



# METHOD AND ASSESSMENT OF TRANSDERMAL DRUG DELIVERY SYSTEMS

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## ABSTRACT

*Transdermal Drug Delivery Systems (TDDS) offer a non-invasive method of administering drugs through the skin and straight into the bloodstream, which is a significant development in contemporary pharmaceuticals. This method keeps plasma levels constant, prevents first-pass metabolism, and increases patient compliance. To ascertain TDDS's effectiveness, safety, and stability, however, an assessment is necessary because the stratum corneum serves as a strong barrier.*

*In-vitro, ex-vivo, and in-vivo approaches are among the several methods of TDDS assessment that are thoroughly reviewed in this article. There is also discussion of pharmacokinetic, analytical, and safety evaluation factors. Each method's benefits, drawbacks, and prospects for the future are critically outlined, highlighting their importance in the development of logical formulations and regulatory clearance.*

**Keyword :** *Transdermal drug delivery , Skin permeation, In-vitro evaluation, In-vivo studies ,Diffusion cell method ,Permeation studies ,Pharmacokinetics, Drug release, Skin irritation test, Bioavailability*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Context

One of the most promising non-invasive methods for systemic medication administration is transdermal distribution. Avoiding gastrointestinal degradation, preventing hepatic first-pass metabolism, making termination simple, and enhancing patient compliance are only a few advantages. TDDS maintains constant therapeutic levels by delivering a regulated release of medications via the skin at a preset rate.

The stratum corneum, in particular, is a very effective barrier that prevents most medications from penetrating the skin. Therefore, a thorough evaluation and optimization of transdermal formulations are required. These tests guarantee that the TDDS works as planned, delivering the necessary dosage of medication without producing systemic toxicity or irritation.

### 1.2 Goal

This article's goal is to provide an overview and discussion of the several approaches used to assess transdermal drug delivery systems, covering their fundamentals, uses, benefits, and drawbacks.

## 2. FUNDAMENTALS OF TRANSDERMAL MEDICATION ADMINISTRATION

The stratum corneum serves as the primary barrier between the three primary layers of the skin, which are the dermis, epidermis, and subcutaneous tissue. Permeation of drugs is mostly caused by:

1. The transcellular route (thru the cells)
2. A route that runs between cells
3. Appendageal route (via sweat glands and hair follicles)

### An effective TDDS's design is dependent upon

Characteristics of the drug's physicochemistry (molecular weight < 500 Da, moderate lipophilicity, sufficient solubility)

Formulation type (matrix, reservoir, adhesive)

Enhancers (chemical, physical, biological)

Device or patch design (membrane-controlled or matrix-controlled systems)

## 3. IN-VITRO EVALUATION METHODS

Artificial membranes or diffusion sets are used in in-vitro research to forecast the properties of drug release and penetration. They are beneficial for early formulation screening, repeatable, and reasonably priced.

The purpose of in-vitro drug release testing (IVRT) is to quantify the rate and degree of drug release into a receptor media from a TDDS formulation.



### Tools

USP Dissolution Devices (e.g., Franz diffusion cell, paddle over disk)

**Receptor medium:** saline, ethanol-buffer mixture, and phosphate buffer

**Temperature:** maintained at  $32 \pm 0.5$  °C to replicate the surface conditions of the skin.

**Method:** The donor and receptor compartments are separated by the TDDS patch or film. At specified intervals, samples are taken out and subjected to HPLC or UV-Vis spectrophotometry analysis.

### Applications

Analysis of the kinetics of release

Formulation comparison

Control of quality (uniformity from batch to batch)

For instance, Brighenti et al. (2024) created a discriminative IVRT technique for transdermal formulations of benzoyl peroxide (PMC11881039).

### 3.2 Studies of In-Vitro Permeation

The Franz Diffusion Cell is the device most frequently used to measure permeability.

The idea is to place the TDDS or formulation on a membrane that divides the donor and receptor chambers. Over time, samples are taken from the receptor compartment after the drug diffuses through the membrane.

