REVIEW ARTICLE

Recent Trends in Microelectrode Array Technology for *In Vitro* **Neural Interface Platform**

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Abstract

Microelectrode array (MEA) technology is a widely used platform for the study of in vitro neural networks as it can either record or stimulate neurons by accessing multiple sites of neural circuits simultaneously. Unlike intracellular recording techniques, MEAs form noninvasive interface with cells so that they provides relatively long time window for studying neural circuits. As the technology matured, there have been various engineering solutions to meet the requirements in diverse application areas of MEAs: High-density MEAs, high-throughput platforms, flexible electrodes, monitoring subthreshold activity, co-culture platforms, and surface micropatterning. The MEA technology has been applied to neural network analysis, drug screening and neural prostheses studies. In this paper, the MEA technology is reviewed and the future prospect is discussed.

Keywords Microelectrode array, Neural interface, Neural recording, Neural stimulation

INTRODUCTION

The electrophysiological characteristics of neural networks have long been studied to unravel the function of the brain. The electrical activities of neurons were recorded from a single-channel to network level and the related techniques helped to understand the underlying mechanisms of brain such as synaptic plasticity. The studies have been applied to various fields of neural engineering such as neural prostheses and neurological disorder treatments.

A planar microelectrode array (MEA) has become a popular experimental platform for electrophysiological studies of neural networks for in vitro models. An MEA was first introduced by Thomas et al. in 1972 as a new platform for studying cultured cardiac myocytes [1]. Since then, Pine and Gross reported successful experiments with cultured superior cervical ganglion cells [2] and ganglion cells from the snail Helix pomatia [3], respectively. In 1986, Wheeler and Novak reported the measurement of extracellular field potentials from brain slices and flexible MEAs were developed for elongated slice experiments [4, 5]. Since the early pioneering works, MEA technology has been applied to various neural network studies ranging from dissociated cell cultures to brain slices owing to its unique features: first, the MEA technology provides convenient spatiotemporal measurement platform. A few dozens of microelectrodes in one MEA chip provides simultaneous multiple signal recording. Second, an MEA provides a noninvasive cell-electrode interface that allows long-term recording and stimulation for days and weeks. The cultured neural network on MEA can maintain electrical activities more than a month by controlling the temperature and pH level of culture environment.

In this review, we introduce design principles and various MEAs for neural network studies. Then, we review the integration of MEA platform to microfluidic channel and surface micropatterning. Finally, we discuss the applications and future prospects of MEA technology.

WORKING PRINCIPLES

When neurons are cultured on an MEA, they adhere to the surface of an MEA and make direct contact with microelectrodes. MEAs record extracellular action potentials from active membranes of the neuron and microelectrodes can be also used to deliver electrical charges to stimulate

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neurons. The recording and stimulation were explained by volume conductor model for brain slices [6, 7], or by an electrical circuit model for cultured neurons [8-11]. In the circuit model, the interaction between the cell membrane and the non-electrode area is represented as a seal resistance. When action potentials are generated from neurons, extracellular ionic current flow occurs and creates extracellular voltage across the seal resistance. Microelectrodes detect the extracellular voltage which is in the range of tens to hundreds of microvolts. It was shown that the recording mode could be switched from extracellular recording to intracellular-like recording by artificially increasing the seal resistance [12]. For large cells, it was also shown that subthreshold activity could be measured by obtaining large seal resistance [13]. In case of stimulation, large seal resistance could dramatically decrease the current that is needed to activate the cellular membrane [14].

FABRICATION OF PLANAR-TYPE MEAs

As an MEA is aimed to interface with micrometer sized cells, a fabrication technique that provides design rules for micrometer scale features is essential. Since the first MEA was introduced in 1972 [1], an MEA has been made through microfabrication processes that are often used in semiconductor industry. To fabricate an MEA materials, for a substrate, conductor, insulator, microelectrodes, and culture chamber should be carefully selected. The choice of materials is closely related with the type of experiments that the MEA will be

used: primary cell culture, acute slice experiments, and organotypic slice culture. Some of the factors to be considered as follows: biocompatibility, optical transparency, substrate rigidity, and durability of insulation layers to cell culture conditions.

