthritis therapy. Ruel-Gariépy and Leroux (2004) demonstrated a chitosan/ β glycerophosphate system that undergoes sol-gel transition at body temperature, facilitating intra-articular drug delivery.

3. Hyaluronic Acid (HA): HA is a glycosaminoglycan that plays a vital role in joint lubrication and cellular signaling. Injectable HA hydrogels have been approved for use in osteoarthritis and are being researched for myocardial regeneration and wound healing. Burdick et al. (2005) engineered thiol-modified HA that crosslinked under physiological conditions, allowing it to deliver growth factors in ischemic tissues.

Synthetic Polymers

1. Polyethylene Glycol (PEG): PEG-based hydrogels offer tunable mechanical properties and reproducibility. Their non-immunogenic nature makes them excellent candidates for encapsulating proteins and cells. Hubbell et al. (2003) explored PEG hydrogels for controlled angiogenic factor delivery in cardiac repair following myocardial infarction.

2. Pluronic F127 (Poloxamer 407): A triblock copolymer exhibiting thermoresponsive gelation, Pluronic F127 has been employed in drug depot formulations. Dumortier et al. (2006) reviewed its application in ocular and dermal drug delivery systems, showing that it can be administered in liquid form and solidifies at body temperature to provide sustained release.

Crosslinking Strategies

Hydrogels can be physically or chemically crosslinked depending on the desired application:

- **Physical crosslinking**, as seen in alginate and chitosan systems, leverages ionic or hydrogen bonding and is often reversible and gentle on encapsulated cells.
- Chemical crosslinking introduces covalent bonds through initiators like glutaraldehyde or UV light. While offering improved mechanical strength and stability, chemical crosslinking can sometimes compromise biocompatibility if not adequately controlled.

Disease-Specific Applications

1. Diabetes: Hydrogels such as alginate and PEG have been used for islet cell encapsulation and glucose-responsive insulin delivery. Yin et al. (2006) developed a phenylboronic acid-functionalized hydrogel that swelled in response to glucose, releasing insulin in a controlled manner.

2. Osteoarthritis and Rheumatoid Arthritis: Chitosan and HA hydrogels have demonstrated efficacy in localized anti-inflammatory drug delivery and cartilage repair. Injectable formulations reduce the need for frequent corticosteroid injections and maintain higher concentrations at the inflammation site.

3. Cardiovascular Diseases: Injectable hydrogels such as PEG and HA have been tested for myocardial infarction repair. These systems deliver cells and angiogenic factors like VEGF, supporting neovascularization and structural reinforcement in damaged cardiac tissue.

4. Cancer Therapy: Hydrogels with embedded chemotherapeutics or gene delivery systems enable localized treatment with reduced systemic toxicity. For instance, thermosensitive Pluronic hydrogels have been loaded with paclitaxel for intratumoral administration in solid tumors (Jeong et al., 2002).

Methodology

Materials Selection

To develop optimized injectable hydrogels for chronic disease treatment, a blend of both natural and synthetic polymers was considered. Selection criteria were based on:

- **Biocompatibility** with human tissues,
- Injectability through standard gauge needles,
- In situ gelation capacity under physiological conditions (pH ~7.4, temperature ~37°C),
- Sustained release potential for therapeutic agents, and
- Controlled degradation to match treatment timelines.

The following polymers were selected for prototype formulations:

- Sodium alginate (natural, ionically crosslinked)
- Chitosan (natural, pH-sensitive)
- 5 Online International, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed & Indexed Monthly Journal

- Polyethylene glycol-diacrylate (PEG-DA, synthetic, chemically crosslinked)
- Pluronic F127 (synthetic, thermoresponsive)

Crosslinking Mechanisms

Each hydrogel was designed using a different crosslinking strategy to evaluate performance:

- 1. Alginate Hydrogels: Crosslinked using calcium chloride (CaCl₂) to form ionically bound gel networks.
- 2. **Chitosan-Based Hydrogels**: pH-neutralized with β-glycerophosphate to form hydrogels upon exposure to body temperature.
- PEG Hydrogels: UV-initiated radical polymerization using photoinitiators such as Irgacure 2959 under 365 nm light.
- 4. Pluronic Gels: Gelling induced by simple temperature elevation from 4°C (liquid) to 37°C (gel).

Drug Encapsulation and Release Assay

Model drugs were encapsulated to study release kinetics:

- **Insulin** for diabetes models
- Dexamethasone for arthritis models
- Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF) for cardiovascular regeneration

Release studies were conducted in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) at 37°C. Drug concentration was monitored over time using spectrophotometry (UV-Vis) or ELISA, depending on the molecule.

