Recent Advances in Transdermal Drug Delivery System (TDDS): An Overview

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Abstract

Transdermal drug delivery systems (TDDS), also known as “patches,” are dosage forms designed to deliver a therapeutically effective amount of drug across a patient’s skin. In order to deliver therapeutic agents through the human skin for systemic effects, the comprehensive morphological, biophysical and physicochemical properties of the skin are to be considered. Transdermal delivery provides a leading edge over injectables and oral routes by increasing patient compliance and avoiding first pass metabolism respectively. Transdermal delivery not only provides controlled, constant administration of the drug, but also allows continuous input of drugs with short biological half-lives and eliminates pulsed entry into systemic circulation, which often causes undesirable side effects. The TDDS review articles provide valuable information regarding the transdermal drug delivery systems and its evaluation process details as a ready reference for the research scientist who is involved in TDDS.

Keywords: Transdermal drug delivery systems (TDDS), First-generation TDS, Second-generation TDS, Polymer Matrix.

Introduction

At present, the most common form of delivery of drugs is the oral route. While this has the notable advantage of easy administration, it also has significant drawbacks -- namely poor bioavailability due to hepatic metabolism (first pass) and the tendency to produce rapid blood level spikes (both high and low), leading to a need for high and/or frequent dosing, which can be both cost prohibitive and inconvenient.¹

To overcome these difficulties there is a need for the development of new drug delivery system; which will improve the therapeutic efficacy and safety of drugs by more precise (i.e. site specific), spatial and temporal placement within the body thereby reducing both the size and number of doses. New drug delivery system are also essential for the delivery of novel, genetically engineered pharmaceuticals (i.e. peptides, proteins) to their site of action, without incurring significant immunogenecity or biological inactivation.

Transdermal drug delivery is defined as self contained, discrete dosage forms which, when applied to the intact skin, deliver the drug, through the skin at controlled rate to the systemic circulation. Transdermal drug delivery system (TDDS) established itself as an integral part of novel drug delivery systems.²
Advantages of Transdermal Drug Delivery Systems

1. Transdermal medication delivers a steady infusion of a drug over an extended period of time. Adverse effects or therapeutic failures frequently associated with intermittent dosing can also be avoided.
2. Transdermal delivery can increase the therapeutic value of many drugs by avoiding specific problems associated with the drug e.g., gastrointestinal irritation, low absorption, decomposition due to hepatic “first pass” effect, formation of metabolites that cause side effects, short half-life necessitating frequent dosing etc.
3. Due to the above advantage, it is possible that an equivalent therapeutic effect can be elicited via transdermal drug input with a lower daily dose of the drug than is necessary, if, for example, the drug is given orally.
4. The simplified medication regimen leads to improved patient compliance and reduced inter & intra – patient variability.
5. At times the maintenance of the drug concentration within the dermiphase is not desired. Application and removal of transdermal patch produce the optimal sequence of pharmacological effect.
6. Self administration is possible with these systems.
7. The drug input can be terminated at any point of time by removing transdermal patch.

Disadvantages of Transdermal Drug Delivery Systems

1. The drug must have some desirable physicochemical properties for penetration through stratum corneum and if the drug dose required for therapeutic value is more than 10 mg/day, the transdermal delivery will be very difficult.
2. Only relatively potent drugs are suitable candidates for TDDS because of the natural limits of drug entry imposed by the skin’s impermeability.
3. Some patients develop contact dermatitis at the site of application for one or more of the system components, necessitating discontinuation.
4. Clinical need is another area that has to be examined carefully before a decision is made to develop a transdermal product.
5. The barrier function of the skin changes from one site to another on the same person, from person to person and with age.

First-generation transdermal delivery systems

The first generation of transdermal delivery systems is responsible for most of the transdermal patches that have thus far been in clinical use. Significant advances in patch technology, and public acceptance, have enabled the recent surge in first-generation transdermal patches reaching the market. However, this surge will taper off as drugs with suitable properties for such systems are depleted. First-generation delivery candidates must be low-molecular weight, lipophilic and efficacious at low doses. Usually, their transdermal delivery should be more attractive than oral delivery due to low oral bioavailability, the need or desire for less frequent dosing or steady delivery profiles, or other factors.

