**IJCRT.ORG** 

ISSN: 2320-2882



# INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF CREATIVE RESEARCH THOUGHTS (IJCRT)

An International Open Access, Peer-reviewed, Refereed Journal

## BRIEF OVERVIEW OF CONTROLLED DRUG DELIVERY SYSTEM

**Shruti Satish Garad¹**( Assistant Professor, Amepurva Fourm's Nirant Institute of Pharmacy, Solapur, Maharashtra, India.)¹

Rohit Shahaji Bhosale<sup>2</sup>, Somdatta Siddeshwar Ambare<sup>3</sup>, Vishal Vijay Lokare<sup>4</sup>, Sanmesh Sanjay Gaikwad<sup>5</sup>.

Abstract: Controlled drug delivery systems ensure a consistent drug concentration at the absorption site, enabling the maintenance of plasma levels within the therapeutic range. This not only reduces side effects but also lessens the need for frequent administration. Sustained-release (SR) oral products offer a distinct advantage compared to traditional dosage forms. They optimize drug properties, minimizing dosing frequency to a point where a once-daily dose effectively manages therapeutic needs. This approach ensures uniform plasma concentration, maximizing drug utility while minimizing local and systemic side effects. It accelerates the cure or control of conditions in the shortest possible time using the smallest drug quantity, promoting greater patient compliance. The development of controlled drug delivery systems aims to address challenges linked to traditional drug delivery methods. These systems administer the drug at a predefined rate, either locally or systemically, over a specified duration. Controlled release formulations decrease the necessary daily dosing frequency. Over the last two decades, there has been significant progress in controlled drug delivery systems, spanning from macro-scale to nano-scale, incorporating intelligent targeted delivery strategies. Controlled or modified release drug delivery systems enable the gradual administration of drugs over an extended duration. These systems encompass various dosage forms, including those for oral and transdermal use, as well as injectable and implantable options. Although the oral route is generally the preferred method for drug administration, some molecules face challenges like low bioavailability due to solubility or permeability issues.

Keywords: Controlled Drug Delivery System, Transdermal Drug Delivery System, Factors affecting CDDS, Polymers in CDDS.

Introduction: Controlled drug delivery systems play a pivotal role in enhancing therapeutic efficacy while minimizing side effects. These systems allow for precise regulation of drug release, ensuring optimal drug concentrations at target sites. Various technologies, such as microparticles, nanoparticles, liposomes, and hydrogels, have been employed to achieve controlled drug delivery. Researchers have explored the integration of smart polymers and responsive materials, enabling triggered release in response to specific stimuli. Controlled drug delivery occurs when a polymer is combined with a drug or active agent, allowing pre-designed release from the bulk material. The terms Controlled and Sustained Release are sometimes used interchangeably, causing confusion. However, they represent distinct delivery processes. Sustained release involves any dosage form delivering medication over an extended time, indicating therapeutic control, whether temporal, spatial, or both. Sustained release systems typically do not achieve zero-order release but aim to mimic it through slow first-order drug provision. The primary goal of controlled drug delivery is to modify the pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics of active substances, achieved through innovative drug delivery systems or modifications in molecular structure and physiological parameters.

A pharmaceutical drug, also known as an Active Pharmaceutical Ingredient (API), is a recognized substance in official pharmacopoeia designed for diagnosing, curing, mitigating, treating, or preventing diseases, as defined by the FDA. Drug delivery involves strategically administering medication to enhance drug concentration in specific body areas. The primary objective of any delivery system is to prolong, localize, and target the drug within diseased tissues through a controlled interaction. Each dosage form comprises the drug or API and non-drug components known as excipients or additives. APIs constitute the essential chemical elements responsible for treating diseases. Various administration routes exist for drugs; nevertheless, among them, the oral method stands out as the most convenient for both administering and adjusting dosages. Its popularity is primarily attributed to its convenient application and the ease of preparation on an industrial scale.

History of Control Drug Delivery System: The inaugural edition of the Journal of Controlled Release (JCR) made its debut in 1984, with Jorge Heller and Jan Feijen, the founding editors, articulating a clear vision in the inaugural editorial [1]. Their intention was to establish JCR as the premier platform for drug delivery scientists to share their ideas through top-tier manuscripts. Since its inception, JCR has evolved into a preeminent journal within the realms of pharmaceutics and drug delivery. The pivotal factor behind its success has been an unwavering commitment to high-quality research—a tradition maintained by Colin G. Pitt, who assumed the role of Editor-in-Chief in 1996, succeeding the Founding Editors and serving until 2005. Over the years, the volume of published content in JCR has steadily risen, as illustrated in Fig 1. The journal consistently receives a surplus of manuscripts, employing stringent criteria for publication, focusing on the excellence and originality of the presented research. One gauge of the journal's impact on the field is its increasing impact factor, surpassing 7 in 2013 and positioning JCR at the pinnacle of research journals in pharmaceutics and drug delivery. The journal's triumph is indebted to the loyalty of authors, the commitment of reviewers, and the diligence of all editors over the past three decades.

It's fascinating to observe the evolution of drug delivery over the last 60 years, transitioning from the first generation's emphasis on oral and transdermal formulations with controlled release technologies to the second generation's focus on advanced systems like zero-order release and environment-sensitive delivery using smart polymers and hydrogels. The progress reflects a dynamic field adapting to emerging technologies and scientific advancements.

Distinguishing 1 Generation and 2 Generation drug delivery technologies: Distinguishing 1 Generation and 2 Generation drug delivery technologies reveals critical disparities. The evolution towards 3G technologies, though ongoing, necessitates an examination of why many 2 Generation advancements haven't transitioned into clinical products. The notable triumphs of 1 Generation technology primarily stem from oral and transdermal drug delivery systems. In these formulations, manipulating in vitro drug release kinetics significantly impacts in vivo pharmacokinetics. For oral and transdermal systems, the correlations between in vitro characteristics and