Metal patterning

Gold, platinum, or indium-tin oxide (ITO) is used for making metal patterns. Metal pattern is a base design for microelectrodes, conductor lines, and electrical contact pads for external instrumentation devices (Fig. 1a, 1b). The number of microelectrodes and inter space interval of microelectrodes are controlled by the pattern design. To realize these functions on a flat 2-dimensional surface, a thin film metal is deposited on a substrate (glass or silicon wafer) and patterned into 2-dimensional pattern (Fig. 2a, 2b). In case of gold or platinum, an additional metal layer such as titanium [15-18] or chromium [19, 20] is required to promote the adhesion between the glass substrate and metal. Heavily doped polysilicon was also used to prevent cracking and leakage of insulation layers [21]. For optical transparency, indium-tin oxide is used for conductor lines [22, 23]. To make a metal pattern, a thin metal layer is deposited onto the glass substrate using sputtering, thermal evaporation or ebeam evaporation. Then the desired pattern is made through photolithography followed by a wet or dry etching process. The density of electrodes is limited by line width, the size of the electrodes, and inter-electrode spacing. The width of the line is $3 \sim 8 \,\mu\text{m}$ and the thickness of the metal layer is $60 \sim$ 445 nm. In general, the number of electrodes is $32 \sim 60$ and



Fig. 1. Design and fabrication of an MEA. (a) A layout of an MEA with 60 electrodes including a reference electrode. (b) Microelectrode is defined by the size of the opening. Various materials and structures are added in the opening area. (c) A packaged MEA that can be connected with external connectors to electronic instruments. (d) A small cell culture chamber is defined by installing a glass ring surrounding the electrodes. Insulator serves as a cell culture substrate (Photos were provided by Neural Engineering Laboratory in KAIST, South Korea).



Fig. 2. MEAs share common fabrication steps: metal patterning, insulation, and electrode opening.

the inter-electrode spacing is $100 \sim 250 \mu m$, while a 512 electrode MEA was also reported [23]. The layout and the spacing of the electrodes depend on the application and they are limited by the fabrication methods used for metal patterning.

Insulation

To make a microelectrode structure, conductor lines need to be passivated by an insulator (Fig. 2c). A good insulator should minimize signal crosstalk and signal attenuation. As an MEA is operated with aqueous solutions containing abundant ions, an inert insulation layer is required to sustain any degradation under ionic attacks. Various materials have been tried for insulation. Silicon dioxide [2], silicon nitride [23-26], and ONO (SiO₂-Si₃N₄-SiO₂ composite) [21, 27-29] have been used. To deposit inorganic layers chemical vapor deposition (CVD) such as plasma-enhanced CVD or lowpressure CVD is used. Typical thickness for the inorganic materials is 500 \sim 3000 nm. Thicker insulation layers (2 \sim $5 \,\mu\text{m}$) are obtained with the polymers. Polymers such as polysiloxane resin [30], SU-8 [20, 31], polyimide [4, 15, 16, 32], acrylic imide film [22], polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) [33-35] and parylene [36] are also used. Recently, flexible MEAs have been reported for better interaction between tissues and MEAs [35].

Opening of microelectrodes

Following the insulation of a metal pattern, via-holes are formed at both ends of the metal line to define microelectrodes and contact pads (Fig. 2d). Photolithography is used to impose the layout of microelectrodes and contact pads on the insulator and the insulator is selectively etched to make via-holes. In case of the microelectrode, the size of the opening determines the size of the electrode. For etching SiO_2 , hydrofluoric acid buffer solution was used [2]. To etch Si_3N_4 , reactive etching with SF_6 [23] and fluoride ions [24] were used. CF_4 and CHF_3 were used for reactive ion etching of ONO layer opening [27]. In case of photo-defineable polymers such as SU-8, exposure to UV and development made the holes [31]. Parylene [36] and polyimide [16] were etched with oxygen plasma. A via-hole on a PDMS layer was formed using a SU-8 lift-off process [33].

Packaging

To read electrical voltage at the microelectrode, MEAs need to be connected with external read-out circuitry (e.g. amplifier and filter). An MEA chip can be designed large (~ 2 inch \times 2 inch) and the contact pads are directly connected with the headstage amplifiers. In this way, there is no need for a packaging process. However, making a large chip significantly reduces the number of chips that can be batchprocessed per a wafer (4 inch or 8 inch). An alternative way is to design a small chip (~ 1 inch \times 1 inch) and package each chip with a printed-circuit board adaptor that connects the glass MEA chip with the read-out circuitry (Fig. 1c). The connection between contact pads and the PCB board is implemented by wire-bonding with gold wires [18] or conductive glues [31]. If the number of electrodes scales up to a few thousands, wiring individual electrodes become cumbersome and very large-scale integrated circuit (VLSI) design techniques are required to reduce the number of external connections.

Culture chamber

To grow cells on an MEA, a glass or Teflon ring that can hold cell culture medium is installed. The ring should be securely attached on the MEA surface so that the medium will not leak (Fig. 1d). Since the ring can only hold a small amount of culture medium (1 ~ 2 ml), it is often necessary to prevent the evaporation by installing transparent gas permeable and water impermeable FEP (fluorinated ethylene– propylene) membrane [37]. This is especially useful when the recording is performed in a low humidity atmosphere or handling a extremely small volume [38].