### Calculated Parameters

Constant-state flow rate (J)

Coefficient of permeability ( $K_p = J/C_0$ )

The lag time

Drug penetration over time ( $Q_t$ )

Membranes that are utilized:

Artificial membranes (silicone, cellulose acetate)

Synthetic membranes (Skin-PAMPA, PAMPA)

Human or animal skin that has been removed (see ex-vivo section)

### Benefits

Simple to execute

Reproducible and quantitative

Outstanding for comparing and contrasting

### Limitation:

Does not accurately mimic the intricacy of the skin's barrier.

### 3.3 Artificial and Cell-Based Skin Models

For permeability and toxicity testing, human keratinocyte cell lines (HaCaT) and 3D rebuilt human skin equivalents (EpiDerm<sup>TM</sup>, SkinEthic<sup>TM</sup>) mimic the human epidermis.

### Endpoints

Viability of cellular uptake (MTT assay)

Electrical resistance across the epithelium (TEER)

These are especially helpful for assessing mechanistic transport studies and enhancer safety.

## 4. EX-VIVO ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES

Ex-vivo investigations circumvent the ethical limitations of human/animal research by using skin from an excised animal or human to closely resemble in-vivo circumstances.

### 4.1 Sources of Skin

Skin from cadavers or surgery is the gold standard for human skin.

Animal skins include guinea pigs, rabbits, rats, and pigs (the closest animal to humans).

Hair removal, subcutaneous fat removal, and hydration management are all part of preparation.

### 4.2 Ex-Vivo Permeation Studies

These investigations use excised skin as the barrier and Franz diffusion cells.

1. Mount the skin between the receptor and donor compartments.

2. Use the formulation on the side of the stratum corneum.



3. Keep the temperature of the receptor chamber at **about 37 °C**.

4. Take samples at predetermined intervals and measure the amount of drug present.

Important variables include skin retention, permeability coefficient, lag time, and flow.

In their evaluation of IQP-0410 films utilizing human epidermal tissue, for instance, Ham et al. (PLOS ONE, 2013) reported a flow of  $0.94 \pm 0.06 \mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2/\text{hr}$ .

#### 4.3 Tests for Skin Barrier Integrity

Transepidermal Water Loss (TEWL) is used to assess skin integrity both before and after diffusion investigations.

Electrical impedance and resistance

Methylene blue is used in the dye exclusion test.

These guarantee that the skin sample is undamaged and whole.

#### 4.4 Tape-Stripping Technique

Drug distribution into the skin can be ascertained by employing adhesive tape to sequentially remove the stratum corneum layers.

Every video is examined for the presence of drugs.

gives a penetration profile by depth.

#### 4.5 Microscopic and Histopathological Investigations.

Skin samples are examined using the following methods following permeation tests:

For cellular morphology, use H&E staining.

SEM/TEM (scanning/transmission electron microscopy) to evaluate ultrastructural alterations

#### 4.6 The Reservoir Effect of Drug Retention in the Skin

Skin tissue is homogenized after the experiment, and any remaining medication is measured.

This suggests that the medication may build a depot in the layers of the skin.

### 5. METHODS OF IN-VIVO EVALUATION

The effectiveness of TDDS under real physiological circumstances is confirmed by in-vivo investigations. They are required for the evaluation of safety, pharmacokinetics, and bioavailability.

#### 5.1 Research on Animals

Rats, rabbits, guinea pigs, dogs, and pigs are common models.

##### Procedure

Placed to the animal's shaved region as a patch.

Periodically, blood samples are taken for pharmacokinetic profiling.

The following parameters were examined:

**elimination half-life ( $t_{1/2}$ ), AUC,  $T_{max}$ , and  $C_{max}$ .**

Comparing oral/IV administration with relative bioavailability

The degree and rate of absorption from the TDDS are shown by these characteristics.

#### 5.2 Clinical and Human Volunteer Research

Phase I-III human studies evaluate pharmacokinetics, effectiveness, safety, and tolerance.

Patch test to track irritation, edema, and erythema

Studies of bioequivalence with commercial formulations and PK modeling for steady-state delivery rates .