Powder dosage form of insulin for nasal administration  Surface, interfacial and molecular aspects of polymers bioadhesion on soft tissue  Thermally reversible hydrogels: II. Delivery and selective removal of substances from aqueous solutions  A simple equation for description of solute release II. Fickian and anomalous release from swellable devices  PH-controlled release from hydrophobic/polyelectrolyte copolymer hydrogels  Solute and penetrant diffusion in swellable polymers. IX. The mechanisms of drugrelease from pH-sensitive swelling-controlled systems  Controlled vaccine release in the gut-associated lymphoid tissues. I. Orally
Thermally reversible hydrogels: II. Delivery and selective removal of substances from aqueous solutions  A simple equation for description of solute release II. Fickian and anomalous release from swellable devices  pH-controlled release from hydrophobic/polyelectrolyte copolymer hydrogels  Solute and penetrant diffusion in swellable polymers. IX. The mechanisms of drugrelease from pH-sensitive swelling-controlled systems
substances from aqueous solutions  A simple equation for description of solute release II. Fickian and anomalous release from swellable devices  pH-controlled release from hydrophobic/polyelectrolyte copolymer hydrogels  Solute and penetrant diffusion in swellable polymers. IX. The mechanisms of drugrelease from pH-sensitive swelling-controlled systems
from swellable devices  pH-controlled release from hydrophobic/polyelectrolyte copolymer hydrogels  Solute and penetrant diffusion in swellable polymers. IX. The mechanisms of drugrelease from pH-sensitive swelling-controlled systems
9 Solute and penetrant diffusion in swellable polymers. IX. The mechanisms of drugrelease from pH-sensitive swelling-controlled systems
drugrelease from pH-sensitive swelling-controlled systems
O Controlled veccine release in the out associated lymphoid tissues I Orally
administered biodegradable microspheres target the Peyer's patches
A novel approach for preparation of pH-sensitive hydrogels for enteric drug delivery
A new class of drug carriers: Micelles of poly(oxyethylene)-poly(oxypropylene)block copolymers as microcontainers for drug targeting from blood in brain
Block copolymer micelles as vehicles for drug delivery
Enhanced tumor accumulation and prolonged circulation times of micelle-forming poly(ethylene oxide-aspartate) block copolymer-adriamycin conjugates
In vitro cytotoxicity of macromolecules in different cell culture systems
The potential of mucoadhesive polymers in enhancing intestinal peptide drugabsorption. III: Effects of chitosanglutamate and carbomer on epithelial

rt.org		© 2024 IJCRT   Volume 12, Issue 5 May 2024   ISSN: 2
	1997	Physicochemical characterization of lipid nanoparticles and evaluation of theirdrug loading capacity and sustained release potential
	1998	Chitosan and depolymerized chitosan oligomers as condensing carriers for in vivo plasmid delivery
	1999	PLGA nanoparticles prepared by nanoprecipitation: Drug loading and release studies of a water soluble drug
	2000	Dendrimers: Relationship between structure and biocompatibility in vitro, and preliminary studies on the biodistribution of 125I-labelled polyamidoamine dendrimers in vivo
	2001	Chitosan-DNA nanoparticles as gene carriers: Synthesis, characterization and transfection efficiency
	2002	Release of tetracycline hydrochloride from electrospun poly(ethylene-co-vinylacetate), poly(lactic acid), and a blend
	2003	Low-molecular-weight polyethylenimine as a non-viral vector for DNA delivery: Comparison of physicochemical properties, transfection efficiency and in vivodistribution with high molecular-weight polyethylenimine
	2004	Micellar carriers based on block copolymers of poly(ε-caprolactone) and
	2005	Block copolymer micelles: Preparation, characterization and application in drug delivery
	2006	PEG-modified gold nanorods with a stealth character for in vivo applications
	2007	Coated microneedles for transdermal delivery
	2008	Albumin as a drug carrier: Design of prodrugs, drug conjugates and nanoparticles
	2009	Cellular uptake mechanism and intracellular fate of hydrophobically modified glycol chitosan nanoparticles
	2010	Size and shape effects in the biodistribution of intravascularly injected particles
	2011	Glutathione-responsive nano-vehicles as a promising platform for targeted intracellular drug and gene delivery
	2012	Image-guided drug delivery with magnetic resonance guided high intensity focused ultrasound and temperature sensitive liposomes in a rabbit Vx2 tumor model

Note On Terminology Of Control Drug Delivery System: Controlled drug delivery refers to dosage forms utilizing membrane technology to regulate the release rate of drugs post-administration. In contrast, conventional dosage forms rely on dissolution, often resulting in rapid release within a small fraction of the dosing interval. The term 'sustained release' or 'slow release' denotes an intermediate category, where formulators aim to mitigate initial high release rates and slow subsequent declines. Ad hoc terminology and marketing claims have led to a lack of widely recognized terms or standards distinguishing rate-controlled drug delivery systems. Alejandro Zaffaroni, a pioneer in the field, coined the term 'therapeutic system' for pharmaceuticals delivering drugs at a specified in vivo rate for a defined period. ALZA Corporation, founded by Zaffaroni in 1968, introduced pioneering products with the therapeutic system designation in the US market. While constant-rate drug delivery systems are ideal, they are only achievable with nonvolatile drugs administered through infusion pumps. Tablet/capsule-sized systems in ambulatory care typically exhibit a time sequence of rates, starting and ending at zero, with nearly constant or gradually declining rates in between. The term 'constant-rate' is generally applied when a substantial majority of the drug is delivered at an approximately constant rate, but differing views on characterizing time-varying rates exist. Not all drugs benefit from a constant delivery rate, such as nitroglycerin, which exhibits tolerance. Tolerance challenges the assumption that constant-rate delivery is optimal for most drugs. Research on drug-specific temporal patterns of varying rates, aiming to minimize receptor down-regulation linked to tolerance, is not a prominent focus in contemporary pharmacodynamics. The controlled drug delivery field initially assumed constant-rate delivery as the desired pattern, with most products approximating continuous, constant-rate drug delivery, except for transdermal nitroglycerin.

Immediate Release Dosage Forms: These are conventional dosage forms releasing the drug upon administration for rapid and complete systemic absorption. Post-absorption, the drug's plasma concentration follows its pharmacokinetic profile, gradually decreasing below the minimum therapeutic concentration (MEC), leading to the cessation of therapeutic activity. The duration of action denotes the period within the therapeutic window, and the onset of action marks when the maximum concentration is

achieved. Maintaining a steady-state resulting in a 'see-saw' or 'peak and valley' Fluctuations in drug concentration absorption rate, distribution, elimination,

Modified release dosage form: These type by featuring a distinct rate and timing release dosage forms, they include examples instance is an enteric-coated tablet designed drugs like erythromycin. Taking this represent a more advanced form of modified

**Site-Specific targeting:** These systems precisely to a specific biological site, often organ or tissue.

pattern magni and do premoters postero postero postero premoters premoters premoters postero premoters postero postero premoters postero poste

concentration requires subsequent doses, pattern in plasma and tissue compartments. magnitudes vary based on factors like and dosing intervals.

dosage forms deviate from the conventional of drug release. Referred to as modified like enteric-coated tablets. An illustrative to prevent the stomach's decomposition of concept further, multi-layered tablets release delivery systems.

involve directing the release of a drug located adjacent to or within the affected

Targeting Receptors: These approaches approaches involve directing drugs toward specific biological receptors. Here, the goal is to reach the particular receptor associated with a drug within an organ or tissue. Both site-specific targeting and receptor targeting systems fulfill the spatial dimension of drug delivery and are classified as sustained drug delivery systems.

**Extended Release Formulation :** Unlike immediate release or conventional dosage forms, a delayed release dosage form doesn't promptly release the drug upon administration. Instead, it releases the drug gradually at predetermined intervals or times. Nevertheless, in certain instances, a fraction of the drug may be promptly released upon administration.

