

## Transdermal Drug Delivery Systems: Progress, Obstacles, And Future Prospectives

Suhani Saxena<sup>1</sup>, Deepti Seth<sup>2</sup>, Anmol Singh<sup>3</sup>, N. G. Raghavendra Rao<sup>4\*</sup>, Anuj Pathak<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1,2</sup> School of Pharmacy, KIET Group of Institutions, KIET Deemed to be University, Delhi-NCR, Meerut Road, Muradnagar, Ghaziabad-201206, U.P., India.

<sup>2</sup> Department of Applied Science, KIET Group of Institutions, KIET Deemed to be University, Delhi-NCR, Meerut Road, Muradnagar, Ghaziabad-201206, U.P., India.

<sup>4\*,5</sup> School of Pharmacy, Professor, Department of Pharmaceutics, KIET Group of Institutions, KIET Deemed to be University, Delhi-NCR, Meerut Road, Muradnagar, Ghaziabad-201206, U.P., India.

**\*Corresponding author:**

Dr. N. G. Raghavendra Rao

Professor, School of Pharmacy, Department of Pharmaceutics,  
KIET Group of Institutions, Delhi-NCR, Meerut Road,  
Muradnagar, Ghaziabad-201206, Uttar Pradesh, India.

Email ID: [drnraghu@gmail.com](mailto:drnraghu@gmail.com)

---

### ABSTRACT

Transdermal patches offer a comfortable and non-invasive method for administering medication, marking a significant shift from traditional pills and injections. This review provides a detailed exploration of their core principles, from the structure of the skin and the variables influencing drug absorption to the various patch designs like matrix, reservoir, and drug-in-adhesive systems. It also assesses modern production methods, including solvent casting and hot-melt extrusion, weighing their practicality for large-scale manufacturing.

The discussion also covers key innovations designed to improve drug absorption, such as chemical agents (e.g., terpenes and fatty acids) and physical approaches like iontophoresis and microneedles. To ensure safety and efficacy, the text details essential testing protocols, from in vitro release and skin irritation studies to stability assessments that adhere to ICH standards. Furthermore, the real-world impact of this technology is illustrated with case studies of established transdermal products, including fentanyl for pain, oestradiol for hormone therapy, and patches for nicotine cessation.

The field continues to evolve dynamically, with emerging innovations like patches that deliver proteins, integrate glucose sensors, or use thermo-responsive smart polymers. Despite clear benefits such as avoiding first-pass metabolism and enhancing patient compliance, transdermal systems still face challenges like skin irritation and limitations on drug molecule size. Given that transdermal products now constitute 40% of investigational delivery systems and their market is expanding at a 25% CAGR, this review offers critical insights for the development of next-generation patches. The future of this progress lies in the integration of nanotechnology and novel biocompatible materials, which are set to unlock new therapeutic frontiers.

**KEYWORDS:** Transdermal drug delivery, skin permeability, drug release, patches, controlled release, pharmacokinetics, polymer matrix.

---

**How to Cite:** Suhani Saxena, Deepti Seth, Anmol Singh, N. G. Raghavendra Rao, Anuj Pathak, (2025) Transdermal Drug Delivery Systems: Progress, Obstacles, And Future Prospectives, Vascular and Endovascular Review, Vol.8, No.17s, 506- 523.

---

### INTRODUCTION

Developing new drugs from scratch is a costly and time-consuming process. To overcome this, researchers are finding ways to improve existing medications. Strategies include creating personalized treatment plans, fine-tuning dosages, and monitoring drug levels in the body. A major focus of modern research is on advanced delivery technologies, such as controlled-release mechanisms, long-acting formulations, and methods that target drugs precisely to where they are needed.[1] These next-generation delivery systems enhance both the effectiveness and convenience of a wide range of treatments. Modern delivery systems can administer a wide range of therapeutics, from traditional chemical drugs to complex biologics like vaccines and monoclonal antibodies. Despite this versatility, oral solid dosages and injectables remain the most common methods in clinical use. The vast majority of small-molecule drugs are formulated as tablets or capsules for oral intake. The scale of this consumption is immense; globally, common pain relievers such as aspirin see annual use numbering in the billions of units.[2] Transdermal and mucosal drug delivery offers a way for medications to enter the body without injections, effectively bypassing key biological barriers. These methods provide major benefits over traditional needles, including greater patient comfort, easier access to medication, and better adherence to treatment regimens. They also avoid the risks associated with needles and can reduce the costs of needing a healthcare professional for administration. This vibrant field of research brings together expertise from many scientific disciplines, driving revolutionary advances in how drugs are delivered. The articles in this collection highlight the cutting-edge innovations and new methodologies that are redefining modern therapeutics.[3] Pharmaceutical-grade adhesive patches allow for controlled drug absorption through the skin, delivering medication directly into the bloodstream. Since the FDA first approved this method over forty years ago in 1981, the technology has advanced

significantly. Today's transdermal systems can deliver a range of therapeutic agents and are used across numerous medical fields:

- Anti-emetics for motion-related nausea (scopolamine derivatives)
- Cardiovascular medications (hypertensive and antianginal drugs)
- Potent analgesics for persistent pain conditions
- Addiction treatment formulations for nicotine dependence

These dermal administration platforms offer distinct pharmacokinetic benefits:

- Prolonged therapeutic effect through gradual drug release
- Maintenance of stable plasma concentrations
- Circumvention of metabolic variability seen with bolus dosing

Compared to traditional methods, transdermal delivery offers significant clinical benefits. It avoids the gastrointestinal tract and significantly reduces the first-pass metabolism in the liver, which often limits the effectiveness of oral medications.[4]

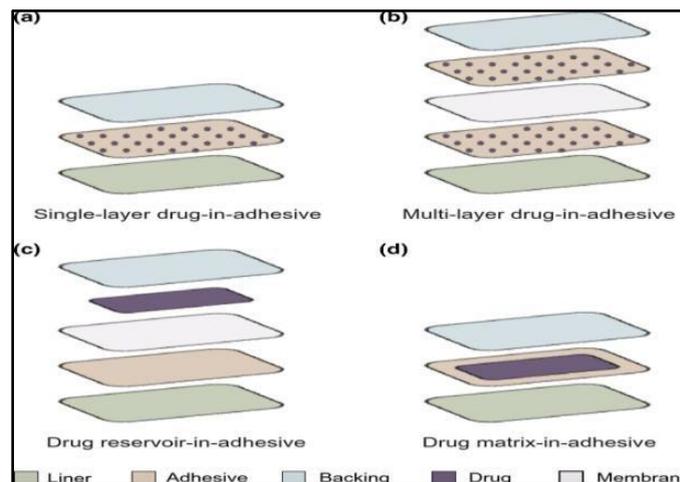
#### The main components to a transdermal patch are:

The core components of a transdermal patch work in concert to control drug delivery. The **polymer matrix** forms the structural foundation and is crucial for regulating the release rate of the medication. Suitable polymers must be chemically inert, non-toxic, stable, and cost-effective. They can be derived from natural sources (e.g., cellulose derivatives, gelatine, gums), synthesized as elastomers (e.g., silicone rubber, polyisobutylene), or be thermoplastics (e.g., polyethylene, polyvinyl alcohol, polyacrylate).

Successful transdermal delivery also hinges on careful **drug selection**. This method is especially beneficial for compounds that undergo significant first-pass metabolism in the liver (like nitro-glycerine), those with a narrow therapeutic index requiring tight control (such as fentanyl), and drugs with short half-lives that need sustained release. To facilitate absorption, **permeation enhancers** are often included to temporarily alter the barrier properties of the skin's outermost layer, the stratum corneum. These can be lipophilic solvents (like ethanol), surfactants (e.g., sodium lauryl sulphate), or binary systems that combine agents like DMSO with fatty acids.

The system's functionality is completed by several other key elements. A skin-compatible **adhesive** is essential to maintain secure contact with the skin for consistent drug permeation. A flexible **backing layer**, often made of polyethylene or vinyl, provides structural integrity and occlusivity. A **release liner** is removed prior to application to protect the adhesive surface, and various **excipients** like plasticizers may be added to optimize the patch's physical properties and drug solubility. [5]

The design of modern transdermal patches is highly customizable, tailored around both the physicochemical properties of the active and inactive ingredients and the required performance for long-term clinical use. This adaptability is driving innovation across multiple fronts, from novel biochemical formulations and advanced manufacturing techniques to breakthroughs in material science. Current research is particularly focused on optimizing the molecular interactions between drugs and their polymer matrices, enhancing epidermal absorption, ensuring stability over extended periods, and improving overall user comfort and convenience. Consequently, a diverse range of both chemical and physical strategies for patch development is now being actively explored. [6]

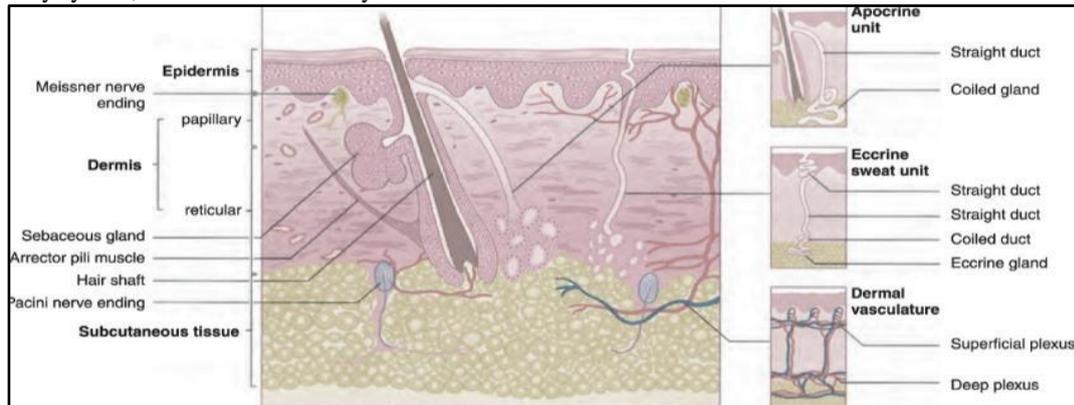


**Fig 1: Different types of Transdermal patches**

Transdermal therapeutic systems enable controlled drug absorption through the skin, providing a highly efficient administration route. A key pharmacological benefit is the maintenance of stable drug levels in the bloodstream while avoiding first-pass liver metabolism, which significantly improves a drug's bioavailability. However, potential drawbacks include cutaneous reactions like localized irritation, allergic responses, or skin sensitization, particularly with prolonged or frequent use. Therefore, while transdermal delivery optimally balances sustained therapeutic action with fewer systemic side effects, assessing long-term skin tolerance remains a critical consideration. [7]

## ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY OF SKIN

As the human body's largest organ, the skin accounts for roughly 15% of an adult's total body weight. It performs a number of vital protective roles, including acting as a barrier against physical, chemical, and biological threats, minimizing water loss, and regulating internal temperature. Together with the mucous membranes and structures like hair and nails, it forms the integumentary system, which covers the body's surfaces.