#### 5.3 Tests for Sensitization and Skin Irritation

Test of Draize (in animals)

Patch test (in people)

System of scoring: Inflammation is zero, while severe erythema or edema is four.

Tissue compatibility is confirmed by histological analysis.

#### 5.4 Pharmacodynamic Evaluation

**When a drug's effect can be measured, it is used:**

Pain reduction (for analgesics)

Blood pressure variation (for antihypertensives)

Response of biomarkers (for hormones)



### 5.5 Research on Bioavailability

Relative bioavailability (Frel) is obtained by comparing the pharmacokinetic profile of TDDS with that of oral or intravenous dose forms.

## 6. PHARMACOKINETIC AND ANALYTICAL EVALUATIONS

### 6.1 Methods of Analysis

The following methods are used to quantify the drug from samples (receptor medium, plasma, and skin extract):

UHPLC and HPLC

Spectrophotometry of UV-Vis

LC-MS/LC-MS-MS

**Fluorescence spectrometry:** Validation parameters: specificity, linearity, accuracy, precision, LOD/LOQ, robustness (per ICH Q2 guidelines)

### 6.2 Pharmacokinetic Parameters

$dQ/dt$  per unit area equals flux (J)

$J/C_0$  is the permeability coefficient (**Kp**).

Time lag (Tlag)

Total quantity ( $Q_t$ )

AUC,  $C_{max}$ , and bioavailability (Frel)  $t_2$

These metrics measure systemic availability and medication penetration.

### 6.3 Modeling in Mathematics and Statistics

The release and diffusion mechanisms are described by mathematical models:

Higuchi, Korsmeyer-Peppas, zero-order, and first-order models

PK data non-compartmental analysis (NCA)

ANOVA, Student's t-test, and other statistical comparison methods are used.

## 7. COMPARATIVE SUMMARY OF ASSESSMENT METHODS

Method	Parameter Measured	Advantages	Limitations
In-vitro release (IVRT)	Drug release kinetics	Simple, inexpensive	Lacks skin barrier
Franz diffusion cell	Permeation, flux	Widely accepted, reproducible	Requires careful setup
PAMPA / Skin-PAMPA	Permeability	High-throughput	Limited biological relevance
Cell-based models	Transport, toxicity	Mechanistic insight	Simplified barrier
Ex-vivo diffusion	Flux, lag time	Realistic barrier	Tissue variability
Tape stripping	Skin depth profile	Direct penetration data	Time-consuming

## 8. CHALLENGES AND FUTURE TRENDS

### 8.1 Challenges

In vitro/ex vivo and in vivo results do not correlate well (IVIVC)

Significant variation in skin permeability between individuals

Restrictions on human tissue sourcing and ethics

Maintaining sink conditions can be challenging.

Problems with local irritation or hypersensitivity

Skin layers' intricate metabolism

### 8.2 Prospects for the Future

Microfluidic and skin-on-chip models that replicate blood flow and metabolism

Bioreactors with dynamic perfusion for live skin tissues

Advanced imaging techniques, such as fluorescence microscopy and confocal Raman

Combining diffusion, metabolism, and clearance in mathematical modeling

Standardization of regulatory evaluation procedures (FDA/EMA)

### 8.3 New Technologies

Iontophoresis, Electroporation, and Sonophoresis using microneedles for TDDS

Liposomes, ethosomes, and transfersomes are examples of nanocarriers.



Sensor-equipped smart TDDS for feedback-controlled release.

For precise predictions of drug disposition and skin penetration, these developments necessitate better evaluation techniques.

## 9. CONCLUSION

Transdermal drug delivery system evaluation is a multifaceted procedure that includes in-vitro, ex-vivo, and in-vivo tests. From human pharmacokinetic behavior to medication release kinetics, each approach offers distinct insights.

A TDDS is guaranteed to be effective, secure, stable, and compliant with regulations when these techniques are combined.

In order to establish dependable in-vitro–in-vivo correlation (IVIVC), future advancements will involve combining sophisticated skin models, imaging technologies, and computer modeling.

The conversion of potential TDDS formulations into clinically effective treatment systems will be facilitated by such scientific rigor.

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