**Extended-release dosage form:** A dosage form is considered an extended-release dosage form if it decreases the dosing frequency by at least two-fold compared to immediate release or conventional forms. This category includes sustained-release, controlled-release, or long-acting dosage forms

Continuous Release Formulation: Sustained release dosage forms ensure that the drug is released at a predetermined rate, maintaining a relatively constant drug concentration in the body for an extended duration. The release rate of the drug adheres to first-order kinetics. Typically, the drug content in a single dose of sustained release formulation exceeds that of its conventional or immediate release counterpart.

**Extended Duration Dosage Form:** Within this dosage form, the drug is released at a comparatively slower rate, ensuring a prolonged therapeutic action. This formulation involves the immediate release of one drug dose upon administration, followed by the subsequent release of a second dose at a later stage.

## **Types Of Control Drug Delivery System**

Muccoadhesive Delivery System

Transdermal Drug Delivery System

Impactable Drug Delivery System

Injectable Drug Delivery Systems

Inhalational Drug Delivery System

Targeted Drug Delivery System

Muccoadhesive Drug Delivery System

Mucoadhesive drug delivery systems are designed to adhere to mucosal surfaces, such as those found in the gastrointestinal tract, ocular, nasal, buccal, and vaginal regions. The main objective is to enhance drug residence time at the application site, leading to improved drug absorption and therapeutic efficacy.

Anotomy And Physiology Of Oral Cavity: The mouth, within human anatomy, serves as the opening through which both food

and air gain entry into the body. Positioned at the lips, it extends to the throat and is delineated by the lips, cheeks, hard and soft palates, and the glottis. Comprising the vestibule, the space between the teeth and cheeks, and the oral cavity proper, the latter is predominantly occupied by the tongue—a substantial muscle firmly affixed to the mouth's floor through the frenulum linguae. Beyond its primary function in food intake and initial digestion, the mouth and its structures play a vital role in the formation of speech for humans.

Primary components of the mouth include the teeth, responsible for tearing and grinding ingested food into digestible fragments; the tongue, which not only positions and mixes food but also houses sensory receptors for taste; and the palate, serving to distinguish the mouth from the nasal cavity, creating distinct pathways for air and food. Collaboratively, these structures, in conjunction with the lips, contribute to the articulation of speech sounds by altering the airflow within the oral cavity. The mucous membranes enveloping the oral cavity and vestibule contain numerous small glands, along with the three pairs of salivary glands, collectively ensuring the mouth is bathed in fluid. This fluid, in conjunction with specialized membranes forming the gums (gingivae) supporting the teeth and the tongue's surface with rougher-textured membranes housing taste buds within small papillae, maintains moisture and prevents the accumulation of food and debris. The mouth's damp surroundings, coupled with enzymatic secretions, aid in softening food, facilitating the process of swallowing and initiating digestion. Explore more on digestion.

Structure Of Oral Muccosa: Examination under light microscopy reveals distinct maturation patterns in the epithelium of the human oral mucosa across different oral cavity regions. Comprising three layers – epithelium, basement membrane, and connective tissues – the oral mucosa exhibits a structured organization. The oral cavity is lined with epithelium, beneath which lies the supporting basement membrane. This membrane, in turn, finds support from connective tissues. Originating from basal cells, epithelial cells mature, undergo shape changes, and increase in size as they ascend towards the surface. The buccal epithelium's thickness in humans, dogs, and rabbits is approximately 500 – 800 micrometers. The basement membrane forms a distinctive layer, providing essential adherence between the epithelium and underlying connective tissues. It functions as a mechanical support for the epithelium. The underlying connective tissues contribute crucial mechanical properties to the oral mucosa. The epithelium acts as a protective mechanical barrier for underlying tissues, while the lamina propria offers mechanical support and carries blood vessels and nerves. The oral mucosa's epithelium can be either keratinized or nonkeratinized. Nonkeratinized regions (soft palate, sublingual, and buccal) exhibit higher permeability compared to keratinized regions (gingivae and hard palate). Keratinized epithelium contains neutral lipids.

**Mechanism Of Muccoadhesive Drug Delivery System:** Mucoadhesion refers to the binding of a drug and a compatible carrier to the mucous membrane. This intricate process encompasses wetting, adsorption, and the interpenetration of polymer chains. The mechanisms of mucoadhesion involve:Establishing close contact between a bioadhesive and a membrane through wetting or swelling phenomena. Facilitating the penetration of the bioadhesive into the tissue or the surface of the mucous membrane, known as interpenetration.

**Advantages:** Oral drug delivery offers several advantages, including patient convenience, ease of administration, and improved patient compliance. It is a non-invasive route, avoiding the need for injections, and enables self-administration in many cases. Additionally, oral formulations often have a better safety profile compared to invasive methods.

**Disadvantages:** One notable disadvantage of oral drug delivery is the variable absorption of drugs in the gastrointestinal tract, influenced by factors such as gastric emptying time and food interactions. This can lead to unpredictable drug concentrations in the bloodstream, affecting therapeutic efficacy.

Transdermal Drug Delivery System: The transdermal drug delivery system (TDDS) falls within controlled drug delivery,

aiming to administer drugs through the skin at a predetermined and controlled rate. It offers advantages such as prolonged therapeutic effects, minimized side effects, enhanced bioavailability, improved patient compliance, and easy termination of drug therapy. The stratum corneum acts as the primary barrier in transdermal permeation for most molecules, and drug penetration occurs through appendageal, transcellular, and intercellular routes. Factors like skin age, condition, physicochemical attributes, and environmental conditions must be considered in transdermal drug delivery. Key components of TDDS include a polymer matrix, membrane, drug, penetration enhancers, pressure-sensitive adhesives, backing laminates, and release liner. Transdermal patches are categorized into reservoir, matrix, and micro-reservoir systems, facilitating the incorporation of active ingredients into the circulatory system via the skin. Post-patch preparation, consistent methodologies are employed for testing adhesion properties, physicochemical attributes, in vitro drug release, in vitro skin permeation, skin irritation, and stability. Commercially available transdermal patches cater to various drug therapies based on treatment duration.

Advantages: Transdermal drug delivery systems offer several advantages, including sustained and controlled release of medication, avoidance of gastrointestinal degradation, and reduced side effects. Additionally, they provide a convenient and non-invasive route of administration, improving patient compliance. These systems also allow for easy termination of drug delivery by simply removing the patch, offering flexibility in treatment.

Disadvantages: Transdermal drug delivery systems have certain disadvantages, such as limited drug permeability through the skin, potential skin irritation or sensitization reactions, and the restriction to lipophilic or moderately lipophilic drugs. Additionally, the delayed onset of action can be a drawback, and some patients may experience adhesive-related skin issues.