**Fig 2: Anatomy of skin**

The skin has three primary layers: the epidermis, dermis, and subcutaneous tissue.

Forming the skin's protective shield, the epidermis is composed primarily of keratinocytes. These cells manufacture keratin, a tough and fibrous protein. Beneath this shield lies the dermis, a supportive layer strengthened by collagen, which grants the skin its resilience and flexibility. At the deepest level, the subcutaneous tissue (hypodermis) is characterized by clusters of adipocytes, whose fat stores serve to insulate the body and stockpile energy. [8]

The epidermis, a multi-layered and keratinized tissue, contains four main cell types. Keratinocytes are the most abundant, but three other specialized cells are also present: melanocytes, which synthesize the protective pigment melanin; Merkel cells, which act as touch receptors; and Langerhans cells, which are essential for immune surveillance. The number of layers in the epidermis varies; thin skin has four, while the thick skin on areas like the palms and soles develops a fifth layer due to heightened cellular activity.

Beneath the epidermis, the dermis provides structural integrity. Its embryonic origin is diverse, arising from neural crest cells in the face and neck, lateral plate mesoderm in the limbs, and paraxial mesoderm in the back. This middle layer is composed of tough, flexible connective tissue that delivers nutrients to the epidermis and anchors it to the deeper hypodermis. In fact, the collagen fibers of the dermis blend seamlessly with those in the underlying subcutaneous tissue.

Beneath the dermis is the subcutaneous tissue, a layer of loose connective and adipose tissue also known as the hypodermis. The thickness of this fatty layer is not uniform; it varies considerably based on its location in the body, a person's sex, and their overall nutrition. This subcutaneous fat serves several essential roles, such as providing thermal insulation, storing energy reserves, and cushioning the body from physical impacts. [9]

Acting as the body's dynamic outer shield, the skin forms a protective barrier between our internal systems and the outside world. This vital organ defends against a wide range of threats, from physical injury and harmful chemicals to extreme temperatures, pathogens, dehydration, and radiation. Structurally, it is organized into two main layers: a superficial, non-vascular epidermis and a deeper, vascular dermis. Where these layers meet, a specialized basement membrane zone connects them, ensuring both structural cohesion and functional communication. While the entire skin contributes to immunity, the epidermis is especially crucial as the primary environmental barrier and for preventing water loss.

The epidermis is a multi-layered, self-renewing barrier composed of distinct strata. Cell development begins in the basal layer (stratum basale), where new cells are generated. These cells then mature and differentiate as they migrate upward through the spinous and granular layers, eventually forming the outermost protective shield, the stratum corneum. This layered structure offers comprehensive protection through physical resistance, chemical defense, and both innate and adaptive immune functions.

The skin's defense operates on two levels. While the stratum corneum is the primary barrier, the deeper epidermal layers act as a crucial secondary line of defense. Research confirms this dual system: experiments show that removing the outer layer with tape only slightly increases water loss, whereas completely removing the epidermis via a suction blister causes a severe breakdown of the barrier. This demonstrates that the entire epidermal structure is vital for protection, with the deeper layers providing essential backup when the surface is damaged.[10]

Table 1: Global burden of skin diseases

Skin diseases	Global burden of skin disease rank	Rank by % of Total Publications	% Global Burden of Disease (DALYs)	Publications (2015-2020) n %
Dermatitis	1	3	0.38	1,927(9.77)
Acne	2	4	0.29	477(2.42)
Psoriasis	3	2	0.19	1,9936(9.81)
Urticaria	4	7	0.19	139(0.70)
Viral Skin Diseases	5	5	0.16	283(1.38)
Fungal Skin Diseases	6	6	0.15	193(0.98)
Scabies	7	10	0.07	54(0.27)
Melanoma	8	1	0.06	1,995(10.11)
Pyoderma	9	8	0.05	124(0.63)
Cellulitis	10	9	0.04	81(0.41)
All other skin and subcutaneous diseases	N/A	N/A	0.12	N/A

The field of dermatology has been transformed by recent progress in transdermal and topical drug delivery. A key driver of this innovation is nanotechnology, which offers solutions to the shortcomings of conventional therapies. Nano-engineered carriers enhance the solubility of poorly soluble drugs and improve the stability of pharmaceutical compounds. Researchers are now developing a wide array of these nanocarriers, such as lipid-based nanoparticles, vesicular systems, polymeric and metallic nanoparticles, nano emulsions, electro spun nanofibers, and microneedle patches. This review will explore these advanced delivery platforms and their growing role in treatment. [11]

## CLASSIFICATION OF TRANSDERMAL PATCHES

### 1. The Matrix Method:

In this matrix-type delivery system, the drug is evenly distributed within a polymer base, which can be either water-attracting (hydrophilic) or water-repelling (hydrophobic). This mixture is formed into a disc of precise thickness and surface area. The final patch has a multi-layer design: the drug-infused core is positioned between a protective backing film and an adhesive layer that contacts the skin. Drug release is a two-stage process; the medication first diffuses through the polymer matrix and then passes through the adhesive before reaching the skin. This sequential diffusion mechanism allows for a steady, controlled release of the drug over many hours, ensuring stable therapeutic levels in the body. [12]



Fig 3: Matrix type transdermal patch

### 2. System of Reservoirs:

This advanced patch design uses a specialized microporous membrane to control the rate of drug delivery. The system contains a separate drug reservoir, situated between a protective backing and this rate-limiting membrane. The drug within the reservoir can be formulated as a solution, suspension, gel, or embedded in a solid polymer. The membrane itself is the key component, allowing the active ingredient to permeate gradually at a specific, pre-determined rate. This sophisticated design enables precise dosage control and stable drug levels in the bloodstream. When compared to conventional methods, reservoir-type patches provide a more consistent drug release profile and a longer duration of action, making them ideal for medications that require steady concentrations. [13]

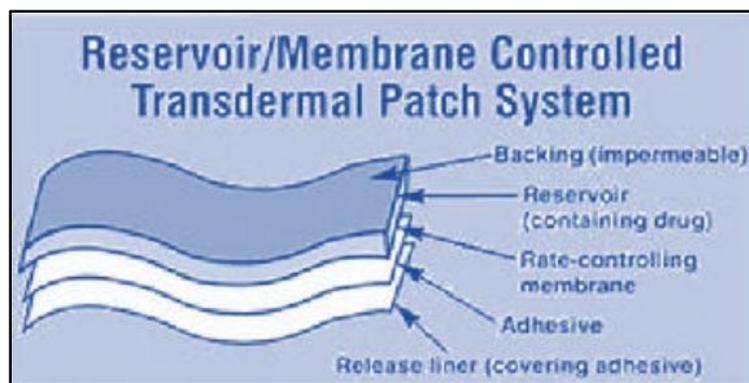


Fig 4: reservoir type transdermal patch

### 3. Micro-Reservoir System (Multilaminate):

This hybrid transdermal technology merges the benefits of reservoir and matrix systems. During manufacturing, an aqueous drug suspension is first prepared within a hydrophilic polymer. This suspension is then uniformly blended into a hydrophobic polymer base, creating a structure filled with countless microscopic drug reservoirs. The final product is a gel-like network where these tiny drug depots are evenly dispersed. This dual-phase architecture provides the controlled release of a reservoir system alongside the structural robustness of a matrix system. By precisely modulating the drug's diffusion rate, it enables sustained, steady delivery throughout the entire wear period, making it ideal for medications that require consistent, long-term absorption. [14]

#### Adhesive Drug System:

The drug-in-adhesive design is the most elementary form of membrane-controlled transdermal delivery. In this system, the active pharmaceutical ingredient is embedded directly within the adhesive layer itself. This gives the adhesive a dual function: it secures the patch to the skin while also releasing the medication. The patch structure is simple, consisting of the drug-loaded adhesive sandwiched between a protective backing and a removable release liner. Unlike more complex reservoir or matrix systems, the adhesive matrix alone governs the rate of drug delivery. With the medication uniformly distributed throughout the adhesive, it transfers directly to the skin upon contact. This straightforward design offers a cost-effective option for drugs that do not require precise release control, while still providing the core advantages of transdermal administration. [15]