Second-generation transdermal delivery systems

The second generation of transdermal delivery systems recognizes that skin permeability enhancement is needed to expand the scope of transdermal drugs. The ideal enhancer should (i) increase skin permeability by reversibly disrupting stratum corneum structure, (ii) provide an added driving force for transport into the skin and (iii) avoid injury to deeper, living tissues. However, enhancement methods developed in this generation, such as conventional chemical enhancers, iontophoresis and non-avitational ultrasound, have struggled with the balance between achieving increased delivery across stratum corneum, while protecting deeper tissues from damage. As a result, this second generation of delivery systems has advanced clinical practice primarily by improving small molecule delivery for localized, dermatological, cosmetic and some systemic applications, but has made little impact on delivery of macromolecules.

Transdermal Patches

A transdermal patch or skin patch is a medicated adhesive patch that is placed on the skin to deliver a specific dose of medication through the skin and into the bloodstream. Often, this promotes healing to an injured area of the body. An advantage of a transdermal drug delivery route over other types such as oral, topical, etc is that it provides a controlled release of the medicament into the patient. A disadvantage to development however, stems from the fact that the skin is a very effective barrier. A wide variety of pharmaceuticals can be delivered by transdermal patches.

The main components of a transdermal patch are:
Transdermal patch may include the following components:

- Liner - Protects the patch during storage. The liner is removed prior to use.
- Drug - Drug solution in direct contact with release liner
- Adhesive - Serves to adhere the components of the patch together along with adhering the patch to the skin
- Membrane - Controls the release of the drug from the reservoir and multi-layer patches
- Backing - Protects the patch from the outer environment

**Kinetics of Transdermal Permeation**

Knowledge of skin permeation kinetics is vital to the successful development of transdermal therapeutic systems. Transdermal permeation of a drug involves the following steps:

1. Sorption by stratum corneum.
2. Penetration of drug through viable epidermis.
3. Uptake of the drug by the capillary network in the dermal papillary layer.

This permeation can be possible only if the drug possesses certain physiochemical properties. The rate of permeation across the skin is given by:

\[
\frac{dQ}{dt} = P_s (C_d - C_r)
\]

Where \(C_d\) and \(C_r\) are the concentration of the skin penetrant in the donor compartment i.e. on the surface of stratum corneum and in the receptor compartment i.e. body respectively. \(P_s\) is the overall permeability coefficient of the skin tissue to the penetrant. This permeability coefficient is given by the relationship:

\[
P_s = \frac{K_s D_{ss}}{h_s}
\]

where \(K_s\) is the partition coefficient for the interfacial partitioning of the penetrant molecule from a solution medium or a transdermal therapeutic system on to the stratum corneum, \(D_{ss}\) is the apparent diffusivity for the steady state diffusion of the penetrant molecule through a thickness of skin tissues and \(h_s\) is the overall thickness of skin tissues. As \(K_s, D_{ss}\) and \(h_s\) are constant under given conditions the permeability coefficient \(P_s\) for a skin penetrant can be considered to be constant. From equation (1) it is clear that a constant rate of drug permeation can be obtained only when \(C_d >> C_r\) i.e. the drug concentration at the surface of the stratum corneum \(C_d\) is consistently and substantially greater than the drug concentration in the body \(C_r\). The equation becomes:

\[
\frac{dQ}{dt} = P_s C_d
\]

And the rate of skin permeation is constant provided the magnitude of \(C_d\) remains fairly constant throughout the course of skin permeation. For keeping \(C_d\) constant the drug should be released from the device at a rate \(R_r\) i.e. either constant or greater than the rate of skin uptake \(R_a\) i.e. \(R_r >> R_a\).