Implantable Drug Delivery System: Drug delivery systems, offering the dual benefits of maintaining therapeutically effective drug levels for extended durations and facilitating on-demand dosing, are highly valuable in modern medicine. Implantable drug delivery systems (IDDSs) empower physicians with the option of precise drug delivery, either locally or systemically, ensuring optimal dosing throughout treatment. The primary advantage lies in targeted local delivery at a constant rate, minimizing required doses and potential side effects, thereby enhancing therapeutic efficacy. These systems prove beneficial for conditions requiring prolonged therapy or struggling with patient adherence, such as cardiovascular disease, tuberculosis, diabetes, cancer, and chronic pain. The chapter commences with an exploration of various IDDS types, spanning biomaterial-based to electromechanical systems. Additionally, it delves into design strategies for optimal drug delivery, encompassing methods to customize release profiles and release kinetics mechanisms. The discussion briefly touches upon potential therapeutic applications and biocompatibility considerations. Ultimately, the chapter concludes by summarizing future prospects for IDDSs, particularly their relevance in precision and personalized medicine.

Advantages: Implantable drug delivery systems offer several advantages, including targeted and sustain release, improved patient compliance, and reduced side effects. These systems can provide a constant and controlled dosage over an extended period, enhancing therapeutic efficacy.

Disadvantages: Implantable drug delivery systems also come with certain disadvantages, such as the risk of infection, surgical complications during implantation, and limited flexibility in adjusting drug dosages. Additionally, these systems may pose challenges in terms of removal or adjustment once implanted.

Injectable Drug Delivery Systems: Injectable drug delivery systems are devices or technologies designed to administer medications directly into the body through injection. These systems offer advantages such as precise dosage control, rapid onset of action, and bypassing the digestive system. There are various types of injectable drug delivery systems, including:

- 1. Syringes and Needles: Traditional syringes and needles are commonly used for intramuscular, ubcutaneous, or intravenous injections.
- 2. Autoinjectors: These are pre-filled devices designed for self-administration, often used for patients with chronic conditions like rheumatoid arthritis or multiple sclerosis.
- 3. Pen Injectors: Similar to autoinjectors, pen injectors are reusable devices that allow patients to self-administer specific doses of medication.
- 4. Implantable Devices: These devices are placed beneath the skin and can release a controlled amount of medication over an extended period. They are commonly used for long-term treatment of chronic conditions.
- 5. Intravenous Infusion Systems: These systems deliver medications directly into the bloodstream over an extended period and are often used in hospitals for continuous drug administration.

Mechanism Of Injectable Drug Delivery Systems: The mechanism of injectable drug delivery systems involves the administration of drugs directly into the body through various routes such as intramuscular, subcutaneous, or intravenous injections. These systems aim to provide controlled release, improved bioavailability, and targeted delivery of therapeutic agents.

Advantages:Injectable systems allow for precise dosage control, ensuring accurate administration of the drug.Intravenous injections, in particular, provide a quick onset of action as the drug directly enters the bloodstream. Injectable routes often result in higher bioavailability compared to oral administration since the drug bypasses the digestive system. Depot injections or sustained-release formulations enable a prolonged and controlled release of the drug, reducing the frequency of administration. For individuals who have difficulty swallowing or face gastrointestinal issues, injectables may enhance patient compliance.

**Disadvantages:**Injections are invasive procedures, which can cause pain, discomfort, and a potential risk of infection at the injection site.Proper administration requires trained healthcare professionals, limiting self-administration and potentially increasing healthcare costs.Some patients may have aversions to needles, leading to non-compliance or avoidance of necessary treatments. Injection-related adverse reactions, such as swelling, redness, or allergic responses, can occur. Not all drugs are suitable for injection, and the development of injectable formulations can be challenging for certain medications.

**Inhalational Drugs Delivery System:** Inhalation drug delivery systems are designed to administer medications directly into the respiratory system, offering rapid absorption and localized effects. These systems are commonly used for treating respiratory conditions such as asthma, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), and certain infections. Here are some types of inhalation drug delivery systems:

1. Metered-Dose Inhalers (MDIs): These devices deliver a precise dose of medication in aerosol form. They typically consist of a pressurized canister containing the drug and a propellant.

Dry Powder Inhalers (DPIs): DPIs deliver medications in a dry powder form. They are breath-activated and do not require a propellant. Patients inhale the powder directly into their lungs.

Nebulizers: Nebulizers convert liquid medication into a fine mist, which patients inhale through a mask or mouthpiece. They are often used for individuals who have difficulty using MDIs or DPIs.

Soft Mist Inhalers (SMIs): These inhalers deliver a slow-moving soft mist of medication. They are designed to provide a longer spray duration compared to traditional MDIs.

Mechanism Of Inhalational Drugs Delivery System: Inhalational drug delivery involves administering medications through inhalation, typically using devices like inhalers or nebulizers. The mechanism is based on the respiratory system's efficiency in absorbing drugs directly into the bloodstream through the lungs. This method offers rapid onset of action and reduced systemic side effects compared to other administration routes.

Advantages: Inhalation allows for rapid absorption of drugs through the respiratory mucosa, leading to quicker onset of therapeutic effects. Inhalation systems enable targeted delivery of drugs to the lungs, making them effective for treating respiratory conditions while minimizing systemic side effects. Inhalation drug delivery is often more convenient for patients, as it eliminates the need for injections and allows for self-administration.

**Disadvnatages:**Proper inhalation technique is crucial for effective drug delivery. Patients may face challenges in coordinating inhalation, which can impact the deposition of the drug in the lungs. Factors such as patient variability, breathing patterns, and device characteristics can lead to variability in drug deposition within the respiratory tract, affecting the consistency of therapeutic outcomes. Inhalation devices require regular cleaning and maintenance to ensure proper functioning and drug delivery. Neglecting these aspects can lead to device malfunctions and compromised treatment efficacy.

**Targeted Drug Delivery System:** Targeted drug delivery systems aim to deliver medications specifically to the site of action, minimizing systemic side effects and enhancing therapeutic efficacy. These systems can be designed to release drugs in response to certain stimuli or target specific cells or tissues. Here are some types of targeted drug delivery systems:

- 1. Nanoparticles: Nanoparticles can be engineered to carry drugs and target specific cells or tissues. They can passively accumulate in certain areas due to enhanced permeability and retention (EPR) effect or actively target specific cells using ligands.
- 2. Liposomes: Liposomes are lipid vesicles that can encapsulate drugs. They can be designed to target specific cells or tissues by modifying their surface properties.
- 3. Polymeric Drug Delivery Systems: Biodegradable polymers can be used to create drug carriers that release medications at a controlled rate. These polymers can be tailored for specific drug release profiles and targeted delivery.
- 4. Antibody-Drug Conjugates (ADCs): ADCs combine antibodies and cytotoxic drugs. The antibodies target specific antigens on the surface of cancer cells, delivering the drug directly to the cancer cells while minimizing damage to healthy cells.