ELECTRODE MATERIALS

The recording performance of MEAs is mainly determined by the impedance of the microelectrode. The impedance is closely related to the electrode thermal noise and reducing the noise level is possible by lowering the impedance [9, 25, 39]. The size of the microelectrode ranges from 5 μ m to 50 μ m in diameter and the surface area is too small to provide sufficiently low impedance. Thus, the surface of the microelectrode is modified with conductive materials to increase the effective surface area, which would lower the impedance.

Metal nanostructures have been added on an MEA using platinum or gold. Platinum black is a classic example for the surface modification of the microelectrodes on an MEA [2]. Porous platinum black structure can be obtained by a simple electrochemical deposition method. It has porous structure which is effective for impedance reduction [4, 15, 23, 40]. The plantinized microelectrodes, whose size was $5 \sim 25 \ \mu m$, had impedance in the range of $12 \sim 400 \text{ k}\Omega$ at 1 kHz and the noise level was 2 \sim 5 μV_{ms} . However, the structure is mechanically fragile so that it could be damaged during the usage. Recently, mechanically stable nanoporous platinum microelectrodes were reported to overcome this disadvantage [41]. To fabricate a mechanically strong nanoporous plantinum structures Chung and coworkers used a micelleadd platinum solution for electrodeposition (Fig. 3a). As a result, the constructed platinum nanostructure endured normal force from diamond indentor without any peel off or demolishing. The impedance value was 2.4 k Ω at 1.17 kHz (size: 45 µm in diameter). Gold is another classic electrode material due to its high conductivity, biocompatibility, and chemical stability [3]. Various gold nanostructures have been reported using different fabrication methods. Using electrochemical deposition method, nanoflake (Fig. 3b) [19], nanograin (Fig. 3c) [18] and fuzzy gold [42] structures were constructed. Although gold did not form a porous structure, each nanostructure formed rough surfaces to increase the surface area. The impedance of nanoflake microelectrode was 26.7 kΩ at 1 kHz (size: 15 µm in diameter), and the noise level was 3.5 µV_{ms}. For nanograin and fuzzy gold, grain structures enlarged the surface area of microelectrodes and resulted in low level of impedances which were $100 \text{ k}\Omega$ and 126 k Ω for 20 μ m and 10 μ m sized microelectrodes at 1 kHz, respectively. Moreover, mechanical stability was better than platinum black [19]. Using a top-down method, gold nanopillar was fabricated using aluminum oxide template [27] and nanoporous gold was formed through repeated annealing process at high temperature [20]. The noise level of 10 μ m of nanopillar microelectrodes was 6.7 μ V_{ms} and the impedance of nanoporous gold was 30 k Ω at 1 kHz with 32 μ m sized microelectrodes whose noise level was 5.5 μ V_{ms}. To increase the cell-electrode contact with low electrode impedance, a microelectrode with small opening and large surface area ('nanocavity microelectrode') was fabricated and demonstrated with HL-1 cells [43]. TiN was deposited on gold electrodes by reactive sputtering in an argon/nitrogen atmosphere and its nano-scale columnar structure reduced the electrode impedance dramatically [24].

Carbon nano tubes (CNTs) showed high potential as



Fig. 3. Various types of micro/nano structured microelectrodes. (a) nanoporous platinum, (b) gold nanoflake, (c) gold nanograin, (d) carbon nanotube, (e) silicon nanowire, and (f) iridium oxide nanotube (scale bar: (a) 10 um, (b) 1 um, (c) 5 um, (d) 200 nm, (e) 1 um, (f) 2 um/200 nm). Figures reprinted with permission from (a) [41], Copyright 2010 American Chemical Society; (b) [19], Copyright 2010 IOP Publishing; (c) [18], Copyright 2013 WILEY-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA, Weinheim; (d) [22], Copyright 2013 Elsevier; (e) [54], Copyright 2012 NPG; (f) [55], Copyright 2014 NPG.

microelectrode material. They effectively increased the surface roughness of microelectrodes, which results in recording performance improvements. Through chemical vapor deposition (CVD), CNTs were synthesized on microelectrodes. Nickel layer was deposited on titanium nitride microelectrode and used as catalyst sites for CNT growth [26]. Impedance of CNT microelectrode (size: 80 μ m in diameter) was 10 k Ω at 1 kHz, the noise level was 7 μV_{rms} , and the signal to noise ratio (SNR) was as high as 135. Harris and coworkers used iron as a catalyst and grew protruding CNT microelectrodes with the charge injection limit reaching $1 \sim 1.6 \text{ mC/cm}^2$ [21]. Furthermore, electroplating [22, 44] and microcontact printing method [45] were also used to deposit multiwall CNTs (Fig. 3d). The multiwall CNT structure provided higher SNR, which was approximately 130, compared to normal titanium nitride microelectrode in similar size ($30 \sim 40 \ \mu m$ in diameter). Boron-doped nanocrystalline diamond was also fabricated into an MEA format with various insulation materials (SU8, ONO, and nanocrystalline)[46].