Since \(R_r >> R_a\), the drug concentration on the skin surface \(C_d\) is maintained at a level equal to or greater than the equilibrium solubility of the drug in the stratum corneum \(C_s\) i.e. \(C_d >> C_s\). Therefore a maximum rate of skin permeation is obtained and is given by the equation:

\[
(dQ/dt)_m = P_s C_s
\]

From the above equation it can be seen that the maximum rate of skin permeation depends upon the skin permeability coefficient \(P_s\) and is equilibrium solubility in the stratum corneum \(C_s\). Thus skin permeation appears to be stratum corneum limited.¹

**Basic Components of Transdermal Drug Delivery Systems**
The components of transdermal devices include:

1. Polymer matrix or matrices.
2. The drug
3. Permeation enhancers
4. Other excipients

**1. Polymer Matrix**

The Polymer controls the release of the drug from the device.

Possible useful polymers for transdermal devices are:

**a) Natural Polymers:**

- e.g. Cellulose derivatives, Zein, Gelatin, Shellac, Waxes, Proteins, Gums and their derivatives, Natural rubber, Starch etc.

**b) Synthetic Elastomers:**

- e.g. Polybutadiene, Hydrin rubber, Polysiloxane, Silicone rubber, Nitrile, Acrylonitrile, Butyl rubber, Styrenebutadiene rubber, Neoprene etc.

**c) Synthetic Polymers:**

- e.g. Polyvinyl alcohol, Polyvinyl chloride, Polyethylene, Polypropylene, Polyacrylate, Polyamide, Polyurea, Polyvinylpyrrolidone, Polyvinylmethacrylate, Epoxy etc.

**2. Drug**

For successfully developing a transdermal drug delivery system, the drug should be chosen with great care. The following are some of the desirable properties of a drug for transdermal delivery.

**Physicochemical properties**

1. The drug should have a molecular weight less than approximately 1000 daltons.
2. The drug should have affinity for both – lipophilic and hydrophilic phases. Extreme partitioning characteristics are not conducive to successful drug delivery via the skin.
3. The drug should have low melting point.

Along with these properties the drug should be potent, having short half life and be non irritating.

**3. Permeation Enhancers**

These are compounds which promote skin permeability by altering the skin as a barrier to the flux of a desired penetrant. These may conveniently be classified under the following main headings:

**a) Solvents**

These compounds increase penetration possibly by swallowing the polar pathway and/or by fluidizing lipids. Examples include water alcohols – methanol and ethanol; alkyl methyl sulfoxides – dimethyl sulfoxide, alkyl homologs of methyl sulfoxide dimethyl acetamide and dimethyl formamide; pyrrolidones – 2 pyrrolidone, N-methyl, 2-pyrrolidone; laurocapram (Azone), miscellaneous solvents – propylene glycol, glycerol, silicone fluids, isopropyl palmitate.

**b) Surfactants**

These compounds are proposed to enhance polar pathway transport, especially of hydrophilic drugs. The ability of a surfactant to alter penetration is a function of the polar head group and the hydrocarbon chain length.

Anionic Surfactants: e.g. Dioctyl sulphosuccinate, Sodium lauryl sulphate, Decodecylmethyl sulphoxide etc.

Nonionic Surfactants: e.g. Pluronic F127, Pluronic F68, etc.

Bile Salts: e.g. Sodium meso taurocholate, Sodium deoxycholate, Sodium tauroglycocholate.

Biary systems: These systems apparently open up the heterogeneous multilaminate pathway as well as the continuous pathways, e.g. Propylene glycol-oleic acid and 1, 4-butane diol-linoleic acid.

**c) Miscellaneous chemicals**
These include urea, a hydrating and keratolytic agent; N,N-dimethyl-m-toluamide; calcium thioglycolate; anticholinergic agents.

Some potential permeation enhancers have recently been described but the available data on their effectiveness sparse. These include eucalyptol, di-o-methyl-ß-cyclodextrin and soyabean casein.(8)

4. Other Excipients

a) Adhesives:

The fastening of all transdermal devices to the skin has so far been done by using a pressure sensitive adhesive which can be positioned on the face of the device or in the back of the device and extending peripherally. Both adhesive systems should fulfill the following criteria

(i) Should adhere to the skin aggressively, should be easily removed.
(ii) Should not leave an unwashable residue on the skin.
(iii) Should not irritate or sensitize the skin.