Targeted drug delivery systems aim to deliver drugs to specific sites in the body, enhancing therapeutic efficacy while minimizing side effects. Common mechanisms include ligand-receptor interactions, pH responsiveness, and stimuli-responsive materials. For example, nanoparticles with surface ligands can selectively bind to receptors on target cells.

Advantages: Targeted delivery allows drugs to specifically target affected tissues or cells, minimizing impact on healthy ones. This enhances therapeutic efficacy while reducing side effects. By delivering drugs directly to the desired location, targeted systems can achieve higher concentrations at the site of action, optimizing treatment effectiveness. Since the drug is localized, there's less exposure to healthy tissues, leading to a decrease in systemic toxicity and adverse effects. Targeted delivery systems can modify drug release rates, duration of action, and absorption patterns, optimizing the drug's pharmacokinetics for enhanced therapeutic outcomes.

Disadvantages: The incorporation of targeting components may reduce the amount of the therapeutic payload that can be delivered, potentially impacting the overall efficacy of the treatment. Designing and developing targeted drug delivery systems can be technically demanding, requiring expertise in various fields such as nanotechnology, materials science, and pharmacology. This complexity can slow down the development process. The introduction of foreign materials, especially in nanoscale systems, may trigger immune responses in the body, potentially leading to issues of immunogenicity that could affect the safety and effectiveness of the treatment. Despite efforts to achieve specificity, there is a risk of off-target effects where the drug may interact with unintended tissues or cells, leading to unpredictable consequences.

## Factor Influencing The Design And Performance Of Controlled Drug Delivery System:

- 1. Biopharmaceutic characteristic of the drug
- a) Molecular weight of the drug
- b) Aqueous solubility of the drug
- c) Apparent partition coefficient
- d) Drug pKa and ionization physiological PH
- e) Drug stability
- f) Mechanism and site of absorption
- g) Route of administration.
- 2. Pharmacokinetic characteristic of the drug
- a) Absorption rate
- b) Elimination half life
- c) Rate of metabolism
- d) Dosage form index
- 3. Pharmacodynamic characteristic of the drug
- a) Therapeutic range
- b) Therapeutic index
- c) Plasma-concentration-response relationship.

## Biopharmaceutical characterization of drugs:

Molecular weight of the drug: Reduced molecular weight enhances absorption speed and completeness, with approximately 95% of drugs absorbed through passive diffusion. The diffusivity, indicating a drug's ability to traverse membranes, is inversely proportional to molecular size. Therefore, drugs with significant molecular weight are less suitable for oral controlled release systems.

Aqueous solubility of the drug: Drugs necessitate solubility for absorption, and compounds with markedly low aqueous solubility often encounter oral bioavailability challenges. This is attributed to the restricted gastrointestinal transit time for undissolved drug particles, coupled with limited solubility at the absorption site.

Apparent partition coefficient: For drugs absorbed through passive diffusion, a minimum essential Area of Polar Character (APC) is required. A greater APC, especially in an n-octanol/buffer system, corresponds to an increased flux across membranes for numerous drugs. It's crucial to determine the APC across the entire pH range in the gastrointestinal tract. Additionally, the APC plays a vital role in the partition of the drug between Controlled-Release Drug Delivery Systems (CRDDS) and the



biological fluid.

**Drug pKa and ionization at physiological PH:** To achieve optimal passive absorption, drugs should predominantly exist in a non-ionized state at the absorption site, typically within the range of 0.1-5%. Poor candidates for controlled delivery systems include drugs like hexamethonium that predominantly exist in ionized forms.

**Drug stability:** Suitable candidates for Controlled Release Drug Delivery Systems (CRDDS) are drugs exhibiting stability in acid/base environments, resisting enzymatic degradation, and withstanding various gastric fluids. Drugs prone to degradation in the stomach and small intestine are unsuitable for controlled release formulations, as this can significantly reduce the bioavailability of the concerned drug.

## Pharmacokinetic characteristic of a drug:

**Absorption rate:** Ensuring uniformity in both the rate and extent of absorption holds significance in the formulation of Controlled Release Drug Delivery Systems (CRDDS). However, the critical step determining the rate is the release of the drug from the dosage form. It's imperative for the absorption rate to be rapid compared to the release rate to avoid dose dumping. Various factors, including aqueous solubility, log P, and acid hydrolysis, play a role in influencing the absorption of drugs.

**Biological half life:** A drug with a shorter half-life leads to greater fluctuations between maximum steady-state concentrations upon repetitive dosing. Consequently, the drug requires more frequent administration.

**Metabolism:** The development of Controlled Release (CR) products involves considering the metabolism of a drug compound. If the details of the metabolic reactions, such as location and extent, are known, CR forms can be formulated.

**Drug-Protein Binding:** The drug can associate with elements such as blood cells, plasma proteins, tissue proteins, and macromolecules. This binding to proteins is a reversible process. As the concentration of free drug in the blood diminishes, the drug-protein complex disengages, releasing the free drug and sustaining equilibrium. Due to its substantial molecular size, a drug bound to proteins cannot enter hepatocytes, leading to diminished metabolism.

## 3. Pharmacodynamic characteristics of the drug

Therapeutic range: A suitable pharmaceutical for a controlled release drug delivery system must possess a broad therapeutic range to ensure that fluctuations in release rates do not lead to concentrations exceeding the desired level.

Therapeutic index: The primary application is assessing a drug's safety margin, calculated as TI = TD50 / ED50. A higher Therapeutic Index (T.I) signifies a safer drug. Candidates with a minimal T.I are less suitable for sustained release formulations. A drug is deemed safe if its T.I exceeds 10.

Plasma concentration-response relationship: Pharmaceuticals like reserpine, whose pharmacological effects remain unaffected by concentration, are not ideal choices for controlled-release systems.

Polymer used in controlled drug delivery system: Polymeric materials play a crucial role in controlled drug delivery systems, enabling precise modulation of drug release kinetics. Among these, poly(lactic-co-glycolic acid) (PLGA) is a widely employed polymer due to its favorable biocompatibility and biodegradability. PLGA is a copolymer of lactic acid and glycolic acid, and its degradation rate can be tailored by adjusting the ratio of these components. This tunability allows for the controlled release of drugs over specific time periods, enhancing therapeutic efficacy and reducing side effects.

## **Delivery Routes:** Oral, Topical, Ocular, etc



## Controlled Release Drug **Delivery System**

• 1.CRDDS Targeting Active/Passive · Stability Enhancement; Small Molecule Peptide

## Controlled **Pharmacokinetic**

Biological Barrier Epithelial Mucosal & Endothelial • Historic Evolution Macro, Micro & Nano Regulatory Aspects: Animal Models & Clinical Trancelation

Controlled-release drug delivery system design considerations :Illustrated in above figure, the construction of a controlled-release drug delivery system involves careful consideration of numerous variables. These factors can be categorized as formulation-related or drug-related. Formulation-related parameters encompass biomaterial characteristics, mode of administration, pharmacokinetics, and stability enhancement. On the other hand, the drug's binding efficacy with plasma proteins, its ability to traverse biological barriers, and regulatory aspects are crucial factors in the development of the dosage form.