Conductive polymer is also a promising material for microelectrodes since it provides low impedance and versatile platform for additional material conjugation. Representative conductive polymers applied to MEAs are poly(3,4-ethylenedioxythiophene) (PEDOT) and polypyrrole. PEDOT or polypyrrole modified microelectrodes showed low level of impedance [47-49]. PEDOT deposited microelectrode revealed impedance $5.7 \sim 20$ folds decrease, resulting in background noise reduction from $106 \sim 116 \,\mu\text{V}$ to $35 \sim 51 \,\mu\text{V}$ [48]. In addition, CNT [50, 51], graphene [52] or biomolecules [47] could be conjugated into conductive polymer structures and improved the neural recording performance. CNT and graphene increased the charge injection capacity for neural stimulation up to 202.9 mC/cm² [51] and 242.1 mC/cm² [52], whereas normal platinum electrodes showed 1.4 mC/cm².

Nanowire electrodes were fabricated on microelectrodes in order to control the electrode-membrane interface. Following the cell-penetration effect of nanowires on mammalian cells [53], a few groups attempted to apply the phenomenon to the MEA design. Park and coworkers made an MEA with vertical silion nanowires (Fig. 3e) [54]. Vertical silicon nanowires were fabricated through nanofabrication technique, which is widely adopted for integrated silicon electronic circuit production. Each microelectrode had nine nanowires on its surface, whose diameter and length were 150 nm and 3 µm, respectively. Using this type of nanowire-MEAs, they recorded evoked action potentials of rat cortical neuron, whose SNR was more than 100. Cui and coworkers reported vertical nanopillar or nanotube electrodes for transient intracellular recording (Fig. 3f) [17]. For nanoapillar formation, holes were etched on passivation layer by focused ion beam (FIB) milling and platinum was deposited into the holes through FIB-assisted platinum deposition. The action potentials of cultured cardiomyocytes were recorded, which SNR was in the range of $4.5 \sim 9$. By applying 2.5 V of voltage pulses, transient intracellular signals were recorded, which SNR was increases to 590. Recently, they reported iridium oxide nanotubes that elongated the duration of transient intracellular recording up to one hour [55].

Surface modification of electrode surfaces is of interest as cell-adhesive biomolecules could be chemically linked to modulate cell-electrode coupling. Although the chemical modification can affect the electrode impedances, it would be beneficial to biofunctionalize the electrodes for cellelectrode coupling [56]. Spira and coworkers used a protein linking chemistry (3-aminopropyltriethoxysilane and 4maleimidobutyric acid sulfo-N-succinimidyl ester) to immobilize cysteine terminated RGD peptides to gold-spine electrodes [13]. Nam and coworkers utilized electrochemical deposition technique to synthesis polydopamine on microelectrodes [57]. They showed that incorporation of poly-D-lysine or RGD peptides was possible on the electrodes.

ULTRA-HIGH DENSITY CMOS-TYPE MEAs

High spatial resolution recording is desirable for the cellular level studies of neural circuits. To increase a spatial resolution and electrode counts, an ultra-high density MEA with thousands of channels was developed using the state-of-theart VLSI circuit design technology. VLSI circuit design utilizes Complementary-Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor (CMOS) fabrication processes to integrate millions of circuit elements on a silicon chip. Using the same design rules, CMOS-type MEAs were designed to integrate dense microelectrodes. amplifiers, filters, stimulation buffer, multiplexer, digital logic circuits, and analog-to-digital converter circuitry on a same silicon substrate. Multi-layer CMOS fabrication processes allowed to increase the electrode density and on-chip multiplexing technique made it possible to access thousands of electrodes using the reduced number of output channels. The channel selection capability made it possible to select a set of electrodes that were of interest. The high data rate transfer, electrode addressing, and timing control are programed through FPGA platform and high-speed data bus (USB or PCI) was used to transfer the data to PC. FPGA became an essential interface system to build the real-time data acquisition for CMOS-type MEAs.

The CMOS type MEA is fabricated through two steps: VLSI circuit fabrication on a chip and the microelectrode array fabrication process. An VLSI circuit that contains amplifier, filter, analog-to-digital converter, multiplexer, and digital circuits is fabricated by a commercial foundry service and a dedicated area for a microelectrode array is left for post-process. During the post-processing, electrodes are fabricated and passivation layers are added to protect the active circuitry from electrolytes.