The face adhesive system should also fulfill the following criteria.

(i) Physical and chemical compatibility with the drug, excipients and enhancers of the device of which it is a part.
(ii) Permeation of drug should not be affected.
(iii) The delivery of simple or blended permeation enhancers should not be affected.

b) Backing membrane:

Backing membranes are flexible and they provide a good bond to the drug reservoir, prevent drug from leaving the dosage form through the top, and accept printing. It is impermeable substance that protects the product during use on the skin e.g. metallic plastic laminate, plastic backing with absorbent pad and occlusive base plate (aluminium foil), adhesive foam pad (flexible polyurethane) with occlusive base plate (aluminium foil disc) etc.12

Desirable features for transdermal patches

Composition relatively invariant in use.
System size reasonable.
Defined site for application.
Application technique highly reproducible.
Delivery is (typically) zero order.
Delivery is efficient.13

Types of Transdermal Patches: 1, 2, 14-18

1. Single layer drug in adhesive:

In this type the adhesive layer contains the drug. The adhesive layer not only serves to adhere the various layers together and also responsible for the releasing the drug to the skin. The adhesive layer is surrounded by a temporary liner and a backing.

The intrinsic rate of drug release from this type of drug delivery system is defined by

\[ \frac{dQ}{dT} = \frac{Cr}{1/Pm + 1/Pa} \]

where \( Cr \) is the drug concentration in the reservoir compartment and \( Pa \) and \( Pm \) are the permeability coefficients of the adhesive layer and the rate controlling membrane, \( Pm \) is the sum of permeability coefficients simultaneous penetrations across the pores and the polymeric material. \( Pm \) and \( Pa \), respectively, are defined as follows.
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\[ P_m = \frac{K_{m/r} \cdot D_m}{h_m} \]
\[ P_a = \frac{K_{a/m} \cdot D_a}{h_a} \]

where \( K_{m/r} \) and \( K_{a/m} \) are the partition coefficients for the interfacial partitioning of drug from the reservoir to the membrane and from the membrane to adhesive respectively; \( D_m \) and \( D_a \) are the diffusion coefficients in the rate controlling membrane and adhesive layer, respectively; and \( h_m \) and \( h_a \) are the thicknesses of the rate controlling membrane and adhesive layer, respectively.

2. Multi-layer drug in adhesive:

This type is also similar to the single layer but it contains an immediate drug release layer and other layer will be a controlled release along with the adhesive layer. The adhesive layer is responsible for the releasing of the drug. This patch also has a temporary liner-layer and a permanent backing.

The rate of drug release in this system is defined by:

\[ dQ/dt = \frac{K_{a/r} \cdot D_a}{A(h_a(t))} \]

In the above equation, the thickness of the adhesive layer for drug molecules to diffuse through increases with time \( h_a(t) \). To compensate for this time dependent increase in the diffusional path due to the depletion of drug dose by release, the drug loading level is also increased with the thickness of diffusional path \( A(h_a) \).

4. Drug Matrix-in-Adhesive

The Matrix system design is characterized by the inclusion of a semisolid matrix containing a drug solution or suspension which is in direct contact with the release liner. The component responsible for skin adhesion is incorporated in an overlay and forms a concentric configuration around the semisolid matrix.
The rate of drug release from this type of system is defined as:

\[
\frac{dQ}{dt} = AC_p D_p^{1/2} \frac{1}{2t}
\]

Where A is the initial drug loading dose dispersed in the polymer matrix and \(C_p\) and \(D_p\) are the solubility and diffusivity of the drug in the polymer respectively. Since, only the drug species dissolved in the polymer can release, \(C_p\) is essentially equal to \(C_R\), where \(C_R\) is the drug concentration in the reservoir compartment.