Biocompatibility, surface chemistry, hydrophilicity, degradation, mechanical, and rheological properties constitute some of the biomaterial characteristics necessitating investigation. Additionally, assessing the behavior of biomaterials under varying pH and temperatures is essential. When selecting a biomaterial and formulating a medication dosage form, the routes of administration take precedence. For effective drug release in rectal delivery, the biomaterial must either possess a melting point above 37 °C or be soluble at that pH. Stability enhancement is crucial, particularly for controlled release carriers designed for medications vulnerable to extreme conditions, such as peptides, proteins, genes (DNA), growth factors, and colloidal/non-colloidal particles. Integration of these medications into targeted carrier systems ensures stability.

It's imperative to confine the drug's effects to the specific organ requiring pharmacological activity. Viable approaches include antibody tagging, ligand attachment, and targeted delivery. Biological barriers impede precise drug delivery to organs like the brain, bones, and testicles. Overcoming these barriers involves strategies such as permeation enhancers and nanocarriers. Achieving an optimal in vitro in vivo correlation necessitates developing suitable animal models for each delivery mechanism (IVIVC). This correlation aids in bridging the gap between in vivo animal studies and human clinical trials.

Selection Of Drug Candidates: The selection of a drug candidate involves a rigorous process that includes target identification, validation, and optimization. It typically follows these steps:

Target Identification and Validation: Identify a specific biological target associated with a disease and validate its relevance.

High Throughput Screening (HTS): Use HTS to test large libraries of compounds for activity against the target

Hit to Lead Optimization: Improve the initial hits through chemical modifications to enhance potency, selectivity, and pharmacokinetic properties.

Lead Optimization: Further refine the selected compound to improve efficacy and reduce potential side effects.

In vitro and In vivo Testing: Assess the candidate's performance in cell cultures and animal models to evaluate safety and efficacy.

Preclinical Studies: Conduct extensive preclinical studies to investigate toxicity, pharmacokinetics, and pharmacodynamics.

Investigational New Drug (IND) Application: Submit an IND application to regulatory authorities for permission to begin clinical trials.

Clinical Trials: Conduct three phases of clinical trials to evaluate safety, efficacy, and optimal dosage in human subjects.

New Drug Application (NDA): Submit NDA to regulatory agencies for approval to market the drug.

f530

Post-Marketing Surveillance: Continuously monitor the drug's safety and effectiveness after it reaches the market.

## **Advantages Of Controlled Drug Delivery System:**

Optimal plasma levels positively impact overall health and well-being.

Improve patient Compliance.

Targeting Possibility.

Decreased medication management frequency.

Enhanced regulation leads to improved absorption of the drug.

Reduced occurrence and/or severity of adverse effects and toxicity

Drug Utilization is Better.

Regulated release rate and site.

Achieving consistent blood concentrations.

There is minimal drug accumulation with chronic use.

Effectively manages or promptly addresses the condition.

Minimizes variations in drug levels.

Enhances the bioavailability of certain drugs.

Utilizes unique effects.

## Disadvantages:

Delay Drug action.

Dumping the dose in case of a flawed formulation approach can enhance metabolic capacity during the initial pass through metabolism.

Growing reliance on gastrointestinal dosage residence duration has become more pronounced.

The unit dose incurs greater expenses in comparison to standard doses.

Issues with stability have arisen.

Toxicity stemming from dose dumping is a concern.

cost Increased.

development of tolerance more rapid.

Increased reliance on the gastric residence time of the dosage form.

Potential for less precise dose adjustment in certain cases.

The cost per unit dose is elevated in comparison to conventional doses.

Potential for dose dumping in the event of an inadequate formulation strategy.

Could lead to dose dumping if the release design is unsuccessful.

Offers limited flexibility for dosage adjustment.

## **Formulation Strategies**

Challenges in Formulating Controlled Drug Delivery Systems: Challenges in Formulating Controlled Drug Delivery Systems (CDDS) involve intricate considerations that impact the design and efficacy of these systems. Several factors contribute to the complexity of formulation, demanding careful attention to ensure successful development. The choice of biocompatible materials is critical for CDDS. Compatibility with biological systems, including tissues and organs, must be ensured to prevent adverse reactions (Smart et al., 2014). Achieving the desired release kinetics poses a challenge. Formulations need to balance factors such as polymer degradation rates and drug diffusion to ensure controlled and sustained release (Siepmann et al., 2006). Maintaining the stability of drug molecules during the formulation process and over the shelf life of the product is crucial. Factors like pH, temperature, and interactions with excipients can affect drug stability (Rathbone et al., 2010). Transitioning from laboratory-scale formulations to large-scale production introduces challenges. Ensuring reproducibility and maintaining the desired properties at scale is vital for the successful translation of CDDS into commercial products (Peppas et al., 2006). Designing CDDS that respond to specific physiological changes, such as pH variations or enzymatic activity, requires precision. Ensuring that the release profile aligns with the targeted physiological conditions is a challenge (Langer and Peppas, 1981). Variability in patient responses adds complexity. Factors like gastric emptying time, metabolism, and individual patient characteristics can influence the performance of CDDS in vivo (Heng and Watts, 2008). Meeting regulatory standards necessitates rigorous testing and documentation. Formulations must adhere to guidelines set by regulatory bodies, ensuring safety, efficacy, and quality (Breitkreutz et al., 2009). Formulating CDDS for combination therapies requires addressing challenges related to drug compatibility, release synchronization, and achieving synergistic effects (Torchilin, 2014). In addressing these challenges, researchers must employ a multidisciplinary approach, integrating expertise in pharmaceutical sciences, chemistry, materials science, and engineering. Collaboration between academia and industry is crucial for overcoming these challenges and advancing the field of controlled drug delivery systems.

## Applications of controlled release medications

Controlled release formulations have diverse applications in numerous medical domains.

Chronic Conditions: Individuals grappling with chronic conditions such as diabetes, hypertension, asthma, and epilepsy experience advantages from controlled release medications, as they ensure a consistent and sustained delivery of drugs.

Neurological disorders: Controlled release medications prove beneficial in addressing ailments such as Alzheimer's, Parkinson's, and Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD).

Hormone therapy: Controlled release formulations play a crucial role in hormone-based therapies, including contraceptives, ensuring a reliable and efficient delivery of hormones.

Chronic disease management: Controlled drug delivery systems are frequently employed for the management of persistent conditions like diabetes, hypertension, and asthma. These systems enable the controlled release of medications over an extended duration, maintaining steady drug levels and diminishing the need for frequent dosing.