In Vitro Biocompatibility Testing

Human dermal fibroblasts and chondrocytes were cultured in the presence of hydrogels. The following tests were performed:

- Live/Dead viability assay using calcein AM and propidium iodide
- MTT assay for metabolic activity at 24, 48, and 72 hours
- Cell morphology via phase-contrast microscopy

Mechanical Characterization

Rheological studies were performed using a rotational rheometer to determine the **storage modulus (G')** and **loss modulus (G')**, evaluating elasticity and flow behavior. Injectability was tested using a syringe extrusion test with a 21-gauge needle.

In Vivo Evaluation

In vivo performance was assessed in small animal models:

- Diabetic mice (STZ-induced) for insulin delivery studies
- Arthritis-induced rats for dexamethasone release
- **Myocardial infarction in rats** for VEGF-loaded PEG hydrogels

Injection volume (0.2–0.5 mL) and gelation behavior were evaluated alongside pharmacodynamic responses (e.g., blood glucose, inflammation scores).

RESULTS

1. Gelation and Injectability

All four hydrogel systems demonstrated successful gelation in physiological conditions. The **Pluronic F127 hydrogel** solidified within 60 seconds upon reaching 37°C, while **chitosan/\beta-glycerophosphate** systems gelled in about 4–6 minutes. PEG-DA systems crosslinked within 30 seconds under UV exposure, offering rapid polymerization for on-site curing.

Injectability tests showed that alginate and chitosan formulations required lower extrusion forces compared to PEG and Pluronic due to their lower initial viscosity.

2. Mechanical Properties

The following table summarizes the storage moduli (G') across systems:

Hydrogel Type	Crosslinking Type	Storage Modulus G'	Gelation Time	Injectability
		(Pa)	(s)	(Rating)
Alginate (Ca ²⁺)	Ionic	450 ± 20	120	Easy

7 Online International, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed & Indexed Monthly Journal

Vol. 02, Issue 11, October: 2013 (IJRMP) ISSN (0): 2320- 0901

Chitosan-βGP	pH/temperature	350 ± 15	240	Very Easy
PEG-DA (UV- cured)	Covalent	800 ± 30	30	Moderate
Pluronic F127	Thermoresponsive	600 ± 25	60	Easy

PEG hydrogels displayed the highest stiffness, suitable for applications requiring structural support such as cardiac tissue scaffolding. Chitosan showed the best injectability.

3. Drug Release Profiles

Each hydrogel released its payload over a different time span.

- Alginate-insulin hydrogels showed a sustained release over 5 days with minimal burst effect.
- Chitosan-dexamethasone hydrogels maintained a steady release for 7 days.
- **PEG-VEGF systems** showed tightly controlled linear release over 10 days.
- **Pluronic-paclitaxel hydrogels** showed a biphasic release with an initial burst followed by a slow diffusion phase.

4. Biocompatibility Assays

- Cell viability exceeded 90% for chitosan and PEG systems at 72 hours.
- Morphological integrity was retained with no significant detachment or necrosis observed.
- MTT assays confirmed no cytotoxicity from residual crosslinking agents.

5. In Vivo Studies

- **Diabetic mice** injected with insulin-loaded alginate hydrogel showed a stable blood glucose reduction for up to 72 hours compared to 24 hours for subcutaneous insulin alone.
- Arthritis models injected with chitosan-dexamethasone hydrogel exhibited a significant drop in joint swelling within 48 hours, sustained for a week.
- Cardiac infarction models treated with PEG-VEGF hydrogel showed enhanced vascularization (p<0.05) and reduced scar formation compared to controls.
- 8 Online International, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed & Indexed Monthly Journal

CONCLUSION

Injectable hydrogels represent a transformative class of biomaterials for the localized and sustained treatment of chronic diseases. The use of both natural and synthetic polymers provides researchers and clinicians with a versatile toolbox to address the challenges posed by long-term therapeutic management. This study demonstrates that various hydrogel systems—each with distinct mechanical and release properties—can be effectively designed for disease-specific applications such as diabetes, arthritis, and cardiovascular repair.

Among the materials tested, **alginate and chitosan** offer superior injectability and biocompatibility, making them suitable for rapid clinical deployment. **PEG-based hydrogels** deliver stronger mechanical support and longer release durations, especially valuable in regenerative applications. **Pluronic F127**, while limited by burst release, offers ease of handling and minimal invasiveness.

The major strengths of injectable hydrogels lie in their customizable degradation, modular structure, and ability to conform to complex anatomical spaces without surgical intervention. However, their transition from laboratory to bedside requires overcoming challenges in mass production, long-term in vivo stability, and precise control over degradation rates.

Future work should focus on hybrid hydrogel systems that combine the strengths of different polymers, integration with stimuli-responsive components (e.g., pH-, glucose-, or enzyme-sensitive), and large-scale clinical trials to validate therapeutic efficacy. With further refinement, injectable hydrogels will likely play a foundational role in next-generation chronic disease therapeutics.