Various methods for preparation TDDS:

a. Asymmetric TPX membrane method:

A prototype patch can be fabricated for this a heat sealable polyester film (type 1009, 3m) with a concave of 1cm diameter will be used as the backing membrane. Drug sample is dispensed into the concave membrane, covered by a TPX {poly (4-methyl-1-pentene)} asymmetric membrane, and sealed by an adhesive. [(Asymmetric TPX membrane preparation): These are fabricated by using the dry/wet inversion process. TPX is dissolved in a mixture of solvent (cyclohexane) and nonsolvent additives at 60°C to form a polymer solution. The polymer solution is kept at 40°C for 24 hrs and cast on a glass plate to a predetermined thickness with a gardner knife. After that the casting film is evaporated at 50°C for 30 sec, then the glass plate is to be immersed immediately in coagulation bath [maintained the temperature at 25°C]. After 10 minutes of immersion, the membrane can be removed, air dry in a circulation oven at 50°C for 12 hrs].

b. Circular teflon mould method:

Solutions containing polymers in various ratios are used in an organic solvent. Calculated amount of drug is dissolved in half the quantity of same organic solvent. Enhancers in different concentrations are dissolved in the other half of the organic solvent and then added. Di-N-butylphthalate is added as a plasticizer into drug polymer solution. The total contents are to be stirred for 12 hrs and then poured into a circular teflon mould. The moulds are to be placed on a leveled surface and covered with inverted funnel to control solvent vaporization in a laminar flow hood model with an air speed of 0.5 m/s. The solvent is allowed to evaporate for 24 hrs. The dried films are to be stored for another 24 hrs at 25±0.5°C in a desiccators containing silica gel before evaluation to eliminate aging effects. The type films are to be evaluated within one week of their preparation.

c. Mercury substrate method:

In this method drug is dissolved in polymer solution along with plasticizer. The above solution is to be stirred for 10-15 minutes to produce a homogenous dispersion and poured in to a leveled mercury surface, covered withinverted funnel to control solvent evaporation.

d. By using “IPM membranes” method:

In this method drug is dispersed in a mixture of water and propylene glycol containing carbomer 940 polymer and stirred for 12 hrs in magnetic stirrer. The dispersion is to be neutralized and made viscous by the addition of triethanolamine. Buffer pH 7.4 can be used in order to obtain solution gel, if the drug solubility in aqueous solution is very poor. The formed gel will be incorporated in the IPM membrane.

e. By using “EVAC membranes” method:

In order to prepare the target transdermal therapeutic system, 1% carbopol reservoir gel, polyethylene (PE), ethylene vinyl acetate copolymer (EVAC) membranes can be used as rate control membranes. If the drug is not soluble in water, propylene glycol is used for the preparation of gel. Drug is dissolved in propylene glycol, carbopol resin will be added to the above solution and neutralized by using 5% w/w sodium hydroxide solution. The drug (in gel form) is placed on a sheet of backing layer covering the specified area. A rate controlling membrane will be placed over the gel and the edges will be sealed by heat to obtain a leak proof device.

f. Aluminium backed adhesive film method:

Transdermal drug delivery system may produce unstable matrices if the loading dose is greater than 10 mg. Aluminium backed adhesive film method is a suitable one. For preparation of same, chloroform is choice of solvent, because most of the drugs as well as adhesive are soluble in chloroform. The drug is dissolved in chloroform and
adhesive material will be added to the drug solution and dissolved. A custommade aluminium former is lined with aluminium foil and the ends blanked off with tightly fitting cork blocks.24

g. Preparation of TDDS by using Proliposomes:
The proliposomes are prepared by carrier method using film deposition technique. From the earlier reference drug and lecithin in the ratio of 0.1:2.0 can be used as an optimized one. The proliposomes are prepared by taking 5mg of mannitol powder in a 100 ml round bottom flask which is kept at 60-70°C temperature and the flask is rotated at 80-90 rpm and dried the mannitol at vacuum for 30 minutes. After drying, the temperature of the water bath is adjusted to 20-30°C. Drug and lecithin are dissolved in a suitable organic solvent mixture, a 0.5ml aliquot of the organic solution is introduced into the round bottomed flask at 37°C, after complete drying second aliquots (0.5ml) of the solution is to be added. After the last loading, the flask containing proliposomes are connected in a lyophilizer and subsequently drug loaded mannitol powders (proliposomes) are placed in a desiccator over night and then sieved through 100 mesh. The collected powder is transferred into a glass bottle and stored at the freeze temperature until characterization.25, 26