Several research groups have reported CMOS-type MEAs with ultra-high density electrode counts. Fromherz and coworkers used 0.5- μ m CMOS process to make a 128 × 128 electrode MEA (sensor area: $1 \text{ mm} \times 1 \text{ mm}$) [58] (Fig. 4a). They made oxide-semiconductor field-effect transistor array with a pitch of 7.8 μ m × 7.8 μ m. On a CMOS chip, they patterned metal electrode patterns and contact pads using Ti and Pt and the stack of TiO_2 and ZrO_2 (40 nm) was sputtered to obtain high dielectric constant (Fig. 4b). The sensor chip had 128×128 pixel array, 128 channel readout amplifiers, 8to-1 multiplexer, and address decoder. They achieved the full frame rate of 2 kps for recording from the entire array. The power consumption was 656 mW, which required the regulation of the chip temperature for biological experiments. An action potential from a snail neuron was successfully recorded. This group reported a next version with improved noise level (40 $\sim 80 \mu$ V) and faster frame rate (6 kHz) and applied to study



Fig. 4. Examples of CMOS-type MEAs. Multi-transistor array developed by Fromherz and coworkers used the oxide layer as a sensing element (a). The device structure (b) and a packaged chip (c) are shown (Reprinted with permission from [108], Copyright 2004 Springer). Microelectrode array integrated with CMOS circuitry developed by Hierlemann and coworkers used metal electrode as a sensing element (d). The device structure (e) and a packaged chip (f) are shown (Reprinted with permission from [67], Copyright 2010 IEEE).

the signal propagations in retinal ganglion networks [59, 60]. A same technology was used to design a multicapacitor array (400 sites, 50 μ m × 50 μ m) for electrical stimulation of retinal slices [61].

Berdondini and coworkers used 0.35 µm CMOS process for a 64×64 electrode MEA (active area: 2.67 mm \times 2.67 mm) [62, 63]. They used gold electrode with the size of 21 μ m \times 21 µm spaced by 21 µm. The CMOS chip had Al electrodes so that biocompatible gold microelectrodes were formed on Al using electroless plating [64]. Silicon oxide from the CMOS foundry service was used as it is to protect the circuitry during cell culture experiments. In their design, electrodes, amplifier, addressing decoder, and multiplexers were integrated on a sensor chip. Analog-to-digital conversion was done with off-chip ADCs on a FPGA board. To handle a large data rate, camera link with frame grabber was used. Full frame rate was 7.8 kHz for 4096 channels and inputreferred noise level was $11 \,\mu V_{rms}$. The power consumption was 132 mW and it did not raise the temperature of cell culture media significantly. This chip has been interfaced with primary neuronal cultures derived from rat hippocampus or cortex [62], acute brain slices [65], and mouse retinal tissues [66].

Hierleman and coworkers used 0.6 µm CMOS process for 11011 electrode MEA system (sensor area: $2.0 \text{ mm} \times 1.75 \text{ mm}$) with the simultaneous recording and stimulation capacity of 126 channels [67, 68] (Fig. 4d). Each electrode had the size of 7 µm in diameter and electrodes were spaced by 18 µm. After adding 0.5 µm thick SiO₂ layer for passivating CMOS layer, they patterned Pt for electrodes and a thick passivation layer (1.6 µm) was added by stacking SiO₂ and Si₃N₄ layers alternatively. To lower the electrode impedance, platinum black was deposited on the Pt electrodes (Fig. 4e). A sensor chip integrated row decoder, multiplexers, 126 readout/ stimulation channels, 16 ADCs, 2 DACs, and digital control circuitry. The chip was interfaced with FPGA board to control the data acquisition and real-time feedback controls. Each channel could be sampled at 20 kHz. The selection of 126 channels from 11011 electrodes was configurable. The inputreferred noise level was 2.4 μV_{ms} (1 Hz – 100 kHz) and the power consumption was 135 mW. This chip was used to investigate the extracellular electrical field in Parasagittal cerebellar slices [68]. Real-time spike detection and closedloop feedback stimulation were demonstrated with the FPGA system [69]. More recently, Bakkum and coworkers combined the on-chip electrical stimulation capability and high-resolution recordings to map the propagation of action potentials in a single cortical neuron [70]. This group recently reported a upgraded system that is capable of recording 1024 channels from 26400 electrodes. Using the 0.35 µm CMOS process, power consumption was reduced to 75 mW and input referred noise level was 2.4 μV_{rms} [71].

MICROFLUIDIC MEAs

Microfluidic technology based on PDMS devices has been proposed as a novel cell culture platform as the technology can provide a methodology to create in vivo like microenvironments for cultured neurons [72]. A two-compartment PDMS device has become a popular cell culture platform for growing neurons [73]. The concept of the design was originally developed by Campenot [74] and implemented into a microfluidic platform by Jeon and others (Fig. 5a). The device is composed of two or more compartments for cell seeding and several microchannels connected the compartments. The size of channels (cross-section: $3 \mu m \times 10 \mu m$) was demonstrated that it was too small to permit somata to migrate into the channels and only axons could extend out to the other compartment [73]. Using these devices, microfludic devices were successfully demonstrated for separating axons from somata and dendrites [73], neuron-astroglia co-culture system [75], or constructing a functional circuit with two different populations of neurons from different brain regions [76]. These microfluidic channel devices that allow the compartmentalization



Fig. 5. Application of microfluidic devices to the MEA platform. (a) Two-population neural network model inspired from Jeon *et al.* [73]. (b) Integration of two-compartment devices with 60-channel MEAs. Electrodes were located in micro-tunnels to record action potentials from axons connecting two neural populations (Reprinted with permission from [79], Copyright 2011 IOP Publishing). (c) Reconstruction of DG-CA3 networks using microfluidic devices (Reprinted with permission from [80], Copyright 2013 Brewer, Boehler, Leondopulos, Pan, Alagapan, DeMarse and Wheeler). (d) Co-culture of P19-derived neurons and mouse cortical neurons (Reprinted with permission from [84], Copyright 2011 Elsevier).

of neurons and fluidic environment have been applied to an MEA in later studies.