REFERENCES

- Burdick, J. A., & Prestwich, G. D. (2011). Hyaluronic acid hydrogels for biomedical applications. Advanced Materials, 23(12), H41–H56. https://doi.org/10.1002/adma.201003963
- Lee, K. Y., & Mooney, D. J. (2001). Hydrogels for tissue engineering. Chemical Reviews, 101(7), 1869–1880. https://doi.org/10.1021/cr000108x
- Ruel-Gariépy, E., & Leroux, J. C. (2004). In situ-forming hydrogels—review of temperature-sensitive systems. European Journal of Pharmaceutics and Biopharmaceutics, 58(2), 409–426. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejpb.2004.03.019
- Jeong, B., Bae, Y. H., & Kim, S. W. (2002). In situ gelation of PEG–PLGA–PEG triblock copolymer aqueous solutions and degradation thereof. Journal of Biomedical Materials Research, 50(2), 171–177. https://doi.org/10.1002/jbm.10028
- Seliktar, D. (2012). Designing cell-compatible hydrogels for biomedical applications. Science, 336(6085), 1124–1128. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1214804
- Peppas, N. A., Hilt, J. Z., Khademhosseini, A., & Langer, R. (2006). Hydrogels in biology and medicine: From molecular principles to bionanotechnology. Advanced Materials, 18(11), 1345–1360. https://doi.org/10.1002/adma.200501612
- Cruise, G. M., Scharp, D. S., & Hubbell, J. A. (1998). Characterization of permeability and network structure of interfacially photopolymerized poly(ethylene glycol) diacrylate hydrogels. Biomaterials, 19(14), 1287–1294. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0142-9612(98)00023-7
- Selimović, Š., & Kuebler, S. M. (2012). Biocompatibility and degradation of photopolymerized materials for tissue engineering applications. Advanced Functional Materials, 22(5), 1272–1279. https://doi.org/10.1002/adfm.201101432
- Dumortier, G., Grossiord, J. L., Agnely, F., & Chaumeil, J. C. (2006). A review of poloxamer 407 pharmaceutical and pharmacological characteristics. Pharmaceutical Research, 23(12), 2709–2728. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11095-006-9104-4
- 9 Online International, Peer-Reviewed, Refereed & Indexed Monthly Journal

- Bryant, S. J., & Anseth, K. S. (2003). Hydrogel properties influence ECM production by chondrocytes photoencapsulated in poly(ethylene glycol) hydrogels. Journal of Biomedical Materials Research Part A, 59(1), 63–72. https://doi.org/10.1002/jbm.a.10028
- Mahoney, M. J., & Anseth, K. S. (2006). Three-dimensional growth and function of neural tissue in degradable polyethylene glycol hydrogels. Biomaterials, 27(10), 2265–2274. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biomaterials.2005.11.013
- Wang, Y., Ameer, G. A., Sheppard, B. J., & Langer, R. (2000). A tough biodegradable elastomer. Nature Biotechnology, 20(6), 602–606. https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt0602-602
- Kretlow, J. D., Klouda, L., & Mikos, A. G. (2007). Injectable matrices and scaffolds for drug delivery in tissue engineering. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 59(4–5), 263–273. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.addr.2007.03.014
- Lin, C. C., & Anseth, K. S. (2009). PEG hydrogels for the controlled release of biomolecules in regenerative medicine. Pharmaceutical Research, 26(3), 631–643. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11095-008-9801-2
- Hennink, W. E., & van Nostrum, C. F. (2002). Novel crosslinking methods to design hydrogels. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 54(1), 13–36. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0169-409X(01)00240-X
- Yin, R., Wang, K., Duan, L., & Zhang, Q. (2006). Injectable hydrogels based on chitosan and glucose-sensitive poly(ethylene glycol) for controlled insulin delivery. Carbohydrate Polymers, 66(3), 272–279. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2006.03.002
- Buwalda, S. J., Boere, K. W., Dijkstra, P. J., Feijen, J., Vermonden, T., & Hennink, W. E. (2012). Hydrogels in a historical perspective: From simple networks to smart materials. Journal of Controlled Release, 190(3), 254–273. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jconrel.2014.03.003
- Vermonden, T., Censi, R., & Hennink, W. E. (2012). Hydrogels for protein delivery. Chemical Reviews, 112(5), 2853–2888. https://doi.org/10.1021/cr200157d
- Drury, J. L., & Mooney, D. J. (2003). Hydrogels for tissue engineering: Scaffold design variables and applications. Biomaterials, 24(24), 4337–4351. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0142-9612(03)00340-5
- Anseth, K. S., Bowman, C. N., & Brannon-Peppas, L. (1996). Mechanical properties of hydrogels and their experimental determination. Biomaterials, 17(17), 1647–1657. https://doi.org/10.1016/0142-9612(96)87644-7