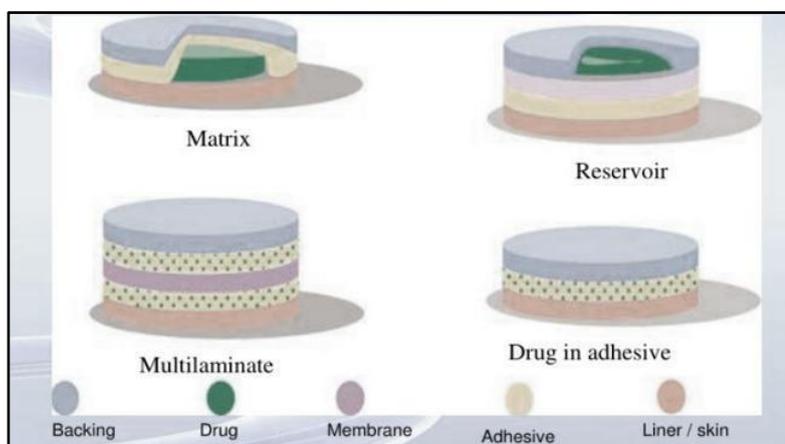


Fig 5: Showing different layers in transdermal patches

#### Single layer drug-in-adhesive patches

This transdermal system uses a straightforward design where the medication is embedded directly into the adhesive polymer itself. This single adhesive layer has a dual purpose: it stores the drug and attaches the patch to the skin. The medication, uniformly distributed throughout the adhesive, gradually diffuses into the skin. A prominent example is the Daytrana patch, which delivers methylphenidate. The single-layer construction is not only simple to manufacture but also results in a thin, flexible patch that patients find comfortable to wear. This approach is ideal for drugs that remain stable and release effectively from within an adhesive matrix. By merging the reservoir and adhesive into one layer, the design offers an efficient and economical delivery solution. An impermeable backing film completes the system, providing structural support and preventing the drug from escaping. [16]

#### Multilayer drug-in-adhesive patches

This advanced transdermal system uses a multi-layered design to achieve controlled, long-term drug release. Its architecture includes a central drug reservoir layered with one or more adhesive levels, all supported by a protective backing and a temporary release liner. A key difference from simpler patches is its use of sequential adhesive layers, which can be loaded with different drug concentrations or even distinct formulations. This sophisticated structure allows for precise control over the drug's release profile, enabling sustained delivery for as long as a week. As a result, these patches are frequently used for

extended treatments like pain management, nicotine cessation, and hormone therapy.

The multi-layered design provides superior control over drug delivery by allowing different layers to release medication at distinct rates, creating tailored absorption profiles. It can also house multiple drugs in separate compartments. This sophisticated architecture gives clinicians the flexibility to achieve specific pharmacokinetic outcomes without sacrificing the convenience of a patch. An impermeable backing layer prevents the drug from escaping and shields it from the environment, while a removable liner keeps the adhesive intact until use. By combining these features, the patch can deliver both immediate and sustained release, making it ideal for treatments that require complex dosing schedules or long-term action.[17]

### Vapor transdermal patches

These systems utilize a single-layer adhesive polymer designed for the controlled release of therapeutic vapours. Different vapor patches are tailored for specific purposes. A prominent example is Nicoderm CQ®, a smoking cessation aid that delivers nicotine along with essential oils through the skin. Other types, like altacura patches, use essential oils to relieve congestion, while some are formulated with antidepressants or sedatives, providing systemic therapeutic effects via transdermal vapor absorption. [18]

### Membrane moderated transdermal reservoir patches

A standard transdermal patch contains a central drug reservoir enclosed by a protective metallic-plastic backing and a porous, rate-controlling membrane. This membrane, often made of ethylene vinyl acetate copolymer, is lined with a hypoallergenic adhesive to secure it to the skin. During production, the active ingredient is evenly distributed within the patch's polymer matrix to guarantee a steady, controlled release into the skin over time. [19]

### Micro reservoir transdermal patches

Micro-reservoir patches represent a hybrid technology that combines elements of both reservoir and matrix systems. The manufacturing process begins by suspending the drug in an aqueous polymer solution. This suspension is then mechanically dispersed at high intensity within a lipophilic (fat-soluble) polymer, creating a network of microscopic, stable drug reservoirs. These tiny spheres remain fixed within the patch, releasing the medication at a steady, constant rate known as zero-order kinetics. This ensures prolonged therapeutic effect. To further enhance the formulation's stability, crosslinked polymers are often added to the drug-polymer mixture.

## Evolution of Transdermal Drug Delivery Systems

### First-Generation Systems: Foundations in Diffusion

The initial transdermal systems functioned through simple diffusion, which restricted their use to small, lipophilic molecules administered in low doses. This generation included pioneering patches for nicotine (smoking cessation), fentanyl (pain management), and scopolamine (motion sickness).

### Second-Generation Systems: Enhancing Permeation

The next phase incorporated technologies to actively boost skin penetration. By utilizing chemical permeation enhancers, iontophoresis (electrical current), or sonophoresis (ultrasound), these systems could deliver a broader spectrum of small-molecule drugs that were previously unsuitable for transdermal delivery.

### Third-Generation Systems: Minimally Invasive Breakthroughs

The most advanced generation employs minimally invasive mechanisms, such as microneedle arrays and electroporation (high-voltage electrical pulses). These approaches create microscopic pathways through the skin's outer barrier, making it possible to administer biologically active macromolecules, including peptide-based drugs and immunization agents.

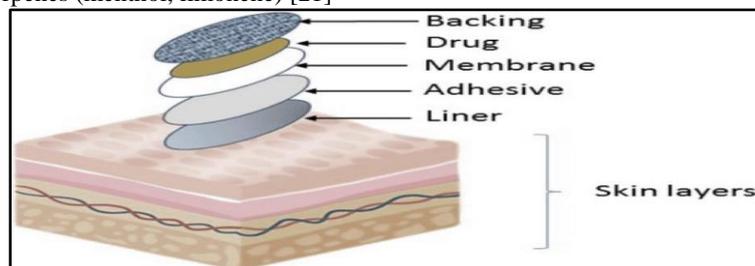
This progression demonstrates the field's remarkable shift from basic diffusion-based patches to sophisticated platforms capable of targeted delivery of complex therapeutics.[19]

**Table 2: Classification of transdermal drug delivery**

Classification Category	Examples / Features
First-generation TDDS	Passive diffusion, small lipophilic drugs (e.g. nicotine, scopolamine)
Second-generation TDDS	Chemical enhancers, iontophoresis, ultrasound for enhanced delivery
Third-generation TDDS	Microneedles, electroporation, designed for macromolecules and vaccines
Drug-in-Adhesive System	Drug is embedded in adhesive—single- or multi-layer formats
Reservoir (Membrane) System	Drug in a separate compartment with rate-controlling membrane
Matrix (Monolithic) System	Drug homogenized in polymer matrix for controlled diffusion
Micro-Reservoir System	A hybrid system: microdroplets of drug solution within a polymer matrix
Vapor Patch	Adhesive-based vapor release; not used for systemic drug

## MATERIAL USED IN TRANSDERMAL PATCHES

- Backing Layer**  
**Function:** Protects the patch from the external environment, provides occlusion, and supports the patch.  
**Properties:** Impermeable to drug and moisture, chemically inert, flexible.  
**Materials Used:** Polyethylene (PE), Polypropylene (PP), Polyethylene terephthalate (PET), Polyvinyl chloride (PVC).[19]
- Drug Reservoir / Matrix**  
**Function:** Contains and releases the drug in a controlled manner.  
**Types: Matrix-type:** Drug is dispersed in polymer matrix.  
**Reservoir-type:** Drug in liquid/gel form enclosed between backing and rate- controlling membrane.  
**Polymers Used:** Hydroxypropyl methylcellulose (HPMC), Ethyl cellulose (EC), Eudragit® (various grades), Polyvinyl alcohol (PVA), Polyacrylate derivatives, Polyurethane
- Adhesive Layer**  
**Function:** Ensures the patch sticks to the skin for the required duration and delivers the drug through the skin.  
**Types:** Pressure-sensitive adhesives (PSAs)  
**Materials Used:** Acrylate adhesives (most common), Silicone-based adhesives, Polyisobutylene (PIB), Rubber-based adhesives
- Rate-Controlling Membrane (only in reservoir systems)**  
**Function:** Controls the rate of drug release from the reservoir to the skin. **Materials Used:** Ethylene-vinyl acetate (EVA) copolymers, Cellulose acetate, Polyurethane films. [20]
- Release Liner**  
**Function:** Covers the adhesive layer and is removed before patch application.  
**Properties:** Inert, easily peelable, protective.  
**Materials Used:** Siliconized PET, Polyolefin films, Paper-based liners with silicone coating.
- Penetration Enhancers (optional)**  
**Function:** Increase skin permeability to improve drug absorption.  
**Examples:** Oleic acid, Ethanol, Propylene glycol, Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), Terpenes (menthol, limonene) [21]



## FORMULATION AND MANUFACTURING TECHNIQUES

- 1) Circular Teflon mould method
- 2) Mercury substrate method
- 3) By using IPM membranes method
- 4) By using EVAC membrane method
- 5) By using pro liposomes
- 6) By using free film method
- 7) Solvent Evaporation method

- 1. Asymmetric TPX Membrane Method:** In their 1994 technique, Berner and John fabricated a prototype patch by using a heat-sealable polyester film as the backing layer. They utilized the film's 1 cm diameter concave area to hold the dispersed drug, which was then covered with a TPX [poly(4-methyl-1-pentene)] asymmetric membrane. The final assembly was completed by sealing the layers with an adhesive.