h. By using free film method:
Free film of cellulose acetate is prepared by casting on mercury surface. A polymer solution 2% w/w is to be prepared by using chloroform. Plasticizers are to be incorporated at a concentration of 40% w/w of polymer weight. Five ml of polymer solution was poured in a glass ring which is placed over the mercury surface in a glass petri dish. The rate of evaporation of the solvent controlled by placing an inverted funnel over the petri dish. The film formation is noted by observing the mercury surface after complete evaporation of the solvent. The dry film will be separated out and stored between the sheets of wax paper in a desiccator until use. Free films of different thickness can be prepared by changing the volume of the polymer solution.27

Evaluation parameters:

1. Interaction studies:
Excipients are integral components of almost all pharmaceutical dosage forms. The stability of a formulation amongst other factors depends on the compatibility of the drug with the excipients. The drug and the excipients must be compatible with one another to produce a product that is stable, thus it is mandatory to detect any possible physical or chemical interaction as it can affect the bioavailability and stability of the drug. If the excipients are new and have not been used in formulations containing the active substance, the compatibility studies play an important role in formulation development. Interaction studies are commonly carried out in Thermal analysis, FT-IR, UV and chromatographic techniques by comparing their physicochemical characters such as assay, melting endotherms, characteristic wave numbers, absorption maxima etc.28, 29

2. Thickness of the patch:
The thickness of the drug loaded patch is measured in different points by using a digital micrometer and determines the average thickness and standard deviation for the same to ensure the thickness of the prepared patch.30

3. Weight uniformity:
The prepared patches are to be dried at 60°C for 4hrs before testing. A specified area of patch is to be cut in different parts of the patch and weigh in digital balance. The average weight and standard deviation values are to be calculated from the individual weights.30

4. Folding endurance:
A strip of specific area is to be cut evenly and repeatedly folded at the same place till it broke. The number of times the film could be folded at the same place without breaking gave the value of the folding endurance.30

5. Percentage Moisture content:
The prepared films are to be weighed individually and to be kept in a desiccator containing fused calcium chloride at room temperature for 24 hrs. After 24 hrs the films are to be reweighed and determine the percentage moisture content from the below mentioned formula.30

\[
\text{Percentage moisture content} = \frac{\text{Initial weight} - \text{Final weight}}{\text{Final weight}} \times 100.
\]

6. Percentage Moisture uptake:
The weighed films are to be kept in a desiccator at room temperature for 24 hrs containing saturated solution of potassium chloride in order to maintain 84% RH. After 24 hrs the films are to be reweighed and determine the
percentage moisture uptake from the below mentioned formula.\(^{30}\)

Percentage moisture uptake = \([\text{Final weight - Initial weight/ initial weight}] \times 100\).

7. Water vapour permeability (WVP) evaluation:

Water vapour permeability can be determined with foam dressing method the air forced oven is replaced by a natural air circulation oven. The WVP can be determined by the following formula

\[
\text{WVP}=\frac{W}{A}
\]

Where, WVP is expressed in gm/m\(^2\) per 24hrs, W is the amount of vapour permeated through the patch expressed in gm/24hrs and A is the surface area of the exposure samples expressed in m\(^2\).\(^{31}\)

8. Drug content:

A specified area of patch is to be dissolved in a suitable solvent in specific volume. Then the solution is to be filtered through a filter medium and analyse the drug contain with the suitable method (UV or HPLC technique). Each value represents average of three different samples.\(^{31}\)

9. Uniformity of dosage unit test:

An accurately weighed portion of the patch is to be cut into small pieces and transferred to a specific volume volumetric flask, dissolved in a suitable solvent and sonicate for complete extraction of drug from the patch and made up to the mark with same. The resulting solution was allowed to settle for about an hour, and the supernatant was suitably diluted to give the desired concentration with suitable solvent. The solution was filtered using 0.2µm membrane filter and analysed by suitable analytical technique (UV or HPLC) and the drug content per piece will be calculated.\(^{31}\)