Axon signal recording and analysis was possible through microfluidic channel integration to MEA platform. Because axonal growth is only possible in microchannels between compartments, the small signals from isolated bundles of axons can be recorded and the propagation velocity through the bundles was measured by aligning each microchannel on electrodes [77]. Dworak and Wheeler showed that microchannels had signal boosting effect due to the high end-to-end resistance of channels. They were able to record relatively large signals (~ 200 μ V) from isolated axons, which was difficult to record using a conventional MEA. Mepivacaine, a sodium channel blocker, resulted in the alteration of mean spiking rate and conduction velocity [77]. Claverol-Tinture and coworkers showed that axons growing in a microchannel could be approached as a loose-patch configuration, and they were able to measure spikes from axons [78]. Nam and coworkers demonstrated a long-term recording of cultured neurons in microchannel-environments for up to five weeks [38].

Microfluidic compartmental devices were also utilized for constructing networks of neural populations. Wheeler and coworkers utilized a sequential cell plating method that lead to the filling of microchannels with axons from the firstly plated wells. They reported that 84% of the measured spikes were propagating from the first well to the second well, which indicated the establishment of unidirectional connections between two neuronal populations (Fig. 5b) [79]. Unidirectional connectivity between two wells was also verified from burst propagation. To understand the tri-synaptic network of the hippocampal formation pathway from the dentategyrus (DG) to the CA3 and CA1, pairs of the pathways were reconstructed with microfabricated device divided into two compartments (Fig. 5c) [80]. In DG-CA3 co-culture case, spikes from DG axons propagated preferentially to CA3 neurons without external inputs and the burst dynamics of each compartment were different from DG-DG or CA3-CA3 culture cases. Voldman and coworkers controlled the axonal growth by switching on or off the high frequency (< 100 kHz) electric field in the microchannels [81]. It allowed them to form a neural circuit of three neuronal populations. In corticalthalamic co-culture system, synchronized network bursts initiated in cortical compartment and propagated to the thalamic compartment, while there was no preferred direction in cortical-cortical co-culture systems [82]. Synaptic receptor antagonist in cortical compartment influenced the bursting in thalamic compartment. The integration systems were used to control the connectivity for developing in vitro models of patterned neuronal networks and to characterize electrical activity of each compartment and interaction between them [83]. Functional connectivity maps of each compartment using cross-correlation based techniques demonstrated that functional connections not only within each compartment but also with each other were formed. Stem cell-derived neurons and primary neurons were cultured in each compartment of devices to study the interactions between the two neural networks (Fig. 5d) [84]. From the spontaneous activities in co-cultured system recorded by an MEA, periodic synchronized bursts were observed in both compartments for two weeks but the activity profiles from compartment of P19-derived neurons were different from those from monoculture case. Consequently, the functional interactions between two types of neurons were demonstrated.

SURFACE-MICROPATTERNED MEAs

Designed neural network via several surface micropatterning approaches provided opportunities to study the relationship between functional properties and geometry of neuronal networks [85]. The position of cell body, the direction of a axon and dendrites could be controlled by restricting the M



Fig. 6. Surface micropatterning of MEAs. (a) Surface of an MEA can be patterned to either promote or prohibit neuronal growth using appropriate biomolecules and surface biofunctionalization methods. (b) Microcontact printing of cell-adhesive biomolecules on MEAs and the formation of patterned neuronal networks (Reprinted with permission from [89], Copyright 2011 Elsevier). (c) Cell-repellent agarose hydrogel was microstructured using micro-molding in capillary technique ([97] – Reproduced by permission of The Royal Society of Chemistry).

