Supplementary information

Fabrication and use of silicon hollow-needle arrays to achieve tissue nanotransfection in mouse tissue in vivo

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Supplementary Manual

Fabrication of Silicon Hollow Needle Arrays for

Tissue Nanotransfection Applications

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1) Lithography

The main parameters for lithography are photoresist thickness, bake temperature and time, expose time, and develop time. Detailed technical parameters can be found on the websites provided by the chemical companies (Microchemical and Kayaku Advanced Materials). The photoresist thickness can be measured by Reflectometry, or by Surface Profilometer with patterned photoresist on the wafer. Other techniques are imaging the cross-sectional view by SEM or optical microscope after cleaving the wafer. The measurement of the photoresist thickness is important to calculate the etch rate during the process development.

2) Bosch process for etching microneedles on the frontside

First, pattern several Si wafers with SPR 220 photoresist as shown in Steps 1A xvii-xxi. Start with a standard Bosch recipe to etch a patterned wafer and frequently stop the etching process to monitor the wafer using optical microscopy, filmetric and surface profilometer^{1,2}.

Etching Selectivity: The surface profilometer provides the depth information. When the etching depth has reached to about 100 μ m, measure the depths at several different points, and then remove the photoresist per Step 1A xxv. The depths are measured again at the same positions to calculate the Si etching rate, photoresist etching rate, and etching uniformity. If the SPR photoresist etched too fast, reduce the etching ICP power to below 1200 W, and/or reduce the bias below 30 W. The photoresist is required to remain on the wafer until an etch depth of 200 μ m. The SPR photoresist has a good etching selectivity with a Bosch etch process³. If there is a limitation to improve the selectivity, spin-coating thicker photoresist is recommended. The SPR 220-7.0 can be coated on a wafer with over 10 μ m thickness in a single coat with good uniformity.

Etching Profile: After etching about 200 µm, cleave the wafer and take cross-sectional images by SEM to identify the etching profile and quality. If it is negative as shown in Supplementary Figure 1d, reduce the etching gas (SF₆), and/or reduce the etching ICP power. In a similar way, reduce the passivation gas (C₄F₈), and/or reduce the passivation ICP power for the positive profile as shown in Supplementary Figure 1e. The tolerance of the etching angle is $\Theta = 90^{\circ} \pm 2^{\circ}$.

Aspect Ratio Dependent Etch (ARDE) is a serious limitation in Bosch process where the etch depth decreases with reducing feature sizes due to reactant-transport into and reaction product transport out of the narrow gap are hindered⁴. The mass transport decreases sharply with increasing aspect ratio and can even fall to zero etch rate at the critical aspect ratio. Consequently, the etch depth of D1 and D2 are very different as shown in Supplementary Figure 1c. The aspect ratio varies from 10 to 20 if the W1 changes from 10 μ m to 5 μ m. The ARDE can be improved by increasing SF₆ flow rate, etch bias, and reducing pressure^{5,6}. Meanwhile, another easy way to

achieve 100 μ m of D2 etching is to reduce the aspect ratio, for example, increasing the W1 to 10 μ m or 15 μ m.

Grass formation: During Bosch etch process, residual polymer left on the bottom surface act as an etching mask to form grass which is a silicon column structure as shown in Supplementary Figure 1f. This grass can be eliminated by reducing C_4F_8 flow rate and/or passivation ICP power, increasing the etch bias, and 3-step process¹. Refer to the Bosch etch process trends summarized in Supplementary Table 1.

3) Bosch process for etching reservoirs on the backside:

This process creates the hollow channels on the backside which serve as a reservoir to store DNA or genes. The optimization procedure is similar to that of the frontside. First, prepare several Si wafers that were patterned with 50 μ m thick SU8 photoresist (Steps 1A ix-xiii). Then, etch the wafer to about 430 μ m using the Bosch process recipe developed for the frontside. The etch rate decreases over time in high aspect ratio structures due to ARDE.¹ To reach the target value of 430 μ m, increasing the etching gas (SF₆) and bias are recommended to improve the ARDE. If the etching selectivity drops due to high bias, increase the SU8 thickness to 60 μ m or further as needed. Reducing the aspect ratio is a simple way to achieve the target etching depth with less effort in tuning the recipe. The hollow diameter can be changed from 20 μ m to 30 μ m in the GDS file which drops the aspect ratio from 21.5 to 14.3. The hollow channels on the backside serve as a reservoir to store DNA or genes, and hence the diameter and volume are not critical factors for TNT applications. The most critical process is etching through the wafer to connect the two hollow channels on the frontside and the backside so that DNA or gene can freely flow from the backside

reservoir to the target tissue. The etching depth can be simply measured by an optical microscope after cleaving the wafer as shown in Supplementary Figure 2b.



4) SiO₂ PECVD for tuning the nozzle size:

The PECVD coating is another critical process which determines the final nozzle size for the hollow microneedle. The negatively charged DNA or genes are accelerated by the electric field and ejected from this nozzle to the tissue. The ejected speed increases with decreasing the nozzle size in a certain range. There should be a correlation between nozzle size, needle length, electric field, ejected speed, delivery distance, and delivery amount. First, prepare several Si wafers with $\sim 200 \,\mu\text{m}$ etch depth with hollow and trench arrays using Steps 1A ix-xvi. The sizes are measured



using top-view SEM imaging. Then, use a PECVD tool to deposit a layer of SiO₂. Remeasure the sizes using SEM to calculate the shrink rate as shown in Supplementary Figure 3a. The oxide thickness is measured by Filmetric tool to calculate the deposition rate. The wafer is cleaved, and the step-coverage is investigated by cross-sectional SEM imaging. As shown in Supplementary Figure 3b of a cross-sectional image, the PECVD oxide does not cover the trenches conformally. The oxide is much thinner on the sidewall compared to the top surface due to a poor step-coverage for the high-aspect ratio trenches. This non-uniform deposition helps tune the hollow sizes for TNT applications. If the oxide is uniformly deposited into the inner structure, the DNA flow rate would be reduced, and the transfection efficiency would be limited. The PECVD process trends are summarized in Supplementary Table 2.