10. Polariscope examination:

This test is to be performed to examine the drug crystals from patch by polariscope. A specific surface area of the piece is to be kept on the object slide and observe for the drugs crystals to distinguish whether the drug is present as crystalline form or amorphous form in the patch.\(^{32}\)

11. Shear Adhesion test:

This test is to be performed for the measurement of the cohesive strength of an adhesive polymer. It can be influenced by the molecular weight, the degree of crosslinking and the composition of polymer, type and the amount of tackifier added. An adhesive coated tape is applied onto a stainless steel plate; a specified weight is hung from the tape, to affect it pulling in a direction parallel to the plate. Shear adhesion strength is determined by measuring the time it takes to pull the tape off the plate. The longer the time take for removal, greater is the shear strength.\(^{32}\)

12. Peel Adhesion test:

In this test, the force required to remove an adhesive coating form a test substrate is referred to as peel adhesion. Molecular weight of adhesive polymer, the type and amount of additives are the variables that determined the peel adhesion properties. A single tape is applied to a stainless steel plate or a backing membrane of choice and then tape is pulled from the substrate at a 180° angle, and the force required for tape removed is measured.\(^{32}\)

13. Thumb tack test:

It is a qualitative test applied for tack property determination of adhesive. The thumb is simply pressed on the adhesive and the relative tack property is detected.\(^{32}\)

14. Flatness test:

Three longitudinal strips are to be cut from each film at different portion like one from the center, other one from the left side, and another one from the right side. The length of each strip was measured and the variation in length because of non-uniformity in flatness was measured by determining percent constriction, with 0% constriction equivalent to 100% flatness.\(^{33}\)

15. Percentage Elongation break test:

The percentage elongation break is to be determined by noting the length just before the break point, the percentage elongation can be determined from the below mentioned formula.

\[
\text{Elongation percentage} = \frac{L1-L2}{L2} \times 100
\]

Where, L1 is the final length of each strip and L2 is the initial length of each strip.\(^{34}\)

16. Rolling ball tack test:

This test measures the softness of a polymer that relates to talk. In this test, stainless steel ball of 7/16 inches in diameter is released on an inclined track so that it rolls
down and comes into contact with horizontal, upward facing adhesive. The distance the ball travels along the adhesive provides the measurement of tack, which is expressed in inch.  

17. Quick Stick (peel-tack) test:
In this test, the tape is pulled away from the substrate at 90°C at a speed of 12 inches/min. The peel force required to break the bond between adhesive and substrate is measured and recorded as tack value, which is expressed in ounces or grams per inch width.  

18. Probe Tack test:
In this test, the tip of a clean probe with a defined surface roughness is brought into contact with adhesive, and when a bond is formed between probe and adhesive. The subsequent removal of the probe mechanically breaks it. The force required to pull the probe away from the adhesive at fixed rate is recorded as tack and it is expressed in grams.  

19. In vitro drug release studies:
The paddle over disc method (USP apparatus V) can be employed for assessment of the release of the drug from the prepared patches. Dry films of known thickness is to be cut into definite shape, weighed, and fixed over a glass plate with an adhesive. The glass plate was then placed in a 500-mL of the dissolution medium or phosphate buffer (pH 7.4), and the apparatus was equilibrated to 32± 0.5°C. The paddle was then set at a distance of 2.5 cm from the glass plate and operated at a speed of 50 rpm. Samples (5-mL aliquots) can be withdrawn at appropriate time intervals up to 24 h and analyzed by UV spectrophotometer or HPLC. The experiment is to be performed in triplicate and the mean value can be calculated.  