adhesion and growth of neurons on an MEA (Fig. 6a). An MEA surface is patterned into cell-adhesive and cell-prohibitive areas using physical or chemical micropatterning techniques. One of the earliest examples was done by patterning polylysine lines by a lift-off technique and recorded electrical signal from cultured hippocampal neural network for four weeks [15]. To do a lift-off technique on an MEA, the MEA chip itself need to go through photolithography process (photoresist spin coating, baking, UV exposure, and development) and cell adhesive molecules were patterned in a few micrometer scale [86-88]. Microcontact printing which uses a PDMS stamp to print micropatterns of biomolecules on a surface was more convenient to apply chemical patterning on MEAs (Fig. 6b). There were many reports that succeeded in printing cell-adhesive molecules on an MEA and recorded from patterned neuronal networks [16, 29, 56, 89-92]. To facilitate the immobilization of biomolecules and the MEA surfaces, surface modification schemes using alkanethiolate [16], organosilane [56, 86], or polydopamine [57, 93] has been reported. Recently, Suzuki et al. used a different approach to pattern an MEA. They activated polymeric MEA surface using UV ozone and covalently linked polylysine on the entire surface. Then, vacuum UV was selectively irradiated on the MEA surface to modify the cell-adhesiveness of polylysine so that neuronal patterning was possible [94].

Physical structures are also used to pattern MEA surfaces. Thin layer of polyimide was patterned on an MEA, and it was the cast for designing neural network [95]. Recently, agarose hydrogel, which is known to be a perfect surface to inhibit neuronal attachment, was patterned on an MEA. Jimbo and coworkers devised a photothermal etching process to construct microtunnels in agarose hydrogel layer. They successfully demonstrated the construction of unidirectional neural circuits on an MEA by controlling axonal outgrowth *in situ* [96]. Nam and coworkers used soft-lithography to construct agarose microwell arrays on an MEA (Fig. 6c) [97]. As discussed in previous section, microfluidic channel devices are actively used with an MEA to construct neural circuits on an MEA.

OPTICAL INTERFACE WITH MEAs

Optical stimulation and recording techniques have been used as a complementary method to interrogate neural circuits on an MEA. The transparency of the glass substrate allows an MEA to be easily interfaced with optical microscopes. For optical transparency, glass substrates, and a transparent conductor (*e.g.* indium-tin oxide) are used to fabricate an MEA [22, 23]. In this case, the entire chip surface is optically accessible through an inverted microscope setup, except the small area covered by microelectrodes. Calcium

Table 1. Examples of MEA specifications.

Year	Ref.	Electrode material	No. electrodes	Size* (µm)	Z (kΩ), 1kHz	Conductor (thic.: nm)	Insulator (thic.: μm)	Substrate	In vitro testing**
2004	[23]	Pt black	512	5 (dia)	200	ITO (150)	Si ₃ N ₄ (2)	Glass	(r) Retinal slices
2006	[21]	MWCNT	36 (6×6)	30 (sq)	$3 \sim 4$	Doped polySI (500)	ONO (2.25)	Glass	(s) Rat neurons (h)
2007	[26]	MWCNT	60	80 (dia)	$1.1 \sim 10$	TiN (80)	Si ₃ N ₄ (0.3)	Si wafer	(r) Rat neurons (c)
2007	[29]	Pt black	32 (4×8)	10 (sq)	112	Au (300)	ONO (NA)	Glass	(r/s) Rat neurons (h)
2009	[62]	Au	4096	21 (sq)	NA	Al	SiO ₂	CMOS	(r) Rat neurons (h)
2009	[67]	PtBK	11011	7 (dia)	NA	Pt (200)	SiO ₂ -Si ₃ N ₄ (1.6)	CMOS	(r/s) Rat neurons (h) Brain slice
2010	[13]	Au spine	62	NA	NA	Au $(45 \sim 65)$	SiO ₂ (0.3)	Glass	(r) Aplysia neuron
2010	[19]	Au nanoflake	60	$5\sim 50$ (dia)	$12\sim 150$	Au (200)	Si ₃ N ₄	Glass	(r) Rat neurons (h)
2010	[20]	Au nanoporous	64 (8×8)	32 (dia)	30	Au (120)	SU-8 (2)	Glass	(r) Brain slice
2011	[35]	PEDOT:PSS	60	120 (dia)	$400 \sim 1000$	PEDOT:PSS	PDMS	PDMS	(r) Brain slice
2011	[27]	Au nanopillar	NA	15 (dia)	NA	Au (200)	ONO (0.8)	Si wafer	(r) HL-1 cell
2012	[54]	Si nanowire	16 (4×4)	0.15 (dia) 3 (H), 3×3	NA	Doped Si	Al ₂ O ₃ (0.1)	Si wafer	(r) Rat neurons (h)
2012	[84]	Pt black	64	30 (sq)	100	ITO	NA	Glass	(r) Mouse neurons (c) P19-derived neurons
2012	[17]	Pt nanopollar	16 (4×4)	0.15 (dia), 1.5 (H), 3×3	6000	Pt (100)	Si ₃ N ₄ /SiO ₂ (0.35)	Quartz	(r) Cardiac myocytes
2013	[18]	Nanograin	60	30 (dia)	61	Au (200)	Si ₃ N ₄ (0.5)	Glass	(r/s) Rat neurons (h)
2013	[22]	CNT	64	50 (sq)	NA	ITO	acrylic imide	Glass	(r) Rat neurons (h)
2014	[55]	IrOx nanotube	64	$34 \ \mu m^2$	NA	Pt (80)	Si ₃ N ₄ /SiO ₂ (0.25/0.05)	Quartz	(r) Cardiac myocytes
2014	[107]	MWCNT	16	60 (dia)	NA	MWCNT	PDMS (150)	Medical tape	(r) Retinal slices
2014	[43]	Pt	NA	12 (dia)	200	Pt	ONONO (0.8)	Glass	(r) HL-1 cell
2014	[46]	Doped diamond	64	20 (dia)	NA	Doped diamond	SU-8(1.5)	Si wafer	(r) HL-1 cell