5) Mechanical Test for TNT Chips:

Mechanical property is crucial to TNT chip being used in the tissue transfection experiment. The TNT chip is mainly made from Si, a kind of fundamental material in the semiconductor industry.

Supplementary

Figure 4 shows the TNT chip evaluated through the loaded weights. Solid



aluminum block with a weight of 1.35 Kg (13.24 N) was loaded on the top surface of the TNT chip one by one. A total weight of 5.40 Kg (52.96 N) was loaded on the chip finally, yielding a pressure of about 0.65 MPa. As seen in the SEM images (Supplementary Figure 4c - d) taken before and after the loading, respectively, there is no obvious change on the TNT chip, indicating the strong strength of the microneedles. This result guarantees the TNT treatment in practical clinic applications in the future.

6) Force Measurement of TNT Chip During Operation

A force sensitive resistor (Pololu) was wired to a microcontroller (Arduino UNO, Elegoo) to measure the force exerted on the TNT chip during operation. One end was connected to the 5V power pin on the microcontroller the other to a $10K\Omega$ pull-down resistor connected to the ground pin. The point between the fixed pulldown resistor and the variable force sensitive resistor was connected to the analog input of the microcontroller. As pressure is applied to the force sensitive resistor from 100 K Ω to 10 K Ω . The current flowing through both resistors increases which in turn causes the voltage across the fixed 10K Ω resistor to increase. Voltage was converted to conductance



which was subsequently converted to force in Newtons using the provided force sensitive resistor guide graphs (Supplementary Figure 5).

The Arduino IDE (Adafruit) was used to compile code for signal generation and data retrieval. The code was modified from the "Using a Force Sensitive Resistor" tutorial sketch on the manufacturer's website. The code can be found below. It should be noted that the force in Newtons reported by the code is rounded to the nearest integer which results in readings of zero Newtons when the force is below 0.5 N. This was rectified in postprocessing, where the conductance values were converted to force values and stored in a csv file for potting in MATLAB.

MATLAB Code:

int fsrReading; // the analog reading from the FSR resistor divider

int fsrVoltage; // the analog reading converted to voltage

unsigned long fsrResistance; // The voltage converted to resistance

unsigned long fsrConductance;

long fsrForce; // Finally, the resistance converted to force

void setup(void) {

Serial.begin(9600); // We'll send debugging information via the Serial monitor

```
}
```

void loop(void) {

fsrReading = analogRead(fsrPin);

```
Serial.print("Analog reading = ");
```

Serial.println(fsrReading);

// analog voltage reading ranges from about 0 to 1023 which maps to 0V to 5V (= 5000mV)

fsrVoltage = map(fsrReading, 0, 1023, 0, 5000);

Serial.print("Voltage reading in mV = ");

```
Serial.println(fsrVoltage);
```

```
if (fsrVoltage == 0) {
```

Serial.println("No pressure");

} else {

// The voltage = Vcc * R / (R + FSR) where R = 10K and Vcc = 5V

// so FSR = ((Vcc - V) * R) / V yay math!

fsrResistance = 5000 - fsrVoltage; // fsrVoltage is in millivolts so 5V = 5000 mV

fsrResistance *= 10000; // 10K resistor

fsrResistance /= fsrVoltage;

Serial.print("FSR resistance in ohms = ");

Serial.println(fsrResistance);

fsrConductance = 1000000; // we measure in micromhos so

fsrConductance /= fsrResistance;

Serial.print("Conductance in microMhos: ");

Serial.println(fsrConductance);

// Use the two FSR guide graphs to approximate the force

if (fsrConductance <= 1000) {

fsrForce = fsrConductance / 80;

Serial.print("Force in Newtons: ");

```
Serial.println(fsrForce);
} else {
  fsrForce = fsrConductance - 1000;
  fsrForce /= 30;
  Serial.print("Force in Newtons: ");
  Serial.println(fsrForce);
  }
}
Serial.println("-----");
delay(1000);
```

}

7) Effect of needle array on skin after TNT:

To test the effect of the needle array on dorsal murine skin, the TNT chip was placed on the skin after nairing and exfoliation. Supplementary Figure 6 shows the skin before (a) and after (b) TNT procedure. No signs of injury or inflammation was observed in the skin.



Supplementary Figure 6. Effect of needle array on skin after TNT (a) Pictures of the mouse before TNT procedure, (b) Pictures of the mouse after TNT procedure.

Supplementary Table 3: Individual data of gene expression in different animals post-TNT (related to Figure 11c)

		Fold Change		
ID	Group	Ascl1	Brn2	Mytl1
Animal 1	Control 1	0.1503	0.5151	0.6998
Animal 2	Control 2	3.1058	2.6900	2.8139
Animal 3	Control 3	0.6647	0.6041	0.4119
Animal 4	Control 4	0.0791	0.1908	0.0744
Animal 5	ABM-1	15.1137	11.6630	25.6228
Animal 6	ABM-2	73.3887	48.7377	54.7543
Animal 7	ABM-3	14.3818	8.8458	11.4739
Animal 8	ABM-4	38.5638	19.2369	24.5906

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