### Preparation:

The fabrication of the asymmetric membrane, achieved via a dry or wet inversion process, begins by dissolving TPX in a cyclohexane and nonsolvent mixture at 60°C. This polymer solution is conditioned at 40°C for 24 hours before being cast onto a glass substrate. Following a brief 30-second drying period at 50°C, the cast film is immediately

immersed in a 25°C coagulation bath for 10 minutes. The final step involves removing the membrane and allowing it to air-dry for 12 hours in a 50°C circulating oven. [22]

2. **Circular Teflon mould method:** Introduced by Baker and Heller in 1989, this technique begins by creating a polymeric solution in an organic solvent. The solution is separated into two fractions: one for dissolving the drug and the other for holding various concentrations of permeation enhancers. After these fractions are combined, a plasticizer such as di-n-butyl phthalate is added, and the mixture is stirred continuously for 12 hours. The resulting homogeneous solution is cast into circular Teflon molds. To ensure controlled solvent evaporation, the molds are placed on a level surface and covered with inverted funnels inside a laminar flow hood maintaining an air velocity of 0.5 m/s. Over 24 hours, the solvent evaporates, leaving a dried film. To stabilize the film and minimize aging effects, it is then conditioned for another 24 hours in a desiccator with silica gel at a precisely controlled temperature of  $25 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$  prior to analysis. [23]
3. **Mercury Substrate Method:** In this preparation technique, the active drug and a plasticizer are first dissolved in a polymer solution. After 10-15 minutes of continuous stirring to create a homogenous mixture, the resulting dispersion is poured onto a level mercury surface. An inverted funnel is then immediately placed over the preparation to control the rate of solvent evaporation, thereby creating an ideal environment for the film to form. The use of a mercury substrate is key to this technique, as its exceptionally smooth and inert surface is instrumental in producing films of uniform thickness and high quality by allowing precise control over the drying process. (Note: Mercury-based methods are now largely obsolete due to safety concerns, with alternative substrates like silicone or glass typically used in modern formulations.)
4. **By Using “IPM Membranes” Method:** First, the drug is evenly dispersed into an aqueous-polymer blend of propylene glycol and Carbomer 940. This mixture is then homogenized by stirring it continuously on a magnetic stirrer for 12 hours. Finally, triethanolamine is introduced to neutralize the system and adjust its viscosity. For drugs that dissolve poorly in water, a pH 7.4 buffer solution is used to promote gel formation. The resulting gel is then incorporated into a membrane composed of isopropyl myristate (IPM) for its final application. [24, 25]
5. **By Using “EVAC Membranes” Method:** The fabrication of this transdermal patch relies on a 1% Carbopol reservoir gel, a polyethylene (PE) backing, and an ethylene vinyl acetate (EVAC) membrane for controlled drug release. When dealing with hydrophobic drugs, propylene glycol is used as the solvent instead of water. The process begins by dissolving the drug in propylene glycol before adding Carbopol resin. This mixture is neutralized with a 5% w/w sodium hydroxide solution to create a uniform gel. This gel is then spread onto the PE backing, and the EVAC membrane is placed over it to control the drug's release. The final step involves heat-sealing the edges to form a secure, leak-proof patch, ensuring both controlled delivery and system integrity. [26, 27]
6. **Preparation of TDDS by Using Proliposomes:** Based on established literature, a drug-to-lecithin ratio of 0.1:2.0 (w/w) was chosen for optimization. The procedure starts by positioning 5 mg of mannitol powder in a 100 mL round-bottom flask, which is rotated at 80-90 rpm in a 60-70°C water bath. The mannitol undergoes vacuum drying for 30 minutes to remove all residual solvent. Subsequently, the bath temperature is lowered to 20-30°C. A solution containing the drug and lecithin in an organic solvent is prepared, and 0.5 mL aliquots of this mixture are added stepwise to the flask at 37°C. Each aliquot is thoroughly dried before the next one is introduced. Following the final loading step, the proliposome-coated mannitol in the flask is transferred to a lyophilizer. The resulting powder is then stored overnight in a desiccator, sieved through a 100-mesh screen to achieve a consistent particle size, and finally placed in glass vials for frozen storage at -20°C or lower until it is characterized. [28]
7. **By using Free Film Method:** The manufacturing process is initiated by preparing a 2% w/w polymer solution of cellulose acetate in chloroform. To guarantee adequate film flexibility, plasticizers are added at a concentration of 40% w/w of the polymer. For the casting step, a 5 mL aliquot of this solution is poured into a glass ring assembly resting on a mercury-filled petri dish. An inverted funnel is then placed over this setup to control the rate of solvent evaporation.
8. The completion of the film is determined by visually confirming that all solvent has evaporated from the mercury surface. Once dry, the film is delicately peeled away and stored between wax paper in a desiccator to preserve its quality for future use. A key advantage of this method is the ability to precisely control the film's thickness by varying the volume of the polymer solution used. This precision is made possible by the mercury substrate, whose ultra-smooth, inert nature is essential for producing uniform, free-standing films with consistent properties. (Note: Modern adaptations of this method often substitute mercury with safer alternatives like silicone-coated surfaces while maintaining the same fundamental principles.) [29]

**Table 3: Marketed products of transdermal drug delivery**

<b>Brand Name</b>	<b>Drug Name</b>	<b>Manufacturer</b>	<b>Indications</b>
Nicotine IIR	Nicotine	Novartis	Pharmacological Smoking Cessation
Matrifen R	Fentanyl	Nycomed	Pain Relief Patch
NuPatch 100	Diclofenac Diethylamine	Zydus Cadila	Anti-inflammatory
Alora	Estradiol	TheraTech, Proctol	Postmenstrual syndrome
Nuvelle TS	Estrogen Progesterone	Ethical Holdings	Hormone Replacement
Nitrodisc	Nitroglycerine	Roberts Pharmaceuticals	Angina Pectoris
Estraderm	Estradiol	Alza/Novartis	Postmenstrual Syndrome

**EVALUATION PARAMETERS:**

- **Thickness of the patch**  
To ensure uniformity, the average thickness and standard deviation of the drug-loaded patch are determined by taking multiple measurements with a digital micrometer. Alternatively, instruments like a traveling microscope, dial gauge, or screw gauge can also be used for this assessment.
- **Weight uniformity**  
Before evaluation, the fabricated patches are dried at 60°C for four hours. To determine the weight uniformity, precise sections are cut from different areas of each patch and weighed on an analytical balance. The average weight and standard deviation are then calculated from these samples. [30].
- **Folding endurance**  
Folding endurance is measured by repeatedly folding a precise film sample at the same spot until it breaks. The number of times the film can be folded before rupturing serves as a direct indicator of its flexibility and mechanical strength [31].
- **Percentage Moisture content**  
The moisture content of each film sample is determined by first recording its initial weight. The specimen is then stored in a desiccator containing anhydrous calcium chloride at room temperature for 24 hours. After this drying period, the film is weighed again, and the moisture content percentage is calculated from the weight difference using the standard gravimetric method.

$$\% \text{ Moisture content} = \frac{\text{Initial weight} - \text{Final weight}}{\text{Final weight}} \times 100$$

- **Content uniformity test**  
Content uniformity is assessed by analysing ten randomly selected patches. For a batch to pass, at least nine of these units must contain 85-115% of the labelled drug amount, with no more than a single unit permitted to fall within a wider range of 75-125%. Should three or more units fall outside the 85-115% range, the test is extended to twenty additional patches. In this second stage, all units must fall within the 85-115% range for the batch to be approved. [32].
- **Moisture Uptake**  
After an initial 24-hour period in a desiccator at 25±2°C, the dried film samples are moved to a sealed desiccator containing a saturated potassium chloride solution, which maintains a constant 84% relative humidity. They remain in this environment until their weight stabilizes, defined as a change of less than ±0.5 mg between

successive measurements, confirming that moisture absorption equilibrium has been reached.  
 % moisture uptake is calculated as given below.

$$\% \text{ moisture uptake} = \frac{\text{Initial weight} - \text{Final weight}}{\text{Final weight}} \times 100$$

- **Drug content**

To quantify the drug content, a precisely cut portion of the patch is dissolved in a specific volume of a suitable solvent. After dissolution, the solution is passed through a membrane filter to remove any particulates. The filtered solution is then analyzed in triplicate using a validated method, such as UV spectrophotometry or HPLC, with the final result reported as the average of these three measurements. [33].

- **Shear Adhesion test**

This method evaluates the internal or cohesive strength of an adhesive polymer, a property influenced by its molecular weight, cross-linking density, composition, and tackifier profile. The test is performed by applying an adhesive tape to a stainless-steel plate and then hanging a standard weight from its free end, creating a shear force parallel to the plate. The key measurement is the time it takes for the tape to detach completely under this constant load. A longer resistance time indicates a stronger, more cohesive adhesive. [34].

- **Peel Adhesion test**

*Peel adhesion testing quantifies the force required to remove an adhesive from a test surface. This peel strength is affected by the polymer's molecular weight, additives, and filler levels. In the test, an adhesive tape is applied to a stainless-steel plate or backing material. It is then peeled back at a 180-degree angle at a constant speed, and a force transducer measures the resistance. The resulting value represents the adhesive's bond strength under standardized conditions.*

- **Water vapor transmission studies (WVT)**

The water vapor transmission rate (WVTR) of polymeric films can be accurately determined through gravimetric analysis under controlled humidity. Two primary methods are employed, both relying on the precise measurement of moisture absorbed by a desiccant through the film over time.

The first method involves preparing vials filled with a fixed mass of calcium chloride desiccant. The test film is securely sealed over the vial opening using an adhesive, and the initial mass is recorded. These vials are then placed in a humidity chamber maintained at 68% relative humidity. Their mass is recorded daily for one week, and the steady increase in weight provides a direct measure of the moisture that has permeated the film.