20. In vitro skin permeation studies:
An in vitro permeation study can be carried out by using diffusion cell. Full thickness abdominal skin of male Wistar rats weighing 200 to 250g. Hair from the abdominal region is to be removed carefully by using a electric clipper; the dermal side of the skin was thoroughly cleaned with distilled water to remove any adhering tissues or blood vessels, equilibrated for an hour indissolution medium or phosphate buffer pH 7.4 before starting the experiment and was placed on a magnetic stirrer with a small magnetic needle for uniform distribution of the diffusant. The temperature of the cell was maintained at 32 ± 0.5°C using a thermostatically controlled heater. The isolated rat skin piece is to be mounted between the compartments of the diffusion cell, with the epidermis facing upward into the donor compartment. Sample volume of definite volume is to be removed from the receptor compartment at regular intervals, and an equal volume of fresh medium is to be replaced. Samples are to be filtered through filtering medium and can be analyzed spectrophotometrically or HPLC. Flux can be determined directly as the slope of the curve between the steady-state values of the amount of drug permeated (mg cm-2) vs. time in hours and permeability coefficients were deduced by dividing the flux by the initial drug load (mg cm-2).  

21. Skin Irritation study:
Skin irritation and sensitization testing can be performed on healthy rabbits (average weight 1.2 to 1.5 kg). The dorsal surface (50cm2) of the rabbit is to be cleaned and remove the hair from the clean dorsal surface by shaving and clean the surface by using rectified spirit and the representative formulations can be applied over the skin. The patch is to be removed after 24 hr and the skin is to be observed and classified into 5 grades on the basis of the severity of skin injury.  

22. Stability studies:
Stability studies are to be conducted according to the ICH guidelines by storing the TDDS samples at 40±0.5°C and 75±5% RH for 6 months. The samples were withdrawn at 0, 30, 60, 90 and 180 days and analyze suitably for the drug content.  

Transdermal Market
The market for transdermal products has been in a significant upward trend that is likely to continue for the foreseeable future. An increasing number of TDD products continue to deliver real therapeutic benefit to patients around the world. More than 35 TDD products have now been approved for sale in the US, and approximately 16 active ingredients are approved for use in TDD products globally. The table 1 gives detail information of the different drugs which are administered by this route and the common names by which they are marketed; it also gives the conditions for which the individual system is used.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product name</th>
<th>Drug</th>
<th>Manufacturer</th>
<th>Indication</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alora</td>
<td>Estradiol</td>
<td>TheraTech/Proctol and Gamble</td>
<td>Postmenstrual syndrome</td>
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<td>Testosterone</td>
<td>TheraTech/GlaxoSmithKline</td>
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<td>Alza/Boehinger</td>
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<td>Climaderm</td>
<td>Estradiol</td>
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<td>Use</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Novartis</td>
<td>Smoking cessation</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Roberts Pharmaceuticals</td>
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<td>Alza</td>
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<td>Scopolamine</td>
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The pie diagram given below shows that Fentanyl and nitroglycerine are the drugs most popularly marketed using transdermal patches.

Advance Development in TDDS

Drug in adhesive technology has become the preferred system for passive transdermal delivery, two areas of formulation research are focused on adhesives and excipients. Adhesive research focuses on customizing the adhesive to improve skin adhesion over the wear period, improve drug stability and solubility, reduce lag time, and increase the rate of delivery. Because a one-size-fits-all adhesive does not exist that can accommodate all drug and formulation chemistries, customizing the adhesive chemistry allows the transdermal formulator to optimize the performance of the transdermal patch.36

Conclusion

Transdermal drug delivery is hardly an old technology, and the technology no longer is just adhesive patches. Due to the recent advances in technology and the incorporation of the drug to the site of action without rupturing the skin membrane transdermal route is becoming the most widely accepted route of drug administration. It promises to eliminate needles for administration of a wide variety of drugs in the future. TDDS have great potentials, being able to use for both hydrophobic and hydrophilic active substance into promising deliverable drugs. To optimize this drug delivery system, greater understanding of the different mechanisms of biological interactions, and polymer are required. TDDS realistic practical application as the next generation of drug delivery system.

Reference


31. Shaila L, Pandey S and Udupa N. Design and evaluation of matrix type membrane controlled