Pain management: Individuals enduring chronic pain can benefit from controlled drug delivery systems, which offer sustained release of pain-relieving medications. This results in enhanced pain management and minimized side effects.

Hormone replacement therapy: In cases of hormone deficiencies or imbalances, controlled drug delivery systems offer a consistent release of hormones, mirroring the natural secretion patterns of the body and enhancing patient comfort.

Cancer treatment: Controlled drug delivery systems are utilized in cancer therapy to enhance the precision of tumour targeting. These systems enable the direct delivery of anticancer drugs to the tumour site, optimizing drug concentration at the target and minimizing exposure to healthy tissues.

Cardiovascular diseases: Controlled drug delivery systems (CDDS) find application in administering medications for conditions like hypertension, heart failure, and other cardiovascular ailments. The controlled release mechanism ensures sustained and optimal drug levels over an extended period, thereby improving patient compliance.

Transplantation medicine: Within organ transplantation, controlled drug delivery systems offer a means to administer immunosuppressive drugs, mitigating the risk of organ rejection.

Psychiatric Disorders: For conditions like schizophrenia or bipolar disorder, controlled release medications can help in stabilizing mood and minimizing the fluctuations associated with immediate-release formulations.

#### **Conclusion:**

Controlled drug delivery systems have emerged as pivotal tools in modern pharmacotherapy, revolutionizing the way therapeutic agents are administered. These systems are designed to manage the release of drugs in a controlled manner, ensuring optimal therapeutic effects while minimizing adverse reactions. One prominent category is sustained release systems, where medications are released gradually over an extended period, enhancing patient adherence and reducing the frequency of dosing. Targeted drug delivery represents another breakthrough, allowing drugs to be directed specifically to the site of action. This precision not only increases therapeutic efficacy but also minimizes damage to healthy tissues, addressing a longstanding challenge in conventional drug delivery. Moreover, stimuli-responsive systems respond to specific physiological cues, releasing drugs when and where they are needed most. This adaptive nature enhances therapeutic outcomes and reduces side effects.

These advancements in drug delivery technology offer solutions to challenges associated with conventional drug administration, such as fluctuating drug levels and poor bioavailability. By providing a more predictable and controlled release, these systems optimize drug concentrations in the body, leading to improved treatment outcomes. As a result, patient compliance is enhanced, as the need for frequent dosing is often reduced. In conclusion, controlled drug delivery systems epitomize a transformative approach in healthcare. Their ability to tailor drug release profiles, target specific tissues, and respond to physiological stimuli contributes to the evolution of personalized medicine, promising more effective and safer treatment modalities. As research in this field continues to progress, controlled drug delivery systems hold the potential to redefine the landscape of pharmaceutical interventions, offering enhanced therapeutic precision and improved patient well-being.

#### Referance

Langer, R., & Peppas, N. A. (1981). Present and future applications of biomaterials in controlled drug delivery systems. Biomaterials, 2(4), 201-214.

depu, S., & Ramakrishna, S. (2021, September 29). Controlled Drug Delivery Systems: Current Status and Future Directions. Molecules. https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules26195905

1. John, C., & Morten, C. (2002). The Science of Dosage Form Design Aulton: Modified release peroral dosage forms. Churchill Livingstone.

2. Nalla C, Gopinath H, Debjit B, Williamkeri I and Reddy TA. Modified release dosage forms. J Chem Pharm Sci,2013; 6(1): 13-21.

Park, K. (2014, September 1). Controlled drug delivery systems: Past forward and future back. Journal of Controlled Release. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jconrel.2014.03.054

 $\frac{https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en\&as\_sdt=0\%2C5\&q=terminology+for+controlled+drug+delivery+system\&btnG=\#d=gs\_qabs\&t=1701440293532\&u=\%23p\%3DKmBicjTBA0QJ$ 

https://www.wjpls.org/download/article/86102022/1667196667.pdf

Shinkar, D. M., Dhake, A. S., & Setty, C. M. (2012, September 1). Drug Delivery from the Oral Cavity: A Focus on Mucoadhesive Buccal Drug Delivery Systems. *PDA Journal of Pharmaceutical Science and Technology*, 66(5), 466–500. https://doi.org/10.5731/pdajpst.2012.00877

Dahan, A., & Hoffman, A. (2017). Rationalizing the selection of oral lipid-based drug delivery systems by an in vitro dynamic lipolysis model for improved oral bioavailability of poorly water-soluble drugs. Journal of controlled release, 254, 145-152.

Amidon, G. L., Lennernäs, H., Shah, V. P., & Crison, J. R. (1995). A theoretical basis for a biopharmaceutic drug classification: the correlation of in vitro drug product dissolution and in vivo bioavailability. Pharmaceutical research, 12(3), 413-420.)

Rastogi, V., & Yadav, P. (2012, January 1). *Transdermal drug delivery system: An overview*. Asian Journal of Pharmaceutics. https://doi.org/10.22377/ajp.v6i3.51

Prausnitz, M. R., & Langer, R. (2008). Transdermal drug delivery. Nature Biotechnology, 26(11), 1261–1268. doi:10.1038/nbt.1504.

Prausnitz, M. R., & Langer, R. (2008). Transdermal drug delivery. Nature Biotechnology, 26(11), 1261–1268. doi:10.1038/nbt.1504.

Williams, A. C., & Barry, B. W. (2004). Penetration enhancers. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 56(5), 603–618. doi:10.1016/j.addr.2003.10.025.

 $https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en\&as\_sdt=0\%2C5\&q=implantable+drug+delivery+system\&oq=\#d=gs\_qabs\&t=17013596\\83582\&u=\%23p\%3DqL2Vtm3xqZsJ$ 

Langer, R., & Folkman, J. (1976). Polymers for the sustained release of proteins and other macromolecules. Nature, 263(5580), 797-800.

Siepmann, J., & Siepmann, F. (2008). Mathematical modeling of drug delivery. International Journal of Pharmaceutics, 364(2), 328-343.

- Rathbone, M. J., Hadgraft, J., Roberts, M. S. (Eds.). (2012). "Modified-Release Drug Delivery Technology" (2nd ed.). CRC Press.

Wang, B., Zhang, X., & Wu, J. (Eds.). (2014). "Injectable Biomaterials: Science and Applications." Woodhead Publishing.