An alternative approach utilizes sealed desiccators to create the controlled humidity environment. Saturated salt solutions, such as sodium bromide or potassium chloride, are used to generate specific relative humidity levels, which are confirmed with a calibrated hygrometer. The prepared vials, identical to those in the first method, are placed inside these desiccators and weighed daily over the same seven-day period. The consistent mass gain again quantifies the film's water vapor permeability.

Both techniques ensure reliability and reproducibility through strict standardization of container size, desiccant quantity, and verified humidity levels. The core principle remains the same: tracking the gravimetric change to calculate the rate of water vapor transmission, providing critical data on the film's barrier properties.

$$WVT = W / ST$$

W is the increase in weight in 24 h; S is area of film exposed (cm<sup>2</sup>); T is exposure time [35].

- **Rolling ball tack test**

The rolling ball tack test quantifies the instantaneous adhesion of a polymer by measuring how far a standard 7/16-inch (11.11 mm) steel ball travels across a horizontal adhesive surface after rolling down a fixed incline. The core principle is an inverse relationship: a shorter rolling distance signifies a higher tack strength, as the adhesive's stickiness more effectively halts the ball's momentum. A result of zero inches, indicating the ball stopped immediately, represents maximum tack. This method provides reproducible data that reflects the critical balance between the material's inherent stickiness and its softness under controlled conditions.

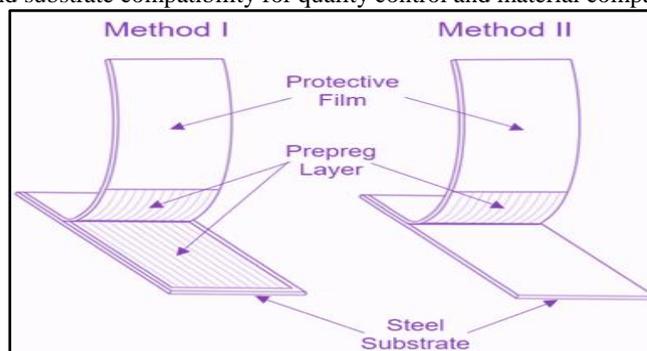


**Fig 7: rolling ball tack tester**

- **Quick Stick (peel-tack) test**

The 90° peel test is a standardized method for quantifying the bond strength of an adhesive tape. It measures the

force required to separate a tape from a substrate at a consistent 90-degree angle and a constant speed of 12 inches per minute. The resistance at the adhesive-substrate interface is recorded by a precision force gauge, with results expressed in force per unit width (e.g., grams or ounces per linear inch). Unlike tack tests that measure initial stickiness, this method evaluates the strength of an established bond, providing reproducible data on the adhesive's viscoelastic behavior and substrate compatibility for quality control and material comparison.



**Fig 8: Peel tack testing**

- **Probe Tack test**

This method quantifies a material's immediate adhesive strength, or tack, by measuring the force needed to separate a standardized probe from its surface. The test begins with the probe making controlled contact with the adhesive under a set pressure. After a brief dwell time for the bond to form, the probe retracts at a constant speed. A load cell captures the peak force required for detachment, reported in grams, which serves as the quantitative tack value. This measurement reflects the adhesive's instant bonding ability and its viscoelastic nature. Crucially, this test evaluates initial contact strength, unlike peel tests that measure the strength of a pre-formed bond. [36].

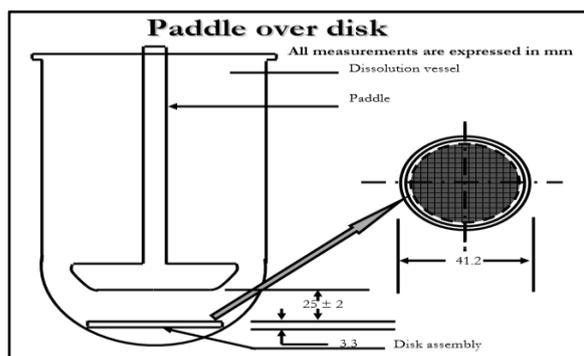


**Fig 9: Probe tack tester**

- ***In-vitro drug release studies***

The drug release profile from transdermal patches is characterized using the USP Apparatus V (paddle-over-disc) method. In this standardized procedure, precisely cut patch specimens are adhered to glass discs and immersed in 500 mL of a pH 7.4 phosphate buffer, maintained at a skin-relevant temperature of  $32 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$ . A paddle rotates at 50 rpm, creating controlled fluid flow above the patch surface. Samples of the dissolution medium are automatically withdrawn at set intervals over 24 hours, with the volume immediately replaced to preserve sink conditions. After filtration, the drug concentration in these samples is quantified using validated analytical techniques such as UV spectrophotometry or HPLC. The cumulative drug release, calculated from a minimum of triplicate runs, provides critical data on the formulation's dissolution kinetics under reproducible hydrodynamic conditions.

Note: The paddle-over-disc configuration provides appropriate fluid dynamics for simulating *in vivo* release from flat transdermal systems, while maintaining the integrity of the patch specimen throughout the test duration.



**Fig 10: USP Apparatus 5**

- ***In vitro skin permeation studies***

The rate of percutaneous absorption was measured using a Franz diffusion cell apparatus. The study utilized full-thickness abdominal skin from male Wistar rats weighing 200-250 grams, acquired in compliance with ethical standards. The skin was prepared by first removing hair with electric clippers, followed by cleansing the underside with distilled water to eliminate any residual tissue or blood. Before the experiment began, the prepared skin was allowed to equilibrate for one hour in a pH 7.4 phosphate buffer solution.

The temperature of the diffusion system was kept at  $32 \pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$  by a circulating water jacket. The prepared skin was secured between the donor and receptor compartments, ensuring the stratum corneum (the outermost layer) was oriented toward the donor side. The receptor chamber was filled with 15 mL of phosphate buffer, which was continuously mixed at 600 rpm by a Teflon-coated magnetic stir bar. Throughout the 24-hour experiment, 0.5 mL samples were taken from the receptor chamber at scheduled times and immediately replaced with an equal volume of fresh buffer to maintain a constant volume. All collected samples were passed through a  $0.45 \mu\text{m}$  filter and their drug content was analyzed using validated HPLC or spectrophotometric techniques.

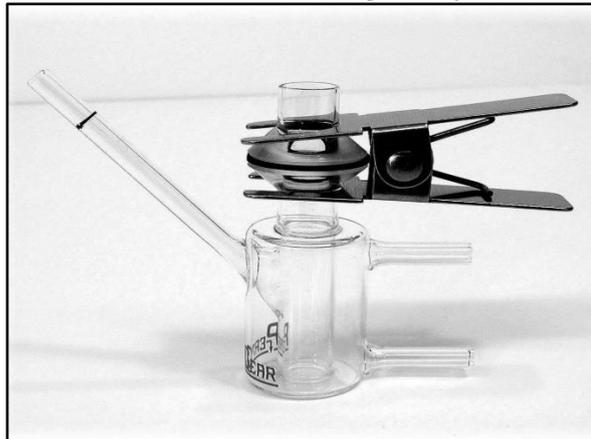
**Data Analysis:**

The permeation kinetics were characterized by three key parameters. The steady-state permeation flux ( $J_{ss}$ ), expressed in  $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{h}$ , was determined from the slope of the linear section of the cumulative drug permeation curve. This flux was then normalized by the initial donor concentration to calculate the permeability coefficient ( $K_p$ ) in  $\text{cm}/\text{h}$ . Additionally, the lag time, which represents the diffusion delay before steady-state begins, was found by extrapolating the linear portion of the curve to the time axis. This comprehensive protocol offers a reproducible way to evaluate transdermal permeation while preserving physiological relevance.

- Controlled temperature matching skin surface conditions
- Continuous medium agitation to simulate capillary action
- Membrane integrity preservation throughout experiments
- Sink condition maintenance via regular sampling/replacement

The method enables quantitative comparison of formulation effects on drug permeation through excised rat skin, a well-established model for preliminary transdermal absorption studies. All experiments were conducted in triplicate to ensure data reliability.

*Note: The skin preparation protocol was carefully optimized to preserve the natural barrier function of the skin while eliminating underlying tissues that could compromise diffusion data. Furthermore, the operational temperature of  $32^\circ\text{C}$  was selected to mimic the natural thermal gradient found in human skin [37].*



**Fig 11: Franz diffusion cell**

- ***Skin Irritation study***

A standardized skin irritation study was performed on three healthy adult New Zealand White rabbits (1.2-1.5 kg) with ethical approval. A  $50 \text{ cm}^2$  area on each animal's back was prepared by first clipping the fur, followed by disinfection with a 70% ethanol solution. The test formulations were then applied under occlusive patches. After a 24-hour exposure period, the patches were removed, and the application sites were assessed for irritation using the Draize scoring system:

**Irritation Grading Scale:**

- 0 - No erythema or edema
- 1 - Mild erythema (barely perceptible)
- 2 - Moderate erythema with slight edema
- 3 - Severe erythema with moderate edema
- 4 - Extreme erythema with marked edema
- 5 Necrosis or severe eschar formation

Observations were recorded at 24, 48, and 72-hours post-removal to monitor delayed reactions. The primary irritation index was calculated by averaging scores from all observation periods.