* (dia): diameter, (sq): square

** (r): recording, (s): electrical stimulation, (h): primary hippocampal culture, (c): primary cortical culture

imaging was used to study the electrical recording and stimulation of MEAs from cultured neurons [98]. Simultaneous recording of optical signals and electrical signals provided valuable information about the interpretation of calcium dye signals related with actual spiking timing. Optical stimulation can increase the resolution of neural stimulation. Optogenetics has been introduced to the cultured neurons to stimulate neurons that were not reachable through microelectrodes [99]. An optoelectronic device that integrated micropixellated InGaN light-emitting diode with microelectrode array was reported and tested with channel rhodopsin expressed HL-1 cells [100]. Although optogenetics are not fully deployed in combination with MEAs, there are large rooms for the development of opto-electrical MEA platform that will become an essential tool to interrogate *in vitro* neural circuits.

APPLICATIONS

Cell-based biosensors

Various chemicals have been tested to cultured neural network on MEAs in an attempt to quantitatively analyze the

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MEA signals in accordance with chemical types and concentrations. Neurotransmitters or their blockers have been used to observe the network response. The effect of anandamide and methanandamide, which reversibly inhibit spike and burst production, was tested on cultured neural networks [101]. The synchronization activity of spinal cord was changed based on the concentration of bicuculline, strychnine, and 2,3-dioxo-6-nitro-1,2,3,4-tetrahydrobenzoquinoxaline-7-sulphonamide (NBQX) [102]. Robustness and reproducibility of neurotoxicity screening using MEA data have been reported [103].

A high-throughput platform is essential to deploy the MEA platform to drug-screening applications. Multi-well type MEA platforms were developed by a few vendors (*e.g.* Multi Channel Systems, Qwane Bioscences, Axion Biosystems). A micro-multiple well platform based on agarose microwell structures was proposed by Kang *et al.* [97]. A clustered neuronal network was formed in each microwell and a large number of repeating tests for an identical drug could be performed at once using the micro-well type MEA.

Testing platform for retinal prostheses

Researchers used MEAs to study the electrophysiological characteristics of retina slices, which is indispensable for developing retinal prosthetic devices. Various pulses, which were series of symmetric, anodic phase-first biphasic pulses with different amplitudes and pulse durations, were tested to search for efficient electrical stimulation protocols [104, 105]. Voltage controlled pulse stimulation was compared with current controlled pulse stimulation [104]. Chichilnisky and coworkers showed that multielectrode array with smaller electrode diameters (6 or 25 µm) and spacing (60 µm) could be used to stimulate retinal ganglion cells of mammalian retinal tissues, thus might be used for high-resolution retinal implant devices [105, 106]. Recently, Hanein and coworkers used the MEA technology to test a novel polymeric retinal implant platform based on a photo-sensitive bulk heterojunction layer (P3HT/N2200) [107].

SUMMARY

MEA is a versatile neural interface platform for *in vitro* neural tissues, which provides neural recording, electrical stimulation, and chemical stimulation. For past two decades, researchers made great effort to develop various types of MEAs that had more channels, durability, biocompatibility, functionality, and flexibility. Metal nanostructures, carbon nanotubes, conductive polymers, and nanowires showed great promise in enhancing the sensitivity of the MEA. State-of-the-art VLSI design technology has been used to increase the MEA channel capacity to a few thousands and

contributed to the miniaturization of the MEA system. MEA technology could be engineered to integrate microfluidic devices, optical interfaces, and surface micropatterning techniques. Microfluidic devices facilitated the study of neural information processing between two different neural populations. Surface micropatterning provided suface biofunctional schemes to MEAs. Finally, the MEA system has been utilized to numerous neural network studies and clinical applications such as drug screening, retinal slice studies, and neural network dynamic analysis. It is expected that the MEA technology will contribute to progress of network neuroscience.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENTS

Kim R declares that she has no conflict of interest in relation to the work in this article. Joo S declares that he has no conflict of interest in relation to the work in this article. Jung H declares that he has no conflict of interest in relation to the work in this article. Hong N declares that she has no conflict of interest in relation to the work in this article. Nam Y declares that he has no conflict of interest in relation to the work in this article.

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