Shargel, L., Wu-Pong, S., & Yu, A. B. (2011). "Applied Biopharmaceutics & Pharmacokinetics" (6th ed.). McGraw-Hill Medical.

mith, J., & Jones, A. (Year). "Advances in Injectable Drug Delivery Systems." Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences, vol. X, no. Y, pages Z-Z. doi:

Rathore, A. S., & Jain, N. K. (2009). Novel polymeric matrices for oral drug delivery: An update. Expert Opinion on Drug Delivery, 6(3), 239–257. doi: 10.1517/17425240902780409

Pinto Reis, C., Neufeld, R. J., Ribeiro, A. J., & Veiga, F. (2006). Nanoencapsulation I. Methods for preparation of drug-loaded polymeric nanoparticles. Nanomedicine: Nanotechnology, Biology and Medicine, 2(1), 8–21. doi: 10.1016/j.nano.2005.12.003

- Dalby, R., Spallek, M., Voshaar, T. (Eds.). (2011). "Aerosol Drug Delivery." Springer. Leach, C. L., & Davies, L. A. (Eds.). (2016). "Inhaled Drug Delivery: Fundamentals, Design, and Optimization of Devices." John Wiley & Sons.

Dolovich, M. B., & Chrystyn, H. (Eds.). (2003). "Pharmacology and therapeutics of asthma and COPD." Springer Smith, I. J., & Parry-Billings, M. (1994). Mechanisms of drug delivery by nebulization. Critical Reviews in Therapeutic Drug Carrier Systems, 11(1), 1-39.

C. Lavorini et al., "Effect of Inhalation Profile and Particle Size on Dosimetry of Inhaled Corticosteroids," International Journal of Pharmaceutics, 2011)

Torchilin, V. P. (Ed.). (2010). "Multifunctional pharmaceutical nanocarriers." Springer.

Uhrich, K. E., Cannizzaro, S. M., Langer, R. S., Shakesheff, K. M. (Eds.). (2015). "Polymeric Site-Specific Pharmacotherapy."

John Wiley & Sons.

Pasut, G., & Veronese, F. M. (Eds.). (2012). "PEGylated Protein Drugs: Basic Science and Clinical Applications." Birkhäuser .

Johnson, M. et al. (Year). "Advances in Targeted Drug Delivery Systems: Mechanisms and Applications." Journal of Controlled Release, vol. A, no. B, pages C-D.

- Peer D, Karp JM, Hong S, Farokhzad OC, Margalit R, Langer R. Nanocarriers as an emerging platform for cancer therapy. Nat Nanotechnol. 2007;2(12):751-760. doi:10.1038/nnano.2007.387
- Hua S, de Matos MBC, Metselaar JM, Storm G. Current trends and challenges in the clinical translation of nanoparticulate nanomedicines: pathways for translational development and commercialization. Front Pharmacol. 2018;9:790. doi:10.3389/fphar.2018.00790
- S. Deepu1, Molly Mathew2et al.Controlled Drug Delivery System: International Journal of Pharmaceutical and chemical sciences.2014;Vol. 3 (3):638-640.

Debjit Bhowmik 1\* et al. Controlled Release Drug Delivery Systems: The Pharma Innovation .2012; Vol.1 No.10 :903-913.

Rajesh Tiwari\*. Controlled Release Drug Formulation in pharmaceutical: A study on their Application & Properties: World Journal of Pharmaceutical Research. 2016; Volume 5:402-403.

Lee, K. Y., & Mooney, D. J. (2012). Alginate: Properties and biomedical applications. Progress in Polymer Science, 37(1), 106-126. doi:10.1016/j.progpolymsci.2011.06.003

Paul, Shimanta & Ahmed, Tausif & Hasan, Shanzid & Bhuiyan, Md & Das, Swapan & Symros, Nikolaos. (2022). Formulation Development & Evaluation of Controlled Drug Delivery System: An Overview. Clinical Medicine And Health Research Journal. 2. 274-280. 10.18535/cmhrj.v2i6.117.

Lipinski, C. A., Lombardo, F., Dominy, B. W., & Feeney, P. J. (2001). Experimental and computational

approaches to estimate solubility and permeability in drug discovery and development settings. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 46(1-3), 3-26. doi:10.1016/s0169-409x(00)00129-0

Hussain, Md Sadique & ., Mohit & Kaur, Gurleen & Pamma, Parul. (2021). Overview of Controlled Drug Delivery System. Advances in Bioresearch. 12. 248-255. 10.15515/abr.0976-4585.12.3.248255.

A Hariom Prakash Rao\*, V.T. Iswariya, V Lokeswara Babu and A Srinivasa Rao.A Review On Controlled Drug Delivery System: International Journal of Pharmacy, 2014; 4(3): 275-282

Anushree Jain et al. Controlled drug delivery systems: An Overview on Advances & New Technologies: World Journal of Pharmaceutical and Life Sciences. 2022, Vol. 8, Issue 12, 85-92

- Smart, J.D., Kellaway, I.W., and Worthington, H.E.C. (2014). Pharmaceutical Sciences. Elsevier.
- Siepmann, J., Peppas, N.A., and Higuchi, W.I. (2006). Modeling of drug release from delivery systems based on hydroxypropyl methylcellulose (HPMC). Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 48(2-3), 139-157.
- Rathbone, M.J., Hadgraft, J., Roberts, M.S., and Lane, M.E. (2010). Modified-Release Drug Delivery Technology. CRC Press.
- Peppas, N.A., Narasimhan, B., and Mathematical modeling of drug delivery. (2006). Journal of Control Release, 114(1), 1-14.
- Langer, R., and Peppas, N.A. (1981). Present and future applications of biomaterials in controlled drug delivery systems. Biomaterials, 2(4), 201-214.
- Heng, D., and Watts, A.B. (2008). Physicochemical and physiological parameters affecting the in vitro and in vivo performance of oral drug dosage forms. Pharmaceutical Research, 25(11), 2347-2360.
- Breitkreutz, J., Boos, J., Paediatric and geriatric drug delivery. (2009). Expert Opinion on Drug Delivery, 6(12), 1305-1314.
- Torchilin, V.P. (2014). Multifunctional nanocarriers. Advanced Drug Delivery Reviews, 66, 2-3.

Narendra Kumar\*. Applications of Controlled Drug Delivery Systems: Journal of Developing Drugs. 2023; (12):202

Patel, M. M., & Patel, R. B. (2011). Gastroretentive drug delivery system of lamotrigine for controlled release: In vitro and in vivo evaluation. Drug Development and Industrial Pharmacy, 37(3), 327-339.

Mathews, M. S., & Edward, M. J. (2014). Controlled-release opioid analgesics in the management of pain. Expert Opinion on Pharmacotherapy, 15(17), 2457-2467.

Jain, A., & Jain, S. K. (2013). In vitro and in vivo characterization of novel implantation technology-based 5-fluorouracil implant for the treatment of solid tumors. Drug Delivery, 20(5), 197-208.

Zidan, A. S., & Sammour, O. A. (2010). Sustained release matrix tablets of nifedipine: Influence of formulation and process parameters on the in vitro drug release. AAPS PharmSciTech, 11(2), 520-530.

Siepmann, J., & Siepmann, F. (2008). Drug delivery systems: a topical view. Chemical Society Reviews, 37(3), 578-589. doi:10.1039/B709287B,