**Key Methodological Considerations:**

- Animals acclimatized for 7 days prior to testing
- Negative (vehicle) and positive controls included
- Occlusive dressing maintained for consistent exposure
- Scoring performed by trained observers under blind conditions
- Environmental conditions controlled (22±2°C, 50±10% RH)

*This standardized protocol, conducted in accordance with OECD Guideline 404 for acute dermal irritation, utilizes the rabbit model to reliably predict human skin irritation potential and assess the cutaneous tolerance of transdermal formulations.*

- **Stability studies**

To assess their long-term stability, the transdermal systems underwent accelerated stability testing following ICH Q1A guidelines. The samples were maintained for six months in controlled environmental chambers set at 40°C and 75% relative humidity. At scheduled time points (0, 1, 2, 3, and 6 months), samples were analyzed using validated methods to determine any changes in drug content.

**Key Parameters:**

- Storage conditions: 40°C/75% RH (accelerated testing)
- Test duration: 180 days
- Evaluation timepoints: 5 intervals
- Primary assessment: Drug content analysis

Following ICH recommendations for pharmaceutical stability, this protocol generates accelerated degradation data to forecast the formulation's shelf life, with all analyses conducted in triplicate to guarantee reliable results.

*Note: The selected conditions simulate the effects of long-term storage at recommended temperatures through accelerated aging principles, allowing for rapid identification of potential stability issues.[38]*

**Advantages of Transdermal Drug Delivery:**

The transdermal route of administration provides distinct benefits over other methods, primarily centered on patient experience and drug stability.

- **Improved Patient Compliance and Access**

Its once-weekly application schedule is highly convenient, improving adherence. It also serves as a vital alternative for patients who are unconscious, nauseated, or otherwise unable to tolerate oral medications.

- **Enhanced Drug Stability and Bioavailability**

This method is ideal for drugs that irritate the gastrointestinal tract or are degraded by its acidic environment and enzymes. Crucially, it avoids first-pass hepatic metabolism, which often significantly enhances the drug's bioavailability.

- **Superior Pharmacokinetic Profile**

By delivering the drug continuously through the skin, transdermal systems maintain steady plasma concentrations, making them perfect for therapies requiring consistent, round-the-clock dosing.

**Disadvantages of Transdermal Drug Delivery:**

The use of transdermal drug delivery is constrained by several key factors, which can be categorized as follows:

- **Local Skin Reactions and Sensitization**

The application site is prone to adverse effects such as irritation, redness, itching, and swelling, often caused by the drug, adhesive, or other patch components. Some patients may also develop allergic reactions to these materials.

- **Physicochemical Drug Requirements**

The technology is inherently limited by the properties of the drug molecule itself. For effective absorption, a drug must have a low molecular size (<500 Da) and possess a balanced solubility profile. It needs adequate lipophilicity (log P 1-3) to cross the stratum corneum, but also sufficient hydrophilicity to permit diffusion through the living layers of the skin.[39]

**Overcoming the Barrier**

For the past twenty-five years, a significant amount of research has been dedicated to solving the challenges of delivering drugs through the skin.[40] The growth of technologies from these studies was relatively slow for a long time, but the methods that have emerged over the years can be divided into two main categories: passive and active methods.

**Passive Methods**

The conventional way to apply drugs to the skin includes using vehicles like ointments, creams, gels, and basic patch technology. More recently, these types of formulations have been developed or modified to enhance the natural driving force for drug diffusion or to increase the skin's permeability. These improved approaches involve the use of chemical penetration enhancers[41], supersaturated systems[42], prodrugs[43][44], and lipid-based vesicles like liposomes [45-48].

However, the amount of drug that can be delivered using these methods is still limited because the fundamental barrier properties of the skin remain largely unchanged. For example, the patch-type transdermal products currently available are used to deliver only a small number of drugs, which tend to share a specific set of ideal properties. Although such systems do not overcome the core physicochemical restrictions, they offer better dose control and are generally more accepted by patients, leading to better compliance compared to semi-solid formulations.[49]

Problems often encountered with existing patches include skin irritancy and poor adhesion. Additionally, for cosmetic reasons and patient comfort, the size of a patch is ideally limited, which restricts the total amount of drug that can be delivered. It has been reported that this particular challenge can be overcome with specialized technologies that allow for high concentrations of drug to be included within an adhesive patch of a practical and comfortable size. [50]

### Active Methods

The advent of biotechnology led to the creation of therapeutically active, large molecular weight molecules, mostly peptides and proteins. This class of substances is extensively degraded by enzymes in the gastrointestinal tract if taken orally, creating a strong need for alternative routes of administration. Passive methods of skin delivery are incapable of enhancing the permeation of such large and hydrophilic solutes. This limitation has spurred the development of alternative strategies, which are collectively known as active methods. This enhancement strategy uses external energy to actively push drugs through the skin and reduce the protective barrier of the stratum corneum. Such methods hold great potential for increasing the effectiveness of transdermal delivery systems. Their recent development has been accelerated by innovations in fields like bioengineering, chemical engineering, and material sciences, which have enabled the design of miniaturized yet potent devices that can achieve the necessary therapeutic outcome. [40]

### Recent advances in the field of transdermal patches

Several therapeutically active compounds, including high-molecular-weight proteins, testosterone, oxybutynin, and pain-relief medications, are now being administered through transdermal patches.

#### 1. Protein Delivery via Patch Technology

The administration of proteins through the skin marks a significant innovation in drug delivery. Although no protein-based transdermal patches are yet commercially available, companies like Trans Pharma are pioneering this frontier. They have developed a proprietary printed patch system that builds upon their Via Derm technology to successfully deliver precise, dried doses of proteins across the skin. According to the proposed mechanism, interstitial fluid released from the skin via RF-microchannels dissolves the highly water-soluble proteins. This creates a concentrated protein solution at the site of application. A strong concentration gradient then drives the dissolved proteins to permeate through these microchannels into the deeper skin layers, enabling efficient absorption into the viable tissues. [51]

#### 2. Pain free diabetic monitoring using transdermal patches

The patch is a 1 cm<sup>2</sup> device made from polymer and thin metallic films, featuring visible circuitry and a sampling array. When its seal is broken, it allows interstitial fluid and its biomolecules to reach the skin's surface. Its key functional component is a layer of micro-heaters adjacent to the skin, which deliver an ultra-brief, high-temperature pulse (130°C for 30 ms) to form microchannels in the outer skin layer.

Because the heat is applied for such a brief moment, its intensity dissipates quickly beyond the skin's surface. This localized effect prevents damage to underlying tissues and nerves, making the process painless and non-invasive. The result is the formation of microscopic openings, just 40–50 μm wide (similar to a hair follicle's diameter), in the outer skin layer. These tiny channels permit interstitial fluid to reach the patch's electrodes, facilitating either the detection of biomarkers or the efficient delivery of medication. [52]

#### 3. Testosterone transdermal patch system in young women with spontaneous premature ovarian failure

In premenopausal women, total daily testosterone production averages around 300 μg, with roughly equal contributions from the ovaries and adrenal glands. However, young women with spontaneous premature ovarian failure (sPOF) often exhibit reduced androgen levels compared to those with normal ovarian function.

To address this deficiency, the testosterone transdermal patch (TTP) was developed to replicate the natural ovarian testosterone secretion rate. Clinical studies have shown that combining TTP with cyclic estradiol/medroxyprogesterone acetate (E2/MPA) therapy in women with sPOF restores mean free testosterone concentrations to near the upper normal range, providing physiological hormone replacement. [53]

#### 4. Transdermal Patch of Oxybutynin used in overactive Bladder (OAB)

The transdermal therapeutic system delivers oxybutynin hydrochloride, known commercially as Oxytrol® in the U.S. and Kentera® in Europe. This patch is thin, transparent, and flexible, designed for application twice weekly to areas like the abdomen or hip. It releases the medication steadily over three to four days, ensuring consistent drug levels in the bloodstream. Clinically, this approach effectively manages overactive bladder symptoms while significantly reducing the dry mouth and constipation commonly seen with oral oxybutynin. Most patients report these side effects are both less frequent and less severe, leading to better overall treatment tolerance.

By avoiding first-pass metabolism in the liver, the patch helps maintain therapeutic effectiveness for incontinence while contributing to its more favorable side-effect profile, representing a major step forward in antimuscarinic therapy as an alternative to oral medication. [54]

#### 5. Pain relief

The development of transdermal patch technology has transformed pain management by providing effective alternatives to conventional medications. A prominent example is the Duragesic® patch, which delivers fentanyl for persistent, chronic pain. Another key product is the Lidoderm® patch, a topical 5% lidocaine system specifically designed to treat the nerve pain associated with postherpetic neuralgia.

A notable innovation is the E-Trans® system, which delivers fentanyl hydrochloride. This self-contained, credit card-sized device uses a built-in battery to provide controlled, on-demand doses of the potent opioid. It effectively mimics the function of an intravenous patient-controlled analgesia (PCA) pump but offers major practical benefits

by eliminating the need for expensive IV equipment, complicated setup, and constant clinical monitoring. These advanced transdermal systems highlight how modern drug delivery can significantly improve pain management. They enhance patient convenience, provide consistent therapeutic drug levels, and lessen the logistical challenges of traditional methods. The ongoing innovation in patch technology is thereby creating a wider, more adaptable range of treatment choices for individuals suffering from both short-term and long-term pain. [55]

#### 6. Molecular absorption enhancement technology

To help drugs penetrate the skin's main barrier, the stratum corneum, scientists use permeation-enhancing compounds. Recent studies highlight the effectiveness of certain chemical classes, such as monoterpenes and phenolic compounds, which temporarily disrupt the skin's structure to improve drug absorption [56].

Recent investigations have demonstrated the efficacy of various permeation enhancers for different therapeutic agents:

The efficacy of chemical permeation enhancers is highly specific to the drug being delivered, as demonstrated by several studies:

- **Haloperidol Delivery:** Among linalool,  $\alpha$ -terpineol, and carvacrol, only linalool facilitated haloperidol absorption at a clinically relevant rate [57].
- **Tamoxifen Permeation:** The terpenes limonene and menthone, along with the phenol eugenol, significantly boosted tamoxifen penetration [58].
- **Lignocaine Enhancement:** The flavonoid phloretin was effective at increasing lignocaine penetration in skin models [59].
- **Celecoxib Formulations:** In animal studies, oleic acid proved superior to transcutol for enhancing the permeation of celecoxib [60].

The majority of permeation research relies on ex vivo models, such as excised animal skin (from rodents or pigs) or human skin from surgical or postmortem sources [61]. While these models generate crucial preliminary data, their predictive value for human clinical outcomes requires careful interpretation due to inherent differences in skin biology across species.

## EMERGING TRENDS IN TRANSDERMAL DRUG DELIVERY SYSTEM

Modern transdermal technology is being revolutionized by novel formulations like liposomes, niosomes, and microemulsions, which significantly improve the delivery of drugs with low solubility. These advanced systems allow for the effective transdermal administration of a wide range of therapeutics, from steroids and antibiotics to complex biologics and chemotherapeutic agents. This innovation is a key driver behind the robust growth of the global transdermal market, which boasts a 25% CAGR and is poised for further expansion as new delivery platforms and drug candidates gain regulatory approval.

### TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATIONS:

The field of transdermal delivery is advancing across three primary fronts:

#### Improved Pain Management

Continuous optimization of patch designs is leading to more effective analgesic delivery for both acute and chronic pain conditions.

#### Advanced Enhancement Technologies

Active methods to increase skin permeability are becoming more sophisticated. These include established techniques like iontophoresis, as well as emerging approaches such as electroporation (using high-voltage pulses), sonophoresis (using ultrasound), and thermal/magnetic energy.

#### Enhanced Patient Experience

There is a growing emphasis on patient-centric features, including greater wear comfort, more precise dosing control, and longer-lasting patches to improve adherence.

### CLINICAL SIGNIFICANCE:

The prominence of transdermal delivery is underscored by its representation in nearly half of all investigational drug delivery products. Its appeal lies in several key benefits over traditional oral medication:

- **Superior Pharmacokinetics:** Provides sustained plasma concentrations and bypasses first-pass metabolism, leading to greater bioavailability.
- **Enhanced Patient Outcomes:** Improves treatment adherence through convenient dosing and can minimize adverse effects.

## FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

The skin is increasingly regarded as a highly effective route for systemic drug delivery. Future research is focused on creating more advanced active delivery systems, broadening the spectrum of drugs that can be administered this way, and achieving greater precision in controlling release rates to overcome existing permeability barriers. This ongoing progress establishes transdermal technology as a transformative force in medicine, especially for the long-term management of chronic diseases, with the potential to significantly improve both treatment efficacy and the patient's quality of life.

*Note: Market growth projections reflect increasing adoption across therapeutic areas, with particular potential in pain management and systemic delivery of challenging drug molecules.* [62]

## CONCLUSION

Transdermal drug delivery has evolved significantly, progressing from basic patches to advanced systems that can administer complex therapeutics like biologics and vaccines. Innovations in polymer chemistry, methods to enhance skin permeation, and novel device designs have been instrumental in overcoming the traditional barriers of this technology. The emergence of active approaches, particularly microneedle arrays and electroporation, marks a pivotal shift, opening up a new frontier for treatments once thought impossible to deliver through the skin.

Research confirms that an effective transdermal patch depends on the careful balancing of several elements, including drug-polymer compatibility, reliable adhesion, and controlled release kinetics. Clinically, these systems have proven especially valuable for drugs needing stable blood concentrations or those extensively metabolized after oral intake. Despite these successes, obstacles like skin irritation and the efficient delivery of large molecules remain. Looking ahead, the field is moving toward personalized medicine through innovations such as "smart" patches with integrated biosensors for responsive dosing, biodegradable microneedles for single-use vaccines, and hybrid platforms that merge chemical and physical enhancement techniques.

With ongoing innovation in pharmaceutical science, transdermal systems are set to become a pillar of modern healthcare. Their distinct blend of therapeutic efficacy, patient-friendly convenience, and favorable safety solidifies their role as a next-generation platform, especially for managing chronic conditions and advancing precision medicine. The path forward will involve refining patient comfort, broadening the range of deliverable drugs, and seamlessly incorporating digital health technologies.

## REFERENCES

1. G. Tiwari, R. Tiwari, B. Srivastava, L. Bhati, S. Pandey, and S. Pandey, "Drug delivery systems: An updated review," *Int. J. Pharm. Investig.*, vol. 2, no. 1, p. 2, 2012, doi: 10.4103/2230-973x.96920.
2. O. A. Al Hanbali, H. M. S. Khan, M. Sarfraz, M. Arafat, S. Ijaz, and A. Hameed, "Transdermal patches: Design and current approaches to painless drug delivery," *Acta Pharm.*, vol. 69, no. 2, pp. 197–215, 2019, doi: 10.2478/acph2019-0016.
3. K. Upadhye, G. Dixit, E. Z. Building, and H. Road, "Pharmacophore," *Pharmacophore*, vol. 7, no. 2, pp. 82–95, 2016.
4. S. Dhiman, T. G. Singh, and A. K. Rehni, "A c a d e m i c S c i e n c e s," *Int. J. Academic Sciences*, vol. 3, 2011.
5. D. Vllasaliu, "Non-Invasive Drug Delivery Systems," pp. 10–12, 2021.
6. M. R. Prausnitz and R. Langer, "Transdermal drug delivery," *Nat. Biotechnol.*, vol. 26, no. 11, pp. 1261–1268, 2008, doi: 10.1038/nbt.1504.
7. J. Wohlrab, "Skin tolerability of transdermal patches," *Expert Opin. Drug Deliv.*, vol. 8, no. 8, pp. 939–948, 2011, doi: 10.1517/17425247.2011.574689.
8. A. L. Borger, "Welcome to JDNA," *J. Dermatol. Nurses Assoc.*, vol. 3, no. 4, p. 194, 2011, doi: 10.1097/jdn.0b013e31822afcf7.
9. O. Arda, N. Göksügür, and Y. Tüzün, "Basic histological structure and functions of facial skin," *Clin. Dermatol.*, vol. 32, no. 1, pp. 3–13, Jan. 2014, doi: 10.1016/j.clindermatol.2013.05.021.
10. A. Baroni, E. Buommino, V. De Gregorio, E. Ruocco, V. Ruocco, and R. Wolf, "Structure and function of the epidermis related to barrier properties," *Clin. Dermatol.*, vol. 30, no. 3, pp. 257–262, May 2012, doi: 10.1016/j.clindermatol.2011.08.007.
11. P. Tapfumaneyi, M. Imran, Y. Mohammed, and M. S. Roberts, "Recent advances and future prospective of topical and transdermal delivery systems," *Front. Drug Deliv.*, vol. 2, Sep. 2022, doi: 10.3389/fddev.2022.957732.
12. P. D. Thakare, S. A. Waghmare, and P. P. Ige, "Advances in transdermal patch formulation and evaluation: A comprehensive review," *Int. J. Pharm. Sci.*, vol. 2, no. 5, pp. 1438–1452, 2024, doi: 10.5281/zenodo.11318946.
13. C. Ansel, L. V. Allen, and N. G. Popovich, *Pharmaceutical Dosage Forms and Drug Delivery Systems*, 8th ed. New Delhi, India: B.I. Publications, 2005, pp. 193–243.
14. P. Helfer and T. R. Shultz, "Coupled feedback loops maintain synaptic longterm potentiation: A computational model of PKMzeta synthesis and AMPA receptor trafficking," *PLoS Comput. Biol.*, vol. 14, no. 5, 2018, doi: 10.1371/journal.pcbi.1006147.
15. S. Banerjee, P. Chattopadhyay, A. Ghosh, P. Datta, and V. Veer, "Aspect of adhesives in transdermal drug delivery systems," *Int. J. Adhes. Adhes.*, vol. 50, pp. 70–84, Apr. 2014, doi: 10.1016/j.ijadhadh.2014.01.001.
16. A. Mathematics, *Modern Pharmaceutical*, pp. 1–23, 2016.
17. S. P. Gupta and S. K. Jain, "Effective and controlled transdermal delivery of metoprolol tartarate," *Indian J. Pharm. Sci.*, vol. 67, no. 3, pp. 346–350, 2005.
18. M. J. Howell, J. Smeets, D. Gill, et al., "Pharmacokinetics of a granisetron transdermal system for the treatment of chemotherapy-induced nausea and vomiting," *Support. Care Cancer*, vol. 15, no. 4, 2009.
19. A. C. Williams and B. W. Barry, "Penetration enhancers," *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.*, vol. 56, no. 5, pp. 603–618, Mar. 2004, doi: 10.1016/j.addr.2003.10.025.
20. A. C. Anselmo and S. Mitragotri, "An overview of clinical and commercial impact of drug delivery systems," *J. Control. Release*, vol. 190, pp. 15–28, Sep. 2014, doi: 10.1016/j.jconrel.2014.03.053.
21. I. H. Blank, "Penetration of low-molecular-weight alcohols into skin. I. Effect of concentration of alcohol and type of vehicle," *J. Invest. Dermatol.*, vol. 43, no. 6, pp. 415–421, 1964.

22. V. Yadav, S. A. Bhai, M. Mamatha, and V. V. Prashant, "Transdermal drug delivery system: A technical writeup," *J. Pharm. Sci. Innov.*, vol. 1, no. 1, 2012.
23. N. Sharma, B. Parashar, S. Sharma, and U. Mahajan, "Blooming pharma industry with transdermal drug delivery system," *Indo Glob. J. Pharm. Sci.*, vol. 2, no. 3, pp. 262–278, 2012.
24. S. Pandey, A. Badola, G. K. Bhatt, and P. Kothiyal, "An overview on transdermal drug delivery system," *Int. J. Pharm. Chem. Sci.*, vol. 2, no. 3, 2013.
25. K. Gandhi, A. Dahiya, M. Monika, T. Karla, and K. Singh, "Transdermal drug delivery—A review," *Int. J. Pharm. Sci. Res.*, vol. 4, no. 2, 2013.
26. K. Ezhumalai, P. Ilavarasan, R. M. Mugundhan, U. Sathiyaraj, and A. N. Rajalakshmi, "Transdermal patches in novel drug delivery system," *Int. J. Pharm. Technol.*, vol. 3, no. 2, pp. 2402–2419, 2011.
27. H. J. Patel, D. G. Trivedi, A. K. Bhandari, and D. A. Shah, "Penetration enhancers for transdermal drug delivery system: A review," *IJPI's J. Pharm. Cosmetol.*, vol. 1, no. 2, 2011.
28. J. A. Kumar, N. Pullakandam, S. L. Prabu, and V. Gopal, "Transdermal drug delivery system: An overview," *Int. J. Pharm. Sci. Rev. Res.*, vol. 3, no. 2, pp. 49–54, 2010.
29. M. I. Alam, N. Alam, V. Singh, M. S. Alam, M. S. Ali, et al., "Type, preparation and evaluation of transdermal patch: A review," *World J. Pharm. Pharm. Sci.*, vol. 2, no. 4, pp. 2199–2233, 2013.
30. K. E. Keleb, R. K. Sharma, E. B. Mosa, and A.-A. Z. Aljahwi, "Transdermal drug delivery system – design and evaluation," *Int. J. Adv. Pharm. Sci.*, vol. 1, pp. 201–211, 2010.
31. A. C. Williams and B. W. Barry, "Penetration enhancers," *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.*, vol. 56, no. 5, pp. 603–618, 2004.
32. R. K. Rhaghuram, S. Muttalik, and S. Reddy, "Once-daily sustained-release matrix tablets of nicorandil: Formulation and in vitro evaluation," *AAPS PharmSciTech*, vol. 4, no. 4, pp. 480–488, 2003.
33. L. Shaila, S. Pandey, and N. Udupa, "Design and evaluation of matrix type membrane controlled transdermal drug delivery system of nicotin suitable for use in smoking cessation," *Indian J. Pharm. Sci.*, vol. 68, no. 2, pp. 179–184, 2006.
34. N. Aarti, A. R. M. P. Louk, R. O. P. Russel, and H. G. Richard, "Mechanism of oleic acid induced skin permeation enhancement in vivo in humans," *J. Control. Release*, vol. 37, no. 3, pp. 299–306, 1995.
35. M. R. Baichwal, "Polymer films as drug delivery systems," in *Advances in Drug Delivery Systems*, Bombay: MSR Foundation, 1985, pp. 136–147.
36. S. P. Vyas and R. K. Khar, *Targeted and Controlled Drug Delivery: Novel Carrier Systems*, 1st ed. New Delhi: CBS Publishers and Distributors, 2002, pp. 411–447.
37. J. Singh, K. T. Tripathi, and T. R. Sakia, "Effect of penetration enhancers on the in vitro transport of ephedrine through rat skin and human epidermis from matrix based transdermal formulations," *Drug Dev. Ind. Pharm.*, vol. 19, no. 13, pp. 1623–1628, 1993.
38. A. K. Gaikwad, "Transdermal drug delivery system: Formulation aspects and evaluation," *Compr. J. Pharm. Sci.*, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 1–10, 2013.
39. G. Levin, A. Gershonowitz, H. Sacks, M. Stern, A. Sherman, S. Rudaev, I. Zivin, and M. Phillip, "Transdermal delivery of human growth hormone through RF-microchannels," *Pharm. Res.*, vol. 22, no. 4, pp. 550–555, 2005.
40. M. B. Brown, G. P. Martin, S. A. Jones, and F. K. Akomeah, "Dermal and transdermal drug delivery systems: current and future prospects," *Drug Delivery*, vol. 13, no. 3, pp. 175–187, Jan. 2006.
41. A. C. Williams and B. W. Barry, "Penetration enhancers," *Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews*, vol. 56, no. 5, pp. 603–618, Mar. 2004.
42. M. A. Pellet, M. S. Roberts, and J. Hadgraft, "Supersaturated solutions as topical drug delivery systems," in *Percutaneous Absorption*. Boca Raton, FL, USA: CRC Press, 2003, pp. 457–476.
43. J. C. Tsai, R. H. Guy, C. R. Thornfeldt, W. N. Gao, K. R. Feingold, and P. M. Elias, "Metabolic approaches to enhance transdermal drug delivery. 1. Effect of lipid synthesis inhibitors," *Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, vol. 85, no. 6, pp. 643–648, Jun. 1996.
44. P. M. Elias, J. C. Tsai, and G. K. Menon, "The skin barrier: an evolutionary, environmental and biotechnological frontier," *Journal of Investigative Dermatology*, vol. 121, no. 5, pp. viii–x, Nov. 2003.
45. M. Mezei, "Liposomes in the topical application of drugs: a review," *Journal of Microencapsulation*, vol. 10, no. 1, pp. 1–8, Jan. 1993.
46. H. Schreier and J. Bouwstra, "Liposomes and niosomes as topical drug carriers: dermal and transdermal drug delivery," *Journal of Controlled Release*, vol. 30, no. 1, pp. 1–15, Jul. 1994.
47. G. Cevc, "Transformable, elastic, and ultra-deformable lipid vesicles: How do they work and what are they good for?," *Journal of Liposome Research*, vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 675–695, Jan. 1996.
48. B. Godin and E. Touitou, "Ethosomes: new prospects in transdermal delivery," *Critical Reviews in Therapeutic Drug Carrier Systems*, vol. 20, no. 1, pp. 63–102, 2003.
49. J. Hadgraft, "Passive enhancement strategies in topical and transdermal drug delivery," *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, vol. 133, no. 1-2, pp. 1–8, May 1996.
50. S. Venkatraman and R. Gale, "Skin adhesives and skin adhesion. 1. Transdermal drug delivery systems," *Biomaterials*, vol. 19, no. 13, pp. 1119–1136, Jul. 1998.
51. J. A. Udell, B. M. Scirica, E. Braunwald, et al., "Statin and aspirin therapy for the prevention of cardiovascular events in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus," *Clin. Cardiol.*, vol. 35, no. 12, pp. 722–729, 2012.
52. S. N. Kalantaridou, K. A. Calis, N. A. Mazer, H. Godoy, and L. M. Nelson, "A pilot study of an investigational testosterone transdermal patch system in young women with spontaneous premature ovarian failure," *J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab.*, vol. 91, no. 10, pp. 3906–3912, 2006.

53. L. T. Pizzi, A. Talati, E. Gemmen, N. V. Dahl, T. J. Bunz, and P. K. Sand, "Impact of transdermal oxybutynin on work productivity in patients with overactive bladder: Results from the MATRIX study," *Pharmacoeconomics*, vol. 27, no. 4, pp. 329–339, 2009.
54. Y. Homma and N. Koyama, "Minimal clinically important change in urinary incontinence detected by a quality of life assessment tool in overactive bladder syndrome with urge incontinence," *NeuroUrol. Urodyn.*, vol. 25, no. 3, pp. 228–235, 2006.
55. J. H. Park, J. H. Kim, S. C. Yun, S. W. Roh, S. C. Rhim, C. J. Kim, S. R. Jeon, *et al.*, "Evaluation of efficacy and safety of fentanyl transdermal patch (Durogesic D-TRANS) in chronic pain," *Acta Neurochir. (Wien)*, vol. 153, no. 1, pp. 181–190, 2011.
56. N. P. Katz, A. R. Gammaitoni, M. W. Davis, R. H. Dworkin, "Lidocaine patch 5% reduces pain intensity and interference with quality of life in patients with postherpetic neuralgia: An effectiveness trial," *Pain Med.*, vol. 3, no. 4, pp. 324–332, 2002.
57. K. Mystakidou, "E-TRANS fentanyl, ALZA," *Curr. Opin. Investig. Drugs*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 463–469, 2002.
58. A. Ahad, M. Aqil, K. Kohli, Y. Sultana, M. Mujeeb, and A. Ali, "Role of novel terpenes in transcutaneous permeation of valsartan: Effectiveness and mechanism of action," *Drug Dev. Ind. Pharm.*, vol. 37, no. 5, pp. 583–590, 2011.
59. R. Parhi, P. Suresh, S. Mondal, and P. M. Kumar, "Novel penetration enhancers for skin applications: A review," *Curr. Drug Deliv.*, vol. 9, no. 2, pp. 219–230, 2012.
60. H. K. Vaddi, P. C. Ho, and S. Y. Chan, "Terpenes in propylene glycol as skinpenetration enhancers: Permeation and partition of haloperidol, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy, and differential scanning calorimetry," *J. Pharm. Sci.*, vol. 91, no. 7, pp. 1639–1651, 2002.
61. K. Zhao and J. Singh, "Mechanisms of percutaneous absorption of tamoxifen by terpenes: Eugenol, D-limonene and menthone," *J. Control. Release*, vol. 55, no. 2–3, pp. 253–260, 1998.
62. C. Valenta, J. Cladera, P. O'Shea, and J. Hadgraft, "Effect of phloretin on the percutaneous absorption of lignocaine across human skin," *J. Pharm. Sci.*, vol. 90, no. 4, pp. 485–492, 2001.